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## Summary

- Consider the regression problem

$$
y_{i}=f\left(x_{i}\right)+\varepsilon_{i}
$$

- Under mild assumptions on $\varepsilon$ and $x$, the wellknown "curse of dimensionality" implies that if $f$ is $\alpha$-Hölder regular and $x$ lives in $D$ dimensional space, then the worst case $L^{2}$
approximation error decays like $n^{\frac{-\alpha}{2 \alpha+D}}$
- However, if $f$ had low dimensional structure, i.e. if there existed a $d \times D$ matrix $A$ with orthonormal rows and function $g$ such that

$$
f(x)=g(A x)
$$

Then, if one could recover $A$, one should hope to be able to attain a faster convergence rate without exponential dependence on $D$.

## The Algorithm

- The gradients of $f$ must all lie in the image of $A$, as

$$
\nabla f(x)=\nabla g(A x) A
$$

- Thus, an $N \times D$ matrix $B$ with the estimated gradients of $f$ as rows should concentrate around $A$.
- Taking the top $d$ right singular vectors of $B$ should result in an $\hat{A}$ moderately close to $A$
- This process can be repeated, with an improved estimate of $A$ aiding the estimation of gradients, and thus improving the accuracy of $\hat{A}$
- Finally, use the learned projection in your regression algorithm of choice


## Numerical Experiments

- There are two outcomes to track: the largest angle between the regressed and true subspaces, and the final regression error (using 5-nearest-neighbor regression, normalized by variance).
- For the $L^{2}$ regression error, we also plot the normalized error when regressing using the true projection ("oracle").
- In both cases, $\vec{x} \in[-1,1]^{D}$

$$
g(z)=\sin \left(\frac{\pi}{6} z_{1}-\frac{\pi}{2}\right)+z_{2}
$$



$$
g(z)=\left|z_{1}\right|+\left|z_{2}\right|+\left|z_{3}\right|+\left|z_{4}\right|
$$



## Pseudocode

Input: $\left\{\left(x_{i}, y_{i}\right)\right\}_{i=1}^{N}, d \in \mathbb{Z}^{+}, \hat{A}_{0} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times D}$ while not converged:
$B_{k}=\operatorname{gradient}\left(x_{k}, y_{k}, \hat{A}_{t},\left\{\left(x_{i}, y_{i}\right)\right\}_{i}\right)$
$\hat{A}_{t+1}=\boldsymbol{s v d} \boldsymbol{r} \boldsymbol{r i g h t}(B)[: d]$
$t=t+1$
Output: $\hat{A}_{t}$

## Sketch of Theory

Gradient computation is done by solving the weighted-least squares problem

$$
\Delta y_{k, i}=\left\langle\Delta x_{k, i}, \widehat{\nabla} f\left(x_{k}\right)\right\rangle+\xi_{k, i}
$$

on the $m_{t}$ datapoints that minimize

$$
\left\|\hat{A}_{t}\left(x_{i}-x_{k}\right)\right\|_{2}
$$

where $m_{0} \approx N$ and decreases to an appropriate value as $\hat{A}_{t}$ becomes more accurate.

- The distribution of $\widehat{\nabla} f\left(x_{i}\right)$ has two main contributions to its norm:
- First, the true solution to the least-squares problem $\widetilde{\nabla} f\left(x_{i}\right)$, which lies in $A$
- Second, the variance of the estimate, which is concentrated in $\hat{A}_{t}$
- As $\hat{A}_{t}$ aligns with $A$, these reinforce and further improve the projection accuracy


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