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Deterministic algorithms for the low rank approximation of matrices

ANF "Réduction de la dimension dans la fouille de données massives : enjeux, méthodes et outils pour le calcul "

(lle d'Oléron)

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September 27 2017



- Objectives and preliminaries
 - Objectives
 - Material and goals of the lecture
 - Preliminaries
- Fundamental matrix decompositions
- Low rank approximations using the Lanczos bidiagonalization
- 4 Low rank approximations using the symmetric eigenvalue decomposition
- Software
- 6 Conclusions

Objectives

Objectives

• Given $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ with $p = \min(m, n)$ we seek to compute a rank-k approximation, typically with $k \ll p$ (say $m, n \sim 10^4, 10^6, 10^8, \cdots$ and $k \approx 10$ or 10^2) as

$$A \approx E F^H$$
, $E \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times k}$, $F \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times k}$.

- Solving this problem usually requires algorithms for computing the Singular Value Decomposition (SVD) or an eigendecomposition corresponding to dominant eigenvalues.
- Goal of the lecture: review standard deterministic approaches for the low rank approximation of matrices (sparse and dense).
- Those methods are building blocks in more recent advanced strategies (e.g. randomized methods, see lecture of Pierre Blanchard).
- Focus on the analysis of the standard algorithms with respect to parallelism.

Current challenges in algorithmic design

Current challenges in algorithmic design

- State-of-the-art deterministic methods of numerical linear algebra were designed for an environment where the matrix fits into memory (RAM) and the key to performance was to minimize the number of floating point operations (flops) required.
- Currently, communication is the real bottleneck
 - Moving data from a hard drive
 - Moving data between nodes of a parallel machine
 - Moving data between nodes of a cloud computer.
- Ideally we should target for efficient algorithms scaling linearly with the problem size and with minimal data movement.
- This is required due to the increasingly large amount of data in current applications (web search, machine learning, social networks, genomics/proteomics data, ···).

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Material and goals of the lecture

Material

- Lecture notes with references to original papers and additional suggested readings.
- Interactive julia notebook during the afternoon session.
- "Real-life" applications during the afternoon session.

Goals of the lecture

- Briefly review fundamental matrix decompositions (Section 2).
- Provide a brief review on deterministic methods for low rank approximations with an emphasis on parallel aspects (Sections 3 and 4).
- Shortly describe related **parallel software** (Section 5).
- Give numerical illustrations in julia during the afternoon session.

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Norms

- Euclidean inner product : $x \in \mathbb{C}^n, y \in \mathbb{C}^n, < x, y >= y^H x = \sum_{j=1}^n x_j \bar{y}_j$.
- Euclidean norm : $x \in \mathbb{C}^n$, $||x||_2 = (\sum_{j=1}^n |x_j|^2)^{1/2}$.
- ℓ^p norm : $x \in \mathbb{C}^n$, $||x||_p = (\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^p)^{1/p}$.
- Spectral norm of $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$:

$$||A||_2 = \sup_{x \neq 0} \frac{||Ax||_2}{||x||_2}, x \in \mathbb{C}^n.$$

• Frobenius norm of $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$:

$$||A||_F = (\sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n |A_{ij}|^2)^{1/2}.$$

Transpose and adjoint

• Given $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$, the **transpose** $B = A^T \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times m}$ is defined as :

$$B_{ij}=A_{ji}$$
.

• Given $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$, the **adjoint** $A^H \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times m}$ is defined as :

$$A^H = \overline{A^T}$$
.

Useful norm relation :

$$||A||_2^2 = ||AA^H||_2 = ||A^HA||_2.$$

Special classes of matrices

- A $m \times n$ matrix A is **orthonormal** if its columns form an orthonormal basis, i.e., $A^H A = I_n$.
- A $n \times n$ matrix A is **normal** if $A^H A = AA^H$.
- A $n \times n$ real matrix A is **symmetric** if $A^T = A$.
- A $n \times n$ matrix A is self-adjoint (Hermitian) if $A^H = A$.
- A $n \times n$ matrix A is skew-adjoint if $A^H = -A$.
- A $n \times n$ matrix A is **unitary** if it is invertible and $A^H = A^{-1}$.
- A $n \times n$ self-adjoint matrix A is said to be **positive definite** if :

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{C}^n, x \neq 0, x^H Ax > 0.$$

• A $n \times n$ self-adjoint matrix A is said to be **positive semi-definite** if :

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{C}^n, x \neq 0, x^H Ax > 0.$$

Spectral decomposition

• λ is an eigenvalue and v an eigenvector of $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ if :

$$v \neq 0$$
, $Av = \lambda v$.

• $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is **normal** if and only if A admits a factorization of the form :

$$A = VDV^H$$
,

where $V = [v_1 v_2 \cdots v_n] \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is unitary and $D \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is diagonal with entries $\lambda_i, (j = 1, \dots, n)$.

• The previous relation can alternatively be written

$$A = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \lambda_j v_j v_j^H,$$

where (λ_i, v_i) are the **eigenpairs** of A.

Partial spectral decomposition and Krylov subspace methods

- If $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ can be applied **rapidly** to vectors as happens when A is sparse or structured, then **Krylov subspace methods** can accurately and effectively compute a **partial spectral decomposition**.
- Given $v \in \mathbb{C}^n$ such as $||v||_2 = 1$ and $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$, the Krylov subspace of dimension at most k generated by A and v is defined as :

$$\mathcal{K}_k(A, v) = span\{v, Av, \cdots, A^{k-1}v\}.$$

- The idea is to seek approximations of eigenvectors within this particular subspace.
- Caveat: the most basic versions of Krylov subspace methods are numerically unstable!
- Block Krylov subspace methods consider the case where the starting vector v is replaced by a starting matrix V of appropriate dimension. A richer subspace is then expected.

Householder reflection (Householder matrix, Householder transformation)

• Given $v \in \mathbb{C}^m$ such as $||v||_2 = 1$, the Householder matrix H_v is defined as :

$$H_{\rm v} = I_{\rm m} - 2{\rm v} {\rm v}^{\rm H}$$
.

- H_V is Hermitian (self-adjoint).
- H_V is unitary and $H_V^2 = I_m$.
- \bullet $H_{V}v = -v, \forall w \in v^{\perp}, H_{V}w = w.$
- **Application** : Given $u \in \mathbb{C}^m$ with $u_1 = e^{i\theta_1} \|u\|_2$, $e_1 \in \mathbb{C}^m$ (first unit vector), and $v = \frac{u e^{i\theta_1} \|u\|_2 e_1}{\|u e^{i\theta_1} \|u\|_2 e_1\|_2}$,

$$H_{V}u = u_{1}e_{1}$$
.

• This is a basic step in the Householder QR factorization.

Householder-QR factorization

• Reduce $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$ to triangular form $H_L A = R$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \star & \star & \star \\ \star & \star & \star \\ \star & \star & \star \end{bmatrix} \underbrace{H_{L,1}}_{L,1} \begin{bmatrix} \Box & \Box & \Box \\ & \Box & \Box \end{bmatrix} \underbrace{H_{L,2}}_{L,2} \begin{bmatrix} \Box & \Box & \Box \\ & \circ & \circ \\ & & \circ \end{bmatrix}$$

where $H_{L,i}$ indicates a left-multiplication by a **Householder** reflection. At the end of this step we have :

$$H_{L,m-1}\cdots H_{L,1} A = R.$$

- Final step : A = QR with $Q = H_{L,1} \cdots H_{L,m-1}$.
- Complexity : $O(m^2p)$ with p = min(m, n).
- Parallel performance: low since heavily based on sequence of matrix-vector operations due to Householder reflections.

Preliminaries (Parallel computing)

Main features to analyze

- Data distribution.
- Load balancing property of the algorithm.
- Weak and strong scalability properties of the algorithm.
- Resiliency and fault-tolerant properties of the algorithm.

Distributed data analysis and scientific computing

- Apache Hadoop Map/Reduce (RDD : Resilient Data Distribution).
- Spark Apache **MLlib** (Dimensionality Reduction : SVD, PCA).
- Message Passing Interface (MPI).
- R and Distributed R (Rmpi, RHadoop).

Preliminaries (Parallel computing)

Map/Reduce algorithms

- Framework for processing parallelizable problems across large datasets using a large number of nodes on a cluster.
- Current methodology :
 - Map: Each worker node applies the "map()" function to the local data, and writes the output to a temporary storage. A master node ensures that only one copy of redundant input data is processed.
 - Shuffle: Worker nodes redistribute data based on the output keys (produced by the "map()" function), such that all data belonging to one key is located on the same worker node.
 - Reduce: Worker nodes now process each group of output data, per key, in parallel.
- Widely used in Big data applications.
- An efficient distributed file system is usely required.

Suggested reading

Suggested reading

- A. Gittens, A. Devarakonda, E. Racah, M. Ringenburg, L. Gerhardt, J. Kottalam, J. Liu, K. Maschhoff, S. Canon, J. Chhugani,
 P. Sharma, J. Yang, J. Demmel, J. Harrell, V. Krishnamurthy and
 M. Mahoney Matrix factorizations at scale: A comparison of scientific data analytics in Spark and C+ MPI using three case studies, IEEE International Conference on Big Data, pp. 204-213, 2016.
- G. Golub, and C. Van Loan. Matrix Computations, Johns Hopkins University, fourth edition, 2012.
- G. Hager and G. Wellein. Introduction to High Performance Computing for Scientists and Engineers, CRC Press, 2010.
- V. Miele and V. Louvet. Calcul parallèle avec R, EDP Sciences, 2016.

- Fundamental matrix decompositions
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Objectives and key idea

Objectives

- Review fundamental matrix decompositions that are useful for low rank approximations.
- Focus on **parallel** properties of the algorithms and discuss parallel performance on modern computing platforms.
- Provide first numerical illustrations in julia.

Key idea

 Exploit the optimality property of the Singular Value Decomposition in terms of approximation to provide a rank-k approximation of a given matrix.

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Full SVD

Full SVD [Beltrami, 1873], [Jordan, 1874], [Sylvester, 1889], [Picard, 1910]

• Given $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ with $p = \min(m, n)$, the **full** singular value decomposition of A reads :

$$A = U \Sigma V^H$$
,

with $U \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$, $V \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ unitary ($U^H U = I_m$, $V^H V = I_n$) and $\Sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$.

- $\Sigma = diag(\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_p)$ with $\sigma_1 \ge \sigma_2 \ge \dots \ge \sigma_p \ge 0$.
- σ_i , (i = 1, p) are called singular values of A.
- The columns of $U = [u_1, u_2, \cdots, u_p]$ are called **left singular vectors** : $AV = U \Sigma$.
- The columns of $V = [v_1, v_2, \cdots, v_p]$ are called **right singular vectors** : $A^H U = V \Sigma^H$.
- (U, Σ, V) is called a **singular triplet** of A (non unique!)

Thin, compact, thresholded and truncated SVD

• Given $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ with $p = \min(m, n)$, the **thin** singular value decomposition of A reads :

$$A = U \Sigma V^H$$
,

with $U \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times p}$, $V \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times p}$ with orthonormal columns ($U^H U = I_p$, $V^H V = I_p$) and $\Sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times p}$ a diagonal matrix.

• A **compact** SVD only keeps the r singular triplets corresponding to nonzero singular values (r = rank(A)).

Thin, compact, thresholded and truncated SVD

• Given $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ with $p = \min(m, n)$, the **thin** singular value decomposition of A reads :

$$A = U \Sigma V^H$$
,

with $U \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times p}$, $V \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times p}$ with orthonormal columns ($U^H U = I_p$, $V^H V = I_p$) and $\Sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times p}$ a diagonal matrix.

• A **thresholded** SVD only keeps the singular triplets with singular values larger than a given positive threshold τ .

Thin, compact, thresholded and truncated SVD

• Given $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ with $p = \min(m, n)$, the **thin** singular value decomposition of A reads :

$$A = U \Sigma V^H$$
,

with $U \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times p}$, $V \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times p}$ with orthonormal columns ($U^H U = I_p$, $V^H V = I_p$) and $\Sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times p}$ a diagonal matrix.

• A **truncated** SVD (to rank *k*) corresponds to the approximation :

$$A_k = \sum_{j=1}^k \sigma_j u_j v_j^H = U(:, 1:k) \Sigma(1:k, 1:k) V(:, 1:k)^H.$$

Thin, compact, thresholded and truncated SVD

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• Approximation property [Eckart-Young-Mirsky theorem, 1936] :

$$||A - A_k||_2 = \min_{\text{rank}(B)=k} ||A - B||_2 = \sigma_{k+1}, B \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}.$$

Thin, compact, thresholded and truncated SVD

• Given $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ with $p = \min(m, n)$, the **thin** singular value decomposition of A reads :

$$A = U \Sigma V^H$$
,

with $U \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times p}$, $V \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times p}$ with orthonormal columns ($U^H U = I_p$, $V^H V = I_p$) and $\Sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times p}$ a diagonal matrix.

• A **truncated** SVD (to rank *k*) corresponds to the approximation :

$$A_k = \sum_{j=1}^k \sigma_j u_j v_j^H = U(:, 1:k) \Sigma(1:k, 1:k) V(:, 1:k)^H.$$

• Approximation property [Eckart-Young-Mirsky theorem, 1936] :

$$||A-A_k||_F = \min_{\text{rank}(B)=k} ||A-B||_F = \sum_{i=k+1}^p \sigma_i, B \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}.$$

Sketch of the standard SVD algorithm [Golub and Kahan, 1965]

• First step : Reduce $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ to upper bidiagonal form $H_L A H_R = B$

where $H_{L,i}$ indicates a left-multiplication by a **Householder** reflection and $H_{R,i}$ a right-multiplication. At the end of this step we have :

$$H_{l,m-1}\cdots H_{l-1} A H_{B,1}\cdots H_{B,n-2} = B.$$

- **Second step**: Perform a bidiagonal SVD of *B* as $B = U_B \Sigma V_B^H$.
- Final step : $A = U \sum V^H$ with $U = H_L^H U_B$ and $V = H_B V_B$.
- Complexity : O(mnp) with p = min(m, n).
- Parallel performance: low since heavily based on sequence of matrix-vector operations due to Householder reflections.

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R-SVD

R-SVD [Chan, 1982]

- **Idea**: Perform an initial QR decomposition if the matrix is sufficiently tall relative to its width (i.e. m > n with at least by a factor of 1.5).
- First step: QR factorization of A ∈ C^{m×n} as A = QR where Q ∈ C^{m×n} has orthonormal columns (Q^HQ = I_n and R ∈ C^{n×n} is a triangular matrix).
- Second step : SVD decomposition of R as $R = U_R \Sigma_R V_R^H$.
- Final step : $A = U \Sigma_R V^H$ with $U = QU_R$ and $V = V_R$.
- Complexity: $4mn^2 + 22n^3$.
- Parallel performance: Tall and Skinny QR (TSQR) algorithm [Demmel et al, 2012] to be favored for the first step to obtain parallel performance.

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Polar decomposition

Polar decomposition [Autonne, 1902]

• Given $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ with $p = \min(m, n)$, the polar decomposition of A reads :

$$A = W H$$

where $W \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ has orthonormal columns and $H \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is Hermitian positive semidefinite.

• Relation with the SVD decomposition of A:

$$A = W H = W(V_H \Sigma_H V_H^H) = (WV_H) \Sigma_H V_H^H.$$

 Interest: efficient parallel iterative methods are available to first compute the polar decomposition and then deduce the SVD decomposition of A.

QR-based Dynamically Weighted Halley (QDWH)

QDWH [Nakatsukasa et al, 2010] [Householder prize, 2014]

• Given $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ with $p = \min(m, n)$, the QR-based Dynamically Weighted Halley ℓ -th iteration ($\ell \ge 1$) reads (with $X_{\ell} \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$):

$$\left[\begin{array}{c} \sqrt{c_\ell} \ X_\ell \\ I_n \end{array}\right] = \left[\begin{array}{c} Q_1 \\ Q_2 \end{array}\right] R, \quad X_{\ell+1} = \frac{b_\ell}{c_\ell} X_\ell + \frac{1}{\sqrt{c_\ell}} (a_\ell - \frac{b_\ell}{c_\ell}) Q_1 Q_2^H, \ell \geq 0.$$

with $Q_1 \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$, $Q_2 \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times m}$ ($Q_1^H Q_1 = I_m$, $Q_2^H Q_2 = I_m$), $R \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ upper triangular and a_ℓ , b_ℓ , c_ℓ parameters chosen dynamically to optimise the convergence rate. $X_0 = \frac{A}{\alpha}$ with $\alpha = \|A\|_2$.

- The polar factor W is obtained as the limit of the sequence X_{ℓ} . H is deduced as $H = \frac{1}{2}(W^H A + (W^H A)^H)$.
- The sequence is usually converging very fast in practice in double precision arithmetic for any matrix A with $\kappa_2(A) \le 10^{16}$).
- Complexity : O(mnp)

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UTV

UTV [Stewart, 1992]

• Given $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ with $p = \min(m, n)$, the *UTV* factorization of A reads :

$$A = U T V^H$$

with $U \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$, $V \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ both unitary ($U^H U = I_m$, $V^H V = I_n$) and $T \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ is (lower or upper) triangular.

- Algorithm that is possible to stop once a specified tolerance has been met.
- Provides close to optimal low rank approximations in practice.
- Complexity : O(mnk) for a rank-k approximation of A.
- Parallel performance : good due to blocking (matrix-matrix operations).

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Comparison of matrix decomposition algorithms

Synopsis				
	SVD	R-SVD	QDWH	UTV
Arithmetic cost	O(mnp)			
Backward stability	✓	✓	\checkmark	✓
Ease of parallelization	Hard	Fairly easy	Easy	Easy
Min. communication?	×	×	✓	×
Partial factorization	Not easily	Yes but not useful	×	✓
Useful for low rank approximation	✓	✓	✓	✓

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Afternoon session

- Implement in julia a simple communication-minimizing factorization algorithm Cholesky-QR to be used when the matrix is tall and skinny.
- This algorithm provides a QR factorization.
- An SVD factorization can be then deduced easily (as in the R-SVD algorithm).
- Interest: discover how to use of Map/Reduce strategies.
- Study robustness for synthetic problems with variable singular gap.
- Study performance on your dataset if time permits.
- Conclusions to be shared!

Suggested reading

Suggested reading

- G. Ballard, E. Carson, J. Demmel, M. Hoemmen, N. Knight, and
 O. Schwartz. Communication lower bounds and optimal algorithms for numerical linear algebra, Acta Numerica. Cambridge University Press, 23, 1-155, 2014.
- J. Demmel, L. Grigori, M. F. Hoemmen, and J. Langou.
 Communication-optimal parallel and sequential QR and LU factorizations, SIAM Journal on Scientific Computing, Vol. 34, No 1, 2012.
- N. Higham, Accuracy and Stability of Numerical Algorithms, SIAM, Second edition, 2002.
- Talk of L. Grigori at Collège de France: http://www.college-de-france.fr/site/ pierre-louis-lions/seminar-2014-01-10-11h15.htm

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Your notes

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 - Partial Lanczos bidiagonalization with reorthogonalization
 - Lanczos bidiagonalization with thick restarting and reorthogonalization
 - Krylov Golub-Kahan decomposition
 - Your notes
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Objectives and key idea

Objectives

- Review the Lanczos bidiagonalization method that is useful for low rank approximations of A when A is either sparse or structured or when only the action of A and of A^H on a vector is available.
- Put emphasis on specific important features of the algorithm.
- Focus on parallel properties of the algorithms.

Key idea

• Implicitly construct a rank-k approximation of A by solving a projected problem of reduced dimension on a particularly relevant subspace, called the Krylov subspace $\mathcal{K}_{k+1}(A, v_1)$.

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Partial Lanczos bidiagonalization

Partial Lanczos bidiagonalization [Björck, 1996] - decomposition

• Given $v_1 \in \mathbb{C}^n$ with $||v_1||_2 = 1$ and $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$, the Lanczos bidiagonalization algorithm **implicitly** leads to the decomposition (k > 1):

$$AV_k = U_k B_k,$$

$$A^H U_k = V_k B_k^T + \beta_k v_{k+1} e_k^T$$

with $U_k \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times k}$, $V_k \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times k}$ with orthonormal columns ($U_k^H U_k = I_k$, $V_k^H V_k = I_k$), $B_k \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times k}$ being upper bidiagonal and $V_{k+1} \in \mathbb{C}^n$

$$B_k = \left[egin{array}{cccc} lpha_1 & eta_1 & & & & & & & \\ & lpha_2 & \ddots & & & & & & \\ & & & \ddots & eta_{k-1} & & & & & \\ & & & & lpha_k & & & & \end{array}
ight].$$

Partial Lanczos bidiagonalization method - algorithm (basic version)

```
Input: A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}, v_1 \in \mathbb{C}^n with \|v_1\|_2 = 1

Output: Partial Lanczos bidiagonal decomposition with U_k = [u_1, \cdots, u_k] \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times k}, V_{k+1} = [v_1, \cdots, v_{k+1}] \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times k} with orthonormal columns and B_k \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times k} upper bidiagonal
```

$$\begin{array}{l} \beta_0 = 0, u_0 = 0 \\ \text{for } j = 1, k \text{ do} \\ u_j = Av_j - \beta_{j-1}u_{j-1} \\ \alpha_j = \|u_j\|_2 \\ u_j = u_j/\alpha_j \\ v_{j+1} = A^Hu_j - \alpha_jv_j \\ \beta_j = \|v_{j+1}\|_2 \\ v_{j+1} = v_{j+1}/\beta_j \end{array}$$

Simple algorithm ...

Partial Lanczos bidiagonalization method - algorithm (basic version)

```
Input: A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}, v_1 \in \mathbb{C}^n with \|v_1\|_2 = 1

Output: Partial Lanczos bidiagonal decomposition with U_k = [u_1, \cdots, u_k] \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times k}, V_{k+1} = [v_1, \cdots, v_{k+1}] \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times k} with orthonormal columns and B_k \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times k} upper bidiagonal
```

$$\begin{array}{l} \beta_0 = 0, u_0 = 0 \\ \text{for } j = 1, k \text{ do} \\ u_j = Av_j - \beta_{j-1}u_{j-1} \\ \alpha_j = \|u_j\|_2 \\ u_j = u_j/\alpha_j \\ v_{j+1} = A^Hu_j - \alpha_jv_j \\ \beta_j = \|v_{j+1}\|_2 \\ v_{j+1} = v_{j+1}/\beta_j \\ \text{end for} \end{array}$$

Simple algorithm ... that is prone to roundoff error propagation due to loss of orthogonality in U_k and V_k .

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Main features of the Lanczos bidiagonalization method

- The Lanczos bidiagonalization method delivers a low rank approximation with a complexity that linearly depends on the number of iterations k.
- Only products with A or A^H and matrix-vector operations are required, which leads to a fairly easy parallel implementation.
- The storage is quite reduced.

Drawbacks of the Lanczos bidiagonalization method

- The Lanczos bidiagonalization method is prone to **roundoff error propagation**. This leads to a loss of orthogonality in U_k and V_k .
- A first cure is to use selective or complete reorthogonalization techniques to limit the roundoff error propagation during the algorithm.
- A second cure consists of stopping the algorithm after a certain number of iterations and of restarting by exploiting meaningful information (thick restarting).

Partial Lanczos bidiagonalization method with FULL orthogonalization [changes with respect to the basic version are highlighted in color]

```
for i = 1, k do
   u_i = Av_i
   for i = 1, j - 1 do
     \gamma = u_i^H u_i
      u_i = u_i - \gamma u_i
   end for
   \alpha_i = ||u_i||_2
   u_i = u_i/\alpha_i
   v_{i+1} = A^H u_i
   for i = 1, i do
      \gamma = v_i^H v_{i+1}
      v_{i+1} = v_{i+1} - \gamma v_i
   end for
   \beta_i = ||v_{i+1}||_2
   v_{i+1} = v_{i+1}/\beta_i
end for
```

Partial Lanczos bidiagonalization method with ONE-SIDED orthogonalization [changes with respect to the basic version are highlighted in color]

$$\begin{array}{l} \beta_0 = 0, u_0 = 0 \\ \text{for } j = 1, k \text{ do} \\ u_j = Av_j - \beta_{j-1}u_{j-1} \\ \alpha_j = \|u_j\|_2 \\ u_j = u_j/\alpha_j \\ v_{j+1} = A^H u_j \\ \text{for } i = 1, j \text{ do} \\ \gamma = v_i^H v_{j+1} \\ v_{j+1} = v_{j+1} - \gamma v_i \\ \text{end for} \\ \beta_j = \|v_{j+1}\|_2 \\ v_{j+1} = v_{j+1}/\beta_j \\ \text{end for} \end{array}$$

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Partial Lanczos bidiagonalization method with thick restarting and reorthogonalization

- They must be favored with respect to standard Lanczos bidiagonalization methods!
- Their parallel performance is however limited by the reorthogonalization procedure, which can be costly in a massively parallel environment.
- Their complexity heavily depends on the repartition of the leading singular values of A.
- Software : SLEPc.

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Krylov Golub-Kahan decomposition

Krylov Golub-Kahan decomposition [Stoll, 2012]

• Given $v_1 \in \mathbb{C}^n$ of unit Euclidean norm, we consider the **Lanczos** bidiagonalization decomposition :

$$AV_k = U_k B_k,$$

$$A^H U_k = V_k B_k^T + \beta_k v_{k+1} e_k^T.$$

- We perform the **SVD** decomposition of the small bidiagonal matrix $B_k \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times k}$ as $B_k = P_k \Sigma_k Q_k^T$.
- This leads to the Krylov Golub-Kahan decomposition :

$$A\widetilde{V}_{k} = \widetilde{U}_{k}\Sigma_{k},$$

$$A^{H}\widetilde{U}_{k} = \widetilde{V}_{k}\Sigma_{k} + \beta_{k}v_{k+1}\rho_{k}^{T}$$

with $\widetilde{U}_k = U_k P_k$, $\widetilde{U}_k^H \widetilde{U}_k = I_k$, $\widetilde{V}_k = V_k Q_k$, $\widetilde{V}_k^H \widetilde{V}_k = I_k$, $p_k^T = e_k^T P_k$ and $\Sigma_k \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times k}$ being **diagonal**.

Krylov Golub-Kahan decomposition

Krylov Golub-Kahan decomposition [Stoll, 2012]

- The Krylov Golub-Kahan decomposition is extremely convenient for implementing deflation, an important feature to improve convergence that can be tedious to implement in other decompositions.
- **Deflation**: if / singular values are of interest, we decide to **lock** (**keep**) them, otherwise we **purge** them. This corresponds to a simple permutation matrix Π of Σ_k as :

$$\widehat{\Sigma}_k = \Pi^T \Sigma_k \Pi = diag(\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_l, \dots, \sigma_k), \ (l \leq k)$$

• This then leads to the Krylov Golub-Kahan shrinked decomposition :

$$A\widehat{V}_{l} = \widehat{U}_{l}\widehat{\Sigma}_{l},$$

$$A^{H}\widehat{U}_{l} = \widehat{V}_{l}\widehat{\Sigma}_{l} + \beta_{l}v_{l+1}\widehat{\rho}_{l}^{T}$$

• The factorization can then be expanded from dimension / to k.

Suggested reading

Suggested reading

- A. Björck. Numerical Methods for Least Squares Problems, SIAM, Philadelphia, 1996.
- V. Hernandez, J. Roman, A. Tomas. Restarted Lanczos Bidiagonalization for the SVD in SLEPc, SLEPc Technical Report STR-8, 2007. Available at

http://slepc.upv.es/documentation/reports/str8.pdf.

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Objectives and key idea

Objectives

- Why selecting this approach?: Much better performance in terms of parallelization for the approaches based on the symmetric eigenvalue decomposition can be expected with respect to standard factorization methods.
- Discuss both sparse and dense aspects of these methods.
- Focus on parallel properties of the algorithms.

Key idea

 Deduce all or selected singular values/vectors of A as the result of a standard eigenproblem to be detailed.

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Formulation of the matrix eigenvalue problem

Cross-product formulation

- Idea: to retrieve a low rank approximation by solving a standard Hermitian eigenvalue problem for which efficient deterministic parallel methods are available.
- Given $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ with $m \ge n$, the cross-product eigenvalue formulation reads:

$$A^H A x = \lambda x$$
,

where $x \in \mathbb{C}^n$ is an eigenvector of $A^H A$ associated with the eigenvalue $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}^+$. $A^H A$ is called the Gram matrix.

- This yields $A^HAV = V \wedge \text{with } \Lambda \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times k}$ diagonal.
- Singular values are given by $\lambda_i = \sigma_i^2$.
- Case of $m < n : AA^H x = \lambda x$.

Formulation of the matrix eigenvalue problem

Cyclic formulation

- Idea: to retrieve a low rank approximation by solving a Hermitian eigenvalue problem for which efficient deterministic parallel methods are available.
- Given $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ with $m \ge n$, the cyclic eigenvalue formulation reads :

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0_{m\times m} & A \\ A^H & 0_{n\times n} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_i \\ v_i \end{bmatrix} = \lambda_i \begin{bmatrix} u_i \\ v_i \end{bmatrix},$$

where $\begin{bmatrix} u_i \\ v_i \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{C}^{m+n}$ is an eigenvector of the augmented matrix C associated with the eigenvalue $\lambda_i \in \mathbb{R}$.

- This yields $CV_C = V_C \Lambda$ with $\Lambda \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times k}$ diagonal.
- $\lambda_i(C) = \sigma_i(A) = -\lambda_{n+m-i+1}(C)$ and 0.

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Standard algorithm for the Hermitian eigendecomposition: Householder tridiagonalization

• First step : Reduction of $C \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ to tridiagonal form $H_L C H_R = T$

where H_i indicates a **two-sided Householder** transformation. At the end of this step we have $C = HTH^H$ with :

$$H = H_{n-2} \cdots H_1$$
.

- **Second step**: Eigendecomposition of T as $T = Q_T \wedge Q_T^H$
- Final step : $C = (HQ_T) \wedge (HQ_T)^H$.
- Complexity : $O(n^3)$.
- Parallel performance: relatively low in the first step and high in the second step (Divide and conquer [Cuppen, 1981], MRRR [Dhillon et al, 2006]).

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Subspace iteration method

Subspace iteration method

```
Input: \ell > 1, C \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}, V_1 \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times k} with V_1^H V_1 = I_k
Output: Orthonormal basis V_\ell \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times k}
for j = 1, \ell - 1 do W_j = CV_j
Compute the QR decomposition of W_j as W_j = V_{j+1}R_{j+1} end for
```

- Eigenvalue extraction from Galerkin condition $Cv \mu v \perp \mathcal{V}_{\ell}, v \in \mathcal{V}_{\ell}$
- μ is an eigenvalue of the $k \times k$ matrix $V_{\ell}^{H}CV_{\ell}$
- $v = V_{\ell} w$ with $||w||_2 = 1$, eigenvector of $V_{\ell}^H C V_{\ell}$ associated with μ .
- μ and ν are called Ritz value and Ritz vector, respectively.
- The basic subspace iteration extracts *k* Ritz pairs which are close to the dominant eigenvalues/eigenvectors of *C*.

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Lanczos tridiagonalization

Lanczos method (basic version)

```
Input: C \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n} or the action of C on a vector, v_1 \in \mathbb{C}^n with ||v_1||_2 = 1 Output: orthonormal basis V_{k+1} = [v_1, \cdots, v_{k+1}] of \mathcal{K}_{k+1}(C, v_1)
```

```
\begin{array}{l} \text{for } j = 1, k \text{ do} \\ z_j = C v_j \\ \alpha_j = v_j^H z_j \\ \tilde{v}_{j+1} = z_j - \alpha_j v_j \\ \text{if } j > 1 \text{ then} \\ \tilde{v}_{j+1} = \tilde{v}_{j+1} - \beta_{j-1} v_{j-1} \\ \text{end if} \\ \beta_j = \|\tilde{v}_{j+1}\|_2 \\ v_{j+1} = \tilde{v}_{j+1}/\beta_j \\ \text{end for} \end{array}
```

Lanczos tridiagonalization

Lanczos decomposition

• The Lanczos algorithm leads to the decomposition :

$$CV_k = V_k H_k + \widehat{\beta}_k v_{k+1} e_k^T$$

with H_k being symmetric and tridiagonal :

$$H_k = \begin{bmatrix} \widehat{\alpha}_1 & \widehat{\beta}_1 \\ \widehat{\beta}_1 & \widehat{\alpha}_2 & \ddots \\ & \ddots & \ddots & \widehat{\beta}_{k-1} \\ & & \widehat{\beta}_{k-1} & \widehat{\alpha}_k \end{bmatrix}.$$

- The eigenpairs (μ_j, w_j) of $H_k = V_k^H C V_k$ are called **Ritz pairs** (Ritz values and Ritz vectors, respectively). They provide approximate spectral information of C.
- Convergence of Ritz pairs (which part of the spectrum?) + difficulties

 Xavier Vasseur (ISAE-SUPAERO, Toulouse)

 September 27 7017

Lanczos tridiagonalization

Lanczos decomposition with complete/selective reorthogonalization

- Complete reorthogonalization is an effective but expensive cure
- Require to store the complete basis V_k (i.e. k vectors)
- The computational cost grows from O(mvp + nk) to $O(mvp + nk^2)$
- Paige (1990): Consider a k-order Lanczos decomposition computed in floating point arithmetic with machine precision ε_{mach} . The Ritz pairs $(\mu_1, w_1), \cdots, (\mu_k, w_k)$ satisfy

$$w_i^H w_{k+1} = \frac{O(\varepsilon_{mach} || C ||_2)}{|| r_i ||_2}, \quad i = 1, \dots, k$$

with
$$r_i = Cw_i - \mu_i w_i$$

• This suggests the use of **selective reorthogonalization** only versus converged Ritz pairs (within $\sqrt{\epsilon}$).

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Contour integration spectrum slicing (CISS) methods

CISS [Sakurai and Sugiura [2003], Polizzi [2009]]

- Locate and compute the eigenvalues within a given region of interest with contour C.
- Indicator function of C: $f(z) = -\frac{1}{2i\pi} \int_C (\mu z)^{-1} d\mu$, $z \notin C$.

$$f(z) = 1, z \in \mathcal{C}, \quad f(z) = 0, \text{ otherwise.}$$

• Numerical approximation of the spectral projector $D = -\frac{1}{2i\pi} \int_C (zI_n - C)^{-1} dz$ by Gauss quadrature

$$\widehat{D} = \sum_{i=0}^{N} w_i (z_i I_n - C)^{-1},$$

where N+1 is the number of contour points, z_j the quadrature points on C and w_i the quadrature weights, respectively.

Contour integration spectrum slicing (CISS) methods

Algorithm (Hermitian case) formulated as a filtered subspace iteration

• We define the density matrix (spectral projector) as :

$$D = -\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C G(z) dz$$
 with $G(z) = (zI_n - C)^{-1}$.

- (a) Pick $Y_{n \times M} = [y_1, \dots, y_M] M$ random vectors of \mathbb{C}^n .
- (b) Compute Q an approximation of $DY_{n\times M}$ by numerical integration :

$$Q = \sum_{j=0}^{N} w_j (z_j I_n - C)^{-1} Y_{n \times M}.$$

(c) Solve the **projected** generalized Hermitian eigenproblem (of size M × M):

$$Q^H C Q p_i = \lambda_i (Q^H Q) p_i$$

with $(\lambda_i, x_i = Qp_i)$ is a putative eigenpair of C.

• Check if $\lambda_i \in \mathcal{C}$, and go back to step (b) using $Y = X = [x_1, \dots, x_M]$ if needed.

Contour integration spectrum slicing (CISS) methods

Main properties

- Fast and systematic convergence in the Hermitian case: using 8 to 16 contour points, the algorithm converges in 2 – 3 iterations only to obtain up to thousands of eigenpairs (if exist) with machine accuracy.
- Naturally captures all multiplicities.
- No (explicit) orthogonalization procedure required.
- Natural parallelism at various levels (C, N+1 contour points, solution of linear systems).
- Allow the use of (parallel) iterative methods for solving the complex linear systems.
- Drawback: use of complex arithmetic for solving a symmetric real-valued eigenproblem (cross-product formulation).

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Afternoon session

- Experiment the two different strategies for the eigendecomposition (Lanczos based or CISS based) with two different codes that are publicly available.
- Synthetic test matrices are provided for easy testing.
- Study robustness for synthetic problems with variable singular gap.
- Study performance on your dataset if time permits.
- Requirements: your matrix must be stored in HDF5 or MatrixMarket formats.
- Conclusions to be shared!

Suggested reading

Suggested reading

- Z. Bai et al. Templates for the Solution of Algebraic Eigenvalue Problems: A Practical Guide., SIAM, 2000.
- Y. Saad. Numerical Methods for Large Eigenvalue Problems, SIAM, 2011
- E. Polizzi. Density-matrix-based algorithms for solving eigenvalue problems, Phys. Rev. B, 79:115112, 2009.
- T. Sakurai and H. Sugiura. A projection method for generalized eigenvalue problems, J. Comput. Appl. Math., Vol. 159, pp. 119-128, 2003.
- P. T. P. Tang and E. Polizzi. FEAST as a subspace iteration eigensolver accelerated by approximate spectral projection. SIAM J. Matrix Anal. Appl., 35(2):354–390, 2014

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CANDMC

CANDMC (Communication Avoiding Numerical Dense Matrix Computations)

- https://github.com/solomonik/CANDMC
- E. Solomonik (Univerity of Illinois, USA)
- Dense linear algebra software
- Special focus on communication avoiding algorithms (LU, QR and symmetric eigendecomposition)
- Implementation of TSQR algorithm
- Written in C++
- Last version : 2016, BSD licence
- Householder prize in 2017

Chameleon

Chameleon

- https://project.inria.fr/chameleon/
- Joint project : ICL (University of Tenessee), INRIA, KAUST, University of Colorado
- Dense linear algebra software relying on sequential task-based algorithms where subtasks of the overall algorithms are submitted to a runtime system
- General paradigm (Direct Acyclic Graph (DAG)) used on very different type of architectures: laptop, many-core nodes, CPUs-GPUs, multiple nodes
- Chameleon is able to perform a Cholesky factorization (double-precision) at 80 TFlop/s on a dense matrix of order 400000
- Written in C++, C and Python
- Last version: 0.9.0 in June 2016. Cecill-C licence

DPLASMA

DPLASMA

- https://www.icl.utk.edu/dplasma
- ICL (University of Tenessee)
- Dense linear algebra software relying on sequential task-based algorithms
- General paradigm (Direct Acyclic Graph (DAG)) used on very different type of architectures
- Cholesky, QR and TSQR factorizations
- Written in Fortran, C, C++
- Last version: 1.2.0 in May 2014

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Elemental

Elemental

- https://wwww.libelemental.org
- Elemental is open-source, openly-developed, software for distributed-memory dense and sparse-direct linear algebra and optimization which supports a wide range of functionality not available elsewhere.
- Support for "double-double", "quad-double", quad-precision, and arbitrary-precision floating-point arithmetic.
- Research oriented software with a focus on recent algorithms.
- General software (decomposition, SVD and eigendecomposition).
- Written in C++.
- Last version: 0.87.7 in February 2017.

IRLBA

IRLBA (Implicitly Restarted Lanczos Bidiagonalization Algorithm)

- https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/irlba/
- Implementation of the algorithm proposed in [Baglama and Reichel, 2005]
- Dense and sparse matrices are considered
- Lanczos bidiagonalization with selective reorthogonalization and thick restarting
- Distributed memory implementation
- Written in R.
- Python version available at https://github.com/bwlewis/irlbpy
- Last version: 2.2.1 in May 2017, GPL3 license.

QR MUMPS

QR MUMPS

- http://buttari.perso.enseeiht.fr/qr_mumps/
- A. Buttari (IRIT, Toulouse)
- Applicable to sparse matrices.
- Parallel, multithreaded software based on the StarPU runtime engine.
- Asynchronous and dynamic data-flow programming model which provides high efficiency and scalability.
- Written in Fortran.
- Last version: 2.0 in June 2016.

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ARPACK

ARPACK (Arnoldi Package)

- http://www.caam.rice.edu/software/ARPACK/
- R. Lehoucq, K. Maschhoff, D. Sorensen and C. Yang, Rice University, USA.
- Sparse and dense linear algebra. Include routines for the SVD.
- Based on reverse communication interface.
- Written in Fortran 77.
- Last version : BSD license.
- Current suported library: https://github.com/opencollab/arpack-ng

ELPA

ELPA (Eigenvalue SoLvers for Petaflop-Applications)

- https://elpa.mpcdf.mpg.de/
- Joint project in Germany (Max Planck Gesellschaft and several universities).
- Dense linear algebra.
- Provide highly efficient and highly scalable direct eigensolvers for symmetric matrices based on standard algorithms.
- Target massively parallel architectures.
- Written in Fortran (C/C++ interface available).
- Last version: 2017.05 in May 2017, LGPL license.

FEAST

FEAST

- http://www.feast-solver.org/
- University of Amherst, USA
- Contour Integral Spectrum slicing method
- Dense and sparse linear algebra
- Free high-performance numerical library for solving the Hermitian and non-Hermitian eigenvalue problems, and obtaining all the eigenvalues and (right/left) eigenvectors within a given search interval or arbitrary domain in the complex plane
- It includes flexible reverse communication interfaces and ready to use predefined interfaces for dense, banded and sparse systems.
- Versions for shared and distributed memory platforms
- Written in Fortran
- Last version: 3.0 in June 2015. BSD license.

SLEPc

SLEPc (Scalable Library for Eigenvalue Problem Computations)

- http://slepc.upv.es/
- University Politècnica de València, Spain
- Sparse linear algebra
- Software library for the solution of large scale sparse eigenvalue problems on parallel computers. It can also be used for computing a partial SVD of a large, sparse, rectangular matrix.
- Extension of PETSc http://www.mcs.anl.gov/petsc/.
- Versions based on the PETSc data structures which employs the MPI standard for message-passing communication.
- Main language : C.
- Last version: slepc-3.7.4 in May 2017, LGPL license.

Spectra and RSpectra

Spectra (Sparse Eigenvalue Computation Toolkit as a Redesigned ARPACK)

- http://spectralib.org/
- C++ library for large scale eigenvalue problems, built on top of Eigen http://eigen.tuxfamily.org, an open source linear algebra library.
- Appropriate for the computation of few eigenvalues and corresponding eigenvectors of large and sparse matrices based on the Implicitly Restarted Arnoldi Method
- Dense and sparse linear algebra
- Available in R as RSpectra https: //cran.r-project.org/web/packages/RSpectra/index.html
- Partial SVD is also provided ('svds' function) in RSpectra
- https://bwlewis.github.io/irlba/comparison.html
- Last version: 0.12-0 in June 2016, MPL2 license.

z-Pares

z-Pares

- http://zpares.cs.tsukuba.ac.jp/
- University of Tsukuba, Japan.
- Contour Integral Spectrum slicing method.
- z-Pares is designed to compute eigenvalues and eigenvectors of sparse or dense matrices.
- Single precision and double precision are supported.
- Versions for distributed memory platforms.
- Written in Fortran 90/95.
- Last version: v0.9.6a in October 2014.

- Objectives and preliminaries
- Fundamental matrix decompositions
- 3 Low rank approximations using the Lanczos bidiagonalization
- 4 Low rank approximations using the symmetric eigenvalue decomposition
- Software
 - Parallel software for dense linear algebra problem
 - Parallel software for the singular value decomposition
 - Parallel software for the Hermitian eigendecomposition
 - Your notes
- Conclusions

Your notes

Your notes

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Conclusions

Summary

- We have first reviewed popular fundamental rank-revealing matrix decompositions (Section 2).
- We have focused on deterministic methods for low rank approximations with an emphasis on parallel methods (Sections 3 and 4).
- We have shortly described a few related parallel software libraries (Section 5).
- We have mostly focused on the SVD due to its optimal approximation property. Other deterministic close to optimal algorithms have been proposed (two popular examples follow).

Deterministic algorithms for dimensionality reduction

Nonnegative matrix factorization (NMF) [Lee et al, 1999]

- Goal: retain both sparseness and interpretability in the factorization, contrary to the SVD which leads to dense factors.
- Idea: Impose a particular constraint in the factored form of A (e.g. nonnegativity, sparsity, weights, regularization or restriction to nonzero entries).
- **Example**: Find $C \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times k}$ and $H \in \mathbb{C}^{k \times n}$ such that:

$$\min_{C,H} \|A - CH\|_F, \quad C, H \ge 0,$$

i.e. C, H are entry-wise nonnegative matrices.

- This leads to a **non-convex** optimization problem.
- C is usually selected as a subset of the columns of A, if A has nonnegative entries.
- Applications in image processing, medical imaging, astronomy.

Deterministic algorithms for dimensionality reduction

Skeleton decomposition: CUR/CX factorizations [Mahoney et al, 2009]

- Idea: Impose a particular structure for the factored form of A expressed in terms of a small number of actual columns/rows of A. If A is sparse, this keeps sparseness!
- CZ factorization : Find $C \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times k}$ and $Z \in \mathbb{C}^{k \times n}$ such that :

$$\min_{C,Z} \|A - CZ\|_F.$$

- C is usually selected as a relevant subset of the columns of A.
- Current algorithms lead to the upper bound : $||A CZ||_F \le (1 + \varepsilon)||A A_k||_F$, where A_k is the best rank-k approximation of A and ε positive.
- Applications in astronomy, genetics, mass spectrometry imaging.

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This is an active research area from different perspectives

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Thank you for your attention!

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