# Tensor Decompositions and Applications

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- Definitions and Operations
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- Tucker Decomposition
- Toolbox

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- A tensor is a multidimensional array
- An N-dimensional array is called N-way tensor or Nth-order tensor



	Matrix A	Tensor $\mathfrak{X}$
Element	a <sub>ij</sub>	× <sub>ijk</sub>
Subarrays	<i>a<sub>:j</sub></i> (columns) <i>a<sub>i:</sub></i> (rows)	$x_{ij:}$ (Fibers) $X_{i::}$ (Slices)
Norm	$\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij}^2}$	$\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{m}\sum_{j=1}^{n}\sum_{k=1}^{s}x_{ijk}^{2}}$
Symmetry	$A = A^T$	$x_{ijk} = x_{ikj} = x_{jik} = x_{jki} = x_{kij} = x_{kji}$

## Definitions and Operations: Subarrays



Image: A matrix of the second seco

- Matricization, also known as unfolding or flattening, is the process of reordering the elements of an N-way array into a matrix.
- On The mode-n matricization of a tensor X ∈ ℝ<sup>l<sub>1</sub>×l<sub>2</sub>×...×l<sub>m</sub> is denoted by X(n) and arranges the mode-n fibers to be the columns of the resulting matrix.</sup>

### Definitions and Operations: Matricization

Let the frontal slices of  $\mathfrak{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 4 \times 2}$  be

$$\mathbf{X}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 7 & 10 \\ 2 & 5 & 8 & 11 \\ 3 & 6 & 9 & 12 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{X}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 13 & 16 & 19 & 22 \\ 14 & 17 & 20 & 23 \\ 15 & 18 & 21 & 24 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then the three mode-n unfoldings are

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{X}_{(1)} &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 7 & 10 & 13 & 16 & 19 & 22 \\ 2 & 5 & 8 & 11 & 14 & 17 & 20 & 23 \\ 3 & 6 & 9 & 12 & 15 & 18 & 21 & 24 \end{bmatrix},\\ \mathbf{X}_{(2)} &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 13 & 14 & 15 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 & 16 & 17 & 18 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 & 19 & 20 & 21 \\ 10 & 11 & 12 & 22 & 23 & 24 \end{bmatrix},\\ \mathbf{X}_{(3)} &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & \cdots & 9 & 10 & 11 & 12 \\ 13 & 14 & 15 & 16 & 17 & \cdots & 21 & 22 & 23 & 24 \end{bmatrix}. \end{split}$$

The n-mode (matrix) product of a tensor  $\mathcal{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{I_1 \times I_2 \times \ldots \times I_N}$  with a matrix  $U \in \mathbb{R}^{J \times I_n}$  is denoted by  $\mathcal{X} \times_n U$  and is of size  $I_1 \times \ldots \times I_{n-1} \times J \times I_{n+1} \times \ldots \times I_N$ . Elementwise, we have

$$(\mathfrak{X} \times_n U)_{i_1 \dots i_{n-1} j i_{n+1} \dots i_N} = \sum_{i_n=1}^{I_n} x_{i_1 i_2 \dots i_N} u_{j i_n}$$

Some properties:

$$\mathfrak{X} \times_m A \times_n B = \mathfrak{X} \times_n B \times_m A \quad (m \neq n)$$
  
 $\mathfrak{X} \times_n A \times_n B = \mathfrak{X} \times_n (BA)$ 

Kronecker product:

Given matrices  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{I \times J}$  and  $B \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times L}$ , their Kronecker product is denoted by  $A \otimes B$ . The result is a matrix of size  $(IK) \times (JL)$  defined by

$$\mathbf{A} \otimes \mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}\mathbf{B} & a_{12}\mathbf{B} & \cdots & a_{1J}\mathbf{B} \\ a_{21}\mathbf{B} & a_{22}\mathbf{B} & \cdots & a_{2J}\mathbf{B} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{I1}\mathbf{B} & a_{I2}\mathbf{B} & \cdots & a_{IJ}\mathbf{B} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a}_1 \otimes \mathbf{b}_1 & \mathbf{a}_1 \otimes \mathbf{b}_2 & \mathbf{a}_1 \otimes \mathbf{b}_3 & \cdots & \mathbf{a}_J \otimes \mathbf{b}_{L-1} & \mathbf{a}_J \otimes \mathbf{b}_L \end{bmatrix}.$$

Khatri-Rao product:

It is the matching columnwise Kronecker product. Given matrices  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{I \times K}$  and  $B \in \mathbb{R}^{J \times K}$ , their Khatri-Rao product is denoted by  $A \odot B$ . The result is a matrix of size  $(IJ) \times K$  defined by

$$\mathbf{A} \odot \mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a}_1 \otimes \mathbf{b}_1 & \mathbf{a}_2 \otimes \mathbf{b}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{a}_K \otimes \mathbf{b}_K \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hadamard product:

The Hadamard product is the elementwise matrix product. Given matrices A and B, both of size  $I \times J$ , their Hadamard product is denoted by A \* B. The result is also of size  $I \times J$  and defined by

$$\mathbf{A} * \mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}b_{11} & a_{12}b_{12} & \cdots & a_{1J}b_{1J} \\ a_{21}b_{21} & a_{22}b_{22} & \cdots & a_{2J}b_{2J} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{I1}b_{I1} & a_{I2}b_{I2} & \cdots & a_{IJ}b_{IJ} \end{bmatrix}$$

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An N-way tensor  $\mathfrak{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{I_1 \times I_2 \times ... \times I_N}$  is rank one if it can be written as the outer product of N vectors, i.e.,

$$\mathfrak{X} = a^{(1)} \circ a^{(2)} \circ \ldots \circ a^{(N)}$$

Each element is the product of the corresponding vector elements:

$$x_{i_1i_2...i_N} = a_{i_1}^{(1)}a_{i_2}^{(2)}\ldots a_{i_N}^{(N)}$$

The CP decomposition factorizes a tensor into a sum of component rank-one tensors. For example, given a third-order tensor  $\mathcal{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{I \times J \times K}$ , we wish to write it as:

$$\mathfrak{X} \approx \sum_{r=1}^{R} a_r \circ b_r \circ c_r$$

where R is a positive integer and  $a_r \in \mathbb{R}^I$ ,  $b_r \in \mathbb{R}^J$  and  $c_r \in \mathbb{R}^K$  for r = 1, ..., R. Elementwise:

$$x_{ijk} pprox \sum_{r=1}^{R} a_{ir} b_{jr} c_{kr}$$

The factor matrix is the combination of the vectors from the rank-one components:

$$A = [a_1; a_2; \dots a_R]$$

Then the CP model can be expressed as:

$$\mathfrak{X} \approx [A, B, C] \equiv \sum_{r=1}^{R} a_r \circ b_r \circ c_r$$

If we normalize matrices to length one:

$$\mathfrak{X} \approx [\lambda; A, B, C] \equiv \sum_{r=1}^{R} \lambda_r a_r \circ b_r \circ c_r$$

- The rank of a tensor X, denoted rank(X), is defined as the smallest number of rank-one tensors that generate X as their sum. In other words, this is the smallest number of components in an exact CP decomposition.
- ② An exact CP decomposition with  $R = rank(\mathcal{X})$  components is called the rank decomposition.
- The definition of tensor rank is an exact analogue to the definition of matrix rank.

# CP Decomposition: Rank

 $\bullet$  The rank of a real-valued tensor may actually be different over  $\mathbb R$  and  $\mathbb C.$ 

Here are frontal slices of a tensor:

$$\mathbf{X}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 and  $\mathbf{X}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ .

The rank decomposition over  $\mathbb{R}$ :

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{C} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix},$$

The rank decomposition over  $\mathbb{C}$ :

$$\mathbf{A} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -i & i \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{B} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ i & -i \end{bmatrix}, \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{C} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ i & -i \end{bmatrix}.$$

- There is no straightforward algorithm to determine the rank of a specific given tensor. The problem is NP-hard.
- Tensors may have different maximum and typical ranks.
  - The maximum rank is defined as the largest attainable rank.
  - The typical rank is any rank that occurs with probability greater than zero (i.e., on a set with positive Lebesgue measure).

For the collection of  $I \times J$  matrices, the maximum and typical ranks are identical and equal to min $\{I, J\}$ . For tensors, the two ranks may be different. Moreover, over  $\mathbb{R}$ , there may be more than one typical rank, whereas there is always only one typical rank over  $\mathbb{C}$ .

 Higher-order tensors is that their rank decompositions are often unique, whereas matrix decompositions are not.
 Let X ∈ ℝ<sup>I×J</sup> be a matrix of rank R. Then a rank decomposition of this matrix is

$$X = AB^T = \sum_{r=1}^{K} a_r \circ b_r$$

If the SVD of X is  $U\Sigma V^T$ , then we can choose  $A = U\Sigma W$  and B = VW, where W is some  $R \times R$  orthogonal matrix.

# CP Decomposition: Rank Decomposition

The k-rank of a matrix A, denoted  $k_A$ , is defined as the maximum value k such that any k columns are linearly independent.

A sufficient condition for uniqueness for CP decomposition of a three-way tensor is:

$$k_A + k_B + k_C \ge 2R + 2$$

For N-way tensor, the condition is:

$$\sum_{n=1}^N k_{\mathcal{A}^{(n)}} \geq 2R + (N-1)$$

For a given Three-way tensor, its CP decomposition is deterministically or generically (i.e., with probability one) unique if

$$R \leq K$$
 and  $R(R-1) \leq I(I-1)J(J-1)/2$ 

Let R be the rank of a matrix A and assume its SVD is given by

$$A = \sum_{r=1}^{R} \sigma_r u_r \circ v_r \quad \text{with} \quad \sigma_1 \ge \sigma_2 \ge \ldots \ge \sigma_R > 0$$

Then a rank-k approximation that minimizes ||A - B|| is given by

$$B=\sum_{r=1}^k \sigma_r u_r \circ v_r$$

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# CP Decomposition: Low Rank Approximation

The best rank-k approximation may not exist.



Border rank: the minimum number of rank-one tensors that are sufficient to approximate the given tensor with arbitrarily small nonzero error.

$$\begin{split} \widetilde{\operatorname{rank}}(\mathfrak{X}) &= \min\{ \ r \ | \ \text{for any } \epsilon > 0, \ \text{there exists a tensor } \mathfrak{E} \\ & \text{such that } \|\mathfrak{E}\| < \epsilon \ \text{and} \ \operatorname{rank}(\mathfrak{X} + \mathfrak{E}) = r \ \}. \end{split}$$

# CP Decomposition: Computing Decomposition

Algorithm:

procedure CP-LS(X, R)initialize  $\mathbf{A}^{(n)} \in \mathbb{R}^{I_n \times R}$  for n = 1, ..., Nrepeat for n = 1, ..., N do  $\mathbf{V} \leftarrow \mathbf{A}^{(1)^{\mathsf{T}}} \mathbf{A}^{(1)} \cdot ... * \mathbf{A}^{(n-1)^{\mathsf{T}}} \mathbf{A}^{(n-1)} * \mathbf{A}^{(n+1)^{\mathsf{T}}} \mathbf{A}^{(n+1)} * ... * \mathbf{A}^{(N)^{\mathsf{T}}} \mathbf{A}^{(N)}$   $\mathbf{A}^{(n)} \leftarrow \mathbf{X}^{(n)} (\mathbf{A}^{(N)} \odot ... \odot \mathbf{A}^{(n+1)} \odot \mathbf{A}^{(n-1)} \odot ... \odot \mathbf{A}^{(1)}) \mathbf{V}^{\dagger}$ normalize columns of  $\mathbf{A}^{(n)}$  (storing norms as  $\boldsymbol{\lambda}$ ) end for until fit ceases to improve or maximum iterations exhausted return  $\boldsymbol{\lambda}, \mathbf{A}^{(1)}, \mathbf{A}^{(2)}, ..., \mathbf{A}^{(N)}$ 

Use three-way tensor as an example:

$$\min_{\hat{\mathbf{X}}} \|\mathbf{X} - \hat{\mathbf{X}}\| \quad \text{with} \quad \hat{\mathbf{X}} = \sum_{r=1}^{R} \lambda_r \ \mathbf{a}_r \circ \mathbf{b}_r \circ \mathbf{c}_r = \llbracket \mathbf{\lambda} \ ; \mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}, \mathbf{C} \rrbracket.$$

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- Simple to understand and implement
- Interpotential for numerical ill-conditioning
- Taking many iterations to converge
- Not guaranteed to converge to a global minimum or even a stationary point
- Heavily dependent on the starting guess

Discussion tracking in email [Bader et al., 2008]:

- Term-author-time array
- $2 \ \mathfrak{X} \approx \sum_{l=1}^r A_l \circ B_l \circ C_l$

**③** 25-component decomposition, each rank one tensor refers to a topic



Tucker decomposition is a form of higher-order PCA. A three-way tensor  $\mathcal{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{I \times J \times K}$  is decomposed as:

$$\mathbf{\mathfrak{X}} \approx \mathbf{\mathfrak{G}} \times_1 \mathbf{A} \times_2 \mathbf{B} \times_3 \mathbf{C} = \sum_{p=1}^P \sum_{q=1}^Q \sum_{r=1}^R g_{pqr} \mathbf{a}_p \circ \mathbf{b}_q \circ \mathbf{c}_r = \llbracket \mathbf{\mathfrak{G}} ; \mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}, \mathbf{C} \rrbracket.$$

where  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{I \times P}$ ,  $B \in \mathbb{R}^{J \times Q}$ ,  $C \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times R}$  are factor matrices which are usually orthogonal and  $\mathcal{G} \in \mathbb{R}^{P \times Q \times R}$  is core tensor.

Elementwise, the Tucker decomposition is:

$$x_{ijk} = \sum_{p=1}^{P} \sum_{q=1}^{Q} \sum_{r=1}^{R} g_{pqr} a_{ip} b_{jq} c_{kr}$$



Higher order decomposition:

$$\mathbf{\mathfrak{X}} = \mathbf{\mathfrak{G}} \times_1 \mathbf{A}^{(1)} \times_2 \mathbf{A}^{(2)} \cdots \times_N \mathbf{A}^{(N)} = \llbracket \mathbf{\mathfrak{G}} ; \mathbf{A}^{(1)}, \mathbf{A}^{(2)}, \dots, \mathbf{A}^{(N)} \rrbracket$$

The matricized version:

$$\mathbf{X}_{(n)} = \mathbf{A}^{(n)} \mathbf{G}_{(n)} (\mathbf{A}^{(N)} \otimes \cdots \otimes \mathbf{A}^{(n+1)} \otimes \mathbf{A}^{(n-1)} \otimes \cdots \otimes \mathbf{A}^{(1)})^{\mathsf{T}}.$$

# Tucker Decomposition: Computing Decomposition

Algorithm1:

procedure HOSVD( $\mathfrak{X}, R_1, R_2, \dots, R_N$ ) for  $n = 1, \dots, N$  do  $\mathbf{A}^{(n)} \leftarrow R_n$  leading left singular vectors of  $\mathbf{X}_{(n)}$ end for  $\mathfrak{G} \leftarrow \mathfrak{X} \times_1 \mathbf{A}^{(1)\mathsf{T}} \times_2 \mathbf{A}^{(2)\mathsf{T}} \dots \times_N \mathbf{A}^{(N)\mathsf{T}}$ return  $\mathfrak{G}, \mathbf{A}^{(1)}, \mathbf{A}^{(2)}, \dots, \mathbf{A}^{(N)}$ end procedure

When  $R_n < rank_n(\mathcal{X})$ , for one or more *n*, where  $rank_n(\mathcal{X})$  is the column rank of  $X_{(n)}$ , then the decomposition is called truncated HOSVD. Truncated HOSVD is not optimal in terms of giving the best fit as measured by the norm of the difference, but it is a good starting point for ALS.

# Tucker Decomposition: Computing Decomposition

#### Formulation:

$$\begin{array}{ll} & \underset{\mathbf{g},\mathbf{A}^{(1)},\ldots,\mathbf{A}^{(N)}}{\min} & \left\| \mathbf{\mathcal{X}} - \left[ \mathbf{\mathcal{G}} \;; \mathbf{A}^{(1)},\mathbf{A}^{(2)},\ldots,\mathbf{A}^{(N)} \right] \right\| \\ & \text{subject to} & \mathbf{g} \in \mathbb{R}^{R_1 \times R_2 \times \cdots \times R_N}, \\ & \mathbf{A}^{(n)} \in \mathbb{R}^{I_n \times R_n} \text{ and columnwise orthogonal for } n = 1,\ldots,N. \end{array}$$

#### Algorithm2:

```
procedure HODI (\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{R}_1, \mathbf{R}_2, ..., \mathbf{R}_N)

initialize \mathbf{A}^{(n)} \in \mathbb{R}^{I_n \times R} for n = 1, ..., N using HOSVD

repeat

for n = 1, ..., N do

\mathbf{y} \leftarrow \mathbf{X} \times \mathbf{1}_{\mathbf{A}}^{(1)\mathsf{T}} \cdots \times_{n-1} \mathbf{A}^{(n-1)\mathsf{T}} \times_{n+1} \mathbf{A}^{(n+1)\mathsf{T}} \cdots \times_{N} \mathbf{A}^{(N)\mathsf{T}}

\mathbf{A}^{(n)} \leftarrow \mathbf{R}_n leading left singular vectors of \mathbf{Y}_{(n)}

end for

until fit ceases to improve or maximum iterations exhausted

\mathbf{g} \leftarrow \mathbf{X} \times \mathbf{1}_{\mathbf{A}}^{(1)} \times \mathbf{2}_{\mathbf{A}}^{(2)\mathsf{T}} \cdots \times_{N} \mathbf{A}^{(N)\mathsf{T}}

return \mathbf{g}, \mathbf{A}^{(1)}, \mathbf{A}^{(2)}, \dots, \mathbf{A}^{(N)}
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Classifying hand-written digits [Savas and Eldén, 2007]:

2 Let 
$$A_v = \mathcal{T}(:,:,v) \times U \times V$$
, then  $\mathcal{A} = \sum_{v=1}^{K} A_v \times w_v$ 

Solve min<sub>$$\alpha$$</sub>  $||D - \sum_{\nu=1}^{k} \alpha_{\nu}^{\mu} A_{\nu}^{\mu}||$ 

It is a variant of CP that can be applied to a collection of matrices that each have the same number of columns but a different number of rows. We have a set of matrices  $X_k$  for k = 1, ..., K such that each  $X_k$  is of size  $I_k \times J$ .

$$X_k \approx U_k S_k V^T$$
  $k=1,\ldots K$ 

where  $U_k$  is an  $I_k \times R$  matrix,  $S_k$  is an  $R \times R$  diagonal matrix and V is a  $J \times R$  factor matrix that does not vary with k.



#### Matlab:

- Dense multidimensional arrays and elementwise manipulation on tensors
- External toolboxes: N-way Toolbox, CuBatch, PLSToolbox, Tensor Toolbox
- Mathematica: sparse tensors
- Multilinear Engine by Paatero: supports CP, PARAPAC2 and more
- C++: HUJI Tensor Library, supports inner product, addition, elementwise multiplication

Bader, B. W., Berry, M. W., and Browne, M. (2008). Discussion tracking in enron email using parafac. *Survey of Text Mining II*, pages 147–163.

### Savas, B. and Eldén, L. (2007).

Handwritten digit classification using higher order singular value decomposition.

*Pattern recognition*, 40(3):993–1003.

Thank you!

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