

CS-GY 9223 I: Lecture 4

Near neighbor search + locality sensitive hashing

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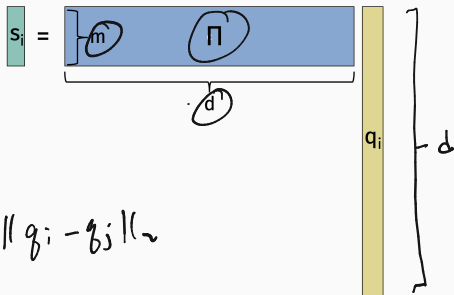
- Problem set 1.
- Reading group.

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 $\Pi : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ where $m = O\left(\frac{\log n}{\epsilon^2}\right)$ such that for all i, j ,

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



$$m = O\left(\frac{\log n}{\epsilon^2}\right)$$

$$\|s_i - s_j\|_2 \approx \|\mathbf{q}_i - \mathbf{q}_j\|_2$$

RANDOMIZED JL CONSTRUCTIONS

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

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

```
-2.1384  2.9880  -0.3538  0.0229  0.5201  -0.2938  -1.3320  -1.3617  -0.1952
-0.8396  0.8252  -0.8236  -0.2620  -0.0200  -0.8479  -2.3299  0.4550  -0.2176
1.3546  1.3798  -1.5771  -1.7582  -0.0348  -1.1201  -1.4491  -0.8487  -0.3831
-1.0722  -1.0582  0.5800  -0.2857  -0.7982  2.5268  0.3335  -0.3349  0.0238
0.9610  -0.4686  0.2820  -0.8314  1.0187  1.6555  0.3914  0.5528  0.0513
0.1240  -0.2725  0.0335  -0.9792  -0.1332  0.3075  0.4517  1.0391  0.8261
1.4367  1.0984  -1.3337  -1.1564  -0.7145  -1.2571  -0.1303  -1.1176  1.5278
-1.9609  -0.2779  1.1275  -0.5336  1.3514  -0.8655  0.1837  1.2607  0.4669
-0.1977  0.7815  0.3502  -2.0026  -0.2248  0.1765  -0.4762  0.6601  -0.2097
-1.2078  -2.0518  -0.2991  0.9642  -0.5898  0.7914  0.8628  -0.0679  0.6252
```

```
>> Pi = randn(m,d);
>> s = (1/sqrt(m))*Pi*q;
```

```
1  1  -1  -1  -1  -1  -1  -1  -1  1  -1  -1  1  -1  -1  1  1  -1
1  1  1  -1  1  -1  -1  -1  -1  1  1  1  1  -1  1  -1  -1  -1
1  1  -1  -1  -1  -1  1  -1  -1  1  1  -1  1  -1  1  -1  1  -1
-1  -1  -1  1  1  -1  -1  -1  -1  -1  -1  -1  -1  -1  -1  1  1  1
1  -1  1  -1  -1  -1  -1  -1  -1  -1  -1  -1  -1  -1  -1  1  1  -1
1  -1  -1  1  -1  1  1  -1  -1  1  1  -1  -1  1  -1  -1  1  1
1  1  -1  1  1  -1  1  -1  1  -1  1  -1  1  -1  1  1  1  -1
-1  -1  -1  -1  -1  -1  -1  -1  -1  1  1  -1  -1  -1  -1  -1  1  1
-1  -1  1  1  1  1  -1  -1  1  -1  -1  1  -1  1  1  -1  -1  -1
-1  1  -1  1  -1  1  1  -1  -1  1  -1  1  -1  -1  -1  -1  -1  1
```

```
>> Pi = 2*randi(2,m,d)-3;
>> s = (1/sqrt(m))*Pi*q;
```

Often called “random projections”. Why?

RANDOMIZED JL CONSTRUCTIONS

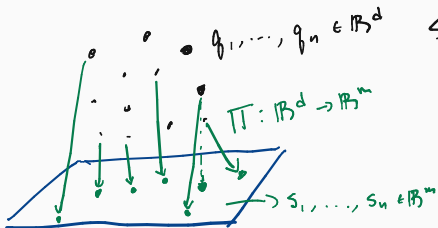
$$\text{Var}[X] = \mathbb{E}[X^2]$$

$$-\mathbb{E}[X]^2$$

$$s_i = \Pi q_i \text{ for all } i.$$

When is a map $P: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$
a projection operator? \rightarrow maps each

q_i to closest point in S .



$S = m$ dimensional subspace

$$m \left[\begin{array}{c} d \\ \hline P \end{array} \right]$$

$$PP^T = \text{Identity}$$

Is Π a projection operator?

Variance

No. $\mathbb{E}[\Pi\Pi^T] = dI$

$$\rightarrow i \neq j = 0$$

$$\mathbb{E}[(\Pi\Pi^T)_{ij}] = \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{\ell=1}^d \Pi_{i\ell} \Pi_{\ell j}^T\right] = \sum_{\ell=1}^d \mathbb{E}[\Pi_{i\ell} \Pi_{\ell j}^T]$$

$$j \neq i \quad \mathbb{E}[(\Pi\Pi^T)_{ij}] = 0.$$

$$i=j$$

$$\sum_{\ell=1}^d \mathbb{E}[\Pi_{i\ell} \cdot \Pi_{\ell i}^T]$$

$$1 = \text{var}[N(0,1)]$$

K-MEANS CLUSTERING

k-means objective: Find clusters $C_1, \dots, C_k \subseteq \{1, \dots, n\}$ to

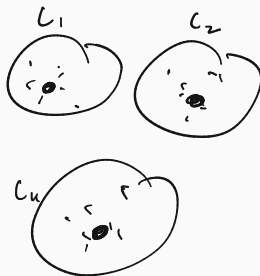
minimize:

$$x_1, \dots, x_n \in \mathbb{R}^d$$

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

$$C_1 \cup \dots \cup C_k = \{1, \dots, n\}$$

$$C_i \cap C_j = \emptyset \text{ for all } i, j \in \{1, \dots, k\}$$

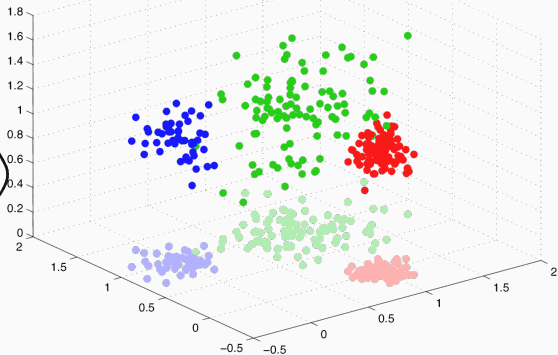


K-MEANS CLUSTERING

Approximation algorithm: Find optimal clusters $\tilde{C}_1^*, \dots, \tilde{C}_k^*$ for the k dimension data set $\underline{\Pi X_1, \dots, \Pi X_n}$.

Want to prove:

$$\text{Cost}(\tilde{C}_1^*, \dots, \tilde{C}_k^*) \leq (1 + \epsilon) \min_{C_1, \dots, C_k} \text{Cost}(C_1, \dots, C_k)$$



$$k = O(\log n / \epsilon^2)$$

K-MEANS CLUSTERING

JL Lemma: For all u, v , $(1-\epsilon) \|x_u - x_v\|_2^2 \leq \|\Pi x_u - \Pi x_v\|_2^2 \leq (1+\epsilon) \|x_u - x_v\|_2^2$

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

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

For any C_1, \dots, C_k ,

$$\begin{aligned} &\leq \sum_{j=1}^k \frac{1}{2|C_j|} \sum_{u, v \in C_j} (1+\epsilon) \|x_u - x_v\|_2^2 \rightarrow \text{by JL} \\ &= (1+\epsilon) \sum_{j=1}^k \frac{1}{2|C_j|} \sum_{u, v \in C_j} \|x_u - x_v\|_2^2 = (1+\epsilon) \text{Cost}(C_1, \dots, C_k) \end{aligned}$$

$$(1-\epsilon) \text{Cost}(C_1, \dots, C_k) \leq \widetilde{\text{Cost}}(C_1, \dots, C_k) \leq (1+\epsilon) \text{Cost}(C_1, \dots, C_k)$$

We prove this \longleftarrow

Proving left hand side is similar.

K-MEANS CLUSTERING

Let $C_1^*, \dots, C_k^* = \arg \min \text{Cost}(C_1, \dots, C_k)$ and
 $\tilde{C}_1^*, \dots, \tilde{C}_k^* = \arg \min \widetilde{\text{Cost}}(C_1, \dots, C_k)$

John Skinn's comment:
 $1/\epsilon^2$ dependence is
 really bad! $\epsilon = .01 \rightarrow$
 $1/\epsilon^2 = 10,000$.

Want to prove: $\text{Cost}(\tilde{C}_1^*, \dots, \tilde{C}_k^*) \leq (1 + O(\epsilon)) \text{Cost}(C_1^*, \dots, C_k^*)$

$$\text{Cost}(\tilde{C}_1^*, \dots, \tilde{C}_k^*) \leq \frac{1}{1-\epsilon} \widetilde{\text{Cost}}(\tilde{C}_1^*, \dots, \tilde{C}_k^*)$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{1-\epsilon} \widetilde{\text{Cost}}(C_1^*, \dots, C_k^*)$$

$$\begin{aligned} &\frac{1}{2}(1+\epsilon)(1+O(\epsilon)) \\ &\frac{1}{2}(1+O(\epsilon)) \end{aligned}$$

$$\leq \frac{(1+\epsilon)}{(1-\epsilon)} \text{Cost}(C_1^*, \dots, C_k^*)$$

- this is a weakness
 of JK. Not always
 good for highly
 accurate approximations

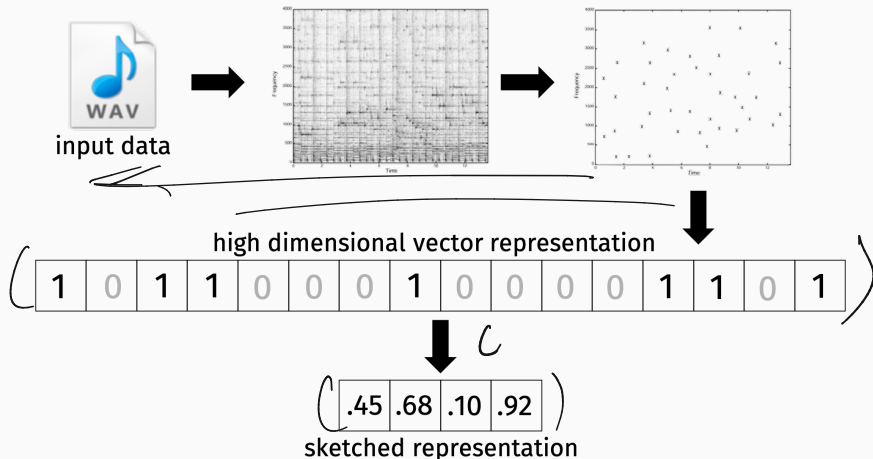
- in some applications
 (including k-means)

JK tends to do better
 than the theory
 predicts.

$$\text{for any } \epsilon < 1/2 \leq (1+4\epsilon) \text{Cost}(C_1^*, \dots, C_k^*)$$

If wanted $\leq (1+\epsilon)$ just set $k = O\left(\frac{\log n}{(\epsilon/4)^2}\right)$ to begin with. 9

SIMILARITY SKETCHING



Goal: Given input vectors \mathbf{q} and \mathbf{y} , $C(\mathbf{q})$ and $C(\mathbf{y})$ should be similar if \mathbf{q} and \mathbf{y} are similar.

SIMILARITY SKETCHING

$$\begin{array}{l} q: 0 \quad 0 \quad 1 \quad 1 \quad 0 \quad 1 \\ y: 0 \quad 1 \quad 1 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 1 \end{array}$$

Other Example: Binary valued vectors.

Definition (Jaccard Similarity)

$$J(\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{y}) = \frac{|\mathbf{q} \cap \mathbf{y}|}{|\mathbf{q} \cup \mathbf{y}|} = \frac{\# \text{ of non-zero entries in common}}{\# \text{ total \# of non-zero entries}} = \frac{2}{4} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$0 \leq J(\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{y}) \leq 1.$$

for example
above

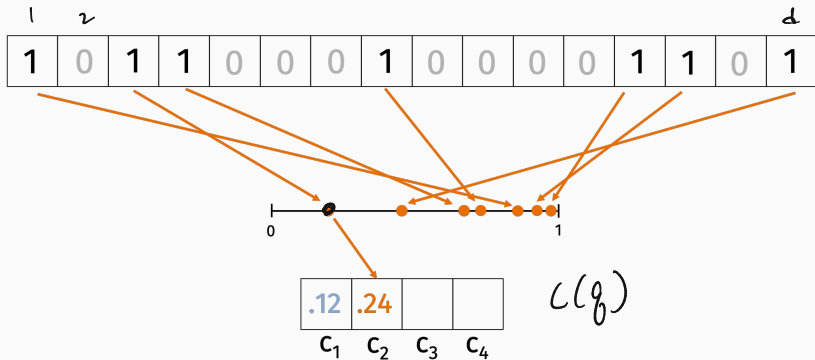
MINHASH

- Choose k random hash functions

$$h_1, \dots, h_k : \{1, \dots, d\} \rightarrow [0, 1].$$

- For $i \in 1, \dots, k$, let $c_i = \min_{j, q_j=1} h_i(j)$.

$$C(\mathbf{q}) = [c_1, \dots, c_k].$$



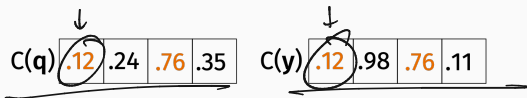
$$\min(h_2(1), h_2(3), h_2(4), h_2(8), \dots) = .24$$

SIMILARITY SKETCHING

Example 1: Binary valued vectors.

If $J(\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{y}) = v$ then the expected number of common entries between $C(\mathbf{q})$ and $C(\mathbf{y})$ is v .

→ Actually, we proved:
 $\Pr[C_i(\mathbf{q}) = C_i(\mathbf{y})] = v$
for all i .



Using a Chernoff bound, we proved that if C maps to dimension $O\left(\frac{\log(1/\delta)}{\epsilon^2}\right)$, we can approximate the Jaccard similarity between any two binary vectors to accuracy ϵ with probability $1 - \delta$.

NEAR NEIGHBOR SEARCH

$$J(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{q}) \geq .9$$

Common goal: Find all fingerprints in database $\mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_n \in \mathbb{R}^d$ that are close to some input finger print $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^d$.

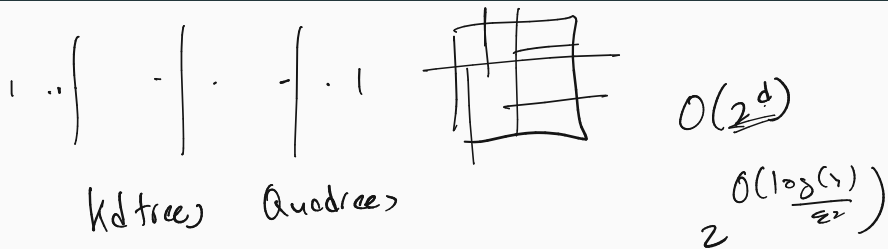
- Audio + video search. $n = 10$ million
- Finding duplicate or near duplicate documents.
- Seismic applications (here they want all pairs of close fingerprints).

Does similarity sketching help in these applications?

$m \ll d$

$O(\underline{y}d)$ time		$O(\underline{y}m)$
$O(\underline{y}d)$ space	→ improvement	$O(\underline{y}m)$

BEYOND A LINEAR SCAN



New goal: Sublinear $O(n)$ time to find near neighbors.

Can we also improve the n dependence?

More important in many applications.

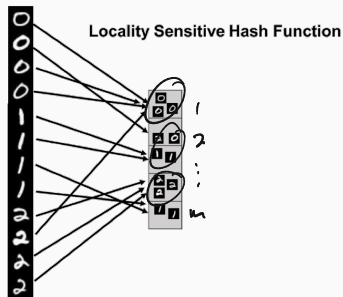
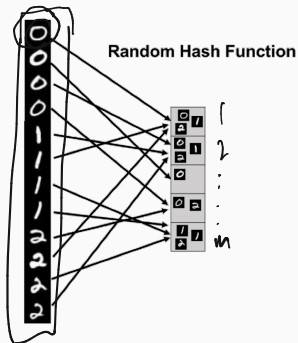
- possible in low-dimensions using kd-trees, quad trees, etc

LOCALITY SENSITIVE HASH FUNCTIONS

Let $h: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \{1, \dots, m\}$ be a random hash function.

We call h locality sensitive if $\Pr[h(\mathbf{q}) == h(\mathbf{y})]$ is:

- Higher when \mathbf{q} and \mathbf{y} are more similar.
- Lower when \mathbf{q} and \mathbf{y} differ substantially.



LSH for Jaccard similarity:

- Let $c : \{0, 1\}^d \rightarrow [0, 1]$ be a single instantiation of MinHash.
- Let $g : [0, 1] \rightarrow \{1, \dots, m\}$ be a fully random hash function.
- Let $h(\mathbf{x}) = g(c(\mathbf{x}))$.

LOCALITY SENSITIVE HASH FUNCTIONS

LSH for Jaccard similarity:

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- Let $h(x) = g(c(x))$.

If $J(q, y) = v$,

Case 1: $c(q) = c(y)$
(happens with prob. v)
 $\Pr[h(q) = h(y)] = 1$.

$$\Pr[h(q) = h(y)] = v \cdot 1 + (1-v) \cdot \frac{1}{m}$$

$$= v + \frac{(1-v)}{m}$$

usually very small (think of $m=0.4$)

Case 2: $c(q) \neq c(y)$
(happens with prob. $1-v$)
 $\Pr[h(q) = h(y)] = \frac{1}{m}$

→ why?

$h(q) = g(a)$
 $h(y) = g(b)$ where $a \neq b$.
Since g is uniformly random, $\Pr[g(a) = g(b)] = \frac{1}{m}$

uniformly

$g(c(q)) = g(c(y))$
when $c(q) = c(y)$

NEAR NEIGHBOR SEARCH

Basic approach for near neighbor search in a database.

Pre-processing:

- Select random LSH function $h : \{0, 1\}^d \rightarrow 1, \dots, m$.
- Create table T with m slots. $m = O(n)$ (we won't discuss choice of m rigorously)
- For $i = 1, \dots, n$, insert q_i into $T(h(q_i))$.

for Jaccard similarity

$$h = g(\mathcal{L}(q_i))$$

uniform random hash

MinHash

NEAR NEIGHBOR SEARCH

Basic approach for near neighbor search in a database.

Pre-processing:

- Select random LSH function $h : \{0, 1\}^d \rightarrow 1, \dots, m$.
- Create table T with m slots.
- For $i = 1, \dots, n$, insert \mathbf{q}_i into $T(h(\mathbf{q}_i))$.

Query:

- Want to find near neighbors of input $\mathbf{y} \in \{0, 1\}^d$.
- Linear scan through all vectors in $T(h(\mathbf{y}))$.

$J(\mathbf{q}, \mathcal{J}) \Rightarrow \text{large}$

\downarrow

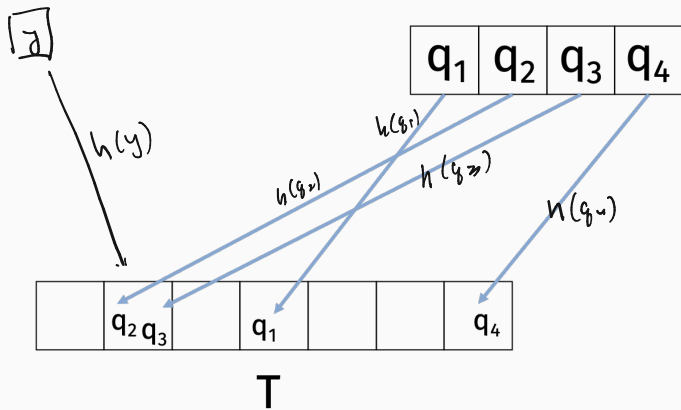
$\Pr[h(\mathbf{y}) = h(\mathbf{z})]$

large.

to find best matches \swarrow

only $1/m$ buckets \rightarrow hopefully $\ll n$ elements to go through ¹⁸

NEAR NEIGHBOR SEARCH



Two main considerations:

- False Negative Rate: What's the probability we do not find a vector that is close to \mathbf{y} ?
- False Positive Rate: What's the probability we need to scan over vectors that are not close to \mathbf{y} ?

False Negative Rate

Suppose the nearest database point q has $J(y, q) = .4$.

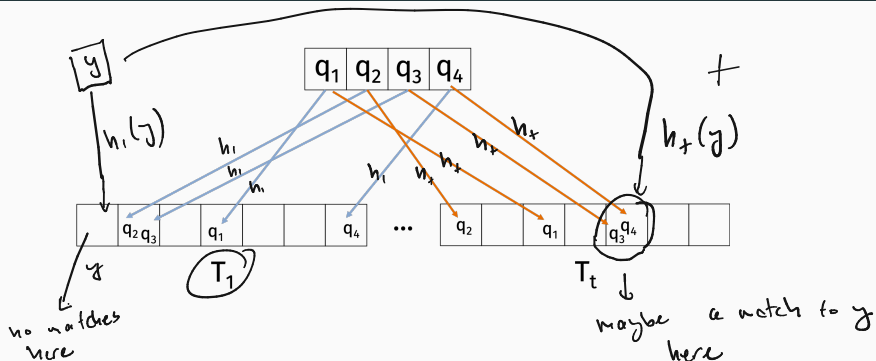
What's the probability we do not find q ?

$$\Pr[\text{find } q] \approx .4$$

$$\Pr[\text{don't find } q] = 1 - .4 = .6$$

that's terrible... 60%

REDUCING FALSE NEGATIVE RATE



Pre-processing:

- Select t independent LSH's $h_1, \dots, h_t : \{0, 1\}^d \rightarrow 1, \dots, m$.
- Create tables T_1, \dots, T_t , each with m slots.
- For $i = 1, \dots, n, j = 1, \dots, t$, insert \underline{q}_i into $T_j(h_j(\underline{q}_i))$.

Query:

- Want to find near neighbors of input $\mathbf{y} \in \{0, 1\}^d$.
- Linear scan through all vectors in $T_1(h_1(\mathbf{y})), T_2(h_2(\mathbf{y})), \dots, T_t(h_t(\mathbf{y}))$.

REDUCING FALSE NEGATIVE RATE

$t=10$
99%

t repetitions

Query:

- Want to find near neighbors of input $y \in \{0, 1\}^d$.
- Linear scan through all vectors in $T_1(h_1(y)), T_2(h_2(y)), \dots, T_t(h_t(y))$.

Suppose the nearest database point q has $J(y, q) = .4$.

What's the probability we find q ?

$\Pr\{\text{don't find } q\} = \Pr\left[\begin{array}{l} \text{don't find } q \text{ in Table 1} \\ \text{don't find } q \text{ in Table 2} \\ \vdots \\ \text{don't find } q \text{ in Table } T \end{array}\right]$

$$\Pr\{\text{find } q\} = 1 - (1 - .4)^t$$

$$\boxed{\text{If } t=10: 1 - (1 - .4)^{10} \approx .99} = \underline{\underline{(1 - .4)^t}}$$

WHAT HAPPENS TO FALSE POSITIVES?

t = 10

89%

Suppose there is some other database point q_j with

$J(y, q_j) = .2$? What is the probability we will consider that point in our original scheme?

$$P\{h(y) = h(q)\} \approx .2 \quad \text{where } J(q, y) = .2$$

why approx?

In the new scheme?

$$1 - (1 - .2)^{10} = 89\%$$

remember

$$P\{h(y) = h(y)\}$$

$$= .2 + \frac{(1 - .2)}{m}$$

$$\underbrace{\hspace{2cm}}_{\approx 0}$$

REDUCING FALSE POSITIVES

h is uniformly random

$$g([.1 \ .6 \ .2 \ .98]) \rightarrow \{1, \dots, m\}$$

↓

Change our locality sensitive hash function.

$$\Pr(h(I) = h(Z)) = 1/m$$

when $I \neq Z$.

$$h(q) = g(\underbrace{.1}_{\text{circled}}, \underline{.2}, .7)$$

$$h(y) = g(.1, \underline{.9}, \underline{.7})$$

Tunable LSH for Jaccard similarity:

- Choose parameter $s \in \mathbb{Z}^+ = \{1, 2, \dots\}$ positive integers
- Let $c_1, \dots, c_s : \{0, 1\}^d \rightarrow [0, 1]$ be random MinHashes.
- Let $g : [0, 1]^s \rightarrow \{1, \dots, m\}$ be a fully random hash function.
- Let $h(x) = g(c_1(x), \dots, c_s(x))$.

If $J(q, y) = v$,

Case 1: $c_1(q) = c_1(y), \dots, c_s(q) = c_s(y)$ \rightarrow will depend on s

Happens with prob. v^s

$$\Pr[h(q) = h(y)] = 1$$

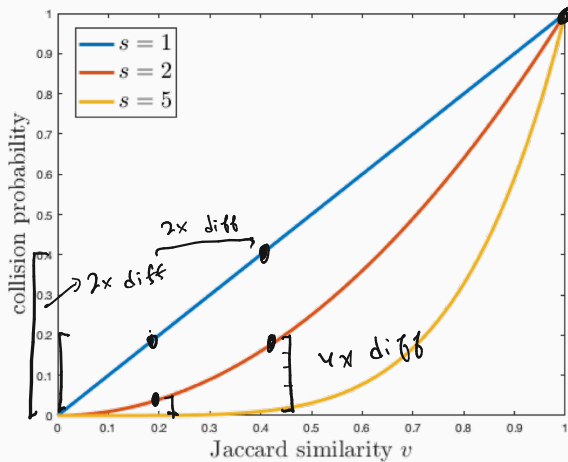
$$\Pr[h(q) = h(y)] = v^s \cdot 1 + (1-v^s) \cdot \underbrace{1/m}_{\approx 0}$$

$$\approx v^s$$

Case 2: $c_i(q) \neq c_i(y)$ for some i

Happens w/ prob $(1-v^s)$ $\Pr[h(q) = h(y)] = 1/m$

TUNABLE LSH



Parameter: $S = 1$.Chance we find q_i with $J(y, q_i) = .8$: .8

$$1 - (1 - .8)^t$$

$$\text{If } t = 3 \rightarrow 1 - (1 - .8)^3 \approx 99\%$$

Chance we need to scan q_j with $J(y, q_j) = .4$:

$$1 - (1 - .4)^3 \approx 78\%$$

Parameter: $S = 2$.Chance we find q_i with $J(y, q_i) = .8$:

$$1 - (1 - .8^2)^t$$

If $t=5$ $\rightarrow 1 - (1 - .8^2)^5 \approx 99\%$

Chance we need to scan q_j with $J(y, q_j) = .4$:

$$1 - (1 - .4^2)^5 \approx 58\%$$

Parameter: $S = 5$.

Chance we find q_i with $J(y, q_i) = .8$:

$$1 - (1 - .8^5)^t$$

$$\text{If } \underline{t=12} \rightarrow 1 - (1 - .8^5)^{12} \approx 99\%$$

Chance we need to scan q_j with $J(y, q_j) = .4$:

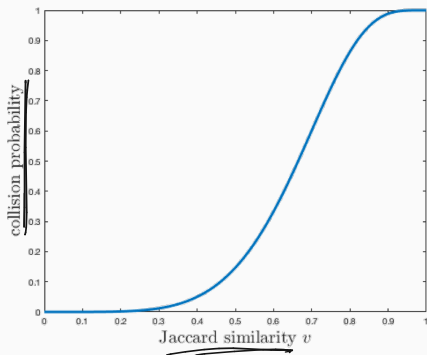
$$-(1 - .4^5)^{12} \approx \underline{\underline{12\%}}$$

↓
reducing false positive rate a lot! 29

S-CURVE TUNING

Probability we see \mathbf{q} when querying \mathbf{y} if $J(\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{y}) = v$:

$$(1 - (1 - v^s)^t)$$

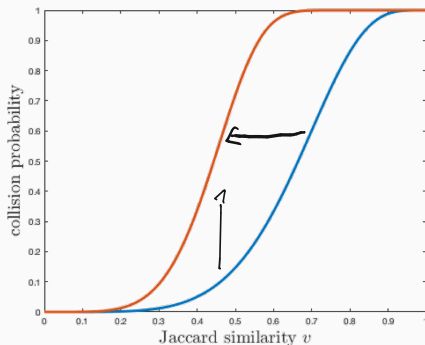


$$s = 5, t = 5$$

S-CURVE TUNING

Probability we see \mathbf{q} when querying \mathbf{y} if $J(\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{y}) = v$:

$$1 - (1 - v^s)^t$$



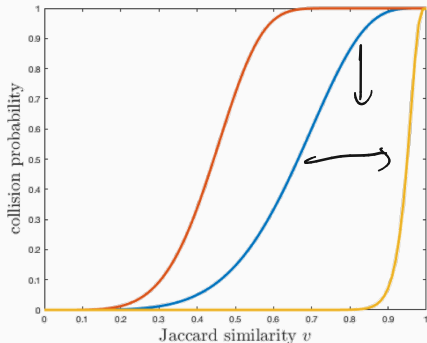
$$s = 5, t = 40$$

Increase $T \rightarrow$ Curve moves left

S-CURVE TUNING

Probability we see \mathbf{q} when querying \mathbf{y} if $J(\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{y}) = v$:

$$\approx 1 - (1 - v^s)^t$$



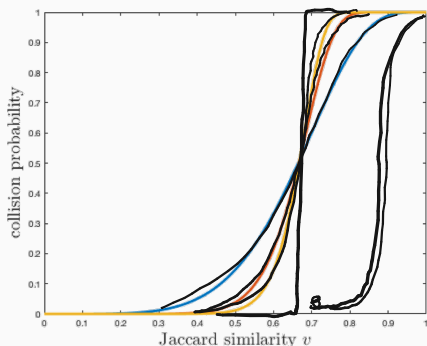
$$s = 40, t = 5$$

Increase $s \rightarrow$ curve moves right

S-CURVE TUNING

Probability we see q when querying y if $J(q, y) = v$:

$$1 - (1 - v^s)^t$$



Increasing both s and t gives a steeper curve. (in some places)

Better for search, but worse space complexity.

FIXED THRESHOLD

Use Case 1: Fixed threshold.

- Shazam wants to find match to audio clip \mathbf{y} in a database of 10 million clips.
- There are 10 true matches with $J(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{q}) > .9$.
- There are 10,000 near matches with $J(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{q}) \in [.7, .9]$.

With $s = 25$ and $t = 40$,

- Hit probability for $J(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{q}) > .9$ is $\gtrsim \underline{1 - (1 - .9^{25})^{40}} = .95$.
- Hit probability for $J(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{q}) \in [.7, .9]$ is $\lesssim 1 - (1 - .9^{25})^{40} = .95^7$.
- Hit probability for $J(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{q}) < .7$ is $\lesssim \underline{1 - (1 - .7^{25})^{40}} = .005$.

\mathbb{E} (Total number of items scanned:) \rightarrow using linearity of expectation

$$\underline{.95 \cdot 10} + \underline{.95 \cdot 10,000} + \underline{.005 \cdot 9,989,990} \approx \underline{60,000} \ll 10,000,000.$$

traded faster runtime
for more space

Space complexity: 40 hash tables $\approx 40 \cdot O(n)$.

Directly trade space for fast search.

Naive solution: $40 \cdot n \cdot d$ space

Storing pointers to data vectors: $40 \cdot n \cdot O(1) + nd$
space

Concrete worst case result:

(no data assumptions like Shorzon case study)

Theorem (Indyk, Motwani, 1998)

If there exists some q with $\|q - y\|_0 \leq R$, return a vector \tilde{q} with $\|\tilde{q} - y\|_0 \leq C \cdot R$ in:

- Time: $O(n^{1/C})$. $\xrightarrow{\text{If } C=2,}$ $O(\sqrt{n})$
- Space: $O(n^{1+1/C})$. $\rightarrow O(n^{3/2})$

$\|q - y\|_0$ = "hamming distance" = number of elements that differ between q and y .

APPROXIMATE NEAREST NEIGHBOR SEARCH

Theorem (Indyk, Motwani, 1998)

Let q be the closest database vector to y . Return a vector \tilde{q} with $\|\tilde{q} - y\|_0 \leq C \cdot \|q - y\|_0$ in:

- Time: $\tilde{O}(n^{1/C})$.
- Space: $\tilde{O}(n^{1+1/C})$.

→ No B parameter

hides extra
log factors

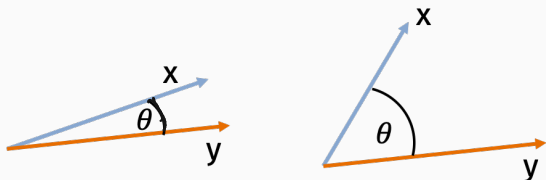
Any ideas for how this is done?

Good locality sensitive hash functions exists for many other similarity measures.

OTHER LSH FUNCTIONS

Good locality sensitive hash functions exist for many other similarity measures.

Cosine similarity $\cos(\theta(x, y)) = \frac{\langle x, y \rangle}{\|x\|_2 \|y\|_2} : \quad = x^T y$



$$-1 \leq \cos(\theta(x, y)) \leq 1.$$

$$\theta = \pi$$

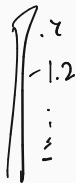
$$\theta = 0$$

Cosine similarity is natural “inverse” for Euclidean distance.

Euclidean distance $\|x - y\|_2^2$:

- Suppose for simplicity that $\|x\|_2^2 = \|y\|_2^2 = 1$.

$$\begin{aligned} \|x - y\|_2^2 &= \underbrace{\|x\|_2^2}_{=1} + \underbrace{\|y\|_2^2}_{=1} - 2x^T y \\ &= 2(1 - x^T y) \\ &= 2(1 - \underbrace{x^T y}_{\text{cosine similarity}}) \end{aligned}$$



Locality sensitive hash for cosine similarity:

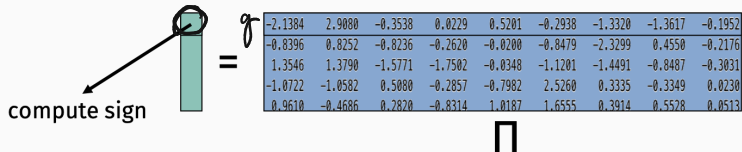
- Let $\mathbf{g} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ be randomly chosen with each entry $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$.
- $h : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \{-1, 1\}$ is defined $h(\mathbf{x}) = \text{sign}(\langle \mathbf{g}, \mathbf{x} \rangle)$. $\text{sign}(y^T x)$

If $\cos(\theta(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})) = v$, what is $\Pr[h(\mathbf{x}) = h(\mathbf{y})]$?

$$\cos(\theta(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})) = -1 \quad \Pr[h(\mathbf{x}) = h(\mathbf{y})] = 0.$$

$$\cos(\theta(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})) = 1 \quad \Pr[h(\mathbf{x}) = h(\mathbf{y})] = 1.$$

Inspired by Johnson-Lindenstrauss sketching

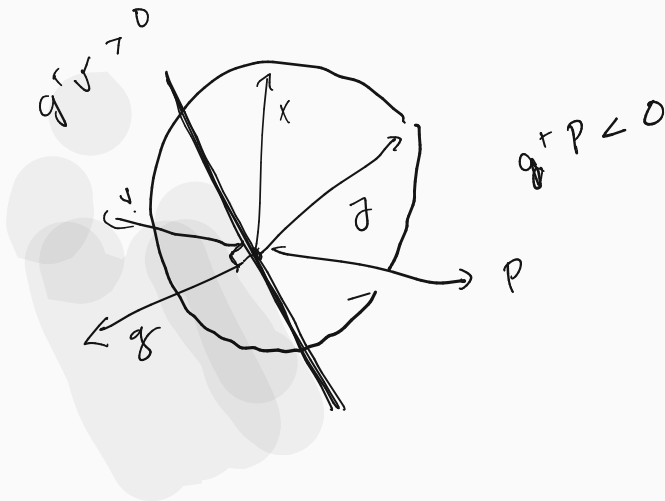


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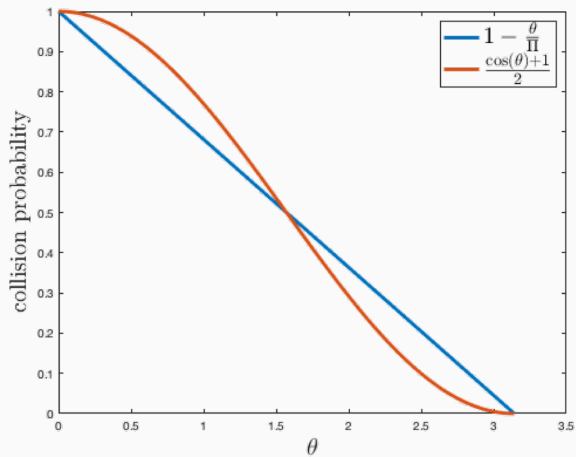
If $\cos(\theta(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})) = v$, what is $\Pr[h(\mathbf{x}) == h(\mathbf{y})]$?

SIMHASH ANALYSIS



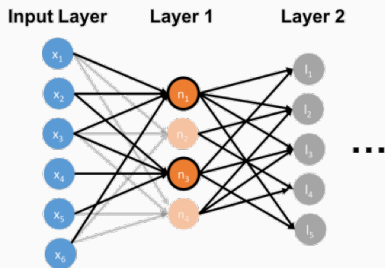
$$1 - \frac{\theta(x, j)}{p_i}$$

SIMHASH ANALYSIS



SIMHASH TO SPEEDUP NEURAL NETWORKS

Work of Anshumali Shrivastava at Rice University and coauthors.

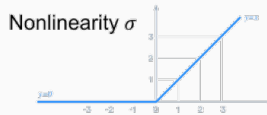
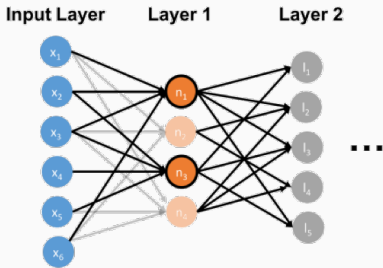


$$n_i = \sigma \left(\sum_{j=1}^m w(x_j, n_i) \cdot x_j \right) = \sigma(\langle w_i, x \rangle)$$

- Number of multiplications to evaluate $\mathcal{N}(x)$:
 $|x| \cdot |\text{layer 1}| + |\text{layer 1}| \cdot |\text{layer 2}| + |\text{layer 2}| \cdot |\text{layer 3}| + \dots$
- For an approximate solution, only consider neurons on each each with high activation.

SIMHASH TO SPEEDUP NEURAL NETWORKS

Work of Anshumali Shrivastava at Rice University and coauthors.



$$n_i = \sigma \left(\sum_{j=1}^m w(x_j, n_i) \cdot x_j \right) = \sigma(\langle \mathbf{w}_i, \mathbf{x} \rangle)$$

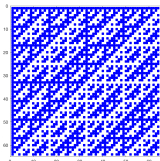
- High activation = large value of $\sigma(\langle \mathbf{w}_i, \mathbf{x} \rangle)$.
- Typically $\sigma(\langle \mathbf{w}_i, \mathbf{x} \rangle)$ increases as $\langle \mathbf{w}_i, \mathbf{x} \rangle$ increases.
- Use LSH/SimHash to quickly find all \mathbf{w}_i for which $\langle \mathbf{w}_i, \mathbf{x} \rangle$ is large and only include these terms in the sum.

Why can't we just sample entries from vectors?

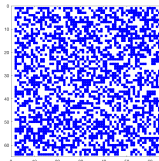
[Ailon, Chazelle, 2009 – The Fast Johnson-Lindenstrauss Transform]

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FAST JOHNSON-LINDENSTRAUSS (TIME PERMITTING)



Deterministic
Hadamard matrix.



Randomized
Hadamard HD .



Fully random sign
matrix.

FAST JOHNSON-LINDENSTRAUSS (TIME PERMITTING)