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1 Dimension Reduction in Euclidean Space

Consider n vectors in Euclidean space of some large dimension. These n vectors reside in an n dimensional subspace. By rotation, we can assume that n vectors lie in \mathbb{R}^n . On the other hand, it is easy to see that n mutually orthogonal unit vectors cannot reside in a space with dimension less than n.

Moreover, it is not possible to have three mutually almost orthogonal vectors placed in 2 dimensions.

Definition 1.1 We say two unit vectors u and v are ϵ -orthogonal to one another if their dot product satisfies $|u \cdot v| \leq \epsilon$.

One might think that n mutually almost orthogonal vectors require n dimensions. Hence, it might come as a surprise that n vectors that are mutually ϵ -orthogonal can be placed in a Euclidean space with $O(\frac{\log n}{\epsilon^2})$ dimensions.

Observer that for any three points, if the three distances between them are given, then the three angles are fixed. Given n-1 vectors, the vectors together with the origin form a set of n points. In fact, given any n points in Euclidean space (in n-1 dimensions), the Johnson-Lindenstrauss Lemma states that the n points can be placed in $O(\frac{\log n}{\epsilon^2})$ dimensions such that distances are preserved with multiplicative error ϵ , for any $0 < \epsilon < 1$.

Theorem 1.2 (Johnson-Lindenstrauss Lemma [JL84]) Suppose U is a set of n points in Euclidean space \mathbb{R}^n . Then, for any $0 < \epsilon < 1$, there is a mapping $f : U \to \mathbb{R}^T$, where $T = O(\frac{\log n}{\epsilon^2})$, such that for all $x, y \in U$,

 $(1-\epsilon)||x-y||^2 < ||f(x)-f(y)||^2 < (1+\epsilon)||x-y||^2.$

- **Remark 1.3** 1. Since for small ϵ , $(1 + \epsilon)^2 = 1 + \Theta(\epsilon)$ and $(1 \epsilon)^2 = 1 \Theta(\epsilon)$, it follows that the squared of the distances are preserved *iff* the distances themselves are.
 - 2. Note that ||x y|| is a norm between 2 vectors in Euclidean space \mathbb{R}^n and ||f(x) f(y)|| is one between 2 vectors in \mathbb{R}^T . Be careful that, ||x f(x)|| is not well-defined.

Corollary 1.4 (Almost Orthogonal Vectors) Suppose u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_n are mutually orthogonal unit vectors in \mathbb{R}^n . Then, for any $0 < \epsilon < 1$, there exists a mapping $f : U \to \mathbb{R}^T$, where $T = O(\frac{\log n}{\epsilon^2})$ such that $|\frac{f(u_i)}{||f(u_i)||} \cdot \frac{f(u_j)}{||f(u_j)||}| \le \epsilon$.

Proof: We apply Johnson-Lindenstrauss' Lemma with error $\frac{\epsilon}{8}$ to the set U of vectors u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_n together with the origin to obtain $f: U \to \mathbb{R}^T$, where $T = O(\frac{\log n}{\epsilon^2})$.

Hence, it follows that for all i, $1 - \frac{\epsilon}{8} \le ||f(u_i)||^2 \le 1 + \frac{\epsilon}{8}$. Moreover, for $i \ne j$, $(1 - \frac{\epsilon}{8})||u_i - u_j||^2 < ||f(u_i) - f(u_j)||^2 < (1 + \frac{\epsilon}{8})||u_i - u_j||^2$. Observe that $||u_i - u_j||^2 = 2$ and $||f(u_i) - f(u_j)||^2 = ||f(u_i)||^2 + ||f(u_j)||^2 - 2f(u_i) \cdot f(u_j)$. So, from $(1 - \frac{\epsilon}{8})||u_i - u_j||^2 < ||f(u_i) - f(u_j)||^2$, we conclude $f(u_i) \cdot f(u_j) \le \frac{\epsilon}{4}$. On the other hand, from $||f(u_i) - f(u_j)||^2 < (1 + \frac{\epsilon}{8})||u_i - u_j||^2$, we have $f(u_i) \cdot f(u_j) \ge -\frac{\epsilon}{4}$. Hence, we have $|f(u_i) \cdot f(u_j)| \le \frac{\epsilon}{4}$. However, observe that $f(u_i)$ and $f(u_j)$ might not be unit vectors. We know that $||f(u_i)|| \cdot ||f(u_j)|| \ge (1 - \frac{\epsilon}{8})^2 \ge \frac{1}{4}$. Therefore, we have $|\frac{f(u_i)}{||f(u_i)||} \cdot \frac{f(u_j)}{||f(u_j)||} \le \epsilon$.

2 Random Projection

Several proofs [DG03, Ach03] of the theorem are based on random projection. The construction can be derandomized [EIO02], but the argument is quite involved.

For point x, suppose $f(x) := (f_i(x))_{i \in [T]}$. Then, $||f(x) - f(y)||^2 = \sum_{i \in [T]} |f_i(x) - f_i(y)|^2$.

We have learned that the sum of independent random variables concentrate around its mean. Hence, the goal is to design a random mapping $f_i: U \to \mathbb{R}$ such that $E[|f_i(x) - f_i(y)|^2] = \frac{1}{T} \cdot ||x - y||^2$, in which case we have $E[||f(x) - f(y)||^2] = ||x - y||^2$.

Note that f_i takes a vector and returns a number. Observe that Euclidean space is equipped with dot product. Note that dot product with a unit vector gives the magnitude of the projection on the unit vector. Hence, we can take a random vector r in space \mathbb{R}^n , and let f_i have the form $f_i(x) := r \cdot x$.

Suppose we fix two points x and y. Since dot product is linear, we have $f_i(x) - f_i(y) = f_i(x - y)$. Hence, we consider $v := x - y = (v_0, v_1, \dots, v_{n-1})$, and let $\nu := ||v|| = \sqrt{\sum_i v_i^2}$. Recall the goal is to define f_i , and hence find a random vector r such that $E[(r \cdot v)^2] = \frac{1}{T} \cdot ||v||^2 = \frac{\nu^2}{T}$.

Using Random Bits to Define a Random Projection. The following idea of using random bits is due to Achlioptas [Ach03]. For each $j \in [n]$, suppose $\gamma_j \in \{-1, +1\}$ is a uniform random bit such that γ 's are independent. Define the random vector $r := \frac{1}{\sqrt{T}}(\gamma_0, \gamma_1, \ldots, \gamma_{n-1})$. Hence, $f_i(v) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{T}} \sum_j \gamma_j v_j$.

Check that $E[(f_i(v))^2] = \frac{1}{T} \sum_j v_j^2 = \frac{\nu^2}{T}$. Hence, we have found the required random mapping $f_i : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^T$.

Remark 2.1 Observe that the mapping $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^T$ is linear.

3 Proof of Johnson-Lindenstrauss Lemma

We define $X_i := f_i(v)^2 = \frac{1}{T} (\sum_j \gamma_j v_j)^2$, and let $Y := \sum_i X_i$. Recall $E[X_i] = \frac{\nu^2}{T}$ and $E[Y] = \nu^2$. Then, the desirable event can be expressed as:

 $Pr[(1-\epsilon)||x-y||^2 < ||f(x)-f(y)||^2 < (1+\epsilon)||x-y||^2] = Pr[|Y-E[Y]| < \epsilon E[Y]].$

The goal is to first find a T large enough such that the failing probability $Pr[|Y - E[Y]| \ge \epsilon E[Y]]$ is at most $\frac{1}{n^2}$. Since there are $\binom{n}{2}$ such pairs of points, using union bound, we can show that with probability at least $\frac{1}{2}$, the distances of all pairs of points are preserved.

We again use the method of moment generating function.

3.1 JL as a Measure Concentration Result

Using the method of moment generating function described in previous classes, the failure probability in question is at most the sum of the following two probabilities.

1.
$$Pr[Y \le (1-\epsilon)\nu^2] \le \exp(-t(1-\epsilon)\nu^2) \cdot \prod_i E[\exp(tX_i)]$$
, for all $t < 0$.

2.
$$Pr[Y \ge (1+\epsilon)\nu^2] \le \exp(-t(1+\epsilon)\nu^2) \cdot \prod_i E[\exp(tX_i)], \text{ for all } t > 0$$

We next derive an upper bound for $E[e^{tX_i}]$.

4 Upper Bound for $E[e^{tX_i}]$

For notational convenience, we drop the subscript *i*, and write $X := \frac{1}{T} (\sum_j \gamma_j v_j)^2$, where $\nu^2 = \sum_j v_j^2$, where $\gamma_j \in \{-1, 1\}$ are uniform and independent. Hence, we have

 $E[e^{tX}] = E[\exp(\frac{t}{T}(\sum_j v_j^2 + \sum_{i \neq j} \gamma_i \gamma_j v_i v_j))].$

Although the γ_j 's are independent, the cross-terms $\gamma_i \gamma_j$'s are not. In particular, $\gamma_i \gamma_j$ and $\gamma_{i'} \gamma_{j'}$ are not independent if i = i' or j = j'.

We compare X with another variable \widehat{X} , which we can analyze.

4.1 Normal Distribution

Suppose g is a random variable having standard normal distribution N(0, 1), with mean 0 and variance 1. In particular, it has the following probability density function:

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}}$$
, for $x \in \mathbb{R}$.

Suppose γ is a $\{-1,1\}$ is a random variable that takes value -1 or 1, each with probability $\frac{1}{2}$. Then, the random variables g and γ have some common properties.

Fact 4.1 Suppose γ is a uniform $\{-1, 1\}$ -random variable and g is a random variable with normal distribution N(0, 1).

- 1. $E[\gamma] = E[g] = 0.$
- 2. $E[\gamma^2] = E[g^2] = 1.$

For higher moments we have,

1. For odd $n \ge 3$, $E[\gamma^n] = E[g^n] = 0$.

2. For even $n \ge 4$, $1 = E[\gamma^n] \le E[g^n]$.

Normal distributions have the following important property.

Fact 4.2 Suppose g_i 's are independent random variables, each having standard normal distribution N(0,1). Define $Z := \sum_j g_j v_j$, where v_j 's are real numbers. Then, Z has normal distribution $N(0,\nu^2)$ with mean 0 and variance $\nu^2 := \sum_i v_i^2$.

We define $\widehat{X} := \frac{1}{T} (\sum_j g_j v_j)^2$ and let $Z := \sum_j g_j v_j$. Notice that we have $Z \sim N(0, \nu^2)$.

Using Fact 4.1, we can compare the moments of X and \widehat{X} .

Lemma 4.3 Define X and \widehat{X} as above.

- 1. For all integers $n \ge 0$, $E[X^n] \le E[\widehat{X}^n]$.
- 2. Using the Taylor expansion $\exp(y) := \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{y^i}{i!}$, we have $E[\exp(tX)] \le E[\exp(t\widehat{X})]$, for t > 0.

Lemma 4.4 For $t < \frac{T}{2\nu^2}$, $E[\exp(t\widehat{X})] \le (1 - \frac{2t\nu^2}{T})^{-\frac{1}{2}}$.

Sketch Proof: Observe that $\widehat{X} = \frac{1}{T}Z^2$, where Z has normal distribution $N(0, \nu^2)$.

Hence, it follows that $E[e^{t\hat{X}}] = E[\exp(\frac{t}{T} \cdot Z^2)]$. We leave the rest of the calculation as a homework exercise.

Therefore, for t > 0, we conclude that $E[\exp(tX)] \leq E[\exp(t\widehat{X})] \leq (1 - \frac{2t\nu^2}{T})^{-\frac{1}{2}}$, for $t < \frac{T}{2\nu^2}$.

Claim 4.5 Suppose $X := \frac{1}{T} (\sum_{j} \gamma_{j} v_{j})^{2}$, where $\nu^{2} = \sum_{j} v_{j}^{2}$.

Then, for $0 < t < \frac{T}{2\nu^2}$, $E[\exp(tX)] \le (1 - \frac{2t\nu^2}{T})^{-\frac{1}{2}}$.

For negative t, we cannot argue that $E[\exp(tX)] \leq E[\exp(t\hat{X})]$. However, we can still obtain an upper bound using another method.

Claim 4.6 For t < 0, $E[\exp(tX)] \le 1 + \frac{t\nu^2}{T} + \frac{3}{2} \cdot (\frac{t\nu^2}{T})^2$.

Proof:

We use the inequality: for y < 0, $e^y \le 1 + y + \frac{y^2}{2}$.

Hence, for t < 0,

 $E[\exp(tX)] \le E[1 + tX + \frac{t^2}{2}X^2] = 1 + \frac{t\nu^2}{T} + \frac{t^2}{2}E[X^2].$

We use the fact that $E[X] = \frac{\nu^2}{T}$. We next obtain an upper bound for $E[X^2]$. From Lemma 4.3, we have $E[X^2] \leq E[\widehat{X}^2]$.

Observe that $\hat{X}^2 = \frac{Z^4}{T^2}$, where Z has the normal distribution $N(0, \nu^2)$. Hence, $E[\hat{X}^2] = \frac{\nu^4}{T^2}E[g^4]$, where g has the standard normal distribution N(0, 1).

Through a standard calculation, we have $E[g^4] = 3$, hence achieving the required bound.

4.2Finding the right value for t.

We now have an upper bound for $E[e^{tX_i}]$ and hence we can finish the proof.

Positive t. For t > 0, we have $Pr[Y \ge (1+\epsilon)\nu^2] \le \exp(-t(1+\epsilon)\nu^2) \cdot \prod_i E[\exp(tX_i)]$ $\leq \exp(-t(1+\epsilon)\nu^2) \cdot (1-\frac{2t\nu^2}{T})^{-\frac{T}{2}},$ where t has to satisfy $t < \frac{T}{2\nu^2}$ too.

Remark 4.7 In this case, the upper bound is not of the form $E[\exp(tX_i)] \leq \exp(g_i(t))$. Instead of trying to find the best value of t by calculus, sometimes another valid value of t is good enough. We try $t := \frac{T}{2\nu^2} \cdot \frac{\epsilon}{1+\epsilon}$. In this case, we have $(1 - \frac{2t\nu^2}{T})^{-\frac{1}{2}} \leq \sqrt{1+\epsilon}$. Hence, $Pr[Y > (1+\epsilon)\nu^2] < (\sqrt{e^{-\epsilon}(1+\epsilon)})^T < \exp(-\frac{\epsilon^2 T}{12}),$ where the last inequality comes from the fact that for $0 < \epsilon < 1$, $\sqrt{e^{-\epsilon}(1+\epsilon)} = \exp(\frac{1}{2}(-\epsilon + \ln(1+\epsilon))) \le \exp(-\frac{\epsilon^2}{12}).$ Negative t. For negative t, we use the bound $E[e^{tX}] \leq 1 + \frac{t\nu^2}{T} + \frac{3}{2} \cdot (\frac{t\nu^2}{T})^2$. We can pick any negative t. So, we try $t := -\frac{\epsilon}{2(1+\epsilon)} \cdot \frac{T}{\nu^2}$. $Pr[Y \le (1-\epsilon)\nu^2] \le [(1-\frac{\epsilon}{2(1+\epsilon)} + \frac{3\epsilon^2}{8(1+\epsilon)^2})\exp(\frac{\epsilon(1-\epsilon)}{2(1+\epsilon)})]^T.$ We apply the inequality $1 + x \le e^x$, for any real x to obtain the following upper bound. $\left[\exp\left(-\frac{\epsilon}{2(1+\epsilon)} + \frac{3\epsilon^2}{8(1+\epsilon)^2} + \frac{\epsilon(1-\epsilon)}{2(1+\epsilon)}\right)\right]^T \le \exp\left(-\frac{\epsilon^2 T}{12}\right).$ One can check that $-\frac{\epsilon}{2(1+\epsilon)} + \frac{3\epsilon^2}{8(1+\epsilon)^2} + \frac{\epsilon(1-\epsilon)}{2(1+\epsilon)} \leq -\frac{\epsilon^2}{12}$, for $0 < \epsilon < 1$. Hence, in conclusion, for $0 < \epsilon < 1$, $Pr[|Y - \nu^2| \ge \epsilon \nu^2] \le 2 \exp(-\frac{\epsilon^2 T}{12})$. This probability is at most $\frac{1}{n^2}$, if we choose $T := \left\lceil \frac{12 \ln 2n^2}{\epsilon^2} \right\rceil$.

$\mathbf{5}$ Lower Bound

We show that if we want to maintain the distances of n points in Euclidean space, in some cases, the number of dimension must be at least $\Omega(\log n)$.

Simple Volume Argument 5.1

Consider a set $V = \{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n\}$ of n points in n-dimensional Euclidean space. For instance, let $u_i := \frac{e_i}{\sqrt{2}}$, where e_i is the standard unit vector, where the *i*th position is 1 and 0 elsewhere. Then, for $i \neq j$, $||u_i - u_j|| = 1$.

We show the following result.

Theorem 5.1 Let $0 < \epsilon < 1$. Suppose $f : V \to \mathbb{R}^T$ such that for all $i \neq j$, $1 \le ||f(u_i) - f(u_j)|| \le 1 + \epsilon.$

Then, T is at least $\Omega(\log n)$.

Remark 5.2 Observe that if we have $1 - \epsilon \leq ||f(u_i) - f(u_j)|| \leq 1 + \epsilon$, then we can divide the mapping by $(1 - \epsilon)$, i.e. $f' := \frac{f}{1 - \epsilon}$. Then, we have $1 \leq ||f'(u_i) - f'(u_j)|| \leq \frac{1 + \epsilon}{1 - \epsilon} = 1 + \Theta(\epsilon)$.

Proof:

For each *i*, consider a ball $B(f(u_i), \frac{1}{2})$ of radius $\frac{1}{2}$ around the center $f(u_i)$. Since for $i \neq j$, $||f(u_i) - f(u_j)|| \ge 1$, the balls are disjoint (except maybe for only 1 point of contact between two balls).

On the other hand, for all i > 1, $||f(u_1) - f(u_i)|| \le (1 + \epsilon)$. Hence, it follows the big ball $B(f(u_1), \frac{3}{2} + \epsilon)$ centered at $f(u_1)$ contains all the *n* smaller balls.

Note that the volume of a ball with radius r in \mathbb{R}^T is proportional to r^T . Since there are n disjoint smaller balls in the big ball, the ratio of the volume of the big ball to that of a smaller ball is at least n.

Hence, we have $n \leq \frac{(\frac{3}{2}+\epsilon)^T}{(\frac{1}{2})^T} \leq 5^T$, for $\epsilon < 1$. Therefore, it follows that $T \geq \Omega(\log n)$.

6 Homework Preview

- 1. Suppose g is a random variable with normal distribution N(0, 1). Prove the following.
 - (a) For odd $n \ge 1$, $E[g^n] = 0$.
 - (b) For even $n \ge 2$, $E[g^n] \ge 1$.

(Hint: Use induction. Let $I_n := E[g^n] = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{\mathbb{R}} x^n e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} dx$. Use integration by parts to show that $I_{n+2} = (n+1)I_n$.)

- 2. Suppose γ_j 's are independent uniform $\{-1, 1\}$ -random variables and g_j 's are independent random variables, each having normal distribution N(0, 1). Suppose v_j 's are real numbers, and define $X := (\sum_j \gamma_j v_j)^2$ and $\widehat{X} := (\sum_j g_j v_j)^2$. Show that for all integers $n \ge 1$, $E[X^n] \le E[\widehat{X}^n]$.
- 3. Suppose Z is a random variable having normal distribution $N(0, \nu^2)$. Compute $E[e^{tZ^2}]$. For what values of t is your expression valid?
- 4. In this question, we investigate if Johnson-Lindenstrauss Lemma can preserve area.
 - (a) Suppose the distances between three points are preserved with multiplicative error ϵ . Is the area of the corresponding triangle also always preserved with multiplicative error $O(\epsilon)$, or even some constant multiplicative error?
 - (b) Suppose u and v are mutually orthogonal unit vectors. Observe that the vectors u and v together with the origin form a right-angled isosceles triangle with area $\frac{1}{2}$. Suppose the lengths of the triangle are distorted with multiplicative error at most ϵ . What is the multiplicative error for the area of the triangle?
 - (c) Suppose a set V of n points are given in Euclidean space \mathbb{R}^n . Let $0 < \epsilon < 1$. Give a randomized algorithm that produces a low-dimensional mapping $f: V \to \mathbb{R}^T$ such that

the areas of all triangles formed from the n points are preserved with multiplicative error ϵ . What is the value of T for your mapping? Please give the exact number and do not use big O notation.

(Hint: If two triangles lie in the same plane (a 2-dimensional affine space) in \mathbb{R}^n , then under a linear mapping their areas have the same multiplicative error. For every triangle, add an extra point to form a right-angled isosceles triangle in the same plane.)

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