Learning with Structured **Tensor Decompositions Anand D. Sarwate, Rutgers University** 18 July 2024

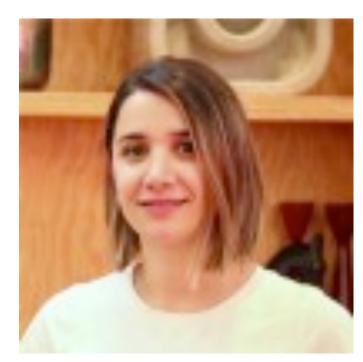


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Jose Hoyos Sanchez





National Institutes of Health



Tensors in the real world

All images: Wikipedia



All images: Wikipedia

 1848: William Rowan Hamilton used the word "tensor" to mean the absolute value (norm) of a quaternion. His "tensor" is actually a scalar (!)





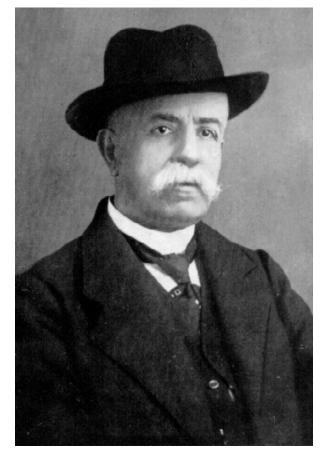
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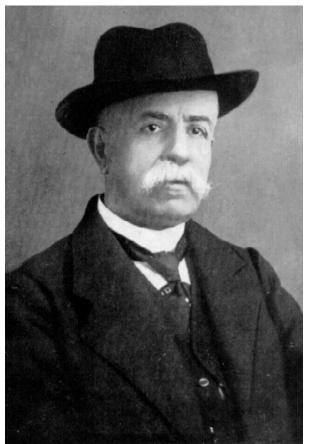
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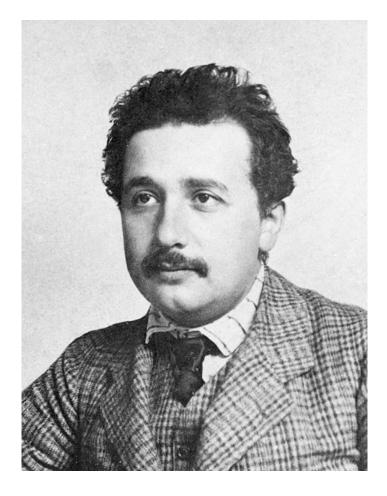
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 1913: Albert Einstein and Marcel Grossman used tensor calculus extensively in their work on general relativity: Entwurf einer verallgemeinerten Relativitätstheorie und einer Theorie der Gravitation



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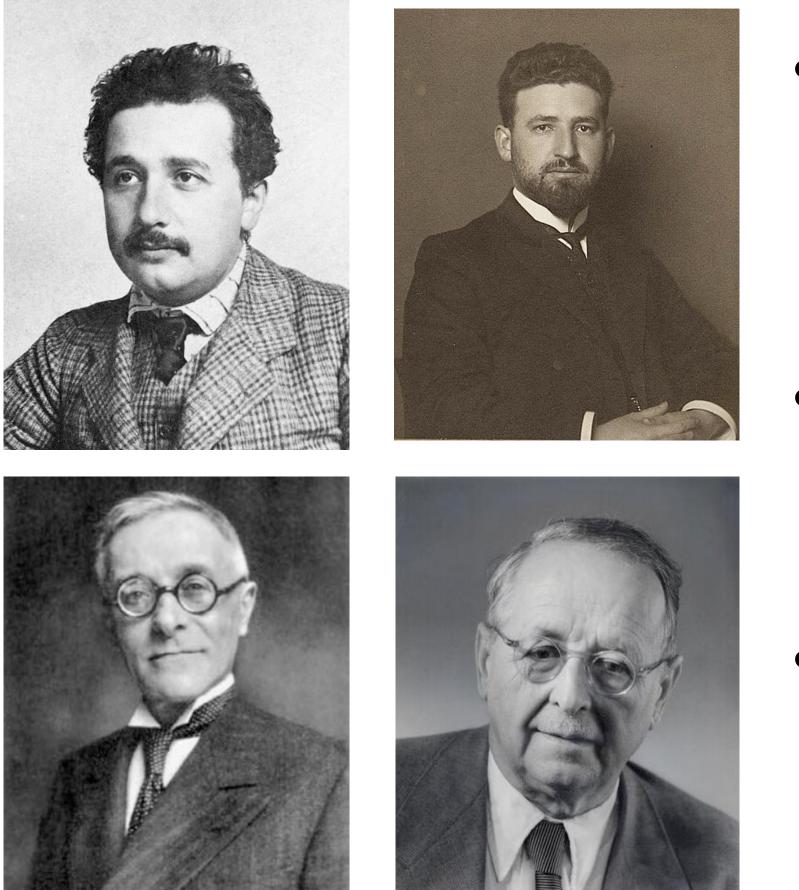




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1915–17: Levi-Civita and Einstein have a correspondence where the former helped fix the mistakes Einstein made in using tensor analysis.



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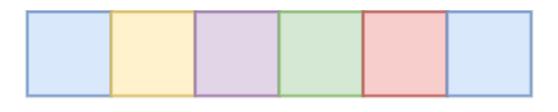
 1922: H. L. Brose's English translation of Weyl's book Raum, Zeit, Materie (Space-Time-Matter) uses "tensor analysis."





 $\mathbf{x} \in \mathrm{R}^m$

First-Order Tensor (Vector)

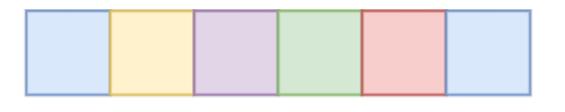


 $\mathbf{x} \in \mathrm{R}^m$

First-Order Tensor (Vector)

 $\mathbf{X} \in \mathrm{R}^{m_1 \times m_2}$

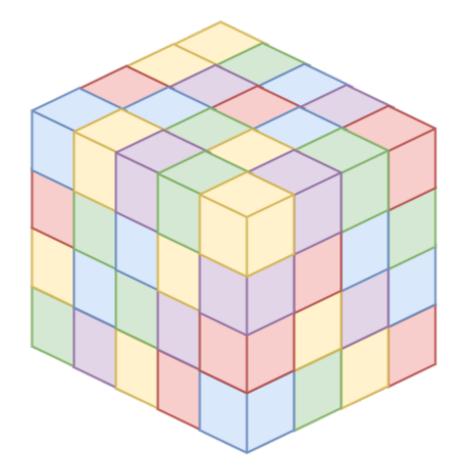
Second-Order Tensor (Matrix)



 $\mathbf{x} \in \mathrm{R}^m$

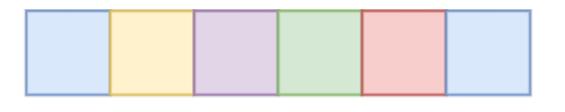
First-Order Tensor (Vector)

 $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbf{R}^{m_1 imes m_2}$ Second-Order Tensor (Matrix)



 $\mathbf{\underline{X}} \in \mathrm{R}^{m_1 imes m_2 imes m_3}$

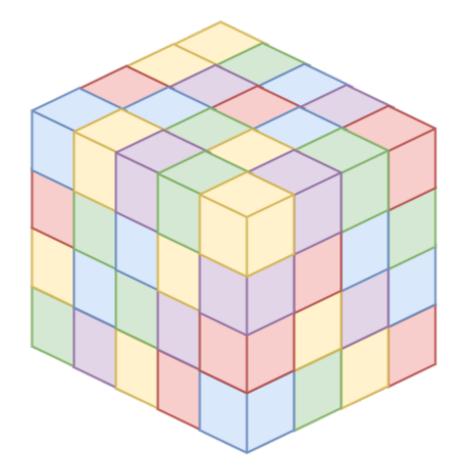
Third-Order Tensor



 $\mathbf{x} \in \mathrm{R}^m$

First-Order Tensor (Vector)

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Third-Order Tensor

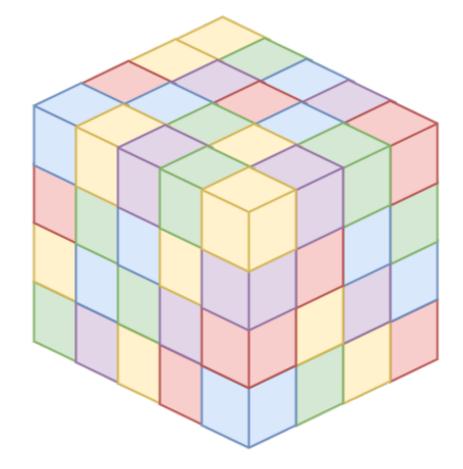
$$\underline{\mathbf{X}} \in \mathbb{R}^{m_1 \times m_2 \times \cdots \times m_K}$$



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Third-Order Tensor

For today, we treat tensors "mechanically" as multidimensional arrays.

$$\underline{\mathbf{X}} \in \mathbb{R}^{m_1 \times m_2 \times \cdots \times m_K}$$

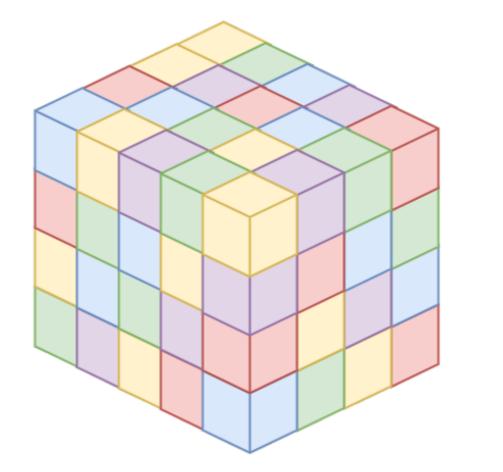
Several other (richer?) perspectives:



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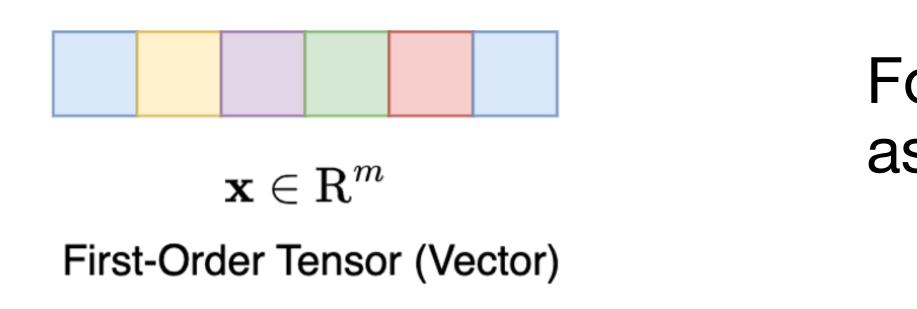
Third-Order Tensor

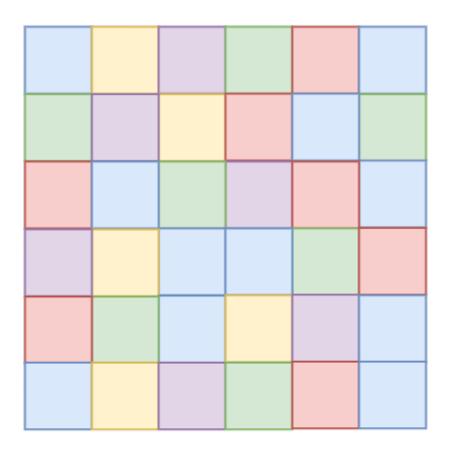
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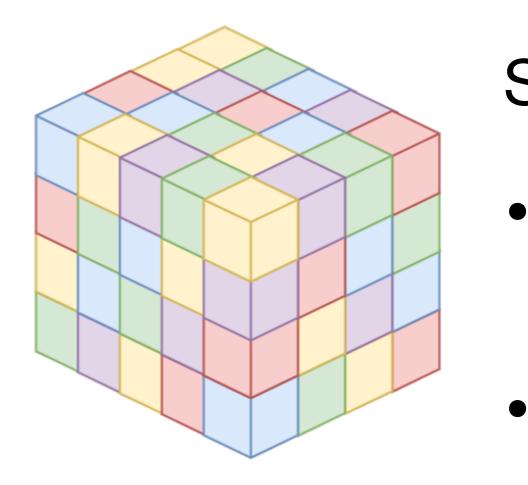
Several other (richer?) perspectives:

 Point in the tensor product of vector spaces





 $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbf{R}^{m_1 imes m_2}$ Second-Order Tensor (Matrix)



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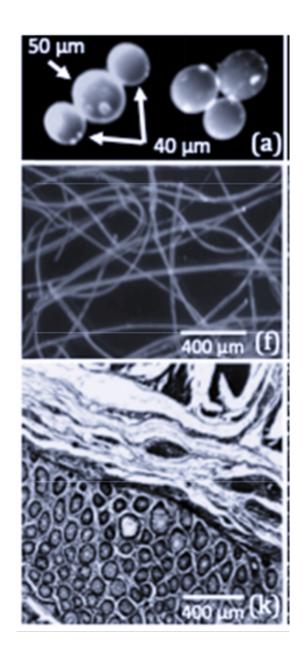
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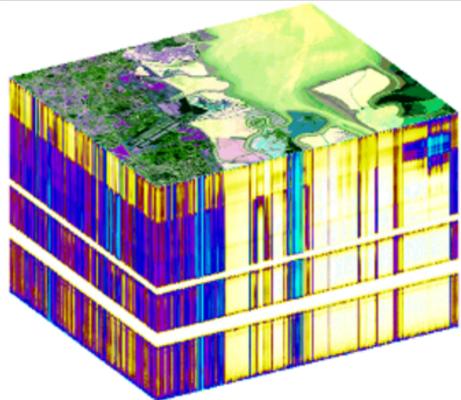
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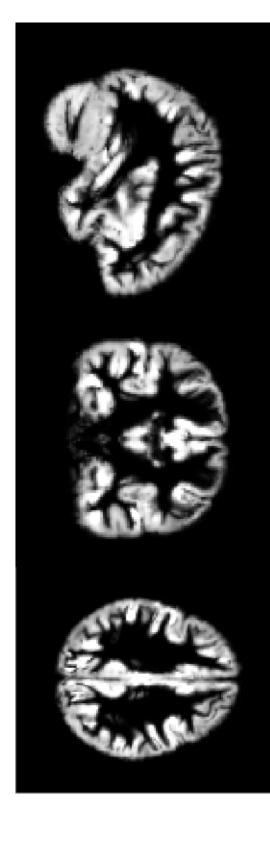
Several other (richer?) perspectives:

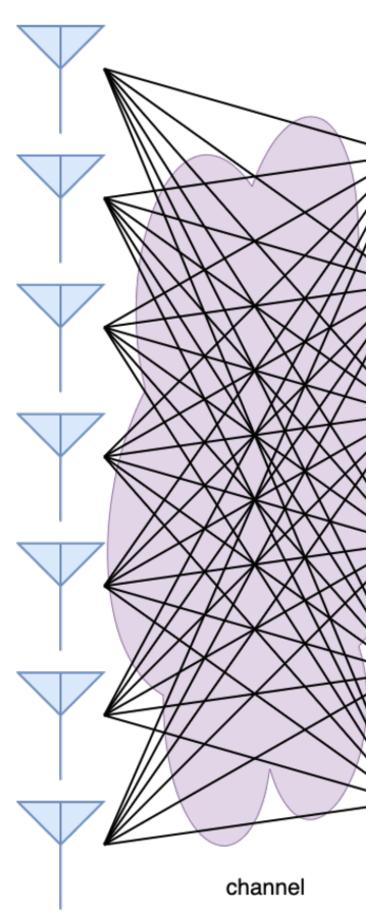
 Point in the tensor product of vector spaces

• Multilinear operator (or a tensor representation of GL(n))



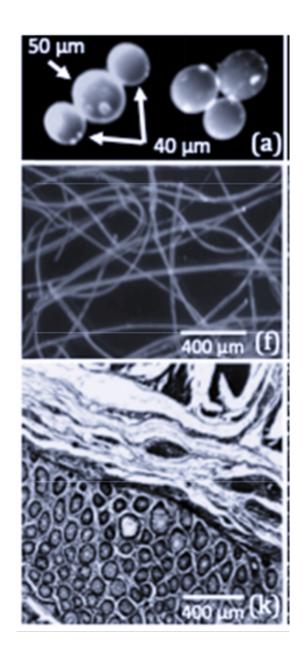


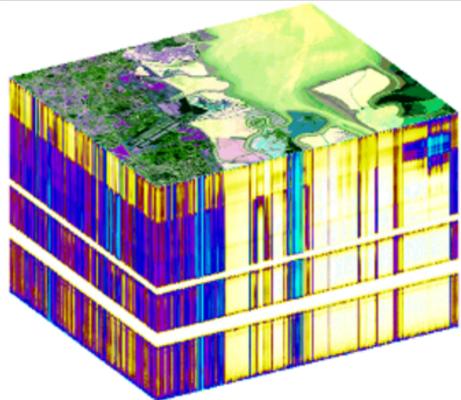


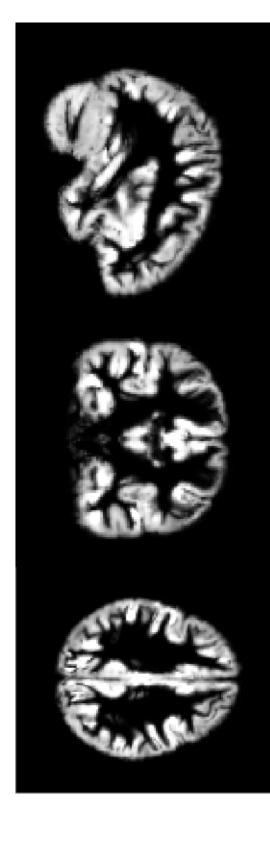


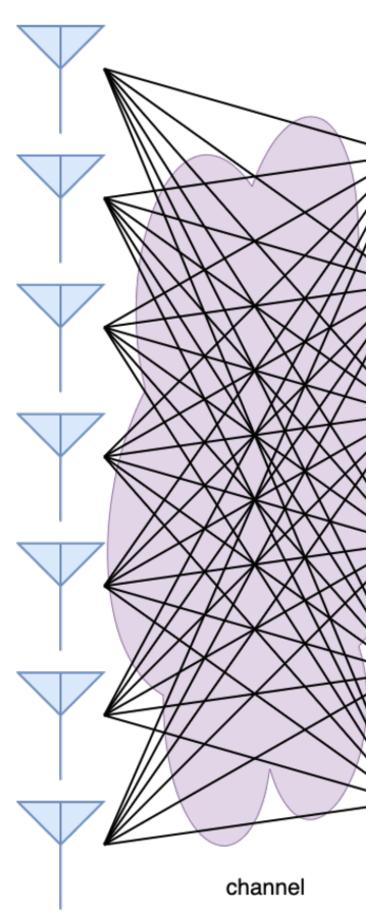


• Medicine: Neuroimaging and other medical imaging



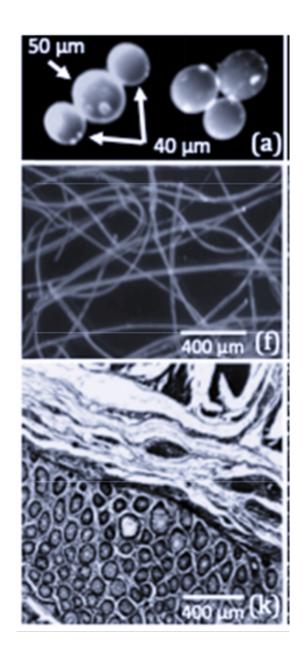


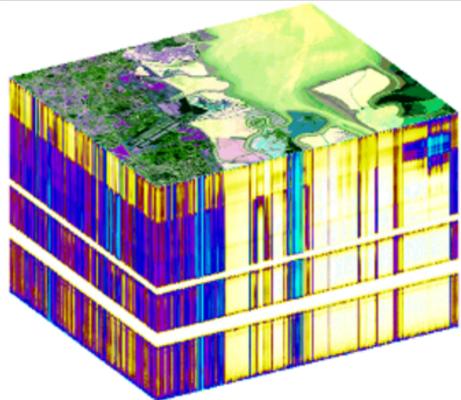


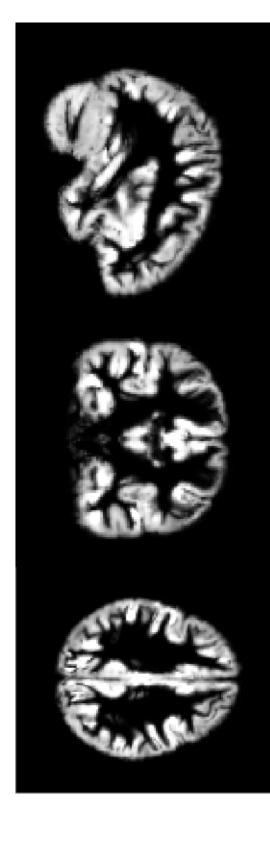


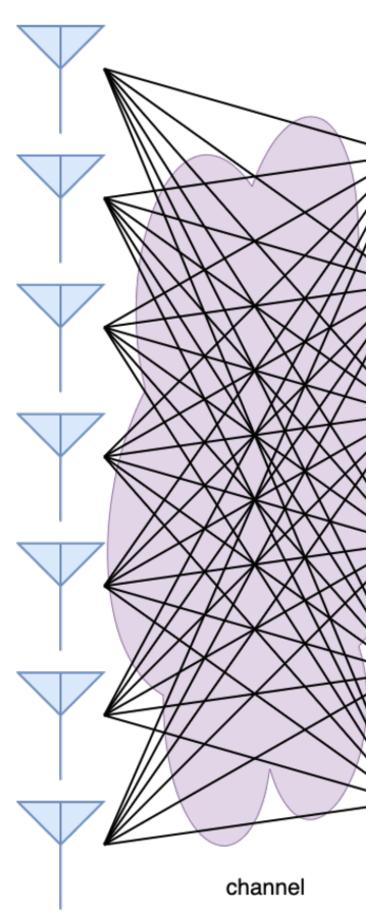


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- Geosensing: Hyperspectral imaging



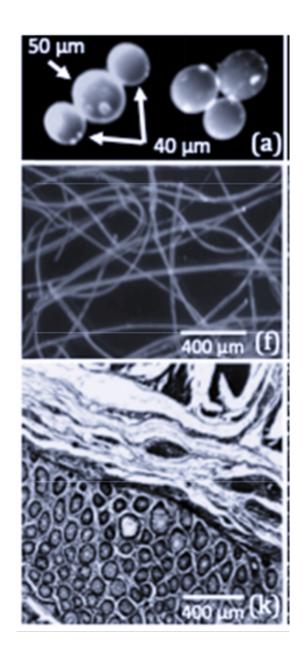


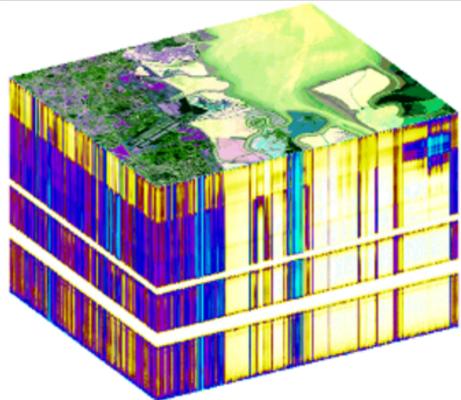


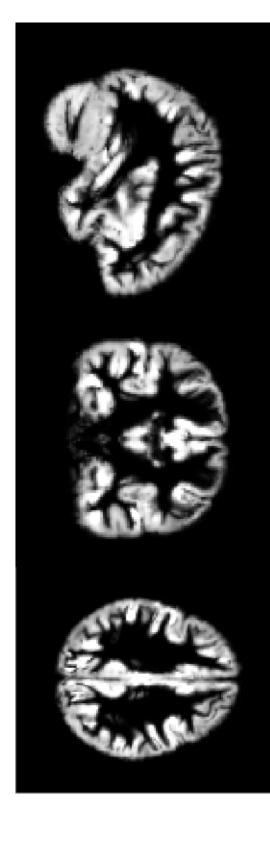


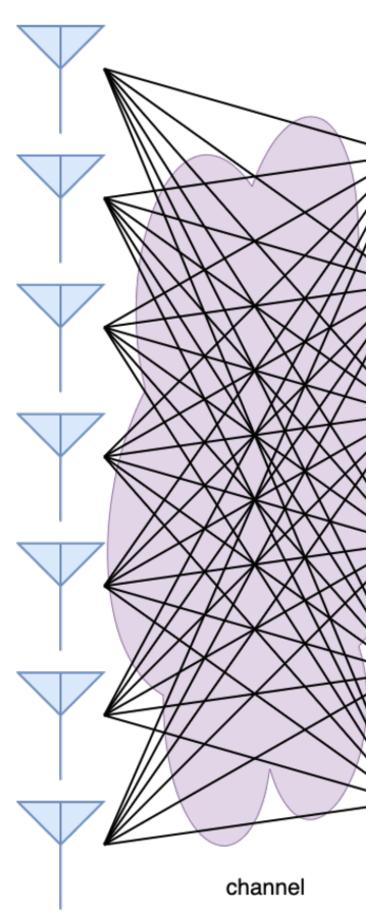


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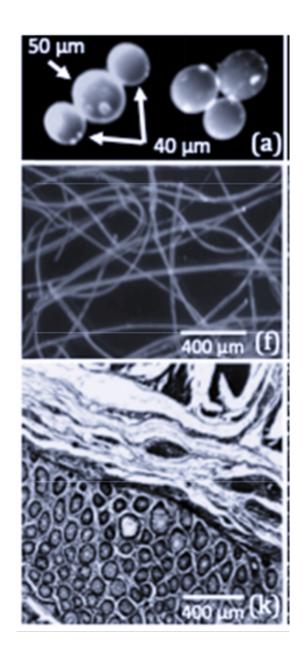


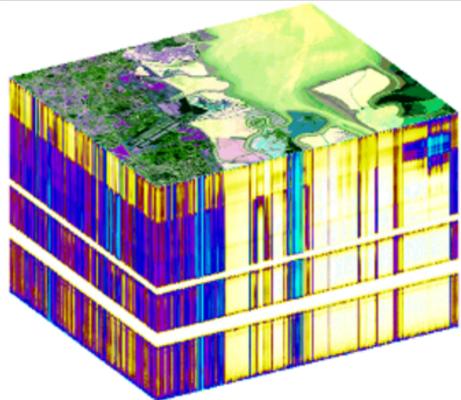


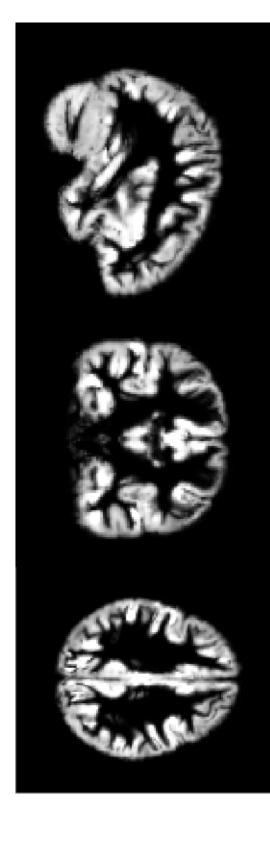


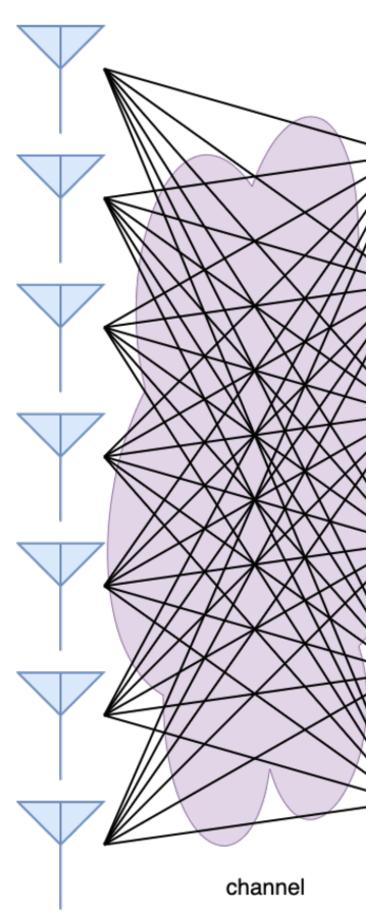


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- Probability: Joint PMFs on multiple variables



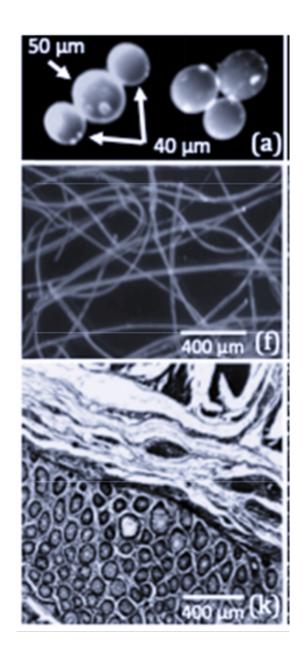


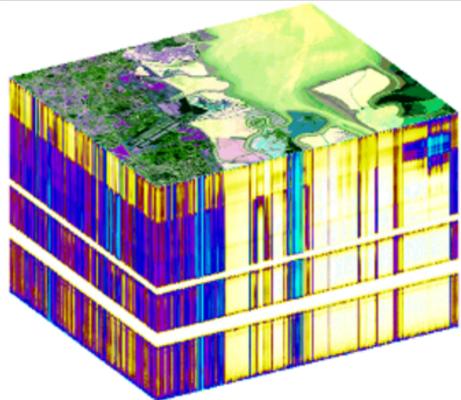


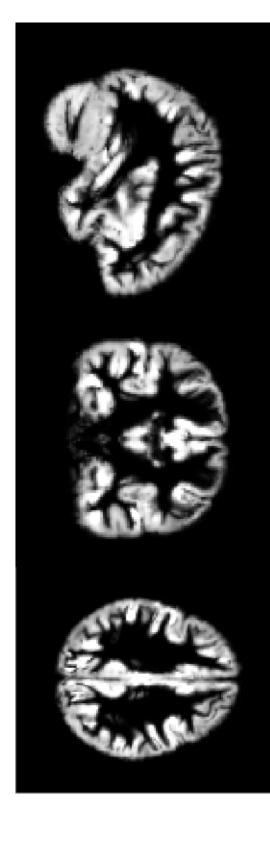


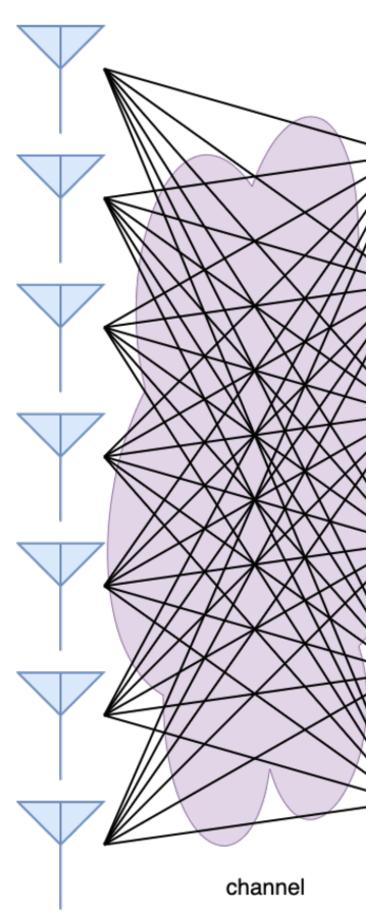


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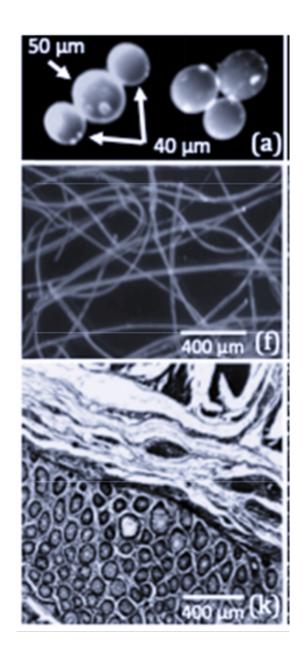


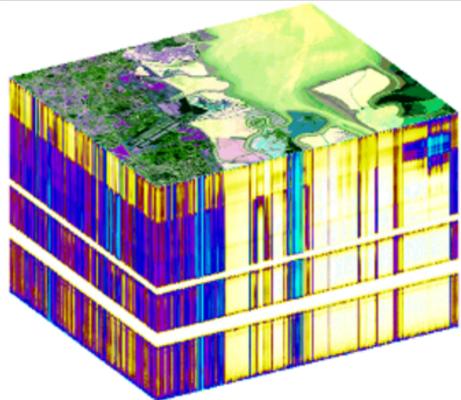


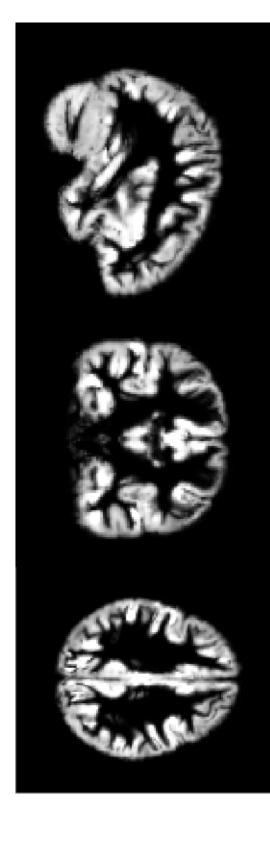


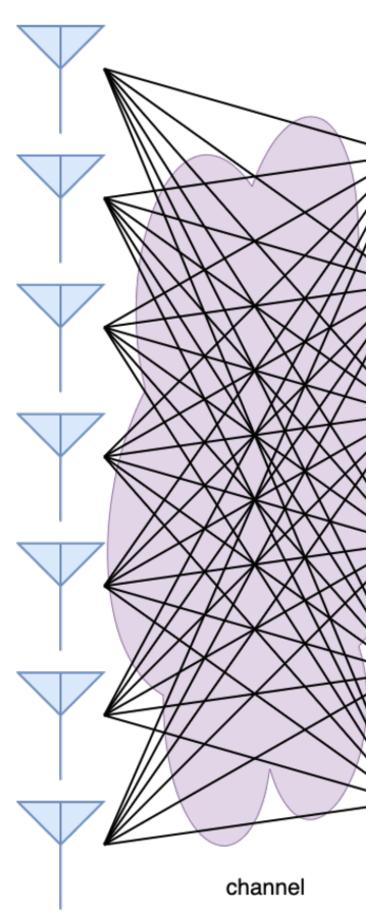


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- Also chemometrics, numerical linear algebra, psychometrics, theoretical computer science...





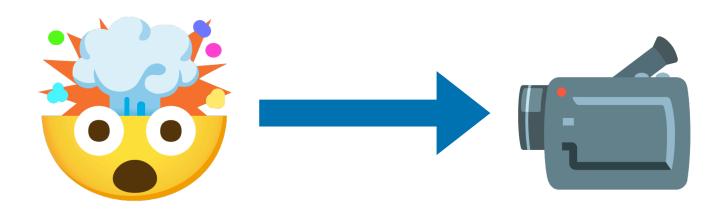


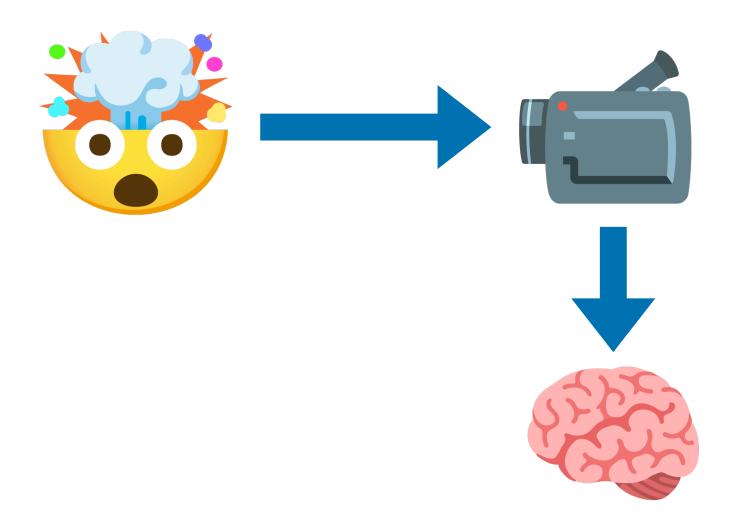


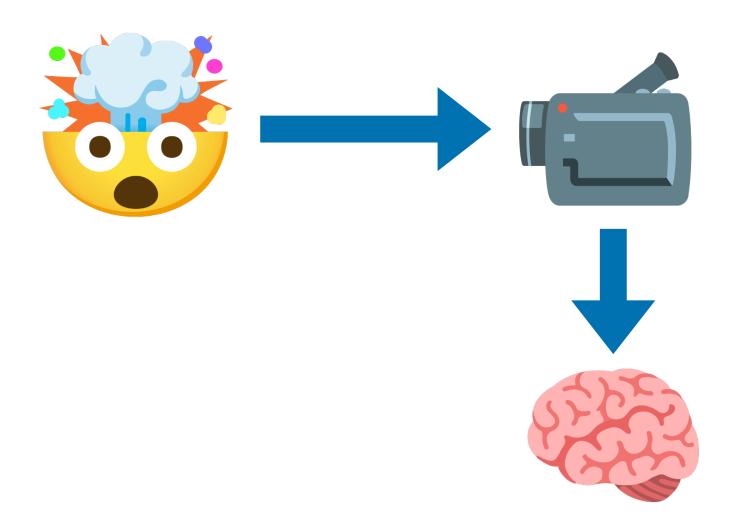




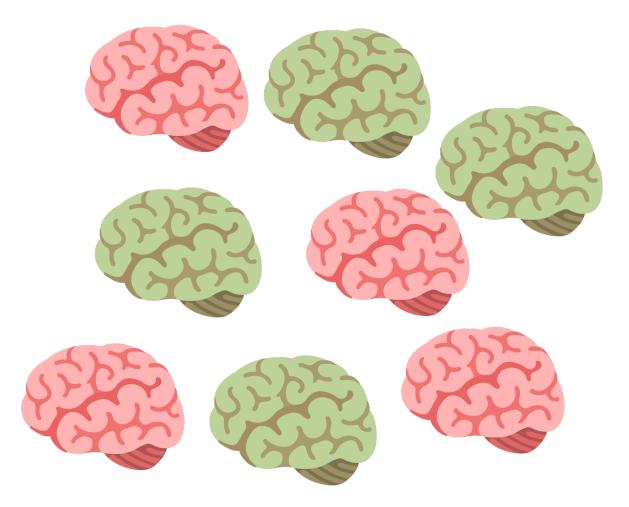


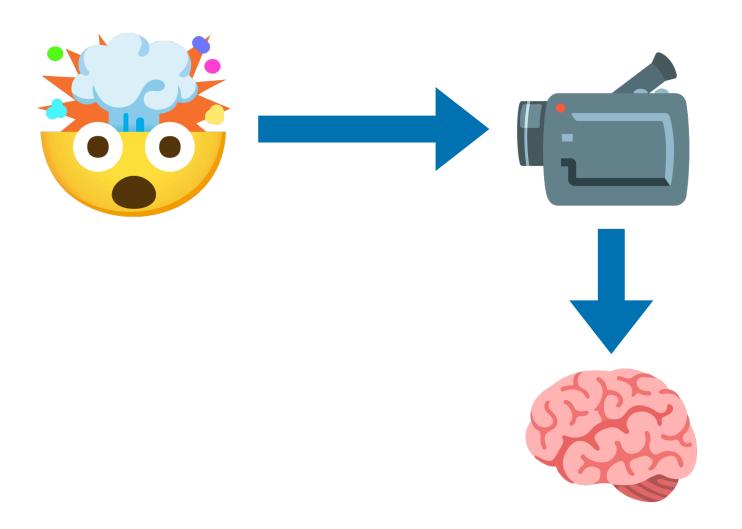




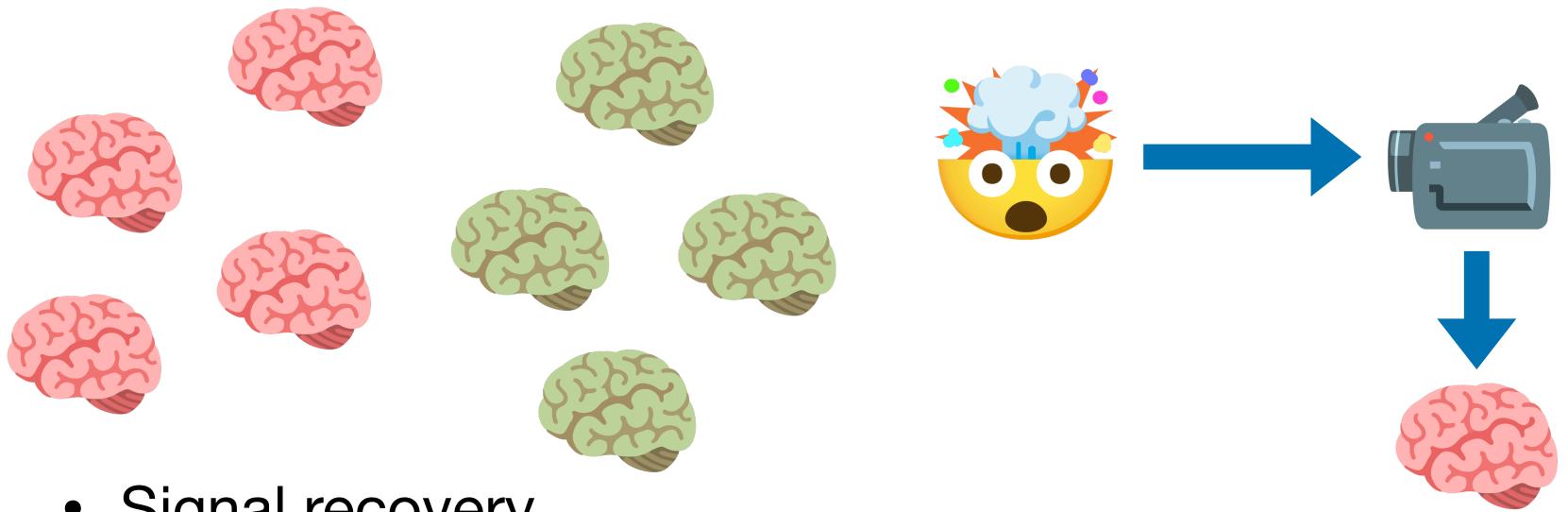


- Signal recovery
- Unsupervised learning (representation learning) \bullet

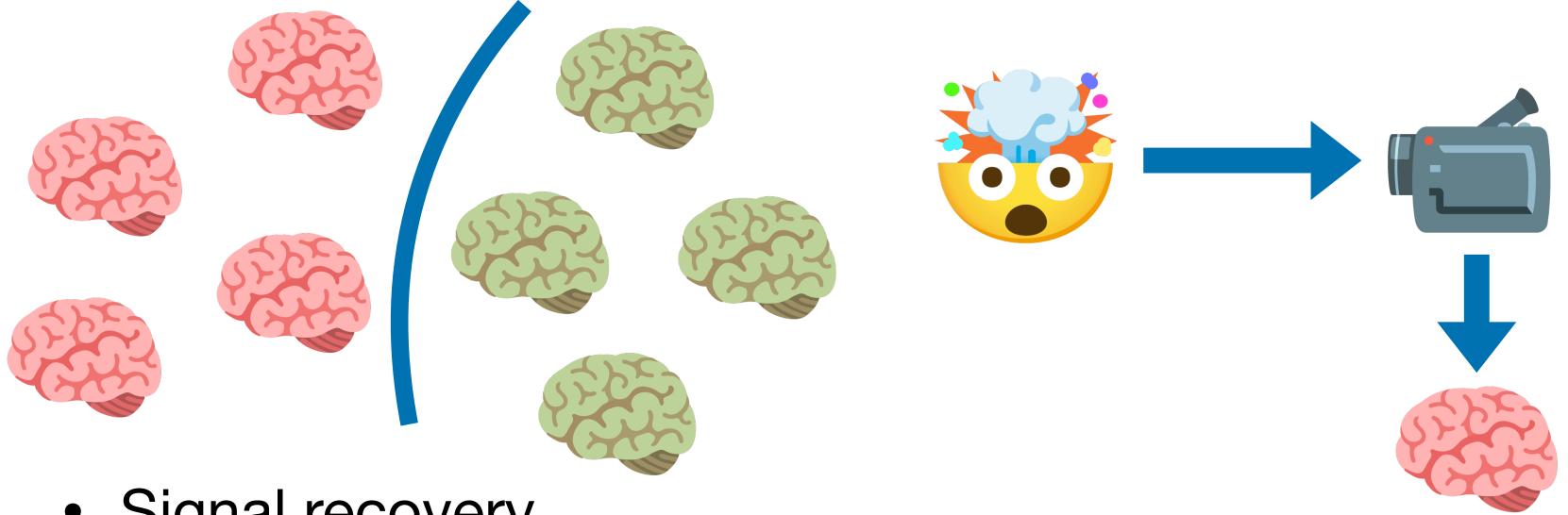




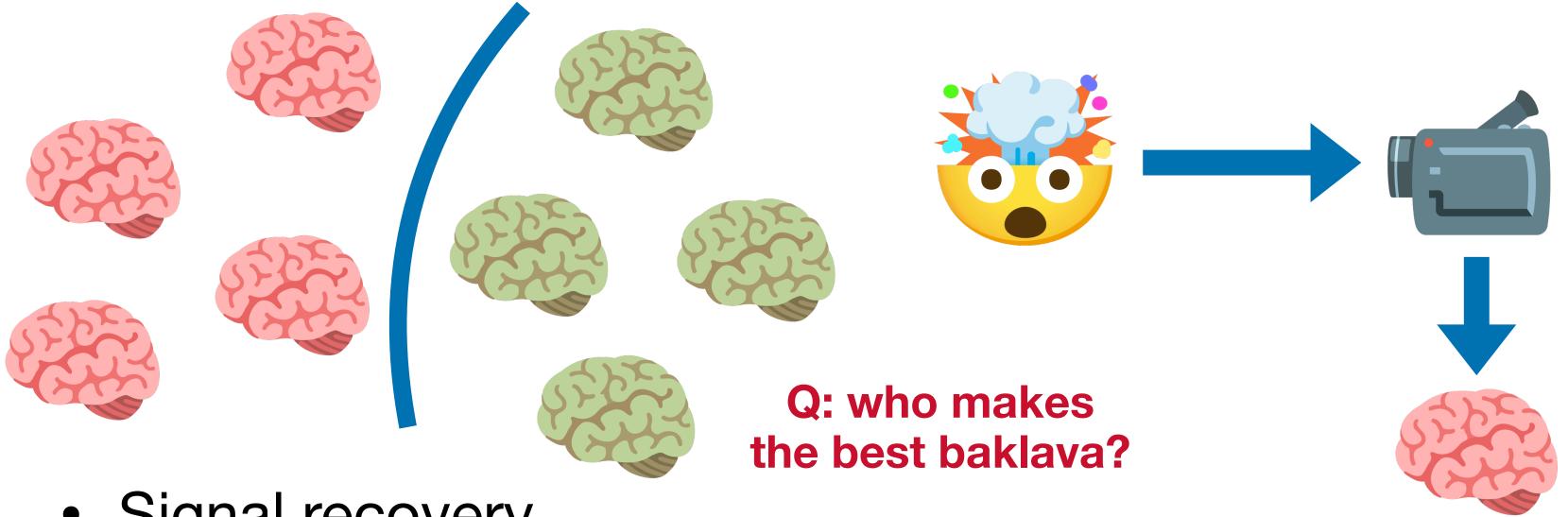
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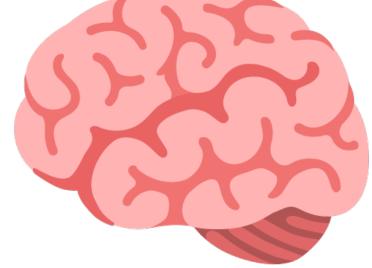


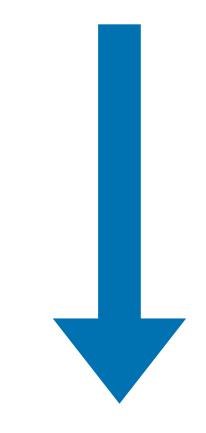
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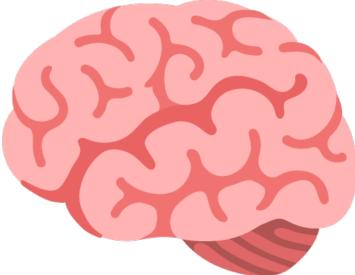






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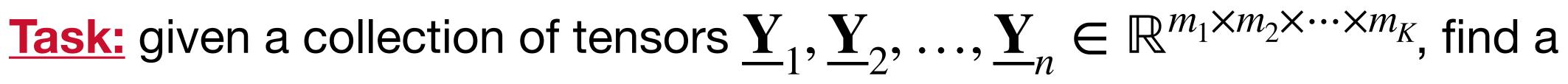


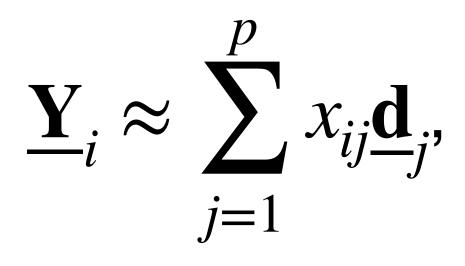


dictionary $\underline{\mathbf{d}}_1, \underline{\mathbf{d}}_2, \dots, \underline{\mathbf{d}}_p$ such that

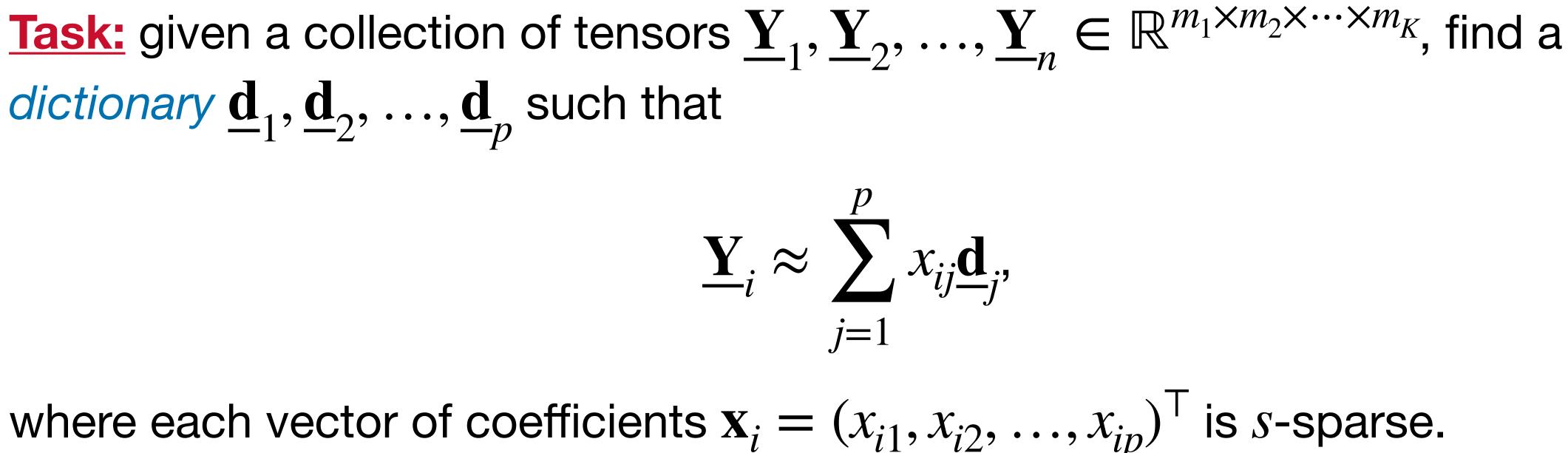


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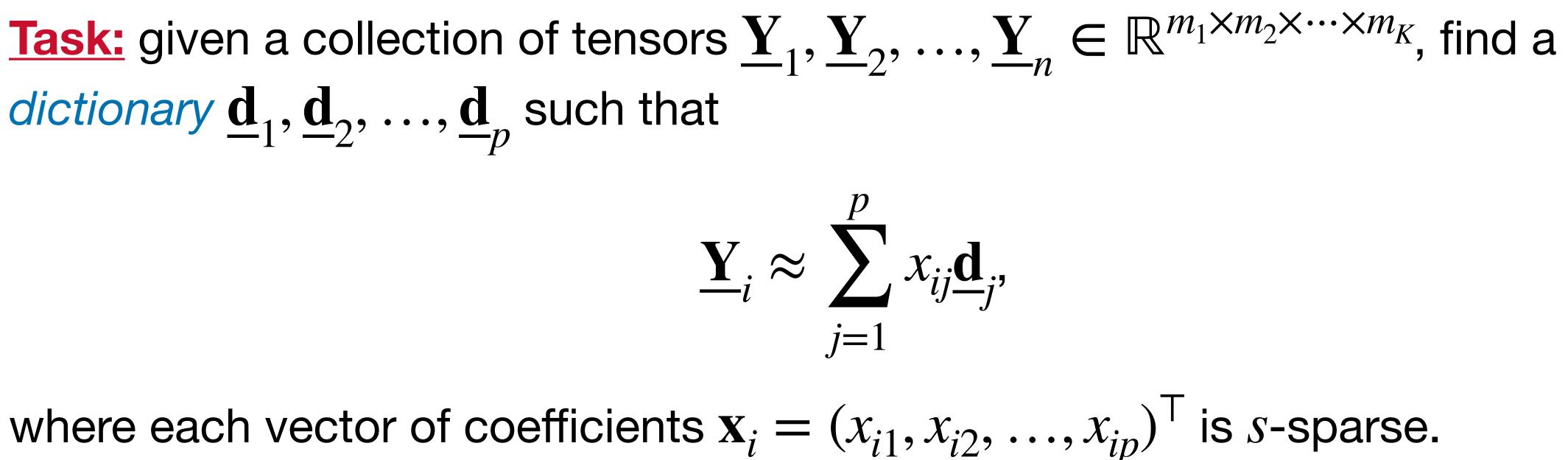


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Application: processing or storing hyperspectral images acquired from a drone.



Task: given a collection of tensor-scalar pairs $\{(\underline{\mathbf{X}}_i, y_i)\} \subset \mathbb{R}^{m_1 \times m_2 \times \cdots \times m_K} \times \mathbb{R}$, find a *regression tensor* **B** such that

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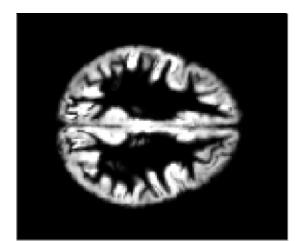
where $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ is the element-wise inner product. Application: predicting a brain health condition from an MRI scan.

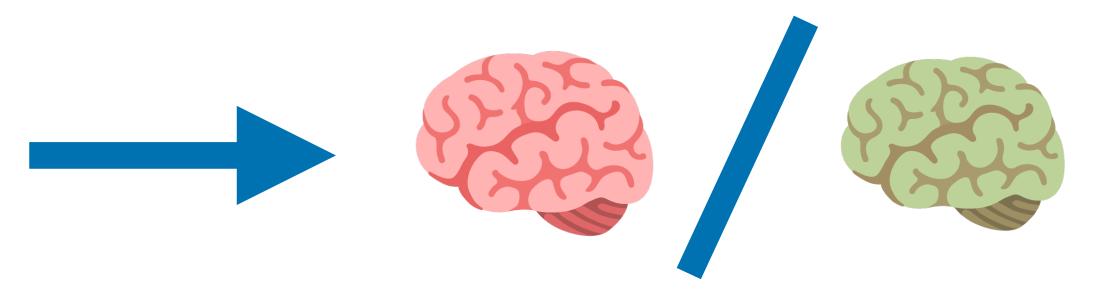
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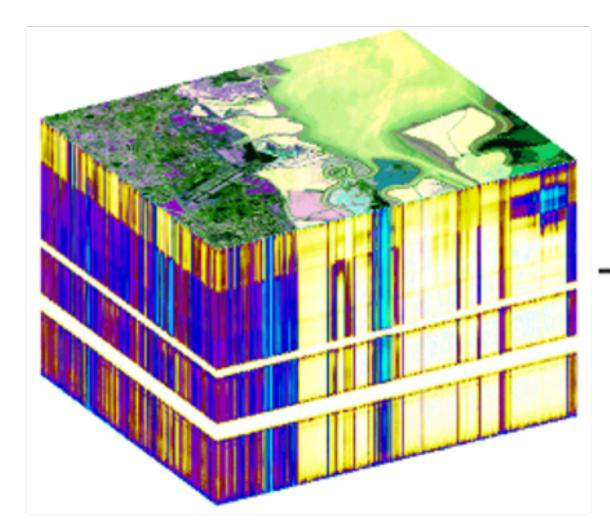
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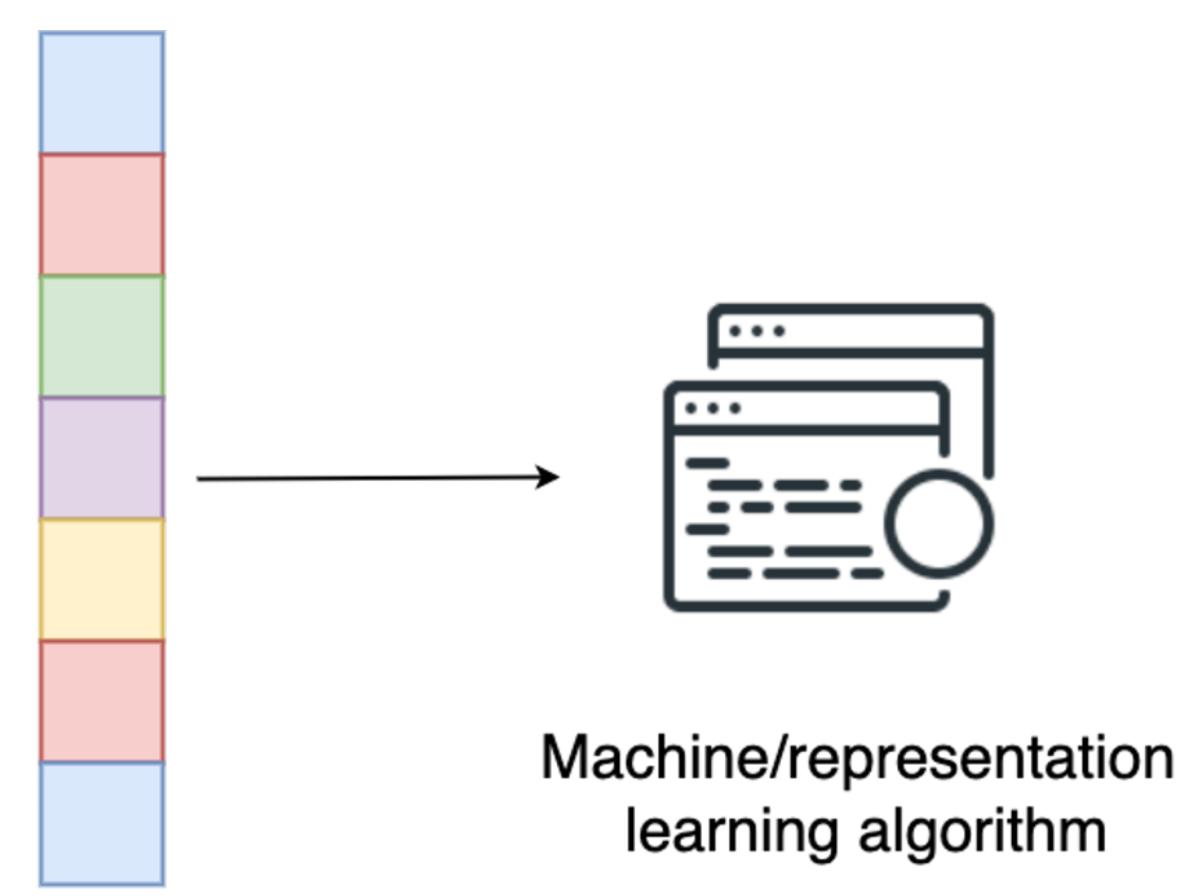
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A baseline approach: vectorization We can always throw away the structure



Hyperspectral Image

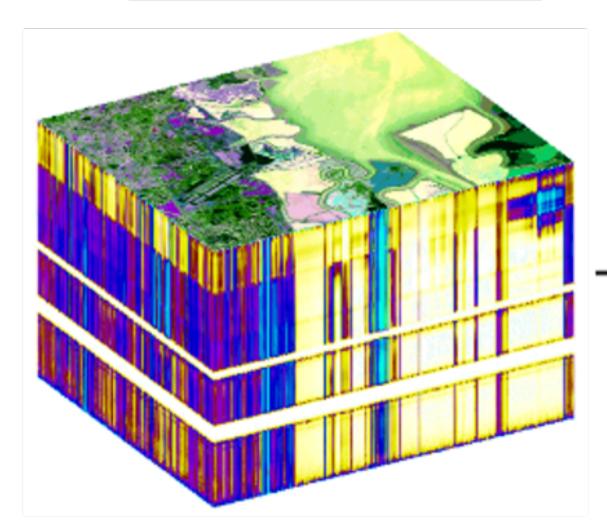




Vectorized data

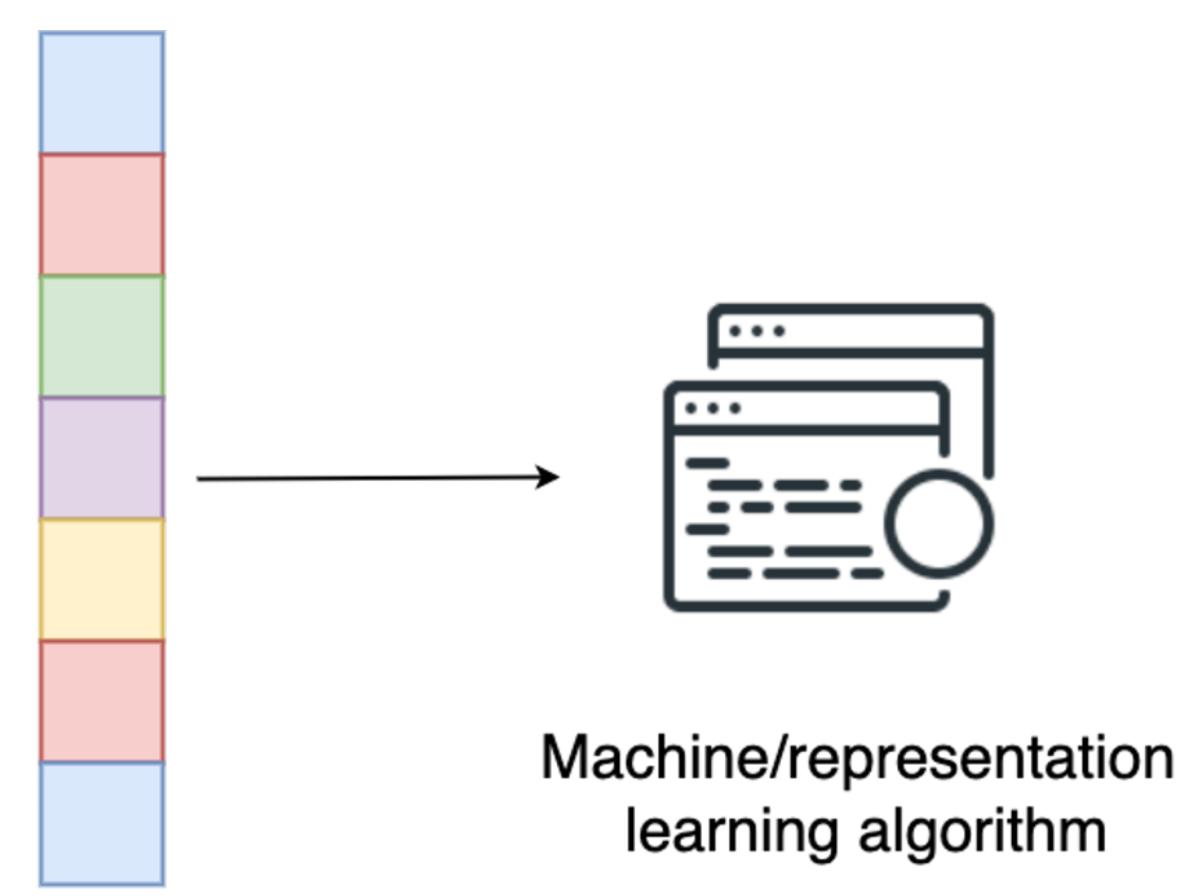
A baseline approach: vectorization We can always throw away the structure

$m_1 \times m_2 \times m_3$ $100 \times 50 \times 110$



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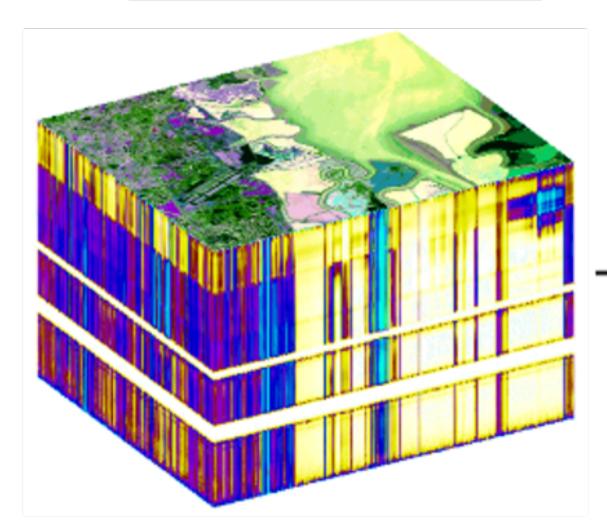




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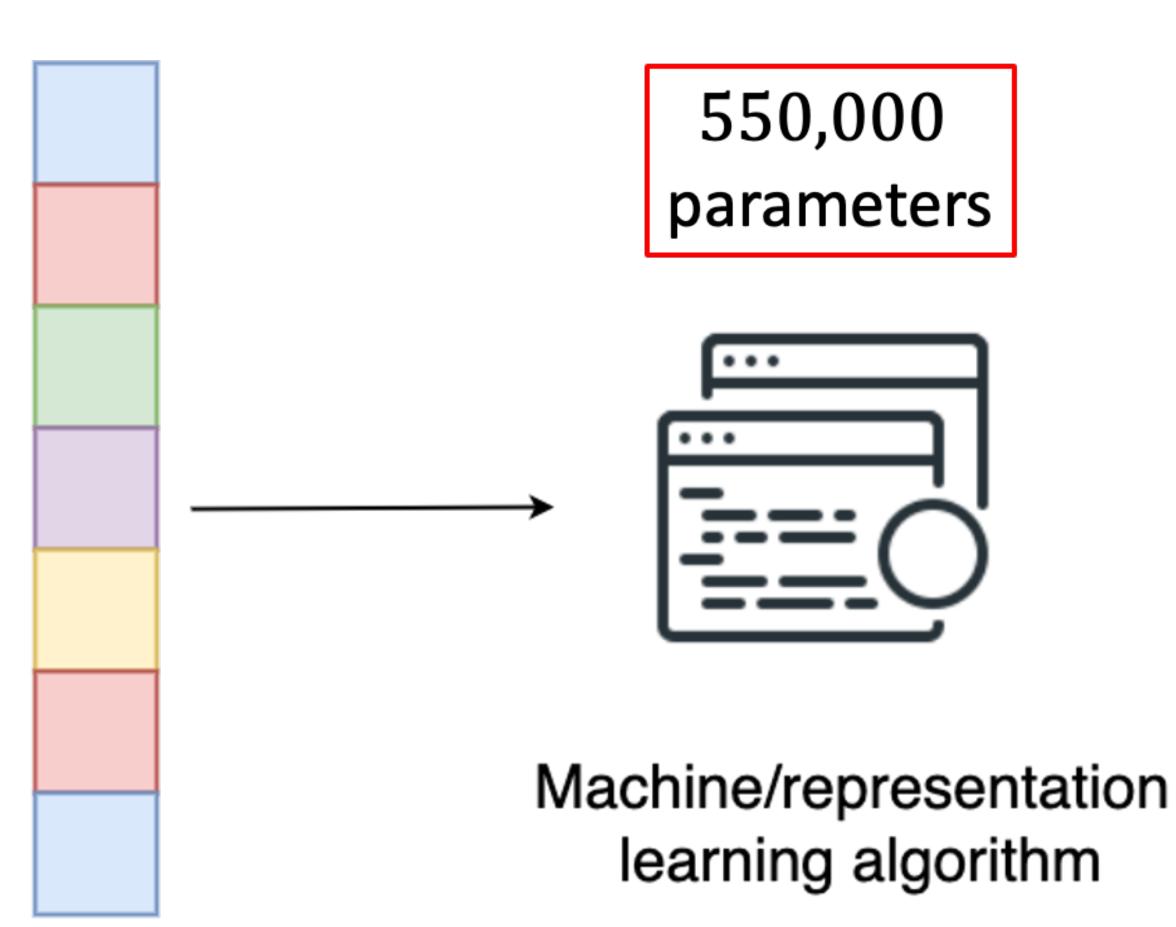
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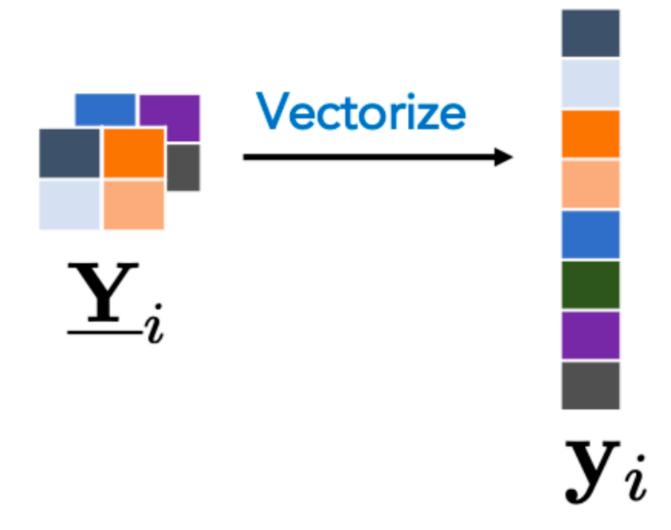


Hyperspectral Image

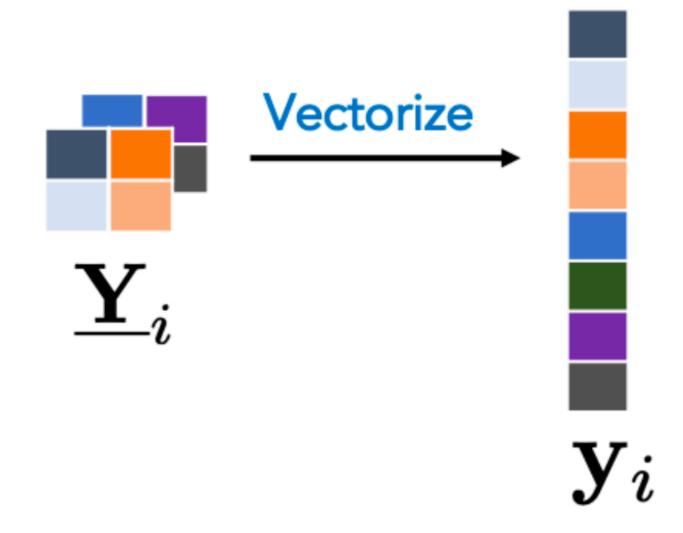




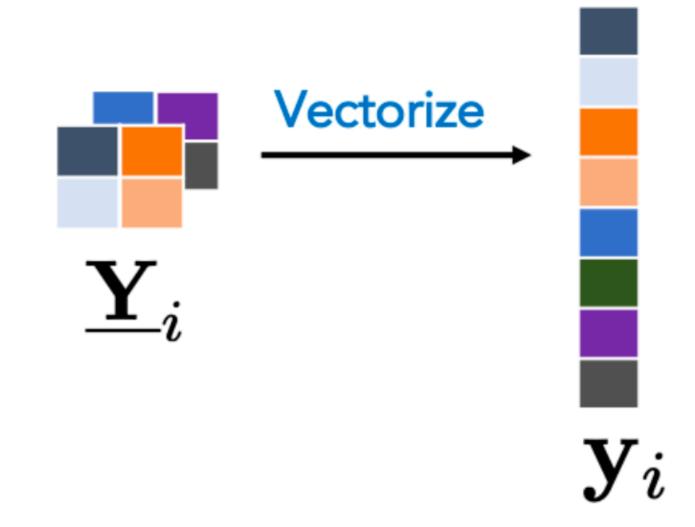
Vectorized data



1. Vectorization ignores the tensor structure.

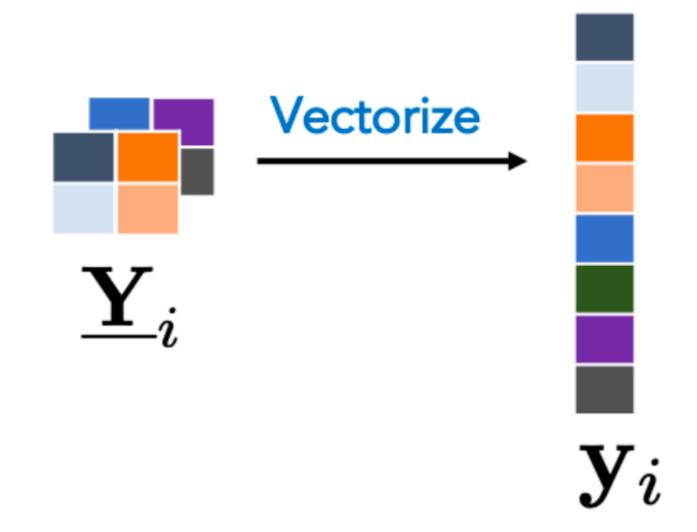


- 1. Vectorization ignores the tensor structure.
- 2. Resulting problems have very high dimension.



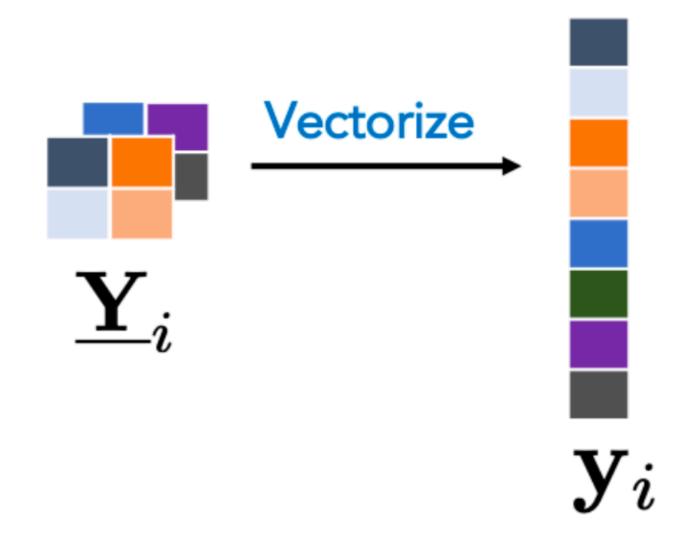
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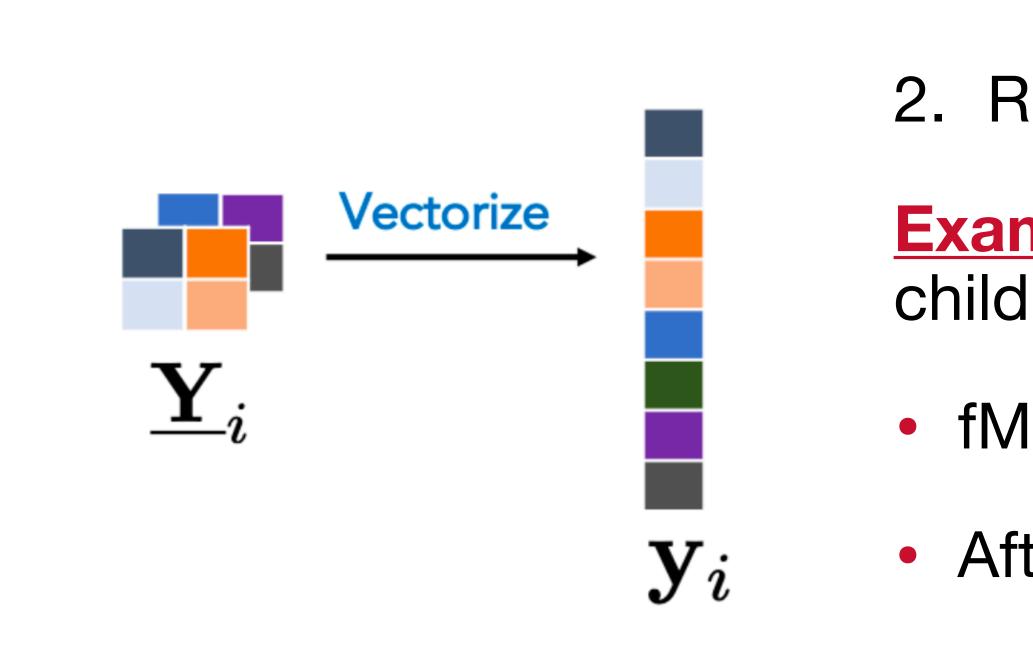
children's brains.



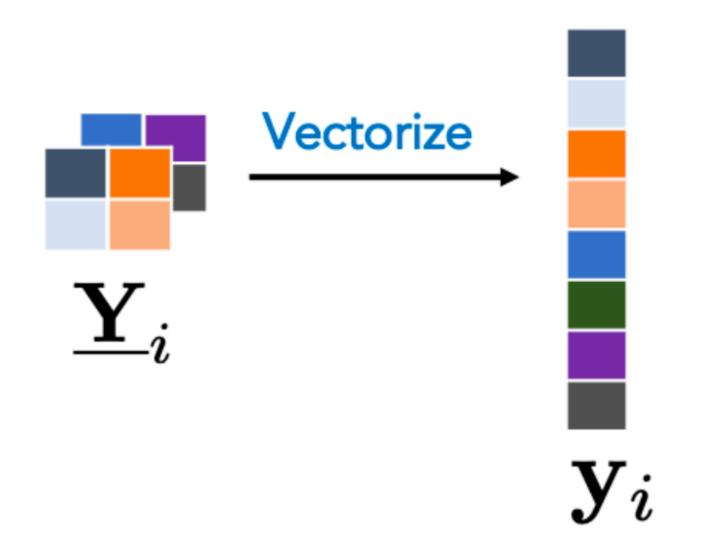
Example: ADHD200 data set has fMRI images of

- 1. Vectorization *ignores the tensor structure*.
- 2. Resulting problems have very high dimension.
- **Example:** ADHD200 data set has fMRI images of children's brains.
- fMRI data: 121 x 141 x 121 tensor





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- Sample size: 959 total images

We usually make models more tractable by assuming that our parameters have more structure. For example, for a regression model:

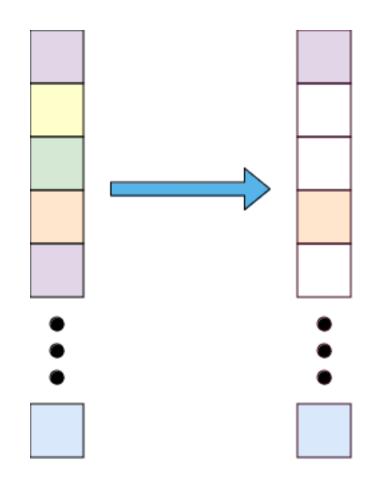
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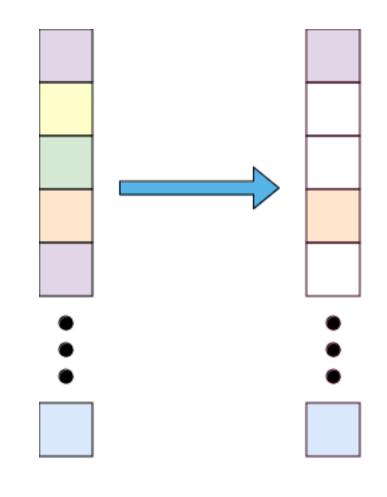
• Vectors: model **B** as sparse.

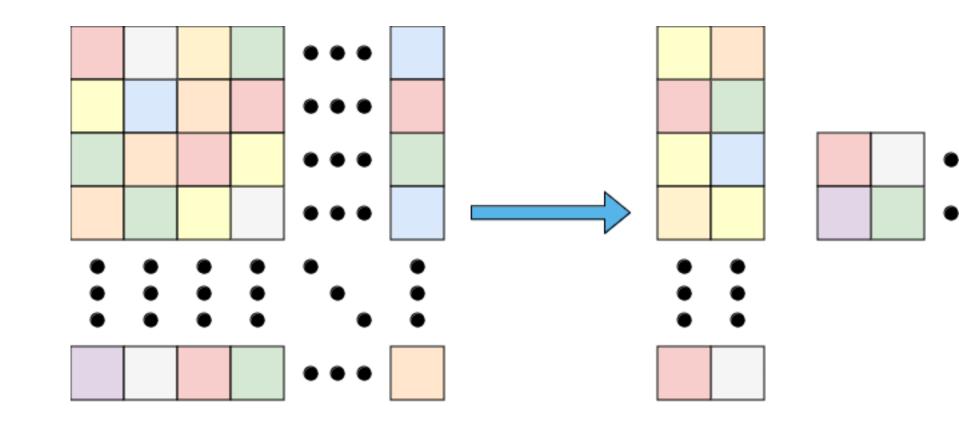


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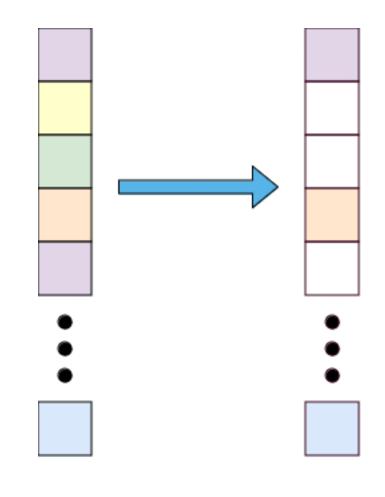
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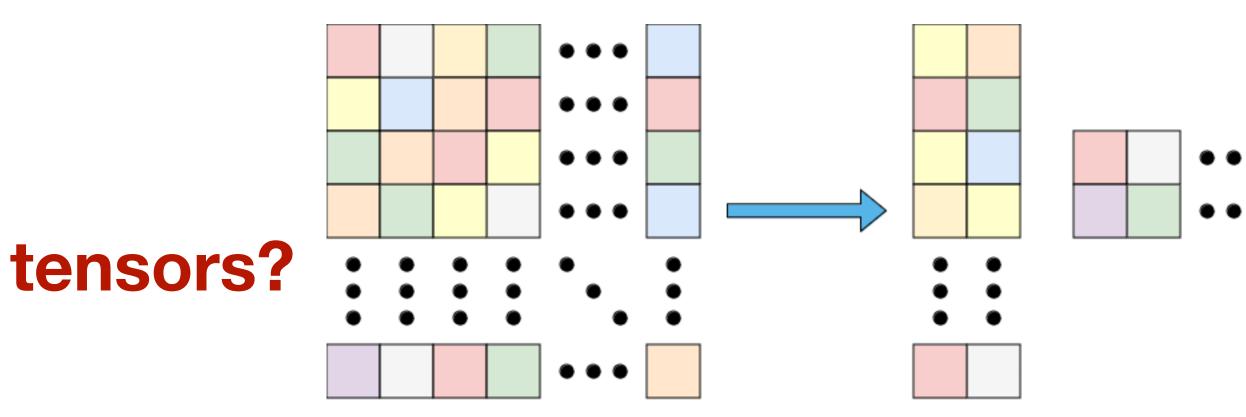
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How do we impose structure on tensors?





•

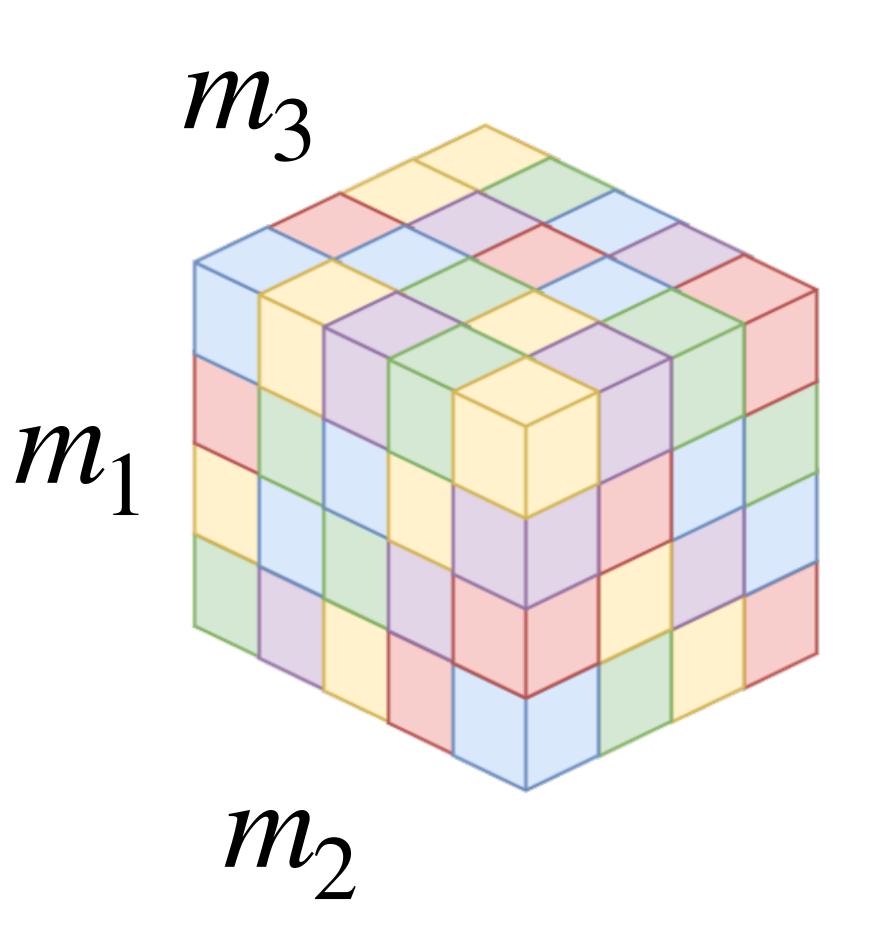
What's in this talk A preview of the rest of the talk

- 1. Tensor decompositions and where to find them
- 2. Regression with tensor-valued data and parameters
- 3. Dictionary learning with structured tensors
- 4. Some pointers to future directions

Tensor decompositions



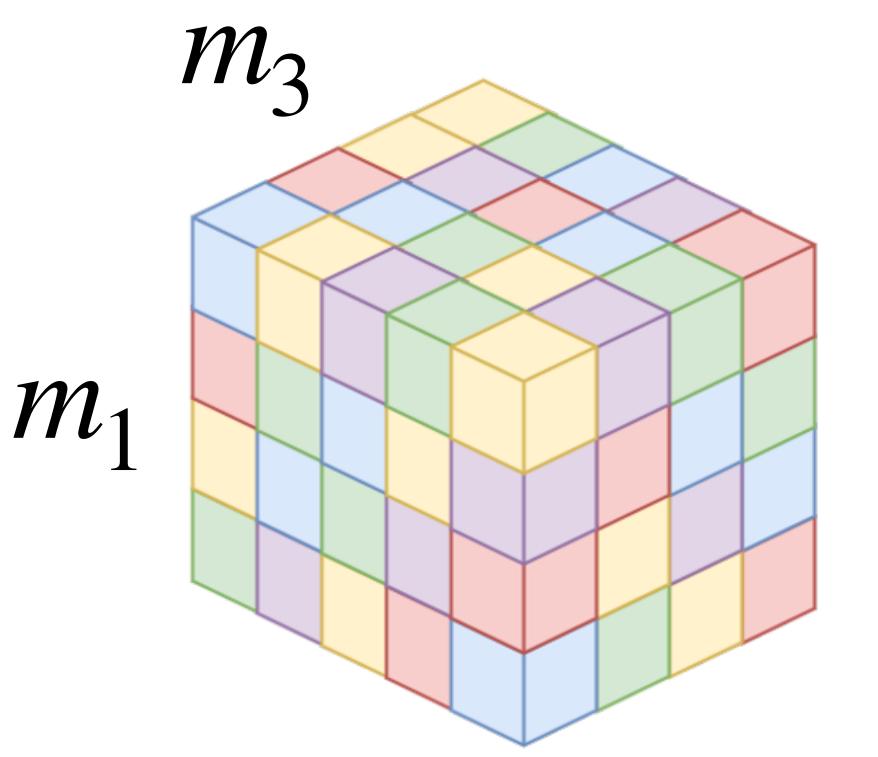








• **Mode:** each coordinate index



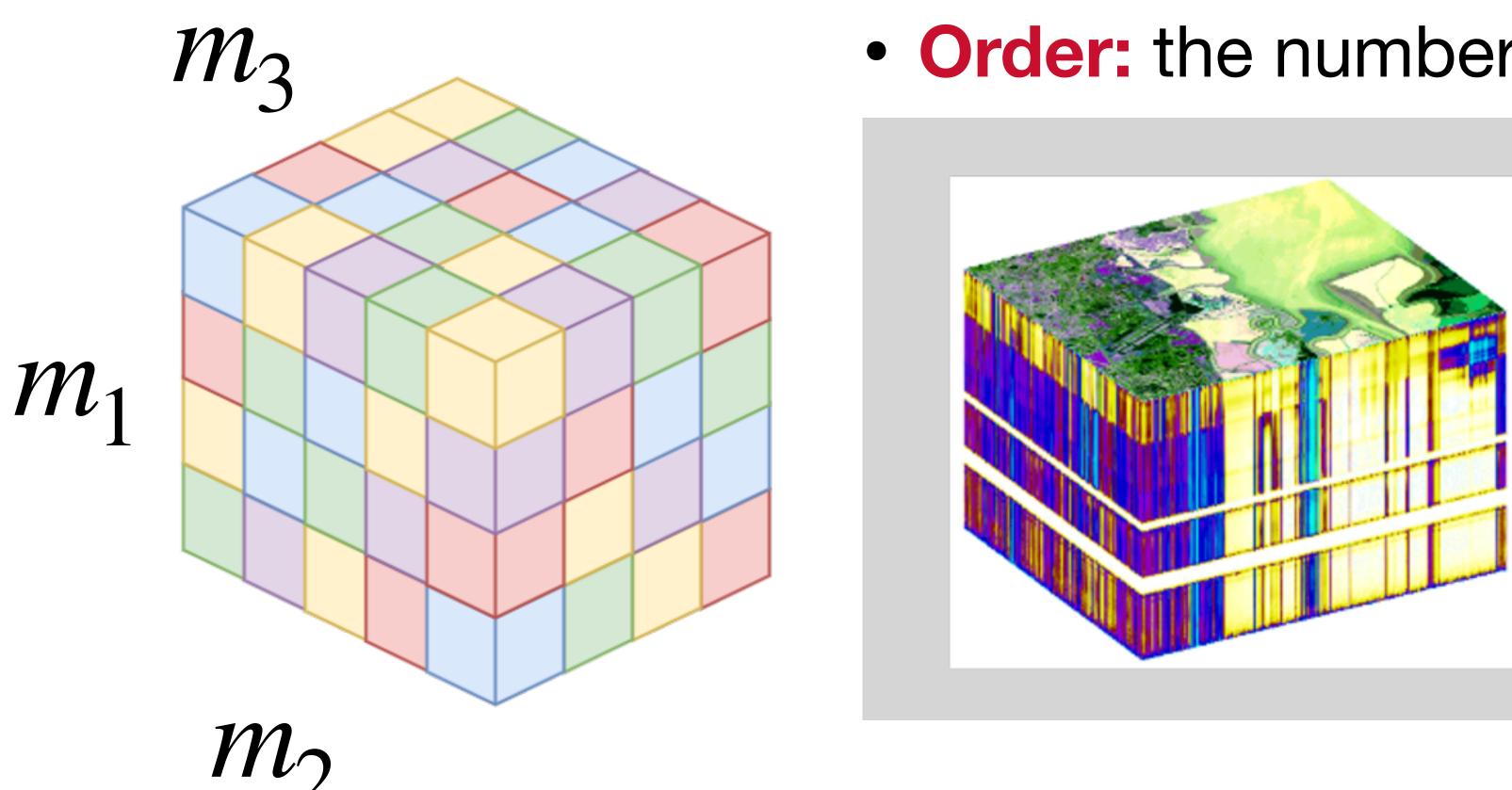
• Order: the number of modes of the tensor

 m_{γ}





• Mode: each coordinate index

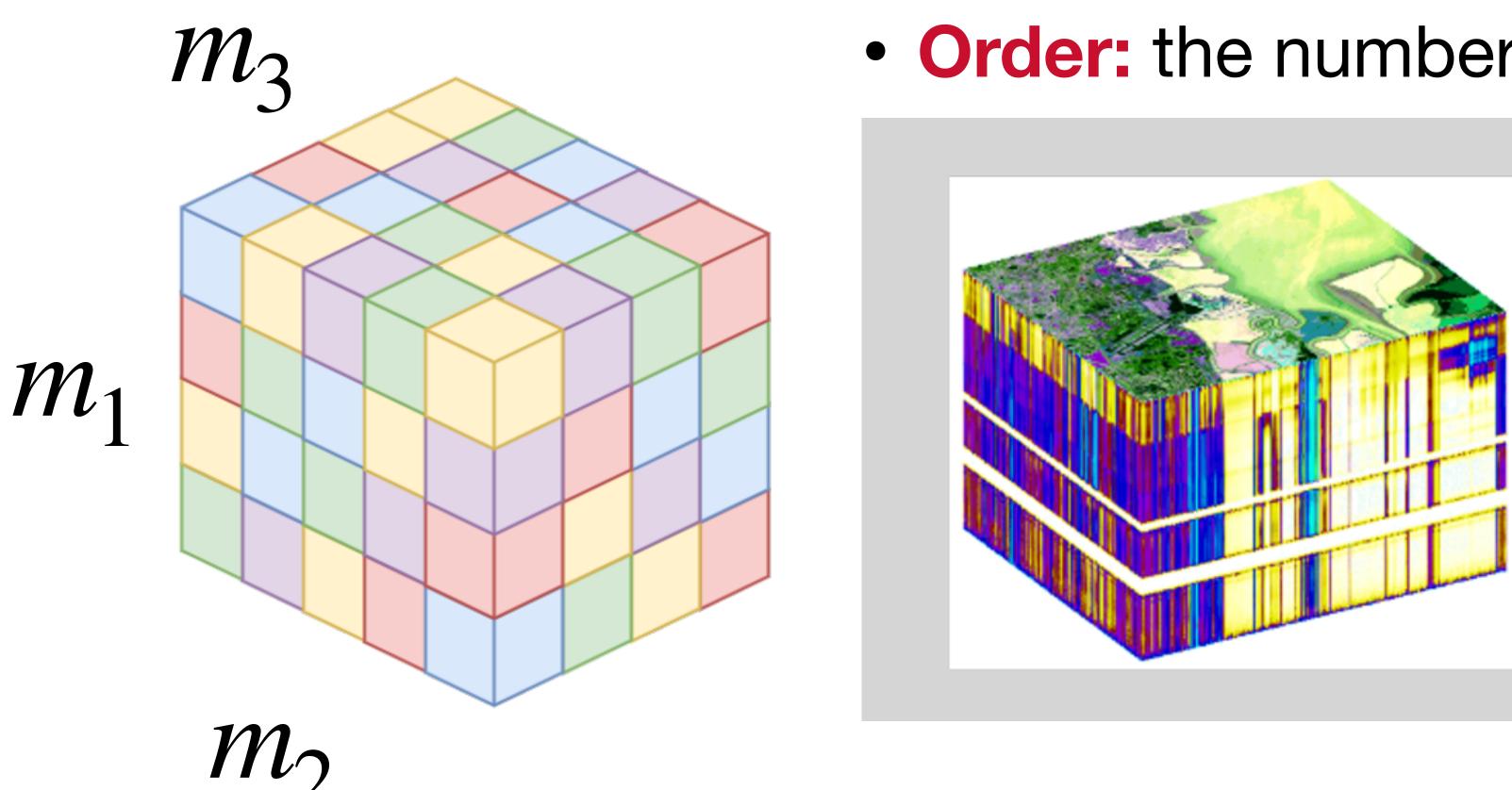




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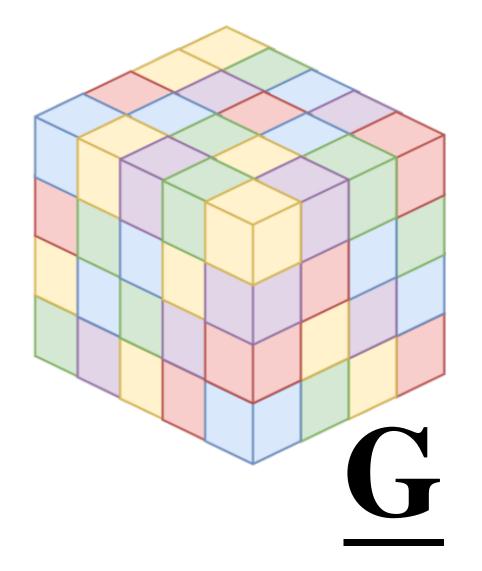
- Mode 1 = spectrum
- Mode 2 = longitude
- Mode 3 =latitude



We can multiply a tensor $\mathbf{G} \in \mathbb{R}^{r_1 \times r_2 \times \cdots \times r_K}$ by a matrix $\mathbf{B}_k \in \mathbb{R}^{m_k \times r_k}$ along mode k: $\mathbf{G} \times_k \mathbf{B}_k$



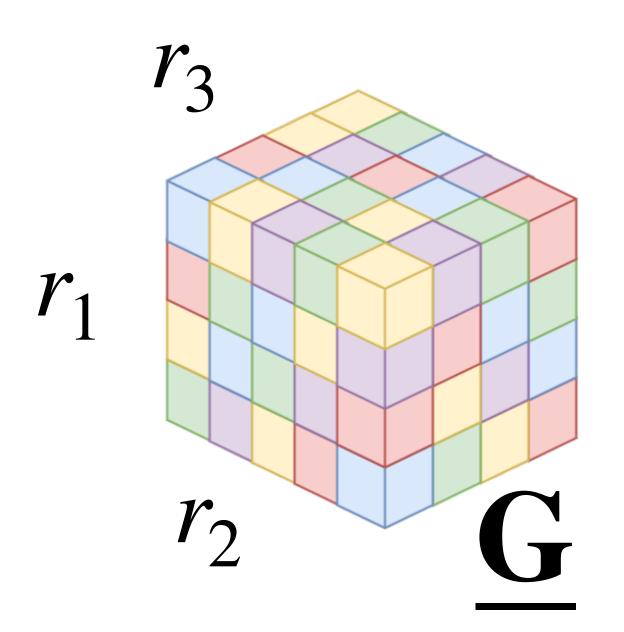
The result is a order-K tensor whose k-th mode is m_k dimensional.



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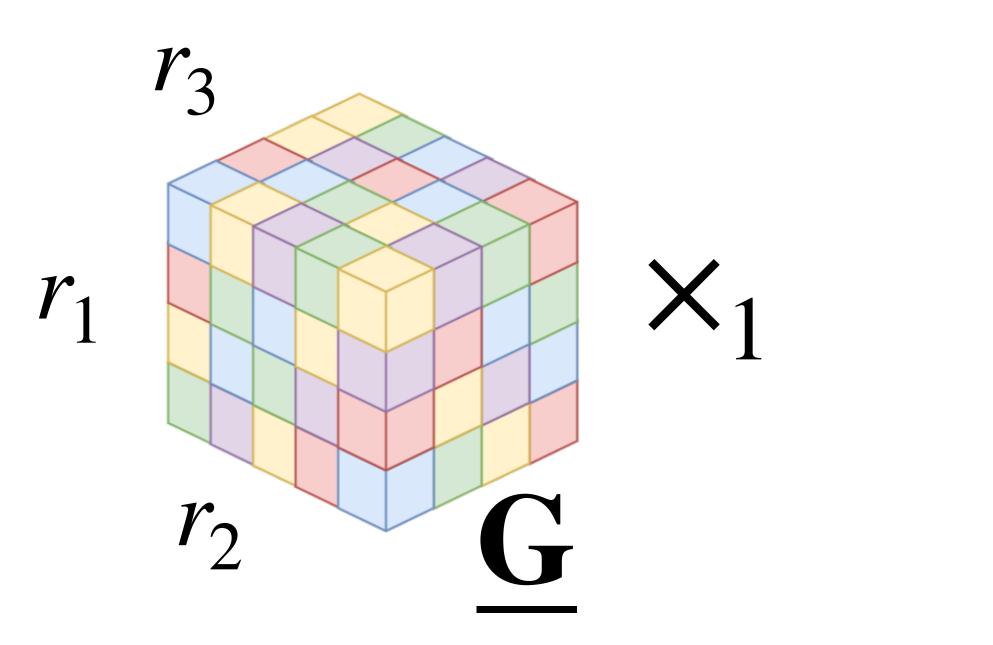




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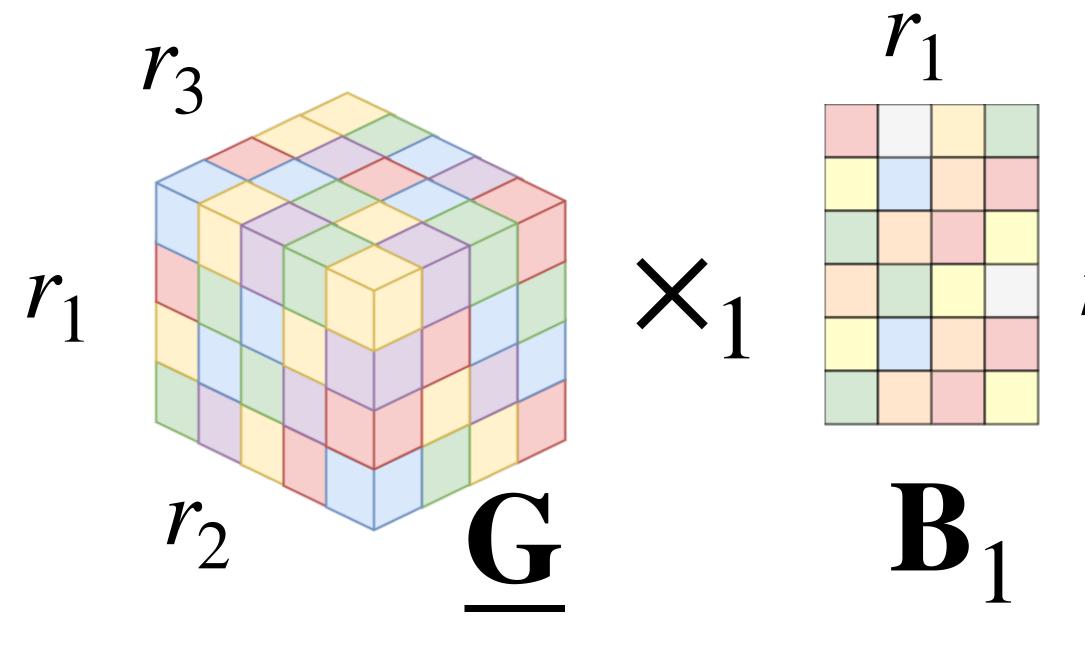




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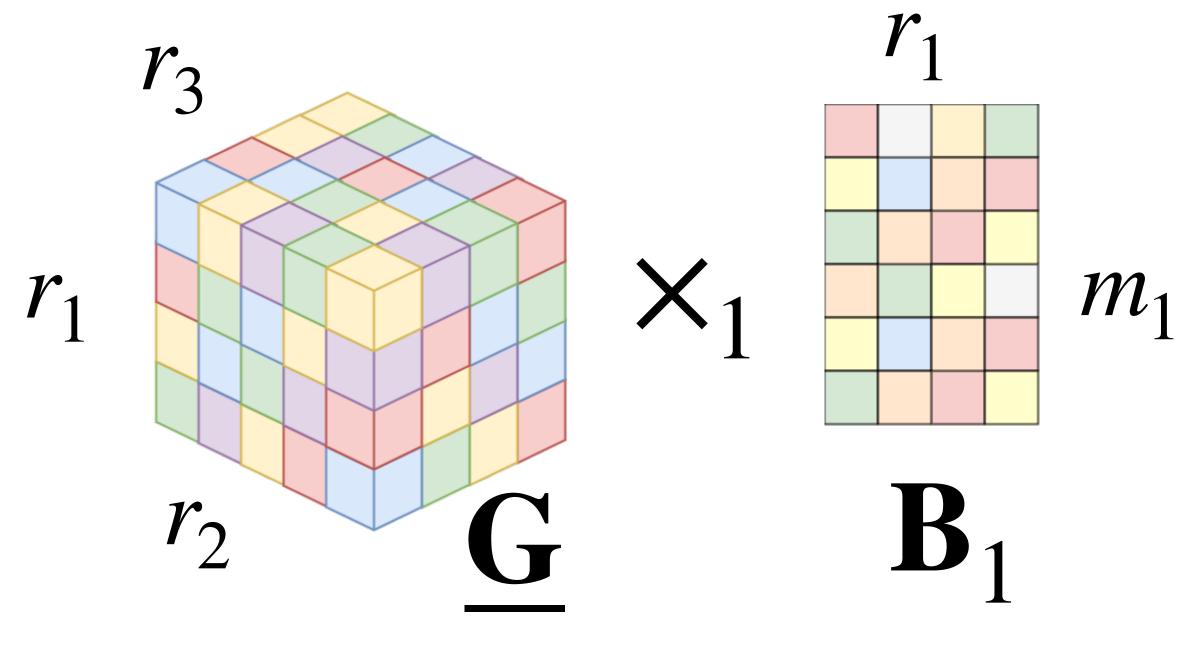


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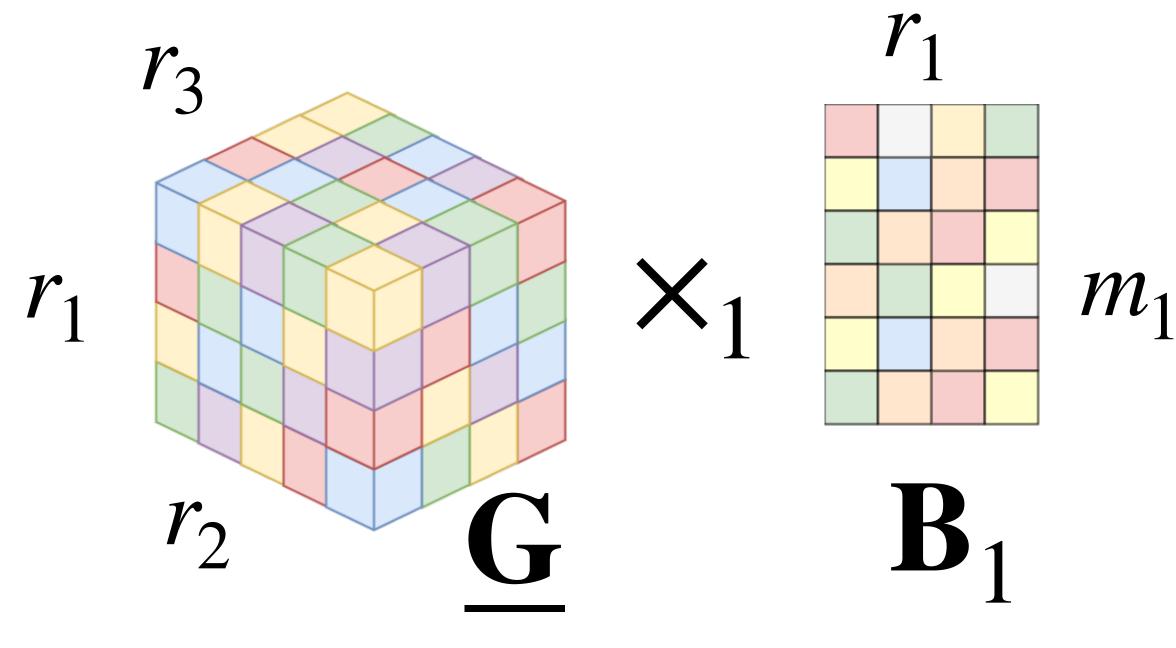
 m_1



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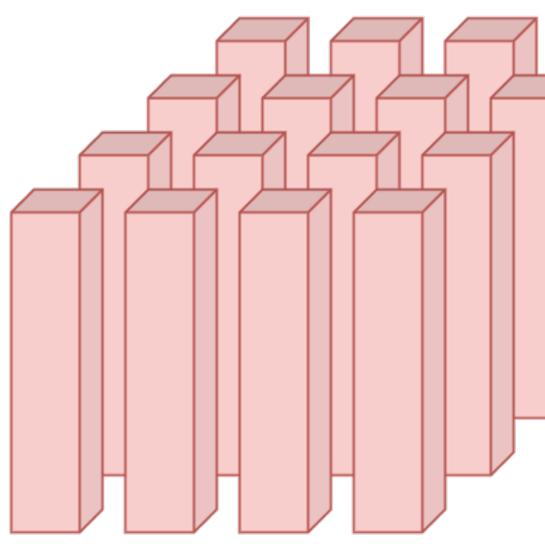




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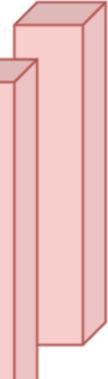
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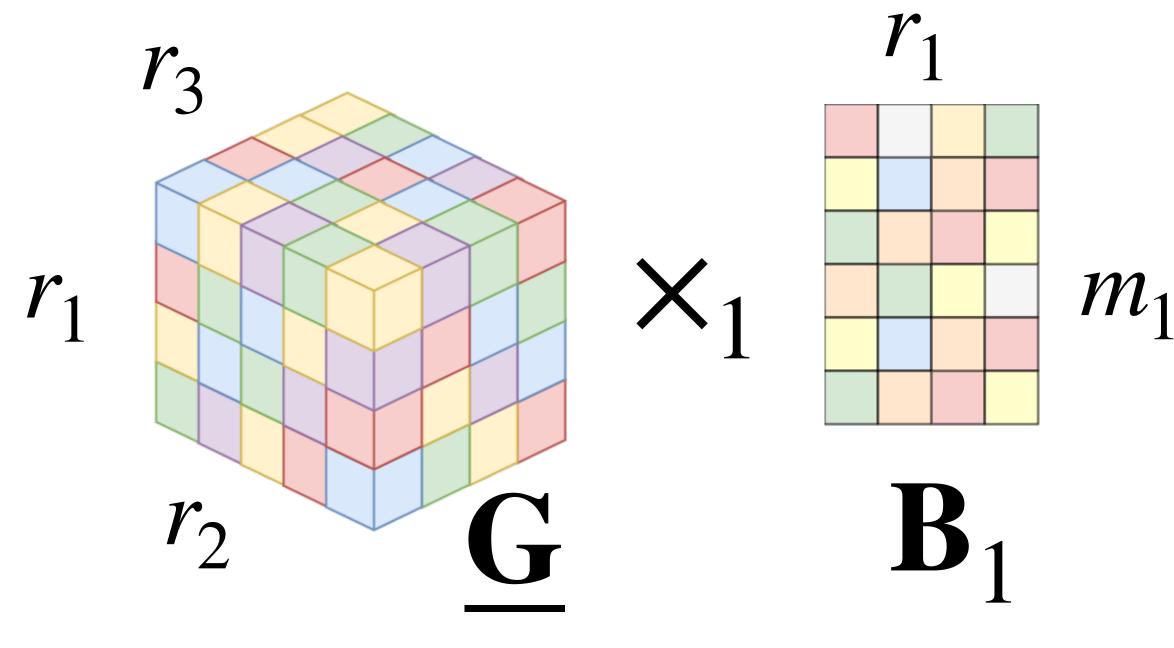




Mode 1 Fibers

- $\mathbf{G} \times_k \mathbf{B}_k$

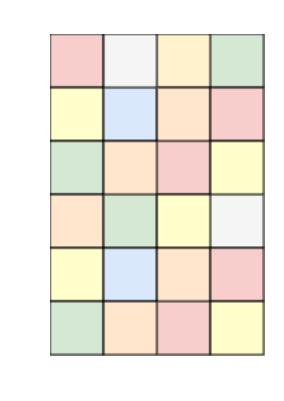


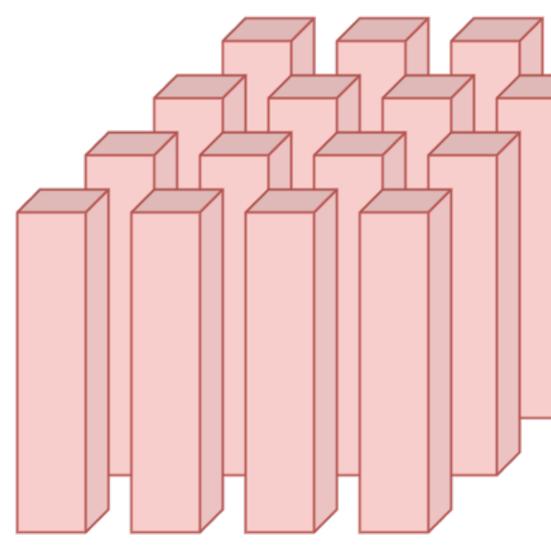


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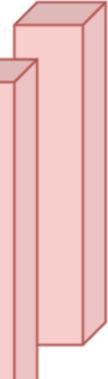


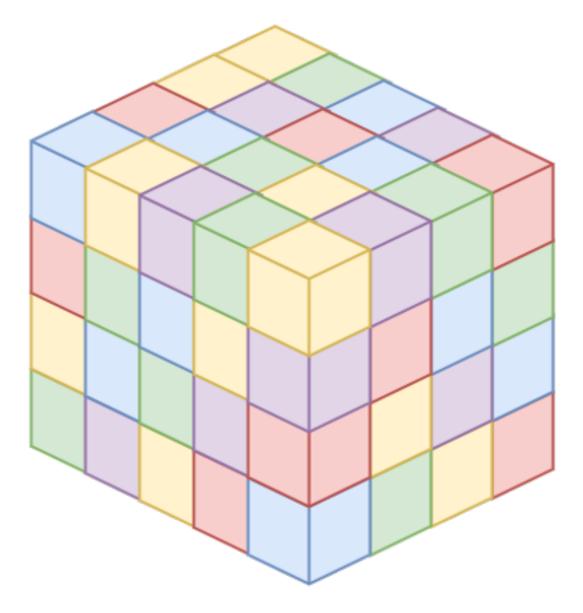


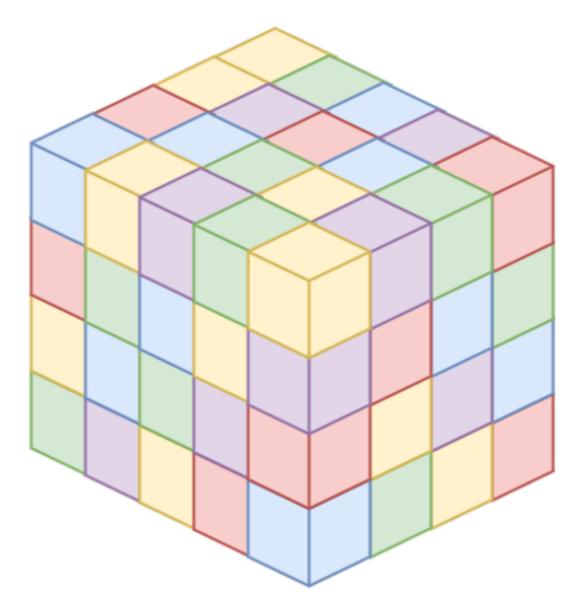


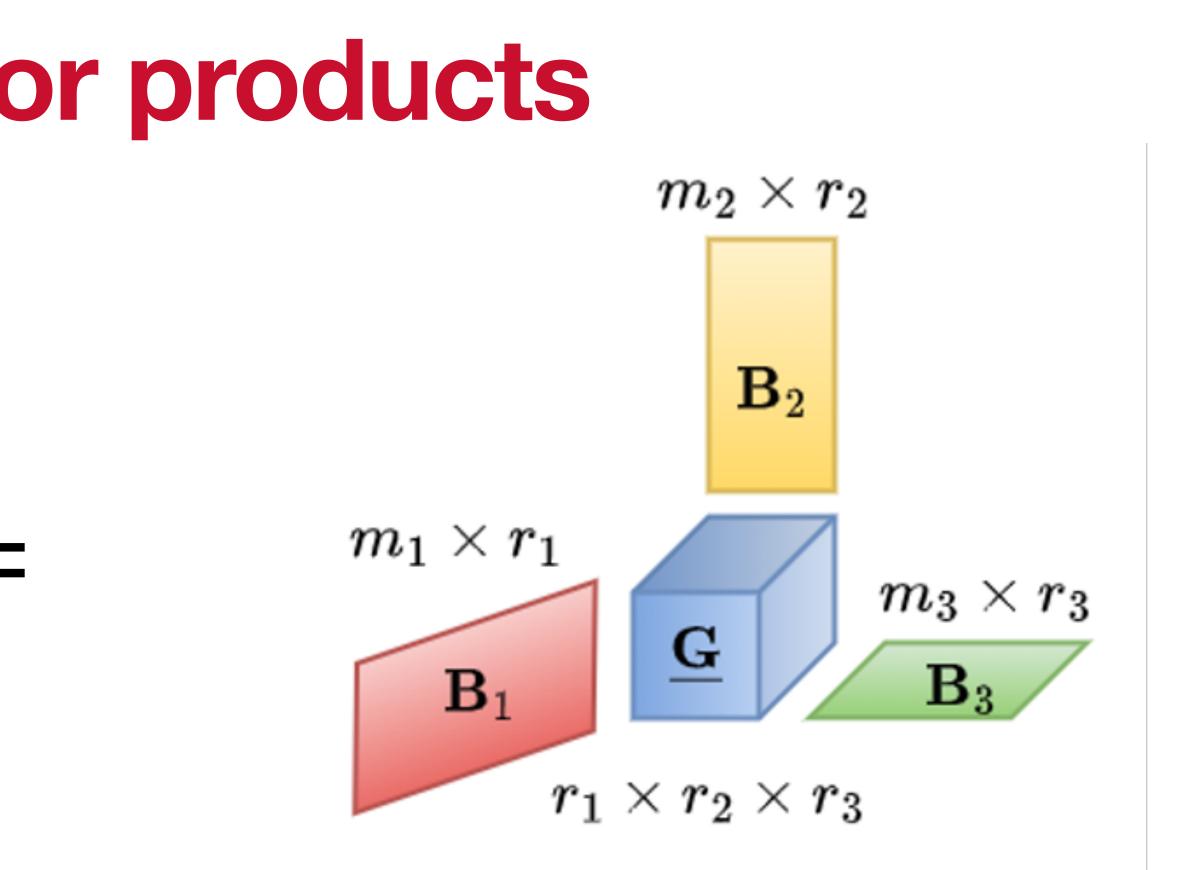
Mode 1 Fibers

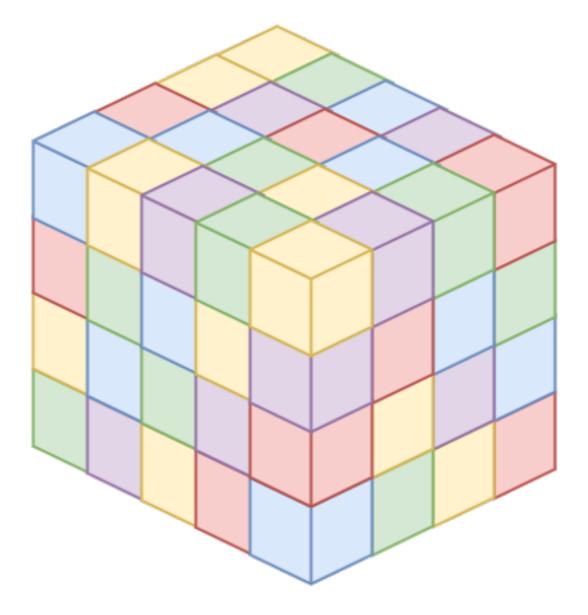
- $\mathbf{\underline{G}} \times_k \mathbf{B}_k$



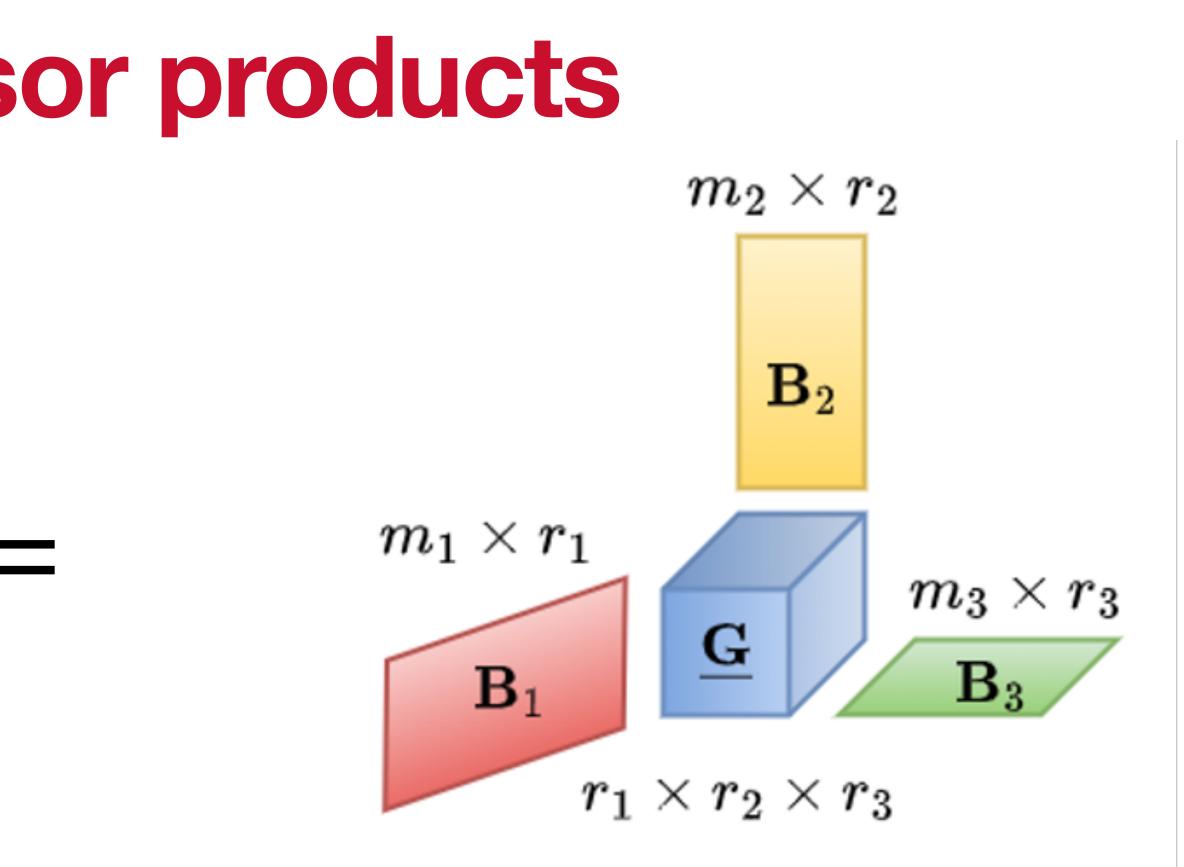






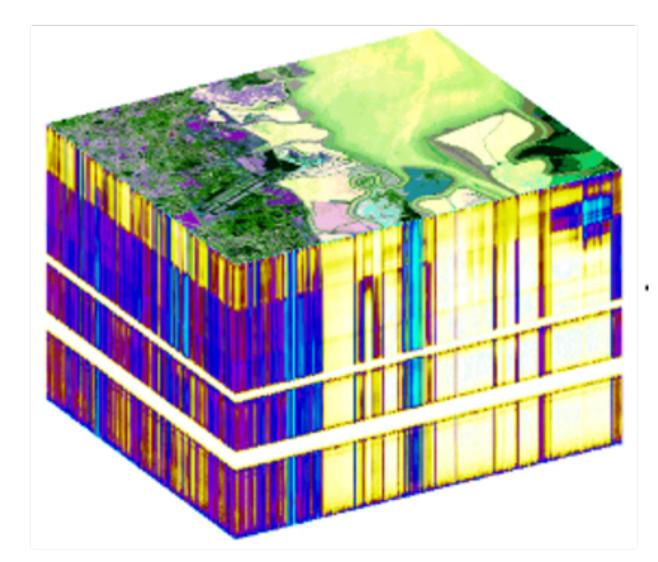


We can change the shape of a tensor with repeated matrixtensor products

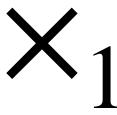


 $\underline{\mathbf{G}} \times_1 \mathbf{B}_1 \times_2 \mathbf{B}_2 \cdots \times_K \mathbf{B}_K = \mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{m_1 \times m_2 \cdots \times m_K}$

Matrix-tensor product example Filtering hyperspectral images









If \underline{X} is a hyperspectral image and L corresponds to the DFT of a lowpass filter, then

$\mathbf{X} \mathbf{X}_1 \mathbf{L}_1$

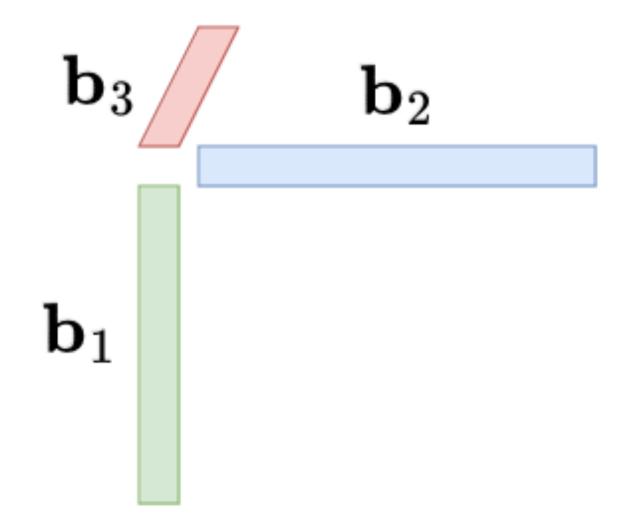
Applies the lowpass filter to the spectrum at each location.



Rank-1 tensors are outer products Trying to get a handle on rank

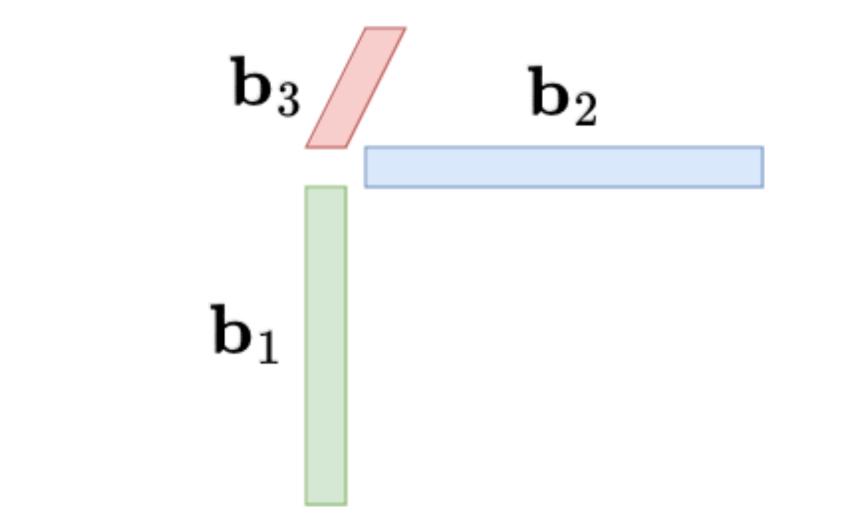
Rank-1 tensors are outer products Trying to get a handle on rank

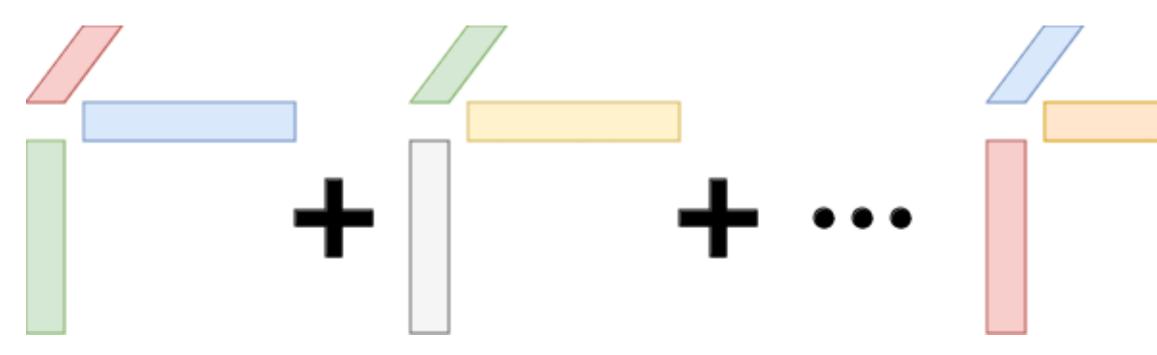
 In 2D this is a rank-1 matrix, and a rank-r matrix can be written as the sum of r rank-1 matrices.



Rank-1 tensors are outer products Trying to get a handle on rank

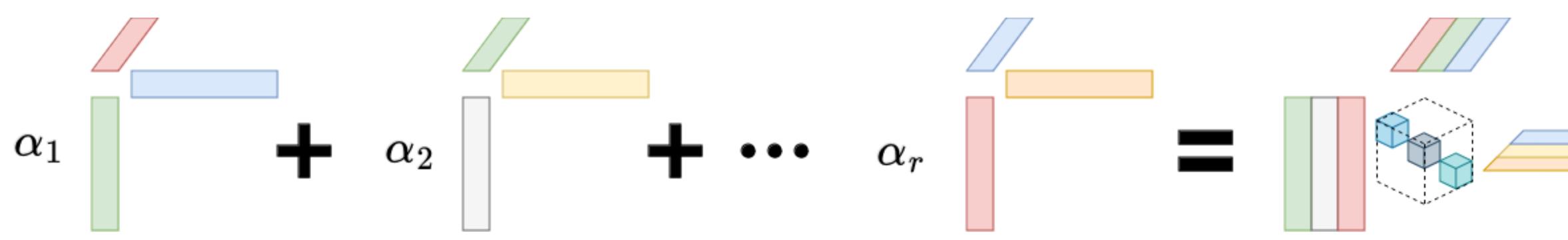
- In 2D this is a rank-1 matrix, and a rank-r matrix can be written as the sum of r rank-1 matrices.
- A matrix has a CANDECOMP/ **PARAFAC (CP)** representation of order r if we can write it as a sum of *r* rank-1 outer products.





CP Decomposition

CP factorization Writing the decomposition with matrix-tensor products



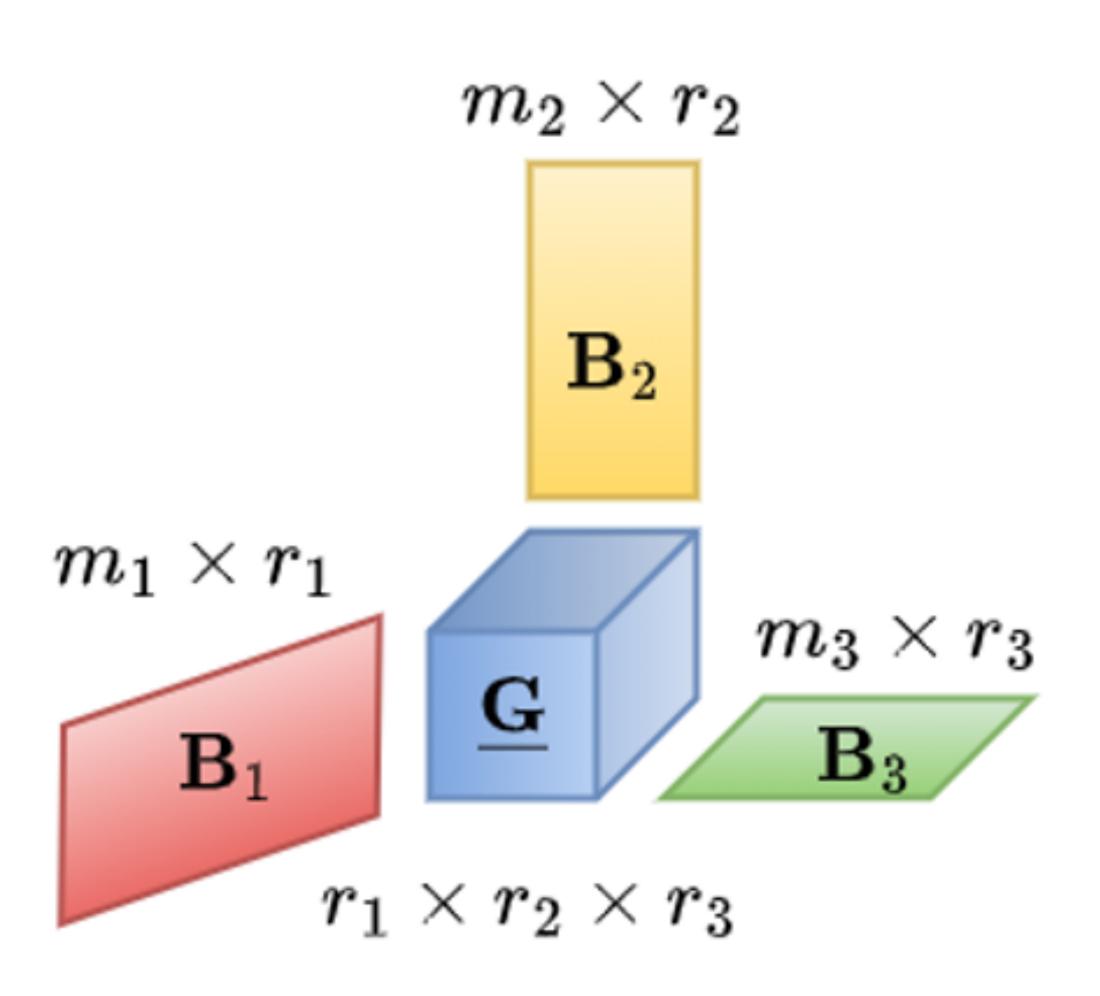
Gather the factors from each mode into matrices and define an $r \times r \times \cdots \times r$ diagonal core tensor <u>G</u>:

$\underline{\mathbf{B}}_{\mathsf{CP}} = \underline{\mathbf{G}} \times_1 \mathbf{I}$

The total number of parameters is r(1 +

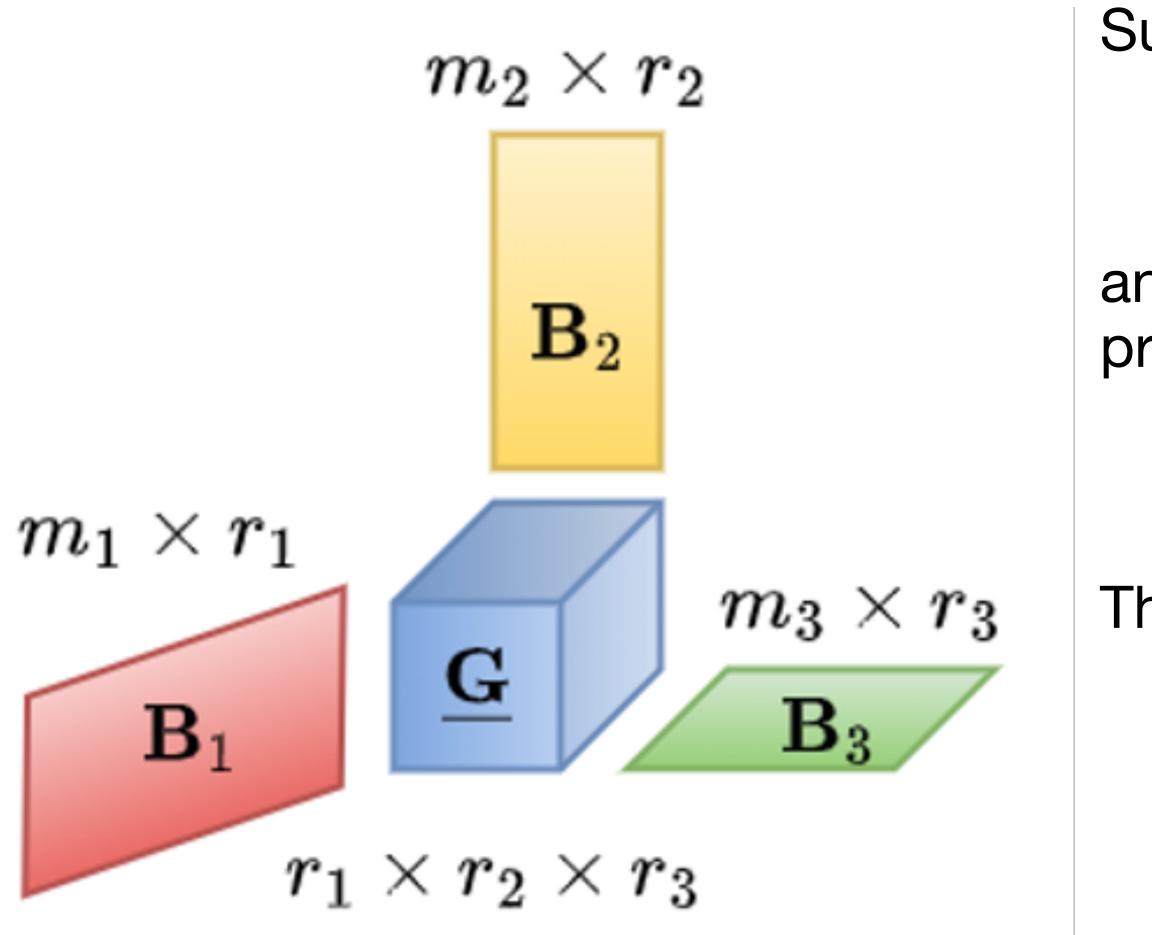
$$\mathbf{B}_{1} \times_{2} \mathbf{B}_{2} \cdots \times_{K} \mathbf{B}_{K}$$
$$\sum_{k=1}^{K} m_{k} \text{) as opposed to } \prod_{k=1}^{K} m_{k}.$$

Tucker decomposition Filling out the core tensor





Tucker decomposition Filling out the core tensor





Suppose we have a core tensor

$$\underline{\mathbf{G}} \in \mathbb{R}^{r_1 \times r_2 \times \cdots \times r_K}$$

and expand the dimensions using matrix-tensor products. This is the **Tucker decomposition**:

$$\underline{\mathbf{B}}_{\mathsf{Tucker}} = \underline{\mathbf{G}} \times_1 \mathbf{B}_1 \times_2 \mathbf{B} \times_3 \mathbf{B}_3$$

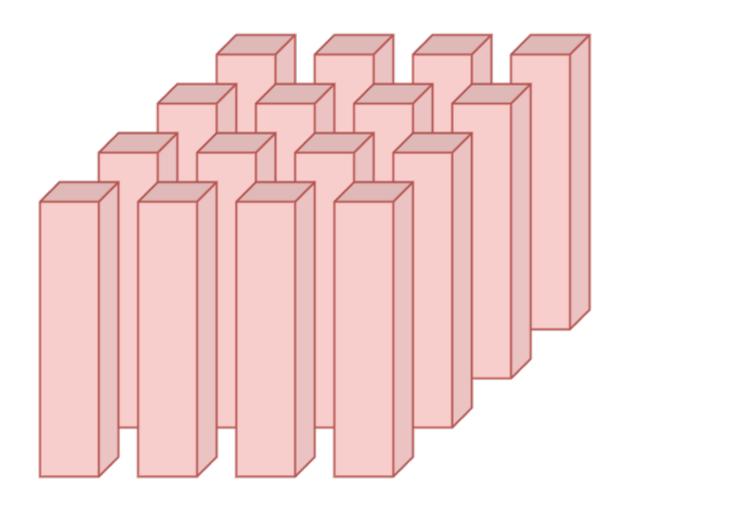
The total number of parameters is

$$\prod_{k=1}^{K} r_k + \sum_{k=1}^{K} m_k r_k$$

Issues with decompositions There are many different definitions of "rank" for tensors

- **CP** rank of \mathbf{B} = smallest number of terms in a CP decomposition (Hitchcock) 1927, Kruskal 1977).
 - The decomposition is (often) unique.
 - Computing the rank is NP-complete for finite fields and NP-hard for \mathbb{Q} (Håstad 1990, resolving a conjecture of Gonzalez and Ja'Ja' 1980).
- Tucker rank is a vector. Decomposition can be computed using the higherorder SVD [HOSVD] or other algorithms (De Lathauwer et al. 2000, also others).
 - Tucker rank is **not** unique.

Matricization **Unfolding or flattening a tensor**

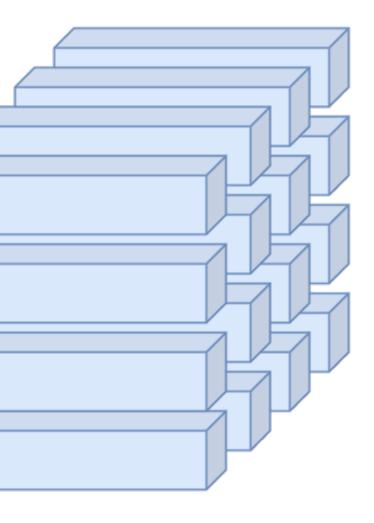


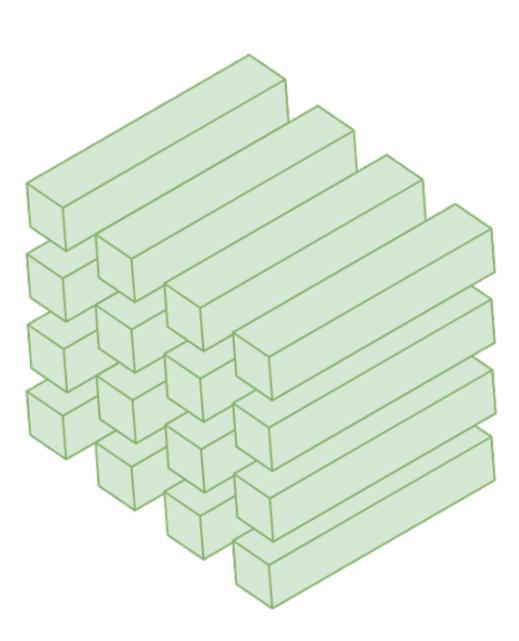
Mode 1 Fibers



An order-K tensor can be rearranged into a matrix in K different ways by rearranging the 1-dimensional fibers in each dimension into a matrix.

We call these the **mode**-k unfoldings of the original tensor.

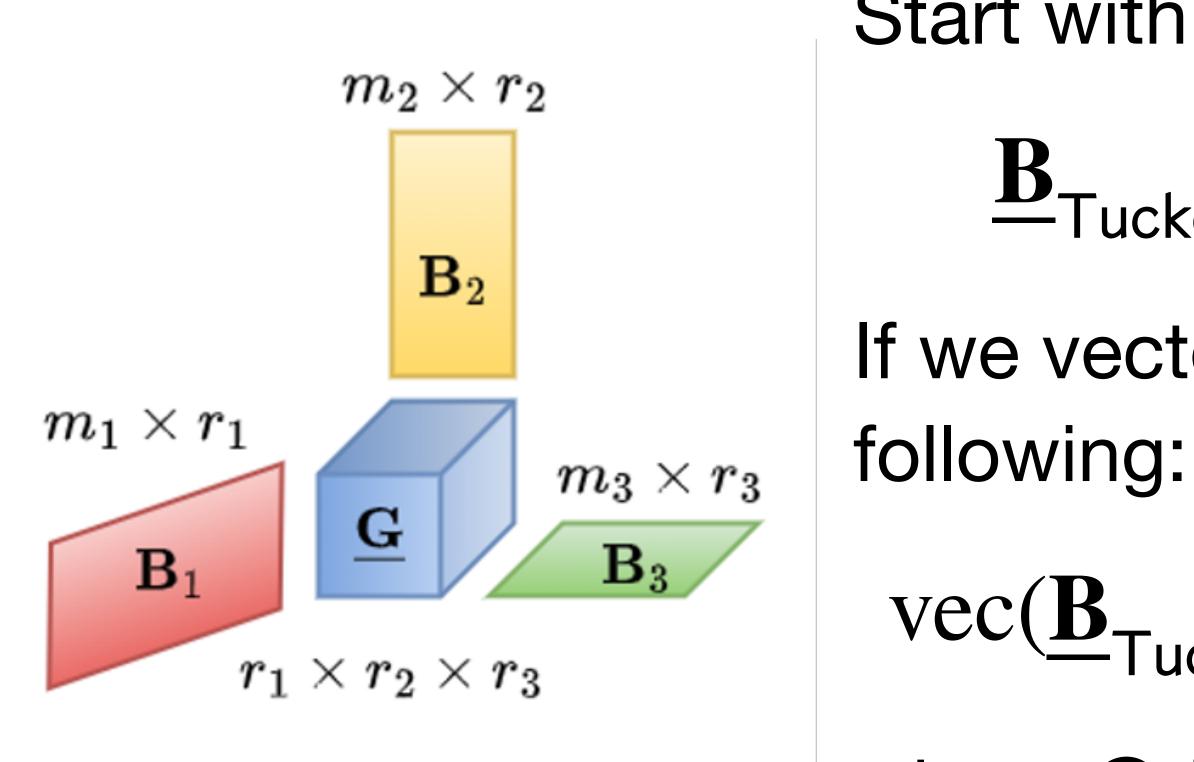




Mode 2 Fibers

Mode 3 Fibers

A different kind of matricization Matrix-tensor products as a matrix vector product



Start with a Tucker factorization:

$$= \mathbf{\underline{G}} \times_1 \mathbf{B}_1 \times_2 \mathbf{B}_2 \cdots \times_K \mathbf{B}_K$$

If we vectorize $\underline{B}_{\mathsf{Tucker}}$, we get get the following:

$$\mathsf{ucker}) = \left(\mathbf{B}_K \otimes \cdots \otimes \mathbf{B}_1\right) \mathsf{vec}(\underline{\mathbf{G}})$$

where \bigotimes is the Kronecker product.

The Kronecker product Matrix-tensor products as a matrix vector product

The Kronecker product makes "copies" of one matrix inside the other: $\mathbf{A} \otimes \mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} \\ \vdots \\ a_{m1} \end{bmatrix}$

Vectorizing shows that the Tucker decomposition

$$\operatorname{vec}(\underline{\mathbf{B}}_{\mathsf{Tucker}}) = (\mathbf{B}_{K})$$

Is somewhat restrictive.

${}_{11}$ B	• • •	$a_{1n}\mathbf{B}$
• •	•	• •
$n^{1}\mathbf{B}$	• • •	$a_{mn}\mathbf{B}$

 $\otimes \cdots \otimes \mathbf{B}_2 \otimes \mathbf{B}_1$ vec(**G**)

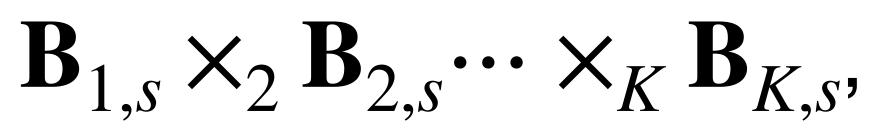
Block tensor decompositions Yet more generality

More recent work has studied block tensor decompositions (Section 5.7, Kolda and Bader 2009), which can written as a mixture of Tucker models:

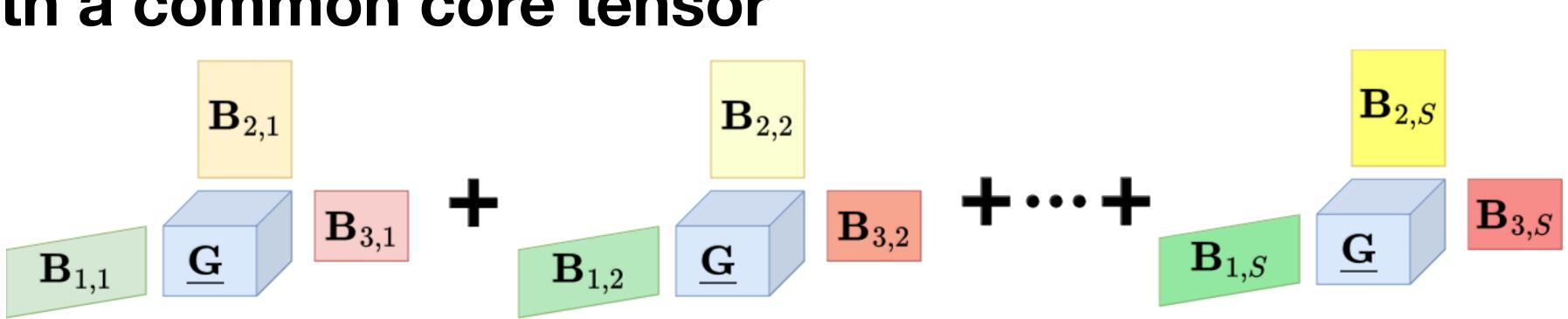
$$\underline{\mathbf{B}}_{\mathsf{BTD}} = \sum_{s=1}^{S} \underline{\mathbf{G}}_{s} \times_{1}$$

This is definitely more flexible! But perhaps too flexible...





Proposal: low separation rank (LSR) tensors BTD with a common core tensor



Special case of the BTD is a low separation rank (LSR) decomposition:

$$\underline{\mathbf{B}}_{\mathsf{LSR}} = \sum_{s=1}^{S} \underline{\mathbf{G}} \times_1 \underline{\mathbf{B}}_{1,s} \times_2 \underline{\mathbf{B}}_{2,s} \cdots \times_K \underline{\mathbf{B}}_{K,s}$$

We use the same core tensor G for each term. We also assume (wlog) that the factor matrices $\{\underline{\mathbf{B}}_{k,s}\}$ have orthonormal columns.



What does separation rank mean? **Back to the matricization**

The separation rank (Tsiligkaridis and Hero, 2013) of a matrix is the minimum number S of terms needed so that

$$\mathbf{M} = \sum_{s=1}^{S} \mathbf{A}_{K,s}$$

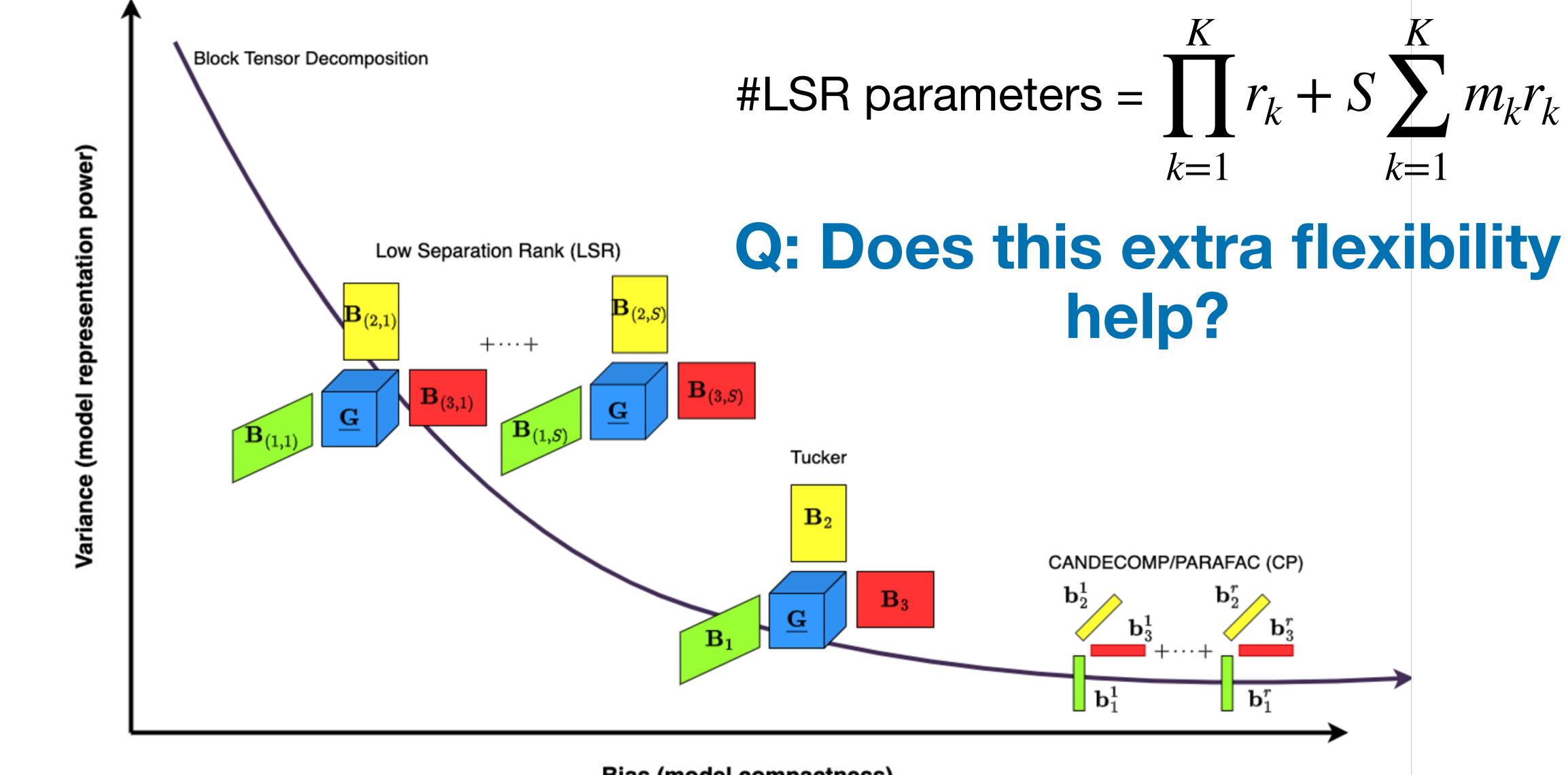
low separation rank

$$\sum_{s=1}^{S} \underline{\mathbf{G}} \times_{1} \underline{\mathbf{B}}_{1,s} \times_{2} \underline{\mathbf{B}}_{2,s} \cdots \times_{K} \underline{\mathbf{B}}_{K,s} = \underline{\mathbf{B}}_{\mathsf{LSR}} \Longrightarrow \left(\sum_{s} \bigotimes_{k} \mathbf{B}_{k}\right) \mathbf{g}$$

$$\otimes \cdots \otimes \mathbf{A}_{2,s} \otimes \mathbf{A}_{1,s}$$

Our LSR model corresponds assuming the matrix-vector product has a matrix with

Comparing different decompositions





Bias (model compactness)



Regression and classification with structured tensors

Generalized linear models for regression Includes linear, logistic, Poisson, etc.

We have a *training* set of *n* tensor-scalar pairs $\{(\underline{\mathbf{X}}_i, y_i)\}$ following a then

generalized linear model (GLM). Our goal: estimate B s.t. if $\eta = \langle B, X \rangle$

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 $p(y;\eta) = b(y)ex$

generalized linear model (GLM). Our goal: estimate B s.t. if $\eta = \langle B, X \rangle$

$$\exp\left(-\eta T(y)-a(\eta)\right).$$

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$$p(y;\eta) = b(y)\exp\left(-\eta T(y) - a(\eta)\right).$$

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That is, y is from an *exponential family*. One example is *logistic regression*:

We have a training set of n tensor-scalar pairs $\{(\underline{\mathbf{X}}_i, y_i)\}$ following a then

$$p(y;\eta) = b(y)\exp\left(-\eta T(y) - a(\eta)\right).$$

That is, y is from an *exponential family*. One example is *logistic regression*: $y \sim \text{Bernoulli} \left(-\frac{1}{2} \right)$

generalized linear model (GLM). Our goal: estimate B s.t. if $\eta = \langle B, X \rangle$

$$\frac{1}{1 + \exp(-\langle \mathbf{B}, \mathbf{X} \rangle)}$$

We look LSR models for GLMs:

• CP + logistic regression (Tan et al., 2012)

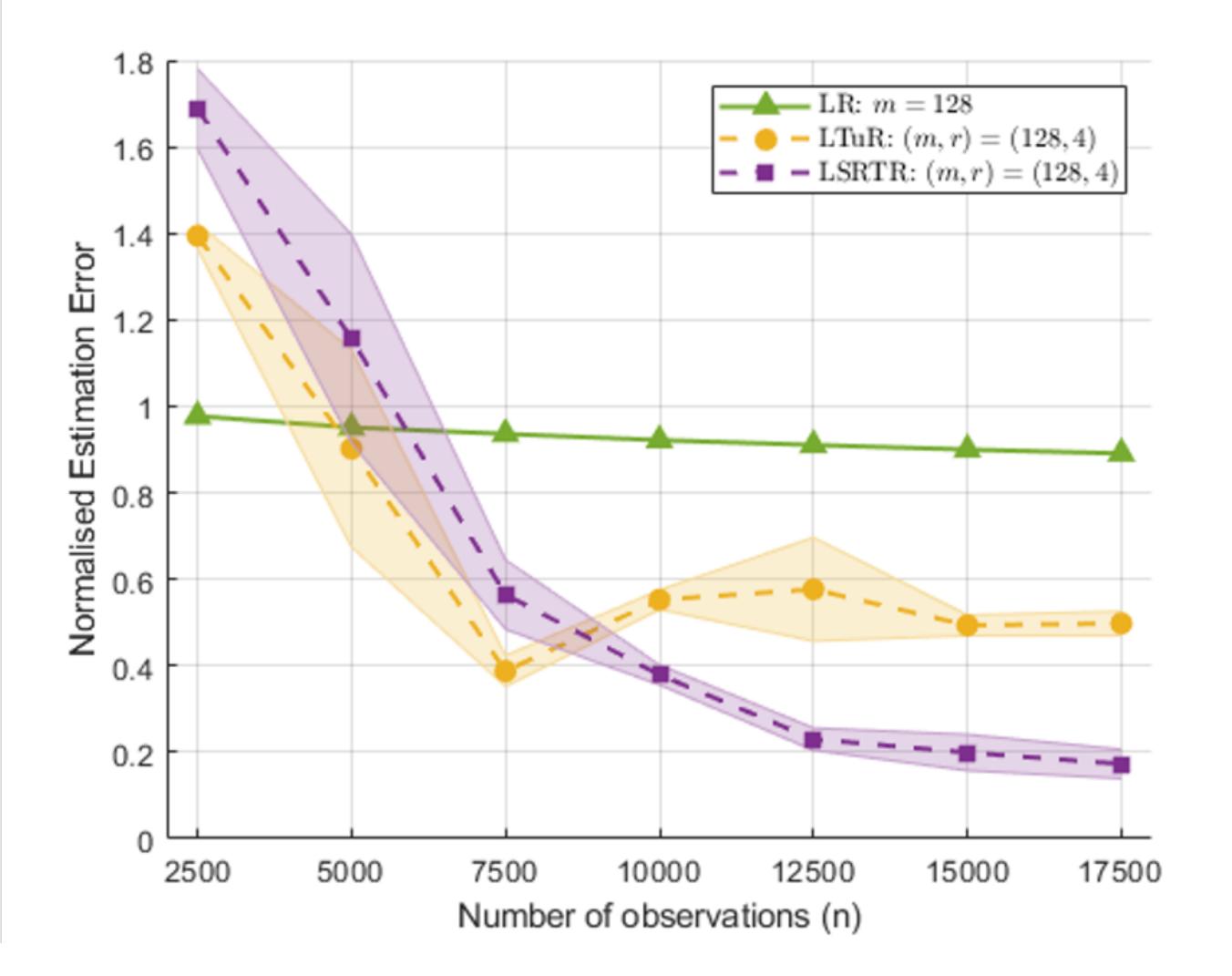
- CP + logistic regression (Tan et al., 2012)
- CP + GLMs (Zhou et al. 2014)

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- Tucker + logistic regression (Zhang et al. 2016)
- Tucker + GLMs (Li et al., 2018; Zhou et al., 2013)

The benefits of more flexible modeling Taking advantage of more data



LSR models let use scale the number of parameters to the data set size.

Synthetic data experiments show that with a modest number of samples, LSR models are better than vectorizing or using a Tucker model.

Mapping the tensor to a matrix Using the LSR matrix in the vectorized problem

Mapping the tensor to a matrix Using the LSR matrix in the vectorized problem

Under an LSR model, we have

$$\eta = \left\langle \sum_{s=1}^{S} \underline{\mathbf{G}} \times_{1} \mathbf{B}_{(1,s)} \right\rangle$$

 $\times_2 \mathbf{B}_{(2,s)} \times_3 \cdots \times_K \mathbf{B}_{(K,s)}, \underline{\mathbf{X}} \right\rangle$

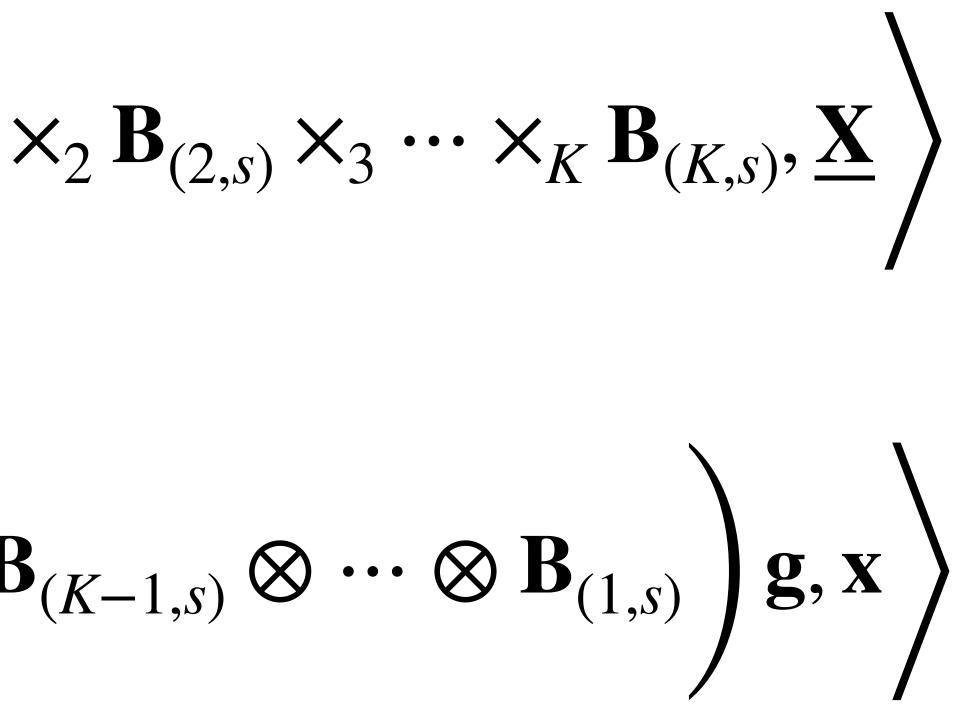
Mapping the tensor to a matrix Using the LSR matrix in the vectorized problem

Under an LSR model, we have

$$\eta = \left\langle \sum_{s=1}^{S} \mathbf{\underline{G}} \times_{1} \mathbf{B}_{(1,s)} \right\rangle$$

Vectorizing:

$$\eta = \left\langle \left(\sum_{s=1}^{S} \mathbf{B}_{(K,s)} \otimes \mathbf{B} \right) \right\rangle$$



Space of LSR models Using the LSR matrix in the vectorized problem

Suppose we are given $(r_1, r_2, ..., r_K, S)$. Then define $\mathscr{C}_{\mathsf{LSR},S} = \left\{ \underline{\mathbf{B}} : \underline{\mathbf{B}} = \sum_{s=1}^{S} \underbrace{\mathbf{B}}_{s=1} \right\}$

where for each (k, s), the columns of $\mathbf{B}_{(k,s)}$ are orthonormal.

This the the space we have to optimize over to select an LSR model for our regression parameter.

$$\underline{\mathbf{G}} \times_1 \mathbf{B}_{(1,s)} \times_2 \cdots \times_K \mathbf{B}_{(K,s)} \bigg\},$$

Maximum likelihood Sorry, but it's really messy

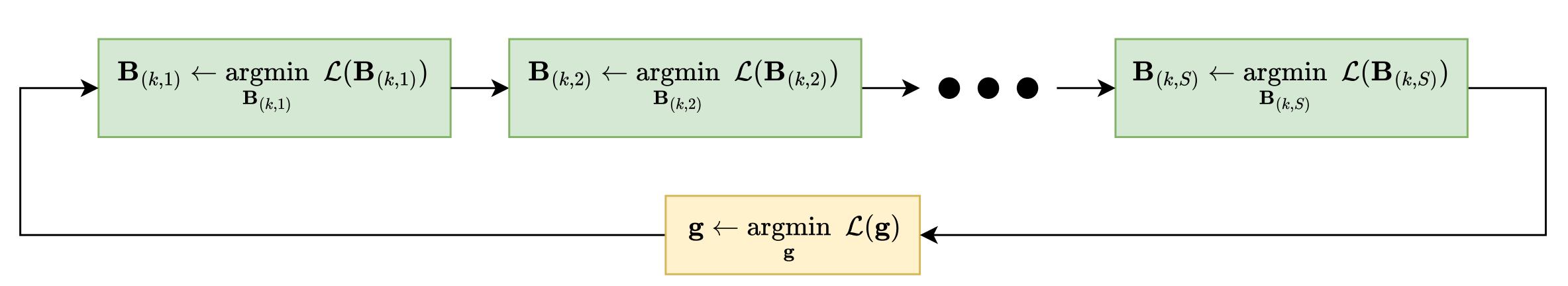
The MLE can is computed by minimizing

Over all $\mathbf{B}_{k,s} \in \mathbb{O}^{m_k \times r_k}$ and $\mathbf{g} \in \mathbb{R}^{r_1 r_2 \cdots r_K}$.

Note: if we fix all matrices but one and then optimize over that one, it is tractable...

 $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left| \left\langle \left(\sum_{s=1}^{S} \bigotimes_{k} \mathbf{B}_{(k,s)} \right) \mathbf{g}, \mathbf{x}_{i} \right\rangle T(y_{i}) - a \left(\left\langle \left(\sum_{s=1}^{S} \bigotimes_{k} \mathbf{B}_{(k,s)} \right) \mathbf{g}, \mathbf{x}_{i} \right\rangle \right) \right| \right|$

Alternating minimization: LSR-TR Seems to work well in practice



Use alternating minimization cycling through each $\mathbf{B}_{(k,s)}$ and then \mathbf{g} .

descent on g.

Convergence guarantees: work in progress.

- In particular, use projected gradient descent on each $\mathbf{B}_{(k,s)}$ and regular gradient

Experiments on medical imaging data **Data sets and algorithms**

(Yang et al., 2020).

Other algorithms:

- **TTR**: Tucker + GLMs using a 'block relaxation' algorithm (Li et al., 2018)
- LTuR: Tucker + logistic regression with Frobenius norm regularization (Zhang & Jiang, 2016)
- LR: Unstructured + logistic regression (Seber & Lee, 2003)
- LCPR: CP + logistic regression (Tan et al., 2013)

Data sets: ABIDE Autism [fMRI] (Craddock et al., 2013 2020), Vessel MNIST 3D [MRA]

ABIDE Autism data set A tiny data set: K = 2, m = (111, 116), n = 80

	\mathbf{SVM}
Sensitivity	0.71
Specificity	0.14
F1 score	0.55
\mathbf{AUC}	0.42
Average Accuracy	0.43

- Chose ranks $r_1 = 6$ and $r_2 = 6$ with S = 2.
- Unstructured models are quite bad in the undersampled regime.
- Adding one more Tucker component can give significant improvements.



\mathbf{LR}	LCPR	LTuR	LSRTR
0.71	0.71	0.71	1
0.71	0.85	0.85	0.85
0.71	0.77	0.77	0.93
0.51	0.84	0.84	0.9
0.71	0.78	0.78	0.92

VesselMNIST 3D **Comparing against a DNN too:** K = 3, r = (28, 28, 28), n = 1335

	\mathbf{SVM}	\mathbf{LR}	LCPR	LTuR	LSRTR	ResNet 50 + 3D
Sensitivity	0.39	0.53	0.26	0.32	0.47	0.85
Specificity	0.95	0.55	0.946	0.94	0.96	0.86
$\mathbf{F}1 \ \mathbf{score}$	0.44	0.21	0.3	0.37	0.55	0.57
\mathbf{AUC}	0.84	0.52	0.6	0.66	0.81	0.9
Average Accuracy	0.89	0.55	0.869	0.87	0.91	0.85

- Chose ranks $r_1 = 3$, $r_2 = 3$, $r_3 = 3$, and S = 2
- LSRTR has better accuracy but worse F1 and AUC (see paper).
- Issues such as overfitting, interpretability, etc. are still open.

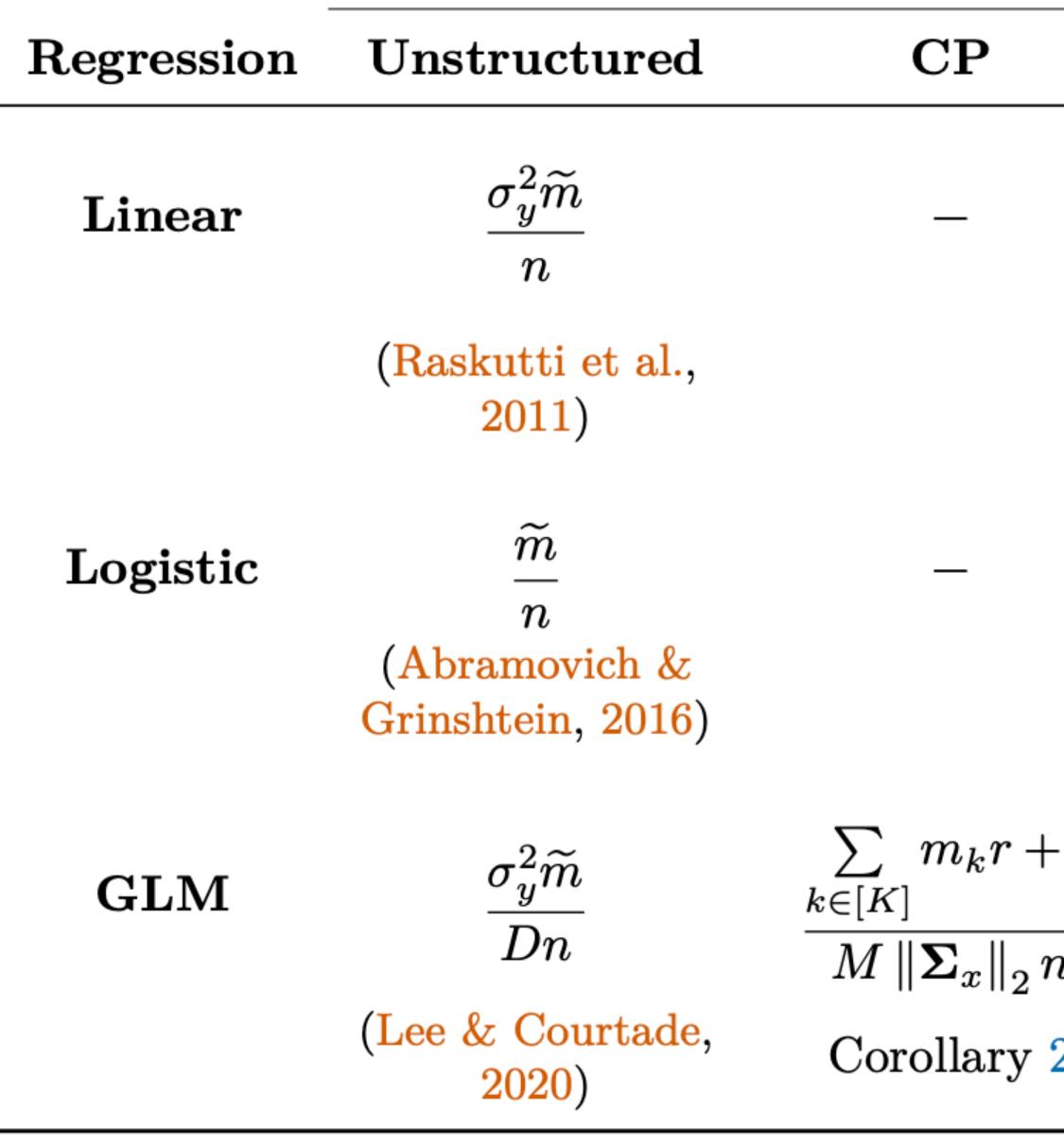
What about the theory? Lower bounds yes, upper bounds in progress...

Bajwa, 2023) can prove a lower bound on the MSE of estimating \mathbf{B}^* :

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\left\|\underline{\mathbf{B}}^{*}-\underline{\widehat{\mathbf{B}}}\right\|_{F}^{2}\right] = \Omega\left(\frac{S\sum_{k}(m_{k}-1)r_{k}+\prod_{k}(r_{k}-1)-1}{\left\|\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{x}\right\|_{2}n}\right)$$

We can specialize this result to the Tucker and CP cases as well.

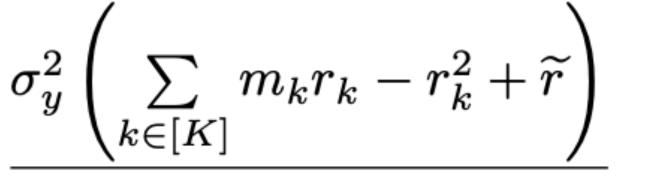
Suppose our data was generated with an LSR tensor $\underline{\mathbf{B}}^*$ We (Taki, S.



Structure of $\underline{\mathbf{B}}$

Tucker

 \mathbf{LSR}



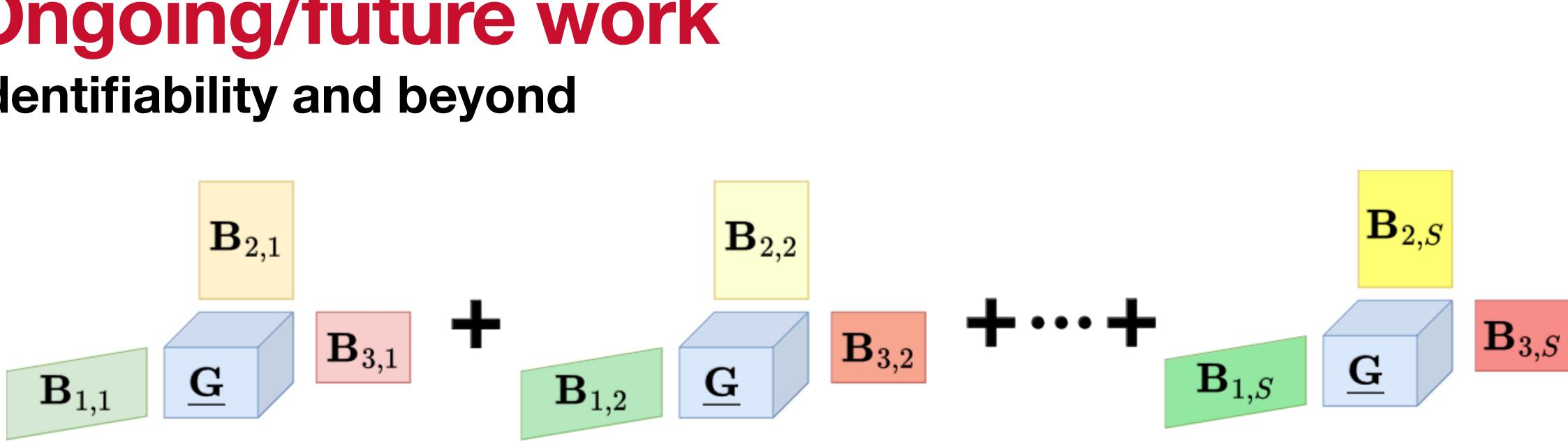
n

(Zhang et al., 2020)

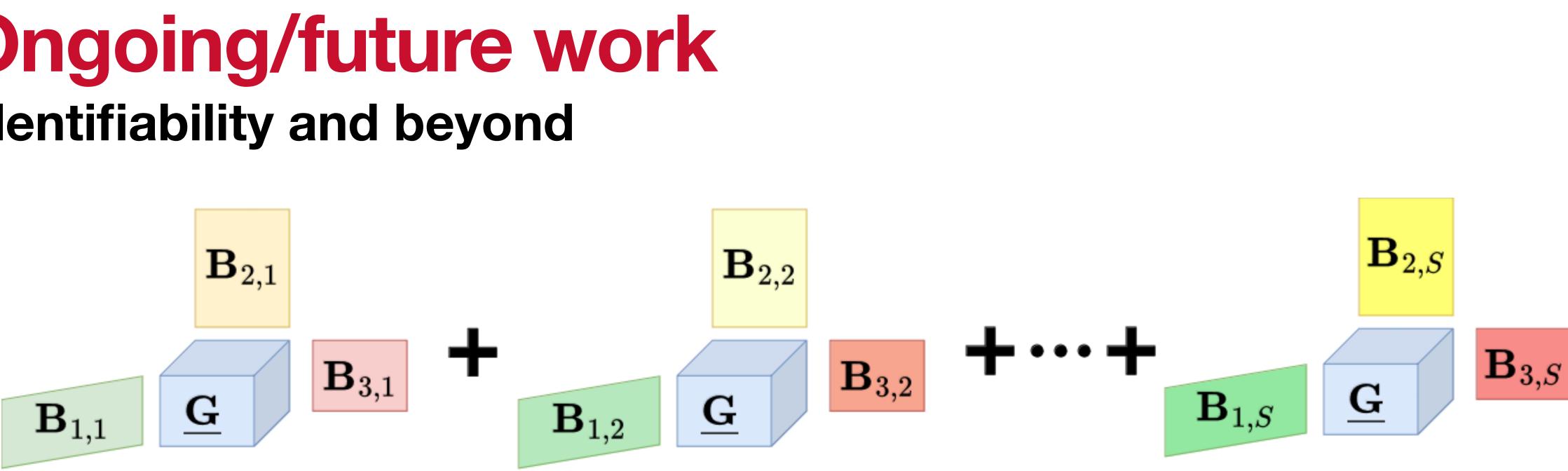
$$\frac{-r}{n} \qquad \qquad \frac{\sum\limits_{k \in [K]} m_k r_k + \widetilde{r}}{M \| \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_x \|_2 n} \qquad \qquad \frac{S \sum\limits_{k \in [K]} m_k r_k + \widetilde{r}}{M \| \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_x \|_2 n}$$

$$2 \qquad \qquad \text{Corollary 1} \qquad \qquad \text{Theorem 6}$$

 \widetilde{r}

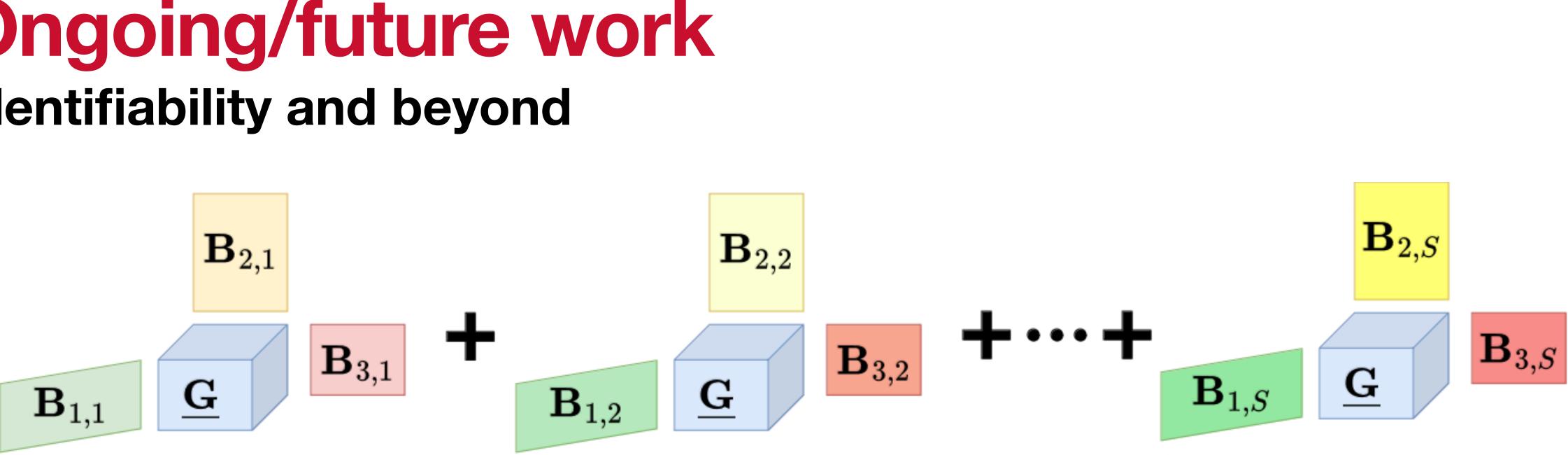






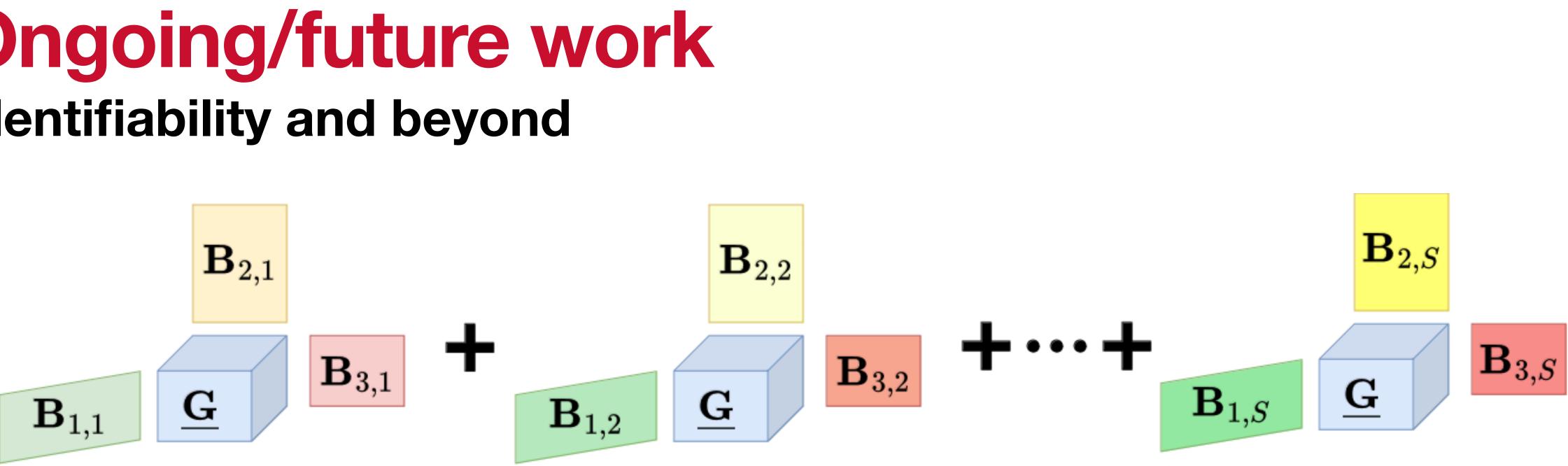
Determine conditions so that LSR factors are (locally) identifiable.





- Understand the analytical properties of the LSR set.

Determine conditions so that LSR factors are (locally) identifiable.

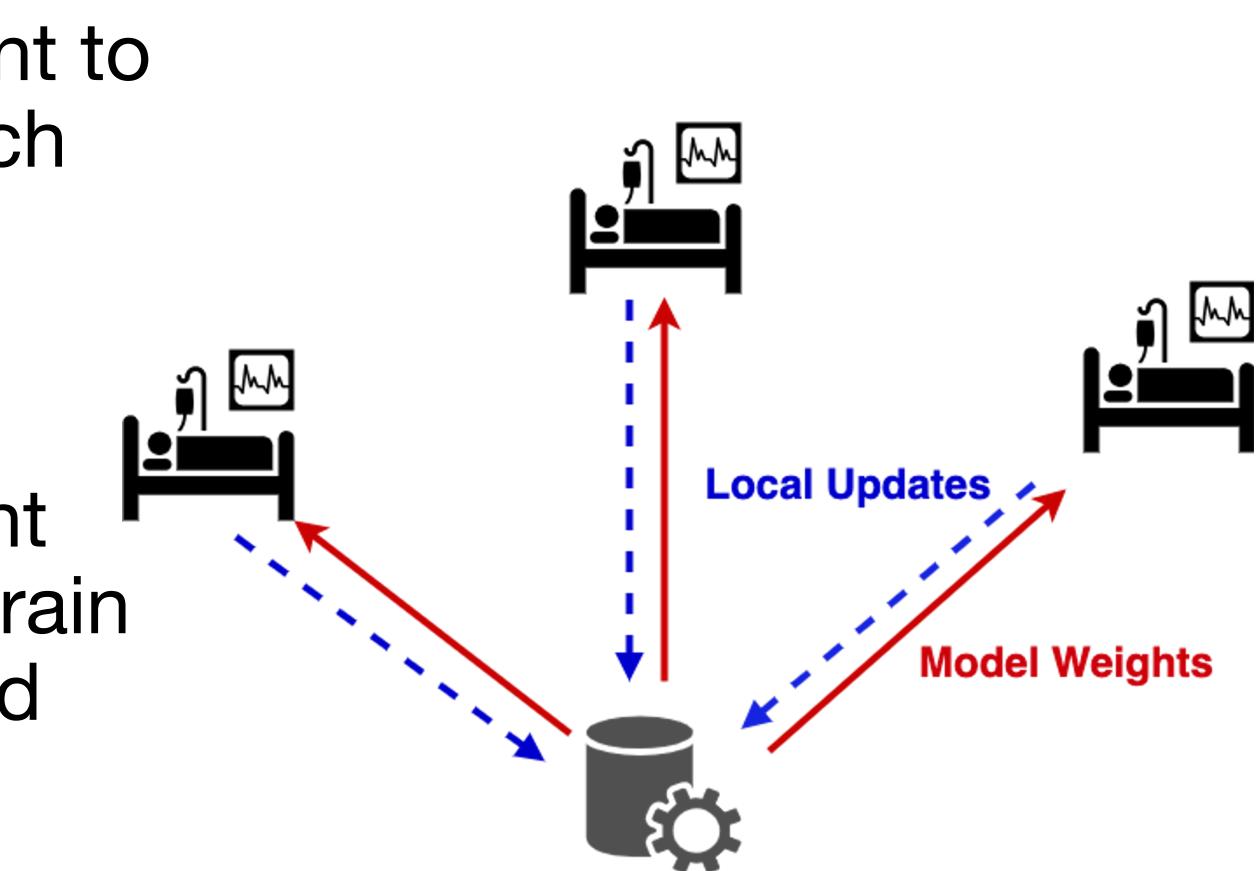


- Determine conditions so that LSR factors are (locally) identifiable. Understand the analytical properties of the LSR set.
- Find a convergence analysis for alternating minimization.

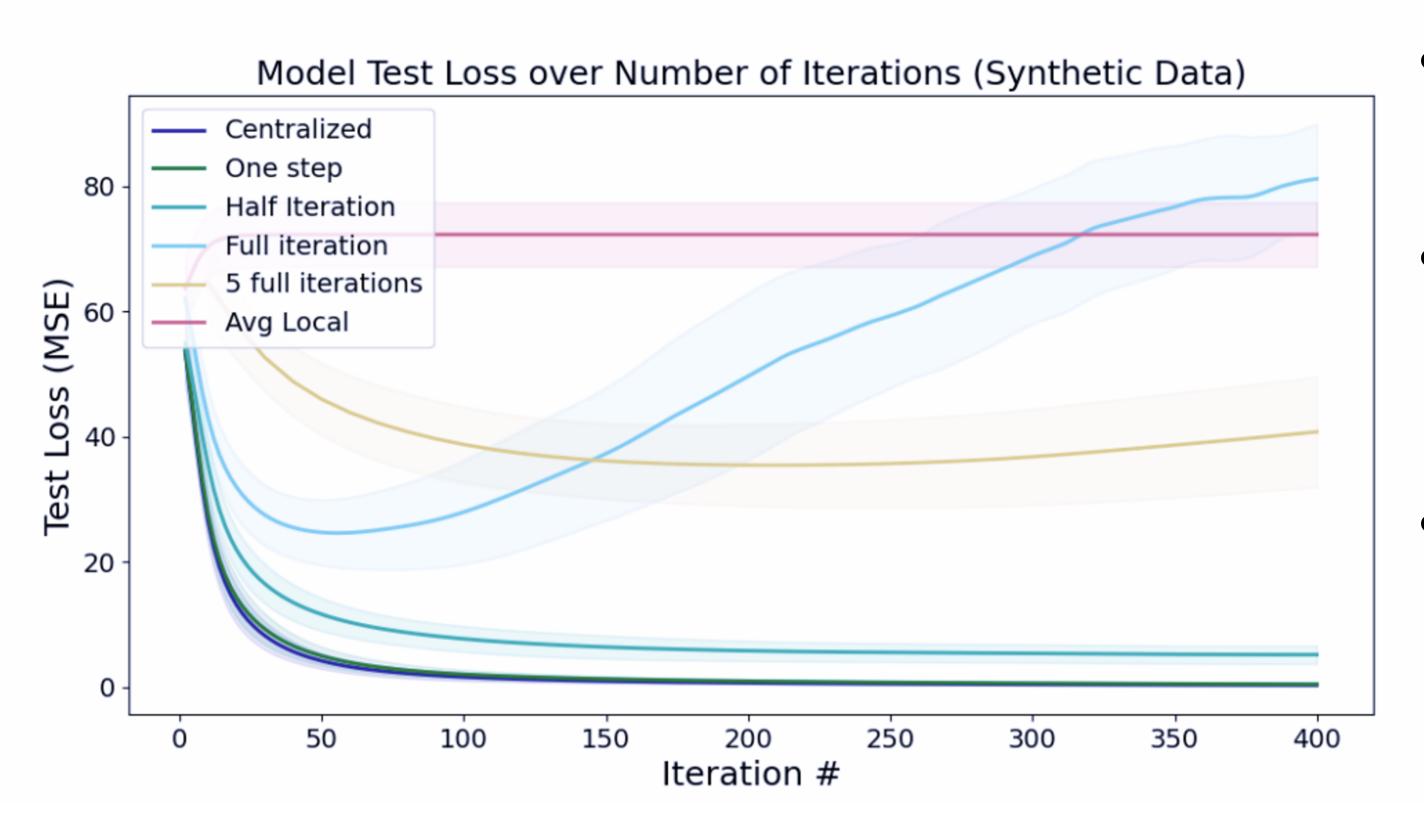
Federated learning from tensor valued data Tensor data are often hard to acquire

In "federated learning" we want to efficiently learn from data which are held at different sites.

If we have MRI data at different research groups, can we still train a regression model with limited communication?



Balancing local and global updates Empirical results are promising but preliminary

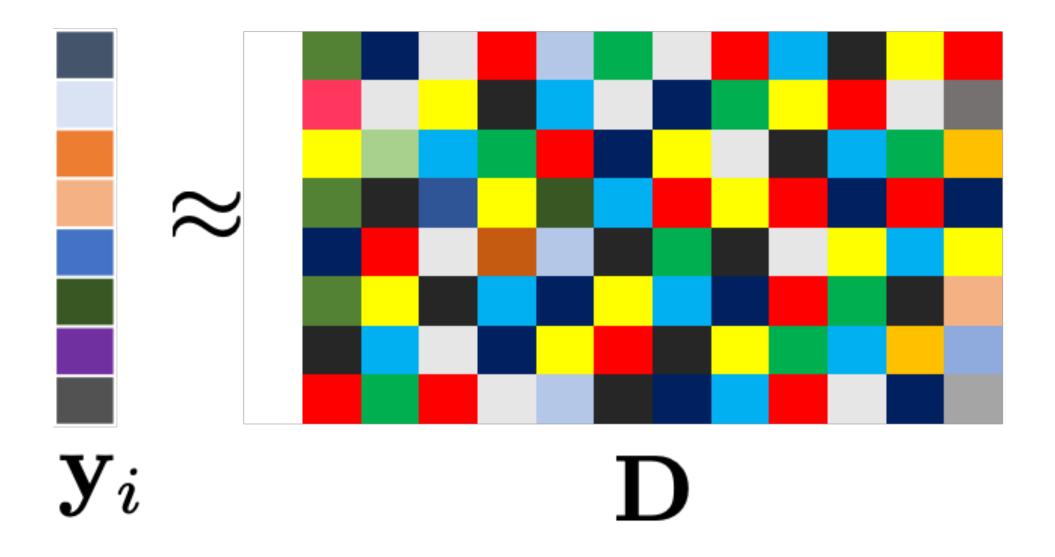


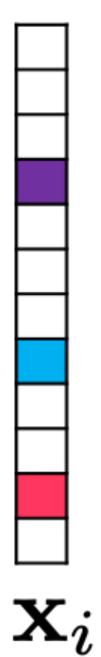
(Sanchez, Taki, Bajwa, S., 2024)

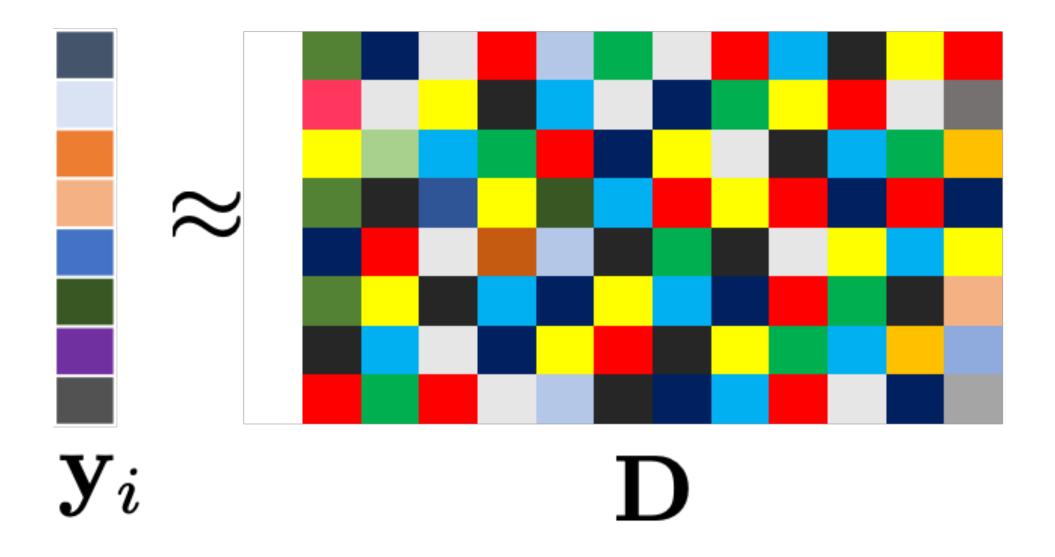
- Need tight coupling between local and centralized updates.
- Poses a challenge when communication reliability is a bottleneck.
- Lots of interesting work on the applications/engineering side!

Representation learning

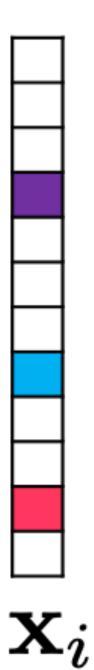
with structured tensors (optional)

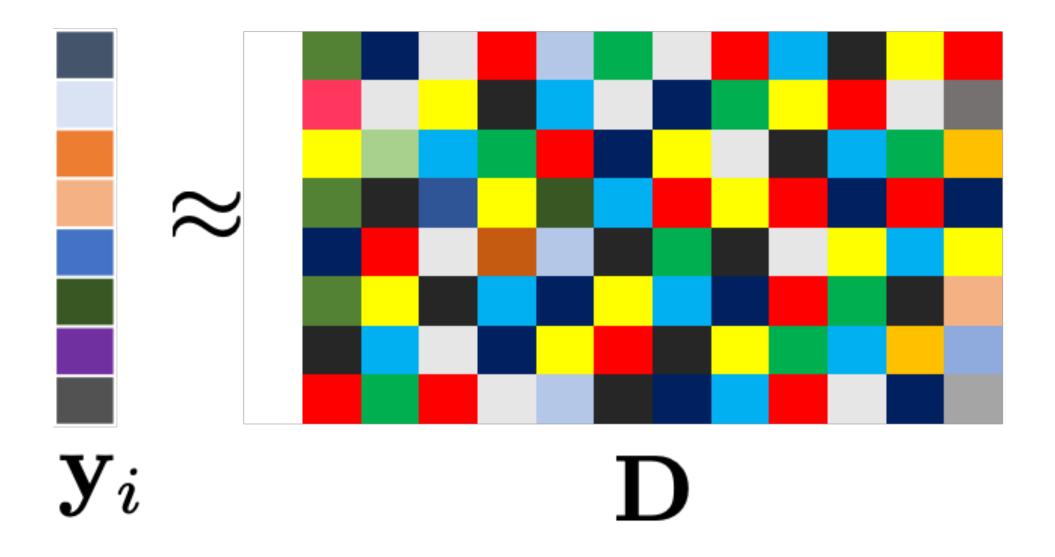






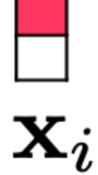
Given data $\{\mathbf{y}_i\}$, learn a sparse representation:

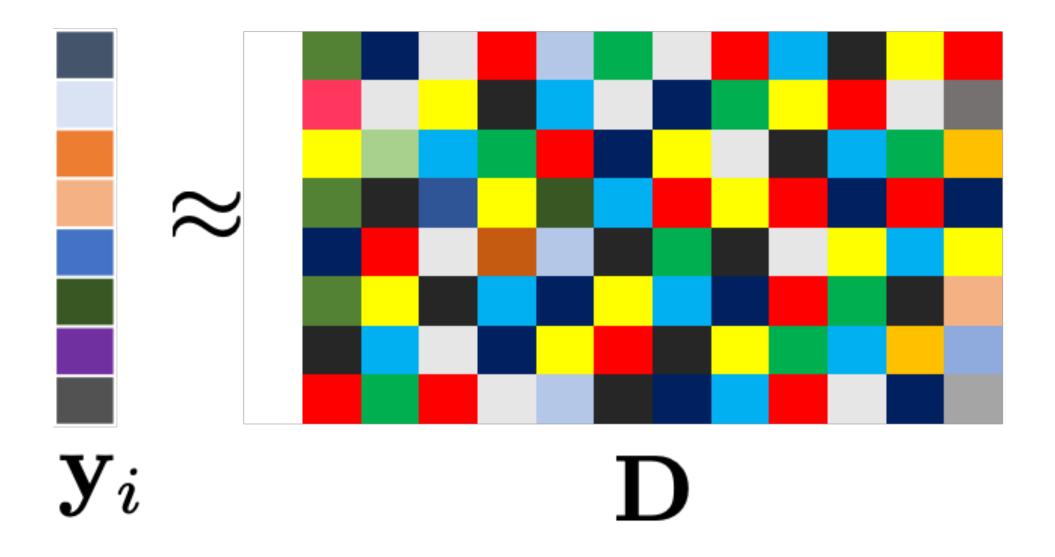




Given data $\{\mathbf{y}_i\}$, learn a sparse representation:

$\mathbf{y}_i = \mathbf{D}\mathbf{x}_i + \mathbf{w}_i.$



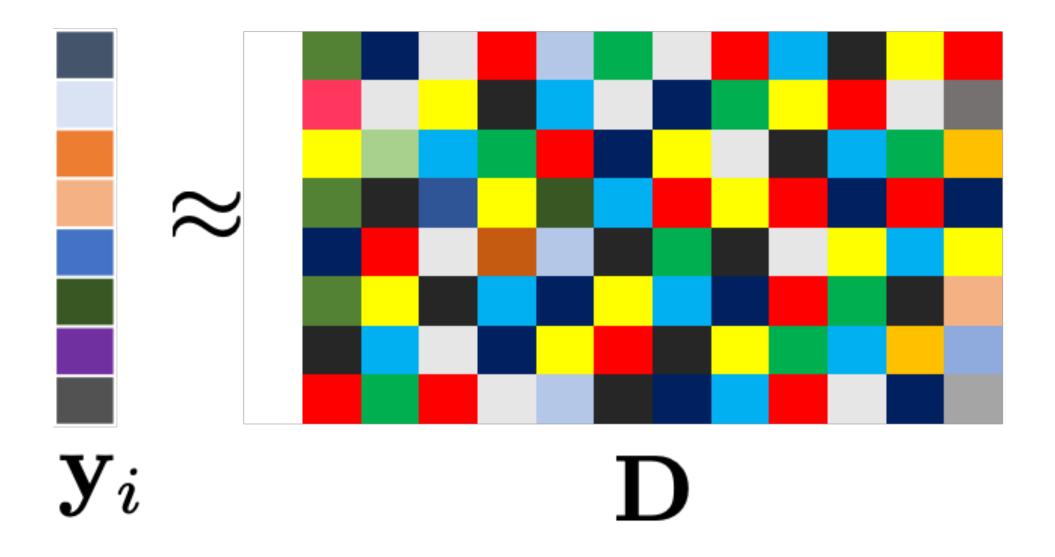


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D is a *dictionary* whose columns are *atoms*.

 \mathbf{X}_i



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D is a dictionary whose columns are atoms.

 \mathbf{X}_i

Coefficient vector **x**_i selects s columns of **D**.



Dictionary learning for tensor data How can we do the same thing but for tensors?

sparse representation for this data?

We observe tensor data $\underline{\mathbf{Y}}_1, \underline{\mathbf{Y}}_2, ..., \underline{\mathbf{Y}}_L \in \mathbb{R}^{m_1 \times m_2 \times \cdots \times m_K}$. Can we learn a

sparse representation for this data?

Look at the vectorized model:

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 $\operatorname{vec}(\underline{\mathbf{Y}}_{i}) = \mathbf{y}_{i} \approx \mathbf{D}\mathbf{x}_{i}$

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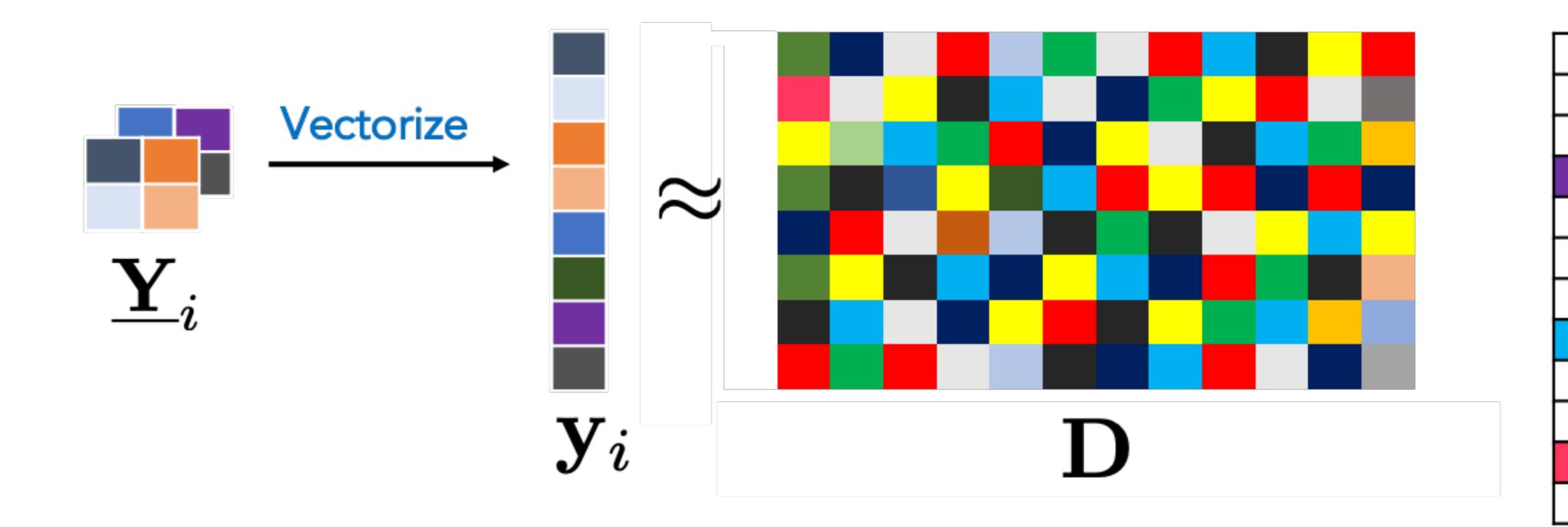
Look at the vectorized model:

We want to estimate a *dictionary* $\mathbf{D} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times p}$ such that the coefficient vectors \mathbf{x}_i are sparse. Here $m = \prod m_k$.

We observe tensor data $\underline{\mathbf{Y}}_1, \underline{\mathbf{Y}}_2, \dots, \underline{\mathbf{Y}}_L \in \mathbb{R}^{m_1 \times m_2 \times \dots \times m_K}$. Can we learn a

$\operatorname{vec}(\underline{\mathbf{Y}}_{i}) = \mathbf{y}_{i} \approx \mathbf{D}\mathbf{x}_{i}$

Default approach: vectorize What if we ignore the tensor structure?

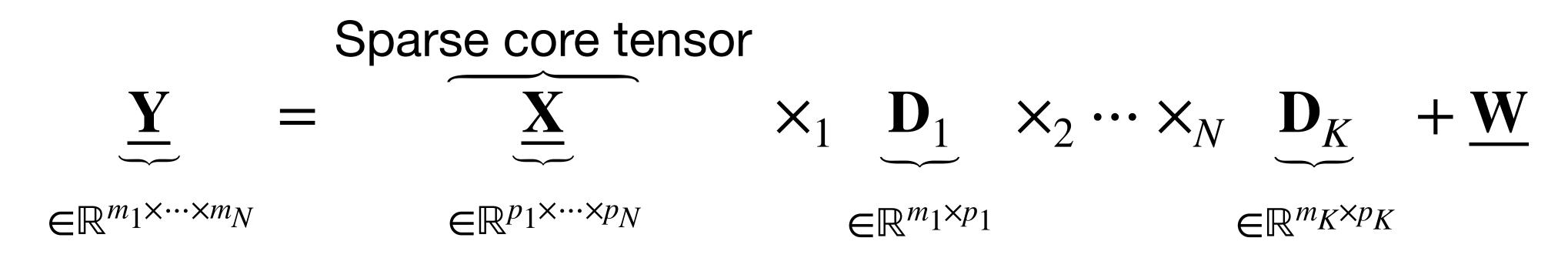


 \mathbf{x}_i

Tensor decompositions to the rescue What if our dictionary has a Tucker structure?

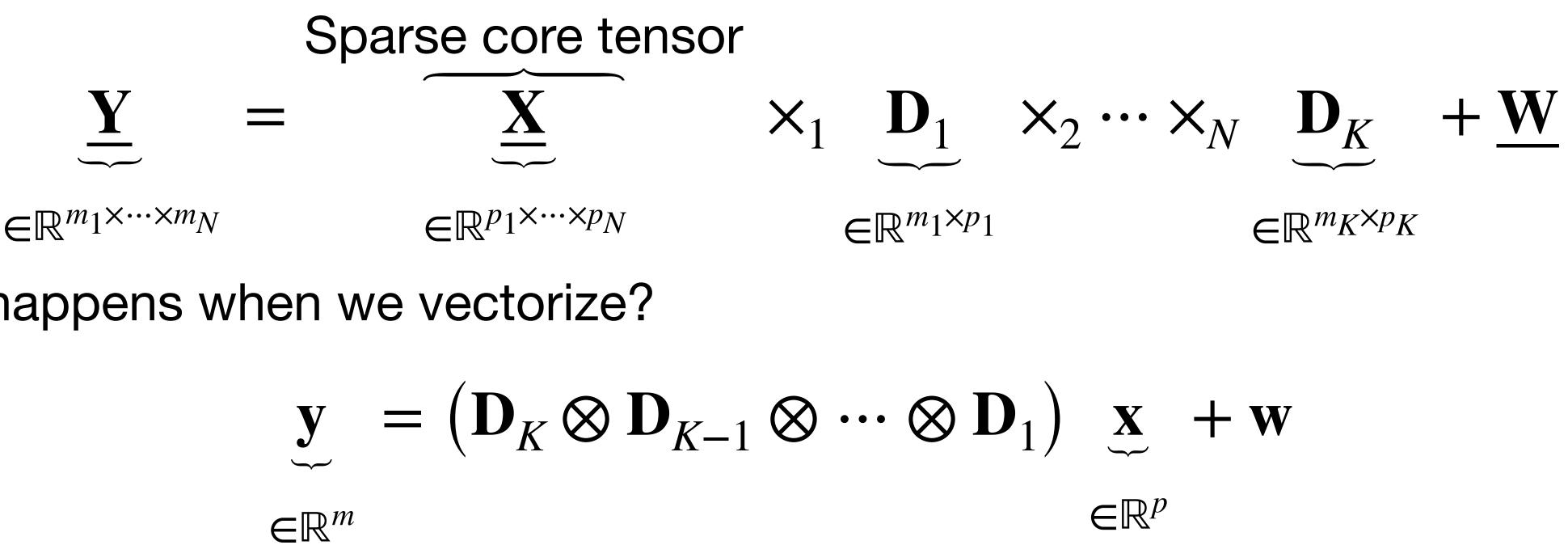
Tensor decompositions to the rescue What if our dictionary has a Tucker structure?

A Tucker-structured dictionary:



Tensor decompositions to the rescue What if our dictionary has a Tucker structure?

A Tucker-structured dictionary:



What happens when we vectorize?

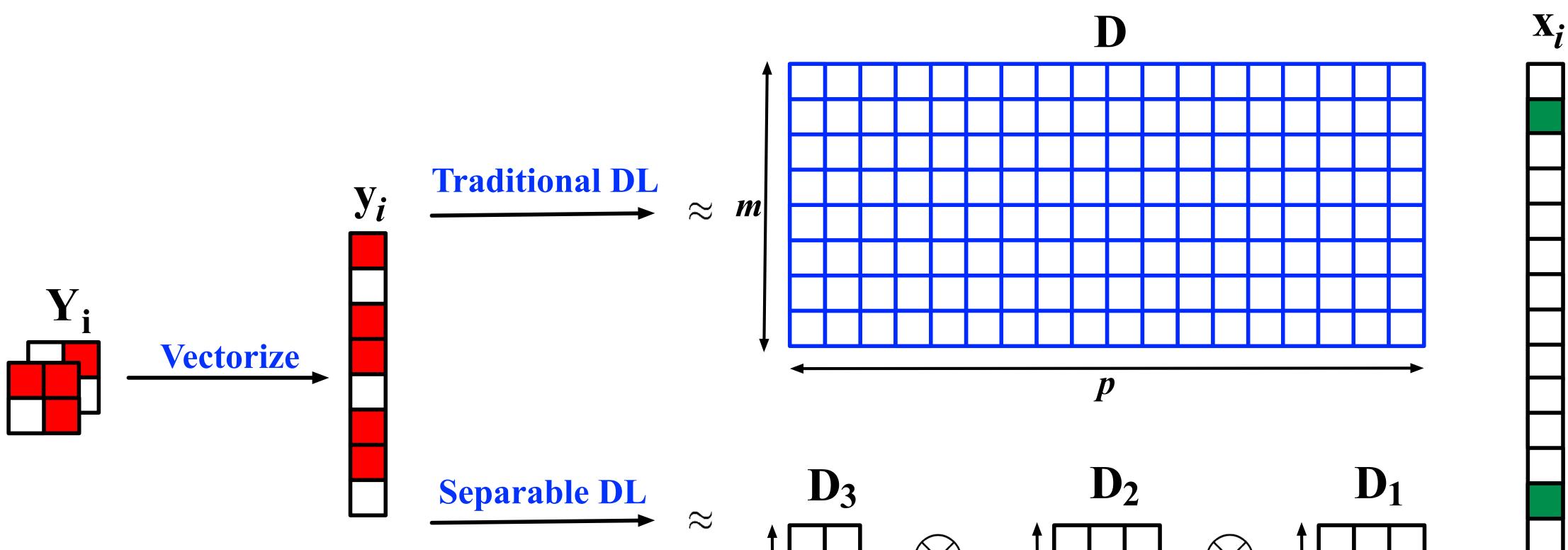
$$\underbrace{\mathbf{y}}_{\mathcal{L}} = \left(\mathbf{D}_{K} \otimes \mathbf{D}_{K}\right)$$

Kronecker-structured (KS) dictionary learning The difference that structure can make

- Traditional (unstructured) dictionary learning: MOD (Engan, Rao, Kreutz-Delgado '99), K-SVD (Aharon, Elad, Bruckstein '06), Online DL (Mairal et al. '09)
- KS dictionary learning: K-HOSVD (Roemer, Del Galdo, Haardt '14), GradTensor (Zubair and Wang '13), SeDiL (Hawe, Seibert, Kleinsteuber '13), SuKro (Dantas, Da Costa, Lopes '17)
- **Our work:** use LSR structure for the dictionary to allow more flexible parameterization.



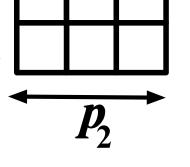
Kronecker-structured (KS) dictionary learning The difference that structure can make



Mz

 p_3

 m_2



 P_1



Even a KS assumption can help Reducing the number of parameters can make a huge difference



Original Image

Noisy Image

Unstructured DL: 147456 parameters

Separable DL: 265 parameters

Comparison to unstructured dictionaries Using decompositions helps a lot!

Minimax lower bound

Achievability bound

Minimax bound for the vector case: Jung et al. (2015) Achievability bound for the vector case: Gribonval et al. (2015)

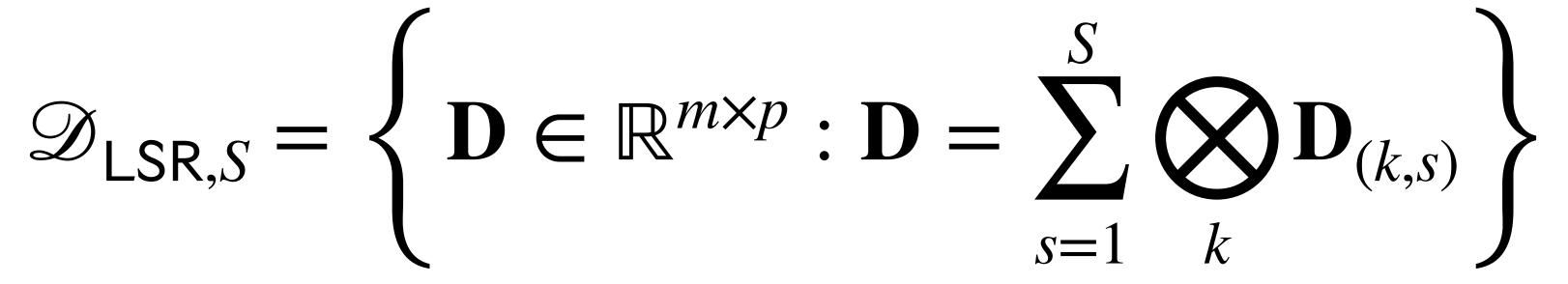
Vectorized DL	KS-DL
$\frac{mp^2}{\varepsilon^2}$ $\frac{mp^3}{\varepsilon^2}$	$\frac{p\sum_{k}m_{k}p_{k}}{K\varepsilon^{2}}$ $\frac{m_{k}p_{k}^{3}}{\max_{k}\frac{m_{k}p_{k}^{3}}{\varepsilon_{k}^{2}}}$



Define the set of all LSR dictionaries:



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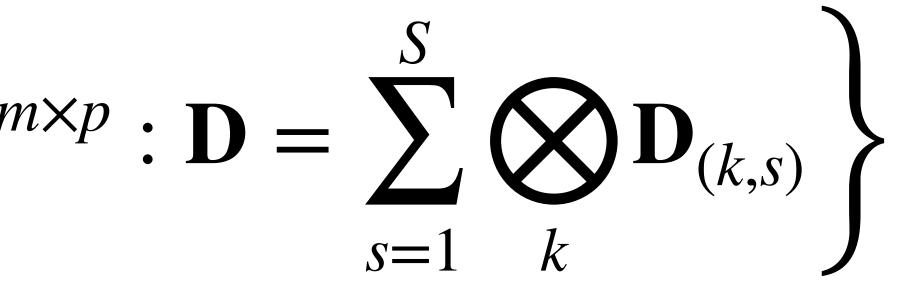




Define the set of all LSR dictionaries:

$$\mathcal{D}_{\mathsf{LSR},S} = \left\{ \mathbf{D} \in \mathbb{R}^m \right\}$$

where each $\mathbf{D}_{(k,s)} \in \mathbb{R}^{m_k \times p_k}$ has unit norm columns.





Define the set of all LSR dictionaries:

$$\mathcal{D}_{\mathsf{LSR},S} = \left\{ \mathbf{D} \in \mathbb{R}^n \right\}$$

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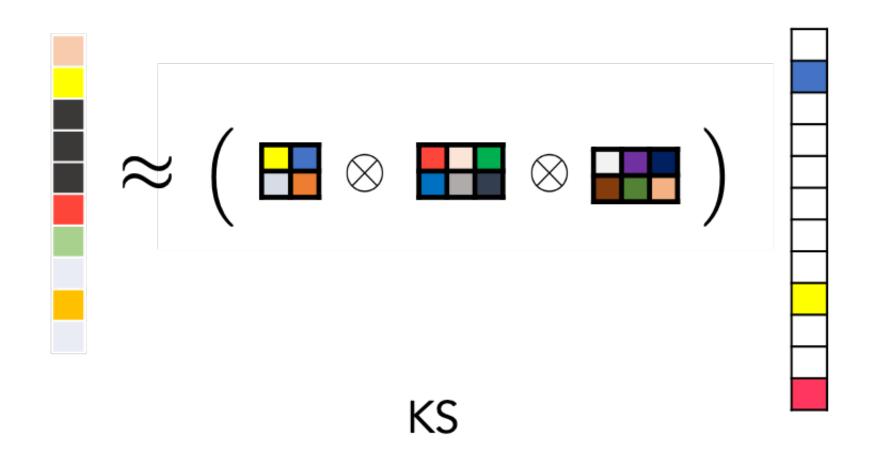
Assume our data comes from a true model $\mathbf{D}^0 \in \mathscr{D}_{LSR.S}$:

 $^{m \times p} : \mathbf{D} = \sum_{s=1}^{S} \bigotimes_{k} \mathbf{D}_{(k,s)} \right\}$

 $\mathbf{y}_i = \mathbf{D}^0 \mathbf{x}_i + \mathbf{w}_i$

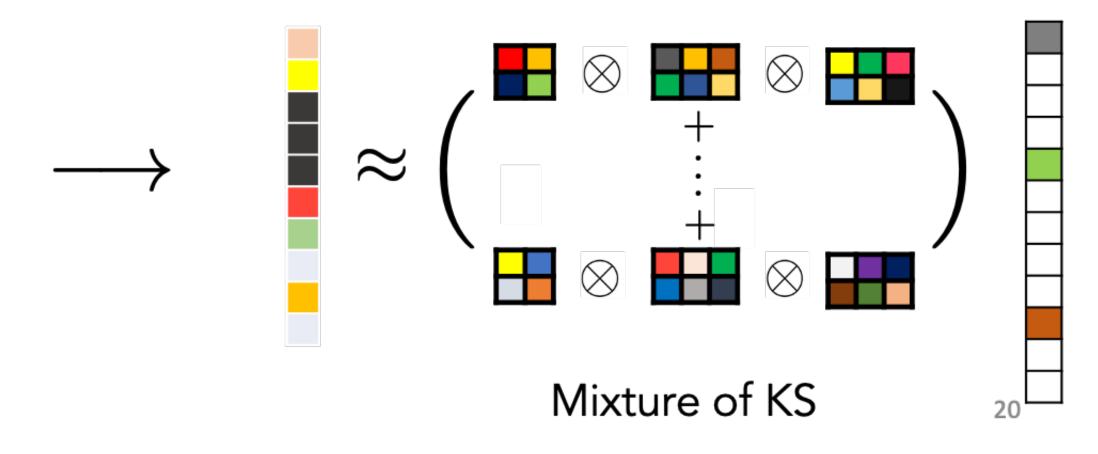


But can we do better with higher *S***?** Extending to LSR dictionaries



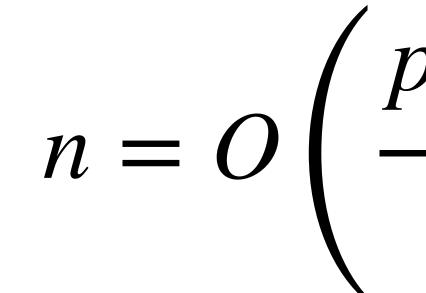
Because the core tensor (coefficient vector) is sparse, we can apply the LSR decomposition to the dictionary:

$$\mathbf{D} = \sum_{s=1}^{S} \mathbf{D}_{(K,s)} \otimes \cdots \otimes \mathbf{D}_{(2,s)} \otimes \mathbf{D}_{(1,s)}$$



Identifiability for general S Local recovery guarantees

(Ghassemi et al, 2020) the following upper bound on n:



For general S and LSR structured dictionaries, we can show

$$\frac{p^2 \sum_k m_k p_k}{\varepsilon_k^2}$$

Proof ingredients: need to understand topological properties of $\mathscr{D}_{LSR,S}$ and related spaces as well as covering numbers, etc.

Practical algorithms Unfortunately, separation rank is also NP hard

We propose two estimators for learning LSR dictionaries (Ghassemi et al, 2020):

- together with ADMM.
- LSR decomposition.

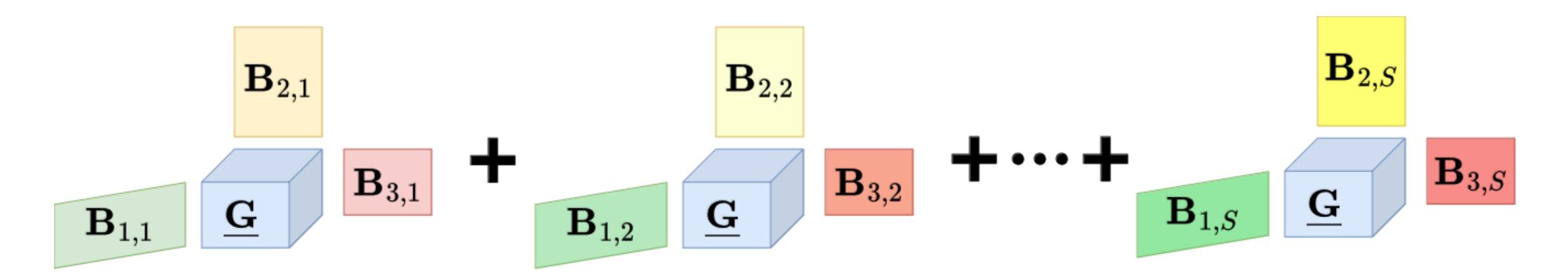
Compares well to K-SVD (Aharon et al. 2006) and SediL (Hawe et al. 2013): see Ghassemi et al. (2020) for details.

• **Regularization-based:** use a sum-trace-norm on unfolding

• Factorization-based: explicitly optimize over the factors in the

Recap and looking forward

Recap of what we've seen Tensor decompositions for everyone!



- There is a whole continuum of tensor decompositions and LSR structured tensors can be very useful:
- Adapt parameterization to the data available.
- Efficiently (empirically) learnable/estimatable.

a given tensor?

Approximation theory: how can we find a good approximation to

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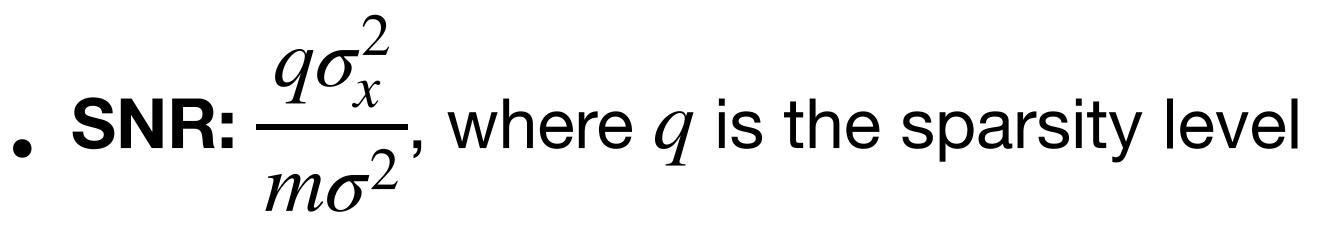
RTT: What about random tensors or random tensors with low "rank" or "simpler" structure?





Parameters of interest Along with some assumptions on the model

- Sample size: number of observations n
- Tensor order: *K*
- Dictionary sizes: $\{(m_k, p_k) : k = 1, 2, ..., K\}$
- Coefficient energy: the \mathbf{x}_i are i.i.d. with variance σ_r^2



Define the error of an dictionary estimator $\hat{\mathbf{D}}$:

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- $\varepsilon = \left\| \mathbf{D} \hat{\mathbf{D}}(\mathbf{Y}) \right\|_{F}$

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- For fixed SNR, and S = 1 we have the following lower bound on n (Zakeri, Bajwa, S. 2018):
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$$n = \Omega\left(\frac{p\sum_{k}m_{k}p_{k}}{K\varepsilon^{2}}\right)$$

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Define the error of an dictionary estimator $\hat{\mathbf{D}}$:

2018):

 $n = \Omega \left(\frac{1}{2} \right)$

Proof idea: construct a packing in $\mathscr{D}_{LSR,1}$ and use Fano's inquality.

- $\varepsilon = \left\| \mathbf{D} \hat{\mathbf{D}}(\mathbf{Y}) \right\|_{E}$
- For fixed SNR, and S = 1 we have the following lower bound on n (Zakeri, Bajwa, S.

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Suppose we want to recover each factor dictionary \mathbf{D}_k :

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 $n = O\left(\max_{k} \frac{m_k p_k^3}{\varepsilon_k^2}\right)$