

4. Power Iterations, Symmetry, and Tensor Trains

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What is this Lecture About?

Rayleigh Quotients!

The eigenvalues and eigenvectors of a symmetric matrix C can be defined by the quotient

$$\frac{x^T C x}{x^T x}$$

and the singular values and singular vectors of a general matrix A can be defined by the quotient

$$\frac{u^T A v}{\|u\| \|v\|}$$

These are called Rayleigh Quotients and they can be generalized to tensors.

What is this Lecture About?

Symmetry

Given a basis $\{\phi_i(\mathbf{r})\}_{i=1}^n$ of atomic orbital functions, we consider the following order-4 tensor:

$$\mathcal{A}(p, q, r, s) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \frac{\phi_p(\mathbf{r}_1)\phi_q(\mathbf{r}_1)\phi_r(\mathbf{r}_2)\phi_s(\mathbf{r}_2)}{\|\mathbf{r}_1 - \mathbf{r}_2\|} d\mathbf{r}_1 d\mathbf{r}_2.$$

This tensor has these symmetries:

$$\mathcal{A}(p, q, r, s) = \begin{cases} \mathcal{A}(q, p, r, s) & \text{(i)} \\ \mathcal{A}(p, q, s, r) & \text{(ii)} \\ \mathcal{A}(r, s, p, q) & \text{(iii)} \end{cases}$$

What is this Lecture About?

Data-Sparse Representations

The tensor $\mathcal{A}(1:n, 1:n, 1:n, 1:n, 1:n)$ involves $O(n^5)$ data but if

$$\mathcal{G}_1: n \times r$$

$$\mathcal{G}_2: r \times n \times r$$

$$\mathcal{G}_3: r \times n \times r$$

$$\mathcal{G}_4: r \times n \times r$$

$$\mathcal{G}_5: r \times n$$

then the approximation

$$\mathcal{A}(i_1, i_2, i_3, i_4, i_5) \approx$$

$$\sum_{k_1=1}^r \sum_{k_2=1}^r \sum_{k_3=1}^r \sum_{k_4=1}^r \mathcal{G}_1(i_1, k_1) \cdot \mathcal{G}_2(k_1, i_2, k_2) \cdot \mathcal{G}_3(k_2, i_3, k_3) \cdot \mathcal{G}_4(k_3, i_4, k_4) \cdot \mathcal{G}_5(k_4, i_5)$$

involves $O(nr^2)$ data. Cool even if $r = O(n)$.

Power Iterations

The Big Connection

The singular values and singular vectors of a general matrix A are related to the stationary values and vectors of

$$\psi_A(u, v) = \frac{u^T A v}{\|u\| \|v\|}.$$

Definition

$$\begin{aligned}\psi_A(u, v) &= \frac{\sum_{i_1=1}^{n_1} \sum_{i_2=1}^{n_2} A(i_1, i_2) u(i_1) v(i_2)}{\|u\|_2 \|v\|_2} \\ &= \frac{u^T A v}{\|u\|_2 \|v\|_2} \\ &= \frac{v^T A^T u}{\|u\|_2 \|v\|_2}\end{aligned}$$

$$A \in \mathbb{R}^{n_1 \times n_2}, u \in \mathbb{R}^{n_1}, v \in \mathbb{R}^{n_2}$$

Definition

$$\begin{aligned}\psi_{\mathcal{A}}(u, v, w) &= \frac{\sum_{i_1=1}^{n_1} \sum_{i_2=1}^{n_2} \sum_{i_3=1}^{n_3} \mathcal{A}(i_1, i_2, i_3) \cdot u(i_1) v(i_2) w(i_3)}{\|u\| \|v\| \|w\|} \\ &= u^T \mathcal{A}_{(1)}(w \otimes v) / (\|u\| \|v\| \|w\|) \\ &= v^T \mathcal{A}_{(2)}(w \otimes u) / (\|u\| \|v\| \|w\|) \\ &= w^T \mathcal{A}_{(3)}(v \otimes u) / (\|u\| \|v\| \|w\|)\end{aligned}$$

$$\mathcal{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_1 \times n_2 \times n_3}, u \in \mathbb{R}^{n_1}, v \in \mathbb{R}^{n_2}, w \in \mathbb{R}^{n_3}$$

The Gradient

If

$$\psi_A(u, v) = \frac{\sum_{i_1=1}^{n_1} \sum_{i_2=1}^{n_2} A(i_1, i_2) u(i_1) v(i_2)}{\|u\|_2 \|v\|_2}$$

and u and v are unit vectors, then

$$\nabla \psi_A(u, v) = \begin{bmatrix} Av - \psi_A(u, v)u \\ A^T u - \psi_A(u, v)v \end{bmatrix}$$

The Gradient

If

$$\psi_{\mathcal{A}}(u, v, w) = \frac{\sum_{i_1=1}^{n_1} \sum_{i_2=1}^{n_2} \sum_{i_3=1}^{n_3} \mathcal{A}(i_1, i_2, i_3) \cdot u(i_1) v(i_2) w(i_3)}{\|u\| \|v\| \|w\|}$$

and u , v , and w are unit vectors, then

$$\nabla \psi_{\mathcal{A}} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{A}_{(1)}(w \otimes v) - \psi_{\mathcal{A}}(u, v, w)u \\ \mathcal{A}_{(2)}(w \otimes u) - \psi_{\mathcal{A}}(u, v, w)v \\ \mathcal{A}_{(3)}(v \otimes u) - \psi_{\mathcal{A}}(u, v, w)w \end{bmatrix}$$

The SVD Connection

If $\nabla \psi_A(u, v) = 0$, then

$$Av = \psi_A(u, v) \cdot u$$

$$A^T u = \psi_A(u, v) \cdot v$$

Thus, the stationary values (vectors) for ψ_A define the singular values (singular vectors) for A .

The SVD Connection

If $\nabla \psi_{\mathcal{A}}(u, v, w) = 0$, then

$$A_{(1)} \cdot (w \otimes v) = \psi_{\mathcal{A}}(u, v, w) \cdot u$$

$$A_{(2)} \cdot (w \otimes u) = \psi_{\mathcal{A}}(u, v, w) \cdot v$$

$$A_{(3)} \cdot (v \otimes u) = \psi_{\mathcal{A}}(u, v, w) \cdot w$$

We **define** the stationary values (vectors) for $\psi_{\mathcal{A}}$ to be the singular values (singular vectors) for \mathcal{A} .

Rayleigh Quotient: Matrix Case

The Gradient Equations

$$Av = \psi_A(u, v) \cdot u$$

$$A^T u = \psi_A(u, v) \cdot v$$

Power Method Step

$$\tilde{u} = Av, \quad u \leftarrow \tilde{u} / \|\tilde{u}\|$$

$$\tilde{v} = A^T u, \quad v \leftarrow \tilde{v} / \|\tilde{v}\|$$

$$\sigma = \psi_A(u, v)$$

Same as power method applied to $A^T A$.

In the limit, σuv^T converges to the closest rank-1 to A .

The Gradient Equations

$$A_{(1)} \cdot (w \otimes v) = \psi_A(u, v, w) \cdot u$$

$$A_{(2)} \cdot (w \otimes u) = \psi_A(u, v, w) \cdot v$$

$$A_{(3)} \cdot (v \otimes u) = \psi_A(u, v, w) \cdot w$$

Higher-Order Power Method Step

$$\tilde{u} = \mathcal{A}_{(1)}(w \otimes v), \quad u_1 = \tilde{u} / \|\tilde{u}\|$$

$$\tilde{v} = \mathcal{A}_{(2)}(w \otimes u), \quad u_2 = \tilde{v} / \|\tilde{v}\|$$

$$\tilde{w} = \mathcal{A}_{(3)}(v \otimes u), \quad u_3 = \tilde{w} / \|\tilde{w}\|$$

$$\sigma = \psi_A(u, v, w)$$

In the limit, $\sigma u \circ v \circ w$ tends to converge to the closest rank-1 to \mathcal{A} .

Power Iterations with Symmetry

Rayleigh Quotients: Symmetric Matrix Case

Definition

If $C \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is symmetric, then

$$\begin{aligned}\phi_C(x) &= \frac{x^T C x}{x^T x} \\ &= \left(\sum_{i_1=1}^n \sum_{i_2=1}^n C(i_1, i_2) x(i_1) x(i_2) \right) / (x^T x)\end{aligned}$$

is a **Rayleigh quotient**.

Gradient

If $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is a unit vector, then

$$\nabla \phi_C = 2(Cx - \phi_C(x) \cdot x).$$

The Eigenvalue Connection

If $\nabla \phi_C(x) = 0$ then

$$C x = \lambda(x) \cdot x$$

Thus, the stationary values (vectors) of ϕ_C define the eigenvalues (eigenvectors) of C .

This has many implications for both analysis and algorithms...

Power Method Step

$$\tilde{x} = Cx$$

$$x = \tilde{x} / \|\tilde{x}\|$$

$$\lambda = x^T Cx$$

To formulate a tensor analog we need to be clear on the notion of a symmetric tensor

Tensor Transposition: The Order-3 Case

Six possibilities...

If $\mathcal{C} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_1 \times n_2 \times n_3}$, then there are $6 = 3!$ possible transpositions identified by the notation $\mathcal{C}^{<[i j k]>}$ where $[i j k]$ is a permutation of $[1 2 3]$:

$$\mathcal{B} = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \mathcal{C}^{<[1 2 3]>} \\ \mathcal{C}^{<[1 3 2]>} \\ \mathcal{C}^{<[2 1 3]>} \\ \mathcal{C}^{<[2 3 1]>} \\ \mathcal{C}^{<[3 1 2]>} \\ \mathcal{C}^{<[3 2 1]>} \end{array} \right\} \implies \left\{ \begin{array}{l} b_{ijk} \\ b_{ikj} \\ b_{jik} \\ b_{jki} \\ b_{kij} \\ b_{kji} \end{array} \right\} = c_{ijk}$$

for $i = 1:n_1$, $j = 1:n_2$, $k = 1:n_3$.

The Order-3 Definition: $\mathcal{C} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n \times n}$

$$\mathcal{C}(i, j, k) = \begin{cases} \mathcal{C}(i, k, j) \\ \mathcal{C}(j, i, k) \\ \mathcal{C}(i, k, i) \\ \mathcal{C}(k, i, j) \\ \mathcal{C}(k, j, i) \end{cases}$$

Rank-1 Symmetric Tensors

If $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, then

$$\mathcal{C} = x \circ x \circ x$$

is a **symmetric rank-1 tensor**. This is obvious since

$$\mathcal{C}(i_1, i_2, i_3) = x(i_1)x(i_2)x(i_3).$$

Note that

$$\text{vec}(x \circ x \circ x) = x \otimes x \otimes x$$

Symmetric Rank

An order-3 symmetric tensor \mathcal{C} has **symmetric rank** r if there exists $x_1, \dots, x_r \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\sigma \in \mathbb{R}^r$ such that

$$\mathcal{C} = \sum_{k=1}^r \sigma_k \cdot x_k \circ x_k \circ x_k$$

and no shorter sum of symmetric rank-1 tensors exists. Symmetric rank is denoted by $\text{rank}_S(\mathcal{C})$.

Note, there may be a shorter sum so

$$\mathcal{C} = \sum_{k=1}^{\tilde{r}} \tilde{\sigma}_k \cdot \tilde{x}_k \circ \tilde{y}_k \circ \tilde{z}_k$$

Rayleigh Quotients: Symmetric Tensor Case

Definition

$$\phi_{\mathcal{C}}(x) = \frac{\sum_{i_1=1}^n \sum_{i_2=1}^n \sum_{i_3=1}^n \mathcal{C}(i_1, i_2, i_3) \cdot x(i_1) x(i_2) x(i_3)}{\|x\|^3}$$

where $\mathcal{C} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n \times n}$ is symmetric and $x \in \mathbb{R}^N$.

Alternative Formulation

$$\phi_{\mathcal{C}}(x) = \frac{x^T \mathcal{C}_{(k)}(x \otimes x)}{\|x\|^3} \quad k \text{ doesn't matter}$$

Easy to get the gradient of $\phi_{\mathcal{C}}$...

Gradient of $\phi_{\mathcal{C}}$

If x is a unit vector, then

$$\nabla \phi_{\mathcal{C}}(x) = \mathcal{C}_{(1)}(x \otimes x) - \phi_{\mathcal{C}}(x) \cdot x$$

Idea for improving x :

$$\tilde{x} = \mathcal{C}_{(1)}(x \otimes x), \quad x = \tilde{x} / \|\tilde{x}\|$$

Symmetric Higher-Order Power Method

Initialize unit vector x .

Repeat

$$\tilde{x} = \mathcal{C}_{(1)}(x \otimes x)$$

$$x = \tilde{x} / \|\tilde{x}\|$$

Sample Convergence Result

If the order of \mathcal{C} is even and M is a square unfolding, then the iteration converges if M is positive definite.

The SVD - SymEig Connection

The “Sym” of a Matrix

$$\text{sym}(A) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & A \\ A^T & 0 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{(n_1+n_2) \times (n_1+n_2)}$$

The SVD of A Relates to the EVD of $\text{sym}(A)$

If $A = U \cdot \text{diag}(\sigma_i) \cdot V^T$ is the SVD of $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n_1 \times n_2}$, then for $k = 1:\text{rank}(A)$

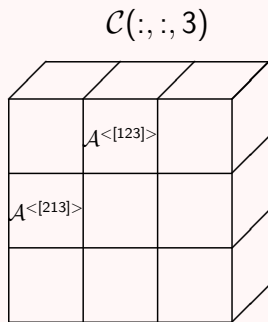
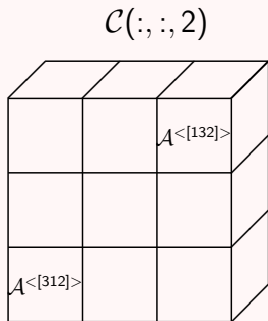
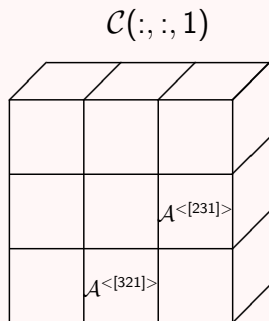
$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & A \\ A^T & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_k \\ \pm v_k \end{bmatrix} = \pm \sigma_k \begin{bmatrix} u_k \\ \pm v_k \end{bmatrix}$$

where $u_k = U(:, k)$ and $v_k = V(:, k)$.

The above SVD-related power method was essentially traditional power method applied to finding the largest eigenvector of $\text{sym}(A)$.

Symmetric Embedding of a Tensor

An Order-3 Example...



Note the careful placement of \mathcal{A} 's six transposes

Equivalence

If $\mathcal{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_1 \times \dots \times n_d}$, then applying the Higher-Order Power Method to \mathcal{A} , is “equivalent” to applying the Symmetric Higher order Power Method to $\text{sym}(\mathcal{A})$.

Exiting the former with σ , u_1 , u_2 and u_3 is essentially the same as exiting the latter with σ and

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ u_3 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Eigenvalue Rayleigh Quotients For Symmetric Tensors

Theorem

If

$$\left\{ \sigma, \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ u_3 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$

is a stationary pair for $\text{sym}(\mathcal{C})$ then so are

$$\left\{ \sigma, \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ -u_2 \\ -u_3 \end{bmatrix} \right\}, \quad \left\{ -\sigma, \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ -u_2 \\ u_3 \end{bmatrix} \right\}, \quad \left\{ -\sigma, \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ -u_3 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$

Recall that for matrices...

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & A \\ A^T & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_k \\ \pm v_k \end{bmatrix} = \pm \sigma_k \begin{bmatrix} u_k \\ \pm v_k \end{bmatrix}$$

Symmetric Tensors: Interesting Aside about Rank

Fact

If $\mathcal{C} \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times \dots \times n}$ is an order- d symmetric tensor, then with probability 1

$$\text{rank}_S(\mathcal{C}) = \begin{cases} f(d, n) + 1 & \text{if } (d, n) = (3, 5), (4, 3), (4, 4), \text{ or } (4, 5) \\ f(d, n) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where

$$f(d, n) = \text{ceil} \left(\frac{\binom{n+d-1}{d}}{n} \right)$$

Symmetric Tensor Rank is “more tractable” than General Tensor Rank.

Interesting Possible Connection

Easy:

$$d! \operatorname{rank}(\mathcal{A}) \leq \operatorname{rank}_S(\operatorname{sym}(\mathcal{A}))$$

Equality is hard or perhaps not true. But if it could be established, then we would have new insight into the tensor rank problem.

More on Tensor Symmetry

The Two-Electron Integral Tensor (TEI)

Given a basis $\{\phi_i(\mathbf{r})\}_{i=1}^n$ of atomic orbital functions, we consider the following order-4 tensor:

$$\mathcal{A}(p, q, r, s) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \frac{\phi_p(\mathbf{r}_1)\phi_q(\mathbf{r}_1)\phi_r(\mathbf{r}_2)\phi_s(\mathbf{r}_2)}{\|\mathbf{r}_1 - \mathbf{r}_2\|} d\mathbf{r}_1 d\mathbf{r}_2.$$

The TEI tensor has these symmetries:

$$\mathcal{A}(p, q, r, s) = \begin{cases} \mathcal{A}(q, p, r, s) & \text{(i)} \\ \mathcal{A}(p, q, s, r) & \text{(ii)} \\ \mathcal{A}(r, s, p, q) & \text{(iii)} \end{cases}$$

We say that \mathcal{A} is “((12)(34))-symmetric”.

The ((12)(34))-Symmetric Multilinear Product where $X \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathcal{B}(j_1, j_2, j_3, j_4) \\ &= \\ & \sum_{i_1=1}^n \sum_{i_2=1}^n \sum_{i_3=1}^n \sum_{i_4=1}^n \mathcal{A}(i_1, i_2, i_3, i_4) \cdot X(i_1, j_1) \cdot X(i_2, j_2) \cdot X(i_3, j_3) \cdot X(i_4, j_4) \end{aligned}$$

and the tensor \mathcal{B} has these symmetries...

$$\mathcal{B}(p, q, r, s) = \begin{cases} \mathcal{B}(q, p, r, s) \\ \mathcal{B}(p, q, s, r) \\ \mathcal{B}(r, s, p, q) \end{cases}$$

In other words \mathcal{B} is also ((12)(34))-symmetric.

The Block Matrix Product Formulation

If $A = (A_{rs})$ and $B = (B_{rs})$ are n -by- n block matrices with n -by- n blocks and

$$\mathcal{A}(p, q, r, s) \leftrightarrow [A_{rs}]_{pq}$$

$$\mathcal{B}(p, q, r, s) \leftrightarrow [B_{rs}]_{pq}$$

then the ((12)(34))-symmetric multilinear product is equivalent to

$$B = (X \otimes X)^T A (X \otimes X)$$

The n^2 -by- n^2 matrix A is special. It is positive definite with very low rank. And it has multiple symmetries...

A "Inherits" \mathcal{A} 's Structure

Since

$$\mathcal{A}(p, q, r, s) \leftrightarrow [A_{rs}]_{pq}$$

and

$$\mathcal{A}(p, q, r, s) = \begin{cases} \mathcal{A}(q, p, r, s) & \text{(i)} \\ \mathcal{A}(p, q, s, r) & \text{(ii)} \\ \mathcal{A}(r, s, p, q) & \text{(iii)} \end{cases}$$

it follows that

(i) The blocks of A are symmetric ($A_{rs}^T = A_{rs}$) because of (i).

(ii) A is symmetric as a block matrix ($A_{rs} = A_{sr}$) because (ii).

Time to Talk About Unfoldings

The tensor $\mathcal{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n \times n \times n}$ can be unfolded several ways.

- We have depicted the $[1, 3] \times [2, 4]$ unfolding $A = \mathcal{A}_{[1,3] \times [2,4]}$ defined by

$$\mathcal{A}(i_1, i_2, i_3, i_4) \rightarrow A(i_1 + (i_3 - 1)n, i_2 + (i_4 - 1)n)$$

- Also of interest is the $[1, 2] \times [3, 4]$ unfolding $A = \mathcal{A}_{[1,2] \times [3,4]}$ defined by

$$\mathcal{A}(i_1, i_2, i_3, i_4) \rightarrow A(i_1 + (i_2 - 1)n, i_3 + (i_4 - 1)n)$$

If \mathcal{A} is $((12)(34))$ -symmetric, these two unfoldings display different multiple symmetries...

The $[1, 3] \times [2, 4]$ Unfolding a $((12)(34))$ -Symmetric A

If $A = \mathcal{A}_{[1,3] \times [2,4]}$, then (as we have seen) A is block symmetric with symmetric blocks.

$$A = \left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc|ccc} 11 & 12 & 13 & 12 & 17 & 18 & 13 & 18 & 22 \\ 12 & 14 & 15 & 17 & 19 & 20 & 18 & 23 & 24 \\ 13 & 15 & 16 & 18 & 20 & 21 & 22 & 24 & 25 \\ \hline 12 & 17 & 18 & 14 & 19 & 23 & 15 & 20 & 24 \\ 17 & 19 & 20 & 19 & 26 & 27 & 20 & 27 & 29 \\ 18 & 20 & 21 & 23 & 27 & 28 & 24 & 29 & 30 \\ \hline 13 & 18 & 22 & 15 & 20 & 24 & 16 & 21 & 25 \\ 18 & 23 & 24 & 20 & 27 & 29 & 21 & 28 & 30 \\ 22 & 24 & 25 & 24 & 29 & 30 & 25 & 30 & 31 \end{array} \right].$$

The $[1, 2] \times [3, 4]$ Unfolding of a $((12)(34))$ Symmetric \mathcal{A}

If $A = \mathcal{A}_{[1,2] \times [3,4]}$, then A is symmetric and (among other things) is “perfect shuffle” symmetric.

$$A = \left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc|ccc} 11 & 12 & 13 & 12 & 14 & 15 & 13 & 15 & 16 \\ 12 & 17 & 18 & 17 & 19 & 20 & 18 & 20 & 21 \\ 13 & 18 & 22 & 18 & 23 & 24 & 22 & 24 & 25 \\ \hline 12 & 17 & 18 & 17 & 19 & 20 & 18 & 20 & 21 \\ 14 & 19 & 23 & 19 & 26 & 27 & 23 & 27 & 28 \\ 15 & 20 & 24 & 20 & 27 & 29 & 24 & 29 & 30 \\ \hline 13 & 18 & 22 & 18 & 23 & 24 & 22 & 24 & 25 \\ 15 & 20 & 24 & 20 & 27 & 29 & 24 & 29 & 30 \\ 16 & 21 & 25 & 21 & 28 & 30 & 25 & 30 & 31 \end{array} \right]$$

Each column reshapes into a 3×3 symmetric matrix, e.g., $A(:, j)$ reshapes to

$$\begin{bmatrix} 11 & 12 & 13 \\ 12 & 14 & 15 \\ 13 & 15 & 16 \end{bmatrix}$$

What is perfect shuffle symmetry?

Perfect Shuffle Symmetry

An n^2 -by- n^2 matrix A has perfect shuffle symmetry if

$$A = \Pi_{n,n} A \Pi_{n,n}$$

where

$$\Pi_{n,n} = I_{n^2}(:, v), \quad v = [1:n:n^2 \mid 2:n:n^2 \mid \dots \mid n:n:n^2].$$

e.g.,

$$\Pi_{3,3} = \left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc|ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

Because $\Pi_{n,n}$ is symmetric it has just two eigenvalues: $+1$ and -1 .

$$\Pi_{3,3} = \left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc|ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} \\ x_{21} \\ x_{31} \\ \mathbf{x_{12}} \\ x_{22} \\ x_{32} \\ x_{13} \\ x_{23} \\ x_{33} \end{bmatrix} = \pm \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} \\ x_{12} \\ x_{13} \\ \mathbf{x_{21}} \\ x_{22} \\ x_{23} \\ x_{31} \\ x_{32} \\ x_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

If $\Pi_{n,n}x = x$, then $\text{reshape}(x, n, n)$ is symmetric.

If $\Pi_{n,n}x = -x$, then $\text{reshape}(x, n, n)$ is skew-symmetric.

Solution Framework:

- 1 Closed-form block diagonalization with a special highly-structured orthogonal $Q = [Q_1 \ Q_2]$:

$$Q^T A Q = \begin{bmatrix} A_1 & 0 \\ 0 & A_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

- 2 Compute half-sized rank-revealing LDL factorizations:

$$P_i A_i P_i^T \approx L_i D_i L_i^T, \quad i = 1, 2$$

- 3 Set

$$\tilde{A} = Y_1 D_1 Y_1^T + Y_2 D_2 Y_2^T$$

where $Y_i = Q_i P_i^T L_i$.

- 4 $B \approx \tilde{B} = (X \otimes X)^T \tilde{A} (X \otimes X)$

Tensor Trains

Tensor Train: An Example

Given the "carriages" ...

$$\mathcal{G}_1: n_1 \times r_1$$

$$\mathcal{G}_2: r_1 \times n_2 \times r_2$$

$$\mathcal{G}_3: r_2 \times n_3 \times r_3$$

$$\mathcal{G}_4: r_3 \times n_4 \times r_4$$

$$\mathcal{G}_5: r_4 \times n_5$$

We define the train" $\mathcal{A}(1:n_1, 1:n_2, 1:n_3, 1:n_4, 1:n_5) \dots$

$$\mathcal{A}(i_1, i_2, i_3, i_4, i_5)$$
$$=$$

$$\sum_{k_1=1}^{r_1} \sum_{k_2=1}^{r_2} \sum_{k_3=1}^{r_3} \sum_{k_4=1}^{r_4} \mathcal{G}_1(i_1, k_1) \cdot \mathcal{G}_2(k_1, i_2, k_2) \cdot \mathcal{G}_3(k_2, i_3, k_3) \cdot \mathcal{G}_4(k_3, i_4, k_4) \cdot \mathcal{G}_5(k_4, i_5)$$

Think of a graph where the nodes are low-order tensors and the edges are contractions.

Tensor Train: An Example

Given the "carriages" ...

$$\mathcal{G}_1: n_1 \times r_1$$

$$\mathcal{G}_2: r_1 \times n_2 \times r_2$$

$$\mathcal{G}_3: r_2 \times n_3 \times r_3$$

$$\mathcal{G}_4: r_3 \times n_4 \times r_4$$

$$\mathcal{G}_5: r_4 \times n_5$$

We define the train" $\mathcal{A}(1:n_1, 1:n_2, 1:n_3, 1:n_4, 1:n_5)$...

$$\mathcal{A}(i_1, i_2, i_3, i_4, i_5)$$

=

$$\sum_{k_1=1}^{r_1} \sum_{k_2=1}^{r_2} \sum_{k_3=1}^{r_3} \sum_{k_4=1}^{r_4} \mathcal{G}_1(i_1, k_1) \cdot \mathcal{G}_2(k_1, i_2, k_2) \cdot \mathcal{G}_3(k_2, i_3, k_3) \cdot \mathcal{G}_4(k_3, i_4, k_4) \cdot \mathcal{G}_5(k_4, i_5)$$

$O(nr^2)$ vs $O(n^5)$

Tensor Train: An Example

Given the "carriages" ...

$$\mathcal{G}_1: n_1 \times r_1$$

$$\mathcal{G}_2: r_1 \times n_2 \times r_2$$

$$\mathcal{G}_3: r_2 \times n_3 \times r_3$$

$$\mathcal{G}_4: r_3 \times n_4 \times r_4$$

$$\mathcal{G}_5: r_4 \times n_5$$

We define the train" $\mathcal{A}(1:n_1, 1:n_2, 1:n_3, 1:n_4, 1:n_5) \dots$

$$\mathcal{A}(i_1, i_2, i_3, i_4, i_5)$$

=

$$\sum_{k_1=1}^{r_1} \sum_{k_2=1}^{r_2} \sum_{k_3=1}^{r_3} \sum_{k_4=1}^{r_4} \mathcal{G}_1(i_1, k_1) \cdot \mathcal{G}_2(k_1, i_2, k_2) \cdot \mathcal{G}_3(k_2, i_3, k_3) \cdot \mathcal{G}_4(k_3, i_4, k_4) \cdot \mathcal{G}_5(k_4, i_5)$$

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$$\mathcal{A}(i_1, i_2, i_3, i_4, i_5)$$

=

$$\sum_{k_1=1}^{r_1} \sum_{k_2=1}^{r_2} \sum_{k_3=1}^{r_3} \sum_{k_4=1}^{r_4} \mathcal{G}_1(i_1, k_1) \cdot \mathcal{G}_2(k_1, i_2, k_2) \cdot \mathcal{G}_3(k_2, i_3, k_3) \cdot \mathcal{G}_4(k_3, i_4, k_4) \cdot \mathcal{G}_5(k_4, i_5)$$

$O(nr^2)$ vs $O(n^5)$

Computing a Tensor Train Representation

Main Idea

A sequence of unfoldings is produced.

The unfoldings get narrower and narrower.

A rank-revealing SVD $U(\Sigma V^T) = UZ$ is computed each time.

The “carriages” are reshaped U -matrices.

Computing a Tensor Train Representation

1(a) Rank-revealing SVD: $\text{reshape}(A, [n_1, n_2 n_3 n_4 n_5]) = U_1 Z_1.$
 $\mathcal{G}_1 = \text{reshape}(U_1, [n_1, r_1]).$

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2(a) Rank-revealing SVD: $\text{reshape}(Z_1, [r_1 n_2, n_3 n_4 n_5]) = U_2 Z_2$.
 $\mathcal{G}_2 = \text{reshape}(U_2, [r_1, n_2, r_2])$.

Computing a Tensor Train Representation

1(a) Rank-revealing SVD: $\text{reshape}(A, [n_1, n_2 n_3 n_4 n_5]) = U_1 Z_1$.
 $\mathcal{G}_1 = \text{reshape}(U_1, [n_1, r_1])$.

2(a) Rank-revealing SVD: $\text{reshape}(Z_1, [r_1 n_2, n_3 n_4 n_5]) = U_2 Z_2$.
 $\mathcal{G}_2 = \text{reshape}(U_2, [r_1, n_2, r_2])$.

3(a) Rank-revealing SVD: $\text{reshape}(Z_2, [r_2 n_3, n_4 n_5]) = U_3 Z_3$.
 $\mathcal{G}_3 = \text{reshape}(U_3, [r_2, n_3, r_3])$.

Computing a Tensor Train Representation

1(a) Rank-revealing SVD: $\text{reshape}(A, [n_1, n_2 n_3 n_4 n_5]) = U_1 Z_1.$
 $\mathcal{G}_1 = \text{reshape}(U_1, [n_1, r_1]).$

2(a) Rank-revealing SVD: $\text{reshape}(Z_1, [r_1 n_2, n_3 n_4 n_5]) = U_2 Z_2.$
 $\mathcal{G}_2 = \text{reshape}(U_2, [r_1, n_2, r_2]).$

3(a) Rank-revealing SVD: $\text{reshape}(Z_2, [r_2 n_3, n_4 n_5]) = U_3 Z_3.$
 $\mathcal{G}_3 = \text{reshape}(U_3, [r_2, n_3, r_3]).$

4(a) Rank-revealing SVD: $\text{reshape}(Z_3, [r_3 n_4, n_5]) = U_4 Z_4.$
 $\mathcal{G}_4 = \text{reshape}(U_4, [r_3, n_4, r_4]).$
 $\mathcal{G}_5 = \text{reshape}(Z_4, [r_4, n_5]).$

Computing a Tensor Train Representation

Why Do We Emerge With...

$$\mathcal{A}(i_1, i_2, i_3, i_4, i_5)$$

$$= \sum_{k_1=1}^{r_1} \sum_{k_2=1}^{r_2} \sum_{k_3=1}^{r_3} \sum_{k_4=1}^{r_4} \mathcal{G}_1(i_1, k_1) \cdot \mathcal{G}_2(k_1, i_2, k_2) \cdot \mathcal{G}_3(k_2, i_3, k_3) \cdot \mathcal{G}_4(k_3, i_4, k_4) \cdot \mathcal{G}_5(k_4, i_5)$$

The reason is because...

1. The rows and columns of an unfolding can be “multi-indexed”
2. The product of two matrices can sometimes be viewed as a contraction between two tensors.

Multi-Indexing Rows and Columns

```
n = [2 3 2 2 3];
```

```
A = randn(n);
```

```
B = reshape(A, [n(1)*n(2)*n(3) , n(4)*n(5) ]
```

$$B = \begin{array}{cccccc} \begin{array}{c} (1,1) \\ a_{11111} \\ a_{21111} \\ a_{12111} \\ a_{22111} \\ a_{13111} \\ a_{23111} \\ a_{11211} \\ a_{21211} \\ a_{12211} \\ a_{22211} \\ a_{13211} \\ a_{23211} \end{array} & \begin{array}{c} (2,1) \\ a_{11121} \\ a_{21121} \\ a_{12121} \\ a_{22121} \\ a_{13121} \\ a_{23121} \\ a_{11221} \\ a_{21221} \\ a_{12221} \\ a_{22221} \\ a_{13221} \\ a_{23221} \end{array} & \begin{array}{c} (1,2) \\ a_{11112} \\ a_{21112} \\ a_{12112} \\ a_{22112} \\ a_{13112} \\ a_{23112} \\ a_{11212} \\ a_{21212} \\ a_{12212} \\ a_{22212} \\ a_{13212} \\ a_{23212} \end{array} & \begin{array}{c} (2,2) \\ a_{11122} \\ a_{21122} \\ a_{12122} \\ a_{22122} \\ a_{13122} \\ a_{23122} \\ a_{11222} \\ a_{21222} \\ a_{12222} \\ a_{22222} \\ a_{13222} \\ a_{23222} \end{array} & \begin{array}{c} (1,3) \\ a_{11113} \\ a_{21113} \\ a_{12113} \\ a_{22113} \\ a_{13113} \\ a_{23113} \\ a_{11213} \\ a_{21213} \\ a_{12213} \\ a_{22213} \\ a_{13213} \\ a_{23213} \end{array} & \begin{array}{c} (2,3) \\ a_{11123} \\ a_{21123} \\ a_{12123} \\ a_{22123} \\ a_{13123} \\ a_{23123} \\ a_{11223} \\ a_{21223} \\ a_{12223} \\ a_{22223} \\ a_{13223} \\ a_{23223} \end{array} & \begin{array}{c} (1,1,1) \\ (2,1,1) \\ (1,2,1) \\ (2,2,1) \\ (1,3,1) \\ (2,3,1) \\ (1,1,2) \\ (2,1,2) \\ (1,2,2) \\ (2,2,2) \\ (1,3,2) \\ (2,3,2) \end{array} \end{array}$$

Matrix Multiplication with Multi-indexing

Suppose B is $(n_1 n_2 n_3) \times r$ and C is $r \times (n_4 n_5)$

$A = BC$ as a Matrix Product

$$A(i, j) = \sum_{k=1}^r B(i, k) C(k, j)$$

$$1 \leq i \leq n_1 n_2 n_3, 1 \leq j \leq n_4 n_5$$

$A = BC$ as a tensor contraction

$$A(i_1, i_2, i_3, j_1, j_2) = \sum_{k=1}^r B(i_1, i_2, i_3, k) C(k, j_1, j_2)$$

$$1 \leq i_1 \leq n_1, 1 \leq i_2 \leq n_2, 1 \leq i_3 \leq n_3, 1 \leq j_1 \leq n_4, 1 \leq j_2 \leq n_5$$

Summary of Lecture

Key Words

- **Symmetric tensors** have the property that the value of $\mathcal{A}(\mathbf{i})$ does not depend upon the order the indices. They arise in many settings and special properties.
- Setting to zero the gradient of a **multilinear Rayleigh quotient** leads to the idea of eigenvalues and singular value of tensors.
- **Higher-order power methods** based on the Rayleigh quotient can be used to find nearest rank-1 approximations to either general or symmetric tensors
- When tensors with **multiple symmetries** are unfolded, the unfoldings have multiple symmetries that can be exploited.
- **Data sparse** approximations are critical to the development of tensor methods that scale with d . **Tensor Trains** are one approach in this direction.

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