

CS 598 EVS: Tensor Computations

Basics of Tensor Computations

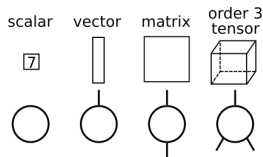
Edgar Solomonik

University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

Tensors

A *tensor* is a collection of elements

- ▶ its *dimensions* define the size of the collection
- ▶ its *order* is the number of different dimensions
- ▶ specifying an index along each tensor *mode* defines an element of the tensor



A few examples of tensors are

- ▶ Order 0 tensors are scalars, e.g., $s \in \mathbb{R}$
- ▶ Order 1 tensors are vectors, e.g., $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$
- ▶ Order 2 tensors are matrices, e.g., $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$
- ▶ An order 3 tensor with dimensions $s_1 \times s_2 \times s_3$ is denoted as $\mathcal{T} \in \mathbb{R}^{s_1 \times s_2 \times s_3}$ with elements t_{ijk} for $i \in \{1, \dots, s_1\}$, $j \in \{1, \dots, s_2\}$, $k \in \{1, \dots, s_3\}$

Reshaping Tensors

Its often helpful to use alternative views of the same collection of elements

- ▶ *Folding* a tensor yields a higher-order tensor with the same elements
- ▶ *Unfolding* a tensor yields a lower-order tensor with the same elements
- ▶ In linear algebra, we have the unfolding $\mathbf{v} = \text{vec}(\mathbf{A})$, which stacks the columns of $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ to produce $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^{mn}$
- ▶ For a tensor $\mathcal{T} \in \mathbb{R}^{s_1 \times s_2 \times s_3}$, $\mathbf{v} = \text{vec}(\mathcal{T})$ gives $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^{s_1 s_2 s_3}$ with

$$v_{i+(j-1)s_1+(k-1)s_1s_2} = t_{ijk}$$

- ▶ A common set of unfoldings is given by matricizations of a tensor, e.g., for order 3,

$$\mathbf{T}_{(1)} \in \mathbb{R}^{s_1 \times s_2 s_3}, \mathbf{T}_{(2)} \in \mathbb{R}^{s_2 \times s_1 s_3}, \text{ and } \mathbf{T}_{(3)} \in \mathbb{R}^{s_3 \times s_1 s_2}$$

Matrices and Tensors as Operators and Multilinear Forms

- ▶ What is a matrix?
 - ▶ A collection of numbers arranged into an array of dimensions $m \times n$, e.g., $M \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$
 - ▶ A linear operator $f_M(x) = Mx$
 - ▶ A bilinear form $x^T M y$

- ▶ What is a tensor?
 - ▶ A collection of numbers arranged into an array of a particular order, with dimensions $l \times m \times n \times \dots$, e.g., $\mathcal{T} \in \mathbb{R}^{l \times m \times n}$ is order 3
 - ▶ A multilinear operator $z = f_M(x, y)$

$$z_i = \sum_{j,k} t_{ijk} x_j y_k$$

- ▶ A multilinear form $\sum_{i,j,k} t_{ijk} x_i y_j z_k$

Tensor Transposition

For tensors of order ≥ 3 , there is more than one way to transpose modes

- ▶ A *tensor transposition* is defined by a permutation p containing elements $\{1, \dots, d\}$

$$y_{i_{p_1}, \dots, i_{p_d}} = x_{i_1, \dots, i_d}$$

- ▶ In this notation, a transposition A^T of matrix A is defined by $p = [2, 1]$ so that

$$b_{i_2 i_1} = a_{i_1 i_2}$$

- ▶ Tensor transposition is a convenient primitive for manipulating multidimensional arrays and mapping tensor computations to linear algebra
- ▶ When elementwise expressions are used in tensor algebra, indices are often carried through to avoid transpositions

Tensor Symmetry

We say a tensor is *symmetric* if $\forall j, k \in \{1, \dots, d\}$

$$t_{i_1 \dots i_j \dots i_k \dots i_d} = t_{i_1 \dots i_k \dots i_j \dots i_d}$$

A tensor is *antisymmetric* (skew-symmetric) if $\forall j, k \in \{1, \dots, d\}$

$$t_{i_1 \dots i_j \dots i_k \dots i_d} = (-1)t_{i_1 \dots i_k \dots i_j \dots i_d}$$

A tensor is *partially-symmetric* if such index interchanges are restricted to be within disjoint subsets of $\{1, \dots, d\}$, e.g., if the subsets for $d = 4$ and $\{1, 2\}$ and $\{3, 4\}$, then

$$t_{ijkl} = t_{jikl} = t_{jilk} = t_{ijlk}$$

Tensor Sparsity

We say a tensor \mathcal{T} is *diagonal* if for some v ,

$$t_{i_1, \dots, i_d} = \begin{cases} v_{i_1} & : i_1 = \dots = i_d \\ 0 & : \textit{otherwise} \end{cases} = v_{i_1} \delta_{i_1 i_2} \delta_{i_2 i_3} \dots \delta_{i_{d-1} i_d}$$

- ▶ *In the literature, such tensors are sometimes also referred to as ‘superdiagonal’*
- ▶ *Generalizes diagonal matrix*
- ▶ *A diagonal tensor is symmetric (and not antisymmetric)*

If most of the tensor entries are zeros, the tensor is *sparse*

- ▶ *Generalizes notion of sparse matrices*
- ▶ *Sparsity enables computational and memory savings*
- ▶ *We will consider data structures and algorithms for sparse tensor operations later in the course*

Tensor Products and Kronecker Products

Tensor products can be defined with respect to maps $f : V_f \rightarrow W_f$ and $g : V_g \rightarrow W_g$

$$h = f \times g \quad \Rightarrow \quad g : (V_f \times V_g) \rightarrow (W_f \times W_g), \quad h(x, y) = f(x)g(y)$$

Tensors can be used to represent multilinear maps and have a corresponding definition for a tensor product

$$\mathbf{T} = \mathbf{X} \times \mathbf{Y} \quad \Rightarrow \quad t_{i_1, \dots, i_m, j_1, \dots, j_n} = x_{i_1, \dots, i_m} y_{j_1, \dots, j_n}$$

The *Kronecker product* between two matrices $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m_1 \times m_2}$, $\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_1 \times n_2}$

$$\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A} \otimes \mathbf{B} \quad \Rightarrow \quad c_{i_2+(i_1-1)m_2, j_2+(j_1-1)n_2} = a_{i_1 j_1} b_{i_2 j_2}$$

corresponds to transposing and unfolding the tensor product

Tensor Contractions

A *tensor contraction* multiplies elements of two tensors and computes partial sums to produce a third, in a fashion expressible by pairing up modes of different tensors, defining *einsum* (term stems from Einstein's summation convention)

<i>tensor contraction</i>	<i>einsum</i>	<i>diagram</i>
inner product	$w = \sum_i u_i v_i$	
outer product	$w_{ij} = u_i v_{ij}$	
pointwise product	$w_i = u_i v_i$	
Hadamard product	$w_{ij} = u_{ij} v_{ij}$	
matrix multiplication	$w_{ij} = \sum_k u_{ik} v_{kj}$	
batched mat.-mul.	$w_{ijl} = \sum_k u_{ikl} v_{kjl}$	
tensor times matrix	$w_{ilk} = \sum_j u_{ijk} v_{lj}$	

The terms 'contraction' and 'einsum' are also often used when more than two operands are involved

General Tensor Contractions

Given tensor \mathcal{U} of order $s + v$ and \mathcal{V} of order $v + t$, a tensor contraction summing over v modes can be written as

$$w_{i_1 \dots i_s j_1 \dots j_t} = \sum_{k_1 \dots k_v} u_{i_1 \dots i_s k_1 \dots k_v} v_{k_1 \dots k_v j_1 \dots j_t}$$

- ▶ *This form omits 'Hadamard indices', i.e., indices that appear in both inputs and the output (as with pointwise product, Hadamard product, and batched mat-mul.)*
- ▶ *Other contractions can be mapped to this form after transposition*

Unfolding the tensors reduces the tensor contraction to matrix multiplication

- ▶ *Combine (unfold) consecutive indices in appropriate groups of size s , t , or v*
- ▶ *If all tensor modes are of dimension n , obtain matrix-matrix product $C = AB$ where $C \in \mathbb{R}^{n^s \times n^t}$, $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n^s \times n^v}$, and $B \in \mathbb{R}^{n^v \times n^t}$*
- ▶ *Assuming classical matrix multiplication, contraction requires n^{s+t+v} elementwise products and $n^{s+t+v} - n^{s+t}$ additions*

Properties of Einsums

Given an elementwise expression containing a product of tensors, the operands commute

- ▶ For example $AB \neq BA$, but

$$\sum_k a_{ik} b_{kj} = \sum_k b_{kj} a_{ik}$$

- ▶ Similarly with multiple terms, we can bring summations out and reorder as needed, e.g., for ABC

$$\sum_k a_{ik} \left(\sum_l b_{kl} c_{lj} \right) = \sum_{kl} c_{lj} b_{kl} a_{ik}$$

A contraction can be succinctly described by a *tensor diagram*

- ▶ Indices in contractions are only meaningful in so far as they are matched up
- ▶ A tensor diagram is defined by a graph with a vertex for each tensor and an edge/leg for each index/mode
- ▶ Indices that are not-summed are drawn by pointing the legs/edges into whitespace

Matrix-style Notation for Tensor Contractions

The *tensor times matrix* contraction along the m th mode of \mathcal{U} to produce \mathcal{V} is expressed as follows

$$\mathcal{W} = \mathcal{U} \times_m \mathcal{V} \Rightarrow \mathbf{W}_{(m)} = \mathbf{V} \mathbf{U}_{(m)}$$

- ▶ $\mathbf{W}_{(m)}$ and $\mathbf{U}_{(m)}$ are unfoldings where the m th mode is mapped to be an index into rows of the matrix
- ▶ To perform multiple tensor times matrix products, can write, e.g.,

$$\mathcal{W} = \mathcal{U} \times_1 \mathcal{X} \times_2 \mathcal{Y} \times_3 \mathcal{Z} \Rightarrow w_{ijk} = \sum_{pqr} u_{pqr} x_{ip} y_{jq} z_{kr}$$

The *Khatri-Rao product* of two matrices $\mathbf{U} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times k}$ and $\mathbf{V} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times k}$ products $\mathbf{W} \in \mathbb{R}^{mn \times k}$ so that

$$\mathbf{W} = [\mathbf{u}_1 \otimes \mathbf{v}_1 \quad \cdots \quad \mathbf{u}_k \otimes \mathbf{v}_k]$$

The Khatri-Rao product computes the einsum $\hat{w}_{ijk} = u_{ik} v_{jk}$ then unfolds $\hat{\mathcal{W}}$ so that $w_{i+(j-1)n,k} = \hat{w}_{ijk}$

Identities with Kronecker and Khatri-Rao Products

- ▶ Matrix multiplication is distributive over the Kronecker product

$$(A \otimes B)(C \otimes D) = AC \otimes BD$$

we can derive this from the einsum expression

$$\sum_{kl} a_{ik} b_{jl} c_{kp} d_{lq} = \left(\sum_k a_{ik} c_{kp} \right) \left(\sum_l b_{jl} d_{lq} \right)$$

- ▶ For the Khatri-Rao product a similar distributive identity is

$$(A \odot B)^T (C \odot D) = A^T C * B^T D$$

*where * denotes that Hadamard product, which holds since*

$$\sum_{kl} a_{ki} b_{li} c_{kj} d_{lj} = \left(\sum_k a_{ki} c_{kj} \right) \left(\sum_l b_{li} d_{lj} \right)$$

Multilinear Tensor Operations

Given an order d tensor \mathcal{T} , define multilinear function $\mathbf{x}^{(1)} = \mathbf{f}^{(\mathcal{T})}(\mathbf{x}^{(2)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}^{(d)})$

- ▶ For an order 3 tensor,

$$x_{i_1}^{(1)} = \sum_{i_2, i_3} t_{i_1 i_2 i_3} x_{i_2}^{(2)} x_{i_3}^{(3)} \Rightarrow \mathbf{f}^{(\mathcal{T})}(\mathbf{x}^{(2)}, \mathbf{x}^{(3)}) = \mathcal{T} \times_2 \mathbf{x}^{(2)} \times_3 \mathbf{x}^{(3)} = \mathbf{T}_1(\mathbf{x}^{(2)} \otimes \mathbf{x}^{(3)})$$

- ▶ For an order 2 tensor, we simply have the matrix-vector product $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$
- ▶ For higher order tensors, we define the function as follows

$$x_{i_1}^{(1)} = \sum_{i_2 \dots i_d} t_{i_1 \dots i_d} x_{i_2}^{(2)} \dots x_{i_d}^{(d)} \Rightarrow \mathbf{f}^{(\mathcal{T})}(\mathbf{x}^{(2)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}^{(d)}) = \mathcal{T} \times_{j=2}^d \mathbf{x}^{(j)} = \mathbf{T}_1 \bigotimes_{j=2}^d \mathbf{x}^{(j)}$$

- ▶ More generally, we can associate d functions with a \mathcal{T} , one for each choice of output mode, for output mode m , we can compute

$$\mathbf{x}^{(m)} = \mathbf{T}_{(m)} \bigotimes_{j=1, j \neq m}^d \mathbf{x}^{(j)}$$

which gives $\mathbf{f}_{\tilde{\mathcal{T}}}$ where $\tilde{\mathcal{T}}$ is a transposition of \mathcal{T} defined so that $\tilde{\mathbf{T}}_{(1)} = \mathbf{T}_{(m)}$

Batched Multilinear Operations

The multilinear map $\mathbf{f}(\mathcal{T})$ is frequently used in tensor computations

- ▶ Two common primitives (MTTKRP and TTMC) correspond to sets (batches) of multilinear function evaluations
- ▶ Given a tensor $\mathcal{T} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times \dots \times n}$ and matrices $\mathbf{U}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{U}^{(d)} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times R}$, the **matricized tensor times Khatri-Rao product (MTTKRP)** computes

$$u_{i_1 r}^{(1)} = \sum_{i_2 \dots i_d} t_{i_1 \dots i_d} u_{i_2 r}^{(2)} \cdots u_{i_d r}^{(d)}$$

which we can express columnwise as

$$\mathbf{u}_r^{(1)} = \mathbf{f}(\mathcal{T})(\mathbf{u}_r^{(2)}, \dots, \mathbf{u}_r^{(d)}) = \mathcal{T} \times_2 \mathbf{u}_r^{(2)} \cdots \times_d \mathbf{u}_r^{(d)} = \mathbf{T}_{(1)}(\mathbf{u}_r^{(2)} \otimes \cdots \otimes \mathbf{u}_r^{(d)})$$

- ▶ With the same inputs, the **tensor-times-matrix chain (TTMC)** computes

$$u_{i_1 r_2 \dots r_d}^{(1)} = \sum_{i_2 \dots i_d} t_{i_1 \dots i_d} u_{i_2 r_2}^{(2)} \cdots u_{i_d r_d}^{(d)}$$

which we can express columnwise as

$$\mathbf{u}_{r_2 \dots r_d}^{(1)} = \mathbf{f}(\mathcal{T})(\mathbf{u}_{r_1}^{(2)}, \dots, \mathbf{u}_{r_d}^{(d)})$$

Tensor Norm and Conditioning of Multilinear Functions

We can define elementwise and operator norms for a tensor \mathcal{T}

- ▶ *The tensor Frobenius norm generalizes the matrix Frobenius norm*

$$\|\mathcal{T}\|_F = \left(\sum_{i_1 \dots i_d} |t_{i_1 \dots i_d}|^2 \right)^{1/2} = \|\text{vec}(\mathcal{T})\|_2 = \|\mathbf{T}_{(m)}\|_F$$

- ▶ *Denoting $\mathbb{S}^{n-1} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ as the unit sphere (set of vectors with norm one), we define the tensor operator (spectral) norm to generalize the matrix 2-norm as*

$$\begin{aligned} \|\mathcal{T}\|_2^2 &= \sup_{\mathbf{x}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}^{(d)} \in \mathbb{S}^{n-1}} \sum_{i_1 \dots i_d} t_{i_1 \dots i_d} x_{i_1}^{(1)} \cdots x_{i_d}^{(d)} \\ &= \sup_{\mathbf{x}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}^{(d)} \in \mathbb{S}^{n-1}} \langle \mathbf{x}^{(1)}, \mathbf{f}(\mathcal{T})(\mathbf{x}^{(2)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}^{(d)}) \rangle \\ &= \sup_{\mathbf{x}^{(2)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}^{(d)} \in \mathbb{S}^{n-1}} \|\mathbf{f}(\mathcal{T})(\mathbf{x}^{(2)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}^{(d)})\|_2^2 \end{aligned}$$

- ▶ *These norms satisfy the following inequalities*

$$\max_{i_1 \dots i_d} |t_{i_1 \dots i_d}| \leq \|\mathcal{T}\|_2 \leq \|\mathcal{T}\|_F \quad \text{and} \quad \|\mathcal{T} \times_m \mathbf{M}\|_2 \leq \|\mathcal{T}\|_2 \|\mathbf{M}\|_2$$

Conditioning of Multilinear Functions

Evaluation of the multilinear map is typically ill-posed for worst case inputs

- ▶ *The conditioning of evaluating $\mathbf{f}^{(\mathcal{T})}(\mathbf{x}^{(2)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}^{(d)})$ with $\mathbf{x}^{(2)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}^{(d)} \in \mathbb{S}^{n-1}$ with respect to perturbation in a variable $\mathbf{x}^{(m)}$ for any $m \geq 2$ is*

$$\kappa_{\mathbf{f}^{(\mathcal{T})}}(\mathbf{x}^{(2)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}^{(d)}) = \frac{\|\mathbf{J}_{\mathbf{f}^{(\mathcal{T})}}^{(m)}(\mathbf{x}^{(2)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}^{(d)})\|_2}{\|\mathbf{f}^{(\mathcal{T})}(\mathbf{x}^{(2)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}^{(d)})\|_2}$$

where $\mathbf{G} = \mathbf{J}_{\mathbf{f}^{(\mathcal{T})}}^{(m)}(\mathbf{x}^{(2)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}^{(d)})$ is given by $g_{ij} = df_i^{(\mathcal{T})}(\mathbf{x}^{(2)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}^{(d)})/dx_j^{(m)}$

- ▶ *If we wish to associate a single condition number with a tensor, can tightly bound numerator*

$$\|\mathbf{J}_{\mathbf{f}^{(\mathcal{T})}}^{(m)}(\mathbf{x}^{(2)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}^{(d)})\|_2 \leq \|\mathcal{T}\|_2$$

- ▶ *However, the condition number goes to infinity (problem becomes ill-posed) when $\|\mathbf{f}^{(\mathcal{T})}(\mathbf{x}^{(2)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}^{(d)})\|_2 = 0$*
- ▶ *Consequently, wish to lower bound the denominator in*

$$\kappa_{\mathbf{f}^{(\mathcal{T})}} = \|\mathcal{T}\|_2 / \inf_{\mathbf{x}^{(2)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}^{(d)} \in \mathbb{S}^{n-1}} \|\mathbf{f}^{(\mathcal{T})}(\mathbf{x}^{(2)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}^{(d)})\|_2$$

Well-conditioned Tensors

For equidimensional tensors (all modes of same size), some small ideally conditioned tensors exist

- ▶ For order 2 tensors, for any dimension n , there exist $n \times n$ orthogonal matrices with unit condition number
- ▶ For order 3, there exist tensors $\mathcal{T} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n \times n}$ with $n \in \{2, 4, 8\}$, s.t.

$$\inf_{\mathbf{x}^{(2)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}^{(d)} \in \mathbb{S}^{n-1}} \|\mathbf{f}(\mathcal{T})(\mathbf{x}^{(2)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}^{(d)})\|_2 = \|\mathcal{T}\|_2 = 1$$

which correspond to ideally conditioned multilinear maps (generalize orthogonal matrices)

- ▶ For $n = 2$, an example of such a tensor is given by combining the two slices

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & \\ & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \begin{bmatrix} & 1 \\ -1 & \end{bmatrix}$$

while for $n = 4$, an example is given by combining the 4 slices

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & \\ & 1 & & \\ & & 1 & \\ & & & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 & & \\ & & 1 & 1 \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} & & & 1 \\ & -1 & 1 & \\ 1 & & & \\ & & & \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} & & -1 & \\ & & & 1 \\ 1 & & & \\ & 1 & & \end{bmatrix}$$

Ill-conditioned Tensors

For $n \notin \{2, 4, 8\}$ given any $\mathcal{T} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n \times n}$, $\inf_{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{S}^{n-1}} \|\mathbf{f}^{(\mathcal{T})}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})\|_2 = 0$

- ▶ In 1889, Adolf Hurwitz posed the problem of finding bilinear (in \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y}) forms z_1, \dots, z_n , such that for all (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) ,

$$(x_1^2 + \dots + x_l^2)(y_1^2 + \dots + y_m^2) = z_1^2 + \dots + z_n^2.$$

- ▶ In 1922, Johann Radon derived results that imply that over the reals, when $l = m = n$, solutions exist only if $n \in \{2, 4, 8\}$
- ▶ If for \mathcal{T} and any vectors \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} ,

$$\frac{\|\mathcal{T} \times_2 \mathbf{x} \times_3 \mathbf{y}\|_2}{\|\mathbf{x}\|_2 \|\mathbf{y}\|_2} = 1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \|\mathcal{T} \times_2 \mathbf{x} \times_3 \mathbf{y}\|_2^2 = \|\mathbf{x}\|_2^2 \|\mathbf{y}\|_2^2,$$

we can define bilinear forms that provide a solution to the Hurwitz problem

$$z_i = \sum_j \sum_k t_{ijk} x_j y_k$$

- ▶ Radon's result immediately implies $\kappa_{\mathbf{f}^{(\mathcal{T})}} > 1$ for $n \notin \{2, 4, 8\}$, while a 1962 result by Frank J. Adams gives $\kappa_{\mathbf{f}^{(\mathcal{T})}} = \infty$, as there exists a linear combination of any n real $n \times n$ matrices that is rank-deficient for $n \notin \{2, 4, 8\}$

Algebras as Tensors

A third order tensor can be used to describe an algebra

- ▶ *An algebra over a field is a n -dimensional vector space and a bilinear product $f(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v})$*
- ▶ *Any bilinear product defining an algebra corresponds to an $n \times n \times n$ tensor $\mathbf{w} = f(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) \Rightarrow w_i = \sum_{j,k} t_{ijk} u_j v_k$*

The Hurwitz problem also implies a result for division algebras, for which the bilinear product is invertible

- ▶ *These include the complex numbers, quaternions, and octonions, corresponding to $n = 2, 4, 8$ respectively*
- ▶ *These algebras may be described by tensors with $\kappa_{f(\tau)} = 1$*

CP Decomposition

- ▶ The *canonical polyadic or CANDECOMP/PARAFAC (CP) decomposition* expresses an order d tensor in terms of d factor matrices
 - ▶ For a tensor $\mathcal{T} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n \times n}$, the CP decomposition is defined by matrices U , V , and W such that

$$t_{ijk} = \sum_{r=1}^R u_{ir} v_{jr} w_{kr}$$

the columns of U , V , and W are generally not orthonormal, but may be normalized, so that

$$t_{ijk} = \sum_{r=1}^R \sigma_r u_{ir} v_{jr} w_{kr}$$

where each $\sigma_r \geq 0$ and $\|u_r\|_2 = \|v_r\|_2 = \|w_r\|_2 = 1$

- ▶ For an order N tensor, the decomposition generalizes as follows,

$$t_{i_1 \dots i_d} = \sum_{r=1}^R \prod_{j=1}^d u_{i_j r}^{(j)}$$

- ▶ Its *rank* is generally bounded by $R \leq n^{d-1}$

CP Decomposition Basics

- ▶ The CP decomposition is useful in a variety of contexts
 - ▶ *If an exact decomposition with $R \ll n^{d-1}$ is expected to exist*
 - ▶ *If an approximate decomposition with $R \ll n^{d-1}$ is expected to exist*
 - ▶ *If the factor matrices from an approximate decomposition with $R = O(1)$ are expected to contain information about the tensor data*
 - ▶ *CP a widely used tool, appearing in many domains of science and data analysis*
- ▶ Basic properties and methods
 - ▶ *Uniqueness (modulo normalization) is dependent on rank*
 - ▶ *Finding the CP rank of a tensor or computing the CP decomposition is NP-hard (even with $R = 1$)*
 - ▶ *Typical rank of tensors (likely rank of a random tensor) is generally less than the maximal possible rank*
 - ▶ *CP approximation as a nonlinear least squares (NLS) problem and NLS methods can be applied in a black-box fashion, but structure of decomposition motivates alternating least-squares (ALS) optimization*

Tucker Decomposition

- ▶ The *Tucker decomposition* expresses an order d tensor via a smaller order d core tensor and d factor matrices
 - ▶ For a tensor $\mathcal{T} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n \times n}$, the Tucker decomposition is defined by core tensor $\mathcal{Z} \in \mathbb{R}^{R_1 \times R_2 \times R_3}$ and factor matrices U , V , and W with orthonormal columns, such that

$$t_{ijk} = \sum_{p=1}^{R_1} \sum_{q=1}^{R_2} \sum_{r=1}^{R_3} z_{pqr} u_{ip} v_{jq} w_{kr}$$

- ▶ For general tensor order, the Tucker decomposition is defined as

$$t_{i_1 \dots i_d} = \sum_{r_1=1}^{R_1} \cdots \sum_{r_d=1}^{R_d} z_{r_1 \dots r_d} \prod_{j=1}^d u_{i_j r_j}^{(j)}$$

which can also be expressed as

$$\mathcal{T} = \mathcal{Z} \times_1 U^{(1)} \cdots \times_d U^{(d)}$$

- ▶ The Tucker ranks, (R_1, R_2, R_3) are each bounded by the respective tensor dimensions, in this case, $R_1, R_2, R_3 \leq n$
- ▶ In relation to CP, Tucker is formed by taking all combinations of tensor products between columns of factor matrices, while CP takes only disjoint products

Tucker Decomposition Basics

- ▶ The Tucker decomposition is used in many of the same contexts as CP
 - ▶ *If an exact decomposition with each $R_j < n$ is expected to exist*
 - ▶ *If an approximate decomposition with $R_j < n$ is expected to exist*
 - ▶ *If the factor matrices from an approximate decomposition with $R = O(1)$ are expected to contain information about the tensor data*
 - ▶ *Tucker is most often used for data compression and appears less often than CP in theoretical analysis*
- ▶ Basic properties and methods
 - ▶ *The Tucker decomposition is not unique (can pass transformations between core tensor and factor matrices, which also permit their orthogonalization)*
 - ▶ *Finding the best Tucker approximation is NP-hard (for $R = 1$, CP = Tucker)*
 - ▶ *If an exact decomposition exists, it can be computed by **high-order SVD (HOSVD)**, which performs d SVDs on unfoldings*
 - ▶ *HOSVD obtains a good approximation with cost $O(n^{d+1})$ (reducible to $O(n^d R)$ via randomized SVD or QR with column pivoting)*
 - ▶ *Accuracy can be improved by iterative nonlinear optimization methods, such as high-order orthogonal iteration (HOOI)*

Tensor Train Decomposition

- ▶ The *tensor train decomposition* expresses an order d tensor as a chain of products of order 2 or order 3 tensors
 - ▶ For an order 4 tensor, we can express the tensor train decomposition as

$$t_{ijkl} = \sum_{p,q,r} u_{ip} v_{pq} w_{qr} z_{rl}$$

- ▶ More generally, the Tucker decomposition is defined as follows,

$$t_{i_1 \dots i_d} = \sum_{r_1=1}^{R_1} \dots \sum_{r_{d-1}=1}^{R_{d-1}} u_{i_1 r_1}^{(1)} \left(\prod_{j=2}^{d-1} u_{r_{j-1} i_j r_j}^{(j)} \right) u_{r_{d-1} i_d}^{(d)}$$

- ▶ In physics literature, it is known as a *matrix product state (MPS)*, as we can write it in the form,

$$t_{i_1 \dots i_d} = \langle \mathbf{u}_{i_1}^{(1)}, \mathbf{U}_{i_2}^{(2)} \dots \mathbf{U}_{i_{d-1}}^{(d-1)} \mathbf{u}_{i_d}^{(d)} \rangle$$

- ▶ For an equidimensional tensor, the ranks are bounded as $R_j \leq \min(n^j, n^{d-j})$

Tensor Train Decomposition Basics

- ▶ Tensor train has applications in quantum simulation and in numerical PDEs
 - ▶ *Its useful whenever the tensor is low-rank or approximately low-rank, i.e., $R_j R_{j+1} < n^{d-1}$ for all $j < d - 1$*
 - ▶ *MPS (tensor train) and extensions are widely used to approximate quantum systems with $\Theta(d)$ particles/spins*
 - ▶ *Often the MPS is optimized relative to an implicit operator (often of a similar form, referred to as the **matrix product operator (MPO)**)*
 - ▶ *Operators and solutions to some standard numerical PDEs admit tensor-train approximations that yield exponential compression*
- ▶ Basic properties and methods
 - ▶ *The tensor train decomposition is not unique (can pass transformations, permitting orthogonalization into **canonical forms**)*
 - ▶ *Approximation with tensor train is NP hard (for $R = 1$, CP = Tucker = TT)*
 - ▶ *If an exact decomposition exists, it can be computed by **tensor train SVD (TTSVD)**, which performs $d - 1$ SVDs*
 - ▶ *TTSVD can be done with the cost $O(n^{d+1})$ or $O(n^d R)$ with faster low-rank SVD*
 - ▶ *Iterative (alternating) optimization is generally used when optimizing tensor train relative to an implicit operator or to refine TTSVD*

Summary of Tensor Decomposition Basics

We can compare the aforementioned decomposition for an order d tensor with all dimensions equal to n and all decomposition ranks equal to R

decomposition	CP	Tucker	tensor train
size	dnR	$dnR + R^d$	$2nR + (d - 2)nR^2$
uniqueness	if $R \leq (3n - 2)/2$	no	no
orthogonalizability	none	partial	partial
exact decomposition	NP hard	$O(n^{d+1})$	$O(n^{d+1})$
approximation	NP hard	NP hard	NP hard
typical method	ALS	HOSVD	TT-ALS (implicit)