EIGENVECTORS OF TENSORS

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How many eigenvectors does a $3 \times 3 \times 3$ -tensor have? How many singular vector triples does a $3 \times 3 \times 3$ -tensor have?

What is this?



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Tensors and their rank

A tensor is a *d*-dimensional array of numbers $T = (t_{i_1i_2\cdots i_d})$. For d = 1 this is a vector, and for d = 2 this is a matrix.

A tensor T of format $n_1 \times n_2 \times \cdots \times n_d$ has $n_1 n_2 \cdots n_d$ entries.

T has rank 1 if it is the outer product of d vectors $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}, \dots, \mathbf{w}$:

 $t_{i_1i_2\cdots i_d} = u_{i_1}v_{i_2}\cdots w_{i_d}.$

The set of tensors of rank 1 is the Segre variety.

A tensor has rank r if it is the sum of r tensors of rank 1. (not fewer).

Tensor decomposition:

- Express a given tensor as a sum of rank 1 tensors.
- Use as few summands as possible.

Textbook: JM Landsberg: Tensors: Geometry and Applications, 2012.

Symmetric tensors

An $n \times n \times \cdots \times n$ -tensor $T = (t_{i_1 i_2 \cdots i_d})$ is symmetric if it is unchanged under permuting indices. Dimension is $\binom{n+d-1}{d}$.

T has rank 1 if it is the *d*-fold outer product of a vector \mathbf{v} :

$$t_{i_1i_2\cdots i_d} = v_{i_1}v_{i_2}\cdots v_{i_d}.$$

The set of symmetric tensors of rank 1 is the Veronese variety.

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Open Problem [Comon's Conjecture] Is the rank of every symmetric tensor equal to its rank as a general tensor?

True for d = 2: every rank 1 decomposition of a symmetric matrix

$$T = \mathbf{u}_1^t \mathbf{v}_1 + \mathbf{u}_2^t \mathbf{v}_2 + \cdots + \mathbf{u}_r^t \mathbf{v}_r.$$

transforms into a decomposition with rank 1 symmetric matrices:

$$T = \mathbf{w}_1^t \mathbf{w}_1 + \mathbf{w}_2^t \mathbf{w}_2 + \dots + \mathbf{w}_r^t \mathbf{w}_r$$

Polynomials and their eigenvectors

Symmetric tensors correspond to homogeneous polynomials

$$T = \sum_{i_1,\ldots,i_d=1}^n t_{i_1i_2\cdots i_d} \cdot x_{i_1}x_{i_2}\cdots x_{i_d}$$

The tensor has rank r if T is a sum of r powers of linear forms:

$$T = \sum_{j=1}^{r} \lambda_j \mathbf{v}_j^{\otimes d} = \sum_{j=1}^{r} \lambda_j (v_{1j} x_1 + v_{2j} x_2 + \cdots + v_{nj} x_n)^d.$$

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The gradient of T defines a polynomial map of degree d - 1:

$$\nabla T: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n.$$

A vector $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is an eigenvector of the tensor T if

$$(\nabla T)(\mathbf{v}) = \lambda \cdot \mathbf{v}$$
 for some $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$.

What is this good for?

Consider the optimization problem of maximizing a homogeneous polynomial T over the unit sphere in \mathbb{R}^n .

Lagrange multipliers lead to the equations

 $(\nabla T)(\mathbf{v}) = \lambda \cdot \mathbf{v}$ for some $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$.

Fact: The critical points are the eigenvectors of T.

It is convenient to replace \mathbb{R}^n with **projective space** \mathbb{P}^{n-1} .

Eigenvectors of T are fixed points of $\nabla T : \mathbb{P}^{n-1} \dashrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n-1}$.

Fact: These are nonlinear dynamical systems on \mathbb{P}^{n-1} .

[Lim, Ng, Qi: The spectral theory of tensors and its applications, 2013]

Linear maps

Real symmetric $n \times n$ -matrices (t_{ij}) correspond to quadratic forms

$$T = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} t_{ij} x_i x_j$$

By the Spectral Theorem, there exists a real decomposition

$$T = \sum_{j=1}^{r} \lambda_j (v_{1j}x_1 + v_{2j}x_2 + \cdots + v_{nj}x_n)^2.$$

Here r is the rank and the λ_j are the eigenvalues of T. The eigenvectors $v_j = (v_{1j}, v_{2j}, \dots, v_{nj})$ are orthonormal.

One can compute this decomposition by the *Power Method*:

Iterate the linear map $\nabla T : \mathbb{P}^{n-1} \dashrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n-1}$

Fixed points of this dynamical system are eigenvectors of T.

Quadratic maps

Symmetric $n \times n \times n$ -tensors (t_{ijk}) correspond to cubic forms

$$T = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n} t_{ijk} x_i x_j x_k$$

We are interested in low rank decompositions

$$T = \sum_{j=1}^{r} \lambda_j (v_{1j}x_1 + v_{2j}x_2 + \cdots + v_{nj}x_n)^3.$$

One idea to find this decomposition is the Tensor Power Method:

Iterate the quadratic map $\nabla T : \mathbb{P}^{n-1} \dashrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n-1}$

Fixed points of this dynamical system are eigenvectors of T.

Bad News: The eigenvectors are usually not the vectors \mathbf{v}_i in the low rank decomposition ... unless the tensor is *odeco*.

Odeco tensors

A symmetric tensor T is *odeco* (= orthogonally decomposable) if

$$T = \sum_{j=1}^n \lambda_j \mathbf{v}_j^{\otimes d} = \sum_{j=1}^n \lambda_j (\mathbf{v}_{1j} \mathbf{x}_1 + \cdots + \mathbf{v}_{nj} \mathbf{x}_n)^d,$$

where $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$ is an orthogonal basis of \mathbb{R}^n .

The tensor power method works well for odeco tensors:

Theorem

If $\lambda_i > 0$ then the \mathbf{v}_i are precisely the robust eigenvectors of T.

[Anandkumar, Ge, Hsu, Kakade, Telgarsky: *Tensor decompositions for learning latent variable models*, J. Machine Learning Research, 2014]

[Kolda: Symmetric orthogonal tensor decomposition is trivial, 2015]

The set of odeco tensors is a very nice **variety** of dimension $\binom{n+1}{2}$. [Robeva: Orthogonal decomposition of symmetric tensors, 2015]

Associativity

Fact: Every $n \times n \times n$ -tensor T defines an algebra structure on \mathbb{R}^n . **Example**: Fix \mathbb{R}^2 with basis $\{a, b\}$. A 2×2×2-tensor $T = (t_{ijk})$ defines

$$\begin{array}{ll} a \star a = t_{000}a + t_{001}b & a \star b = t_{010}a + t_{011}b \\ b \star a = t_{100}a + t_{101}b & b \star b = t_{110}a + t_{111}b \end{array}$$

This algebra is generally not associative:

$$b \star (a \star a) = (t_{000}t_{100} + t_{001}t_{110})a + (t_{000}t_{101} + t_{001}t_{111})b (b \star a) \star a = (t_{000}t_{100} + t_{101}t_{100})a + (t_{100}t_{001} + t_{101}^2)b$$

Suppose that T is a symmetric tensor, corresponding to a binary cubic

$$t_{000}x^3 + (t_{001} + t_{010} + t_{100})x^2y + (t_{011} + t_{101} + t_{110})xy^2 + t_{111}y^3 \\ = t_{000}x^3 + 3t_{001}x^2y + 3t_{011}xy^2 + t_{111}y^3$$

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= $t_{000}x^3 + 3t_{001}x^2y + 3t_{011}xy^2 + t_{111}y^3$

 $b \star (a \star a) = (b \star a) \star a$ iff $t_{000} t_{011} + t_{001} t_{111} = t_{001}^2 + t_{011}^2$ iff T odeco

Theorem (Boralevi-Draisma-Horobeț-Robeva 2015) The odeco equations say that T defines an associative algebra.

Our question

How many eigenvectors does a symmetric $3 \times 3 \times 3$ -tensor have ?



How many critical points does a cubic have on the unit 2-sphere?

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How many critical points does a cubic have on the unit 2-sphere?

Fermat: Odeco tensor : $T = x^3 + y^3 + z^3$

$$\nabla T : \mathbb{P}^2 \dashrightarrow \mathbb{P}^2, \ (x : y : z) \mapsto (x^2 : y^2 : z^2)$$

(1:0:0), (0:1:0), (0:0:1),
(1:1:0), (1:0:1), (0:1:1), (1:1:1)

Answer: **Seven**.

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Let's count

Theorem

Consider a general symmetric tensor T of format $n \times n \times \cdots \times n$. The number of complex eigenvectors in \mathbb{P}^{n-1} equals

$$\frac{(d-1)^n-1}{d-2} = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (d-1)^i.$$

[Cartwright, St: The number of eigenvalues of a tensor, 2013] [Fornaess, Sibony: Complex dynamics in higher dimensions, 1994]



Q: How many eigenvectors does a $3 \times 3 \times 3 \times 3$ -tensor have? **A**: Plug n = 3 and d = 4 into the formula. The answer is **13**.

Discriminant

The *eigendiscriminant* is the irreducible polynomial in the entries $t_{i_1i_2\cdots i_d}$ which vanishes when two eigenvectors come together.

Theorem

The degree of eigendiscriminant is $n(n-1)(d-1)^{n-1}$.

[Abo, Seigal, St: Eigenconfigurations of tensors, 2015]

is an equation of degree 54.

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Example 1 (d = 2) The discriminant of the characteristic polynomial of an $n \times n$ -matrix is an equation of degree n(n-1).

Example 2 (n = 3, d = 4) The eigendiscriminant for $3 \times 3 \times 3 \times 3$

tensors



Note: The eigendiscriminant divides tensor space into regions where the number of **real** solutions is constant. Average number?

Get Real



Distribution of the number of real eigenpairs of 2000 real gaussian tensors of format $3 \times 3 \times 3 \times 3$

[Breiding: The expected number of eigenvalues of a real Gaussian tensor, 2016] gives an exact formula in terms of hypergeometric integrals.

Line Arrangements

Open Problem: Can all eigenvectors be real?

Yes, if n = 3: All $1 + (d-1) + (d-1)^2$ fixed points can be real.

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6+7 = **13**

Proof: Let T be a product of d linear forms.

The $\binom{d}{2}$ vertices of the line arrangement are the base points. The analytic centers of the $\binom{d}{2} + 1$ regions are the fixed points.

Singular vectors

Given a rectangular matrix T, one seeks to solve the equations

$$T\mathbf{u} = \sigma \mathbf{v}$$
 and $T^t \mathbf{v} = \sigma \mathbf{u}$.

The scalar σ is a singular value and (\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) is a singular vector pair.

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Gradient Dynamics: Matrices correspond to bilinear forms

$$T = \sum_{i=1}^{n_1} \sum_{j=1}^{n_2} t_{ij} x_i y_j$$

This defines a rational map

$$\begin{array}{cccc} (\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} T, \nabla_{\mathbf{y}} T) : & \mathbb{P}^{n_1 - 1} \times \mathbb{P}^{n_2 - 1} & \dashrightarrow & \mathbb{P}^{n_1 - 1} \times \mathbb{P}^{n_2 - 1} \\ & (\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) & \mapsto & (T^t \mathbf{v}, T \mathbf{u}) \end{array}$$

The fixed points of this map are the singular vector pairs of T.

Multilinear forms

Tensors T in $\mathbb{R}^{n_1 \times n_2 \times \cdots \times n_d}$ correspond to multilinear forms. The singular vector tuples of T are fixed points of the gradient map

 $\nabla T : \mathbb{P}^{n_1-1} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{P}^{n_d-1} \dashrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n_1-1} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{P}^{n_d-1}.$

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Multilinear forms

Tensors T in $\mathbb{R}^{n_1 \times n_2 \times \cdots \times n_d}$ correspond to multilinear forms. The singular vector tuples of T are fixed points of the gradient map

$$\nabla T : \mathbb{P}^{n_1-1} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{P}^{n_d-1} \dashrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n_1-1} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{P}^{n_d-1}$$

Theorem

For a general $n_1 \times n_2 \times \cdots \times n_d$ -tensor T, the number of singular vector tuples is the coefficient of $z_1^{n_1-1} \cdots z_d^{n_d-1}$ in the polynomial

$$\prod_{i=1}^{d} \frac{(\widehat{z_i})^{n_i} - z_i^{n_i}}{\widehat{z_i} - z_i} \quad \text{where} \quad \widehat{z_i} = z_1 + \dots + z_{i-1} + z_{i+1} + \dots + z_d.$$

[Friedland, Ottaviani: The number of singular vector tuples...., 2014]

Example: $d = 3, n_1 = n_2 = n_3 = 3$:

 $(\hat{z}_1^2 + \hat{z}_1 z_1 + z_1^2)(\hat{z}_2^2 + \hat{z}_2 z_2 + z_2^2)(\hat{z}_3^2 + \hat{z}_3 z_3 + z_3^2) = \dots + \frac{37}{2} z_1^2 z_2^2 z_3^2 + \dots$



Odeco Tensors

A general tensor of format $3 \times 3 \times 2 \times 2$ has **98** singular vector tuples. What happens for orthogonally decomposable tensors

$$T = x_0 y_0 z_0 w_0 + x_1 y_1 z_1 w_1 ?$$

[Robeva, Seigal: Singular vectors of odeco tensors, 2016]

The gradient map $\nabla T : \mathbb{P}^2 \times \mathbb{P}^2 \times \mathbb{P}^1 \times \mathbb{P}^1 \dashrightarrow \mathbb{P}^2 \times \mathbb{P}^2 \times \mathbb{P}^1 \times \mathbb{P}^1$ has only **18** fixed points. In addition, there is a *surface of base points*:



Conclusion

Eigenvectors of square matrices are central to linear algebra.

Eigenvectors of tensors are a natural generalization. Pioneered in numerical multilinear algebra, these now have many applications.

[Lek-Heng Lim: Singular values and eigenvalues of tensors...., 2005] [Liqun Qi: Eigenvalues of a real supersymmetric tensor, 2005]

Fact: This lecture serves as an invitation to applied algebraic geometry.





The terms **Segre variety** and **Veronese variety** refer to tensors of rank 1. Given some data, getting close to these is highly desirable.

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