

COMPSCI 514: ALGORITHMS FOR DATA SCIENCE

Andrew McGregor

Lecture 20

Computing the SVD/eigendecomposition

- Efficient algorithms for SVD/eigendecomposition.
- High level: a glimpse into fast methods for linear algebraic computation, which are workhorses behind data science.

We have talked about the eigendecomposition and SVD as ways to compress data, to embed entities like words and documents, to compress/cluster non-linearly separable data.

How efficient are these techniques? Can they be run on massive datasets?

Power Method: The most fundamental iterative method for approximate SVD/eigendecomposition. Applies to computing $k = 1$ eigenvectors, but can be generalized to larger k .

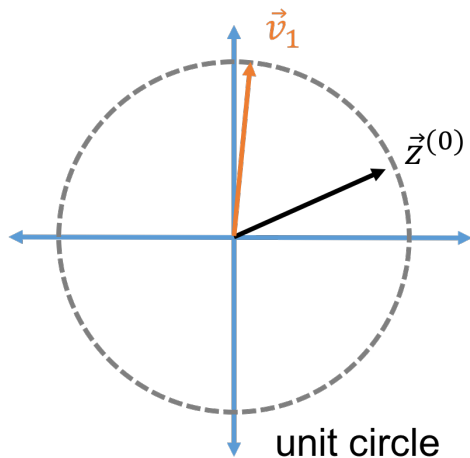
Goal: Given symmetric $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$, with eigendecomposition $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{V}\mathbf{\Lambda}\mathbf{V}^T$, find \vec{z} which is an approximation to the top eigenvector \vec{v}_1 of \mathbf{A} .

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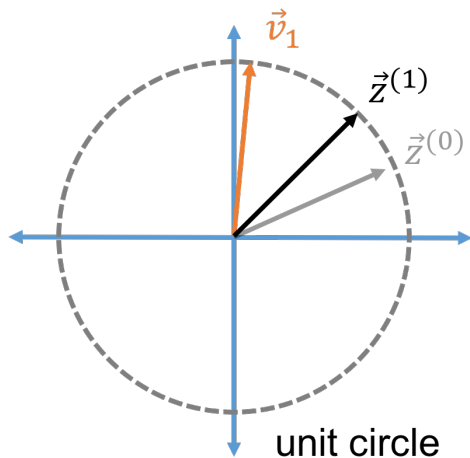
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- **Initialize:** Choose $\vec{z}^{(0)}$ randomly. E.g. $\vec{z}^{(0)}(i) \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$.
 - For $i = 1, \dots, t$
 - $\vec{z}^{(i)} := \mathbf{A} \cdot \vec{z}^{(i-1)}$
 - $\vec{z}_i := \frac{\vec{z}^{(i)}}{\|\vec{z}^{(i)}\|_2}$
- Return \vec{z}_t

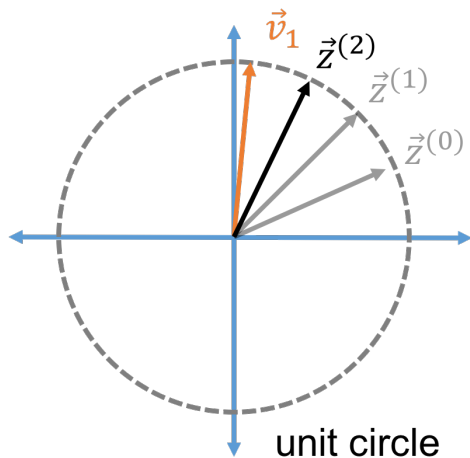
POWER METHOD



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POWER METHOD ANALYSIS

Write $\vec{z}^{(0)}$ in \mathbf{A} 's eigenvector basis:

$$\vec{z}^{(0)} = c_1 \vec{v}_1 + c_2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + c_d \vec{v}_d.$$

$\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$: input matrix with eigendecomposition $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{V}\mathbf{\Lambda}\mathbf{V}^T$. \vec{v}_1 : top eigenvector, being computed, $\vec{z}^{(i)}$: iterate at step i , converging to \vec{v}_1 .

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Update step: $\vec{z}^{(i)} = \mathbf{A} \cdot \vec{z}^{(i-1)} = \mathbf{V} \mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{V}^T \cdot \vec{z}^{(i-1)}$ (then normalize)

$$\mathbf{V}^T \vec{z}^{(0)} =$$

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$$\vec{z}^{(1)} = \mathbf{V} \mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{V}^T \cdot \vec{z}^{(0)} =$$

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Claim 1 : Writing $\vec{z}^{(0)} = c_1 \vec{v}_1 + c_2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + c_d \vec{v}_d$,

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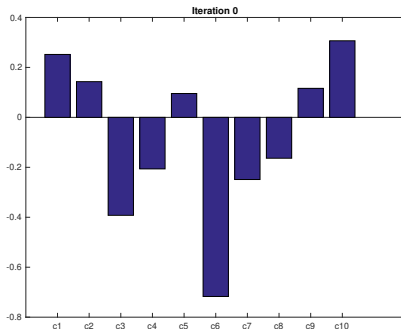
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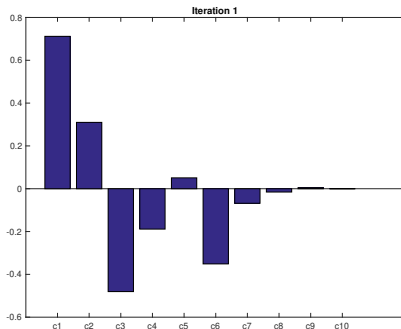
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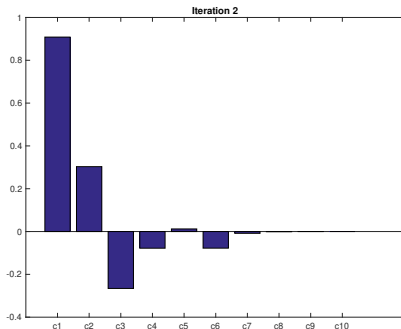
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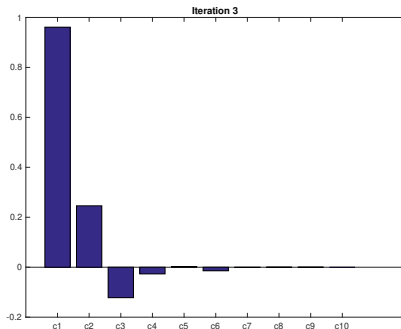
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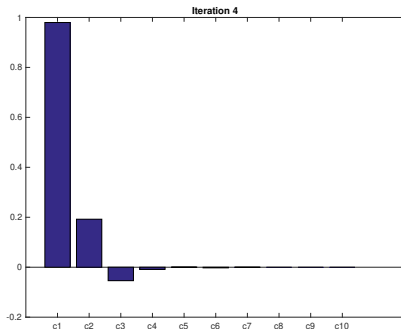
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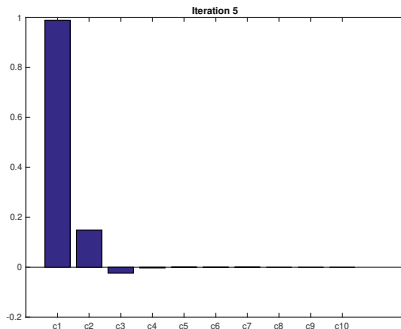
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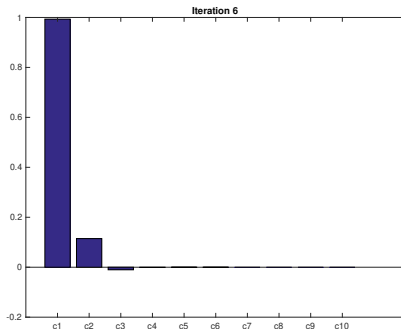
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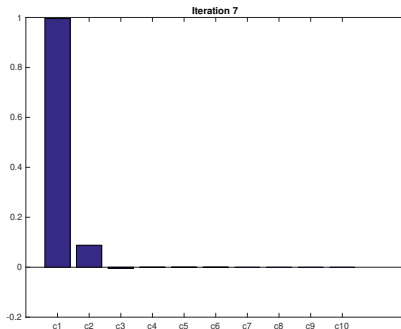
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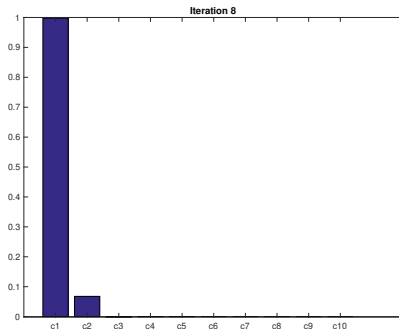
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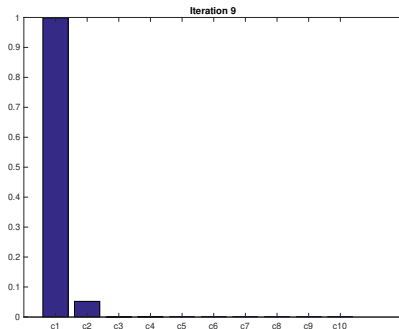
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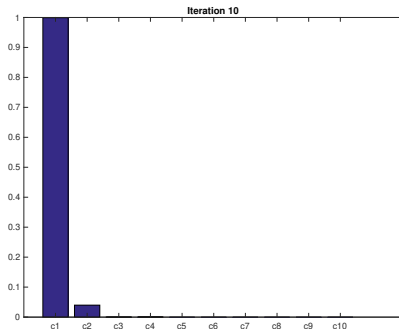
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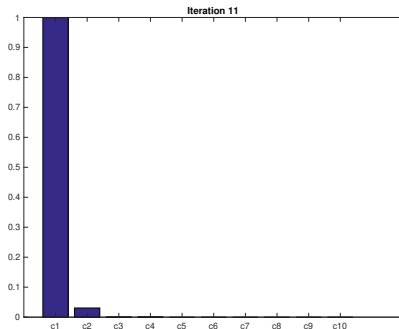
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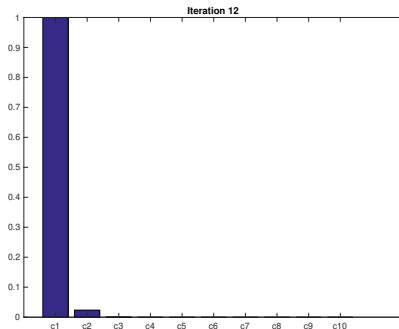
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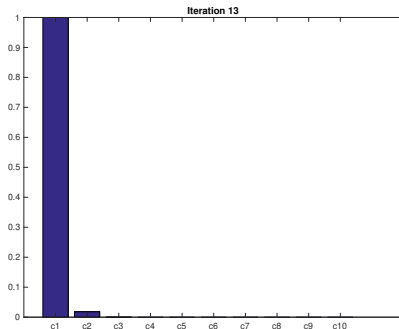
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When will convergence be slow?

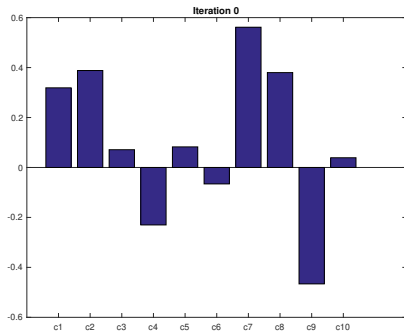
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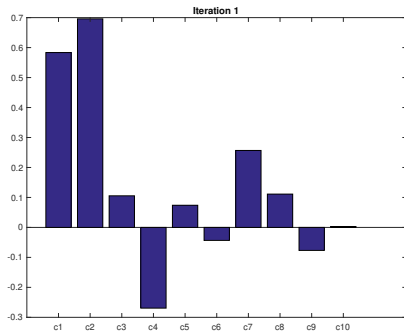
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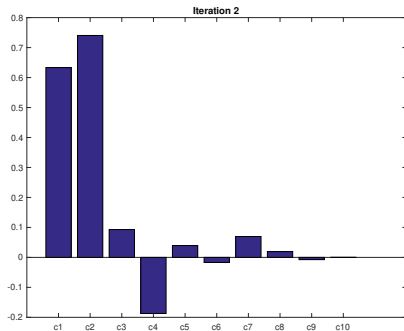
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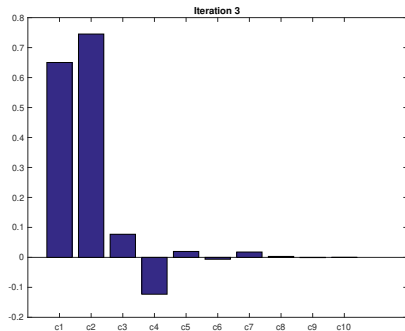
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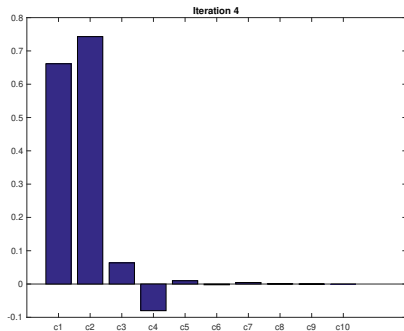
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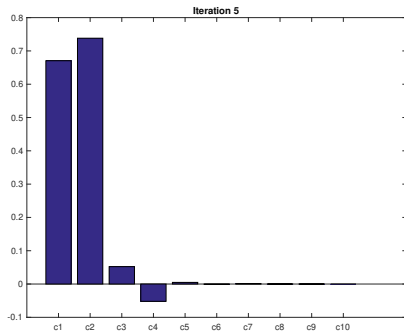
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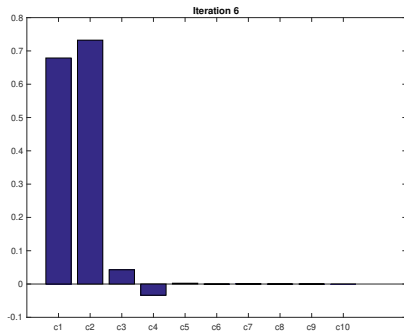
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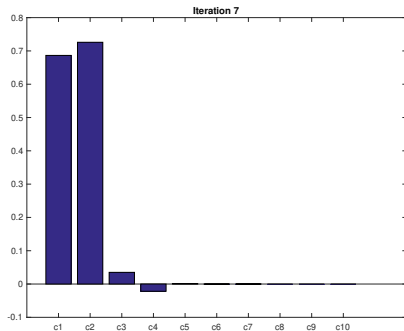
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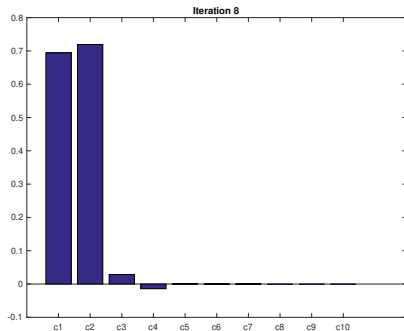
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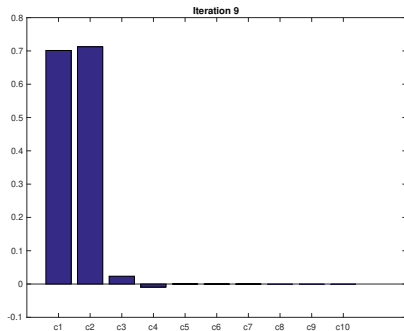
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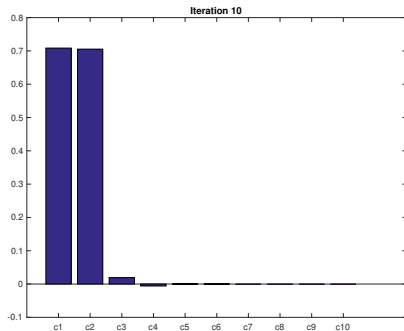
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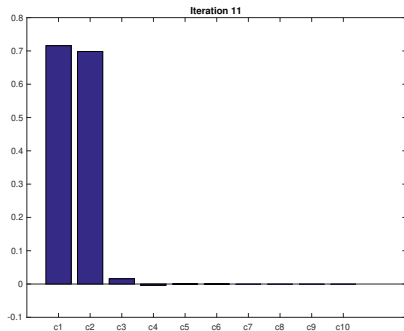
$$\vec{z}^{(0)} = c_1 \vec{v}_1 + c_2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + c_d \vec{v}_d \implies \vec{z}^{(t)} = c_1 \lambda_1^t \vec{v}_1 + c_2 \lambda_2^t \vec{v}_2 + \dots + c_d \lambda_d^t \vec{v}_d$$



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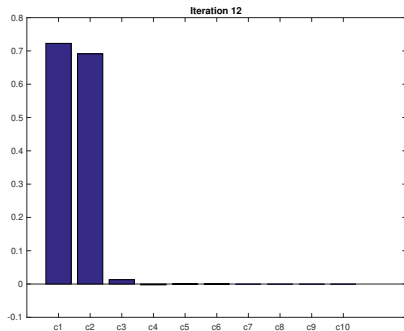
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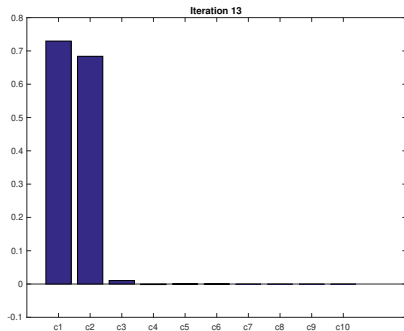
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How small must we set δ to ensure that $c_1 \lambda_1^t$ dominates all other components and so $\vec{z}^{(t)}$ is very close to \vec{v}_1 ?

$\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$: input matrix with eigendecomposition $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{V}\mathbf{\Lambda}\mathbf{V}^T$. \vec{v}_1 : top eigenvector, being computed, $\vec{z}^{(i)}$: iterate at step i , converging to \vec{v}_1 .

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Claim: When $z^{(0)}$ is chosen with random Gaussian entries, writing $z^{(0)} = c_1 \vec{v}_1 + c_2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + c_d \vec{v}_d$, with high probability, for all i :

$$O(1/d^2) \leq |c_i| \leq O(\log d)$$

Corollary:

$$\max_j \left| \frac{c_j}{c_1} \right| \leq O(d^2 \log d).$$

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- **Claim:** For $0 < c < \|x\|_2$:

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Setting $\delta = O\left(\frac{\epsilon}{d^3 \log d}\right)$ gives $\|\vec{z}^{(t)} - \vec{v}_1\|_2 \leq \epsilon$.

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Theorem (Basic Power Method Convergence)

Let $\gamma = \frac{|\lambda_1| - |\lambda_2|}{|\lambda_1|}$ be the relative gap between the first and second eigenvalues. If Power Method is initialized with a random Gaussian vector $\vec{v}^{(0)}$ then, with high probability, after $t = O\left(\frac{\ln(d/\epsilon)}{\gamma}\right)$ steps:

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Total runtime: $O(t)$ matrix-vector multiplications. If $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}$:

$$O\left(\text{nnz}(\mathbf{X}) \cdot \frac{\ln(d/\epsilon)}{\gamma}\right) = O\left(nd \cdot \frac{\ln(d/\epsilon)}{\gamma}\right).$$

FINDING SECOND (ETC.) EIGENVECTOR

- If A has eigenvectors v_1, \dots, v_n with eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$ ($|\lambda_1| \geq \dots \geq |\lambda_n|$) then

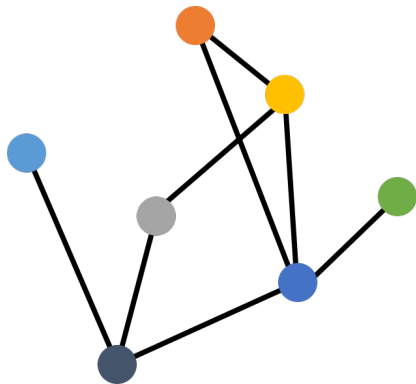
$$B = A - \lambda_1 v_1 v_1^T$$

has eigenvectors v_2, \dots, v_n, v_1 with eigenvalues $\lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n, 0$

- Hence, to find the second eigenvector of A , just apply the previous method to B .

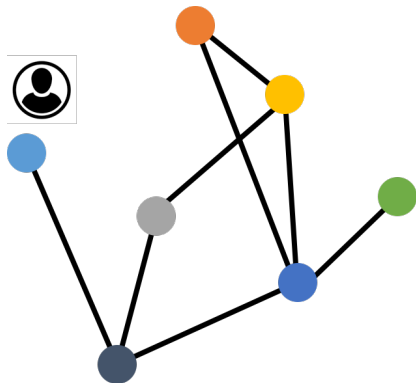
CONNECTION TO RANDOM WALKS

Consider a random walk on a graph G with adjacency matrix \mathbf{A} .



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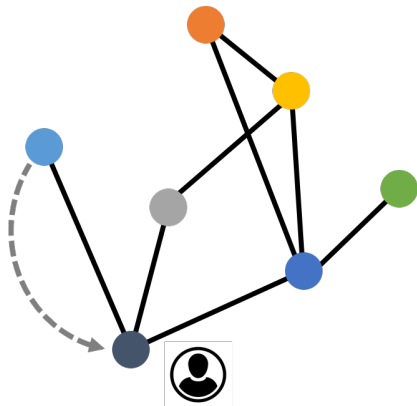
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At each step, move to a random vertex, chosen uniformly at random from the neighbors of the current vertex.

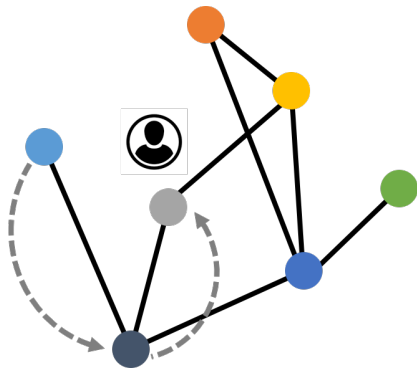
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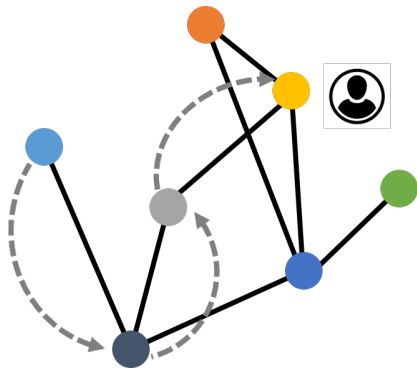
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$$\Pr(\text{walk at } i \text{ at step } t) = \sum_{j \in \text{neigh}(i)} \Pr(\text{walk at } j \text{ at step } t-1) \cdot \frac{1}{\text{degree}(j)}$$

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- \vec{z} is the i^{th} row of the right normalized adjacency matrix \mathbf{AD}^{-1} .

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$$\begin{aligned}\Pr(\text{walk at } i \text{ at step } t) &= \sum_{j \in \text{neigh}(i)} \Pr(\text{walk at } j \text{ at step } t-1) \cdot \frac{1}{\text{degree}(j)} \\ &= \vec{z}^T \vec{p}^{(t-1)}\end{aligned}$$

where $\vec{z}(j) = \frac{1}{\text{degree}(j)}$ for all $j \in \text{neigh}(i)$, $\vec{z}(j) = 0$ for all $j \notin \text{neigh}(i)$.

- \vec{z} is the i^{th} row of the right normalized adjacency matrix \mathbf{AD}^{-1} .
- $\vec{p}^{(t)} = \mathbf{AD}^{-1} \vec{p}^{(t-1)}$

CONNECTION TO RANDOM WALKS

Let $\vec{p}^{(t)} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ have i^{th} entry $\vec{p}_i^{(t)} = \Pr(\text{walk at node } i \text{ at step } t)$.

- **Initialize:** $\vec{p}^{(0)} = [1, 0, 0, \dots, 0]$.
- **Update:**

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr(\text{walk at } i \text{ at step } t) &= \sum_{j \in \text{neigh}(i)} \Pr(\text{walk at } j \text{ at step } t-1) \cdot \frac{1}{\text{degree}(j)} \\ &= \vec{z}^T \vec{p}^{(t-1)}\end{aligned}$$

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- \vec{z} is the i^{th} row of the right normalized adjacency matrix \mathbf{AD}^{-1} .
- $\vec{p}^{(t)} = \mathbf{AD}^{-1} \vec{p}^{(t-1)} = \underbrace{\mathbf{AD}^{-1} \mathbf{AD}^{-1} \dots \mathbf{AD}^{-1}}_{t \text{ times}} \vec{p}^{(0)}$

Claim: After t steps, the probability that a random walk is at node i is given by the i^{th} entry of

$$\vec{p}^{(t)} = \underbrace{\mathbf{A}\mathbf{D}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{D}^{-1}\dots\mathbf{A}\mathbf{D}^{-1}}_{t \text{ times}} \vec{p}^{(0)}.$$

Claim: After t steps, the probability that a random walk is at node i is given by the i^{th} entry of

$$\vec{p}^{(t)} = \underbrace{\mathbf{A}\mathbf{D}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{D}^{-1}\dots\mathbf{A}\mathbf{D}^{-1}}_{t \text{ times}} \vec{p}^{(0)}.$$

$$\mathbf{D}^{-1/2} \vec{p}^{(t)} = \underbrace{(\mathbf{D}^{-1/2}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{D}^{-1/2})(\mathbf{D}^{-1/2}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{D}^{-1/2})\dots(\mathbf{D}^{-1/2}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{D}^{-1/2})}_{t \text{ times}} (\mathbf{D}^{-1/2} \vec{p}^{(0)}).$$

RANDOM WALKING AS POWER METHOD

Claim: After t steps, the probability that a random walk is at node i is given by the i^{th} entry of

$$\vec{p}^{(t)} = \underbrace{\mathbf{A}\mathbf{D}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{D}^{-1}\dots\mathbf{A}\mathbf{D}^{-1}}_{t \text{ times}} \vec{p}^{(0)}.$$

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- $\mathbf{D}^{-1/2} \vec{p}^{(t)}$ is exactly what would be obtained by applying $t/2$ iterations of power method to $\mathbf{D}^{-1/2} \vec{p}^{(0)}$!

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- $\mathbf{D}^{-1/2} \vec{p}^{(t)}$ is exactly what would be obtained by applying $t/2$ iterations of power method to $\mathbf{D}^{-1/2} \vec{p}^{(0)}$!
- Will converge to the top eigenvector of the normalized adjacency matrix $\mathbf{D}^{-1/2}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{D}^{-1/2}$. **Stationary distribution.**

RANDOM WALKING AS POWER METHOD

Claim: After t steps, the probability that a random walk is at node i is given by the i^{th} entry of

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- Will converge to the top eigenvector of the normalized adjacency matrix $\mathbf{D}^{-1/2}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{D}^{-1/2}$. **Stationary distribution.**
- Like the power method, the time a random walk takes to converge to its stationary distribution (mixing time) is dependent on the gap between the top two eigenvalues of $\mathbf{D}^{-1/2}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{D}^{-1/2}$. The **spectral gap**.