

# CS-GY 6763 Lecture 5: Dimensionality Reduction

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NYU, Prof. Ainesh Bakshi

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- We will be very careful not to compress things too far.
- An extremely simple method known as Johnson-Lindenstrauss Random Projection pushes right up to the edge of how much compression is possible.

# Euclidean Dimensionality Reduction

## Lemma (Johnson-Lindenstrauss, 1984)

*For any set of  $n$  data points  $\mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_n \in \mathbb{R}^d$  there exists a linear map  $\Pi : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$  where  $k = O\left(\frac{\log n}{\epsilon^2}\right)$  such that for all  $i, j$ ,*

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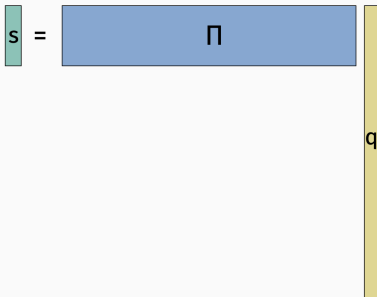
$$(1 - \epsilon)\|\mathbf{q}_i - \mathbf{q}_j\|_2 \leq \|\Pi\mathbf{q}_i - \Pi\mathbf{q}_j\|_2 \leq (1 + \epsilon)\|\mathbf{q}_i - \mathbf{q}_j\|_2.$$

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because for small  $\epsilon$ ,  $(1 + \epsilon)^2 = 1 + \Theta(\epsilon)$  and  $(1 - \epsilon)^2 = 1 - \Theta(\epsilon)$ .

**Make pretty much any computation involving vectors faster and more space efficient.**

- Faster vector search (used in image search, AI-based web search, Retrieval Augmented Generation (RAG), etc.).
- Faster machine learning (today we will see an application to speeding up clustering).
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**Only useful if we can explicitly construct a JL map  $\Pi$  and apply efficiently to vectors.**

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The map  $\Pi$  is **oblivious to the data set**. This stands in contrast to other vector compression methods you might know like PCA.

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Many other possible choices suffice – you can use random  $\{+1, -1\}$  variables, sparse random matrices, pseudorandom  $\Pi$ . Each with different advantages.

# Randomized JL Constructions

Let  $\Pi \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times d}$  be chosen so that each entry equals  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{k}}\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ .

... or each entry equals  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{k}} \pm 1$  with equal probability.

-2.1384	2.9888	-0.3538	0.0229	0.5201	-0.2938	-1.3320	-1.3617	-0.1952
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```
>> Pi = randn(m,d);  
>> s = (1/sqrt(m))*Pi*q;
```

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$$\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{Q}^T = \mathbf{I}_{k \times k}.$$

For this reason, the JL operation is often called a “random projection”, even though it technically is not a projection when  $\mathbf{\Pi}'$ s entries are i.i.d.

## Random Projection

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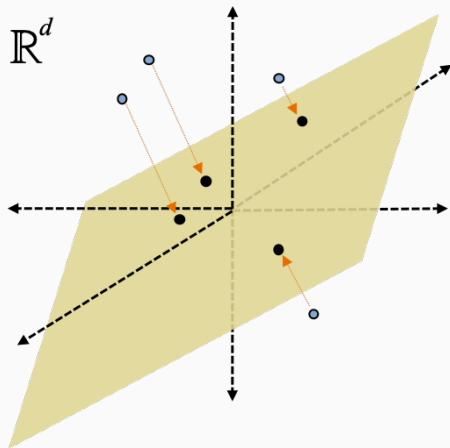
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Off-diagonal Entries of  $\Pi\Pi^T$ :

$$\mathbb{E}(\Pi\Pi^T)_{i,j} = \mathbb{E}\langle \Pi_{i,:}, \Pi_{j,:} \rangle = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{l=1}^d \mathbb{E}\text{Rad}(0.5) \cdot \mathbb{E}\text{Rad}(0.5) = 0$$

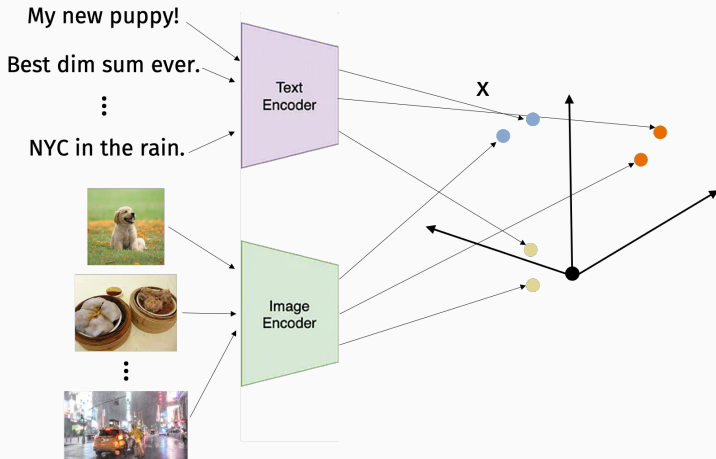
# Random Projection



**Intuition:** Multiplying by a random matrix mimics the process of projecting onto a random  $k$  dimensional subspace in  $d$  dimensions.

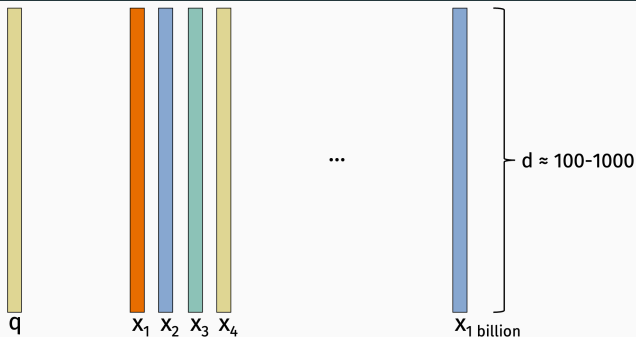


# Application: The New Paradigm for Search



Use neural network (BERT, CLIP, etc.) to convert documents, images, etc. to high dimensional vectors. Results matching search should have similar vector embeddings.

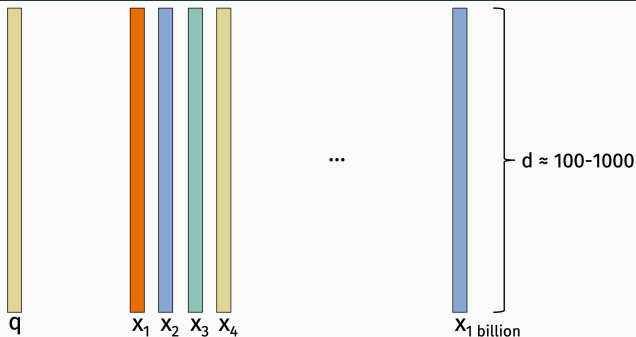
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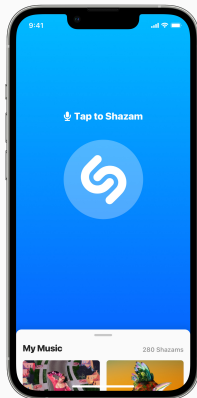
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**This is a massive algorithmic challenge!**

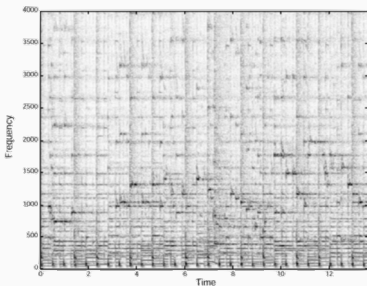
## Another Example of Vector Search

**Shazam** can match a song clip against a library of 20 million songs ( TB of data) in a fraction of a second. Whole system based on vector embeddings + search.

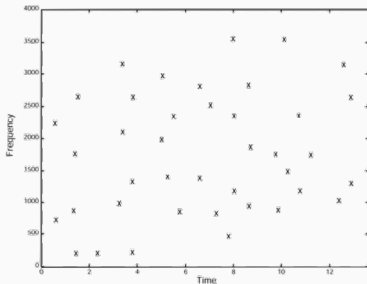


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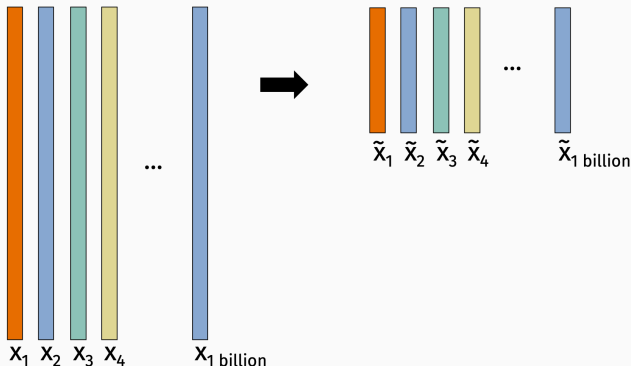
Spectrogram extracted from audio clip.



Processed spectrogram: used to construct audio “fingerprint”  
 $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ .

## Application: The New Paradigm for Search

Main computational cost is repeatedly computing  $\|\mathbf{q} - \mathbf{x}_i\|_2$  for candidate result  $\mathbf{x}_i$ .



Vector compression leads to faster distance computations. Not only is computational complexity reduced, but we can fit more database vectors in memory.

# Euclidean Dimensionality Reduction

## Lemma (Johnson-Lindenstrauss, 1984)

Let  $\mathbf{\Pi} \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times d}$  be chosen so that each entry equals  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{k}}\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ , where  $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$  denotes a standard Gaussian random variable.

If we choose  $k = O\left(\frac{\log(n)}{\epsilon^2}\right)$ , then with probability  $99/100$ , for for all  $i, j$ ,

$$(1 - \epsilon)\|\mathbf{q}_i - \mathbf{q}_j\|_2^2 \leq \|\mathbf{\Pi}\mathbf{q}_i - \mathbf{\Pi}\mathbf{q}_j\|_2^2 \leq (1 + \epsilon)\|\mathbf{q}_i - \mathbf{q}_j\|_2^2.$$

# Euclidean Dimensionality Reduction

## Intermediate result:

### Lemma (Distributional JL Lemma)

Let  $\mathbf{\Pi} \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times d}$  be chosen so that each entry equals  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{k}}\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ , where  $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$  denotes a standard Gaussian random variable.

If we choose  $k = O\left(\frac{\log(1/\delta)}{\epsilon^2}\right)$ , then for any vector  $\mathbf{x}$ , with probability  $(1 - \delta)$ :

$$(1 - \epsilon)\|\mathbf{x}\|_2^2 \leq \|\mathbf{\Pi x}\|_2^2 \leq (1 + \epsilon)\|\mathbf{x}\|_2^2$$

**Given this lemma, how do we prove the traditional Johnson-Lindenstrauss lemma?**



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By the Distributional JL Lemma, with probability  $1 - \delta$ ,

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We have a set of vectors  $\mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_n$ . Fix  $i, j \in 1, \dots, n$ .

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By the Distributional JL Lemma, with probability  $1 - \delta$ ,

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Want to argue that, with probability  $(1 - \delta)$ ,

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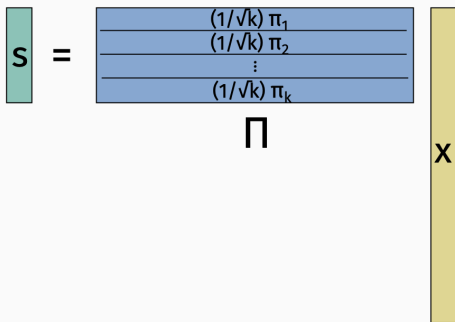
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**Claim:**  $\mathbb{E} \|\Pi \mathbf{x}\|_2^2 = \|\mathbf{x}\|_2^2$ .

Some notation:



So each  $\pi_i$  contains  $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$  entries.

## Proof of Distributional JL

**Intermediate Claim:** Let  $\pi$  be a length  $d$  vector with  $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$  entries.

$$\mathbb{E} [\|\Pi \mathbf{x}\|_2^2] = \mathbb{E} [(\langle \pi, \mathbf{x} \rangle)^2].$$

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# Stable Random Variables

What type of random variable is  $\langle \pi, \mathbf{x} \rangle$ ?

**Fact (Stability of Gaussian random variables)**

$$\mathcal{N}(\mu_1, \sigma_1^2) + \mathcal{N}(\mu_2, \sigma_2^2) = \mathcal{N}(\mu_1 + \mu_2, \sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2)$$

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So  $\mathbb{E}\|\boldsymbol{\Pi}\mathbf{x}\|_2^2 = \mathbb{E}\left[(\langle \boldsymbol{\pi}, \mathbf{x} \rangle)^2\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[\mathcal{N}(0, \|\mathbf{x}\|_2^2)^2\right] = \|\mathbf{x}\|_2^2$ , as desired.

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“Chi-squared random variable (squared Gaussian random variable)  
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*Let  $H$  be a Chi-squared random variable with  $k$  degrees of freedom.*

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## Connection to Earlier Part of Lecture

If high dimensional geometry is so different from low-dimensional geometry, why is dimensionality reduction possible?

Doesn't Johnson-Lindenstrauss tell us that high-dimensional geometry can be approximated in low dimensions?

## Connection to Dimensionality Reduction

**Hard case:**  $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n \in \mathbb{R}^d$  are all nearly orthogonal unit vectors:

$$\|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j\|_2^2 = 2 \quad \text{for all } i, j.$$

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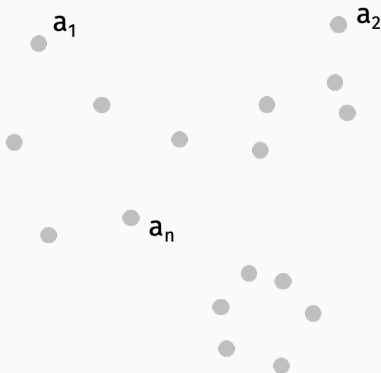
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$O(\log n / \epsilon^2)$  = just enough dimensions.

## Second Application

**k-means clustering:** Give data points  $\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_n \in \mathbb{R}^d$ , find centers  $\boldsymbol{\mu}_1, \dots, \boldsymbol{\mu}_k \in \mathbb{R}^d$  to minimize:

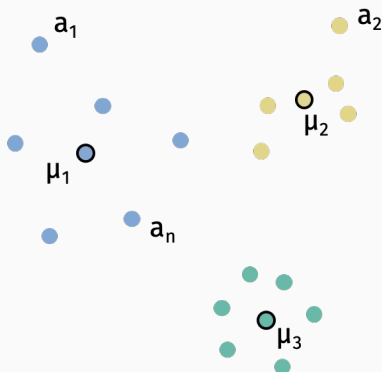
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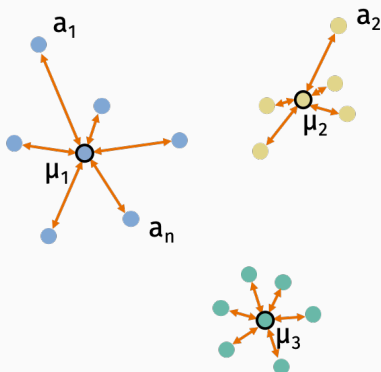
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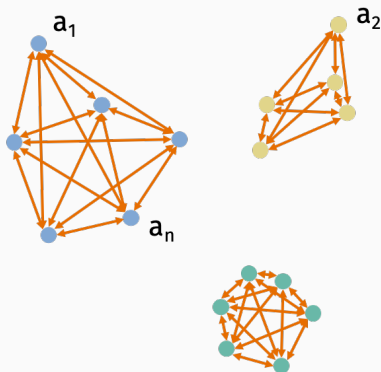
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# K-Means Clustering

**Equivalent form:** Find clusters  $C_1, \dots, C_k \subseteq \{1, \dots, n\}$  to minimize:

$$\text{Cost}(C_1, \dots, C_k) = \sum_{j=1}^k \frac{1}{2|C_j|} \sum_{u,v \in C_j} \|\mathbf{a}_u - \mathbf{a}_v\|_2^2.$$



**Exercise:** Prove this to your self.

## K-Means Clustering

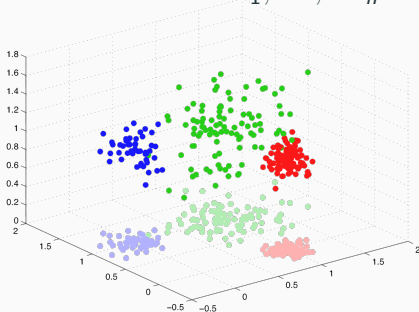
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# K-Means Clustering

NP-hard to solve exactly, but there are many good approximation algorithms. All depend at least linearly on the dimension  $d$ .

**Approximation scheme:** Find clusters  $\tilde{C}_1, \dots, \tilde{C}_k$  for the  $k = O\left(\frac{\log n}{\epsilon^2}\right)$  dimension data set  $\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_n$ .



Argue these clusters are near optimal for  $\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_n$ .

# K-Means Clustering

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Cost}(C_1, \dots, C_k) &= \sum_{j=1}^k \frac{1}{2|C_j|} \sum_{u, v \in C_j} \|\mathbf{a}_u - \mathbf{a}_v\|_2^2 \\ \widetilde{\text{Cost}}(C_1, \dots, C_k) &= \sum_{j=1}^k \frac{1}{2|C_j|} \sum_{u, v \in C_j} \|\Pi \mathbf{a}_u - \Pi \mathbf{a}_v\|_2^2 \end{aligned}$$

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Suppose we find the optimal clustering  $B_1, \dots, B_k$  in the low-dimensional space, i.e. :

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The Johnson-Lindenstrauss Lemma let us sketch vectors and preserve their  $\ell_2$  **Euclidean distance**.

We also have dimensionality reduction techniques that preserve alternative measures of similarity.

## Jaccard Similarity

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## Definition (Jaccard Similarity)

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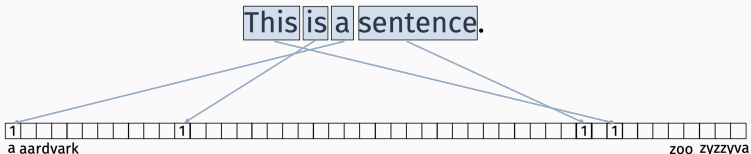
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**Example:**  $\mathbf{q} = [1, 0, 1, 0, 1]$ ,  $\mathbf{y} = [1, 1, 0, 0, 1]$ . Then  $J(\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{y}) = \frac{2}{4}$ .

# Jaccard Similarity for Document Comparison

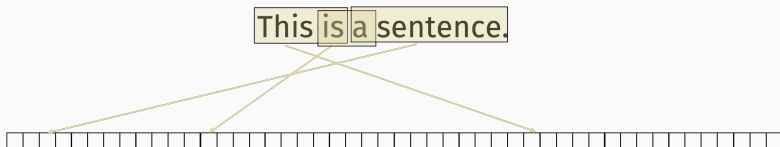
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# Jaccard Similarity for Document Comparison

**“Bag-of-words” model:**



How many bigrams do a pair of documents have in common?

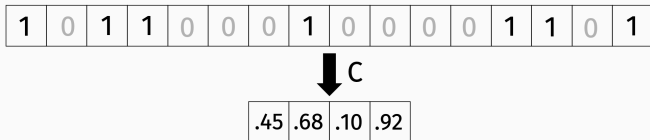
## Applications: Document Similarity

- Finding duplicate or new duplicate documents or webpages.
- Change detection for high-speed web caches.
- Finding near-duplicate emails or customer reviews which could indicate spam.



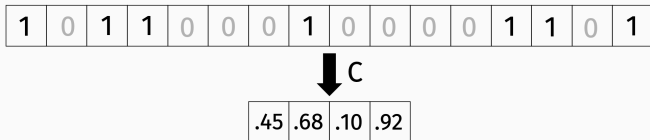
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Use  $C(\mathbf{q})$ ,  $C(\mathbf{y})$  to approximately compute the Jaccard similarity

$$J(\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{y}) = \frac{|\mathbf{q} \cap \mathbf{y}|}{|\mathbf{q} \cup \mathbf{y}|}.$$

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- Choose  $k$  random hash functions

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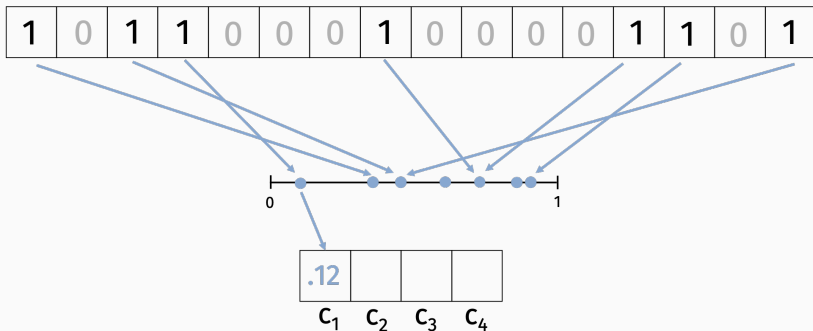
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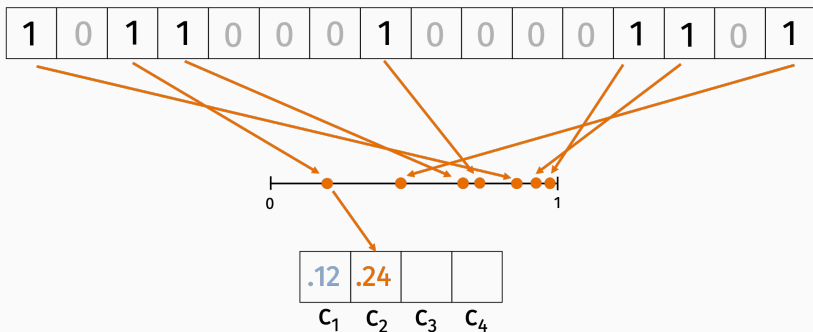


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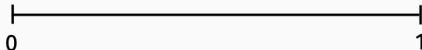
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**Claim:** For all  $i$ ,  $\Pr[c_i(\mathbf{q}) = c_i(\mathbf{y})] = J(\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{y}) = \frac{|\mathbf{q} \cap \mathbf{y}|}{|\mathbf{q} \cup \mathbf{y}|}$ .

<b>q</b>	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0
<b>y</b>	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	1

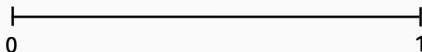




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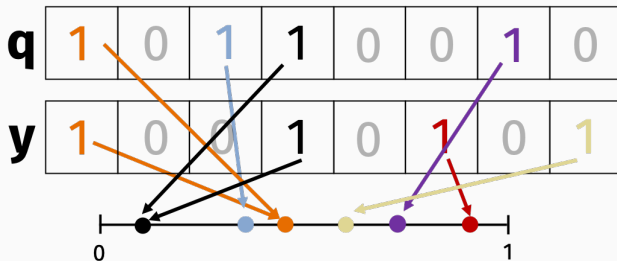
**Proof:**

1. For  $c_i(\mathbf{q}) = c_i(\mathbf{y})$ , we need that

$$\arg \min_{i: \mathbf{q}_i=1} h(i) = \arg \min_{i: \mathbf{y}_i=1} h(i)$$

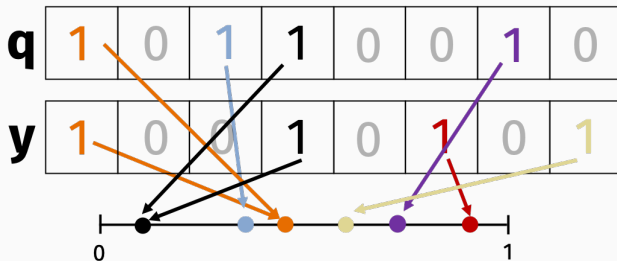
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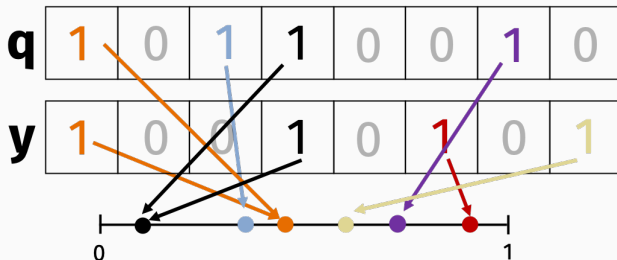
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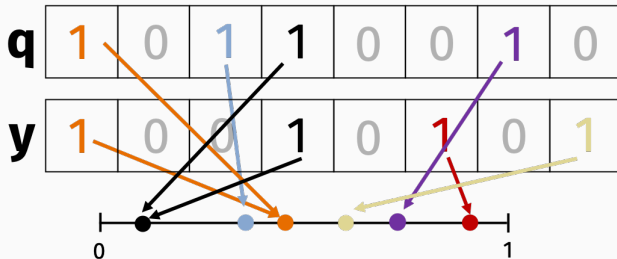
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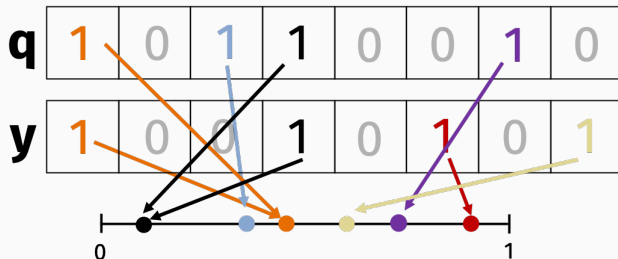
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2. Every colliding ball is equally likely to produce the lowest hash value. So:

$$\Pr[c_i(\mathbf{q}) = c_i(\mathbf{y})] = \frac{\# \text{ of colliding balls}}{\# \text{ of distinct balls}} = \frac{|\mathbf{q} \cap \mathbf{y}|}{|\mathbf{q} \cup \mathbf{y}|} = J(\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{y})$$

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Let  $J = J(\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{y})$  denote the Jaccard similarity between  $\mathbf{q}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$ .

**Return:**  $\tilde{J} = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^k \mathbb{1}[c_i(\mathbf{q}) = c_i(\mathbf{y})]$ .

**Example:**

$c(\mathbf{q})$	.12	.24	.76	.35
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**Unbiased estimate for Jaccard similarity:**

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The more repetitions, the lower the variance.

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Let  $J = J(\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{y})$  denote the true Jaccard similarity.

**Estimator:**  $\tilde{J} = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^k \mathbb{1}[c_i(\mathbf{q}) = c_i(\mathbf{y})]$ .

Observe,

$$\mathbb{1}[c_i(\mathbf{q}) = c_i(\mathbf{y})] = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{with probability } J \\ 0 & \text{with probability } 1 - J \end{cases}$$

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How large does  $k$  need to be so that with probability  $> 1 - \delta$ ,  
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$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[|J - \tilde{J}| \geq \alpha\sigma] &\leq \frac{1}{\alpha^2} \\ \implies \Pr[|J - \tilde{J}| \geq \alpha/\sqrt{k}] &\leq \frac{1}{\alpha^2} \quad (\text{set } 1/\alpha^2 = \delta) \\ \implies \Pr[|J - \tilde{J}| \geq 1/\sqrt{\delta k}] &\leq \delta \quad (\text{set } \sqrt{\frac{1}{\delta k}} = \epsilon) \end{aligned}$$

Suffices to set  $k = O\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon^2 \delta}\right)$ .

**Conclusion:** If  $k = \Theta\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon^2 \delta}\right)$ , then with prob.  $1 - \delta$ ,

$$J(\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{y}) - \epsilon \leq \tilde{J}(C(\mathbf{q}), C(\mathbf{y})) \leq J(\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{y}) + \epsilon.$$

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Can be improved to  $\log(1/\delta)$  dependence?