

Méthodes d'approximation de faible rang pour la réduction de modèles

Anthony Nouy

Ecole Centrale Nantes, GeM

Joint work with Mathilde Chevreuil, Loic Giraldi, Prashant Rai

Problems in uncertainty quantification

Parameter-dependent models

$$\mathcal{M}(u(\mathbf{X}); \mathbf{X}) = 0$$

where $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_d)$ are random variables.

- **Forward problem:** evaluation of statistics, probability of events, sensitivity indices...

$$\mathbb{E}(f(u(\mathbf{X}))) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(u(x_1, \dots, x_d)) p(x_1, \dots, x_d) dx_1 \dots dx_d$$

- **Inverse problem:** from (partial) observations of u , estimate the density of \mathbf{X}

$$p(x_1, \dots, x_d)$$

Problems in uncertainty quantification

- Solving forward and inverse UQ problems requires the evaluation of the model for many instances of X .
- In practice, we rely on approximations of the solution map

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- High-dimensional functions

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The small data challenge!

High-dimensional approximation

The goal is to approximate a multivariate function

$$u(x_1, \dots, x_d)$$

A “naive” tensor product approximation

$$u(x_1, \dots, x_d) \approx \sum_{\alpha_1=1}^n \dots \sum_{\alpha_d=1}^n \mathbf{a}_{\alpha_1 \dots \alpha_d} \psi_{\alpha_1}^{(1)}(x_1) \dots \psi_{\alpha_d}^{(d)}(x_d), \quad \mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^{n^d}$$

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$$N = O(\epsilon^{-d/s}) \quad (\text{Curse of dimensionality})$$

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- Extra smoothness does not help.

How to beat the curse of dimensionality ?

The key is to consider **classes of functions with specific low-dimensional structures** and to propose approximation formats (**models**) which exploit these structures (**application-dependent**).

Approximations are searched in subsets M_n with a number of parameters

$$n = O(d^p)$$

but

- M_n is usually nonlinear, and
- M_n may be non smooth.

This turns approximation problems

$$\min_{v \in M_n} d(u, v)$$

into nonlinear and possibly non smooth optimization problems.

Low-dimensional models for high-dimensional approximation

- Low-order interactions, e.g.

- No interaction (additive model)

$$u(x_1, \dots, x_d) \approx u_0 + u_1(x_1) + \dots + u_d(x_d)$$

- First-order interactions

$$u(x_1, \dots, x_d) \approx u_0 + \sum_i u_i(x_i) + \sum_{i \neq j} u_{i,j}(x_i, x_j)$$

- Small number of interactions

- For a given $\Lambda \subset 2^{\{1, \dots, d\}}$ (set of interaction groups),

$$u(x_1, \dots, x_d) \approx \sum_{\alpha \in \Lambda} u_\alpha(x_\alpha)$$

- Λ as a parameter

$$u(x_1, \dots, x_d) \approx \sum_{\alpha \in \Lambda} u_\alpha(x_\alpha) \quad \text{with} \quad \#\Lambda = n$$

Low-dimensional models for high-dimensional approximation

- Sparsity relatively to a basis or frame $\{\psi_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in \mathbb{N}}$

$$u(x_1, \dots, x_d) \approx \sum_{\alpha \in \Lambda} a_\alpha \psi_\alpha(x_1, \dots, x_d), \quad \#\Lambda = n$$

- Sparsity relatively to a dictionary \mathcal{D}

$$u(x_1, \dots, x_d) \approx \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \psi_i(x_1, \dots, x_d), \quad \psi_i \in \mathcal{D}$$

Low-dimensional models for high-dimensional approximation

- Low rank,

$$u(x_1, \dots, x_d) \approx u_1(x_1) \dots u_d(x_d)$$

$$u(x_1, \dots, x_d) \approx \sum_{i=1}^r u_{1,i}(x_1) \dots u_{d,i}(x_d)$$

$$u(x_1, \dots, x_d) \approx \sum_{i_1=1}^{r_1} \dots \sum_{i_{d-1}=1}^{r_{d-1}} u_{1,i_1}(x_1) u_{i_1,i_2}(x_2) \dots u_{i_{d-1},1}(x_d) \\ \dots$$

- 1 Rank-structured approximation
- 2 Statistical learning methods for tensor approximation
- 3 Adaptive approximation in tree-based low-rank formats

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Tensor product of functions

For $1 \leq \nu \leq d$, let V_ν be a space of functions defined on an interval $\mathcal{X}_\nu \subset \mathbb{R}$.

The tensor product of functions $v^{(\nu)} \in V_\nu$, denoted

$$v = v^{(1)} \otimes \dots \otimes v^{(d)},$$

is a multivariate function defined on $\mathcal{X} = \mathcal{X}_1 \times \dots \times \mathcal{X}_d$ and such that

$$v(x_1, \dots, x_d) = v^{(1)}(x_1) \dots v^{(d)}(x_d)$$

For example, for $i \in \mathbb{N}_0^d$, the monomial $x^i = x_1^{i_1} \dots x_d^{i_d}$ is an elementary tensor.

Tensor product of functions

The **algebraic tensor product** of spaces V_ν , denoted

$$V_1 \otimes \dots \otimes V_d,$$

is the space of multivariate functions v which can be written as a finite linear combination of elementary (separated functions), i.e.

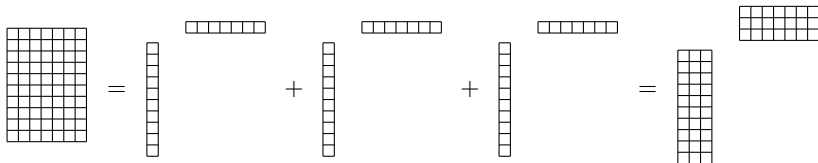
$$v(x) = \sum_{k=1}^n v_k^{(1)}(x_1) \dots v_k^{(d)}(x_d).$$

Rank of order-two tensor

In the case $d = 2$, the rank of a bivariate function $v(x_1, x_2)$ is defined as the minimal integer r such that

$$v(x_1, x_2) = \sum_{i=1}^r v_i^{(1)}(x_1) v_i^{(2)}(x_2).$$

For a matrix $v \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ representing the values of a function on a grid, of the coefficients of the function on a product basis, this corresponds to the standard notion of matrix rank.



The set of order-two tensors with rank bounded by r , although it is not a linear space nor a convex set, has many **favorable properties for numerical use**.

Canonical rank of higher-order tensors

For tensors $v \in V_1 \otimes \dots \otimes V_d$ with $d \geq 3$, there are different notions of rank.

The **canonical rank** of a function $v(x_1, \dots, x_d)$, which is the natural extension of the notion of rank for order-two tensors, is the minimal integer r such that

$$v(x) = \sum_{k=1}^r v_k^{(1)}(x_1) \dots v_k^{(d)}(x_d),$$

where the $v_k^{(\nu)}(x_\nu)$ are in the function space V_ν .

The **storage complexity** of such a function is

$$\text{storage}(v) = r \sum_{\nu=1}^d \dim(V_\nu) = O(r d n),$$

for $\dim(V_\nu) = O(n)$, and **scales linearly in d** .

Canonical rank of higher-order tensors

But for $d \geq 3$, the set of tensors with canonical rank bounded by r loses many of the favorable properties of the case $d = 2$. The consequence is that **no robust numerical method** exists for approximation in this format.

Matricisation of tensors

For a non-empty subset α of $D = \{1, \dots, d\}$, an order- d tensor $u(x_1, \dots, x_d)$ can be identified with an order-two tensor

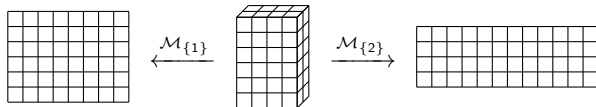
$$\mathcal{M}_\alpha(u)(x) = u(x_\alpha, x_{\alpha^c}),$$

where

$$x_\alpha = \{x_\nu\}_{\nu \in \alpha} \quad \text{and} \quad x_{\alpha^c} = \{x_\nu\}_{\nu \in \alpha^c}$$

are two complementary groups of variables.

The operator \mathcal{M}_α is called a **matricisation operator**.



The α -rank of u , denoted $\text{rank}_\alpha(u)$, is the rank of the order-two tensor $\mathcal{M}_\alpha(u)$,

$$\text{rank}_\alpha(u) = \text{rank}(\mathcal{M}_\alpha(u)).$$

The motivation behind the definition of approximation formats based on α -ranks is to benefit from the nice properties of the rank of order-two tensors.

A multivariate function $u(x_1, \dots, x_d)$ with $\text{rank}_\alpha(u) \leq r_\alpha$ is such that

$$u(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{r_\alpha} v_k^\alpha(x_\alpha) w_k^{\alpha^c}(x_{\alpha^c})$$

Example

$u(x_1, \dots, x_d) = u_1(x_1) + \dots + u_d(x_d)$ where u_1, \dots, u_d are non constant functions satisfies $\text{rank}_\alpha(u) = 2$ for all α .

The corresponding storage complexity is

$$\text{storage}(v) = O(r_\alpha(n^{\#\alpha} + n^{\#\alpha^c})).$$

For T a collection of subsets of D , we define the T -rank of a tensor v , denoted $\text{rank}_T(v)$, as the tuple

$$\text{rank}_T(v) = \{\text{rank}_\alpha(v)\}_{\alpha \in T}.$$

The subset of tensors in V with T -rank bounded by $r = (r_\alpha)_{\alpha \in T}$ is

$$\mathcal{T}_r^T = \{v : \text{rank}_T(v) \leq r\} = \bigcap_{\alpha \in T} \{v : \text{rank}_\alpha(v) \leq r_\alpha\}.$$

As a finite intersection of subsets of tensors with bounded α -ranks, \mathcal{T}_r^T inherits from geometrical and topological properties which are favorable for numerical simulation.

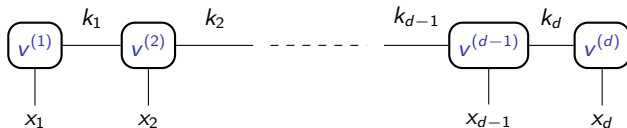
Tensor train format

For

$$\mathcal{T} = \{\{1\}, \{1, 2\}, \dots, \{1, \dots, d-1\}\},$$

$\text{rank}_{\mathcal{T}}(v)$ is called the **TT-rank** of the tensor v . A tensor v with $\text{rank}_{\mathcal{T}}(v) \leq r = (r_1, \dots, r_{d-1})$ admits a representation

$$v(x) = \sum_{k_1=1}^{r_1} \dots \sum_{k_{d-1}=1}^{r_{d-1}} v^{(1)}(x_1, k_1) v^{(2)}(k_1, x_2, k_2) \dots v^{(d)}(k_{d-1}, x_d).$$



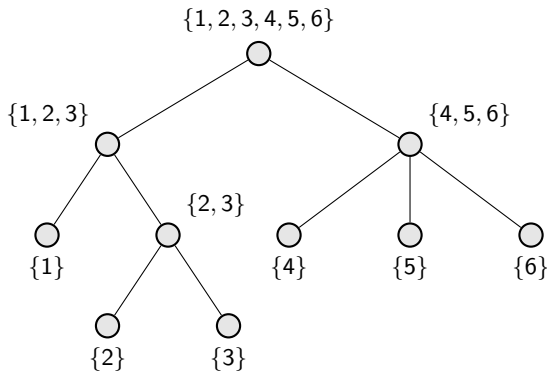
The **storage complexity** of an element in \mathcal{TT}_r is

$$\text{storage}(v) = \sum_{\nu=1}^d r_{\nu-1} r_{\nu} \dim(V_{\nu}) = O(dnR^2)$$

with $\dim(V_{\nu}) = O(n)$, $r_{\nu} = O(R)$.

Tree-based (hierarchical) Tucker format

Tree-based (or hierarchical) Tucker formats are associated with a **partition dimension tree** T over $D = \{1, \dots, d\}$, with root D and leaves $\{\nu\}$, $1 \leq \nu \leq d$.



The **tree-based rank** of a tensor v is the tuple $\text{rank}_T(v) = (\text{rank}_\alpha(v))_{\alpha \in T}$.

Parametrization and storage of low-rank tensor formats

Ultimately, a tensor in a certain low-rank tensor format $\mathcal{M}_{\leq r} = \{v : \text{rank}(v) \leq r\}$ admits a **multilinear parametrization** of the form

$$v(x) = \sum_{k_1=1}^{r_1} \dots \sum_{k_L=1}^{r_L} \prod_{\nu=1}^d p_{\nu}(x_{\nu}, (k_i)_{i \in S_{\nu}}) \prod_{\nu=d+1}^M p_{\nu}((k_i)_{i \in S_{\nu}}) = \Psi(p_1, \dots, p_M)(x)$$

where the parameter p_{ν} is a tensor which depends on a small subset of summation variables $(k_i)_{i \in S_{\nu}}$.

The **storage complexity** scales as

$$O(dnR^k)$$

where R is a bound of the representation ranks.

- 1 Rank-structured approximation
- 2 Statistical learning methods for tensor approximation
- 3 Adaptive approximation in tree-based low-rank formats

- Approximation of a function $u(X) = u(X_1, \dots, X_d)$ from evaluations $\{y_k = u(x^k)\}_{k=1}^K$ on a **training set** $\{x^k\}_{k=1}^K$ (i.i.d. samples of X)

Statistical learning methods for tensor approximation

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- Approximation in **subsets of rank-structured functions**

$$\mathcal{M}_{\leq r} = \{v : \text{rank}(v) \leq r\}$$

by minimization of an **empirical risk**

$$\hat{\mathcal{R}}_K(v) = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^K \ell(u(x^k), v(x^k))$$

where ℓ is a certain **loss function**.

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- Here, we consider for **least-squares regression**

$$\widehat{\mathcal{R}}_K(v) = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^K (u(x^k) - v(x^k))^2 = \widehat{\mathbb{E}}_K((u(X) - v(X))^2)$$

but other loss functions could be used for different objectives than L^2 -approximation (e.g. classification).

- Multilinear parametrization of tensor manifolds

$$\mathcal{M}_{\leq r} = \{v = \Psi(p_1, \dots, p_L) : p_l \in \mathbb{R}^{m_l}, 1 \leq l \leq L\}$$

so that

$$\min_{v \in \mathcal{M}_{\leq r}} \hat{\mathcal{R}}_K(v) = \min_{p_1, \dots, p_M} \hat{\mathcal{R}}_K(\Psi(p_1, \dots, p_M))$$

Alternating minimization algorithm

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- Alternating minimization algorithm: Successive minimization problems

$$\min_{p_l \in \mathbb{R}^{m_l}} \hat{\mathcal{R}}_K(\underbrace{\Psi(p_1, \dots, p_l, \dots, p_M)}_{\Psi_l(\cdot)^T p_l})$$

which are standard linear approximation problems

$$\min_{p_l \in \mathbb{R}^{m_l}} \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^K \ell(u(x^k), \Psi_l(x^k)^T p_l)$$

- Regularization

$$\min_{p_1, \dots, p_M} \widehat{\mathcal{R}}_K(\Psi(p_1, \dots, p_M)) + \sum_{l=1}^L \lambda_l \Omega_l(p_l)$$

with regularization functionals Ω_l promoting

- sparsity (e.g. $\Omega_l(p_l) = \|p_l\|_1$),
 - smoothness,
 - ...
- Alternating minimization algorithm requires the solution of successive standard regularized linear approximation problems

$$\min_{p_l} \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^K \ell(u(x^k), \Psi_l(x^k)^T p_l) + \lambda_l \Omega_l(p_l) \quad (\star)$$

- For square-loss and $\Omega_l(p_l) = \|p_l\|_1$, (\star) is a LASSO problem.
- Cross-validation methods for the selection of regularization parameters λ_l .

- Approximations in **canonical format**

$$v(x_1, \dots, x_d) = \sum_{k=1}^r v_k^{(1)}(x_1) \dots v_k^{(d)}(x_d)$$

or in **tensor-train (TT) format**:

$$v(x_1, \dots, x_d) = \sum_{k_1=1}^{r_1} \dots \sum_{k_{d-1}=1}^{r_{d-1}} v_{1,k_1}^{(1)}(x_1) \dots v_{k_{d-1},1}^{(d)}(x_d)$$

- **Polynomial approximations**

$$v_k^{(\nu)} \quad \text{and} \quad v_{i_{k-1}, i_k}^{(\nu)} \in \mathbb{P}_q$$

- $v = \Psi(p_1, \dots, p_d)$ with parameter p_ν gathering the coefficients of functions of x_ν on a polynomial basis (orthonormal in $L^2_{\mathcal{P}_{X_\nu}}(\mathcal{X}_\nu)$).
- **Sparsity inducing regularization** and **cross-validation** (leave one out) for the automatic selection of polynomial basis functions. Use of standard least-squares in the selected basis.

Illustration : Borehole function

The Borehole function models water flow through a borehole:

$$u(X) = \frac{2\pi T_u(H_u - H_l)}{\ln(r/r_w) \left(1 + \frac{2LT_u}{\ln(r/r_w)r_w^2 K_w} + \frac{T_u}{T_l}\right)}, \quad X = (r_w, \log(r), T_u, H_u, T_l, H_l, L, K_w)$$

r_w	radius of borehole (m)	$N(\mu = 0.10, \sigma = 0.0161812)$
r	radius of influence (m)	$LN(\mu = 7.71, \sigma = 1.0056)$
T_u	transmissivity of upper aquifer (m ² /yr)	$U(63070, 115600)$
H_u	potentiometric head of upper aquifer (m)	$U(990, 1110)$
T_l	transmissivity of lower aquifer (m ² /yr)	$U(63.1, 116)$
H_l	potentiometric head of lower aquifer (m)	$U(700, 820)$
L	length of borehole (m)	$U(1120, 1680)$
K_w	hydraulic conductivity of borehole (m/yr)	$U(9855, 12045)$

- Polynomial approximation with degree $q = 8$.
- Test set of size 1000.

Illustration : Borehole function

- Approximation in **canonical format** for different sizes K of training set, selection of optimal rank.

K	rank	test error
100	2	$1.0 \cdot 10^{-3}$
1000	5	$3.8 \cdot 10^{-4}$
10000	7	$6.0 \cdot 10^{-6}$

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- Approximation in **tensor train format** for different ranks and for different sizes K of the training set.

rank	K = 100	K=1000	K=10000
(1 1 1 1 1 1 1)	$1.7 \cdot 10^{-2}$	$1.4 \cdot 10^{-2}$	$1.4 \cdot 10^{-2}$
(2 2 2 2 2 2 2)	$6.7 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$9.1 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$3.3 \cdot 10^{-4}$
(3 3 3 3 3 3 3)	$3.2 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$1.2 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.0 \cdot 10^{-5}$
(4 4 4 4 4 4 4)	$2.1 \cdot 10^{-1}$	$7.6 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$1.9 \cdot 10^{-7}$
(5 5 5 5 5 5 5)	$7.3 \cdot 10^0$	$3.8 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.8 \cdot 10^{-7}$
(6 6 6 6 6 6 6)	$7.9 \cdot 10^{-1}$	$4.1 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$2.1 \cdot 10^{-7}$

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Finding optimal rank is a combinatorial problem...

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Heuristic strategy for rank adaptation (tree-based Tucker format)

- Given $T \subset 2^{\{1, \dots, d\}}$, construction of a sequence of approximations u_m in tree-based Tucker format with increasing rank:

$$u_m \in \{v : \text{rank}_T(v) \leq (r_\alpha^m)_{\alpha \in T}\}$$

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$$u_m \in \{v : \text{rank}_T(v) \leq (r_\alpha^m)_{\alpha \in T}\}$$

- At iteration m ,

$$\begin{cases} r_\alpha^{m+1} = r_\alpha^m + 1 & \text{if } \alpha \in T_m \\ r_\alpha^{m+1} = r_\alpha^m & \text{if } \alpha \notin T_m \end{cases}$$

where T_m is selected in order to obtain (hopefully) the fastest decrease of the error.

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where T_m is selected in order to obtain (hopefully) the fastest decrease of the error.

- A possible strategy consists in computing the singular values

$$\sigma_1^\alpha \geq \dots \geq \sigma_{r_\alpha^m}^\alpha$$

of α -matricizations $\mathcal{M}_\alpha(u_m)$ of u_m for all $\alpha \in T$. Letting $0 \leq \theta \leq 1$, can we choose

$$T_m = \left\{ \alpha \in T : \sigma_{r_\alpha^m}^\alpha \geq \theta \max_{\beta \in T} \sigma_{r_\beta^m}^\beta \right\}$$

Illustration : Borehole function

- Training set of size $K = 1000$

iteration	rank	test error
0	(1 1 1 1 1 1 1)	$1.4 \cdot 10^{-2}$
1	(2 2 2 2 2 2 2)	$4.4 \cdot 10^{-4}$
2	(2 2 2 3 3 2 2)	$8.1 \cdot 10^{-6}$
3	(3 3 3 4 3 2 2)	$6.2 \cdot 10^{-6}$
4	(3 3 3 4 4 3 2)	$2.1 \cdot 10^{-5}$
5	(3 3 3 4 4 3 3)	$9.6 \cdot 10^{-6}$
6	(3 4 4 4 5 4 4)	$1.5 \cdot 10^{-5}$

The selected rank is one order of magnitude better than the optimal “isotropic” rank (r, r, \dots, r)

Illustration : Borehole function

- Different sizes K of training set, selection of optimal ranks.

TT format

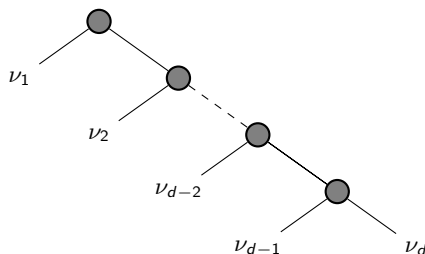
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10000	(5 6 6 7 7 5 4)	$2.4 \cdot 10^{-8}$

Canonical format

K	rank	test error
100	2	$1.0 \cdot 10^{-3}$
1000	5	$3.8 \cdot 10^{-4}$
10000	7	$6.0 \cdot 10^{-6}$

Influence of the tree (TT format)

- Test error for different trees T (Training set of size $K = 50$)



tree	$\{\nu_1, \dots, \nu_d\}$	optimal rank	test error
T_1	(1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8)	(2 2 2 2 2 1 1)	$6.2 \cdot 10^{-4}$
T_2	(1 3 8 5 6 2 4 7)	(2 2 2 2 2 2 1)	$1.3 \cdot 10^{-3}$
T_3	(7 6 8 1 4 5 2 3)	(1 1 1 1 1 1 1)	$1.5 \cdot 10^{-2}$
T_4	(8 2 4 7 5 1 3 6)	(1 1 2 3 3 2 2)	$1.3 \cdot 10^{-2}$

Finding the optimal tree is a combinatorial problem...

Strategy for tree adaptation in (TT format)

Starting from an initial tree, we perform iteratively the following two steps:

- **Run the algorithm with rank adaptation** to compute an approximation v associated with the current tree

$$v(x_1, \dots, x_d) = \sum_{i_1=1}^{r_1} \dots \sum_{i_{d-1}=1}^{r_{d-1}} v_{1,i_1}^1(x_{\nu_1}) \dots v_{i_{d-1},1}^d(x_{\nu_d})$$

- **Run a tree optimization algorithm** yielding an equivalent representation of v (at the current precision)

$$v(x_1, \dots, x_d) \approx \sum_{i_1=1}^{\tilde{r}_1} \dots \sum_{i_{d-1}=1}^{\tilde{r}_{d-1}} v_{1,i_1}^1(x_{\tilde{\nu}_1}) \dots v_{i_{d-1},1}^d(x_{\tilde{\nu}_d})$$

with reduced ranks $\{\tilde{r}_1, \dots, \tilde{r}_{d-1}\}$, where $\{\tilde{\nu}_1, \dots, \nu_d\}$ is a permutation of $\{\nu_1, \dots, \nu_d\}$.

Strategy for tree adaptation in (TT format)

Illustration with training set of size $K = 50$.

We run the algorithm for different initial trees.

Indicated in blue are the permuted dimensions in the final tree.

tree	$\{\nu_1, \dots, \nu_d\}$	optimal rank	test error
initial	(1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8)	(2 2 2 2 2 1 1)	$6.2 \cdot 10^{-4}$
final	(1 2 3 5 4 6 7 8)	(2 2 2 2 2 1 1)	$4.5 \cdot 10^{-4}$
initial	(1 3 8 5 6 2 4 7)	(2 2 2 2 2 2 1)	$1.3 \cdot 10^{-3}$
final	(1 3 8 5 2 6 4 7)	(2 2 2 2 2 2 1)	$5.1 \cdot 10^{-4}$
initial and final	(7 6 8 1 4 5 2 3)	(1 1 1 1 1 1 1)	$1.5 \cdot 10^{-2}$
initial	(8 2 4 7 5 1 3 6)	(1 1 2 3 3 2 2)	$1.3 \cdot 10^{-2}$
	(8 2 7 5 1 4 3 6)	(1 1 2 2 2 2 2)	$1.2 \cdot 10^{-3}$
final	(8 2 7 5 1 3 4 6)	(1 1 2 2 2 2 2)	$1.3 \cdot 10^{-3}$

- Need for robust strategies for tree adaptation.
- “Statistical dimension” of low-rank subsets ?
- Adaptive sampling strategies.
- Goal-oriented construction of low-rank approximations.

- Need for robust strategies for tree adaptation.
- “Statistical dimension” of low-rank subsets ?
- Adaptive sampling strategies.
- Goal-oriented construction of low-rank approximations.
- For Régis, estimation of high-dimensional copula

$$C(x_1, \dots, x_d)$$

using low-rank formats.



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