Orthogonal Bases Are the Best: A Theorem Justifying Bruno Apolloni's Heuristic Neural Network Idea

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Neural Networks: . . . Apolloni's Idea Why Symmetries? Symmetries Explain . . . Towards Formulating . . . How to Describe . . . Kahrunen-Loeve (KL).. Proof of the Main Result Conclusions Home Page **>>** Page 1 of 18 Go Back Full Screen Close Quit

- In the traditional (3-layer) neural networks, the input values x_1, \ldots, x_n :
 - first go through the non-linear layer of "hidden" neurons, resulting in the values

$$y_i = s_0 \left(\sum_{j=1}^n w_{ij} \cdot x_j - w_{i0} \right) \quad 1 \le i \le m,$$

- after which a linear neuron combines the results y_i into the output $y = \sum_{i=1}^{m} W_i \cdot y_i W_0$.
- Here, W_i and w_{ij} are weights selected based on the data, and $s_0(z)$ is a non-linear activation function.
- Usually, the "sigmoid" activation function is used:

$$s_0(z) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-z)}.$$

Neural Networks: . . .

Apolloni's Idea

Why Symmetries?

Symmetries Explain . . .

Towards Formulating . . .

How to Describe . . .

Kahrunen-Loeve (KL) . . .

Proof of the Main Result

Conclusions

Home Page

Title Page





Page 2 of 18

Go Back

Full Screen

Close

• The weights W_i and w_{ij} are selected so as to fit the data, i.e., that

$$y^{(k)} \approx f(x_1^{(k)}, \dots, x_n^{(k)}), \text{ where:}$$

- $x_1^{(k)}, \ldots, x_n^{(k)}$ $(1 \le k \le N)$ are given values of the inputs, and
- $y^{(k)}$ are given values of the output.
- One of the problems with the traditional neural networks is that
 - in the process of learning i.e., in the process of adjusting the values of the weights to fit the data -
 - some of the neurons are duplicated, i.e., we get $w_{ij} = w_{i'j}$ for some $i \neq i'$ and thus, $y_i = y_{i'}$.
- As a result, we do not fully use the learning capacity of a neural network: we could use fewer hidden neurons.

Apolloni's Idea Why Symmetries? Symmetries Explain . . . Towards Formulating . . . How to Describe . . . Kahrunen-Loeve (KL).. Proof of the Main Result Conclusions Home Page Title Page **>>** Page 3 of 18 Go Back Full Screen Close Quit

3. Apolloni's Idea

- *Problem* (reminder):
 - in the process of learning i.e., in the process of adjusting the values of the weights to fit the data -
 - some of the neurons are duplicated, i.e., we get $w_{ij} = w_{i'j}$ for some $i \neq i'$ and thus, $y_i = y_{i'}$.
- To avoid this problem, B. Apolloni et al. suggested that we *orthogonalize* the neurons during training.
- In other words, we make sure that the corresponding functions $y_i(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ remain orthogonal:

$$\langle y_i, y_j \rangle = \int y_i(x) \cdot y_j(x) \, dx = 0.$$

- Since Apolloni *et al.* idea works well, it is desirable to look for its precise mathematical justification.
- We provide such a justification in terms of symmetries.



4. Why Symmetries?

- At first glance, the use of symmetries in neural networks may sound somewhat strange.
- Indeed, there are no *explicit* symmetries there.
- However, as we will show, *hidden* symmetries have been actively used in neural networks.
- For example, symmetries explain the empirically observed advantages of the sigmoid activation function

$$s_0(z) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-z)}.$$



5. Symmetry: a Fundamental Property of the Physical World

- One of the main objectives of science: prediction.
- Basis for prediction: we observed similar situations in the past, and we expect similar outcomes.
- In mathematical terms: similarity corresponds to symmetry, and similarity of outcomes to invariance.
- Example: we dropped the ball, it fall down.
- Symmetries: shift, rotation, etc.
- In modern physics: theories are usually formulated in terms of symmetries (not diff. equations).
- Natural idea: let us use symmetry to describe uncertainty as well.



6. Basic Symmetries: Scaling and Shift

- Typical situation: we deal with the numerical values of a physical quantity.
- Numerical values depend on the measuring unit.
- Scaling: if we use a new unit which is λ times smaller, numerical values are multiplied by λ : $x \to \lambda \cdot x$.
- Example: $x \text{ meters} = 100 \cdot x \text{ cm}$.
- Another possibility: change the starting point.
- Shift: if we use a new starting point which is s units before, then $x \to x + s$ (example: time).
- Together, scaling and shifts form linear transformations $x \to a \cdot x + b$.
- *Invariance*: physical formulas should not depend on the choice of a measuring unit or of a starting point.

Apolloni's Idea Why Symmetries? Symmetries Explain . . . Towards Formulating . . . How to Describe . . . Kahrunen-Loeve (KL).. Proof of the Main Result Conclusions Home Page Title Page **>>** Page 7 of 18 Go Back Full Screen Close Quit

7. Basic Nonlinear Symmetries

- Sometimes, a system also has *nonlinear* symmetries.
- If a system is invariant under f and g, then:
 - it is invariant under their composition $f \circ g$, and
 - it is invariant under the inverse transformation f^{-1} .
- In mathematical terms, this means that symmetries form a *group*.
- In practice, at any given moment of time, we can only store and describe finitely many parameters.
- Thus, it is reasonable to restrict ourselves to *finite-dimensional* groups.
- Question (N. Wiener): describe all finite-dimensional groups that contain all linear transformations.
- Answer (for real numbers): all elements of this group are fractionally-linear $x \to (a \cdot x + b)/(c \cdot x + d)$.

Apolloni's Idea Why Symmetries? Symmetries Explain . . . Towards Formulating . . . How to Describe . . . Kahrunen-Loeve (KL)... Proof of the Main Result Conclusions Home Page Title Page **>>** Page 8 of 18 Go Back Full Screen Close Quit

8. Symmetries Explain the Choice of an Activation Function

- What needs explaining: formula for the activation function $f(x) = 1/(1 + e^{-x})$.
- A change in the input starting point: $x \to x + s$.
- Reasonable requirement: the new output f(x+s) equivalent to the f(x) mod. appropriate transformation.
- Reminder: all appropriate transformations are fractionally linear.
- Conclusion: $f(x+s) = \frac{a(s) \cdot f(x) + b(s)}{c(s) \cdot f(x) + d(s)}$.
- Differentiating both sides by s and equating s to 0, we get a differential equation for f(x).
- Its known solution is the sigmoid activation function which can thus be explained by symmetries.



- We select a basis $e_0(x), e_1(x), \ldots, e_n(x), \ldots$ so that each f-n f(x) is represented as $f(x) = \sum_i c_i \cdot e_i(x)$; e.g.:
 - Taylor series: $e_0(x) = 1$, $e_1(x) = x$, $e_2(x) = x^2$, ...
 - Fourier transform: $e_i(x) = \sin(\omega_i \cdot x)$.
- We store c_0, c_1, \ldots , instead of the original f-n f(x).
- Criterion: e.g., smallest # of bits to store f(x) with given accuracy.
- Observation: storing c_i and $-c_i$ takes the same space.
- Thus, changing one of $e_i(x)$ to $e'_i(x) = -e_i(x)$ does not change accuracy or storage space, so:
 - if $e_0(x), \ldots, e_{i-1}(x), e_i(x), e_{i+1}(x), \ldots$ is an opt. base,
 - $e_0(x), \ldots, e_{i-1}(x), -e_i(x), e_{i+1}(x), \ldots$ is also optimal.

Apolloni's Idea Why Symmetries? Symmetries Explain . . . Towards Formulating . . . How to Describe . . . Kahrunen-Loeve (KL).. Proof of the Main Result Conclusions Home Page Title Page **>>** Page 10 of 18 Go Back Full Screen Close

Quit

10. Uniqueness of the Optimal Solution

- Reminder: we select the basis $\pm e_0(x)$, $\pm e_1(x)$, ...
- Each function is determined modulo its sign.
- Sometimes, we have several optimal solutions.
- Then, we can use an additional criterion; e.g.:
 - if two sorting algorithms are equally fast in the worst case $t^w(A) = t^w(A')$,
 - we can select the one with the smallest average time $t^a(A) \to \min$.
- In effect, we have a new criterion: A is better than A' if $t^w(A) < t^w(A')$ or $(t^w(A) = t^w(A')$ and $t^a(A) < t^a(A')$.
- So, non-uniqueness means that the original criterion was not final.
- Relative to a *final* criterion, there is *only one* optimal solution.

Apolloni's Idea Why Symmetries? Symmetries Explain . . . Towards Formulating . . . How to Describe . . . Kahrunen-Loeve (KL).. Proof of the Main Result Conclusions Home Page Title Page **>>** Page 11 of 18 Go Back Full Screen Close Quit

- Reminder:
 - we select the basis $\pm e_0(x)$, $\pm e_1(x)$, $\pm e_3(x)$, ...;
 - each function is determined modulo its sign.
- Optimal solutions are unique:
 - relative to a *final* criterion,
 - there is *only one* optimal solution.
- Conclusion: it is reasonable to require that
 - once we have one optimal basis

$$e_0(x), e_1(x), e_2(x), \ldots,$$

– all other optimal bases have the form

$$\pm e_0(x), \ \pm e_1(x), \ \pm e_2(x), \ \dots$$

Neural Networks: . . .

Apolloni's Idea

Why Symmetries?

Towards Formulating...

How to Describe...

Symmetries Explain . . .

Kahrunen-Loeve (KL)...

Proof of the Main Result
Conclusions

Home Page
Title Page

(())

→

Page 12 of 18

Go Back

GO DACK

Full Screen

Close

- What is a probability distribution on f(x)?
- Dependencies f(x) come from many different factors.
- Due to Central Limit Theorem, it is thus reasonable to assume that the distribution on f(x) is Gaussian.
- If $m(x) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} E[f(x)] \neq 0$, we can store differences $\Delta f(x) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} f(x) - m(x)$, for which $E[\Delta f(x)] = 0$.
- Thus, w.l.o.g., we can assume that E[f(x)] = 0.
- Such Gaussian distributions are uniquely determined by their covariances $C(x,y) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} E[f(x) \cdot f(y)].$
- A Gaussian distribution can be described by indep. components: $f(x) = \sum_{i} \eta_i \cdot f_i(x)$, w/ $E[\eta_i \cdot \eta_j] = 0$, $i \neq j$.
- We also want to know the mean square values $\int (f(x) - f_{\approx}(x))^2 dx$.

Neural Networks: . . . Apolloni's Idea Why Symmetries? Symmetries Explain . . . Towards Formulating . . . How to Describe . . . Kahrunen-Loeve (KL).. Proof of the Main Result Conclusions Home Page Title Page







Go Back

Full Screen

Close

- A Gaussian distribution can be described by indep. components: $f(x) = \sum_{i} \eta_i \cdot f_i(x)$, w/ $E[\eta_i \cdot \eta_j] = 0$, $i \neq j$.
- We also want to know $\int (f(x) f_{\approx}(x))^2 dx$.
- Idea: use a basis $f_j(x)$ of eigenfunctions of the covariance function C(x,y) = E[f(x)f(y)]:

$$\int C(x,y) \cdot f_j(y) \, dy = \lambda_j \cdot f_j(x).$$

- Functions from this *KL basis* are orthogonal; they are usually selected to be orthonormal $\int f_i^2(x) dx = 1$.
- If we change some $f_j(x)$ to $-f_j(x)$, we get a KL basis.
- So, criteria depending on $E[f(x) \cdot f(y)]$ and $\int f^2(x) dx$ do not change.
- In the general case, when all λ_j are different, each $f_j(x)$ is determined uniquely modulo $f_j(x) \to -f_j(x)$.

Neural Networks: . . .

Apolloni's Idea

Why Symmetries?

Symmetries Explain . . .

Towards Formulating . . .

How to Describe . . .

Kahrunen-Loeve (KL)...

Proof of the Main Result

Conclusions

Home Page

Title Page





Page 14 of 18

Go Back

Full Screen

Close

- Let: $e_i(x)$ be an optimal basis, and let $f_j(x)$ be a KL basis, then $e_i(x) = \sum_i a_{ij} \cdot f_j(x)$.
- Reminder: if we change one of the functions $f_{j_0}(x)$ to $-f_{j_0}(x)$, the criterion does not change.
- Thus: the following f-ns also form an optimal basis:

$$e'_{i}(x) = \sum_{j \neq j_{0}} a_{ij} \cdot f_{j}(x) - a_{ij_{0}} \cdot f_{j_{0}}(x).$$

• Reminder: \forall optimal basis has the form $\pm e_i(x)$, thus:

$$e'_{i}(x) = \sum_{j \neq j_{0}} a_{ij} \cdot f_{j}(x) - a_{ij_{0}} \cdot f_{j_{0}}(x) = \pm \left(\sum_{j} a_{ij} \cdot f_{j}(x)\right).$$

- So: if $a_{ij_0} \neq 0$, then $a_{ij} = 0$ for all $j \neq j_0$.
- Thus: each $e_i(x)$ has the form $e_i(x) = a_{ij_0} \cdot f_{j_0}(x)$ for some j_0 .

Neural Networks: . . .

Apolloni's Idea

Why Symmetries?

Symmetries Explain . . .

Towards Formulating . . .

How to Describe . . .

Kahrunen-Loeve (KL)...

Proof of the Main Result

Conclusions

Title Page

Home Page



Go Back

Page 15 of 18

Page

Full Screen

Close

15. Conclusions

• We proved: that for the optimal basis $e_i(x)$ and for the KL basis $f_j(x)$, each $e_i(x)$ has the form

$$e_i(x) = a_{ij_0} \cdot f_{j_0}(x)$$
 for some a_{ij_0} .

- We know: that the elements $f_j(x)$ of the KL basis are orthogonal.
- So: we conclude that the elements $e_i(x)$ of the optimal basis are orthogonal as well.
- Conclusion: the elements of the optimal basis are orthogonal.
- Apolloni's idea: always make sure that we use an orthogonal basis.
- Fact: this idea has been empirically successful.
- New result: Apolloni's idea has been theoretically justified.

Apolloni's Idea Why Symmetries? Symmetries Explain . . . Towards Formulating . . . How to Describe . . . Kahrunen-Loeve (KL).. Proof of the Main Result Conclusions Home Page Title Page **>>** Page 16 of 18 Go Back Full Screen Close Quit

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Apolloni's Idea Why Symmetries? Symmetries Explain . . . Towards Formulating . . . How to Describe . . . Kahrunen-Loeve (KL).. Proof of the Main Result Conclusions Home Page Title Page **>>** Page 17 of 18 Go Back Full Screen Close Quit

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Neural Networks: . . . Apolloni's Idea Why Symmetries? Symmetries Explain . . . Towards Formulating . . How to Describe . . . Kahrunen-Loeve (KL)... Proof of the Main Result Conclusions Home Page Title Page 44 Page 18 of 18 Go Back Full Screen Close