

Potential and applications of tensor-based algorithms

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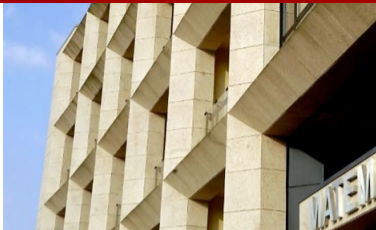
Dipartimento di Matematica
Alma Mater Studiorum - Università di Bologna

Spring Semester Seminars in Numerical Linear Algebra and beyond

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- 2 Tensor basics
- 3 Tucker model for biodiversity
- 4 TT-format for NLA
- 5 CPD for signal processing
- 6 Conclusion



Bachelor degree
UniPR
2014-2017

Ph.D.
INRIA Bordeaux
2019-2022

Postdoc
UniBO
2024

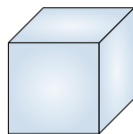


Master's degree
UniTN
2017-2019

Postdoc
KU Leuven
2023-2024



From scalars to tensors



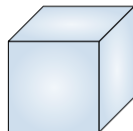
Matrix

- object in $\mathbb{K}^{n_1 \times n_2}$
- set of n_2 elements in \mathbb{K}^{n_1}
- linear operator from \mathbb{K}^{n_2} to \mathbb{K}^{n_1}

Tensor

- object in $\mathbb{K}^{n_1 \times \dots \times n_d}$
- set of $(n_{i_1} \dots n_{i_k})$ elements in $\mathbb{K}^{n_{j_1} \times \dots \times n_{j_\ell}}$
- multilinear operator from $\mathbb{K}^{n_{j_1} \times \dots \times n_{j_\ell}}$ to $\mathbb{K}^{n_{i_1} \times \dots \times n_{i_k}}$ with $k + \ell = d$

Where and why tensors?



Examples of tensor data

- Color images, video, ...
- Text mining: term \times document \times author
- (Social) networks: score \times object \times referee \times criterion
- Ecological data: species \times time \times area \times altitude \times ...
- Face recognition: people \times pose \times illumination \times angle

Tensor advantages

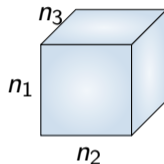
- better representation of intricate phenomena
- compression by factorization techniques
- uniqueness for some decomposition

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Basic definitions

Let \mathcal{A} be an $(n_1 \times n_2 \times n_3)$ tensor



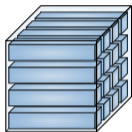
- $\{1, 2, 3\}$ are the **modes** of the tensors
- n_k is the **size** of the k -th mode
- $d = 3$ is the tensor **order**

Curse of dimensionality

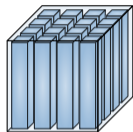
The number of entries is $\mathcal{O}(n^d)$ with $n = \max n_i$

Fibers and slices

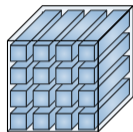
The tensor **fibers** are vectors extracted from the tensor fixing all indexes except one



$$\mathcal{A}(\cdot, i_2, i_3)$$

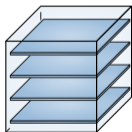


$$\mathcal{A}(i_1, \cdot, i_3)$$

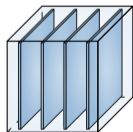


$$\mathcal{A}(i_1, i_2, \cdot)$$

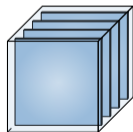
The tensor **slices** are matrices extracted from the tensor fixing all indexes except two



$$\mathcal{A}(i_1, \cdot, \cdot)$$



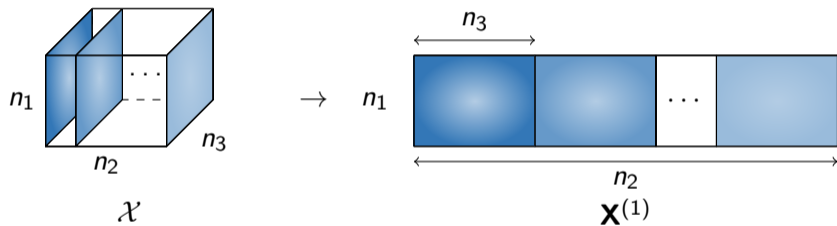
$$\mathcal{A}(\cdot, i_2, \cdot)$$



$$\mathcal{A}(\cdot, \cdot, i_3)$$

Unfolding

Let \mathcal{X} be a 3-order tensor of size $(n_1 \times n_2 \times n_3)$



The 1-st mode matricization $\mathbf{X}^{(1)}$ is a $(n_1 \times n_2 n_3)$ matrix, obtained stacking the vectors

$$\mathbf{x}_{i_1} = \text{vec}(\mathcal{X}(i_1, \cdot, \cdot)).$$

Products I

The **tensor product** of two vectors, \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} , of length m and n results in a size $(m \times n)$ matrix $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{a} \otimes \mathbf{b}$ s.t.

$$\mathbf{C}(i, j) = \mathbf{a}(i)\mathbf{b}(j).$$

The **Kronecker product** of two vectors, \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} , of length m and n results in a length (mn) vector $\mathbf{c} = \mathbf{a} \otimes_{\mathbf{K}} \mathbf{b}$ such that

$$\mathbf{c}(h) = \mathbf{a}(i)\mathbf{b}(j)$$

where $h = (j - 1)m + i$.

Remark

The vectorization of $\mathbf{a} \otimes \mathbf{b}$ is equal to $\mathbf{a} \otimes_{\mathbf{K}} \mathbf{b}$.

The **Kathri-Rao product** of two matrices \mathbf{A} of size $(m_1 \times R)$ and \mathbf{B} of size $(m_2 \times R)$ results in a size $(m_1 m_2 \times R)$ matrix $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A} \odot \mathbf{B}$ such that

$$\mathbf{C}(\cdot, j) = \mathbf{a}_j \otimes_{\mathbf{K}} \mathbf{b}_j.$$

Products II

The **1st mode matrix-tensor product** of an $(n_1 \times n_2 \times n_3)$ tensor and a size $(n_1 \times m_1)$ matrix \mathbf{G} results in an $(m_1 \times n_2 \times n_3)$ tensor $\mathcal{Y} = \mathcal{X} \times_1 \mathbf{G}$ s.t.

$$\mathcal{Y}(j_1, i_2, i_3) = \sum_{i_1=1}^{n_1} \mathcal{X}(i_1, i_2, i_3) \mathbf{G}(i_1, j_1).$$

The **tensor contraction** along the first mode of two tensors, \mathcal{A} and \mathcal{B} of size $(n_1 \times n_2 \times n_3)$ and size $(n_1 \times m_2 \times m_3)$ results in a size $(n_2 \times n_3 \times m_2 \times m_3)$ tensor $\mathcal{C} = \mathcal{A} \cdot_1 \mathcal{B}$ s.t.

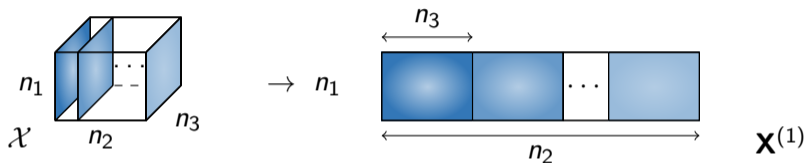
$$\mathcal{C}(i_2, i_3, j_2, j_3) = \sum_{i_1=1}^{n_1} \mathcal{A}(i_1, i_2, i_3) \mathcal{B}(i_1, j_2, j_3).$$

Remark

When more modes are contracted, the symbol is omitted!

Ranks

The **multilinear rank** of an $(n_1 \times n_2 \times n_3)$ tensor \mathcal{X} is (r_1, r_2, r_3) where $r_h = \text{rank}(\mathbf{X}^{(h)})$.



The $(n_1 \times n_2 \times n_3)$ tensor \mathcal{X} is a **rank-1 tensor** if it can be expressed as $\mathcal{X} = \mathbf{a} \otimes \mathbf{b} \otimes \mathbf{c}$.

$$\mathcal{X} = \begin{array}{|c|} \hline \mathbf{c}_1 \\ \hline \mathbf{b}_1 \\ \hline \mathbf{a}_1 \\ \hline \end{array} + \dots + \begin{array}{|c|} \hline \mathbf{c}_R \\ \hline \mathbf{b}_R \\ \hline \mathbf{a}_R \\ \hline \end{array}$$

The **rank** of an $(n_1 \times n_2 \times n_3)$ tensor \mathcal{X} is R the minimal number of rank-1 tensors that yield \mathcal{X} in a linear combination

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Master's supervisors



Figure: Prof. A. Bernardi, University of Trento

- algebraic geometry
- algorithms for tensor decomposition



Figure: Prof. D. Rocchini, University of Bologna

- plant ecology
- algorithms to estimate biodiversity

Background

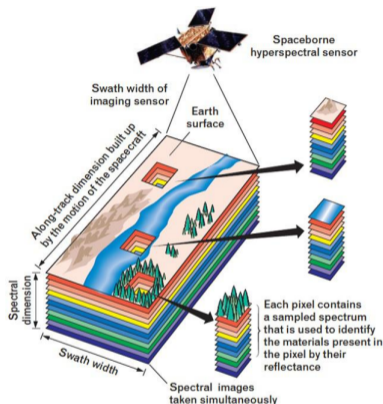


Figure: from [Bedini 2017].

Over a time series of Europe spectral images,

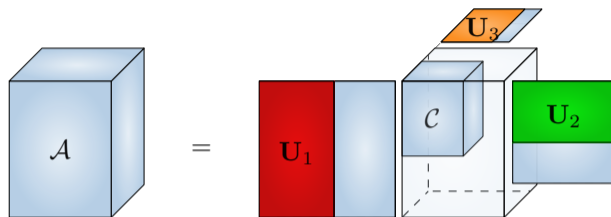
- get two images from two spectral bands (RED and NIR);
- compute the normalized difference vegetation index per pixel, i.e.,

$$\text{NDVI}(i, j) = \frac{\text{NIR}(i, j) - \text{RED}(i, j)}{\text{NIR}(i, j) + \text{RED}(i, j)}$$

- compute a biodiversity index over the resulting NDVI image

What happens if the NDVI image is computed from the NIR and RED spectral images stored in a tensor and compressed?

Tucker's model [Tucker 1966; De Lathauwer et al. 2000]



If \mathcal{A} is an $(n_1 \times n_2 \times n_3)$ tensor of multilinear rank (r_1, r_2, r_3) , its Tucker decomposition is

$$\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{C} \times_1 \mathbf{U}_1 \times_2 \mathbf{U}_2 \times_3 \mathbf{U}_3$$

where

- the **core** tensor is \mathcal{C} of size $(r_1 \times r_2 \times r_3)$;
- the i -th factor matrix is \mathbf{U}_i an $(n_i \times r_i)$ orthogonal matrix.

Remark

The memory requirement is $\mathcal{O}(r^3 + nr)$ where $r = \max r_i$, $n = \max n_i$.

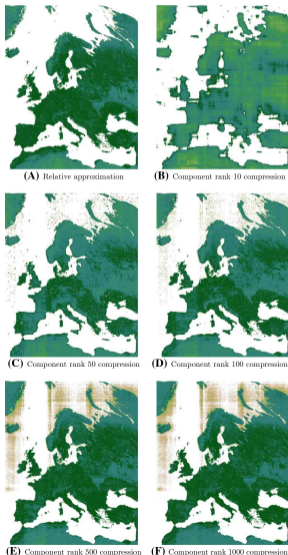
Experimental set-up

- organize the NIR and RED images into a tensor
- compress the images by approximating the tensor at different multilinear ranks
- construct the NDVI image from the compressed images
- estimate the biodiversity from the obtained image by moving window
- perform statistical analysis on the results



Moving window

Rényi index result [Bernardi et al. 2021]



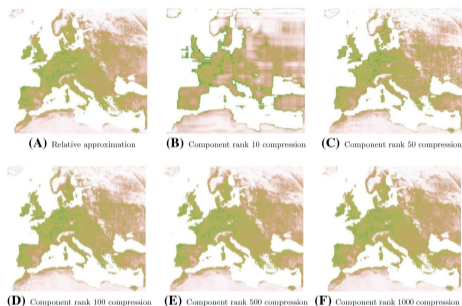
Rényi index

Uses only pixel value frequencies

Compression at multilinear rank $(i, i, 3)$ with $i \in \{10, 50, 100, 500, 1000\}$

- memory used ranges between 0.19% and 22%;
- average error per pixel ranges between 13% and 5%.

Rao index result [Bernardi et al. 2021]



Rao index

Uses both pixel values and their frequencies

Compression at multilinear rank $(i, i, 3)$ with $i \in \{10, 50, 100, 500, 1000\}$

- memory used ranges between 0.19% and 22%;
- average error per pixel ranges between 63% and 19%.

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Ph.D. supervisors



Figure: Prof. O. Coulaud, Inria Bordeaux

- tensor methods
- high-dimensional simulations



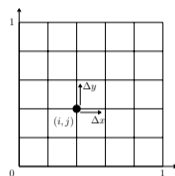
Figure: Prof. L. Giraud, Inria Bordeaux

- numerical linear algebra
- finite precision arithmetic

Context

The problem

$$\begin{cases} \mathcal{L}(u) = f & \text{in } \Omega \\ u = f_0 & \text{in } \partial\Omega \end{cases} \quad \text{for } \Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n_1 \times \dots \times n_d}.$$



$$\mathcal{A}\mathcal{X} = \mathcal{B}$$

where $\mathcal{A} : \mathbb{R}^{n_1 \times \dots \times n_d} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n_1 \times \dots \times n_d}$ is a multilinear operator and $\mathcal{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_1 \times \dots \times n_d}$ a tensor.
For large scale-simulations we have to take into account

- memory costs $\mathcal{O}(n^d)$
- computational model
- numerical linear algebra techniques

Tensor Train or Matrix Product States [Oseledets 2011]

Let \mathcal{X} a tensor of order d and size $(n_1 \times \cdots \times n_d)$

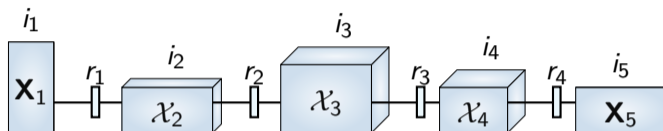


Figure: train of matrix - third-order tensors - matrix

then its TT-representation is $\mathcal{X} = \mathcal{X}_1 \mathcal{X}_2 \cdots \mathcal{X}_{d-1} \mathcal{X}_d$ s.t.

- the k -th **TT-core** is \mathcal{X}_k an $(r_{k-1} \times n_k \times r_k)$ tensor
- the **TT-rank** is $(1, r_1, \dots, r_{d-1}, 1)$
- \mathcal{X}_1 and \mathcal{X}_d are two matrices

Remark

The memory cost is $\mathcal{O}(dr^2n)$ where $r = \max r_i$ and $n = \max n_i$.

New variable accuracy approach

Which properties are maintained when objects are compressed by TT-format?

Assumptions

- compress **tensors** at accuracy δ with TT-format
- store matrices and vectors at accuracy u from standard IEEE model
- perform operation at accuracy u from standard IEEE model

new 'mixed'-precision framework

$$fl_{\delta}(\mathcal{X} \text{ op } \mathcal{Y}) = \delta\text{-storage}(fl(\mathcal{X} \text{ op } \mathcal{Y}))$$

$$\delta\text{-storage}(\mathcal{Z}) = \bar{\mathcal{Z}} \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \frac{\|\mathcal{Z} - \bar{\mathcal{Z}}\|}{\|\mathcal{Z}\|} \leq \delta$$

with fl is the classical floating point computational function dependent on u .

Numerical linear algebra methods

Iterative solver

- Generalized Minimal RESidual (GMRES)

$$\begin{cases} 2x_1 + x_2 = 7 \\ x_1 + x_2 - 3x_3 = -10 \\ 6x_2 - 2x_3 + x_4 = 7 \\ 2x_3 - 3x_4 = 13 \end{cases}$$



Orthogonalization kernels

- Classical and Modified Gram-Schmidt (CGS, MGS)
- Gram approach
- Householder transformation

Orthogonalization schemes

Let $\mathbf{Q}_k = [\mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_k]$ be the orthogonal basis produced by an orthogonalization kernel, then the **Loss Of Orthogonality** is

$$\|\mathbb{I}_k - \mathbf{Q}_k^T \mathbf{Q}_k\|.$$

It measures the quality in terms of orthogonality of the computed basis. It is linked with the linear dependency of the input vectors $\mathbf{A}_k = [\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_k]$, estimated through $\kappa(\mathbf{A}_k)$.

Matrix		
<i>Source</i>	<i>Algorithm</i>	$\ \mathbb{I}_k - \mathbf{Q}_k^T \mathbf{Q}_k\ $
[Stathopoulos et al. 2002]	Gram	$\mathcal{O}(u\kappa^2(\mathbf{A}_k))$
[L. Giraud et al. 2005]	CGS	$\mathcal{O}(u\kappa^2(\mathbf{A}_k))$
[Björck 1967]	MGS	$\mathcal{O}(u\kappa(\mathbf{A}_k))$
[L. Giraud et al. 2005]	CGS2	$\mathcal{O}(u)$
[L. Giraud et al. 2005]	MGS2	$\mathcal{O}(u)$
[Wilkinson 1965]	Householder	$\mathcal{O}(u)$

Classical and Modified Gram-Schmidt

Algorithm 1: $\mathcal{Q}, \mathbf{R} = \text{TT-CGS}(\mathcal{A}, \delta)$

Input: $\mathcal{A} = [\mathcal{A}_1, \dots, \mathcal{A}_m]$, $\delta \in \mathbb{R}_+$

```

1 for  $i = 1, \dots, m$  do
2    $\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{A}_i$ 
3   for  $j = 1, \dots, i - 1$  do
4      $\mathbf{R}(i, j) = \langle \mathcal{A}_i, \mathcal{Q}_j \rangle$ 
5      $\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{P} - \mathbf{R}(i, j)\mathcal{Q}_j$ 
6    $\mathcal{P} = \text{TT-rounding}(\mathcal{P}, \delta)$ 
7    $\mathbf{R}(i, i) = \|\mathcal{P}\|$ 
8    $\mathcal{Q}_i = \mathcal{P}/\mathbf{R}(i, i)$ 

```

Output: $\mathcal{Q} = \{\mathcal{Q}_1, \dots, \mathcal{Q}_m\}$, \mathbf{R}

Algorithm 2: $\mathcal{Q}, \mathbf{R} = \text{TT-MGS}(\mathcal{A}, \delta)$

Input: $\mathcal{A} = \{\mathcal{A}_1, \dots, \mathcal{A}_m\}$, $\delta \in \mathbb{R}_+$

```

1 for  $i = 1, \dots, m$  do
2    $\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{A}_i$ 
3   for  $j = 1, \dots, i - 1$  do
4      $\mathbf{R}(i, j) = \langle \mathcal{P}, \mathcal{Q}_j \rangle$ 
5      $\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{P} - \mathbf{R}(i, j)\mathcal{Q}_j$ 
6    $\mathcal{P} = \text{TT-rounding}(\mathcal{P}, \delta)$ 
7    $\mathbf{R}(i, i) = \|\mathcal{P}\|$ 
8    $\mathcal{Q}_i = \mathcal{P}/\mathbf{R}(i, i)$ 

```

Output: $\mathcal{Q} = \{\mathcal{Q}_1, \dots, \mathcal{Q}_m\}$, \mathbf{R}

They readily write in TT-format.

Gram approach

Let $\mathbf{A} = [\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_m]$, then we look for $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{QR}$ with $\mathbf{Q}^\top \mathbf{Q} = \mathbb{I}_m$
 compute the Gram matrix

$$\mathbf{A}^\top \mathbf{A} = (\mathbf{R}^\top \mathbf{Q}^\top) \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{R} = \mathbf{R}^\top \mathbf{R}$$

this is (almost) the **Cholesky** factorization of $\mathbf{A}^\top \mathbf{A}$ that can be written as

$$\mathbf{A}^\top \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{R}^\top \mathbf{R} = \mathbf{L} \mathbf{L}^\top$$

with the Cholesky factor $\mathbf{L} = \mathbf{R}^\top$ and then \mathbf{Q} gets

$$\mathbf{Q} = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{R}^{-1} = \mathbf{A} (\mathbf{L}^\top)^{-1}$$

Gram approach

Algorithm 3: $\mathcal{Q}, \mathbf{R} = \text{TT-Gram}(\mathcal{A}, \delta)$

Input: $\mathcal{A} = \{\mathcal{A}_1, \dots, \mathcal{A}_m\}$, $\delta \in \mathbb{R}_+$

- 1 \mathbf{G} be the Gram matrix from \mathcal{A}
- 2 $\mathbf{L} = \text{cholesky}(\mathbf{G})$
- 3 $\mathcal{Q} = \{\mathcal{Q}_1, \dots, \mathcal{Q}_d\}$ from \mathcal{A} and $(\mathbf{L}^\top)^{-1}$
- 4 **for** $i = 1, \dots, m$ **do**
- 5 | $\mathcal{Q}_i = \delta\text{-storage}(\mathcal{Q}_i)$

Output: $\mathcal{Q} = \{\mathcal{Q}_1, \dots, \mathcal{Q}_m\}$, \mathbf{R}

In TT-format the following modifications occur

- $\mathbf{G}(i, j) = \langle \mathcal{A}_i, \mathcal{A}_j \rangle$
- \mathbf{L}^\top inverse is explicitly computed
- \mathcal{Q}_i is constructed as a linear combination of \mathcal{A} elements
- TT-rounding is used to compress at precision δ

Householder transformation

Given a vector $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and a direction $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, the Householder reflector \mathbf{H} reflects \mathbf{x} along \mathbf{y} , i.e.,

$$\mathbf{H}\mathbf{x} = \|\mathbf{x}\|\mathbf{y} \quad \text{with} \quad \|\mathbf{y}\| = 1.$$

Thanks to its properties, \mathbf{H} writes as

$$\mathbf{H} = \mathbb{I}_n - \frac{2}{\|\mathbf{u}\|^2} \mathbf{u} \otimes \mathbf{u} \quad \text{with} \quad \mathbf{u} = (\mathbf{x} - \|\mathbf{x}\|\mathbf{y}).$$

The practical implementation of the Householder transformation kernel uses the components of the input vectors.

Remark

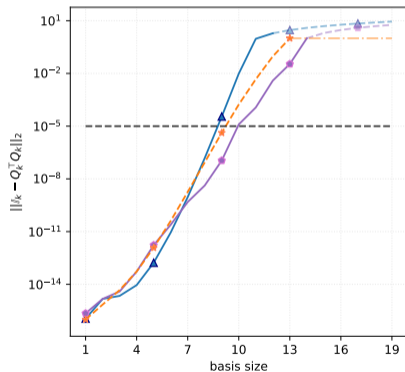
The Householder algorithm does **not** readily apply to tensor in TT-formats because of the compressed nature of this format.

TT-orthogonalization: numeric [Coulaud, Luc Giraud, et al. 2022b]

$$\mathcal{X}_{k+1} = \text{TT-rounding}(\Delta_d \mathcal{A}_k, \text{max_rank} = 1) \quad \text{with} \quad \mathcal{A}_{k+1} = \frac{1}{\|\mathcal{X}_{k+1}\|} \mathcal{X}_{k+1}$$

TT-orthogonalization: numeric [Coulaud, Luc Giraud, et al. 2022b]

$$\mathcal{X}_{k+1} = \text{TT-rounding}(\Delta_d \mathcal{A}_k, \text{max_rank} = 1) \quad \text{with} \quad \mathcal{A}_{k+1} = \frac{1}{\|\mathcal{X}_{k+1}\|} \mathcal{X}_{k+1}$$



- Gram approach

- CGS

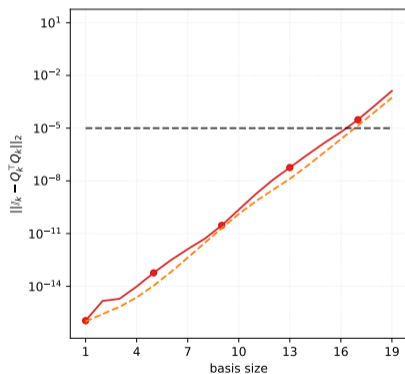
- $\kappa^2(\mathbf{A}_k)$

$$\mathcal{O}(\delta \kappa^2(\mathbf{A}_k))$$

Loss of orthogonality for $\{\mathcal{A}_k\}_{k=1}^{20}$ TT-vectors of order 3, mode size 15, rounding accuracy $\delta = 10^{-5}$ compared with condition number of $\mathbf{A}_k = [\text{vec}(\mathcal{A}_1), \dots, \text{vec}(\mathcal{A}_k)]$

TT-orthogonalization: numeric [Coulaud, Luc Giraud, et al. 2022b]

$$\mathcal{X}_{k+1} = \text{TT-rounding}(\Delta_d \mathcal{A}_k, \text{max_rank} = 1) \quad \text{with} \quad \mathcal{A}_{k+1} = \frac{1}{\|\mathcal{X}_{k+1}\|} \mathcal{X}_{k+1}$$



- MGS

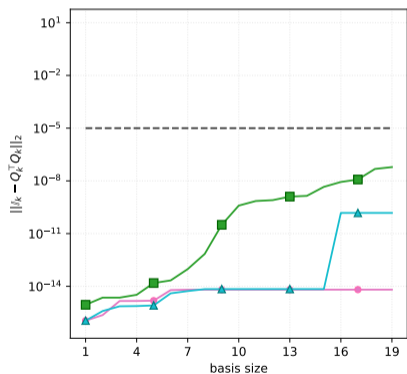
- $\kappa(\mathbf{A}_k)$

 $\mathcal{O}(\delta \kappa(\mathbf{A}_k))$

Loss of orthogonality for $\{\mathcal{A}_k\}_{k=1}^{20}$ TT-vectors of order 3, mode size 15, rounding accuracy $\delta = 10^{-5}$ compared with condition number of $\mathbf{A}_k = [\text{vec}(\mathcal{A}_1), \dots, \text{vec}(\mathcal{A}_k)]$

TT-orthogonalization: numeric [Coulaud, Luc Giraud, et al. 2022b]

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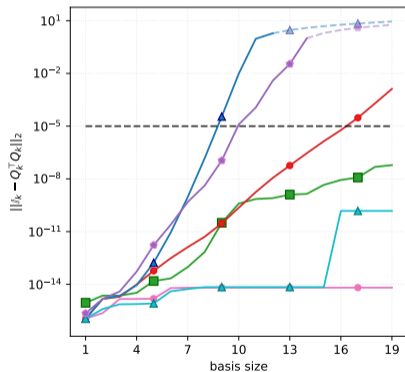
- CGS2
- MGS2
- Householder transformation

 $\mathcal{O}(\delta)$

Loss of orthogonality for $\{\mathcal{A}_k\}_{k=1}^{20}$ TT-vectors of order 3, mode size 15, rounding accuracy $\delta = 10^{-5}$ compared with condition number of $\mathbf{A}_k = [\text{vec}(\mathcal{A}_1), \dots, \text{vec}(\mathcal{A}_k)]$

TT-orthogonalization: numeric [Coulaud, Luc Giraud, et al. 2022b]

$$\mathcal{X}_{k+1} = \text{TT-rounding}(\Delta_d \mathcal{A}_k, \text{max_rank} = 1) \quad \text{with} \quad \mathcal{A}_{k+1} = \frac{1}{\|\mathcal{X}_{k+1}\|} \mathcal{X}_{k+1}$$



- Gram approach $\mathcal{O}(\delta \kappa^2(\mathbf{A}_k))$
- CGS $\mathcal{O}(\delta \kappa^2(\mathbf{A}_k))$
- MGS $\mathcal{O}(\delta \kappa(\mathbf{A}_k))$
- CGS2 $\mathcal{O}(\delta)$
- MGS2 $\mathcal{O}(\delta)$
- Householder transformation $\mathcal{O}(\delta)$

Loss of orthogonality for $\{\mathcal{A}_k\}_{k=1}^{20}$ TT-vectors of order 3, mode size 15, rounding accuracy $\delta = 10^{-5}$ compared with condition number of $\mathbf{A}_k = [\text{vec}(\mathcal{A}_1), \dots, \text{vec}(\mathcal{A}_k)]$

TT-orthogonalization: theory (work in progress)

Let $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{x}$ and $\mathbf{q} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, while $\delta \in (0, 1)$ a precision, u a unit roundoff and $\gamma_n = \frac{nu}{1-nu}$.

Mixed inner product

In the mixed-precision system, the inner product between \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{q} is such that

$$|fl(\mathbf{a}^T \tilde{\mathbf{q}}) - \mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{q}| \leq \|\mathbf{a}\| \|\mathbf{q}\| (\gamma_n + \delta + \delta \gamma_n)$$

where $\|\mathbf{q} - \tilde{\mathbf{q}}\| \leq \delta \|\mathbf{q}\|$.

Mixed projection

Let $\tilde{\mathbf{P}} = \mathbb{I}_n - \tilde{\mathbf{a}}\tilde{\mathbf{b}}^T$ be a normwise perturbed projector. If $\mathbf{y} = \tilde{\mathbf{P}}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x} - \tilde{\mathbf{a}}(\tilde{\mathbf{b}}^T \mathbf{x})$ (exact arithmetic) and $\bar{\mathbf{y}} = fl(\tilde{\mathbf{P}}\mathbf{x})$ (finite arithmetic), then

$$\|\mathbf{y} - \bar{\mathbf{y}}\| \leq (\gamma_m + \eta_\ell + \gamma_m \eta_\ell)(1 + \|\mathbf{a}\| \|\mathbf{b}\|) \|\mathbf{x}\|.$$

where $\eta_\ell = \ell\delta$ for $\ell \in \mathbb{N}$.

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- 1 Introduction
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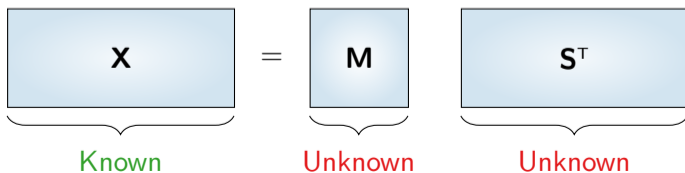
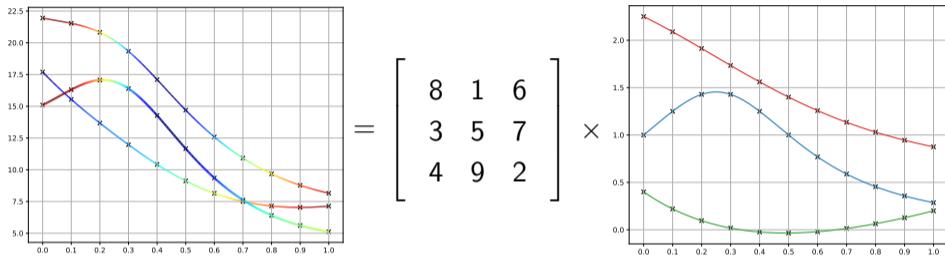
Postdoctoral project

- Blind Source Separation (BSS)
- algebraic algorithm for Canonical Polyadic Decomposition
- improve the algorithm efficiency



Figure: Prof. L. De Lathauwer, KU Leuven

Blind Source Separation problem



Factor Analysis and Blind Source Separation

- Decompose a data matrix in rank-1 terms that can be interpreted
E.g. statistics, telecommunication, biomedical applications, chemometrics, data analysis, ...

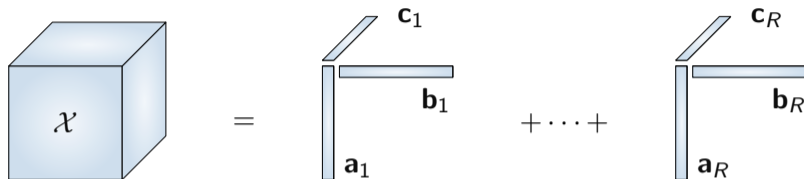
$$\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{M}\mathbf{S}^T$$

- **M**: mixing matrix **S**: source signals
- Matrix decomposition in rank-1 terms is not unique!

$$\mathbf{X} = (\mathbf{M}\mathbf{G})(\mathbf{G}^{-1}\mathbf{S}^T) = \tilde{\mathbf{M}}\tilde{\mathbf{S}}^T$$

What about tensor decomposition techniques?

Canonical Polyadic Decomposition [Hitchcock 1927; Harshman 1970; Carroll et al. 1970]



If \mathcal{A} is a $(n_1 \times n_2 \times n_3)$ tensor of rank R , its CPD decomposition is

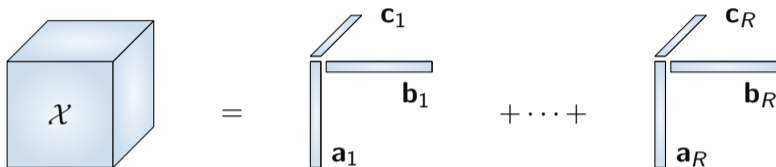
$$\mathcal{A} = \sum_{r=1}^R \mathbf{a}_r \otimes \mathbf{b}_r \otimes \mathbf{c}_r$$

where $\mathbf{a}_r \in \mathbb{K}^{n_1}$, $\mathbf{b}_r \in \mathbb{K}^{n_2}$ and $\mathbf{c}_r \in \mathbb{K}^{n_3}$ with $i = 1, \dots, R$. Its properties are

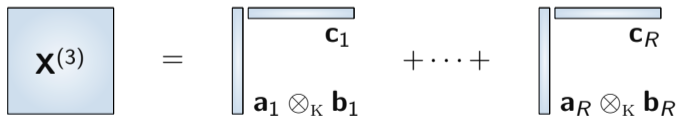
- unique under mild assumptions
- memory cost $\mathcal{O}(dnR)$
- NP-hard problem
- algorithms affected by numerical instabilities

CPD reformulation

$$\text{if } \mathcal{X} = \mathbf{a}_1 \otimes \mathbf{b}_1 \otimes \mathbf{c}_1 + \dots + \mathbf{a}_R \otimes \mathbf{b}_R \otimes \mathbf{c}_R$$



$$\text{then } \mathbf{X}^{(3)} = (\mathbf{a}_1 \otimes_{\mathbb{K}} \mathbf{b}_1) \otimes \mathbf{c}_1^T + \dots + (\mathbf{a}_R \otimes_{\mathbb{K}} \mathbf{b}_R) \otimes \mathbf{c}_R^T$$



$$(\mathbf{a}_r \otimes_{\mathbb{K}} \mathbf{b}_r) \in \mathcal{V} = \left\{ \text{vec}(\mathbf{Z}) : \begin{vmatrix} z_{i_1 j_1} & z_{i_1 j_2} \\ z_{i_2 j_1} & z_{i_2 j_2} \end{vmatrix} = 0 \right\} \text{ algebraic variety}$$

Algebraic algorithm: high view

Let \mathcal{X} be a $(n_1 \times n_2 \times n_3)$ tensor, then

$$\mathbf{X}^{(3)} = \sum_{r=1}^R (\mathbf{a}_r \otimes_{\mathbf{K}} \mathbf{b}_r) \otimes \mathbf{c}_r^T = \left[\mathbf{a}_1 \otimes_{\mathbf{K}} \mathbf{b}_1 \quad \cdots \quad \mathbf{a}_R \otimes_{\mathbf{K}} \mathbf{b}_R \right] \mathbf{C}^T.$$

If $\mathbf{X} = (\mathbf{X}^{(3)})^T$, then

$$\underbrace{\mathbf{X}}_{\text{Known}} = \underbrace{\mathbf{C}}_{\text{Unknown}} \underbrace{(\mathbf{A} \odot \mathbf{B})^T}_{\text{Unknown}}$$

- 1 compute \mathbf{C}^{-1} from \mathbf{X} using algebraic geometry properties;
- 2 decompose at rank 1 each column of $(\mathbf{C}^{-1}\mathbf{X})^T = \left[\mathbf{a}_1 \otimes_{\mathbf{K}} \mathbf{b}_1 \quad \cdots \quad \mathbf{a}_R \otimes_{\mathbf{K}} \mathbf{b}_R \right]$;
- 3 compute \mathbf{C} by solving $(\mathbf{A} \odot \mathbf{B})\mathbf{C}^T = \mathbf{X}$.

Retrieving \mathbf{C}^{-1}

The vector \mathbf{e} is a column of \mathbf{C}^{-1} if and only if $\mathbf{e}\mathbf{X}$ is equal to $\mathbf{a}_\ell \otimes_{\mathbf{K}} \mathbf{b}_\ell$.
 We try to characterize the vector \mathbf{e} , defining the matrix-valued function

$$\mathbf{W}(\mathbf{e})(i_1, i_2) = \sum_{i_3=1}^{n_3} \mathbf{e}(i_3) \mathcal{X}(i_1, i_2, i_3) = \mathcal{X} \times_3 \mathbf{e}$$



\mathbf{e} is a column of \mathbf{C}^{-1} if and only if $\mathbf{W}(\mathbf{e})$ is equal to a $\mathbf{a}_\ell \otimes \mathbf{b}_\ell$



$$\text{rank}(\mathbf{W}(\mathbf{e})) = 1$$



The determinant of each (2×2) minor of $\mathbf{W}(\mathbf{e})$ is equal to 0

Retrieving C - II

The determinant of each (2×2) minor of $\mathbf{W}(\mathbf{e})$ is equal to 0



There exists a system of $C_i^2 C_j^2$ homogeneous degree 2 polynomial equations in \mathbf{e}

$$P_{h_1 h_2}(\mathbf{e}) = \sum_{\substack{k_1, k_2=1 \\ k_1 \leq k_2}}^{n_3} Q(h_1, h_2, k_1, k_2) \mathbf{e}(k_1) \mathbf{e}(k_2)$$



searching elements in the kernel of $\mathbf{Q}^{(1,2)}$ which can be mapped to symmetric rank-1 matrices.

Retrieving \mathbf{C} - III

The number of solution to the homogeneous degree 2 polynomial system can be predicted using the algebraic geometry theorem [Conca et al. 1994] as

$$\max \left\{ R, \binom{n_1 - 1}{2} \binom{n_2 - 1}{2} \right\}$$

if $n_3 = r = (n_1 - 1)(n_2 - 1)$

- if R solutions are found, then
 - organize them into a $(n_3 \times n_3 \times R)$ tensor and compute its CPD to retrieve \mathbf{C}^{-1} ;
 - perform a column-wise SVD of $(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{C}^{-1})$ to retrieve \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B}
 - solve for \mathbf{C} the equation $(\mathbf{A} \odot \mathbf{B})\mathbf{C}^T = \mathbf{X}$
- if more than R solutions are found, we need to discard some solutions



Embedding procedure

Embedding procedure

If the kernel of $\mathbf{Q}^{(1,2)}$ has more than R elements which can be mapped to rank-1 symmetric matrices, then we can define new polynomial equations as

$$(\mathbf{e}(k_1))^{d_1} \cdots (\mathbf{e}(k_\ell))^{d_\ell} P_{h_1 h_2}(\mathbf{e}) = 0$$

where ℓ is the number of times we need to repeat the embedding.



Search for the elements in the kernel of $(\mathbb{I}_{R^\ell} \otimes_{\mathbb{K}} \mathbf{Q}^{(1,2)})$ which can be mapped to symmetric rank-1 tensors of order $\ell + 2$.



From [Conca et al. 1994], the value ℓ is known **a priori** as the minimum integer such that

$$\binom{n_1 - 1}{2 + \ell} \binom{n_2 - 1}{2 + \ell} \leq R \quad \text{if} \quad n_3 = R = (n_1 - 1)(n_2 - 1)$$

Numerical drawbacks

- the construction of $\mathbf{Q}^{(1,2)}$ has complexity $C_{n_1}^2 C_{n_2}^2 C_{R+1}^2$, how can we improve it? Could we benefit from the matrix $\mathbf{Q}^{(1,2)}$ structure?
- the matrix $\mathbb{I}_{R^\ell} \otimes \mathbf{Q}^{(1,2)}$ has dimension $(R^\ell C_{n_1}^2 C_{n_2}^2 \times C_{R+1}^2 R^\ell)$, thus its SVD becomes quickly expensive
- the auxiliary tensor formed by the R symmetric order $\ell + 2$ tensors has to be decomposed by CPD. How to compute this CPD reliably and effectively?
- the results of [Conca et al. 1994] holds under the assumption of generically independence of the system polynomials, how can we guarantee it from the input tensor \mathcal{X} ?
- could the number of symmetric elements in the kernel of $\mathbb{I}_{R^\ell} \otimes \mathbf{Q}^{(1,2)}$ be predicted a priori if $R \neq (n_1 - 1)(n_2 - 1)$?
- could we assess the robustness to numerical errors of this algorithm?

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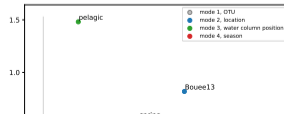
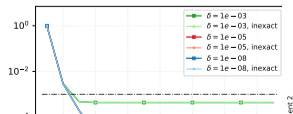
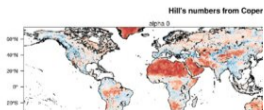
Wrap up

Tensor methods used in

- data analysis problem as compression methods
 - e.g., the Tucker's decomposition
- scientific computing as new policy for computational methods
 - e.g., the Tensor-Train decomposition
- signal processing
 - e.g., the Canonical Polyadic Decomposition






Other projects

- rasterdiv an R package to compute biodiversity indexes [Rocchini et al. 2021]
- Generalized Minimal RESidual in variable accuracy [Agullo et al. 2022]
- Inexact TT-GMRES features for parametric operators [Coulaud, Luc Giraud, et al. 2022a]
- High Order Correspondance Analysis applied to ecological datasets [Coulaud, Franc, et al. 2021]
- Bind Inference Suppression algorithm








Thank you for the attention!
Questions? Advice?






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Happy birthday Daniele!



spontaneously from J. C. F. Gauss.AI

Background on GMRES I [Saad et al. 1986]

To solve $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$ with initial guess $\mathbf{x}_0 = 0$, at the k -th iteration GMRES minimizes the norm of residual

$$\|\mathbf{r}_k\| = \min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{K}_k(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{b})} \|\mathbf{Ax} - \mathbf{b}\|$$

in the Krylov space $\mathcal{K}_k(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{b}) = \text{span}\{\mathbf{b}, \mathbf{Ab}, \dots, \mathbf{A}^{k-1}\mathbf{b}\}$

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Practically, let $\mathbf{V}_k = [\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k]$ such that

$$\mathcal{K}_k(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{b}) = \text{span}\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k\}$$

thanks to the **Arnoldi relation**

$$\mathbf{AV}_k = \mathbf{V}_{k+1}\overline{\mathbf{H}}_k \quad \text{with} \quad \mathbf{V}_{k+1}^T \mathbf{V}_{k+1} = \mathbb{I}_{k+1}$$

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Commonly Householder or Modified Gram-Schmidt algorithms are used to construct \mathbf{V}_k

Background on GMRES II [Saad et al. 1986]

Thanks to the Arnoldi relation, in exact arithmetic the residual can be written as

$$\|\mathbf{r}_k\| = \min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{K}_k(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{b})} \|\mathbf{Ax} - \mathbf{b}\| = \min_{\mathbf{y}} \left\| \beta \mathbf{e}_1 - \overline{\mathbf{H}}_k \mathbf{y} \right\| = \|\tilde{\mathbf{r}}_k\|.$$

Remark

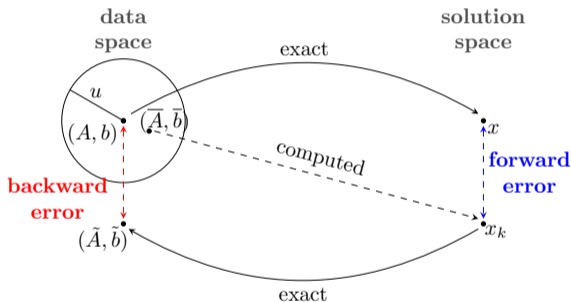
In finite arithmetic, the exact residual \mathbf{r}_k and the LS-residual $\tilde{\mathbf{r}}_k$ differ!

If the smaller minimization problem is solved by \mathbf{y}_k , the updated iterative solution is

$$\mathbf{x}_k = \mathbf{V}_k \mathbf{y}_k$$

GMRES property [Wilkinson 1963]

Given the linear system $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$ and a working precision u , then



GMRES is backward stable, i.e.,

$$\eta_{A,b}(x_k) = \frac{\|\mathbf{Ax}_k - \mathbf{b}\|}{\|\mathbf{A}\| \|\mathbf{x}_k\| + \|\mathbf{b}\|} \sim \mathcal{O}(u)$$

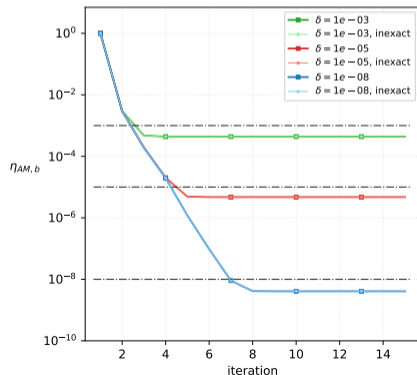
TT-GMRES results [Dolgov 2013; Coulaud, Luc Giraud, et al. 2022a]

Convection-Diffusion problem

$$\begin{cases} -\Delta \mathcal{U} & + \mathcal{V} \cdot \nabla \mathcal{U} = 0 \\ \mathcal{U}_{\{y=1\}} & = 1 \end{cases} \quad \text{in} \quad \Omega = [-1, 1]^3$$

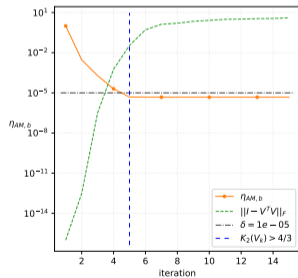
TT-GMRES modifications

- Arnoldi basis compressed at accuracy δ
- Iterative solution compressed at accuracy δ



TT-GMRES

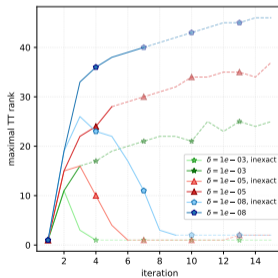
- constant rounding accuracy δ
- iterative solution rounded at precision δ



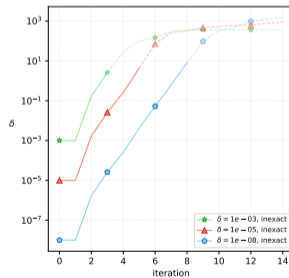
Convergence history vs LOO

inexact TT-GMRES

- increasing rounding accuracy $\delta / \|\tilde{r}\|$
- iterative solution at IEEE precision



Maximal TT-rank comparison



δ values