

Large Language Models, Seven Plus Minus Two Law, Fuzzy Logic, Zipf Law, and Principal Components Analysis of Word Embedding: How Is All This Possibly Related

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Abstract. In this paper, we show that, according to recent empirical studies, there may be some relation between all these phenomena. Specifically, we mention several interesting related numerical similarities.

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1 Large Language Models and seven plus minus two law: a possible relation

Hallucinations are a problem for Large Language Models (LLMs). Large Language Models are fascinated. They produce poems, texts, class curricula, it looks like they can produce almost anything we want. However, what they produce is not always reliable: reasonably often, they produce answers that are smooth and may seem reasonable, but are, in reality, wrong. This phenomenon is known as *hallucinations*.

When hallucinations were first detected, the hope was that additional training will deal with this phenomenon – but this did not happen. A recent paper [3] mentions that, in spite of all the further training, the hallucination rate remains at the approximately 15% level.

We humans can often detect hallucinations, and what does that mean.

In many cases, humans users can easily detect hallucinations by using simple logic to compare LLMs with facts that we know – and, by the way, the LLMs knows the same fact, but it lacks an ability to compare its conclusions with these facts.

From this viewpoint, the main reason for hallucinations is that LLMs, while making perfect statistical conclusions, are not very good in thinking logically. We humans can both provide some statistical conclusions and we can also use logic.

Statistical conclusion is something that all animals do: the understanding of this started with Pavlov’s experiments, where dogs learn artificially introduced statistical dependencies after a reasonably small (in comparison with neural networks) number of iterations. Can animals make logical conclusions? Doubtfully. Even modern humans, logic-trained at schools, are not very good in logic; see, e.g., [4] – and most probably, our ancestors were even worse.

Since LLMs use a lot of optimization to process data – and they use practically all the knowledge from everywhere in the world – it looks like 15% is the best we can do if only use statistics, but not logic. What is 15%? It is approximately one out of seven. So this means that if we only use statistics, then one wrong answer out of seven is the best we can do.

What are the possible biological consequences of this fact? How is this related to humans? Since our ancestors were not very good in logical reasoning, they had to live with this limitation, they have to take into account that 1/7 of their decisions would be wrong – and evolution should have adjusted our brains to this fact.

What can this imply? Since we cannot reach error rate lower than 1/7, it means that it makes no sense to view and consider things with better accuracy – just like if we want to compute the distance with accuracy 10%, there is no need to measure velocity or time with higher accuracy. And what does this mean that we have accuracy 1/7? It means that, e.g., on the interval $[0, 1]$ (or on any other interval), we can only distinguish at most 7 different values.

Possible relation to seven plus minus two law. This is exactly what psychologists observe: the famous “seven plus minus seven law” states that, in general, we can only consider 7 plus minus 2 different options – hereby we perceive seven major colors, we have seven days in a week, etc.; see, e.g., [10, 13].

So maybe the LLMs hallucination rate is an explanation for the 7 ± 2 law?

2 Seven plus minus two law and fuzzy techniques

How is this all related to fuzzy? We are trying to understand how people think – and to explain why they think and reason that way. In this analysis, it is reasonable to use fuzzy techniques, techniques specifically invented to describe imprecise (“fuzzy”) human statements and human reasoning in precise terms; see, e.g., [1, 5, 9, 11, 12, 15].

Let us use fuzzy techniques to brainstorm about uncertainty of human reasoning? Let us start with a situation in which we have no knowledge about some statement.

- We have no reasons to believe that this statement is true – if we had some reasons, our degree of confidence in this statement would be closer to 1.

- We also have no reasons to believe that this statement is false – if we had some reasons, our degree of confidence in this statement would be closer to 0.

In such situations, it is reasonable to describe our resulting degree of confidence in this statement by a value which is equally distant from 0 and 1 – i.e., by the value 0.5. This value thus corresponds to *unknown*.

Suppose now that we gained some knowledge. This means that instead of “unknown”, we have a smaller degree of uncertainty, which can be naturally described as “somewhat unknown”. How can we describe the hedge “somewhat”? A usual way in fuzzy technique is to use x^2 to describe “very” and to use the inverse operation – square root – to describe “somewhat”. If we take the square root of 0.5, we get the degree close to 0.7 – so the remaining degree of uncertainty is $1 - 0.7 = 0.3$. With this degree of uncertainty, we get $1/0.3 \approx 3$ different levels.

What if we gain even more knowledge? In this case, we again apply the square root – this time to the square root of 0.5 – and get approximately 0.84, with the remaining degree of uncertainty $1 - 0.84 = 0.16$ – again close to $1/7$ (or maybe to $1/6$). So this is maybe why we have $1/7$?

Comments.

- Many fuzzy papers mention the 7 ± 2 law to explain why, usually, we form 7 ± 2 natural language terms to describe the value of each quantity, e.g., very small, small, etc. This way, this law explains the empirical success of such fuzzy models. What we decided is to do it the other way around: use fuzzy techniques to explain the 7 ± 2 law itself?
- Why apply twice and not more times? Some arguments in favor of two times are given in [7].
- But what if we still apply the operation one more time? This time, we will get 0.917, so the remaining degree of uncertainty is 0.083 – which is almost exactly $1/12$. This may be the reason why 12 is often used by us – as in a dozen or as in a musical scale.

This somewhat explains 7, but how can we explain plus minus 2? Of course, 0.15 is an approximate number, and, correspondingly, 7 is an approximate number. How accurate is it? Usually, we have less uncertainty about our uncertainty than we have uncertainty about the actual value. So, to gauge how uncertain we are about number 7, we need to use the previous – higher – level of uncertainty, where the uncertainty was about 0.3. When relative uncertainty is 0.3, the absolute uncertainty with which we take the value 7 is $\pm 7 \cdot 0.3$, which is exactly 7 ± 2 that psychologists have observed.

Comment. So, we can keep in mind at the same time 7 ± 2 objects, between $7 - 2 = 5$ and $7 + 2 = 9$. This means that some people can keep no more than 5, others can keep up to 9. This may be a reason why in Islam, where it is emphasized that all the wives should get the same good attention and care, a person can have no more than 4 wives – this way, even a person who can take into account only up to 5 objects, shall be able to take into account both himself and all his wives.

3 How is this related to word embedding

Empirical fact about word embedding. Researchers in natural language processing have found a way to check how close are different concepts. For this purpose, they characterize each term by several numerical quantities. This way, each word is represented by a tuple consisting of several numbers. In this sense, words are *embedded* into a multi-dimensional space. It turns out that distance in this space is a good indication of how close the original concepts are – e.g., the word “doctor” appears close to the related word “nurse”.

Then, they use Principle Component Analysis PCA (see, e.g., [14]) to reduce the dimension of the data space while preserving the notion of closeness as accurately as possible. It turns out that we can retain practically all information about closeness if we only keep the three main dimensions. A natural question is: why 3?

Zipf’s law can help. To explain, let us yet another empirical law – Zipf Law (see, e.g., [2, 6, 8]) – that says that if we sort features of objects by importance, the importance of the i -th term is proportional to $1/i$. This law was first described in linguistics: if we sort all the words from a language by their frequency, then the frequency of the i -th word is proportional to $1/i$. Later on, it turned out that this law is ubiquitous: e.g., it describes the distribution of companies by size.

In our case, Zipf law says that when we apply PCA to word embedding, the contribution of the i -th dimension is proportion to $1/i$. The usual Euclidean distance is the sum of the squares of the differences. According to the 7 ± 2 law, we can perceive 7 factors, so the contribution of all 7 dimensions is equal to

$$1 + \frac{1}{2^2} + \dots + \frac{1}{7^2} \approx 1.51.$$

By the same law, it is sufficient to have the sum of fewer terms – as long as the resulting sum is approximately equal to this number, with accuracy of $1/7$. In other words, it is sufficient to make sure that the sum of the terms corresponding to selected dimensions is larger than or equal to

$$1.51 - \frac{1.51}{7} \approx 1.30.$$

For two dimensions, we have

$$1 + \frac{1}{2^2} = 1.25 < 1.30,$$

so using only two dimensions is not enough. However, for three dimensions, we already have

$$1 + \frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{3^2} = 1.3611\dots > 1.30.$$

This explains why empirically, three dimensions are sufficient to describe our commonsense concept of closeness between concepts.

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