

Ordinal tensor data analysis

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1 Ordinal tensor data

1.1 Modeling

For the ordinary tensor $Y = [y_{i_1, \dots, i_N}] \in \{1, 2, \dots, K\}^{d_1 \times \dots \times d_N}$ we will use cumulative logit model. we assume it's entries are realization of independent random variables, such that, for all $(i_1, \dots, i_N) \in [d_1] \times \dots \times [d_N]$,

$$P(y_{i_1, \dots, i_N} \leq j | \theta_{i_1, \dots, i_N}) = \pi_1(\theta_{i_1, \dots, i_N}) + \dots + \pi_j(\theta_{i_1, \dots, i_N})$$

To elaborate this more,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{logit}(P(y_{i_1, \dots, i_N} \leq j | \theta_{i_1, \dots, i_N})) &= \log \frac{P(y_{i_1, \dots, i_N} < j | \theta_{i_1, \dots, i_N})}{1 - P(y_{i_1, \dots, i_N} \leq j | \theta_{i_1, \dots, i_N})} = \log \frac{\pi_1(\theta_{i_1, \dots, i_N}) + \dots + \pi_j(\theta_{i_1, \dots, i_N})}{\pi_{j+1} + \dots + \pi_K(\theta_{i_1, \dots, i_N})} \\ &= \alpha_j + \theta_{i_1, \dots, i_N} \end{aligned}$$

where α_j is non-decreasing with regards to $j \in \{1, \dots, K\}$ and we assume Θ has Tucker decomposition structure such that $\Theta = \mathcal{C} \times_1 A_1 \times_2 A_2 \dots \times_N A_N$ where $\mathcal{C} \in \mathcal{R}^{r_1 \times \dots \times r_N}$ and $A_i \in \mathcal{R}^{d_i \times r_i}$ where $\text{rank } r_i < d_i$. We also assume that the entries of \mathcal{Y} are mutually independent conditional on Θ .

There is much better way to put this model adding one dimension to a given ordinal tensor. Let

$$Z_1 = I(Y = 1), \quad Z_2 = I(Y \leq 2), \quad \dots, \quad Z_{K-1} = I(Y \leq K-1)$$

and let's stack Z_1, \dots, Z_{K-1} together and yield an order $d_1 \times \dots \times d_N \times (K-1)$ tensor Z such that $Z_{:, \dots, :, i} = Z_i$ then our model is equivalent to following model.

$$f^{-1}(E(Z)) = 1_{d_1} \circ 1_{d_2} \circ \dots \circ 1_{d_N} \circ \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_{K-1} \end{pmatrix} + \Theta \circ 1_{K-1}$$

where $1_j = \underbrace{(1, \dots, 1)}_j^T$ and f^{-1} is logit link.

Based on above formula, we can get another equivalent model using noise tensor. I would

call this model threshold model.

Consider an order- $N+1$ tensor such that $\tilde{\Theta} = 1_{d_1} \circ 1_{d_2} \circ \cdots \circ 1_{d_N} \circ \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_{K-1} \end{pmatrix} + \Theta \circ 1_{K-1}$

and suppose that we cannot directly observe $\tilde{\Theta}$. Instead, we observe the quantized version $Z = [z_{i_1, \dots, i_N, j}] \in \{0, 1\}^{d_1 \times \cdots \times d_N \times K-1}$ following the realization of the scheme

$$z_{i_1, \dots, i_N, j} = \begin{cases} 1 & \tilde{\theta}_{i_1, \dots, i_N, j} + \epsilon_{i_1, \dots, i_N, j} \geq 0 \\ 0 & \tilde{\theta}_{i_1, \dots, i_N, j} + \epsilon_{i_1, \dots, i_N, j} < 0 \end{cases}$$

where $\mathcal{E} = [\epsilon_{i_1, \dots, i_N, j}]$ is a noise tensor. If we use an indicator function we can make above function more succinct $Z = \mathbb{1}(\tilde{\Theta} + \mathcal{E})$

Now let's show why above two become same.

First, let a noise tensor \mathcal{E} is drawn from cumulative distribution of f defined by $P(\epsilon < \theta) = 1 - f(-\theta)$. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} P(z_{i_1, \dots, i_N, j} = 1) &= P(\tilde{\theta}_{i_1, \dots, i_N, j} + \epsilon_{i_1, \dots, i_N, j} \geq 0) = P(\epsilon_{i_1, \dots, i_N, j} \geq -\tilde{\theta}_{i_1, \dots, i_N, j}) \\ &= 1 - (1 - f(\tilde{\theta}_{i_1, \dots, i_N, j})) \\ &= f(\tilde{\theta}_{i_1, \dots, i_N, j}) \end{aligned}$$

Secondly, define link function $f(\theta) = P(\epsilon \geq -\theta)$. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} P(z_{i_1, \dots, i_N, j} = 1) &= P(\tilde{\theta}_{i_1, \dots, i_N, j} + \epsilon_{i_1, \dots, i_N, j} \geq 0) = P(\epsilon_{i_1, \dots, i_N, j} \geq -\tilde{\theta}_{i_1, \dots, i_N, j}) \\ &= f(\tilde{\theta}_{i_1, \dots, i_N, j}) \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, we can use a noise related to cumulative distribution and can estimate our parameters using Threshold model.

There are 2 ways to estimate parameters Θ , and α based on which types of data we are going to use.

1.2 Loglikelihood based estimation

When we use Z which is made by stacking tensors $Z_i = I(Y \leq i)$, whole estimation problem becomes optimization problem for binary tensor:

we estimate the unknown parameter tensor $\tilde{\theta}$ using a likelihood loss function. My first thought of log-likelihood function is

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}_Z(\Theta, \alpha) &= \sum_{i_1, \dots, i_N, j} \left[\mathbb{1}(z_{i_1, \dots, i_N, j} = 1) \log f(\tilde{\theta}_{i_1, \dots, i_N, j}) + \mathbb{1}(z_{i_1, \dots, i_N, j} = 0) \log f(-\tilde{\theta}_{i_1, \dots, i_N, j}) \right] \\ &= \sum_{i_1, \dots, i_N, j} \log f((2z_{i_1, \dots, i_N, j} - 1)\tilde{\theta}_{i_1, \dots, i_N, j}) \end{aligned}$$

However, we have restriction that if $z_{i_1, \dots, i_N, j} = 1$ then for all $j \leq r \leq K-1$, $z_{i_1, \dots, i_N, r} = 1$. Therefore, we have to revise above log-likelihood function as follows.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}_Z(\Theta, \alpha) = & \sum_{i_1, \dots, i_N, j \in \{1, \dots, K-1\}} (z_{i_1, \dots, i_N, j+1} - z_{i_1, \dots, i_N, j}) \log[f(\tilde{\theta}_{i_1, \dots, i_N, j+1}) - f(\tilde{\theta}_{i_1, \dots, i_N, j})] \\ & + \sum_{z_{i_1, \dots, i_N, K-1}=0} \log(1 - f(\tilde{\theta}_{i_1, \dots, i_N, K-1})) \end{aligned}$$

and I realized this one essentially the same thing when we stick to ordinal tensor Y whose log-likelihood function is as follows

$$\mathcal{L}_Y(\Theta, \alpha) = \sum_{i_1, \dots, i_N} \left[\sum_{l=1}^K \mathbb{1}(y_{i_1, \dots, i_N} = l) \log(\pi_l(\theta, \alpha)) \right]$$

Where $\pi_l = P(Y_{i_1, \dots, i_N} = l | \theta_{i_1, \dots, i_N}, \alpha) = \text{logit}(\alpha_l + \theta_{i_1, \dots, i_N}) - \text{logit}(\alpha_{l-1} + \theta_{i_1, \dots, i_N})$ for $l < K$ and $\pi_K = P(Y_{i_1, \dots, i_N} = K | \theta_{i_1, \dots, i_N}, \alpha) = 1 - \text{logit}(\alpha_{K-1} + \theta_{i_1, \dots, i_N})$

So our goal is to find parameters optimizing log-likelihood function constrained in our target parameter space \mathcal{D} :

$$\max_{(\Theta, \alpha) \in \mathcal{D}} \mathcal{L}_Y(\Theta, \alpha) \quad \text{where } \mathcal{D} = \{(\Theta, \alpha) : \alpha_1 \leq \dots \leq \alpha_{K-1}, \Theta = \mathcal{C} \times_1 A_1 \times_2 A_2 \dots \times_N A_N, \|\Theta\|_\infty \leq \alpha\}$$

for $\mathcal{C} \in \mathcal{R}^{r_1 \times \dots \times r_N}$, $A_i \in \mathcal{R}^{d_i \times r_i}$ and $r_i < d_i$

1.3 Optimization

In this section, we describe the algorithm which can be used to solve above optimization problem. We utilized a formulation of tucker decomposition, and turn the optimization into a block wise convex problem. We will divide cases into 2, when we know bin boundary $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_{K-1}$ and when we don't have any information about bin boundary.

1.3.1 Known Bin Boundary

First, suppose we already know $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_{K-1}$ and decompose $\Theta = \mathcal{C} \times_1 A_1 \dots \times_N A_N$ to have $N+1$ blocks. Then our optimization problem of maximizing $\mathcal{L}_Y(\Theta, \alpha)$ becomes $\mathcal{L}_Y(\mathcal{C}, A_1, \dots, A_N)$

We are going to focus on one block for each iteration. What I mean is that if we focus on A_n , put other blocks into unfolded matrix as $A_{-n} = (\mathcal{C} \times_1 A_1 \dots \times_{n-1} A_{n-1} \times_{n+1} A_{n+1} \dots \times_N A_N)_{(n)}$

Then our optimization problem becomes minimizing $\mathcal{L}_Y(A_n A_{-n})$ where $A_n \in \mathcal{R}^{d_n \times r_n}$ and $A_{-n} \in \mathcal{R}^{r_n \times d_1 \dots d_{n-1} d_{n+1} \dots d_N}$. One then optimizes with respect to the factors A_n, A_{-n} . This method is non-convex, however, it is known that if r_n is chosen to be large enough, it is guaranteed that the local minimum of the problem is also the global minimum of the non-factorized problem. After we get optimized A_n^{new}, A_{-n}^{new} we are going to use probabilistic

tensor SVD (Algorithm 3) to get new sets of C, A_1, \dots, A_N such that $A_{-n}^{new} = C' \times_1 A'_1 \cdots \times_{n-1} A'_{n-1} \times_{n+1} A'_{n+1} \cdots A'_N$. Now we focus on next matrix A_{n+1} . Finally we can get following algorithm.

Algorithm 1 Ordinal tensor optimization with known boundary

Input: $\mathcal{C}^0 \in \mathbf{R}^{r_1 \times \dots \times r_N}$, $A_1^0 \in \mathbf{R}^{d_1 \times r_1}, \dots, A_N^0 \in \mathbf{R}^{d_N \times r_N}$
Output: Optimizor of $\mathcal{L}_Z(\alpha, \Theta)$ given α

- 1: **for** $t = 1, 2, \dots$, **do** until convergence,
- 2: **for** $n = 1, 2, \dots, N$ **do**
- 3: $A_{-n}^t = \left(\mathcal{C} \times_1 A_1 \cdots \times_{n-1} A_{n-1} \times_{n+1} A_{n+1} \cdots A_N \right)_{(n)}$
- 4: $A_n^{t+1}, A_{-n}^{t+1} = \arg \max(\mathcal{L}_Y(A_n^t A_{-n}^t))$
- 5: $(\mathcal{C}^{t+1}, A_1^{t+1}, \dots, A_{n-1}^{t+1}, A_{n+1}^{t+1}, \dots, A_N^{t+1}) = SVD(fold(A_{-n}^{t+1}))$
- 6: **return** α, Θ

1.3.2 Unknown Bin Boundary

\mathcal{L}_Y is concave in α_k for fixed Θ and α_i s where $i \neq k$. Also \mathcal{L}_Y is concave in Θ for fixed α . Therefore, we are going to try to find optimal parameters via block coordinate ways for each $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_{K-1}, \Theta$. However it is known that there is no convergence guarantee in general.

Algorithm 2 Ordinal tensor optimization with unknown boundary

Input: Stacked tensor Z based on observed entries of y_{i_1, \dots, i_N} and initialization of an increasing sequence $\alpha_1^0, \dots, \alpha_{K-1}^0 \in \mathbf{R}$ and $\mathcal{C}^0 \in \mathbf{R}^{r_1 \times \dots \times r_N}$, $A_1^0 \in \mathbf{R}^{d_1 \times r_1}, \dots, A_N^0 \in \mathbf{R}^{d_N \times r_N}$
Output: Optimizor of $\mathcal{L}_Z(\alpha, \Theta)$

- 1: **for** $t = 1, 2, \dots$, **do** until convergence,
- 2: **for** $n = 1, 2, \dots, N$ **do**
- 3: $A_{-n}^t = \left(\mathcal{C} \times_1 A_1 \cdots \times_{n-1} A_{n-1} \times_{n+1} A_{n+1} \cdots A_N \right)_{(n)}$
- 4: $A_n^{t+1}, A_{-n}^{t+1} = \arg \max(\mathcal{L}_Y(\alpha^t, A_n^t A_{-n}^t))$
- 5: $(\mathcal{C}^{t+1}, A_1^{t+1}, \dots, A_{n-1}^{t+1}, A_{n+1}^{t+1}, \dots, A_N^{t+1}) = SVD(fold(A_{-n}^{t+1}))$
- 6: **for** $i = 1, 2, \dots, K-1$ **do**
- 7: $\alpha_i^{t+1} = \arg \max \mathcal{L}_Z(\alpha_1^{t+1}, \dots, \alpha_{i-1}^{t+1}, \alpha_i^{t+1}, \alpha_{i+1}^t \cdots, \alpha_{K-1}^t, \Theta^{t+1})$ subject to $\alpha_{i-1}^t + \epsilon \leq \alpha_i \leq \alpha_{i+1}^t - \epsilon$
- 8: **return** α, Θ

2 Probabilistic algorithm for Tensor approximation.

2.1 Accuracy

We are going to see how accurate our svd tensor approximation is by checking angle between a real vector and estimated vector. Let data A be $d_1 \times d_2$ matrix such that $A = \lambda a \circ b$ where λ is scalar and $\|a\|_F = \|b\|_F = 1$. Our given data is $D = A + E$ where elements of E is

independently drawn from $N(0, \sigma^2)$.

Let Ω be $d_2 \times 1$ random vector drawn from $N(0, 1)$ and $\hat{a} = D\Omega = A\Omega + E\Omega$ then we can get a following theorem.

Theorem 1. *If $\lambda > \sigma\sqrt{2 \times d_2 \times \max(d_1, d_2)}$ then, $\cos \theta(a, \hat{a})$ converges to 1 in probability*

I couldn't prove above Theorem 1 well. Instead, I proved a similar proposition denoted by Theorem 2. I needed following 3 lemmas to prove Theorem 2.

Lemma 1. $\|A\Omega\| = \lambda\|\Omega\| |Z_1|$ where $Z_1 \sim N(0, 1)$ should be $\|b\|$

Proof. Notice $A\Omega = \lambda(b_1\Omega_1 + \dots + b_{d_2}\Omega_{d_2})a = \lambda\|\Omega\|N(0, 1)a$ □

Lemma 2. $\|E\Omega\| = \|\Omega\|\sqrt{\sigma^2 V}$ where $V \sim \chi^2(d_1)$

Proof. A more precise result would be $\sim \|\Omega\|\sigma\sqrt{\max\{d_1, d_2\}}$

$$\begin{aligned} \|E\Omega\| &= \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{d_1} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{d_2} \Omega_j E_{ij} \right)^2} \quad \text{where are the cross terms..} \\ &= \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{d_1} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{d_2} N_{ij}(0, \sigma^2 \Omega_j^2) \right)^2} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{d_1} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{d_2} \Omega_j^2 N_{i.}(0, \sigma^2) \right)^2} = \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^{d_2} \Omega_j^2 \sum_{i=1}^{d_1} \sigma^2 \chi_i^2(1)} \quad \text{for given } \Omega \\ &= \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^{d_2} \Omega_j^2 \sigma^2 \chi^2(d_1)} \end{aligned}$$

Since this equality holds for all given Ω , we can say it holds for random variables □

Lemma 3. $\langle A\Omega, E\Omega \rangle = \|A\Omega\| \|\Omega\| \sigma Z_2$ where $Z_2 \sim N(0, 1)$

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} \langle A\Omega, E\Omega \rangle &= \|A\Omega\| \langle a, E\Omega \rangle = \|A\Omega\| \sum_{j=1}^{d_2} \Omega_j \langle E_{.,j}, a \rangle \\ &= \|A\Omega\| \sum_{j=1}^{d_2} \Omega_j \sum_{i=1}^{d_1} E_{ij} a_i = \|A\Omega\| \sum_{j=1}^{d_2} \Omega_j N_j(0, \sigma^2) \\ &= \|A\Omega\| \sum_{j=1}^{d_2} N_j(0, \sigma^2 \Omega_j^2) = \|A\Omega\| N(0, \sigma^2) \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^{d_2} \Omega_j^2} \end{aligned}$$

□

Now my Theorem 2 is like this.

Theorem 2. *If $\sigma = o(\lambda)$ then, $\cos \Theta(\hat{a}, a) \rightarrow 1$*

Proof. Notice,

$$\begin{aligned}\cos \Theta(\hat{a}, a) &= \frac{\langle A\Omega, A\Omega + E\Omega \rangle}{\|A\Omega\| \|A\Omega + E\Omega\|} = \frac{\|A\Omega\|^2 + \langle A\Omega, E\Omega \rangle}{\|A\Omega\| \|A\Omega + E\Omega\|} \\ &= \frac{\|A\Omega\|^2 + \langle A\Omega, E\Omega \rangle}{\|A\Omega\| \sqrt{\|A\Omega\|^2 + \|E\Omega\|^2 + 2\langle A\Omega, E\Omega \rangle}}\end{aligned}$$

Then, by plugging above lemmas into above fraction, we can get

$$\begin{aligned}&= \frac{\lambda|Z_1| + \sigma Z_2}{\sqrt{\lambda^2 Z_1^2 + \sigma^2 V + 2\lambda\sigma|Z_1|Z_2}} = \frac{|Z_1| + (\frac{\sigma}{\lambda})Z_2}{\sqrt{Z_1^2 + (\frac{\sigma}{\lambda})^2 V + 2(\frac{\sigma}{\lambda})|Z_1|Z_2}} \\ &\rightarrow 1\end{aligned}$$

V increases with dimension

2.2 Comparison between 2 algorithms with regards to computational costs

Let's review following 2 algorithms

Algorithm 3 Approx tensor SVD 1

- 1: **procedure** SVD(\mathcal{A})
 - 2: **Step A: Approximate SVD of \mathcal{A}**
 - 3: **for** $n \leftarrow 1 : N$ **do**
 - 4: Unfold \mathcal{A} as $A_{(n)}$
 - 5: Generate an $I_1 \cdots I_{n-1} I_{n+1} \cdots I_N \times (k_i + p)$ Gaussian test matrix $\Omega^{(n)}$
 - 6: **For** $\mathbf{Y}^{(n)} = \mathbf{A}_{(n)} \Omega^{(n)}$
 - 7: Construct a matrix $\mathbf{Q}^{(n)}$ whose columns form an orthonormal basis for the range of $\mathbf{Y}^{(n)}$
 - 8: Form $\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{Y}^{(n)}} = \mathbf{Q}^{(n)} \mathbf{Q}^{(n)*}$
 - 9: get $\hat{\mathcal{A}} = \mathcal{A} \times_1 P_{Y^{(1)}} \times_2 P_{Y^{(2)}} \cdots \times_N P_{Y^{(N)}}$
 - 10: **Step B: Get approximated SVD**
 - 11: $\mathcal{S} = \mathcal{A} \times_1 Q^{(1)*} \times_2 Q^{(2)*} \cdots \times_N Q^{(N)*}$
 - 12: **for** $i \leftarrow 1 : N$ **do**
 - 13: $U^{(i)} = Q^{(i)}$
 - 14: **return** $(\mathcal{S}, U^{(1)} \cdots U^{(n)})$
-

Algorithm 4 Approx tensor SVD 2

```

1: procedure SVD( $\mathcal{A}$ )
2:   Step A: Approximate SVD of  $\mathcal{A}$ 
3:   for  $i \leftarrow 1 : N$  do
4:     Get Gaussian test matrix  $\Omega_n$  whose size is  $I_i \times (k_i + p)$ 
5:     Form  $A^{(i)} = \text{Unfold}_i(\mathcal{A} \times_1 \Omega_1^* \times \cdots \times_{i-1} \Omega_{i-1}^* \times_{i+1} \Omega_{i+1}^* \times \cdots \times_N \Omega_N^*)$ 
6:     Find a matrix  $Q^{(i)}$  whose size is  $\prod_{j \neq i} (k_j + p) \times (k_i + p)$  using  $\mathbf{Y}^{(i)} = \mathbf{A}_{(i)} \Omega^{(i)}$ 
7:      $U^{(i)} = Q^{(i)}$ 
8:   get  $\mathcal{S} = \mathcal{A} \times_1 Q^{(1)*} \times_2 Q^{(2)*} \cdots \times_N Q^{(N)*}$ 
9:   return  $(\mathcal{S}, U^{(1)} \dots U^{(n)})$ 

```

□

For simplicity, let $\mathcal{A} \in \mathbf{R}^{d \times \cdots \times d}$ with N -mode and our approximating rank of \mathcal{A} be k for each mode. Also only difference between 2 algorithms is in Step A so it's enough to compute complexity in Step A.

1. 1st method.

- $d^N k$ flops for matrix product (Algorithm 2: line 6)
- $2dk^2 - \frac{2}{3}k^3$ flops for each QR decomposition (Algorithm 2: line 7)
- $Nd^N k + N(2dk^2 - \frac{2}{3}k^3)$ flops for total

2. 2nd method.

- $d^N k + d^{N-1}k^2 + \cdots + d^2k^{N-1} = \frac{d^N k(1 - (\frac{k}{d})^{N-1})}{1 - \frac{k}{d}}$ flops for tensor mode product (Algorithm 3: line 5)
- dk^N flops for matrix product (Algorithm 3: line 6)
- $2dk^2 - \frac{2}{3}k^3$ flops for each QR decomposition (Algorithm 3: line 6)
- $N \frac{d^N k(1 - (\frac{k}{d})^{N-1})}{1 - \frac{k}{d}} + Ndk^N + N(2dk^2 - \frac{2}{3}k^3)$ flops for total

Note that two methods pay exactly same amount to perform QR decomposition. Therefore, we can only focus on product parts of each algorithm. 2nd method has an advantage when implementing matrix product after unfolding process. However, it turn out that tensor mode product cost too much to cover benefit from small dimension matrix multiplication.

However, those flops are contradictory from my previous simulation results: the second method took less time than the first method when I implemented algorithms. I could explain this contradiction using extra simulations.

In this simulation, I implemented algorithm on a $100 \times 100 \times 100$ tensor and our target rank is 1. Each algorithm are run 1000 times and I averaged times spent to do SVD.

Simulation results are as follow. Algorithm 2 took 0.07517 seconds on average and Algorithm 3 took 0.0648 on average. But my conclusion is not contradict above flops argument. This

is because we didn't take into account the time spent to draw random matrix for each case. I measured time for making random matrix in algorithm 2 (3 matrices whose sizes are 10000×1): 0.0149667.

Time for making random matrices in algorithm 3 are (6 matrices, 3 are size of 100×1 and 3 are size of 1×1): 10^{-5}

If we subtract the time generating random matrices from total spending time, Algorithm 2 becomes 0.06020 and Algorithm 3 becomes 0.06479, which makes sense to theoretical flops.

To sum up, we need to consider both how many flops would be taken for each operations and how long does it take to generate random matrices together when we choose one algorithm. Therefore, computation cost for each method would be

$$T_{\text{Matrix multiplication}} + T_{\text{QR decomposition}} + T_{\text{Generating Random matrices}}$$

Finally, total cost for computation would be

$$\begin{aligned} 1. \text{ 1st method: } & \underbrace{Nd^Nk + N(2dk^2 - \frac{2}{3}k^3)}_{\text{Matrix multiplication + QR}} + \underbrace{Nd^{N-1}k \times T}_{\text{Generating random matrices}} \\ 2. \text{ 2nd method: } & \underbrace{N \frac{d^Nk(1 - (\frac{k}{d})^{N-1})}{1 - \frac{k}{d}} + Ndk^N + N(2dk^2 - \frac{2}{3}k^3)}_{\text{Matrix multiplication + QR}} + \underbrace{N((N-1)dk + k^N) \times T}_{\text{Generating random matrices}} \end{aligned}$$

Where T is a cost for generating one random normal element.

In our simulation, the Algorithm 3 has less total computation cost than the Algorithm 2 because $d \gg k$.

```

1 library(tictoc)
2 a <- as.matrix(rnorm(100))
3 b <- as.matrix(rnorm(100))
4 c <- as.matrix(rnorm(100))
5 tnsr <- as.tensor(array(1,dim = c(1,1,1)))
6 X <- ttm(ttm(ttm(tnsr,a,1),b,2),c,3)
7 eps <- as.tensor(array(rnorm(1000000,mean = 0,sd = 0.75),dim = c
  (100,100,100)))
8 eps2 <- as.tensor(array(rnorm(1000000,mean = 0,sd = 0.8),dim = c
  (100,100,100)))
9 tensor_svd1(X+eps,1,1,1,0)
10 tensor_svd2(X+eps,1,1,1,0)
11 for(i in 1:1000){
12   tic()
13   tensor_svd(X+eps,1,1,1,0)
14   toc(log = T, quiet = T)
15 }
16 log.lst <- tic.log(format = F)
17 timings1 <- unlist(lapply(log.lst, function(x) x$toc - x$tic))
18 mean(timings1)
19 tic.clearlog()

```



```

20 for(i in 1:1000){
21   tic()
22   tensor_svd2(X+eps,1,1,1,0)
23   toc(log = T,quiet = T)
24 }
25 log.lst <- tic.log(format = F)
26 timings2 <- unlist(lapply(log.lst, function(x) x$toc - x$tic))
27 mean(timings2)
28 tic.clearlog()
29
30
31 for(i in 1:1000){
32   tic()
33   rnorm(10000);rnorm(10000);rnorm(10000)
34   toc(log = T, quiet = T)
35 }
36
37 log.lst <- tic.log(format = F)
38 timings1 <- unlist(lapply(log.lst, function(x) x$toc - x$tic))
39 mean(timings1)
40 tic.clearlog()
41
42 for(i in 1:1000){
43   tic()
44   rnorm(100);rnorm(100);rnorm(100);rnorm(1);rnorm(1);rnorm(1)
45   toc(log = T, quiet = T)
46 }
47
48 log.lst <- tic.log(format = F)
49 timings1 <- unlist(lapply(log.lst, function(x) x$toc - x$tic))
50 mean(timings1)
51 tic.clearlog()

```

3 To do list

1. I am working on finding some statistical properties of MLE in this model.
2. I want to study more about algorithmic convergence and get some paper related to this work.