

# Topics in High-Dimensional Probability and Statistics\*

## Lecture 5: Random projections and the Johnson-Lindenstrauss lemma

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### 1 Approximate isometries

Consider  $n$  distinct data points  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  in  $\mathbb{R}^D$  considered deterministic (all the following results may be easily extended to the case of random points via conditioning). If the dimension  $D$  is very large, processing this data for some given task may be computationally demanding. An interesting problem is to figure out whether there exists a way to transform the high-dimensional data points  $x_1, \dots, x_n \in \mathbb{R}^D$ , through some map

$$T : \mathbb{R}^D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d \quad \text{for some } d \ll D,$$

into lower dimensional data points  $T(x_1), \dots, T(x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^d$  without losing too much information about the original data.

One way to guarantee that map  $T$  preserves the information of the data is to require the geometry of the data set to be completely preserved, i.e., to require that  $T : \{x_1, \dots, x_n\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$  is an isometry. Precisely, this means that, for all  $i \neq j$ ,

$$\|T(x_i) - T(x_j)\|_2 = \|x_i - x_j\|_2,$$

where, on the left hand-side,  $\|\cdot\|_2$  refers to the euclidean norm in  $\mathbb{R}^d$  while, on the right hand-side,  $\|\cdot\|_2$  refers to the euclidean norm in  $\mathbb{R}^D$ .

This isn't really a reasonable requirement for many reasons. First, one can exhibit simple settings in which it is impossible when we restrict attention to linear maps (see example 1.1).

**Example 1.1.** Consider  $D = 2$ ,  $d = 1$  and  $x_1, x_2, x_3 \in \mathbb{R}^2$  the vertices of a triangle with sides of equal lengths. Then, there is no linear map  $T : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  that preserves pairwise distances.

More generally, if we think of the data points as points sampled from a distribution with a density with respect to Lebesgue measure, then for any  $d < D$ , the points  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  all belong to a strict subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^D$  (i.e., a subspace of dimension at most  $D - 1$ ) with probability 0. Hence, mapping

all these points isometrically into a lower dimensional space is likely to fail with high probability.

But one can be a little less demanding, and require  $T$  to be an approximate isometry. To be more precise, for a fixed  $\varepsilon \in (0, 1)$ , we could only ask to have, for all  $i \neq j$ ,

$$1 - \varepsilon \leq \frac{\|T(x_i) - T(x_j)\|_2^2}{\|x_i - x_j\|_2^2} \leq 1 + \varepsilon.$$

The goal of this lecture is to show that we can construct a random and linear map  $T : \mathbb{R}^D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$  such that, for any every  $\varepsilon, \delta \in (0, 1)$ , the above property holds with probability  $1 - \delta$  for  $d$  of order

$$\frac{1}{\varepsilon^2} \log \left( \frac{n}{\sqrt{\delta}} \right),$$

and independently of the dimension  $D$ .

### 2 Reminder

We recall a few facts, seen in lecture 2, that will be useful in the proof of the Johnson-Lindenstrauss lemma below.

A basic result of interest will be the following simple version of the Bernstein's concentration inequality.

**Lemma 2.1.** Let  $Y_1, \dots, Y_n$  be independent random variables. Suppose that there exists  $s^2, b > 0$  such that, for all  $1 \leq i \leq n$  and for all  $\theta \in [-1/b, 1/b]$ ,

$$\log \mathbb{E} \exp(\theta \{Y_i - \mathbb{E}Y_i\}) \leq \frac{\theta^2 s^2}{2}.$$

Then, for all  $t > 0$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathbb{P} \left\{ \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \mathbb{E}Y_i) > t \right\} \vee \mathbb{P} \left\{ \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \mathbb{E}Y_i) < -t \right\} \\ & \leq \exp \left( -\frac{nt}{2} \left\{ \frac{1}{b} \wedge \frac{t}{s^2} \right\} \right). \end{aligned}$$

The second important observation is that, given a real valued and sub-gaussian random variable  $X$  with variance proxy  $\sigma^2$ , the variable  $X^2$  satisfies,

$$\forall \theta \in \left(-\frac{1}{a}, \frac{1}{a}\right), \quad \log \mathbb{E}[\exp(\theta \{X^2 - \mathbb{E}X^2\})] \leq \frac{\theta^2 a^2}{2(1 - \theta a)},$$

with

$$a := 4e\sigma^2.$$

In particular,

$$\forall \theta \in \left[-\frac{1}{2a}, \frac{1}{2a}\right], \quad \log \mathbb{E}[\exp(\theta \{X^2 - \mathbb{E}X^2\})] \leq \frac{\theta^2 (2a^2)}{2}.$$

### 3 Johnson-Lindenstrauss lemma

Let  $\mathcal{X} = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\} \subset \mathbb{R}^D$  be a set of  $n$  distinct data points, considered deterministic, and fix

$$\varepsilon, \delta \in (0, 1).$$

\*Teaching material can be found at <https://www.qparis-math.com/teaching>.

**Theorem 3.1.** Let  $M \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times D}$  be a random matrix whose rows  $R_1, \dots, R_d \in \mathbb{R}^D$  are independent, centered and isotropic, i.e., such that

$$\mathbb{E}[R_i] = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbb{E}[R_i R_i^\top] = I_D.$$

Suppose that each  $R_i$  is sub-gaussian with variance proxy at most  $\sigma^2$ . Define finally

$$T := \frac{1}{\sqrt{d}} M.$$

Then, provided

$$d \geq \frac{64e^2 \sigma^4}{\varepsilon^2} \log \left( \frac{n^2}{\delta} \right),$$

we have

$$\mathbb{P} \left( \forall i \neq j : 1 - \varepsilon \leq \frac{\|T(x_i) - T(x_j)\|_2^2}{\|x_i - x_j\|_2^2} \leq 1 + \varepsilon \right) \geq 1 - \delta.$$

*Proof.* Denote

$$\mathcal{Z} := \left\{ \frac{x_i - x_j}{\|x_i - x_j\|_2} : i \neq j \right\}.$$

By linearity of  $T$ , the statement we need to prove is then equivalent to

$$\mathbb{P} \left( \max_{z \in \mathcal{Z}} \left| \|T(z)\|_2^2 - 1 \right| > \varepsilon \right) < \delta.$$

Using a union bound, observe that

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathbb{P} \left( \max_{z \in \mathcal{Z}} \left| \|T(z)\|_2^2 - 1 \right| > \varepsilon \right) \\ & \leq |\mathcal{Z}| \max_{z \in \mathcal{Z}} \mathbb{P} \left( \left| \|T(z)\|_2^2 - 1 \right| > \varepsilon \right) \\ & = \frac{n(n-1)}{2} \max_{z \in \mathcal{Z}} \mathbb{P} \left( \left| \|T(z)\|_2^2 - 1 \right| > \varepsilon \right) \\ & < \frac{n^2}{2} \max_{z \in \mathcal{Z}} \mathbb{P} \left( \left| \|T(z)\|_2^2 - 1 \right| > \varepsilon \right). \end{aligned}$$

As a result, it is enough to prove that, for all  $z \in \mathcal{Z}$ ,

$$\mathbb{P} \left( \left| \|T(z)\|_2^2 - 1 \right| > \varepsilon \right) \leq \frac{2\delta}{n^2}.$$

For  $z \in \mathcal{Z}$ , note that

$$\begin{aligned} T(z) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{d}} M z \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{d}} (\langle R_1, z \rangle, \dots, \langle R_d, z \rangle)^\top. \end{aligned}$$

As a result,

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \|T(z)\|_2^2 - 1 \right| &= \left| \frac{1}{d} \sum_{i=1}^d \langle R_i, z \rangle^2 - 1 \right| \\ &= \left| \frac{1}{d} \sum_{i=1}^d (\langle R_i, z \rangle^2 - \mathbb{E} \langle R_i, z \rangle^2) \right|, \end{aligned}$$

where the last identity follows since

$$\mathbb{E}[\langle R_i, z \rangle^2] = z^\top \mathbb{E}[R_i R_i^\top] z = \|z\|_2^2 = 1.$$

Since  $\|z\|_2 = 1$  for every  $z \in \mathcal{Z}$ , each random variable  $\langle R_i, z \rangle$  is sub-gaussian with variance proxy at most  $\sigma^2$ . According to results mentioned in the previous section, this implies that variables

$$Y_i := \langle R_i, z \rangle^2,$$

satisfy, for all  $1 \leq i \leq d$  and for all  $\theta \in [-1/b, 1/b]$ ,

$$\log \mathbb{E} \exp(\theta \{Y_i - \mathbb{E} Y_i\}) \leq \frac{\theta^2 s^2}{2},$$

where  $b = 8e\sigma^2$  and  $s^2 = 32e^2\sigma^4$ . As a result, we deduce that, for every  $z \in \mathcal{Z}$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P} \left( \left| \|T(z)\|_2^2 - 1 \right| > \varepsilon \right) &\leq 2 \exp \left( -\frac{d\varepsilon}{2} \left\{ \frac{1}{b} \wedge \frac{\varepsilon}{s^2} \right\} \right) \\ &= 2 \exp \left( -\frac{d\varepsilon}{16e\sigma^2} \left\{ 1 \wedge \frac{\varepsilon}{4e\sigma^2} \right\} \right) \\ &= 2 \exp \left( -\frac{d\varepsilon^2}{64e^2\sigma^4} \right), \end{aligned}$$

where the last inequality follows from the fact that  $\varepsilon \in (0, 1)$  and that  $\sigma^2 \geq 1/4e$  by assumption. To sum up, the statement follows provided

$$2 \exp \left( -\frac{d\varepsilon^2}{64e^2\sigma^4} \right) \leq \frac{2\delta}{n^2},$$

which is equivalent to

$$d \geq \frac{64e^2\sigma^4}{\varepsilon^2} \log \left( \frac{n^2}{\delta} \right).$$

□

## 4 Examples

We give two explicit constructions of matrix  $M$  satisfying the assumptions of the theorem.

**Example 4.1.** Suppose that  $M = (M_{i,j})$  where entries  $M_{i,j}$  are independent and, for all  $i \in \{1, \dots, d\}$  and all  $j \in \{1, \dots, D\}$ ,

$$\mathbb{P}(M_{i,j} = -1) = \mathbb{P}(M_{i,j} = +1) = \frac{1}{2}.$$

Then it satisfies the assumptions of Theorem 3.1 with  $\sigma^2 = 1$ .

**Example 4.2.** Suppose that  $M = (M_{i,j})$  where entries  $M_{i,j}$  are independent and, for all  $i \in \{1, \dots, d\}$  and all  $j \in \{1, \dots, D\}$ ,

$$M_{i,j} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1).$$

Then it satisfies the assumptions of Theorem 3.1 with  $\sigma^2 = 1$ .

## 5 Note

For an application of Theorem 3.1 in the context of clustering, we refer the reader to [2]. We also recommend Chapter 5 in [1] for further applications of the Johnson-Lindenstrauss lemma.

## References

- [1] A. Bandeira. Ten lectures and forty-two open problems in the mathematics of data science. Lecture notes, 2016.
- [2] G. Biau, L. Devroye, and G. Lugosi. On the performance of clustering in Hilbert spaces. *IEEE Trans. Inform. Theory*, 54(2):781–790, 2008.