

Introduction to Tensors

POEMA Workshop

Florence, 15-17th January, 2020

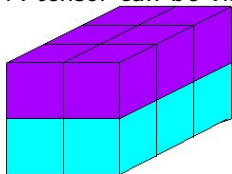
Giorgio Ottaviani

Università di Firenze

January 17, 2020



Let V_i be vector spaces over $K = \mathbb{R}$ or \mathbb{C} . A tensor is an element $f \in V_1 \otimes \dots \otimes V_k$, that is a multilinear map $V_1^V \times \dots \times V_k^V \rightarrow K$.
A tensor can be visualized as a multidimensional matrix.

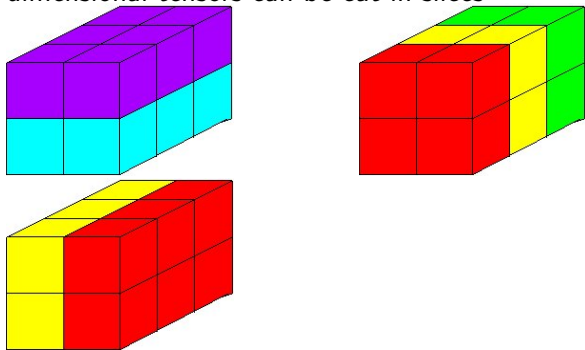


Entries of f are labelled by k indices, as $a_{i_1 \dots i_k}$.
For example, in the case $3 \times 2 \times 2$, with obvious notations, the expression in coordinates of a tensor is

$$\begin{aligned} & a_{000}x_0y_0z_0 + a_{001}x_0y_0z_1 + a_{010}x_0y_1z_0 + a_{011}x_0y_1z_1 + \\ & a_{100}x_1y_0z_0 + a_{101}x_1y_0z_1 + a_{110}x_1y_1z_0 + a_{111}x_1y_1z_1 + \\ & a_{200}x_2y_0z_0 + a_{201}x_2y_0z_1 + a_{210}x_2y_1z_0 + a_{211}x_2y_1z_1 \end{aligned}$$



Just as matrices can be cut in rows or in columns, higher dimensional tensors can be cut in slices



The three ways to cut a $3 \times 2 \times 2$ matrix into parallel slices
For a tensor of format $n_1 \times \dots \times n_k$, there are n_1 slices of format $n_2 \times \dots \times n_k$.



We can operate adding linear combinations of a slice to another slice, just in the case of rows and columns.

This amounts to multiply A of format $n_1 \times \dots \times n_k$ for $G_1 \in GL(n_1)$, then for $G_i \in GL(n_i)$.

The group acting is quite big
 $G = GL(n_1) \times \dots \times GL(n_k)$.



The group is big, but not so big...

Let $\dim V_i = n_i$

$$\dim V_1 \otimes \dots \otimes V_k = \prod_{i=1}^k n_i \sim n_1^k$$

$$\dim GL(n_1) \times \dots \times GL(n_k) = \sum_{i=1}^k n_i^2 \sim n_1^2$$

For $k \geq 3$, the dimension of the group is in general much less than the dimension of the space where it acts.

This makes a strong difference between the classical case $k = 2$ (**matrices**) and the case $k \geq 3$ (**tensors**).

Basic reference J.M. Landsberg, *Tensors: Geometry and Applications*, AMS, 2012.



Decomposable tensors, of rank one.

We need some “simple” tensors to start with.

Definition

A tensor f is *decomposable* if there exist $x^i \in V_i$ for $i = 1, \dots, k$ such that $a_{i_1 \dots i_k} = x_{i_1}^1 x_{i_2}^2 \dots x_{i_k}^k$. In equivalent way,
 $f = x^1 \otimes \dots \otimes x^k$.

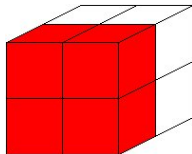
For a (nonzero) usual matrix, decomposable \iff rank one.
Define the rank of a tensor t as

$$\text{rk}(t) := \min\{r \mid t = \sum_{i=1}^r t_i, t_i \text{ are decomposable}\}$$

For matrices, this coincides with usual rank.



Weierstrass Theorem about Tensor Decomposition in $n \times n \times 2$ case



Theorem (Weierstrass)

A general tensor t of format $n \times n \times 2$ has a unique tensor decomposition as a sum of n decomposable tensors

There is an algorithm to actually decompose such tensors. We see how it works in a $3 \times 3 \times 2$ example.

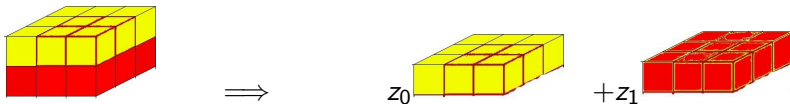


Tensor decomposition in a $3 \times 3 \times 2$ example.

We consider the following “random” real tensor

$$\begin{aligned} f = & 6x_0y_0z_0 & +2x_1y_0z_0 & + 6x_2y_0z_0 \\ & - 2014x_0y_1z_0 & +121x_1y_1z_0 & - 11x_2y_1z_0 \\ & + 48x_0y_2z_0 & -13x_1y_2z_0 & - 40x_2y_2z_0 \\ & - 31x_0y_0z_1 & +93x_1y_0z_1 & + 97x_2y_0z_1 \\ & + 63x_0y_1z_1 & +41x_1y_1z_1 & - 94x_2y_1z_1 \\ & - 3x_0y_2z_1 & +47x_1y_2z_1 & + 4x_2y_2z_1 \end{aligned}$$

We divide into two 3×3 slices, like in



Sum the yellow slice plus t times the red slice.

$$f_0 + tf_1 = \text{[yellow slice]} + t \text{[red slice]}$$

$$f_0 + tf_1 = \begin{pmatrix} -31t + 6 & 63t - 2014 & -3t + 48 \\ 93t + 2 & 41t + 121 & 47t - 13 \\ 97t + 6 & -94t - 11 & 4t - 40 \end{pmatrix}$$



Singular combination of slices

We compute the determinant, which is a cubic polynomial in t

$$\det(f_0 + tf_1) = 159896t^3 - 8746190t^2 - 5991900t - 69830$$

with roots $t_0 = -.0118594$, $t_1 = -.664996$, $t_2 = 55.3761$.

This computation gives a “guess” about the three summands for z_i , (note the sign change!)

$$f = A_0(.0118594z_0 + z_1) + A_1(.664996z_0 + z_1) + A_2(-55.3761z_0 + z_1)$$

where A_i are 3×3 matrices of rank one, that we have to find.

Indeed, we get

$$f_0 + tf_1 = A_0(.0118594 + t) + A_1(.664996 + t) + A_2(-55.3761 + t)$$

and for the three roots $t = t_i$ one summand vanishes, it remains a matrix of rank 2, *with only two colors*, hence with zero determinant.



Finding the three matrices from kernels.

In order to find A_i , let $a_0 = (-.0589718 \quad -.964899 \quad .255916)$,
left kernel of $f_0 + t_0 f_1$

let $b_0 = (-.992905 \quad -.00596967 \quad -.118765)$, transpose of right
kernel of $f_0 + t_0 f_1$.

In the same way, denote

$a_1 =$ left kernel of $f_0 + t_1 f_1$, $a_2 =$ left kernel of $f_0 + t_2 f_1$

$b_1 =$ transpose of right kernel of $f_0 + t_1 f_1$, $b_2 =$ transpose of
right kernel of $f_0 + t_2 f_1$,

$$aa = \begin{pmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ a_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -.0589718 & -.964899 & .255916 \\ -.014181 & -.702203 & .711835 \\ .959077 & .0239747 & .282128 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$bb = \begin{pmatrix} b_0 \\ b_1 \\ b_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -.992905 & -.00596967 & -.118765 \\ .582076 & -.0122361 & -.813043 \\ .316392 & .294791 & -.901662 \end{pmatrix}$$



Now we invert the two matrices

$$aa^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} .450492 & -.582772 & 1.06175 \\ -1.43768 & .548689 & -.0802873 \\ -1.40925 & 1.93447 & -.0580488 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$bb^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} -.923877 & .148851 & -.0125305 \\ -.986098 & -3.43755 & 3.22958 \\ -.646584 & -1.07165 & -.0575754 \end{pmatrix}$$

The first summand A_0 is given by a scalar c_0 multiplied by
 $(.450492x_0 - 1.43768x_1 - 1.40925x_2)(-.923877y_0 - .986098y_1 -$
 $.646584y_2)$

the same for the other colors.



Decomposition as sum of three terms

By solving a linear system, we get the scalars c_i

$$\begin{aligned} & (.450492x_0 - 1.43768x_1 - 1.40925x_2)(-.923877y_0 - .986098y_1 - .646584y_2)(.809777z_0 + 68.2814z_1) + \\ & (-.582772x_0 + .548689x_1 + 1.93447x_2)(.148851y_0 - 3.43755y_1 - 1.07165y_2)(18.6866z_0 + 28.1003z_1) + \\ & (1.06175x_0 - .0802873x_1 - .0580488x_2)(-.0125305y_0 + 3.22958y_1 - .0575754y_2)(-598.154z_0 + 10.8017z_1) \end{aligned}$$

and the sum is

$$\begin{array}{lll} 6x_0y_0z_0 + 2x_1y_0z_0 & & +6x_2y_0z_0 \\ -2014x_0y_1z_0 + 121x_1y_1z_0 & & -11x_2y_1z_0 \\ +48x_0y_2z_0 - 13x_1y_2z_0 & & -40x_2y_2z_0 \\ -31x_0y_0z_1 + 93x_1y_0z_1 & & +97x_2y_0z_1 \\ +63x_0y_1z_1 + 41x_1y_1z_1 & & -94x_2y_1z_1 \\ -3x_0y_2z_1 + 47x_1y_2z_1 & & +4x_2y_2z_1 \end{array}$$

The rank of the tensor f is 3, because we have 3 summands, and no less.



Uniqueness of the decomposition

The decomposition we have found is *unique*, up to reordering the summands.

This is a strong difference with the case of matrices, where any decomposition with at least two summands is *never unique*.

For tensors f of rank ≤ 2 , the characteristic polynomial vanishes identically.

We understand this phenomenon geometrically, in a while.



General symmetric tensors of rank s fill an open subset of an irreducible projective variety, which is called the **s -th secant variety** to the Veronese variety $v_d(\mathbb{P}^n)$ and it is denoted by $\sigma_s v_d(\mathbb{P}^n)$.

The rational normal curve $v_d(\mathbb{P}^1)$ is called also the **moment curve** since it has the parametrization

$$(1, t, t^2, \dots, t^d)$$



Six differences between matrix rank and tensor rank

- 1) Tensor Rank may be different from the dimension of image

- 2) Tensor Rank may be larger than the dimensions of the factors



3) Tensor Rank may increase or decrease in a limit (for matrices may only decrease)

4) Maximum Tensor rank may be larger than Generic Tensor Rank



5) Tensor Rank may depend on the field

6) Tensor Rank is NP-hard to be computed



A seventh difference which marks a point for Tensors !

7) Tensor Decomposition is in general unique, unless the case of matrices.

See Luca Chiantini talk, this afternoon.



Symmetric tensors = homogeneous polynomials

In the case $V_1 = \dots = V_k = V$ we may consider symmetric tensors $f \in S^d V$.

Elements of $S^d V$ can be considered as homogeneous polynomials of degree d in x_0, \dots, x_n , basis of V .

So polynomials have rank (as all tensors) and also symmetric rank (next slides).



Symmetric Tensor Decomposition (Waring)

A *Waring decomposition* of $f \in S^d V$ is

$$f = \sum_{i=1}^r c_i (l_i)^d \quad \text{with } l_i \in V$$

with minimal r , which is called the **symmetric rank**

Example: $7x^3 - 30x^2y + 42xy^2 - 19y^3 = (-x + 2y)^3 + (2x - 3y)^3$
 $\text{rk}(7x^3 - 30x^2y + 42xy^2 - 19y^3) = 2$



It is obvious that for a symmetric tensor f we have

$$\text{rank}(f) \leq \text{symmetricrank}(f)$$

In 2017 Shitov shocked the tensor community by exhibiting a polynomial f of degree 3 in 800 variables, say a symmetric tensor of format $800 \times 800 \times 800$ such that

$$\text{rank}(f) \leq 903 < 904 \leq \text{symmetricrank}(f)$$

The tensors where rank and symmetric rank differ are not yet understood. Do they form a set of measure zero ?



Theorem (Campbell, Terracini, Alexander-Hirschowitz)
[1891] [1916] [1995]

The general $f \in S^d \mathbb{C}^{n+1}$ ($d \geq 3$) has rank

$$\left\lceil \frac{\binom{n+d}{d}}{n+1} \right\rceil$$

which is called the **generic rank**, with the only exceptions

- $S^4 \mathbb{C}^{n+1}$, $2 \leq n \leq 4$, where the generic rank is $\binom{n+2}{2}$
- $S^3 \mathbb{C}^5$, where the generic rank is 8, **sporadic case**



For any $l = \alpha x_0 + \beta x_1 \in \mathbb{C}^2$ we denote $l^\perp = -\beta \partial_0 + \alpha \partial_1 \in \mathbb{C}^{2^\vee}$.
Note that

$$l^\perp(l^d) = 0 \tag{1}$$

so that l^\perp is well defined (without referring to coordinates) up to scalar multiples. Let e be an integer. Any $f \in S^d \mathbb{C}^2$ defines

$$C_f^e: S^e(\mathbb{C}^{2^\vee}) \rightarrow S^{d-e} \mathbb{C}^2$$

Elements in $S^e(\mathbb{C}^{2^\vee})$ can be decomposed as $(l_1^\perp \circ \dots \circ l_e^\perp)$ for some $l_i \in \mathbb{C}^2$.



Proposition

Let l_i be distinct for $i = 1, \dots, e$. There are $c_i \in K$ such that $f = \sum_{i=1}^e c_i (l_i)^d$ if and only if $(l_1^\perp \circ \dots \circ l_e^\perp) f = 0$

Proof: The implication \implies is immediate from (1). It can be summarized by the inclusion

$\langle (l_1)^d, \dots, (l_e)^d \rangle \subseteq \ker(l_1^\perp \circ \dots \circ l_e^\perp)$. The other inclusion follows by dimensional reasons, because both spaces have dimension e . \square

The previous Proposition is the core of the Prony-Sylvester algorithm, because the differential operators killing f allow to define the decomposition of f , as we see in the next slide.



Prony-Sylvester algorithm for Waring decomposition in two variables

Prony-Sylvester algorithm for general f Compute the decomposition of a general $f \in S^d U$

- Pick a generator g of $\ker C_f^a$ with $a = \lfloor \frac{d+1}{2} \rfloor$.
- Decompose g as product of linear factors, $g = (l_1^\perp \circ \dots \circ l_r^\perp)$
- Solve the system $f = \sum_{i=1}^r c_i (l_i)^d$ in the unknowns c_i .

Remark When d is odd the kernel is one-dimensional and the decomposition is unique. When d is even the kernel is two-dimensional and there are infinitely many decompositions.



The catalecticant matrices for two variables

If $f(x, y) = a_0x^4 + 4a_1x^3y + 6a_2x^2y^2 + 4a_3xy^3 + a_4y^4$ then

$$C_f^1 = \begin{bmatrix} a_0 & a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ a_1 & a_2 & a_3 & a_4 \end{bmatrix}$$

and

$$C_f^2 = \begin{bmatrix} a_0 & a_1 & a_2 \\ a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ a_2 & a_3 & a_4 \end{bmatrix}$$



The catalecticant algorithm at work

The catalecticant matrix associated to $f = 7x^3 - 30x^2 + 42x - 19 = 0$ is

$$A_f = \begin{bmatrix} 7 & -10 & 14 \\ -10 & 14 & -19 \end{bmatrix}$$

$\ker A_f$ is spanned by $\begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 7 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$ which corresponds to

$$6\partial_x^2 + 7\partial_x\partial_y + 2\partial_y^2 = (2\partial_x + \partial_y)(3\partial_x + 2\partial_y)$$

Hence the decomposition

$$7x^3 - 30x^2y + 42xy^2 - 19y^3 = c_1(-x + 2y)^3 + c_2(2x - 3y)^3$$

Solving the linear system, we get

$$c_1 = c_2 = 1$$



The singular n-plex (Optimization Problem)

Any tensor $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m_1} \otimes \dots \otimes \mathbb{R}^{m_d}$ (m_i can be different) defines by contraction a function f_A over the product $S = S^{m_1-1} \times \dots \times S^{m_d-1}$ of the corresponding spheres.

$$\begin{aligned} f_A: S &\rightarrow \mathbb{R} \\ x &\mapsto A \times x \end{aligned}$$

In alternative, f_A could be defined over the affine cone of decomposable tensors.

Theorem ([Lim, Qi], Variational principle)

The critical points of f_A corresponds to d -ples $(x_1, \dots, x_d) \in S$ such that

$$A(x_1, \dots, \hat{x}_i, \dots, x_d) = \lambda x_i \quad \forall i = 1, \dots, d$$

- L.-H. Lim, *Singular values and eigenvalues of tensors: a variational approach*, Proc. IEEE, (CAMSAP '05), (2005).
- L. Qi, *Eigenvalues of a real supersymmetric tensor*, J. Symbolic Comput. (2005)

The critical points of the theorem are called singular d -ples, or E -eigenvectors in the symmetric case ([Hu-Qi]).

- S. Hu, L. Qi, *The E -eigenvectors of tensors*, Linear and Multilinear Algebra, (2013)



The euclidean quadratic form $\langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^m x_i y_i$, where $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^m$ is often extended to the complex case as the Hermitian form $\langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^m x_i \bar{y}_i$, where $x, y \in \mathbb{C}^m$.

To use algebro-geometric techniques it is more convenient to extend it as $\langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^m x_i y_i$, where $x, y \in \mathbb{C}^m$.

This is enough to identify each vector space \mathbb{C}^m with its dual. Moreover the complex orthogonal group $O(m, \mathbb{C})$ is acting over any \mathbb{C}^m . Anyway this “trick” will have some annoying consequences, about transversality, we will see later....



The group $O(\mathbf{m}, \mathbb{C}) := O(m_1, \mathbb{C}) \times \dots \times O(m_d, \mathbb{C})$ acts over $\mathbb{C}^{m_1} \otimes \dots \otimes \mathbb{C}^{m_d}$ in natural way.

Lemma

Let $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m_1} \otimes \dots \otimes \mathbb{C}^{m_d}$ be a tensor.

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} (x_1, \dots, x_d) \\ \text{is a singular } d\text{-ple of } A \end{array} \right\} \iff \left\{ \begin{array}{l} g \cdot (x_1, \dots, x_d) \\ \text{is a singular } d\text{-ple of } g \cdot A \\ \forall g \in O(\mathbf{m}, \mathbb{C}). \end{array} \right.$$



For $d = 2$, tensors correspond to usual matrices A , and singular 2-plets are the classical singular pairs of vectors (x, y) such that

$$Ax = \lambda y \quad A^T y = \lambda x$$

If A is general matrix of format $m \times n$, it has $\min(m, n)$ singular pairs of vectors.

Question How many singular d -ples has a general tensor A ?



The number of singular d -ples

Theorem ([Friedland-O])

The number of singular d -ples of a general tensor A over \mathbb{C} , of format $m_1 \times \dots \times m_d$, is the coefficient of $\prod_{i=1}^d t_i^{m_i-1}$ in the polynomial

$$\prod_{i=1}^d \frac{\hat{t}_i^{m_i} - t_i^{m_i}}{\hat{t}_i - t_i}$$

where $\hat{t}_i = \sum_{j \neq i} t_j$.

We denote this coefficient by $c(m_1, \dots, m_d)$.

- S. Friedland, G. Ottaviani, *The number of singular vector tuples and uniqueness of best rank one approximation of tensors*, Journal Found. Comp. Math. 2014.



Theorem ([Friedland-O])

The number of singular d -ples of a general tensor A over \mathbb{R} of format $m_1 \times \dots \times m_d$ is $\leq c(m_1, \dots, m_d)$. Moreover there are no singular d -ples corresponding to zero singular value and all singular d -ples are simple.

Note that $c(m_1, m_2) = \min(m_1, m_2)$. For $d \geq 3$ the numbers $c(m_1, \dots, m_d)$ are quite large. For example $c(\underbrace{2, \dots, 2}_d) = d!$.



The proof needs Chern classes on Segre variety.

Let $X = \mathbb{P}(\mathbb{C}^{m_1}) \times \dots \times \mathbb{P}(\mathbb{C}^{m_d})$ be the projective variety of rank one tensors, called the **Segre variety**. Let Q_i be the pullback on X of the quotient bundle from the i -th factor.

The singular d -ples of a tensor A are zero locus of a section, corresponding to A , of the bundle on X

$$[Q_1 \otimes \mathcal{O}(0, 1, 1, \dots, 1)] \oplus [Q_2 \otimes \mathcal{O}(1, 0, 1, \dots, 1)] \oplus \dots$$

where $\mathcal{O}(a_1, \dots, a_d)$ is the line bundle obtained by tensoring the pullback of $\mathcal{O}(a_i)$ from i -th factor.

The formula comes from computing the top **Chern class** of this bundle. The multiplicity of a d -ple can be defined as the multiplicity in the zero locus of the section corresponding to A .



List of the number $c(m_1, m_2, m_3)$ of singular 3-plets

m_1, m_2, m_3	$c(m_1, m_2, m_3)$	
2, 2, 2	6	
2, 2, m_3	8	$m_3 \geq 3$
2, 3, 3	15	
2, 3, m_3	18	$m_3 \geq 4$
2, m, m	$m(2m - 1)$	
2, m_2, m_3	$2m_2^2$	$m_3 \geq m_2 + 1$
3, 3, 3	37	
3, 3, 4	55	
3, 3, m_3	61	$m_3 \geq 5$
3, 4, 4	104	
3, 4, 5	138	
3, 4, m_3	148	$m_3 \geq 6$
3, 5, 5	225	
3, 5, 6	280	
3, 5, m_3	295	$m_3 \geq 7$
3, m_2, m_3	$\frac{8}{3}m_2^3 - 2m_2^2 + \frac{7}{3}m_2$	$m_3 \geq m_2 + 2$

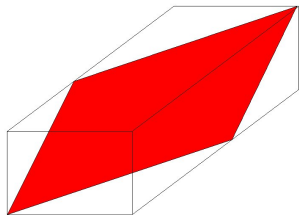


The boundary format and the diagonal.

The format (of a tensor) $m_1 \times \dots \times m_d$ with $m_1 \leq \dots \leq m_d$ is called **boundary format** if

$$m_d - 1 = \sum_{i=1}^{d-1} (m_i - 1)$$

In the boundary format case it is well defined a unique **diagonal** given by elements $a_{i_1 \dots i_d}$ satisfying $i_d = \sum_{j=1}^{d-1} i_j$



(indices start from zero)

In $d = 2$ case, boundary format means square.



The number of critical points *stabilizes* for formats larger than boundary format, that is

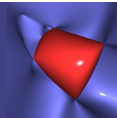
Corollary ([Friedland-O])

For $m_d - 1 \geq \sum_{i=1}^{d-1} (m_i - 1)$, the number of critical points, from a general tensor to the variety of rank one tensors, does not depend on m_d .

Open question Is there a direct proof of Corollary, without using the formula ?



Thanks



Thanks !!



European
Commission

Horizon 2020
European Union funding
for Research & Innovation

