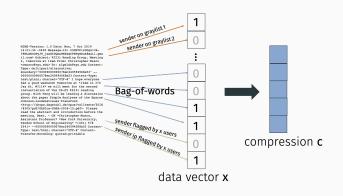
CS-GY 6763: Lecture 9 Low-rank approximation and singular value decomposition

NYU Tandon School of Engineering, Prof. Rajesh Jayaram

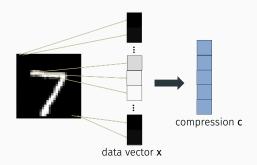
ADMINISTRATIVE

- Third reading group this Thursday at 4:30pm. Dennis and Jesse will present the paper: "Adaptive Subgradient Methods for Online Learning and Stochastic Optimization"
- Hw 3 is due next Monday!
- Next two lectures: Spectral methods and Randomized Numerical Linear Algebra.
- ullet Afterwards, Teal will teach a lecture (4/18) on Compressed Sensing.

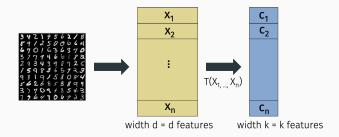
Return to data compression:



Return to data compression:



Main difference from randomized methods:



In this section, we will discuss <u>data dependent</u> transformations. Johnson-Lindenstrauss, MinHash, SimHash were all data oblivious.

Advantages of data independent methods:

Advantages of data dependent methods:

LINEAR ALGEBRA REMINDER

If a <u>square</u> matrix has orthonormal rows, it also have orthonormal columns:

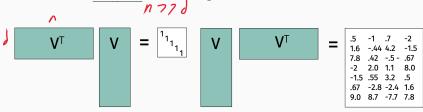
$$V^TV = I = VV^T$$

Implies that for any vector \mathbf{x} , $\|\mathbf{V}\mathbf{x}\|_2^2 = \|\mathbf{x}\|_2^2$ and $\|\mathbf{V}^T\mathbf{x}\|_2^2$.

Same thing goes for Frobenius norm: for any matrix \mathbf{X} , $\|\mathbf{V}\mathbf{X}\|_F^2 = \|\mathbf{X}\|_F^2$ and $\|\mathbf{V}^T\mathbf{X}\|_F^2 = \|\mathbf{X}\|_F^2$.

LINEAR ALGEBRA REMINDER

The same is <u>not true</u> for rectangular matrices:

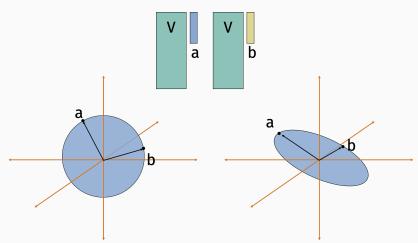


$$\mathbf{V}^T\mathbf{V} = \mathbf{I} \qquad \text{but} \qquad \mathbf{V}\mathbf{V}^T \neq \mathbf{I}$$
 For any \mathbf{x} , $\|\mathbf{V}\mathbf{x}\|_2^2 = \|\mathbf{x}\|_2^2 \ \underline{\text{but}} \ \|\mathbf{V}^T\mathbf{x}\|_2^2 \neq \|\mathbf{x}\|_2^2 \ \text{in general.}$

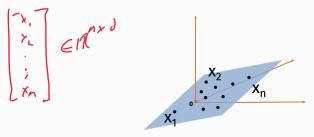
LINEAR ALGEBRA REMINDER

VX

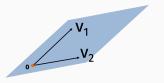
Multiplying a vector by \boldsymbol{V} with orthonormal columns $\underline{\text{rotates}}$ and/or reflects the vector.



Suppose $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n \in \mathbb{R}^d$ lie on a <u>low-dimensional</u> subspace S through the origin. I.e. our data set is <u>rank</u> k for k < d.

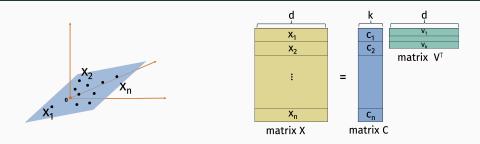


Let v_1, \ldots, v_k be orthogonal unit vectors spanning S.

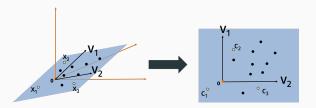


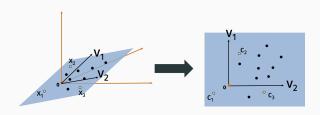
For all i, we can write:

$$\mathbf{x}_i = c_{i,1}\mathbf{v}_1 + \ldots + c_{i,k}\mathbf{v}_k.$$



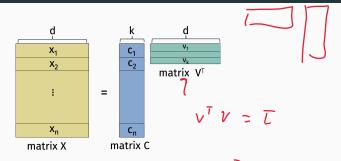
What are $\mathbf{c}_1, \dots, \mathbf{c}_n$?





Lots of information preserved:

- $\|\mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{x}_j\|_2 = \|\mathbf{c}_i \mathbf{c}_j\|_2$ for all i, j.
- $\mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_j = \mathbf{c}_i^T \mathbf{c}_j$ for all i, j.
- Norms preserved, linear separability preserved, $\min \|\mathbf{X}\mathbf{y} \mathbf{b}\| = \min \|\mathbf{C}\mathbf{z} \mathbf{b}\|, \text{ etc., etc.}$



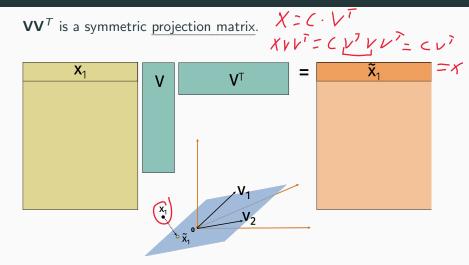
Formally,
$$\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{X} \mathbf{V}^{\dagger}$$
:

$$\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{C}\mathbf{V}^T \Rightarrow \mathbf{X}\mathbf{V} = \mathbf{C}\mathbf{V}^T\mathbf{V}$$

Since V's columns are an orthonormal basis, $V^TV = V$

So
$$X = XVV^T$$
.

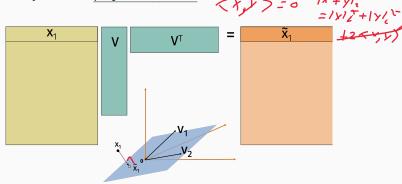
PROJECTION MATRICES



When all data points already lie in the subspace spanned by \mathbf{V} 's columns, projection doesn't do anything. So $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{V}\mathbf{V}^T$.

PROJECTION MATRICES

 $\boldsymbol{V}\boldsymbol{V}^{T}$ is a symmetric projection matrix.



 $\mathbf{x}_1^T \mathbf{V} \mathbf{V}^T$ is the projection of \mathbf{x}_1^T onto the subspace.

By pythagorean theorem, $\|\mathbf{x}_1^T - \mathbf{x}_1^T \mathbf{V} \mathbf{V}^T\|_2^2 = \|\mathbf{x}_1^T\|_2^2 - \|\mathbf{x}_1^2 \mathbf{V} \mathbf{V}^T\|_2^2$ and by apply to all rows, $\|\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{X} \mathbf{V} \mathbf{V}^T\|_F^2 = \|\mathbf{X}\|_F^2 - \|\mathbf{X} \mathbf{V} \mathbf{V}^T\|_F^2$.

LOW-RANK APPROXIMATION

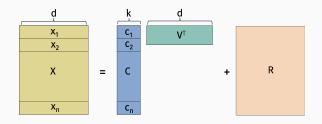
When **X**'s rows lie <u>close</u> to a k dimensional subspace, we can still approximate $\sqrt{\epsilon 1}$

$$X \approx XVV^T$$
.

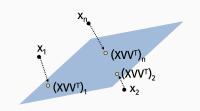
XVV is a low-rank approximation for X.

For a given subspace ${\cal V}$ spanned by the columns in ${f V}$,

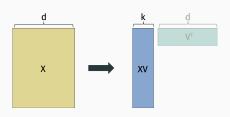
$$\mathbf{XVV}^T = \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{\mathbf{C}} \|\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{CV}^T\|_F^2 = \sum_{i,j} (\mathbf{X}_{i,j} - (\mathbf{CV}^T)_{i,j})^2.$$



LOW-RANK APPROXIMATION



$$\|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j\|_2 \approx \|\mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{V} \mathbf{V}^T - \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{V} \mathbf{V}^T\|_2 = \|\mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{V} - \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{V}\|_2$$



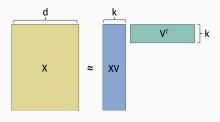
 ${f XV}$ can be used as a compressed version of data matrix ${f X}$.

WHY IS DATA APPROXIMATELY LOW-RANK?



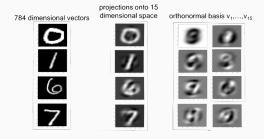
DUAL VIEW

Rows of \mathbf{X} (data points) are approximately spanned by k vectors. Columns of \mathbf{X} (data features) are approximately spanned by k vectors.



ROW REDUNDANCY

If a data set only had k unique data points, it would be exactly rank k. If it has k "clusters" of data points (e.g. the 10 digits) it's often very close to rank k.



COLUMN REDUNDANCY

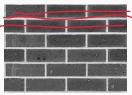
Colinearity/correlation of data features leads to a low-rank data matrix.

	bedrooms	bathrooms	sq.ft.	floors	list price	sale price
home 1	2	2	1800	2	200,000	195,000
home 2	4	2.5	2700	1	300,000	310,000
•	'	•	•	•		
•		•	•	•	•	•
					•	•
home n	5	3.5	3600	3	450,000	450,000

OTHER REASONS FOR LOW-RANK STRUCTURE

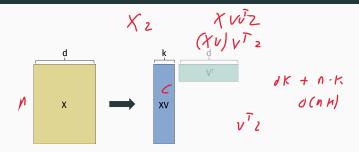
When encoded as a matrix, which image has lower approximate rank?







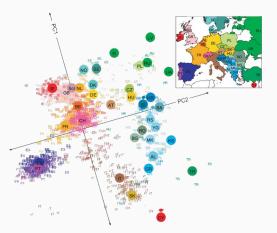
APPLICATIONS OF LOW-RANK APPROXIMATION



- **XV** · **V**^T takes O(k(n+d)) space to store instead of O(nd).
- Regression problems involving $\mathbf{X}\mathbf{V}\cdot\mathbf{V}^T$ can be solved in $O(nk^2)$ instead of $O(nd^2)$ time.
- **XV** can be used for visualization when k = 2, 3.

APPLICATIONS OF LOW-RANK APPROXIMATION

"Genes Mirror Geography Within Europe" - Nature, 2008.



Each data vector \mathbf{x}_i contains genetic information for one person in Europe. Set k=2 and plot $(XV)_i$ for each i on a 2-d plane. Color points by what country they are from.

COMPUTATIONAL QUESTION

Given a subspace V spanned by the k columns in V,

$$\|\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{V}\mathbf{V}^T\|_F^2 = \min_{\mathbf{C}} \|\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{C}\mathbf{V}^T\|_F^2$$

We want to find the best $\mathbf{V} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times k}$:

$$\min_{\text{orthonormal } \mathbf{V} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times k}} \|\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{X} \mathbf{V} \mathbf{V}^T\|_F^2 \tag{1}$$

Note that $\|\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{V}\mathbf{V}^T\|_F^2 = \|\mathbf{X}\|_F^2 - \|\mathbf{X}\mathbf{V}\mathbf{V}^T\|_F^2$ for all orthonormal \mathbf{V} (since $\mathbf{V}\mathbf{V}^T$ is a projection). Equivalent form: $\mathbf{V}\mathbf{V}\mathbf{V}^T$

$$\max_{\text{orthonormal } \mathbf{V} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times k}} \|\mathbf{X} \mathbf{V} \mathbf{V}^T\|_F^2 = \|\mathbf{X} \mathbf{V}\|_F^2$$
 (2)

RANK 1 CASE

If k = 1, want to find a single vector \mathbf{v}_1 which maximizes:

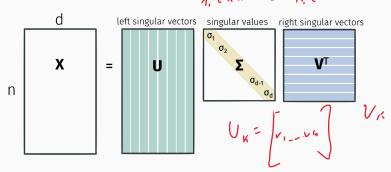
$$\|\mathbf{X}\mathbf{v}_1\mathbf{v}_1^T\|_F^2 = \|\mathbf{X}\mathbf{v}_1\|_F^2 = \|\mathbf{X}\mathbf{v}_1\|_2^2 = \mathbf{v}_1^T\mathbf{X}^T (\mathbf{X}\mathbf{v}_1)$$
Choose \mathbf{v}_1 to be the top eigenvector of $\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X}$.



What about higher k?

One-stop shop for computing optimal low-rank approximations.

Any matrix **X** can be written:



Where
$$\mathbf{U}^T\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{I}$$
, $\mathbf{V}^T\mathbf{V} = \mathbf{I}$, and $\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \dots \sigma_d \geq 0$.

Note that
$$\sum_{i=1}^d \sigma_i^2 = \|\mathbf{X}\|_F^2$$
.

CONNECTION TO EIGENDECOMPOSITION

- V_k 's columns are called the "top right singular vectors of X"
- \mathbf{U}_k 's columns are called the "top left singular vectors of \mathbf{X} "
- $\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_k$ are the "top singular values". $\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_d$ are sometimes called the "spectrum of **X**" (although this is more typically used to refer to eigenvalues).
- U contains the orthonormal eigenvectors of XX^T.
- **V** contains the orthonormal eigenvectors of $\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}$.
- $\sigma_i^2 = \lambda_i(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^T) = \lambda_i(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})$

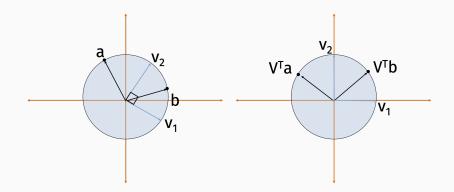
Exercise: Check this can be checked directly.

Important take away from singular value decomposition.

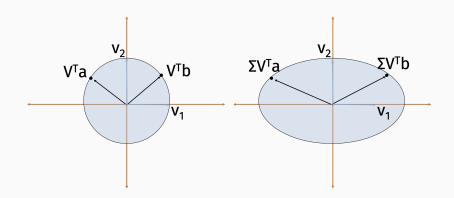
Multiplying any vector \mathbf{a} by a matrix \mathbf{X} to form $\mathbf{X}\mathbf{a}$ can be viewed as a composition of 3 operations:

- 1. Rotate/reflect the vector (multiplication by to \mathbf{V}^T).
- 2. Scale the coordinates (multiplication by Σ .
- 3. Rotate/reflect the vector again (multiplication by \mathbf{U}).

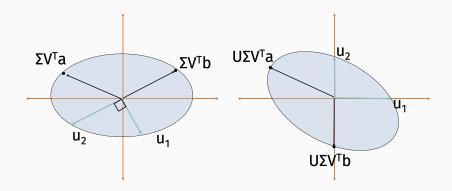
SINGULAR VALUE DECOMPOSITION: ROTATE/REFLECT

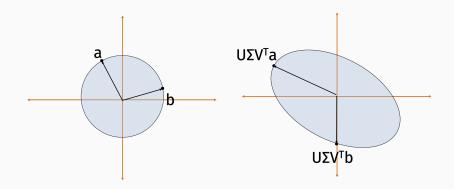


SINGULAR VALUE DECOMPOSITION: STRETCH

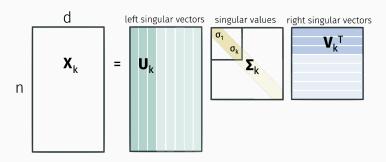


SINGULAR VALUE DECOMPOSITION: ROTATE/REFLECT





Can read off optimal low-rank approximations from the SVD:



$$\mathbf{X}_k = \mathbf{U}_k \mathbf{\Sigma}_k \mathbf{V}_k^T = \mathbf{U}_k \mathbf{U}_k^T \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{X} \mathbf{V}_k \mathbf{V}_k^T.$$

$$\mathbf{V}_k = \underset{\text{orthonormal } \mathbf{V} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times k}}{\arg \min} \|\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{X} \mathbf{V} \mathbf{V}^T\|_F^2 = \underset{\text{orthonormal } \mathbf{V} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times k}}{\arg \max} \|\mathbf{X} \mathbf{V} \mathbf{V}^T\|_F^2$$

Theorem (Eckart–Young–Mirsky theorem)

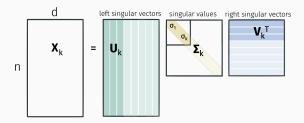
Let $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times k}$ be any matrix, and let $\mathbf{X}_k = \mathbf{U}_k \mathbf{\Sigma}_k \mathbf{V}_k^T$ be the k-truncated SVD of \mathbf{A} . Then the best rank-k approximation to \mathbf{X} is \mathbf{X}_k . Namely:

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{\textit{rank-k}} & \|\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{B}\|_F^2 = \|\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{X} \mathbf{V}_k \mathbf{V}_k^T\|_F^2 \\ & = \|\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{X}_k\|_F^2 \end{aligned}$$

Connection to **Principal Component Analysis**:

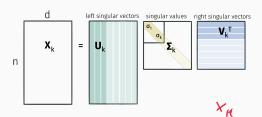
- Let $\bar{\mathbf{X}} = \mathbf{X} \mathbf{1}\boldsymbol{\mu}^T$ where $\boldsymbol{\mu} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{x}_i$. I.e. $\bar{\mathbf{X}}$ is obtained by mean centering \mathbf{X} 's rows.
- Let $\bar{\mathbf{U}}\bar{\mathbf{\Sigma}}\bar{\mathbf{V}}^T$ be the SVD of $\bar{\mathbf{X}}$. $\bar{\mathbf{U}}$'s first columns are the "top principal components" of \mathbf{X} . \mathbf{V} 's first columns are the "weight vectors" for these principal components.

USEFUL OBSERVATIONS



Observation 1: The optimal compression XV_k has orthogonal columns.

USEFUL OBSERVATIONS



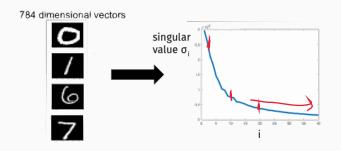
Observation 2: The optimal low-rank approximation error $E_k = \|\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{X} \mathbf{V}_k \mathbf{V}_k^T\|_F^2 = \|\mathbf{X}\|_F^2 - \|\mathbf{X} \mathbf{V}_k \mathbf{V}_k^T\|_F^2$ can be written:

SPECTRAL PLOTS

Observation 2: The optimal low-rank approximation error $E_k = \|\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{X} \mathbf{V}_k \mathbf{V}_k^T\|_F^2 = \|\mathbf{X}\|_F^2 - \|\mathbf{X} \mathbf{V}_k \mathbf{V}_k^T\|_F^2$ can be written:

$$E_k = \sum_{i=k+1}^d \sigma_i^2.$$

Can immediately get a sense of "how low-rank" a matrix is from it's spectrum:



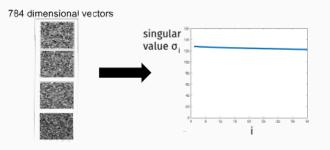
SPECTRAL PLOTS

Observation 2: The optimal low-rank approximation error

$$E_k = \|\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{X} \mathbf{V}_k \mathbf{V}_k^T\|_F^2 = \|\mathbf{X}\|_F^2 - \|\mathbf{X} \mathbf{V}_k \mathbf{V}_k^T\|_F^2$$
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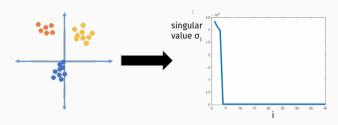
SPECTRAL PLOTS

Observation 2: The optimal low-rank approximation error

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 can be written:

$$E_k = \sum_{i=k+1}^d \sigma_i^2.$$

Can immediately get a sense of "how low-rank" a matrix is from it's spectrum:



COMPUTING THE SVD

Suffices to compute right singular vectors \mathbf{V} : χ

- Compute **X**^T**X**.
- Find eigendecomposition $\mathbf{V}\mathbf{\Lambda}\mathbf{V}^T = \mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X}$.
- Compute $\mathbf{L} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{Y}$. Set $\sigma_i = \|\mathbf{L}_i\|_2$ and $\mathbf{U}_i = \mathbf{L}_i/\|\mathbf{L}_i\|_2$.

$$x^{T} \times x^{T}$$
Total runtime $\approx 0 \in \mathbb{A}^{1}(\mathbb{A}^{J^{*}}, \mathbb{A}^{J^{*}})$

COMPUTING THE SVD (FASTER)

• Compute approximate solution.

- χ_{κ}
- Only compute top k singular vectors/values. Runtime will depend on k. When k=d we can't do any better than classical algorithms based on eigendecomposition.
- Iterative algorithms achieve runtime $\approx O(ndk)$ vs. $O(nd^2)$ time.
 - Krylov subspace methods like the Lanczos method are most commonly used in practice.
 - Power method is the simplest Krylov subspace method, and still works very well.

What we won't discuss today sketching methods and stochastic methods (which are faster in some settings).

POWER METHOD

Today: What about when k = 1?

$$X^{T}z$$

 $\textbf{Goal:} \ \, \mathsf{Find} \, \, \mathsf{some} \, \, \textbf{z} \approx \textbf{v}_1.$

(? , ? , ... , ? ,)

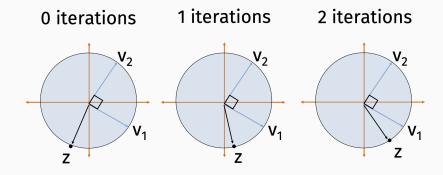
Input: $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$ with SVD $\mathbf{U} \mathbf{\Sigma} \mathbf{V}^T$.

Power method:

- Choose $\mathbf{z}^{(0)}$ randomly. E.g. $\mathbf{z}_0 \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1)$. $(\mathbf{z}^{\mathsf{T}_{\mathsf{r}}})$
- $\mathbf{z}^{(0)} = \mathbf{z}^{(0)} / \|\mathbf{z}^{(0)}\|_2$
- For i = 1, ..., T
 - $\mathbf{z}^{(i)} = \mathbf{X}^T \cdot (\mathbf{X}\mathbf{z}^{(i-1)})$
 - $n_i = \|\mathbf{z}^{(i)}\|_2$
 - $z^{(i)} = z^{(i)}/n_i$

Return $\mathbf{z}^{(T)}$

POWER METHOD INTUITION



POWER METHOD FORMAL CONVERGENCE

Theorem (Basic Power Method Convergence)

Let $\gamma = \frac{\sigma_1 - \sigma_2}{\sigma_1}$ be parameter capturing the "gap" between the first and second largest singular values of a matrix $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$. If Power Method is initialized with a random Gaussian vector then, with high probability, after $T = O\left(\frac{\log d/\epsilon}{\gamma}\right)$ steps, we have either:

$$\|\mathbf{v}_1 - \mathbf{z}^{(T)}\|_2 \le \epsilon$$
 or $\|\mathbf{v}_1 - (-\mathbf{z}^{(T)})\|_2 \le \epsilon$.

Total runtime: $O\left(nd \cdot \frac{\log d/\epsilon}{\gamma}\right)$

Refined runtime: $O\left(\operatorname{nnz}(\mathbf{X}) \cdot \frac{\log d/\epsilon}{\gamma}\right)$, where $\operatorname{nnz}(\mathbf{X})$ is the number of non-zero entries in \mathbf{X} .

ONE STEP ANALYSIS OF POWER METHOD

Write $\mathbf{z}^{(i)}$ in the right singular vector basis:

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

$$\mathbf{z}^{(1)} = c_1^{(1)} \mathbf{v}_1 + c_2^{(1)} \mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + c_d^{(1)} \mathbf{v}_d$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\mathbf{z}^{(i)} = c_1^{(i)} \mathbf{v}_1 + c_2^{(i)} \mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + c_d^{(i)} \mathbf{v}_d$$

Note:
$$[c_1^{(i)}, \dots, c_d^{(i)}] = \mathbf{c}^{(i)} = \mathbf{V}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{z}^{(i)}$$
.

Also:
$$\sum_{j=1}^{d} (c_j^{(i)})^2 = 1.$$

ONE STEP ANALYSIS OF POWER METHOD

Claim: After update
$$\mathbf{z}^{(i)} = \frac{1}{n_i} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} \mathbf{z}^{(i-1)}$$
, $c_j^{(i)} = \frac{1}{n_i} \sigma_j^2 c_j^{(i-1)}$

MULTI-STEP ANALYSIS OF POWER METHOD

Claim: After *T* updates:

$$\mathbf{z}^{(T)} = \frac{1}{\prod_{i=1}^{T} n_i} \left[c_1^{(0)} \sigma_1^{2T} \cdot \mathbf{v}_1 + c_2^{(0)} \sigma_2^{2T} \cdot \mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + c_d^{(0)} \sigma_d^{2T} \cdot \mathbf{v}_d \right]$$

$$\mathbf{z}^{(T)} = \frac{1}{\prod_{i=1}^{T} n_i} \left[c_1^{(0)} \sigma_1^{2T} \cdot \mathbf{v}_1 + c_2^{(0)} \sigma_2^{2T} \cdot \mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + c_d^{(0)} \sigma_d^{2T} \cdot \mathbf{v}_d \right]$$

$$\mathbf{z}^{(T)} = \frac{1}{\prod_{i=1}^{T} n_i} \left[c_1^{(0)} \sigma_1^{2T} \cdot \mathbf{v}_1 + c_2^{(0)} \sigma_2^{2T} \cdot \mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + c_d^{(0)} \sigma_d^{2T} \cdot \mathbf{v}_d \right]$$

Let
$$\alpha_j = \frac{1}{\prod_{i=1}^T n_i} c_j^{(0)} \sigma_j^{2T}$$
. **Goal:** Show that $\alpha_j \ll \alpha_1$ for all $j \neq 1$.

POWER METHOD FORMAL CONVERGENCE

Since $\mathbf{z}^{(T)}$ is a unit vector, $\sum_{i=1}^{d} \alpha_i^2 = 1$. So $\alpha_1 \leq 1$. If we can prove that $\frac{\alpha_j}{\alpha_1} \leq \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon}{d}}$ then:

$$\alpha_{j}^{2} \leq \alpha_{1}^{2} \cdot \frac{\epsilon}{d}$$

$$1 = \alpha_{1}^{2} + \sum_{j=2}^{d} \alpha_{d}^{2} \leq \alpha_{1}^{2} + \epsilon$$

$$\alpha_{1}^{2} \geq 1 - \epsilon$$

$$|\alpha_{1}| \geq 1 - \epsilon$$

POWER METHOD FORMAL CONVERGENCE

Lets proves that $\frac{\alpha_j}{\alpha_1} \leq \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon}{d}}$ where $\alpha_j = \frac{1}{\prod_{i=1}^T n_i} c_j^{(0)} \sigma_j^{2T}$

First observation: Starting coefficients are all roughly equal.

For all
$$j$$

$$O(1/d^3) \le c_j^{(0)} \le 1$$

with probability $1 - \frac{1}{d}$. This is a very loose bound, but it's all that we will need. **Prove using Gaussian concentration.**

POWER METHOD - NO GAP DEPENDENCE

Theorem (Gapless Power Method Convergence)

If Power Method is initialized with a random Gaussian vector then, with high probability, after $T = O\left(\frac{\log d/\epsilon}{2}\right)$ steps, we obtain a **z** satisfying:

$$\|\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{z}\mathbf{z}^T\|_F^2 \le (1 + \epsilon)\|\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{v}_1\mathbf{v}_1^T\|_F^2$$

GENERALIZATIONS TO LARGER K

 Block Power Method aka Simultaneous Iteration aka Subspace Iteration aka Orthogonal Iteration

Power method:

- Choose $\mathbf{G} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times k}$ be a random Gaussian matrix.
- $\mathbf{Z}_0 = \operatorname{orth}(\mathbf{G})$.
- For i = 1, ..., T
 - $\bullet \ \mathbf{Z}^{(i)} = \mathbf{X}^T \cdot (\mathbf{X}\mathbf{z}^{(i-1)})$
 - $\mathbf{Z}^{(i)} = \operatorname{orth}(\mathbf{z}^{(i)})$

Return $\mathbf{Z}^{(T)}$

Runtime: $O\left(\frac{\log d/\epsilon}{\epsilon}\right)$ iterations to obtain a nearly optimal low-rank approximation:

$$\|\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{Z}\mathbf{Z}^T\|_F^2 \le (1 + \epsilon)\|\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{V_k}\mathbf{V_k}^T\|_F^2.$$