Introduction to tensors: from applications to contemporary challenges

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Overview

From matrix to tensors

Matrix factorization

Tensor preliminaries

Tucker's decomposition

Optical character recognition

Tensor-Train

Orthogonalization schemes

Canonical Polyadic decomposition

Blind Source Separation

Challanges

Conclusion

From scalars to tensors

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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 $\mathbb{K}^{n_1 \times \cdots \times n_d}$
- set of $(n_{i_1} \times n_{i_k})$ elements in $\mathbb{K}^{n_{j_1} \times \cdots \times n_{j_\ell}}$
- multilinear operator from $\mathbb{K}^{n_{j_1} \times \cdots \times n_{j_\ell}}$ to $\mathbb{K}^{n_{i_1} \times \cdots \times n_{i_k}}$

with $k + \ell = d$

Where and why tensors?



Examples of tensor data

- Color images, video, ...
- \blacksquare Text mining: term \times document \times author
- (Social) networks: score \times object \times referee \times criterion
- Event Related Potential (ERP): subject × time × frequency × channel × ...
- 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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SVD and EVD: numerical aspects

EVD:

SVD: $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{U} \cdot \mathbf{S} \cdot \mathbf{V}^{\mathsf{T}}$



- gap between eigenvalues
- linear independence eigenvectors

Matrix Singular Value Decomposition



- (Numerical) rank revealing
- Best rank-*r* approximation ≺ truncation SVD
- Dominant subspace generated by first part of **U**, **V**

$$\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{U} \cdot \mathbf{S} \cdot \mathbf{V}^{\mathsf{T}} = \sum_{i=1}^{R} \sigma_i \mathbf{u}_i \otimes \mathbf{v}_i$$

Best low rank approximation of matrix

Matrix

$$\min_{\mathsf{rank}(\hat{\mathbf{X}}) \leqslant R} \|\mathbf{X} - \hat{\mathbf{X}}\|^2 \iff \max \|\hat{\mathbf{U}}^{\mathsf{T}} \cdot \mathbf{A} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{V}}\|^2 \qquad (\hat{\mathbf{U}}, \hat{\mathbf{V}} \text{ orthogonal})$$

$$\|\mathbf{X} - \hat{\mathbf{X}}\|_{\min}^2 = \sum_{r=R+1}^{\min(l_1, l_2)} \sigma_r^2$$

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Unfolding and contraction

Let \mathcal{X} be a $(n_1 \times \cdots \times n_d)$ tensor



Definition: the *k*-th mode matricization $\mathbf{X}^{(k)}$ is a $(n_k \times n_1 \cdots n_{k-1} n_{k+1} \cdots n_d)$ matrix, obtained stacking the vectors

$$\mathbf{x}_{i_k} = \operatorname{vec}(\mathcal{X}(\cdot,\ldots,i_k,\ldots,\cdot)).$$

Matrix-tensor product

Let \mathcal{X} be a $(n_1 \times \cdots \times n_d)$ tensor. If **G** is a $(n_k \times m_k)$ matrix Definition: the *k*-th mode matrix-tensor product

$$\mathcal{Y} = \mathcal{X} \times_k \mathbf{G}$$

a $(n_1 \times \cdots \times m_k \times \cdots n_d)$ such that

$$\mathcal{Y}(i_1,\ldots,j_k,\ldots,i_d) = \sum_{i_k=1}^{n_k} \mathcal{X}(i_1,\ldots,i_k,\ldots,i_d) \mathbf{G}(i_k,j_k)$$

Computational: a straightforward way of getting $\mathcal Y$ the matrix-tensor product is computing

$$\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{G}^T \mathbf{X}^{(k)}$$

and then tensorizing \mathbf{Y} into \mathcal{Y} .

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Tucker's decomposition

Definition:

$$\mathcal{X} = \mathcal{C} \times_1 \mathbf{U}_1 \times_2 \mathbf{U}_2 \times_3 \cdots \times_d \mathbf{U}_d = (\mathbf{U}_1, \dots, \mathbf{U}_d)\mathcal{S}$$

with C a $(R_1 \times \cdots \times R_d)$ tensor and U_i a $(n_i \times R_i)$ orthogonal matrix. Remark:

- \blacksquare the core tensor ${\mathcal C}$ is is all-orthogonal, ordered and not diagonal;
- **U**_i is said *i*-th factor matrix.
- the memory cost is

$$\mathcal{O}(R^d + NR)$$

where $R = \max R_i$, $N = \max n_i$.



[Tucker 1964; De Lathauwer, De Moor, et al. 2000a]

Multilinear rank of a tensor

The Tucker's decomposition factorizes a tensor \mathcal{A} using its8 multilinear rank Definition: the multilinear rank rank_{\boxplus}(\mathcal{X}) = (R_1 , ..., R_d) is such that

$$R_i = \operatorname{rank}(\mathbf{X}^{(i)})$$
 for $i = 1, \ldots, d$.

Surprising fact: each component of rank_⊞ can be different (new possibilities)
 Property:

$$R_i \leqslant \prod_{j \neq i} R_i$$

Compute Tucker's decomposition



Mode-1 vector space (columns)/sing. values:

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SVD:
$$\mathbf{X}^{(1)} = \mathbf{U}_1 \mathbf{\Sigma}_1 \mathbf{V}_1^{\mathsf{T}}$$

■ Mode-2 vector space (rows)/sing. values:

SVD:
$$\mathbf{X}^{(2)} = \mathbf{U}_2 \mathbf{\Sigma}_2 \mathbf{V}_2^{-1}$$

■ Mode-3 vector space/sing. values:

$$\mathsf{D}: \qquad \mathbf{X}^{(3)} = \mathbf{U}_3 \mathbf{\Sigma}_3 \mathbf{V}_3^{\mathsf{T}}$$

Core tensor:

$$\mathcal{C} = \mathcal{X} \times_1 \boldsymbol{\mathsf{U}}_1^{\mathsf{T}} \times_2 \boldsymbol{\mathsf{U}}_2^{\mathsf{T}} \times_3 \boldsymbol{\mathsf{U}}_3^{\mathsf{T}}$$

This algorithm is also called High-Order Singular Value Decomposition

Truncated HOSVD

What if (R_1, \ldots, R_d) is not the exact multilinear rank?

Truncation error:

$$\|\mathcal{X} - \hat{\mathcal{X}}_{\mathsf{T}}\|^{2} \leq \sum_{i_{1}=R_{1}+1}^{n_{1}} \sigma_{i_{1}}^{2} + \sum_{i_{2}=R_{2}+1}^{n_{2}} \sigma_{i_{2}}^{2} + \sum_{i_{3}=R_{3}+1}^{n_{3}} \sigma_{i_{3}}^{2}$$

$$\left\| \bigcup_{i_{1}=R_{1}+1}^{2} \| \bigcup_{i_{2}=R_{2}+1}^{2} \| \bigcup_{i_{2}=R_{2}+1}^{2} \| \bigcup_{i_{3}=R_{3}+1}^{2} \| \bigcup_{i_{3}=R_{3$$

Suboptimality: $\|\mathcal{X} - \hat{\mathcal{X}}_{\mathsf{T}}\|^2 \leq d \|\mathcal{X} - \hat{\mathcal{X}}\|_{\min}^2$ (order d) Alternative: compute the multilinear approximation as

$$\hat{\mathcal{X}} = \min_{\mathsf{rank}_{\boxplus}(\mathcal{Y}) \leqslant (R_1, R_2, R_3)} \|\mathcal{X} - \mathcal{Y}\|^2$$

Algorithms for low multilinear rank approximation

HO orthogonal iteration:

Optimization on manifolds:

- Newton
- Quasi-Newton
- Trust region
- Conjugate gradient

Krylov methods:

[Kroonenberg 1983; De Lathauwer, De Moor, et al. 2000b]

[Eldén and Savas 2009; Ishteva, De Lathauwer, et al. 2009]

[Savas and Lim 2010]

[Ishteva, Absil, et al. 2010]

[Ishteva, De Lathauwer, et al. 2009]

[Savas and Eld'en 2013; Goreinov, I. V. Oseledets, et al. 2012]

Initialization: truncated HOSVD, random inits

Approximation vs truncation

Optimal approximation:

- relatively expensive
- not always necessary

Truncation:

- Truncation may suffice: multilinear rank can be increased, if higher accuracy is desired
- Precise values of R_1, \ldots, R_N not important, if size subspace does not matter
- Discard small multilinear singular values
- How to choose R_1, \ldots, R_N ?
 - for each mode separately (cf. PCA)
 - all modes together: check bound on error; compute norm residual; heuristic procedures

Numerical pros and cons

- Well-posed
- (Approximate) computation via matrix SVD
- Error bounds
- Curse not broken
- Numerically reliable but limited to modest order



Order
$$3 = n^3 \rightarrow \mathcal{O}(3nR + R^3)$$

Order $d = n^d \rightarrow \mathcal{O}(nR + R^d)$

Applications of low multilinear rank approximation

Dimensionality reduction:

- acts like a compression and reduced storage
- denoising
- following computation in compressed format and then re-expansion

Subspaces:

- finds principal directions in each mode separately)
- distinguishes between information subspace and noise ones



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Optical character recognition

- topic in machine learning
- recognizing and converting handwritten or printed text into electronic document
- widely used, e.g., Oletko koskaan kokeillut Google-Translate?
- Studying example: creating a classifier, that estimates the probability a handwritten digit is a specific digit.

Workflow:

- 1. produce a training set, i.e., a set of handwritten digits labeled;
- 2. reduce the data dimensions;
- 3. finds features to discriminate the data;
- 4. choose a classification algorithm, e.g., k-nearest neighbors, SVM, NN....
- 5. learn the classifier parameters from the traing data
- 6. estimate its capacity on the test data



MNIST dataset

- 28×28 grayscale images of handwritten digits
- 60'000 training images
- 10'000 test images



Input data-set compression

Let \mathcal{A}_ℓ be a tensor of size $(28 imes 28 imes n_\ell)$ collecting all the handwritten images with tag

 $\ell=0,\ldots,9.$ The compression step consists in

- computing the HOSVD of \mathcal{A}_{ℓ} at multilinear rank (8,8,40)
- define $\mathbf{f}_{\ell_k} = ((\mathbf{U}_1, \mathbf{U}_2, \mathbb{I})S)(\cdot, k)$ is the *k*-th element of the feature basis for $k = 1, \dots, 40$
- **a** pass $\{\{\mathbf{f}_{0_k}\}, \dots, \{\mathbf{f}_{9_k}\}\}_k$ to 3-nearest neighbors classifier



Classification results

The confusion matrix after this procedure gets

Predicted class											
		0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Actual class	0	974	1	1	0	0	0	2	2	0	0
	1	0	1132	2	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
	2	6	1	1013	0	1	0	2	8	0	1
	3	2	0	2	988	1	5	0	5	4	3
	4	2	0	0	0	955	0	6	2	0	17
	5	3	0	0	5	2	869	6	1	4	2
	6	5	3	0	0	1	2	947	0	0	0
	7	2	9	7	0	2	0	0	1005	0	3
	8	4	0	2	5	0	3	3	4	950	3
	9	3	5	1	2	6	2	1	6	1	982

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Tensor Train or Matrix Product States



Let \mathcal{X} a tensor of order d and dimensions $(N_1 \times \cdots \times N_d)$, then its TT-representation is given by d TT-cores s.t.

- **X**₁ a (N_1, R_1) matrix
- \mathcal{X}_i is a $(R_{i-1} \times N_i \times R_i)$ tensor
- **X**_d is a $(R_{d-1} \times N_d)$ matrix

i.e., a train of matrix - third-order tensors - matrix.

The (i_1, \ldots, i_d) element of \mathcal{X} is $\mathcal{X}(i_1, \ldots, i_d) = \sum_{i=1}^d \sum_{r_i=1}^{R_i} \mathbf{X}(i, r_1) \mathcal{X}_1(i_1, r_2, i_2) \cdots \mathbf{X}_d(i_{d-1}, i_d).$ TT-decomposition idea

$$\mathcal{X}(i_1,...,i_d) = \sum_{i=1}^d \sum_{r_i=1}^{R_i} \mathbf{X}(i,r_1) \mathcal{X}_1(i_1,r_2,i_2) \cdots \mathbf{X}_d(i_{d-1},i_d)$$

TT-SVD [I. Oseledets 2011]

Algorithm 1: $\mathcal{X}_{TT} = TT-SVD(\mathcal{X}, \varepsilon)$ **Input:** \mathcal{X} order *d* tensor, $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}_+$ 1 $\delta = (\varepsilon/\sqrt{d-1}) \|\mathcal{X}\|$ 2 set C equal to X and $R_0 = 1$ 3 for i = 1, ..., d - 1 do reshape C as a matrix **C** of size $(n_i R_{i-1} \times m)$ with $m = (\prod_{i \neq i} n_i)/(n_i R_{i-1})$ 4 compute $\hat{\mathbf{C}}_i = \hat{\mathbf{U}}_i \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}_i \hat{\mathbf{V}}_i^{\mathsf{T}}$ the SVD of **C** truncated at rank R_i s.t. $\|\mathbf{C} - \hat{\mathbf{C}}_i\| \leq \delta$ 5 reshape $\hat{\mathbf{U}}_i$ as a tensor \mathcal{X}_i of dimension $(R_{i-1} \times n_i \times R_i)$ 6 set $\mathbf{C} = \hat{\mathbf{\Sigma}}_i \hat{\mathbf{V}}_i^{\mathsf{T}}$ 7 8 set $\mathbf{X}_d = \mathbf{C}$ **Output:** $\{X_1, X_2, ..., X_{d-1}, X_d\}$

TT-properties



- total number of entries: n^d ↔ number of variables: O (dnR²), i.e., curse broken by means of QR/SVD
- truncation error bound

 $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$

 $\begin{array}{ccc} \checkmark & \searrow \\ \{1\} & \{2,3,4,5\} \end{array}$

 $\begin{array}{ccc} \checkmark & \searrow \\ \{2\} & \{3,4,5\} \end{array}$

{3}

 $\{4, 5\}$

Remark: the TT-ranks increase with linear combinations of tensors in TT-format or contractions.

A different tree? Hierarchical Tucker [Hackbusch 2012; Grasedyck 2010]

TT hT $\{1,2,3,4,5\}$ $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ ∖ {2,3,4,5} \searrow {3,4,5} $\{1\}$ $\{1, 2\}$ **(1b**) (1a) $\begin{array}{c} \checkmark & \searrow \\ \{3\} & \{4,5\} \end{array}$ ۷ {2} \mathbf{Y} $\{1\}$ {2} $\{3, 4, 5\}$ 2) (2) \mathbf{Y} 7 {5} {3} $\{4,5\}$ {4} 3 {5} {4}

Application: scientific computing

The problem

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



$$\mathcal{AX} = \mathcal{B}$$

where $\mathcal{A} : \mathbb{R}^{n_1 \times \cdots \times n_d} \to \mathbb{R}^{n_1 \times \cdots \times n_d}$ is a multilinear operator and $\mathcal{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_1 \times \cdots \times n_d}$ a tensor.

For large scale-simulations we have to take into account

- memory costs $\mathcal{O}(N^d)$
- computational model
- numerical method

Tensors and scientific computing

Scientific computing: discretization of functions in many variables: "curse of dimensionality"



Exponential increase of entries: n^d Computation: in terms of parameterized approximation

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Maths vs computer science

Mathematical world

• $\pi = 3.1415926535897932384626433...$

Computer world

>>> $\overline{\pi}$ = 3.141592653589793





Maths vs computer science

Mathematical world

- $\pi = 3.1415926535897932384626433...$
- x = 0.1 and y = 0.2, then x + y = 0.3

Computer world

>>> $\overline{\pi}$ = 3.141592653589793




Computational model

Denoting by u the **unit roundoff** of the working precision

Standard IEEE model [Higham 2002]

$$fl(x) = x(1+\xi)$$
$$fl(x \operatorname{op} y) = (x \operatorname{op} y)(1+\varepsilon)$$

[storage perturbation] [computational perturbation]

with
$$|\xi| \leq u$$
, $|\varepsilon| \leq u$ and $op \in \{+, -, \times, \div\}$.

Computational model

Denoting by u the **unit roundoff** of the working precision

Standard IEEE model [Higham 2002]

 $fl(x) = x(1 + \xi) \qquad [\text{storage perturbation}]$ $fl(x \text{ op } y) = (x \text{ op } y)(1 + \varepsilon) \qquad [\text{computational perturbation}]$

with
$$|\xi| \le u$$
, $|\varepsilon| \le u$ and $op \in \{+, -, \times, \div\}$.

Example

Assuming to work in floating point 64, with $u_{64} = 10^{-16}$

- $\overline{\pi} = 3.141592653589793 = \pi(1+\xi)$ with $|\xi| \le u_{64}$
- $\overline{x} = 0.1$ and $\overline{y} = 0.2$, then

 $\overline{{\rm x}\,+\,{\rm y}\,}=0.30000000000004=(0.2+0.1)(1+\varepsilon)$ with $|\varepsilon|\leq u_{64}$

New tensor framework

What happens when objects are compressed through a tensor techniques? Assumptions when using both u the computational precision and δ a storage one

- use TT-formalism, so that storage cost is linear in d
- \blacksquare compress objects at precision δ
- perform operation with computational precision u

new computational framework

$$\begin{split} & \textit{fl}_{\delta}(\mathcal{X} \operatorname{op} \mathcal{Y}) = \delta \text{-storage}(\textit{fl}(\mathcal{X} \operatorname{op} \mathcal{Y})) \\ & \delta \text{-storage}(\mathcal{Z}) = \overline{\mathcal{Z}} \qquad \text{s.t.} \qquad \frac{||\mathcal{Z} - \overline{\mathcal{Z}}||}{||\mathcal{Z}||} \leq \delta \end{split}$$

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

Numerical linear algebra methods

Iterative solver

 Generalized Minimal RESidual (GMRES)



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

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

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

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

Matrix		
Source	Algorithm	$\left\ \mathbb{I}_k - \mathbf{Q}_k^\top \mathbf{Q}_k \right\ $
[Stathopoulos and Wu 2002] [L. Giraud, Langou, et al. 2005]	Gram CGS	$\mathcal{O}(u\kappa^2(\mathbf{A}_k))$ $\mathcal{O}(u\kappa^2(\mathbf{A}_k))$
[Björck 1967]	MGS	$\mathcal{O}(u\kappa(\mathbf{A}_k))$
[L. Giraud, Langou, et al. 2005]	CGS2	$\mathcal{O}(u)$
[L. Giraud, Langou, et al. 2005]	MGS2	$\mathcal{O}(u)$
[Wilkinson 1965]	Householder	$\mathcal{O}(u)$

Classical and Modified Gram-Schmidt

	Algorithm 2: $\mathcal{Q}, R = \mathtt{TT-CGS}(\mathcal{A}, \delta)$	A	lgorithm 3: $\mathcal{Q}, R = \mathtt{TT-MGS}(\mathcal{A}, \delta)$
	Input: $oldsymbol{\mathcal{A}} = [\mathcal{A}_1, \dots, \mathcal{A}_m], \ \delta \in \mathbb{R}_+$	Ir	pput: $oldsymbol{\mathcal{A}}=\{\mathcal{A}_1,\ldots,\mathcal{A}_m\}$, $\delta\in\mathbb{R}_+$
1	for $i=1,\ldots,m$ do	1 fc	or $i=1,\ldots,m$ do
2	$\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{A}_i$	2	$\mathcal{P}=\mathcal{A}_i$
3	for $j = 1,, i - 1$ do	3	for $j=1,\ldots,i-1$ do
4	$R(i,j) = \langle \mathcal{A}_i, \mathcal{Q}_j \rangle$	4	$\mid \mathbf{R}(i,j) = \langle \mathcal{P}, \mathcal{Q}_j angle$
5	$\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{P} - \mathbf{R}(i,j)\mathcal{Q}_j$	5	$\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{P} - \mathbf{R}(i,j)\mathcal{Q}_j$
6	$\mathcal{P} = \texttt{TT-rounding}(\mathcal{P}, \delta)$	6	$\mathcal{P} = \texttt{TT-rounding}(\mathcal{P}, \delta)$
7	$R(i,i) = \mathcal{P} $	7	$\mathbf{R}(i,i) = \mathcal{P} $
8	$\mathcal{Q}_i = \mathcal{P} / \mathbf{R}(i, i)$	8	$\mathcal{Q}_i = \mathcal{P}/\mathbf{R}(i,i)$
	Output: $\boldsymbol{\mathcal{Q}} = \{\mathcal{Q}_1, \dots, \mathcal{Q}_m\}$, R	O	Dutput: $oldsymbol{\mathcal{Q}}=\{\mathcal{Q}_1,\ldots,\mathcal{Q}_m\}$, R

They readily write in TT-format.

Gram approach

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

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

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

 $\mathbf{A}^{\scriptscriptstyle\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{A}=\mathbf{R}^{\scriptscriptstyle\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{R}=\mathbf{L}\mathbf{L}^{\scriptscriptstyle\mathsf{T}}$

with the Cholesky factor $\boldsymbol{\mathsf{L}}=\boldsymbol{\mathsf{R}}^{\scriptscriptstyle\mathsf{T}}$ and then $\boldsymbol{\mathsf{Q}}$ gets

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

Gram approach

Algorithm 4: $\mathcal{Q}, \mathbf{R} = \text{TT-Gram}(\mathcal{A}, \delta)$ Input: $\mathcal{A} = \{\mathcal{A}_1, \dots, \mathcal{A}_m\}, \ \delta \in \mathbb{R}_+$ 1**G** be the Gram matrix from \mathcal{A} 2 $\mathbf{L} = \text{cholesky}(\mathbf{G})$ 3 $\mathbf{Q} = \{\mathcal{Q}_1, \dots, \mathcal{Q}_d\}$ from \mathcal{A} and $(\mathbf{L}^{\mathsf{T}})^{-1}$ 4for $i = 1, \dots, m$ do5 $| \ \mathcal{Q}_i = \delta - \text{storage}(\mathcal{Q}_i)$ Output: $\mathcal{Q} = \{\mathcal{Q}_1, \dots, \mathcal{Q}_m\}, \mathbf{R}$

In TT-format the following modifications occur

$$\mathbf{G}(i,j) = \langle \mathcal{A}_i, \mathcal{A}_j \rangle$$

- L^{T} inverse is explicitly computed
- *Q_i* is constructed as a linear combination of *A* elements
- \blacksquare 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.,

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

Thanks to its properties, **H** writes as

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

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.

$$\mathcal{X}_{k+1} = \texttt{TT-rounding}(oldsymbol{\Delta}_d \mathcal{A}_k, \texttt{max_rank} = 1) \hspace{0.2cm} ext{with} \hspace{0.2cm} \mathcal{A}_{k+1} = rac{1}{||\mathcal{X}_{k+1}||} \mathcal{X}_{k+1}$$

$$\mathcal{X}_{k+1} = \texttt{TT-rounding}(oldsymbol{\Delta}_d \mathcal{A}_k, \texttt{max_rank} = 1) \hspace{0.2cm} \texttt{with} \hspace{0.2cm} \mathcal{A}_{k+1} = rac{1}{||\mathcal{X}_{k+1}||} \mathcal{X}_{k+1}$$



Gram approach
 CGS
 κ²(A_k)
 O(δκ²(A_k))

Figure: Loss of orthogonality for m = 20 TT-vectors of order d = 3 and mode size n = 15, rounding precision $\delta = 10^{-5}$



Figure: Loss of orthogonality for m=20 TT-vectors of order d=3 and mode size n=15, rounding precision $\delta=10^{-5}$

$$\mathcal{X}_{k+1} = \texttt{TT-rounding}(oldsymbol{\Delta}_d \mathcal{A}_k, \texttt{max_rank} = 1) \hspace{0.2cm} ext{with} \hspace{0.2cm} \mathcal{A}_{k+1} = rac{1}{||\mathcal{X}_{k+1}||} \mathcal{X}_{k+1}$$



CGS2
MGS2
Householder transformation

 $\mathcal{O}(\delta)$

Figure: Loss of orthogonality for m = 20 TT-vectors of order d = 3 and mode size n = 15, rounding precision $\delta = 10^{-5}$

$$\mathcal{X}_{k+1} = \texttt{TT-rounding}(oldsymbol{\Delta}_d \mathcal{A}_k, \texttt{max_rank} = 1) \hspace{0.2cm} \texttt{with} \hspace{0.2cm} \mathcal{A}_{k+1} = rac{1}{||\mathcal{X}_{k+1}||} \mathcal{X}_{k+1}$$



- **Gram approach** $O(\delta \kappa^2(\mathbf{A}_k))$
- **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** $\mathcal{O}(\delta)$

Figure: Loss of orthogonality for m = 20 TT-vectors of order d = 3 and mode size n = 15, rounding precision $\delta = 10^{-5}$

Loss of orthogonality: matrix vs tensor [Coulaud, Luc Giraud, et al. 2022]

	Matrix, theoretical	TT-format, conjecture
Algorithm	$ \mathbb{I}_k - \mathbf{Q}_k^{\intercal} \mathbf{Q}_k $	$ \mathbb{I}_k - \mathcal{Q}_k^{^{\intercal}} \mathcal{Q}_k $
Gram	$\mathcal{O}(u\kappa^2(\mathbf{A}_k))$	$\mathcal{O}(\delta\kappa^2(\mathcal{A}_k))$
CGS	$\mathcal{O}(u\kappa^2(\mathbf{A}_k))$	$\mathcal{O}(\delta\kappa^2(\mathcal{A}_k))$
MGS	$\mathcal{O}(u\kappa(\mathbf{A}_k))$	$\mathcal{O}(\delta\kappa(\mathcal{A}_k))$
CGS2	$\mathcal{O}(u)$	$\mathcal{O}(\delta)$
MGS2	$\mathcal{O}(u)$	$\mathcal{O}(\delta)$
Householder	$\mathcal{O}(u)$	$\mathcal{O}(\delta)$

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Canonical polyadic decomposition [F. L. Hitchcock 1927; Richard A. Harshman 1970; Carroll and J.-J. Chang 1970]

Definition: decomposition in minimal number of rank-1 terms [R. A. Harshman 1970; Carrol and J. J. Chang 1970]



Surprising fact: unique under mild conditions on number of terms and differences between terms

Additional constraints such as orthogonality, triangularity, ... are not required, but may be imposed.

Uniqueness

Trivial indeterminacies: permutation and scaling



Scaling: $\mathbf{a}_r \leftarrow \mathbf{a}_r \cdot \alpha_r$ $\mathbf{b}_r \leftarrow \mathbf{b}_r \cdot \beta_r$ $\mathbf{c}_r \leftarrow \mathbf{c}_r \cdot \alpha_r^{-1} \cdot \beta_r^{-1}$

Rank of a tensor

■ The rank *R* of a matrix **X** is minimal number of rank-1 matrices that yield **X** in a linear combination.



■ The rank *R* of an *N*th-order tensor *X* is the minimal number of rank-1 tensors that yield *X* in a linear combination.



[F. Hitchcock 1927]

Rank and dimension

Remark 1: $(n \times n \times ... \times n)$: rank can > n (new possibilities) Remark 2: expected rank > nRemark 3: is NP-hard

[Håstad 1990]



Partial explanation: number of free tensor parameters: n^d number of parameters in expansion: dnR

Rank and multilinear rank: $R \ge \max(R_1, R_2, \dots, R_N)$

Tucker vs CPD

exact Tucker's decomposition matrix SVD

low multilinear rank approximation numerically reliable

exact CPD matrix EVD

low rank approximation numerically less reliable



 CPD / low rank approximation: numerical pros and cons

- Possibly ill-posed
- Possibly ill-conditioned
- Curse broken
- Powerful tool but not always numerically reliable



Order $3 = n^3 \rightarrow \mathcal{O}(3nR)$ Order $d = n^d \rightarrow \mathcal{O}(dnR)$

Algorithm basics: CPD using ALS

Step k, substep 1:
$$\min_{\mathbf{A}_{k}} \frac{1}{2} \left\| \mathbf{X}^{(1)} - \mathbf{A}_{k} (\mathbf{C}_{k-1} \odot \mathbf{B}_{k-1})^{\mathsf{T}} \right\|_{\mathsf{F}}^{2}$$

Step k, substep 2:
$$\min_{\mathbf{B}_{k}} \frac{1}{2} \left\| \mathbf{X}^{(2)} - \mathbf{B}_{k} (\mathbf{C}_{k-1} \odot \mathbf{A}_{k})^{\mathsf{T}} \right\|_{\mathsf{F}}^{2}$$

Step k, substep 3:
$$\min_{\mathbf{C}_{k}} \frac{1}{2} \left\| \mathbf{X}^{(3)} - \mathbf{C}_{k} (\mathbf{B}_{k} \odot \mathbf{A}_{k})^{\mathsf{T}} \right\|_{\mathsf{F}}^{2}$$



Pencil-based computation: numerical implication

CPD:

$$\mathcal{X} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{c}_1 \\ \mathbf{b}_1 \\ \mathbf{a}_1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{c}_2 \\ \mathbf{b}_2 \\ \mathbf{a}_2 \end{bmatrix} + \dots + \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{c}_R \\ \mathbf{b}_R \\ \mathbf{a}_R \end{bmatrix}$$
(G)EVD:

$$\mathcal{X}(:,:,1)\mathcal{X}(:,:,2) - 1 = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a}_1 \\ \cdots \\ \mathbf{a}_R \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_{11}/c_{21} \\ \cdots \\ c_{1R}/c_{2R} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a}_1 \\ \cdots \\ \mathbf{a}_R \end{bmatrix}^{-1}$$

Algebraically equivalent but computational differences

- init optimization algorithm
- quantization noise \rightarrow condition number [Beltrán, Breiding, et al. 2019]

CPD structure is collapsed into matrix pencil

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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, . . .

$$X = MS^{T}$$



M: mixing matrix

S: source signals

Matrix decomposition in rank-1 terms is not unique!

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

Additional hypothesis [Domanov and De Lathauwer 2016]

It is assumed that the columns of $\boldsymbol{\mathsf{S}}$ are values of the rational function

$$\mathbf{t}:\mathbf{x}
ightarrow egin{bmatrix} rac{p_1}{q_1}(\mathbf{x}) & \dots & rac{p_N}{q_N}(\mathbf{x}) \end{bmatrix}^T.$$

The columns of **S** belong to an algebraic variety \mathcal{V} which is described by a finite system of polynomials $\{P_k\}_{k=1}^{K}$

$$\mathcal{V} = \Big\{(z_1,\ldots,z_N) \in \mathbb{C}^N : P_k(z_1,\ldots,z_N) = 0\Big\}.$$

Composed with the function \boldsymbol{f}

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CPD reformulation

 $\mathsf{if}\; \mathcal{X} = \mathsf{a}_1 \otimes \mathsf{b}_1 \otimes \mathsf{c}_1 + \ldots + \mathsf{a}_R \otimes \mathsf{b}_R \otimes \mathsf{c}_R$



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

 $\mathbf{X}^{(3)} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{c}_1 \\ \mathbf{c}_1 \\ \mathbf{a}_1 \otimes_{\mathrm{K}} \mathbf{b}_1 \end{bmatrix} + \cdots + \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{c}_R \\ \mathbf{a}_R \otimes_{\mathrm{K}} \mathbf{b}_R \end{bmatrix}$
 $(\mathbf{a}_r \otimes_{\mathrm{K}} \mathbf{b}_r) \in \mathcal{V} = \left\{ \operatorname{vec}(\mathbf{Z}) : \begin{vmatrix} z_{i_1 j_1} & z_{i_1 j_2} \\ z_{i_2 j_1} & z_{i_2 j_2} \end{vmatrix} = 0 \right\}$ algebraic variety

Algebraic algorithm: high view

Let \mathcal{X} be a $(N_1 \times N_2 \times R)$ tensor, then

$$\mathbf{X}^{(3)} = \sum_{r=1}^{R} (\mathbf{a}_r \otimes_{\mathrm{K}} \mathbf{b}_r) \otimes \mathbf{c}_r^{\mathsf{T}} = (\mathbf{A} \odot \mathbf{B}) \mathbf{C}^{\mathsf{T}}.$$

If $\mathbf{X} = (\mathbf{X}^{(3)})^T$, then $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{C} \qquad (\mathbf{A} \odot \mathbf{B})^T$ Known Unknown Unknown

- 1. compute C^{-1} from X using algebraic geometry properties;
- 2. compute $(\mathbf{A} \odot \mathbf{B})$ as the transposed product of $\mathbf{C}^{-1}\mathbf{X}$;
- 3. factorize $(\mathbf{A} \odot \mathbf{B}) = [\mathbf{a}_1 \otimes_{\mathrm{K}} \mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_R \otimes_{\mathrm{K}} \mathbf{b}_R]$ to recover \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} ;
- 4. compute **C** by solving $(\mathbf{A} \odot \mathbf{B})\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{X}$.

Using algebraic geometry I

e is a column of \mathbf{C}^{-1} if and only if $\mathbf{X}^{T}\mathbf{e}$ is equal to a column of $(\mathbf{A} \odot \mathbf{B})$

$$\mathbf{X}^{T}\mathbf{e} = (\mathbf{x}_{1}^{T}\mathbf{e}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{N}^{T}\mathbf{e}) = (z_{1}, \dots, z_{N}) \in \mathcal{V}$$

$$\mathbf{P}_{k}(\mathbf{x}_{1}^{T}\mathbf{e}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{N}^{T}\mathbf{e}) = 0 \text{ for } k = 1, \dots, K$$

$$\mathbf{P}_{k}^{\otimes}(\mathbf{x}_{1}^{T}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{N}^{T})(\mathbf{e} \otimes \dots \otimes \mathbf{e}) = 0 \text{ for } k = 1, \dots, K$$

where $P_k^{\otimes}(\mathbf{x}_1^T, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N^T)$ is the vector obtained by formal substitution of (z_1, \dots, z_N) by $\mathbf{x}_1^T, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N^T$ and the scalar multiplication by the tensor product.

Using algebraic geometry II

e is a column of \mathbf{C}^{-1} if and only if $\mathbf{X}^{T}\mathbf{e}$ is equal to a column of $\mathbf{A} \odot \mathbf{B}$ $P_{L}^{\otimes}(\mathbf{x}_{1}^{T},\ldots,\mathbf{x}_{N}^{T})(\mathbf{e}\otimes\cdots\otimes\mathbf{e})=0$ for $k=1,\ldots,K$ $\mathbf{Q}\mathsf{vec}(\mathbf{e}^{\otimes d}) = \begin{bmatrix} P_1^{\otimes}(\mathbf{x}_1^T, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N^T) \\ \vdots \\ P_{\mathcal{C}}^{\otimes}(\mathbf{x}_1^T, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N^T) \end{bmatrix} \mathsf{vec}(\mathbf{e} \otimes \dots \otimes \mathbf{e}) = 0$

The columns of \mathbf{C}^{-1} belong to the intersection of \mathbf{Q} kernel and $\operatorname{vec}(\operatorname{Sym}_R^N)$ the subspace of vectorized order N symmetric tensors, i.e., $\mathbf{e} \in \operatorname{null}(\mathbf{Q}) \cap \operatorname{vec}(\operatorname{Sym}_R^d).$

Algebraic algorithm outline



- 1. compute the factor matrix \mathbf{C}^{-1} from \mathbf{X} ;
 - 1.1 compute **Q**;
 - 1.2 compute the space $\mathcal{E}_0 = \operatorname{null}(\mathbf{Q}) \cap \operatorname{vec}(\operatorname{Sym}_R^d)$ 1.2.1 if dim $\mathcal{E}_0 = R$, then compute \mathbf{C}^{-1} by a CPD of $\{\mathbf{e}_1^{\otimes d}, \dots, \mathbf{e}_R^{\otimes d}\}$ basis of \mathcal{E}_0 ; 1.2.2 if dim $\mathcal{E}_0 > R$, then compute \mathcal{E}_{h+1} such that

$$\mathcal{E}_{h+1} = (\mathbb{K} \otimes \mathcal{E}_h) \cap \mathsf{vec}(\mathsf{Sym}_R^{d+h})$$

until dim $\mathcal{E}_{h+1} = R^{h+1}$ and go to step 1.2.1;

- 2. compute $(\mathbf{A} \odot \mathbf{B})$ as $\mathbf{C}^{-1}\mathbf{X}$ transposed;
- 3. factorize each column of $(\mathbf{A} \odot \mathbf{B})$ at rank-1 to retrieve \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} by SVD;
- 4. compute **C** solving $(\mathbf{A} \odot \mathbf{B})^T \mathbf{C} = \mathbf{X}$.

Challenges

- efficiently construct **Q** and its kernel [Domanov and De Lathauwer 2013]
- estimate the dimension of the intersection with Sym_{R}^{d+h}
- efficiently construct a basis for \mathfrak{E}_h
- compute the CPD of $\{\mathbf{e}_1^{\otimes (h+d)}, \dots, \mathbf{e}_d^{\otimes (h+d)}\}$
- estimate the quality of the algorithm and its robustness

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Wrap up

Tensor methods used in

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

Research

General theme: tensor tools for mathematical engineering:

- algebraic foundations
- numerical algorithms and software
- signal processing/data analysis/machine learning/modelling/...: concepts
- specific applications: array processing, telecom, biomedical applications, materials science, chemical science, ...

Thank you for the attention! Questions?

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