



程序代写 CS 编程辅导

COMP4121 Advanced Algorithms

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More randomised algorithms: Gaussian Annulus, Random Projection and Johnson

Lindenstrauss Lemma

Details to be found on pages 12-27 of the Blum, Hopcroft and Kannan textbook

Generating random points in d -dimensional spaces \mathbb{R}^d

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- Let us consider a Gaussian random variable X with zero mean ($E[X] = \mu = 0$) and variance $V[X] = v = 1/2\pi$: its density is given by



$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}v} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2v}} = e^{-\pi x^2}$$

- Assume that we use such X to generate independently the coordinates (x_1, \dots, x_d) of a random vector x from \mathbb{R}^d .

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- Since $E[X] = 0$ we have $E[X^2] = E[(X - E[X])^2] + V[X] = 1/2\pi$.

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- Thus, also $E\left[\frac{X_1^2 + \dots + X_d^2}{d}\right] = dV[X]/d = V[X]$.

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- Thus the expected value of the square of the length of such a random vector is $E[|x|^2] = d/2\pi$.

- So, on average, $|x| \approx \frac{\sqrt{d}}{\sqrt{2\pi}} = \Theta(\sqrt{d})$.

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$$\mathcal{P}\left(\left|\frac{x_1^2 + \dots + x_d^2}{d} - V[X]\right| > \varepsilon\right) \leq \frac{V[X^2]}{d\varepsilon^2}$$

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- This implies that, if d is large, then with high probability

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$$\frac{|x|^2}{d} \approx \frac{1}{2\pi} \Rightarrow |x| \approx \sqrt{\frac{d}{2\pi}} = \Theta(\sqrt{d})$$

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i.e., thus generated point is at a distance $\Theta(\sqrt{d})$ from the origin.

- If we chose 2 points independently

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$$E[\langle x, y \rangle] = E[x_1y_1 + \dots + x_dy_d] = dE[XY] = dE[X]E[Y] = 0$$

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- This means that the expected value of the scalar product of any two vectors with independently randomly chosen coordinates is zero.
- So, intuitively, vectors with randomly chosen coordinates have approximately the same length $\Theta(\sqrt{d})$ and any two such random vectors are likely to be almost orthogonal!

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High dimensional spaces are quite counter-intuitive!

- The above should hint that high dimensional spaces are quite counter-intuitive.



- We have to be careful to transfer our 3D intuition to high dimensional spaces

- We now show two strange facts about high dimensional balls:
 - Most of the volume of a high dimensional ball is near any of its equators. By this we mean that if we cut a high dimensional ball with any two parallel hyper-planes symmetric with respect to the center and close to the center, then most of the volume of the ball is between these two hyper-planes.
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 - Most of the volume of a high dimensional ball is near its surface. By this we mean that for a ball of radius r and a slightly smaller ball of radius $r(1 - \epsilon)$ than most of the volume of the bigger ball is in the annulus outside the smaller ball.
- These facts are not just curiosities, but have importance for algorithms we will study.

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- We first note that the volume of a sphere of radius r is proportional to r^d , in the sense that, if we denote by $V(d)$ the volume of the d -dimensional ball of radius 1, then the volume of a d -dimensional ball of radius r is equal to $r^d V(d)$. (This is clear from the fact that it is obtained by scaling a d -dimensional cube and it follows for any other solid by the exhaustion argument: we approximate the solid by a union of small disjoint hypercubes).
- This implies that the volume of a d -dimensional ball can be represented as the following integral:

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$$V(d) = \int_{-1}^{1} \left(\sqrt{1 - x_1^2} \right)^{d-1} V(d-1) dx_1$$

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Generating random points in d -dimensional spaces \mathbb{R}^d



- Let c be a constant. Consider the portion S of a unit ball consisting of all points such that their x_1 coordinate satisfies $x_1 \geq \frac{c}{\sqrt{d-1}}$.
- Let A be the volume of such a slice.
- Then
- (Recall that our goal is to show that two randomly and independently generated vectors are almost certainly almost orthogonal; to achieve this we need to perform some mumbo-jumbo whose purpose will be clear a bit later.)

$$A \int_{\frac{c}{\sqrt{d-1}}}^1 \left(\sqrt{1 - x_1^2} \right)^{d-1} V(d-1) dx_1$$

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- We need the inequality $x_i \leq c$ for all $0 \leq i \leq d-1$.
- For a proof, see the refresher notes on probability and statistics, available at the course web site.
- Using such an inequality we have



$$A = \int_{\frac{-c}{\sqrt{d-1}}}^{\frac{c}{\sqrt{d-1}}} \left(\sqrt{1 - x_1^2} \right)^{d-1} V(d-1) dx_1$$

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we obtain

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 $A < \int_{\frac{-c}{\sqrt{d-1}}}^{\frac{c}{\sqrt{d-1}}} e^{-x_1 \sqrt{d-1}} V(d-1) dx_1$

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- The purpose of adding this term is to allow substitution of variable x_1 with variable $u = x_1^2$; then $du = 2x_1 dx_1$.

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Generating random points in d -dimensional spaces \mathbb{R}^d

- Thus, with $u = x_1^2$ we have $du = 2x_1 dx_1$ and so, from

$$A < \frac{\sqrt{d-1}}{c} e^{-x_1^2 \frac{d-1}{2}} V(d-1) dx_1$$


we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} A &< \int_{\frac{c^2}{d-1}}^1 \frac{\sqrt{d-1}}{c} e^{-u \frac{d-1}{2}} V(d-1) \frac{1}{2} du \\ &< \frac{\sqrt{d-1}}{2c} V(d-1) \int_{\frac{c^2}{d-1}}^{\infty} e^{-u \frac{d-1}{2}} du \\ &= \frac{\sqrt{d-1}}{2c} V(d-1) \left. \frac{1}{\frac{d-1}{2}} e^{-u \frac{d-1}{2}} \right|_{u=\frac{c^2}{d-1}}^{u=\infty} \\ &= \frac{\sqrt{d-1}}{2c} V(d-1) \frac{1}{\frac{d-1}{2}} e^{-\frac{d-1}{2} \frac{c^2}{d-1}} \\ &= \frac{1}{c\sqrt{d-1}} V(d-1) e^{-\frac{c^2}{2}} \end{aligned}$$

- So we have obtained that the volume A of the slice S of the unit ball which lies above the hyperplane $x_1 = \frac{c}{\sqrt{d-1}}$ satisfies

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$$A < V(d-1) \frac{e^{\frac{-c}{2}}}{c\sqrt{d-1}}$$



- We now want to show that the volume A is small compared to half the volume of the entire ball. However, we do not want to use $V(d)$, we want an expression involving $V(d-1)$ which can cancel $V(d-1)$ in the above bound.
- Note that the volume of the whole hemisphere H is larger than the volume of a cylinder below the intersection of the ball and the plane $x_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{d-1}}$, which has the volume C which is the product of the $d-1$ dimensional “surface area” of its base which is equal to $V(d-1) \left(\sqrt{1 - \frac{1}{d-1}} \right)^{d-1}$ and its height which is $1/\sqrt{d-1}$.
- Thus, the volume C of the cylinder is

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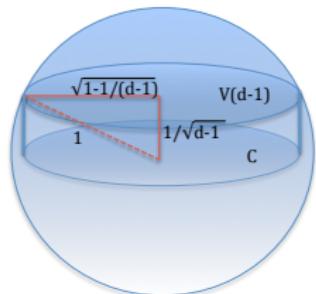
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$$\begin{aligned} C &= V(d-1) \left(\sqrt{1 - \frac{1}{d-1}} \right)^{d-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{d-1}} \\ &= V(d-1) \left(1 - \frac{1}{d-1} \right)^{\frac{d-1}{2}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{d-1}} \end{aligned}$$

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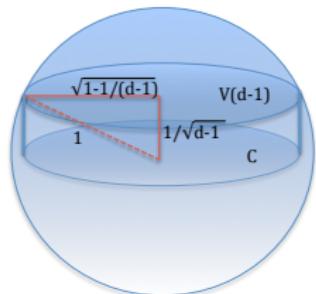
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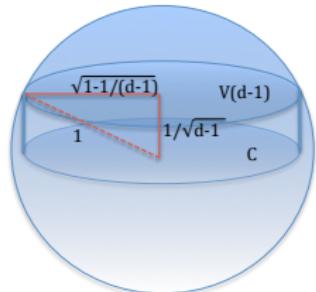


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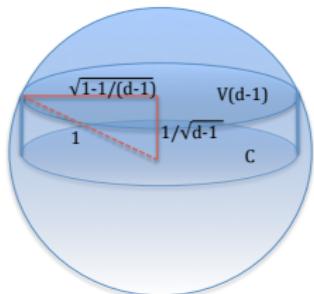
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- We now need yet another inequality: for all $\alpha > 1$ and all $0 < x < 1$,

$$(1 - x)^\alpha \geq 1 - \alpha x$$

(This inequality can be proved by considering $\beta(x) = (1 - x)^\alpha - 1 + \alpha x$; again, $\beta(0) = 0$ and $\beta'(x) = -\alpha(1 - x)^{\alpha-1} + \alpha = \alpha(1 - (1 - x)^{\alpha-1}) \geq 0$ which implies that $\beta(x)$ is non-decreasing and thus non-negative.)

- Applying the above inequality with $\alpha = (d - 1)/2$ and $x = 1/(d - 1)$ we obtain

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$$C = V(d-1) \left(1 - \frac{1}{d-1}\right)^{\frac{d-1}{2}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{d-1}}$$

$$\geq V(d-1) \left(1 - \frac{1}{d-1 - \frac{1}{2}}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{d-1}}$$

$$\geq V(d-1) \frac{1}{\frac{2\sqrt{d-1}}{2\sqrt{d-1} - 1}}$$

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- So we got that the volume A of the slice of the unit ball which is above the plane $x_1 = \frac{c}{\sqrt{d-1}}$ and the volume H of the whole hemisphere satisfy

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$$A < V(d-1) \frac{\frac{e^{\frac{c^2}{2}} - 1}{c\sqrt{d-1}}}{c\sqrt{d-1}}$$


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 $\frac{A}{H} < \frac{V(d-1) \frac{e^{\frac{c^2}{2}} - 1}{c\sqrt{d-1}}}{V(d-1) \frac{1}{2\sqrt{d-1}}} = \frac{e^{\frac{c^2}{2}} - 1}{c}$

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- Corollary:** If we pick uniformly at random a point from the unit ball, the probability that its coordinate x_1 satisfies $|x_1| > \frac{c}{\sqrt{d-1}}$ is less than $\frac{2}{c} e^{-\frac{c^2}{2}}$.
- This also means that the volume of the unit ball is between the hyperplanes $x_1 = -\frac{c}{\sqrt{d-1}}$ and $x_1 = \frac{c}{\sqrt{d-1}}$, i.e., near the equator.
- Also, the annulus consisting of all x such that $r \leq |x| \leq 1$ for $r < 1$ has volume $V(d) - r^d V(d) = V(d)(1 - r^d)$ so if d is large almost all of the volume of the unit ball is near its surface.

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$$\frac{A}{H} < \frac{V(d-1) \frac{e^{-\frac{c^2}{2}}}{c\sqrt{d-1}}}{V(d-1) \frac{1}{2\sqrt{d-1}}} = \frac{2}{c} e^{-\frac{c^2}{2}}$$

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- Corollary:** If we pick uniformly at random a point from the unit ball, the probability that its coordinate x_1 satisfies $|x_1| > \frac{c}{\sqrt{d-1}}$ is less than $\frac{2}{c} e^{-\frac{c^2}{2}}$.
- This also means that most of the volume of the unit ball is between the hyperplanes $x_1 = -\frac{c}{\sqrt{d-1}}$ and $x_1 = \frac{c}{\sqrt{d-1}}$, i.e., near the equator.
- Also, the annulus consisting of all x such that $r \leq |x| \leq 1$ for $r < 1$ has volume $V(d) - r^d V(d) = V(d)(1 - r^d)$ so if d is large almost all of the volume of the unit ball is near its surface.

- If we randomly and independently choose 2 points x, x' from the unit ball, we can rotate the ball so that x is in the direction of x_1 coordinate.
- Thus, the above two facts guarantee that with high probability $|x| \approx 1$ and $|x'| \approx 1$ as well as that the projection of x' onto x has, with high probability $\geq 1 - \frac{2}{c}e^{-\frac{c}{d}}$, a value smaller than $\frac{c}{\sqrt{d-1}}$, i.e., that x and x' are almost orthogonal.
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The purpose is to reduce the dimension of the space.

- **Theorem:** Assume we draw independently and uniformly n points x_1, \dots, x_n from the unit ball.

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Then with probability $1 - \frac{3}{2} \frac{1}{n}$ for all $1 \leq i, j \leq n, i \neq j$,

$$① 1 \geq |x_i| > 1 - \frac{2}{d},$$

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- Thus, taking $\varepsilon = \frac{2 \ln n}{d}$ that for each i

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- Thus, the probability that $|x_i| < 1 - \frac{2 \ln n}{d}$ for at least one i is less than $n \cdot \frac{1}{n^2} = \frac{1}{n}$. This reasoning is called the *Union bound*.

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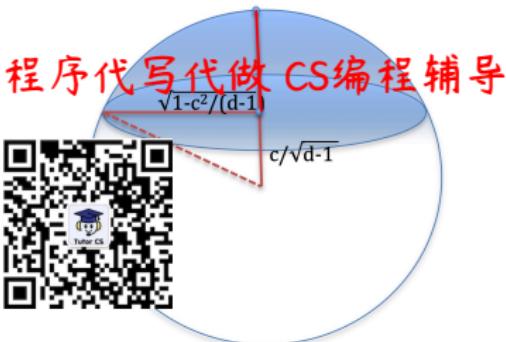
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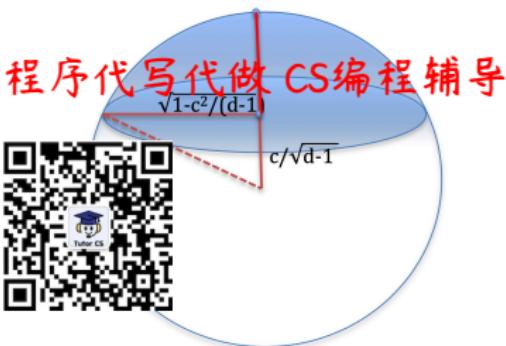
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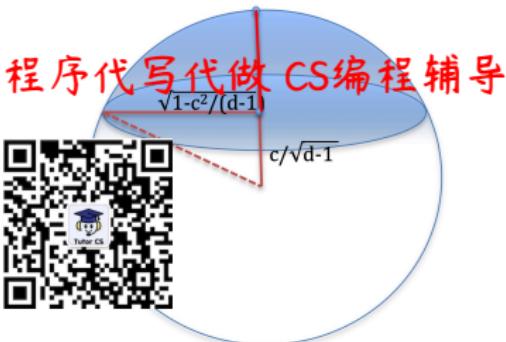
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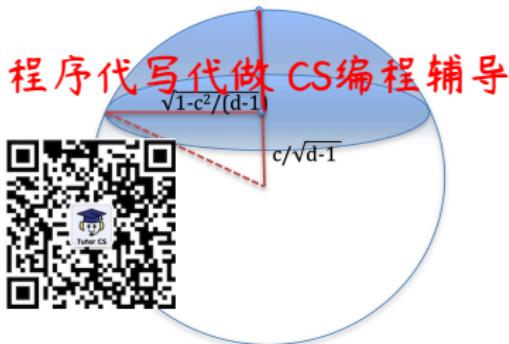
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- Thus, all inequalities of both kinds hold with a probability $(1 - \frac{1}{n})(1 - \frac{1}{2n}) = 1 - \frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{2n} + \frac{1}{2n^2} > 1 - \frac{3}{2} \frac{1}{n}$
- Thus, to summarise, we have proved that, if we draw independently and uniformly n points x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n from the unit ball, then with probability $1 - \frac{3}{2} \frac{1}{n}$ for all $1 \leq i, j \leq n, i \neq j$,

① $|x_i| > 1 - \frac{2 \ln n}{d}$; QQ: 749389476

② $|\langle x_i, x_j \rangle| \leq \sqrt{\frac{6 \ln n}{d-1}}$ <https://tutorcs.com>

- But how do we draw random points from a unit ball?
- It turns out that it is easier to draw points using a spherical Gaussian which is what we do next.

- Simplifying the expression $\frac{2}{\sqrt{6 \ln n}} e^{-\ln n^3}$ we obtain

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Gaussian Annulus Theorem

- We need the following lemma which we do not prove; its proof is based on tail inequalities which can be found in the BHK book. Recall that for $x = (x_1, \dots, x_d) \in \mathbb{R}^d$,  $\|x\| = \sqrt{x_1^2 + \dots + x_d^2}$.
- Lemma:** Let X be a  d -dimensional spherical Gaussian with zero mean and unit variance in each dimension, i.e., the with the probability density

$$f_X(x) = \prod_{i=1}^d \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{x_i^2}{2}} = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{d}{2}}} e^{-\frac{\|x\|^2}{2}}$$

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If we draw from such a distribution a random vector x , then the probability that x belongs to the annulus (hollow ball of outer radius $\sqrt{d} + \beta$ with the shell of thickness 2β) **Email: tutorcs@163.com**

$$\{x : \sqrt{d} - \beta \leq \|x\| \leq \sqrt{d} + \beta\} = \left\{x : \left|\|x\| - \sqrt{d}\right| < \beta\right\}$$

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is at least $1 - 3e^{-\frac{\beta^2}{96}}$.

- (For convenience of notation we denote $1/96$ by γ , so the probability that x belongs to the annulus is at least $1 - 3e^{-\gamma\beta^2}$).

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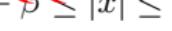
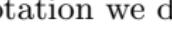
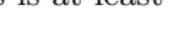
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$\langle v, u_1 \rangle, \dots, \langle v, u_k \rangle$

- Theorem: (Random Projection Lemma)

$$P(|\langle v, u_i \rangle| \geq \varepsilon \sqrt{k}|v|) \leq 3e^{-\gamma k \varepsilon^2}$$

- Proof:** Since $f(v)$ is a linear operator in v , we can divide both sides of the inner inequality with $|v|$. Assume that $|v| = 1$ and we have to show that for $|v| = 1$

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- Note that $\langle u_i, v \rangle = \sum_j u_{i,j} v_j$ is Gaussian, so is their linear combination; thus, $\langle u_i, v \rangle$ is also Gaussian.
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- Let us define $f^*(v) = f(v)/\sqrt{k}$;
- if we divide by \sqrt{k} both sides of the inner inequality in

$$\mathcal{P} \left(\left| \frac{f(v)}{\sqrt{k}} - \sqrt{k}|v| \right| \geq \varepsilon \sqrt{k}|v| \right) \leq 3e^{-\gamma k \varepsilon^2}$$

we obtain the following consequence:

- Corollary:**

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- Thus, the modified projection mapping $f^*(v)$ “almost preserves” length of vectors.
- This corollary is needed to prove the following important theorem with lots of practical applications.

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Johnson-Lindenstrauss Lemma

- **Theorem:** (Johnson-Lindenstrauss Lemma) For any ε , $0 < \varepsilon < 1$, and any integer n , assume that k satisfies $k \geq \frac{3}{\gamma \varepsilon^2} \ln n$. Then for any set of n points given by vectors in \mathbb{R}^d , with the probability of at least $1 - \frac{3}{2n}$, the random projection $f: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$ has the property that for ALL pairs of points v_i, v_j



$$||f^*(v_i - v_j)| - |v_i - v_j|| \leq \varepsilon |v_i - v_j|$$

Thus, $f^*(v)$ “almost” preserves distances between points given by vectors v_i , despite reduction of dimensionality from $d \gg k$ to only k .

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- **Proof:** By applying the random Projection Lemma, we get that for any pair v_i, v_j ,

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$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{P} (||f^*(v_i - v_j)| - |v_i - v_j|| > \varepsilon |v_i - v_j|) &\leq 3e^{-\gamma k \varepsilon^2} \leq 3e^{-\gamma \frac{3}{\gamma \varepsilon^2} \ln n \varepsilon^2} \\ \text{QQ: 749389476} &\leq 3e^{-\ln n^3} = \frac{3}{n^3} \end{aligned}$$

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- Since there are $\binom{n}{2} < \frac{n^2}{2}$ pairs, the probability that at least one of the above inequalities fails is less than $\frac{n^2}{2} \cdot \frac{3}{n^3} = 1 - \frac{3}{2n}$. (Union bound again).
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Johnson-Lindenstrauss Lemma

- **Theorem:** (Johnson-Lindenstrauss Lemma) For any ε , $0 < \varepsilon < 1$, and any integer n , assume that k satisfies $k \geq \frac{3}{\gamma \varepsilon^2} \ln n$. Then for any set of n points given by vectors in \mathbb{R}^d , with the probability of at least $1 - \frac{3}{2n}$, the random projection $f: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$ has the property that for ALL pairs of points v_i, v_j



$$|f(v_i) - f(v_j)| - |v_i - v_j| \leq \varepsilon |v_i - v_j|$$

Thus, $f^*(v)$ “almost” preserves distances between points given by vectors v_i , despite reduction of dimensionality from $d \gg k$ to only k .

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- **Proof:** By applying the Random Projection Lemma, we get that for any pair v_i, v_j ,

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$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{P}(|f^*(v_i) - f^*(v_j)| - |v_i - v_j| > \varepsilon |v_i - v_j|) &\leq 3e^{-\gamma k \varepsilon^2} \leq 3e^{-\gamma \frac{3}{\gamma \varepsilon^2} \ln n \varepsilon^2} \\ \text{QQ: 749389476} &\leq 3e^{-\ln n^3} = \frac{3}{n^3} \end{aligned}$$

- Since there are $\binom{n}{2} < \frac{n^2}{2}$ pairs, the probability that at least one of the above inequalities fails is less than $\frac{n^2}{2} \cdot \frac{3}{n^3} = 1 - \frac{3}{2n}$. (Union bound again).
- Note that k is a linear function of $\ln n$, so it grows slowly, allowing to handle efficiently lots of points v_i .

Johnson-Lindenstrauss Lemma

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- Main application of the Johnson-Lindenstrauss Lemma: nearest neighbour search in spaces of extremely high dimension, such as collections of documents, represented by the vector of the relative frequencies of each word from a dictionary (of key words, for example).
- Given a database of a large number of papers and a new paper p , find a paper p_i from the database which is the “most similar” to p , in the sense that the same keywords appear with approximately same frequencies.
- The dictionary of all keywords is very large, in thousands or even tens of thousands, so nearest neighbour search would be extremely slow.
- Even if your database had 100,000 papers, $\ln(100,000) < 12$

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Applications of the Johnson-Lindenstrauss Lemma

- Solution: choose a large enough k , i.e., $k \geq \frac{288}{\varepsilon^2} \ln(|DB| + |Q|)$ where $|DB|$ is the size of the database and $|Q|$ the expected number of queries to be made.
- Recall that $\gamma = 1/96$. However, with more careful analysis, the requirement $k \geq 288$ can be reduced to $k \geq \frac{24}{3\varepsilon^2 - 2\varepsilon^3} \ln n$.
- A good dictionary contains more than 100,000 words.
- So if you want to compare documents according to the relative frequency of words, each document has to be represented as a vector in 100,000 dimensional space!
- Assume that your database has 100,000 documents stored; you want to find the most similar documents in your database for a batch of 10,000 new documents. How many random vectors should you choose to project onto?
- If we set $\varepsilon = 0.1$ we obtain

$$k \geq \frac{24}{3\varepsilon^2 - 2\varepsilon^3} \ln(|DB| + |Q|) = \frac{24}{3 \times .01 - 2 \times .001} \times \ln(110,000) = 9950,$$

so more than 10-folds reduction of dimensionality.



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- So if you want to compare English documents according to the relative frequency of words, each document has to be represented as a vector in 100,000 dimensional space!
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Applications of the Johnson-Lindenstrauss Lemma

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- So we choose k random vectors by choosing each coordinate of every vector using a unit variance ($\pm \sqrt{\frac{1}{k}}$)
- Pre-process your database by replacing each vector $x_j \in DB$, ($x_j \in \mathbb{R}^d$) with its scaled projection $f(x_j) = f(x_j)/\sqrt{k}$ onto the $k << d$ dimensional subspace spanned by these k random vectors.
- As each query y arrives, obtain its scaled projection $f^*(y) = f(y)/\sqrt{k}$.
- Do the search for the nearest neighbour of $f^*(y)$ in the projected k dimensional space instead of the search for the nearest neighbour of y in the space of dimension d .

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Applications of the Johnson-Lindenstrauss Lemma

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- So we choose k random vectors by choosing each coordinate of every vector using a unit variance Gaussian distribution.
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- As each query y arrives, calculate its projection $f^*(y) = f(y)/\sqrt{k}$.
- Do the search for the nearest neighbour of $f^*(y)$ in the projected k dimensional space instead of the search for the nearest neighbour of y in the space of dimension d .

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- Do the search for the nearest neighbour of $f^*(y)/\sqrt{k}$ in the projected k dimensional space instead of the search for the nearest neighbour of y in the space of dimension $d > k$.

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