

Higher Order Orthogonal Iteration of Tensors

Multi-Linear Subspace Learning

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- ① Introduction
- ② Primer
- ③ HOOI
- ④ PCA and HOOI
- ⑤ Application of HOOI
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What is Higher Order Orthogonal Iteration?

- Mathematically, a low rank approximation technique for tensors

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- Mathematically, a low rank approximation technique for tensors
- Can be considered as a unified view of dimension reduction techniques
- PCA - a special instance of HOOI

Agenda

- Primer on Principal Component Analysis(PCA), Single Value Decomposition(SVD) and Tensors
- Higher Order Orthogonal Iteration
- Relation of PCA and HOOI
- Application to Dimensionality Reduction

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Principal Component Analysis

- Why PCA?

Principal Component Analysis

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- Yes but actually no

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- Doesn't hurt a trade a little accuracy for simplicity
- Smaller data sets -
 - easier to explore and visualize
 - makes analyzing data much easier and faster for machine learning algorithms

PCA (two dimensional idea)

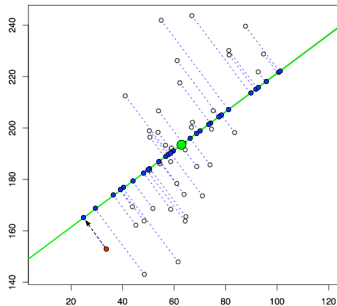


Figure 1: PCA in 2D

PCA (Mathematical Treatment I)

Let us take a model problem. We are given a set of matrices M_k , $k = 1, 2, \dots, K$, all of the same dimension $I \times J$.

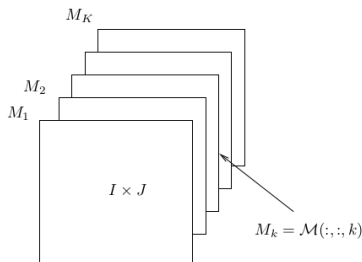


Figure 2: Set of K matrices $M_k \in I \times J$ represented as an $I \times J \times K$ tensor \mathcal{M}

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- where $A \equiv [y_1, y_2, \dots, y_K]$, $y_i = x_i - \mu$, $i = 1, \dots, K$

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- where $U_r = [u_1, \dots, u_r]$ and $\Lambda_r = \text{diag}\{\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_r\}$
- note that U_r is the orthogonal vector and Λ_r is the diagonal matrix with the diagonal as the eigenvalues.

PCA (Mathematical Treatment IV)

Finally, we reorient the data from the original axes to the ones represented by the principal components. For that we project the original data points x_i to the space of U_r to obtain,

$$\tilde{x}_i = U_r^T (x_i - \mu)$$

$$x_i = \mu + U_r \tilde{x}_i$$

PCA and HOOI

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SVD

Any real matrix $A_{m \times n}$ can be written (factorized) in the form of a product of three matrices $U_{m \times m}$, $\Sigma_{m \times n}$ and $V_{n \times m}^T$. This process is known as singular value decomposition. The diagonal entries $\sigma_i = \Sigma_{ii}$ of Σ are known as the singular values of M.

Mathematically,

$$A = U \Sigma V^T$$

Relevance of SVD in our Discussion

As we discussed in the earlier slides for PCA

- $C = U_r \lambda_r U_r^T$, $\mu = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i=1}^K x_i$, $C = AA^T \in R^{N \times N}$

This U_r can be obtained using SVD also.

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- where $\Sigma_r = \text{diag}\{\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_r\} \in R^{r \times r}$ is the diagonal matrix containing the r largest singular values of A in the descending order $\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_r$

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- Next few slides - some mathematical aspects of Tensor calculations required for HOOI

Tensor Maths I



Figure 3: \mathcal{A} , a
 $2 \times 2 \times 2$ matrix



Figure 4: \mathcal{B} , another
 $2 \times 2 \times 2$ matrix

- The inner product of two such tensors \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B} can be calculated in the following form

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- $$= \sum_{i=1}^2 \mathcal{A}_{i11} \mathcal{B}_{i11} + \sum_{i=1}^2 \mathcal{A}_{i21} \mathcal{B}_{i21} + \sum_{i=1}^2 \mathcal{A}_{i12} \mathcal{B}_{i12} + \sum_{i=1}^2 \mathcal{A}_{i22} \mathcal{B}_{i22}$$

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- extending this idea to T 'th order tensors $\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B} \in R^{I_1 \times I_2 \times \dots \times I_T}$;

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$$\text{dist}(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B}) = \|\mathcal{A} - \mathcal{B}\|_F$$

Tensor Maths III (Modes of Tensors)

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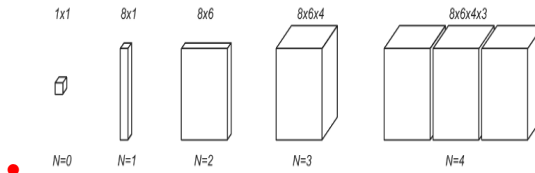


Figure 5: Illustration of tensors of order $N = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4$.

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- When we have a set of N vectors or matrices, one for each mode, we denote the n th (i.e., mode- n) **vector** or **matrix** using a superscript in parenthesis, for example, as $\mathbf{u}^{(n)}$ or $\mathbf{U}^{(n)}$ and the whole set as $\{\mathbf{u}^{(1)}, \mathbf{u}^{(2)}, \dots, \mathbf{u}^{(N)}\}$ or $\{\mathbf{U}^{(1)}, \mathbf{U}^{(2)}, \dots, \mathbf{U}^{(N)}\}$, or more compactly as $\{\mathbf{u}^{(n)}\}$ or $\{\mathbf{U}^{(n)}\}$.

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- Next lets, look at mode- n vectors and mode- n slices of \mathcal{A} .

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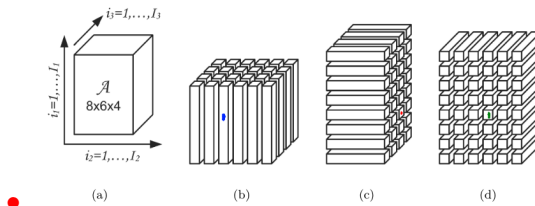


Figure 6: Illustration of the mode- n vectors: (a) a tensor $\mathcal{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{8 \times 6 \times 4}$, (b) the mode-1 vectors, (c) the mode-2 vectors, and (d) the mode-3 vectors.

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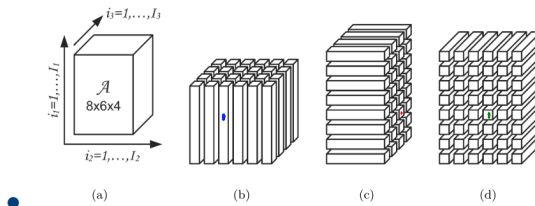


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- notation, blue - $\mathcal{A}(:, 3, 1)$, red - $\mathcal{A}(6, :, 3)$, green - $\mathcal{A}(5, 4, :)$

Tensor Maths III (Modes of Tensors Contd. III)

- Similarly, the i_n th **mode- n slice** of \mathcal{A} are defined as the $(N - 1)$ th-order tensor obtained by fixing the mode- n index of \mathcal{A} to be i_n : $\mathcal{A}(:, \dots :, i_n, :, \dots, :)$

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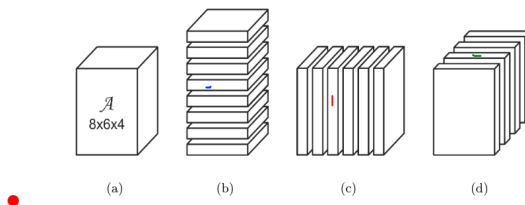


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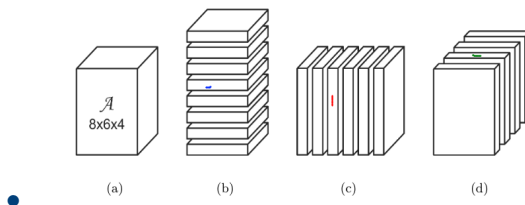


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Tensor Maths IV (Basic Operations - Unfolding)

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properties

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- Also known as tensor to matrix transformation, flattening, matricization
- A tensor can be unfolded into a matrix by rearranging its **mode- n** vectors. The **mode- n unfolding** of \mathcal{A} is denoted by $A_{(n)} \in \mathbb{R}^{I_n \times (I_1 \times \dots \times I_{n-1} \times I_{n+1} \times \dots \times I_N)}$, where the column vectors of $A_{(n)}$ are the **mode- n** vectors of \mathcal{A} .

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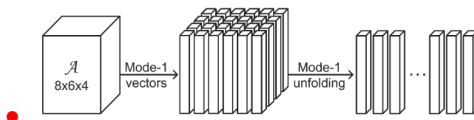


Figure 8: Visual illustration of the mode-1 unfolding from $\mathcal{A}_{8 \times 6 \times 4}$ to $A_{(1)}_{8 \times 24}$

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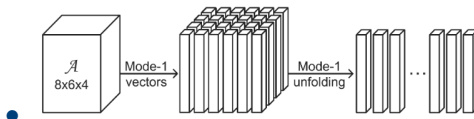


Figure 8: Visual illustration of the mode-1 unfolding from $\mathcal{A}_{8 \times 6 \times 4}$ to $A_{8 \times 24}$

- Similarly vectorization would provide a 192×1 matrix.

Tensor Maths IV (Basic Operations - Mode- n product)

- The **mode- n product** of a tensor $\mathcal{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{I_1 \times I_2 \times \dots \times I_N}$ by a matrix $U \in \mathbb{R}^{J_n \times I_n}$ is a tensor $\mathcal{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{I_1 \times \dots \times I_{n-1} \times J_n \times I_{n+1} \times \dots \times I_N}$ denoted by

$$\mathcal{B} = \mathcal{A} \times_n U$$

.

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- The **mode- n product** of a tensor $\mathcal{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{I_1 \times I_2 \times \dots \times I_N}$ by a matrix $U \in \mathbb{R}^{J_n \times I_n}$ is a tensor $\mathcal{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{I_1 \times \dots \times I_{n-1} \times J_n \times I_{n+1} \times \dots \times I_N}$ denoted by

$$\mathcal{B} = \mathcal{A} \times_n U$$

- where each entry of \mathcal{B} is defined as the sum of products of corresponding entries in \mathcal{A} and U :

$$\mathcal{B}(i_1, \dots, i_{n-1}, j_n, i_{n+1}, \dots, i_N) = \sum_{i_n} \mathcal{A}(i_1, \dots, i_N) \cdot U(j_n, i_n)$$

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- equivalent to premultiplying each mode- n vector of \mathcal{A} by U . Thus, the mode- n product above can be written using the mode- n unfolding as

$$B_{(n)} = UA_{(n)}$$

Tensor Maths IV (Basic Operations - Mode-1 product)

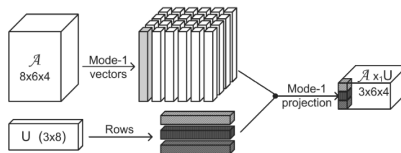


Figure 9: Visual illustration of the mode- n (mode-1) multiplication

Tensor Maths V (Some Properties of Mode Multiplication)

- multiplication of more than mode possible, order immaterial provided the modes are distinct $\mathcal{A} \times_{n_1} U_{n_1} \times_{n_2} U_{n_2} \dots \times_{n_p} U_{n_p}$

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- mode- n unfolding of \mathcal{A} , denoted by $\mathcal{A}_{(n)}$ - a matrix unfolding

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Higher Order Orthogonal Iteration

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$$\min_{\substack{U^{(1)}, U^{(2)}, \dots, U^{(T)} \\ \mathcal{B}}} \left\| \mathcal{A} - \mathcal{B} \times_1 U^{(1)} \times_2 U^{(2)} \dots \times_T U^{(T)} \right\|_F^2$$

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- optimal $\mathcal{B} = \mathcal{A} \times_{(1)} U^{(1)T} \times_{(2)} U^{(2)T} \dots \times_T U^{(T)T}$ properties

Higher Order Orthogonal Iteration contd.

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- HOOI algo. for 3rd order tensor is explained in the next slide. Extension to higher order tensors is straightforward.

HOOI - Algorithm

input : $\mathcal{A}_{I \times J \times K}$ and r_1, r_2, r_3
output: $L \in \mathbb{R}^{I \times r_1}$, $R \in \mathbb{R}^{J \times r_2}$,
 $V \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times r_3}, \mathcal{B}$

Choose initial R, V with
 orthonormal columns ;

while *until convergence* **do**

$$\mathcal{C} = \mathcal{A} \times_2 R^T \times_3 V^T;$$

$$L = \text{SVD}(r_1, \mathcal{C}_{(1)});$$

$$\mathcal{D} = \mathcal{A} \times_1 L^T \times_3 V^T;$$

$$R = \text{SVD}(r_2, \mathcal{D}_{(2)});$$

$$\mathcal{E} = \mathcal{A} \times_1 L^T \times_2 R^T;$$

$$V = \text{SVD}(r_3, \mathcal{E}_{(3)});$$

end

$$\mathcal{B} = \mathcal{E} \times_3 V^T$$

Algorithm 1: HOOI

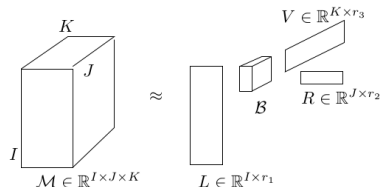


Figure 10: \mathcal{M} approximated by $\mathcal{B} \times_1 L \times_2 R \times_3 V$. \mathcal{B} - core tensor, $L(U^{(1)})$, $R(U^{(2)})$, $V(U^{(3)})$ are projection matrices

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Relation between PCA and HOOI

3rd order tensor

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 - using HOOI to compute a rank(I, J, r) approximation $\mathcal{B} \times_1 I_I \times_2 I_J \times_3 V_r = \mathcal{B} \times_3 V_r$ to \mathcal{M} , where $V_r \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times r}$ is the projection matrix determined by HOOI, and

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 - using PCA to compute projection matrix $U_r \in \mathbb{R}^{I \times r}$

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Application

- HOOI is useful for dimension reduction because the memory required to store projection matrices L , R , and V and the core tensor \mathcal{B} , i. e., $Ir_1 + Jr_2 + Kr_3 + r_1r_2r_3$ is often significantly less than the storage IJK required for the original $I \times J \times K$ tensor, \mathcal{M} .

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- Not only is the memory saved, but also when the data processed, the algorithms can use it quicker since the dimensions are reduced.
- Can be used in classification as well as regression tasks
dimensionality reduction

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- [1] Bernard N. Sheehan and Yousef Saad *Higher order orthogonal iteration of tensors (HOOI) and its relation to PCA and GLRAM..* Proceedings of the 2007 SIAM International Conference on Data Mining. Society for Industrial and Applied Mathematics, 2007.
- [2] Haiping Lu *Multilinear Subspace Learning: Dimensionality Reduction of Multidimensional Data.* CRC Press, 2012.

Thanks!