Kolmogorov-Arnold Network (KAN)

Keywords

Promising alternatives to MLPs?

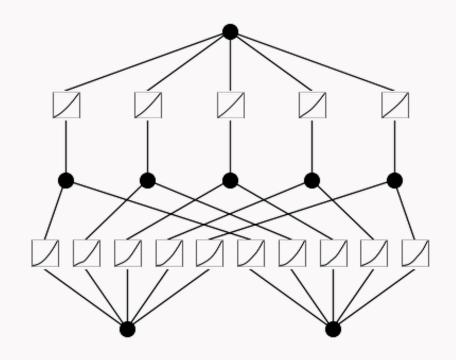
Better accuracy with fewer parameters

More interpretable

Learnable activation functions

Can avoid catastrophic forgetting

Slower and harder to train



Universal Approximation Theorem

Let $C(X, \mathbb{R}^m)$ denote the set of continuous functions from a subset X of a Euclidean \mathbb{R}^n space to a Euclidean space \mathbb{R}^m . Let $\sigma \in C(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R})$. Note that $(\sigma \circ x)_i = \sigma(x_i)$, so $\sigma \circ x$ denotes σ applied to each component of x.

Then σ is not polynomial if and only if for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $m \in \mathbb{N}$, compact $K \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, $f \in C(K, \mathbb{R}^m)$, $\varepsilon > 0$, there exist $k \in \mathbb{N}$, $W \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times n}$, $b \in \mathbb{R}^k$, $C \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times n}$, such that:

$$\sup_{x \in K} \|f(x) - g(x)\| < \varepsilon$$

where $g(x) = C \cdot (\sigma \circ (W \cdot x + b))$



Universal Approximation Theorem

Let $C(X, \mathbb{R}^m)$ denote the set of continuous functions from a subset X of a Euclidean \mathbb{R}^n space to a Euclidean space \mathbb{R}^m . Let $\sigma \in C(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R})$. Note that $(\sigma \circ x)_i = \sigma(x_i)$, so $\sigma \circ x$ denotes σ applied to each component of x.

 $\sup \|f(x) - g(x)\| < \varepsilon$

Then σ is not polynomial if and only if for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $m \in \mathbb{N}$, compact $K \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, $f \in C(K, \mathbb{R}^m)$, $\varepsilon > 0$, there exist $k \in \mathbb{N}$, $W \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times n}$, $b \in \mathbb{R}^k$, $C \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times n}$, such that:

where $g(x) = C \cdot (\sigma \circ (W \cdot x + b))$

Drawbacks: lack interpretable, too many parameters



Kolmogorov-Arnold Representation Theorem

If *f* is a multivariate continuous function, then *f* can be written as a finite composition of continuous functions of a single variable and the binary operation of addition. More specifically,

$$f(x) = f(x_1, ..., x_n) = \sum_{q=1}^{2n+1} \Phi_q \left(\sum_{p=1}^n \phi_{q,p} (x_p) \right)$$

Where $\phi_{q,p}: [0,1] \to \mathbb{R}$ and $\Phi_q: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$.

e.g.
$$f(x,y) = xy = \exp(\log(x+1) + \log(y+1)) - (x+0.5) - (y+0.5)$$
 Univariate, with variable of $\log(x+1) + \log(y+1)$ univariate univariate

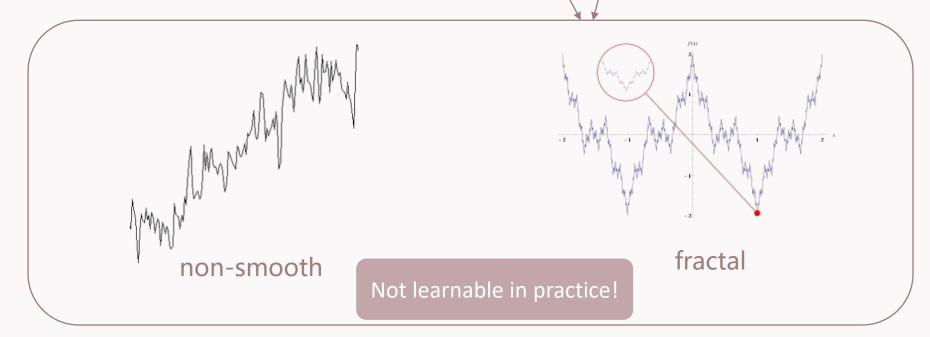
Kolmogorov-Arnold Representation Theorem

If f is a multivariate continuous function, then f can be written as a finite composition of continuous functions of a single variable and the binary operation of addition. More specifically,

$$f(x) = f(x_1, ..., x_n) = \sum_{q=1}^{2n+1} \Phi_q \left(\sum_{p=1}^n \phi_{q,p} \left(x_p \right) \right)$$

$$\Phi_q \colon \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}.$$
can be

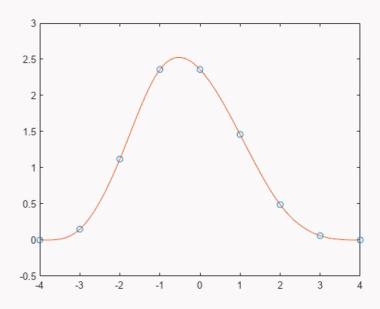
Where $\phi_{q,p}:[0,1]\to\mathbb{R}$ and $\Phi_q:\mathbb{R}\to\mathbb{R}$.



Spline

A spline function S is said to be of order k that greater than or equal to one on the interval $a = t_0 < t_1 < \dots < t_n = b$, if it satisfies the following two properties:

- 1. S is a polynomial of degree that is less than k on each of the subintervals $[t_i, t_{i+1}]$.
- 2. The derivative of the spine function is continuous on the full interval [a, b] for all the derivatives up to k 1.



Advantages: Performs well in data interpolation and function approximation in low dimensional space

Disadvantage: Curse of Dimensionality

Spline

A spline function S is said to be of order k that greater than or equal to one on the interval $a = t_0 < t_1 < \dots < t_n = b$, if it satisfies the following two properties:

- 1. S is a polynomial of degree that is less than k on each of the subintervals $[t_i, t_{i+1}]$.
- 2. The derivative of the spine function is continuous on the full interval [a, b] for all the derivatives up to k 1.

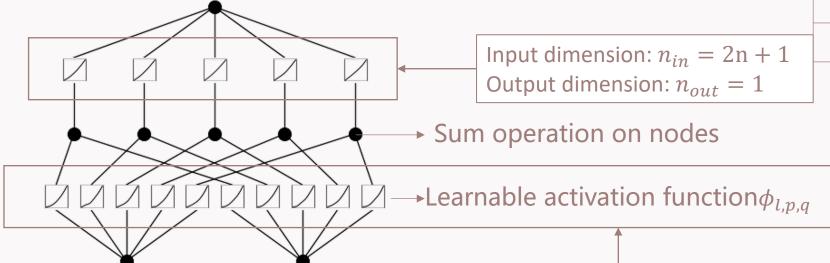
The B-Splines can be defined through the Cox-de Boor recursive formula:

$$B_{i,0}(x) \coloneqq \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } t_i \le x < t_{i+1}, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$
$$B_{i,k}(x) \coloneqq \frac{x - t_i}{t_{i+k} - t_i} B_{i,k-1}(x) + \frac{t_{i+k+1} - x}{t_{i+k+1} - t_{i+1}} B_{i+1,k-1}(x).$$

KAN Architecture

Input: $x_{l,i}$

Output: $KAN(x) = (\Phi_{L-1} \circ \Phi_{L-2} \dots \circ \Phi_1 \circ \Phi_0)x$



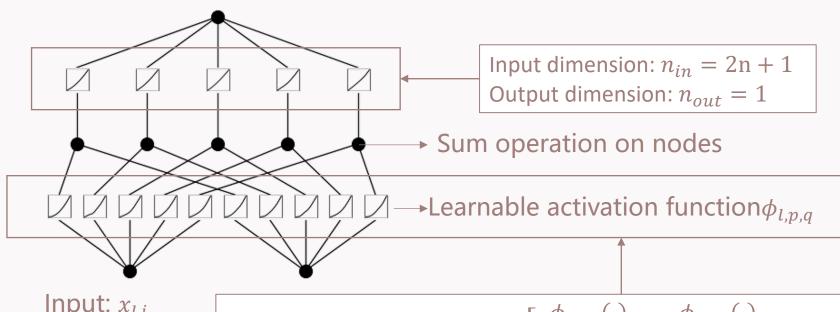
l	index of the layer
i	index of x
p	index of the input dimension n_i
q	index of the output dimension n_out
n	input dimension

Input dimension: $n_{in} = n$

Output dimension: $n_{out} = 2n + 1$

An Introduction to Kolmogorov-Arnold Networks

Output: $KAN(x) = (\Phi_{L-1} \circ \Phi_{L-2} \dots \circ \Phi_1 \circ \Phi_0)x$



Input: $x_{l,i}$

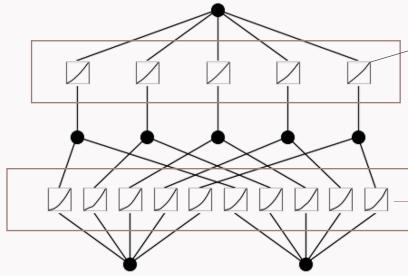
$$\text{A KAN layer: } \Phi_l = \{\phi_{p,q}\} = \begin{bmatrix} \phi_{l,1,1}(\cdot) & \phi_{l,1,2}(\cdot) & \cdots & \phi_{l,1,n_l}(\cdot) \\ \phi_{l,2,1}(\cdot) & \phi_{l,2,2}(\cdot) & \cdots & \phi_{l,2,n_l}(\cdot) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \phi_{l,n_{l+1},1}(\cdot) & \phi_{l,n_{l+1},2}(\cdot) & \cdots & \phi_{l,n_{l+1},n}(\cdot) \end{bmatrix}$$

Input dimension: $n_{in} = n$

Output dimension: $n_{out} = 2n + 1$

KAN Architecture

Output: $KAN(x) = (\Phi_{L-1} \circ \Phi_{L-2} \dots \circ \Phi_1 \circ \Phi_0)x$



 \longrightarrow Learnable activation function $\phi_{l,p,q}$

k = 3

 $\phi(x)$

Grid extension

 $t_{-3}t_{-2}$ t_{-1} t_0 t_1 t_2 t_3 t_4 t_5 t_6 t_7 t_8

 $\phi(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{7} c_i B_i(x)$

 $\phi(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{12} c_i' B_i'(x)$

Input: $x_{l,i}$

spline(x) is initialized to $\approx 0^2$

Residual activation functions:

$$\phi(x) = w(b(x) + spline(x))$$

$$b(x) = silu(x) = \frac{x}{1 + e^{-x}}$$

$$-spline(x) = \sum_{i} c_i B_i(x)$$

y w is initialized according to Xavier initialization

Interpretability of KAN

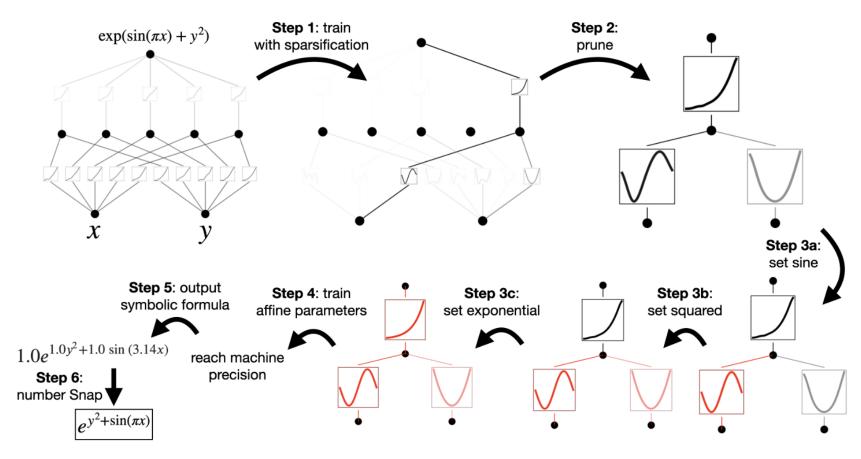


Figure 2.4: An example of how to do symbolic regression with KAN.

Fitting Special Functions

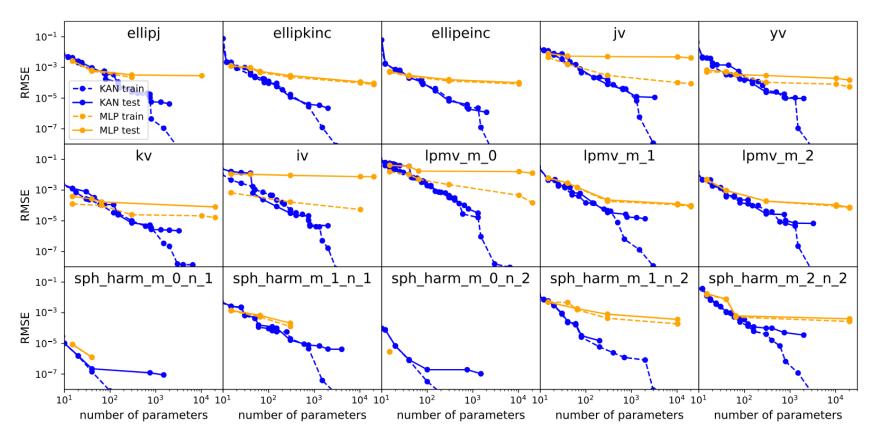


Figure 3.2: Fitting special functions. We show the Pareto Frontier of KANs and MLPs in the plane spanned by the number of model parameters and RMSE loss. Consistently across all special functions, KANs have better Pareto Frontiers than MLPs. The definitions of these special functions are in Table 2.

Solving Partial Differential Equations

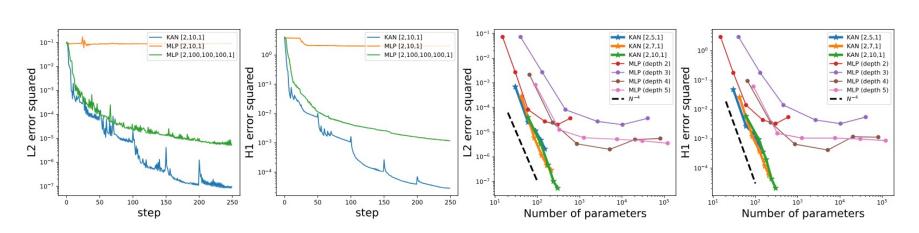


Figure 3.3: The PDE example. We plot L2 squared and H1 squared losses between the predicted solution and ground truth solution. First and second: training dynamics of losses. Third and fourth: scaling laws of losses against the number of parameters. KANs converge faster, achieve lower losses, and have steeper scaling laws than MLPs.

Continue Learning

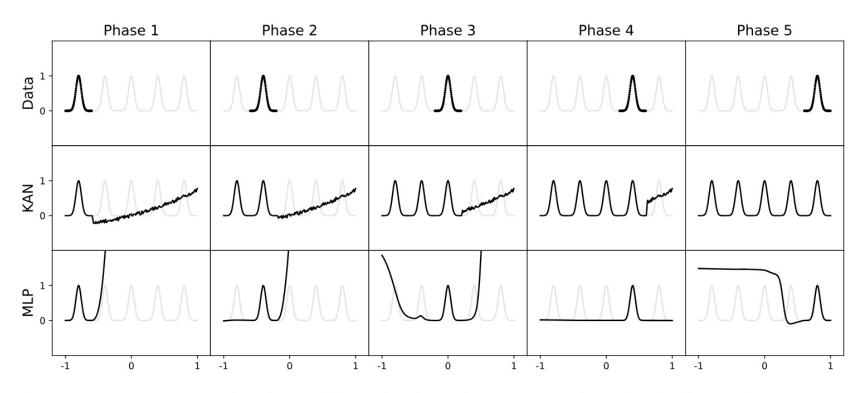


Figure 3.4: A toy continual learning problem. The dataset is a 1D regression task with 5 Gaussian peaks (top row). Data around each peak is presented sequentially (instead of all at once) to KANs and MLPs. KANs (middle row) can perfectly avoid catastrophic forgetting, while MLPs (bottom row) display severe catastrophic forgetting.

MLPs or KANs?

