Kolmogorov-Arnold Networks

jhl

@c/sim-aaa · @ucsd

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Welcome to the inaugural Sim-Eval literature review!

I'm trying to keep this informal – teaching is the best way of learning, and we all benefit from sharing knowledge. (I also only had a weekend to prepare.) **Some bookkeeping notes:**

Expect a bit more of the underlying intuition here, instead of the mechanical $\varepsilon - \delta|_{n\to\infty}$ aspects of the proofs.

For simplicity, assume that the functions we care about are of multiple variables and scalar-valued, i.e.

$$f: \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

This talk is motivated by a recent paper by Liu, Wang et al. It is accessible at https://arxiv.org/pdf/2404.19756v1. Unless otherwise stated, figures are credited to Liu et al.

A gentle (re)introduction to the multi-layer perceptron

The multi-layer perceptron (MLP) is the fundamental building block of so-called deep neural networks. Deep refers to the large "depth" of the network, i.e. the number of layers.

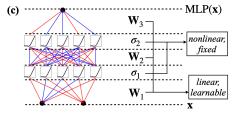


Figure: A deep multi-layer perceptron network.

Canonically, a "shallow" multi-layer perceptron is *two layers*. (This will be important for the literature!) A multi-layer perceptron in the shallow case is represented as

$$\hat{f}: \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$\hat{f}(x) = \sum_{i}^{N(\varepsilon)} a_i \sigma \left[\mathbf{W}_i \mathbf{x} + b_i \right]$$

Note the width $N(\varepsilon)$ is a function of the precision ε .

$$\hat{f}(x) = \sum_{i}^{N(\varepsilon)} a_i \sigma \left[\mathbf{W}_i \mathbf{x} + b_i \right]$$

where:

```
b_i is the bias (affine!)

\mathbf{x} is the i th input vector

\mathbf{W}_i is the i th weight matrix (learned!)

\sigma is the activation function (e.g. ReLU, sigmoid, tanh...)

a_i are elements of the outermost weight matrix

\mathbf{V}(\varepsilon) is the number of neurons
```

In the shallow case, a_i can be denoted by a row vector.

$$\hat{f}(x) = \sum_{i}^{N(\varepsilon)} a_{i} \sigma \left[\mathbf{W}_{i} \mathbf{x} + b_{i} \right]$$

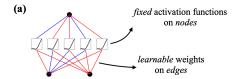


Figure: A shallow 2-layer multi-layer perceptron. d = 2, n = 5.

More generally, for deep (d > 2) networks, a multi-layer perceptron is really just a composition of (affine!) linear transformations separated by non-linear activations.

$$MLP(x) = [W_d \circ \sigma_d \circ W_{d-1} \circ \sigma_{d-1} \circ \dots W_1 \circ \sigma_1](x)$$

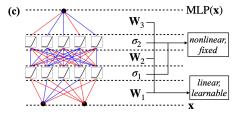


Figure: A deep multi-layer perceptron network.

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Question: What can a multi-layer perceptron represent?

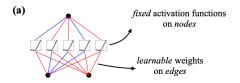


Figure: A shallow 2-layer multi-layer perceptron. d = 2, n = 5.

Universal Approximation

Question: What can a multi-layer perceptron represent? Answer Anything!*

Let $D \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be compact¹. $f: D \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be an arbitrary nonlinear function, and let $\hat{f}: D \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ denote a shallow (n.b. 2-layer) multi-layer perceptron, denoted by

$$\hat{f}(x) = \sum_{i}^{N(\varepsilon)} a_i \sigma \left[\mathbf{W}_i \mathbf{x} + b_i \right]$$

where $N(\varepsilon)$ is the number of neurons. In the shallow case this is = the width.

Compact denotes some notion of "closed and bounded" – the *n*-dimensional equivalent of a closed interval $[a,b] \subset \mathbb{R}$.

Let $D \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be compact. $f \colon D \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be an arbitrary nonlinear function, and let $\hat{f} \colon D \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ denote a shallow (n.b. 2-layer) multi-layer perceptron, denoted by

$$\hat{f}(x) = \sum_{i}^{N(\varepsilon)} a_{i} \sigma \left[\mathbf{W}_{i} \mathbf{x} + b_{i} \right]$$

Theorem

Universal approximation (2-layer network). For arbitrary $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R} > 0$, there exists $N(\varepsilon)$ such that

$$|f(x) - \hat{f(x)}| \le \varepsilon$$

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So we can model basically anything! But...

Theorem

Universal approximation (2-layer network). For arbitrary $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R} > 0$, there exists $N(\varepsilon)$ such that

$$|f(x) - \hat{f(x)}| \le \varepsilon$$

...the practical question is:

What is $N(\varepsilon)$?

Is it
$$O(\log \varepsilon^{-1})$$
? $O(\varepsilon^{-1})$? $O(\exp \varepsilon^{-1})$?

Neural scaling

What is $N(\varepsilon)$?

We don't know, in general! The universal approximation theorem guarantees no bounds on N. For deep networks, we do know that it's possibly poorly behaved $(N \propto \exp(d)$, the layer depth of the network).

Why does this make sense? Because we are fitting a "mostly linear" model to an "arbitrary non-linear" function. We need "a lot of linear pieces" to get good at modeling funky nonlinear functions.

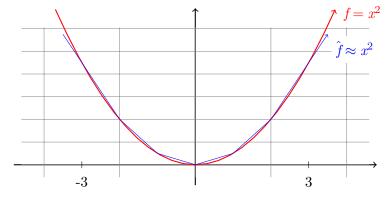


Figure: It takes a lot of line segments to approximate this quadratic on [-3,3], and as soon as we leave [-3,3], the error in our approximation blows up!

Enter the notion of neural scaling laws.

Neural scaling laws formalize the notion of "mostly linear things approximate nonlinearities inefficiently" – in particular, we can generally say that the $training^2$ loss ℓ decreases according a power-law regime:

$$\ell \propto N^{-\alpha}$$

where α is the *scaling exponent* and N is the number of parameters. In essence, to decrease the loss linearly requires an exponential increase in the number of parameters.

²i.e. overfits

In essence, to decrease the loss linearly requires an exponential increase in the number of parameters.

Fundamentally, if the underlying process is nonlinear, then we are basically trying to fit a big piecewise linear function, and then combining them with a fixed nonlinearity (ReLU, sigmoid, tanh, &c).

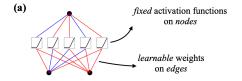


Figure: The shallow perceptron again. The nodes apply a fixed nonlinear activation to each input, which is a learned affine linear function over the incoming edges.

A practical example: go/tensorflowplayground

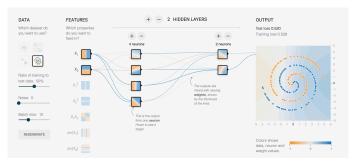


Figure: Separating linearly inseparable data, with linear functions?

Idea: Why not learn the nonlinearity?

Using linear piecewise bits to represent a nonlinear function seems impractical. Besides, we already use nonlinear basis functions to fit models (e.g. polynomial degree-n regression, exponential regression, spline fitting).

This is the basic idea behind the Kolmogorov-Arnold network.

Kolmogorov-Arnold representation

The fundamental architectural difference (other than learning the nonlinear 'activation') between the multi-layer perceptron and the Kolmogorov-Arnold network is that nodes and edges are flipped:

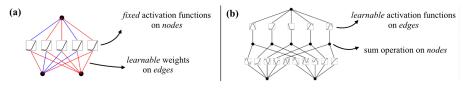


Figure: MLP (right) vs. KAN (left) in the shallow case.

Both of these are two-layer architectures.

The multi-layer perceptron was underpinned by the Universal Approximation theorem. The Kolmogorov-Arnold network is similarly underpinned by the Kolmogorov-Arnold representation theorem (surprise). Let f be a continuous function defined on a closed hypercube, i.e. $f: [0,1]^n \subset \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

Theorem

Kolmogorov-Arnold representation. f admits a representation that is the sum of continuous functions of a single variable. In particular: there exist $\phi_{q,p}:[0,1] \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $\Phi_q:\mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ where

$$f(x) = f(x_1, x_2, \dots x_n) = \sum_{q=0}^{2n} \Phi_q \left(\sum_{p=1}^n \phi_{q,p}(x_p) \right)$$

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Well that's abstract and unhelpful! What does it mean?

Rather surprisingly, it tells us that every multivariable function defined on a compact set can be written with a collection of univariate functions, composed and added together! This is a pretty remarkable result:

$$x \in [0,1]^n \implies \underbrace{f(x) = f(x_1, x_2, \dots x_n)}_{\text{multivariate}} = \sum_{q=0}^{2n} \underbrace{\Phi_q}_{\text{univariate}} \left(\sum_{p=1}^n \underbrace{\phi_{q,p}}_{\text{univariate}} (x_p) \right)$$

$$x \in [0,1]^n \implies$$

$$\underbrace{f(x) = f(x_1, x_2, \dots x_n)}_{\text{multivariate}} = \sum_{q=0}^{2n} \underbrace{\Phi_q}_{\text{univariate}} \left(\sum_{p=1}^n \underbrace{\phi_{q,p}}_{\text{univariate}} (x_p) \right)$$

There is a catch: we have no guarantees on how nicely-behaved these univariate functions are. It could well be the case that our ϕ , Φ are nondifferentiable or even fractal.

Fortunately, in practice, (it turns out) if you're modeling a real-life process, the odds are good that they will be (reasonably) well-behaved. Training B-splines turns out to be effective.

Definition

A B-spline of order n is a piecewise polynomial function of degree n-1; the points where they meet are called knots. It has derivatives continuous up to the degree n-1. B-splines can smoothly approximate any function on a compact domain to within arbitrary precision by interpolating between knots.

^aif all knots are distinct.

In addition, the KA theorem only discusses the shallow (2-layer) case. In much the same way as a deep MLP network, we can stack layers of these KAN networks together.

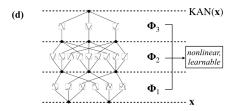


Figure: A deep KAN.

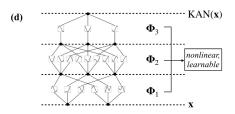


Figure: A deep KAN.

Empirically, it turns out these have high approximating power (among other benefits!). A deep KAN admits a very simple representation:

$$KAN(x) = (\phi_d \circ \phi_{d-1} \circ \ldots \circ \phi_1)(x)$$

Compare to the deep MLP formulation:

$$MLP(x) = [W_d \circ \sigma_d \circ W_{d-1} \circ \sigma_{d-1} \circ \dots W_1 \circ \sigma_1](x)$$

From the previous discussion about neural scaling, we might expect a KAN to be *more efficient* at representing nonlinear processes than a deep MLP.

Is this true?

Yes!

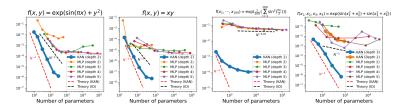


Figure: Comparison of RMSE vs. number of parameters in the KAN and MLP case.

But why? (Dense theorem incoming.)

Theorem

Kolmogorov-Arnold, assuming continuity. Let $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots x_n)$, and suppose f(x) admits a deep KA representation

$$f = (\phi_d \circ \phi_{d-1} \circ \dots \phi_1)(x)$$

where $\phi_k = \sum_{i=1}^{n_k} \varphi_{z(k,i)}(x_i)$, and each φ_z is k+1 times continuously differentiable. Then each φ can be written as a sum of univariate order-K B-splines, and there exists $C \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ depending on f and its representation that for any $0 \leq m \leq k$

$$||f - (\phi_d^G \circ \phi_{d-1}^G \circ \dots \phi_1^G)||_{C^m} \le CG^{-k-1+m}$$

where G is the number of knots. $||g||_{C^m}$ is the derivative norm equal to $\max_{|\beta| < m} \sup_{x \in [0,1]^n} |D^{\beta}g|$.

$$||f - (\phi_d^G \circ \phi_{d-1}^G \circ \dots \phi_1^G)||_{C^m} \le CG^{-k-1+m}$$

This implies that the error between a deep KAN and the underlying function is *independent of dimension*. KANs are *free from curse of dimensionality* – we can therefore expect (and in fact see!) better neural scaling laws.

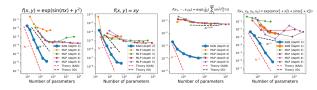


Figure: Comparison of RMSE vs. number of parameters in the KAN and MLP case.

$$||f - (\phi_d^G \circ \phi_{d-1}^G \circ \dots \phi_1^G)||_{C^m} \le C G^{-(k+1)+m}$$

Further, it implies we can fine-tune the univariate representations³ by increasing G, the number of knots, without touching the dimensionality⁴ of the model!

⁴dimensionality, broadly, is layer or feature width

³I coin the term 'eigenfeatures', but Liu et al. refer to this process as 'grid extension'.

What does a learned spline look like? It turns out they look quite intuitive:

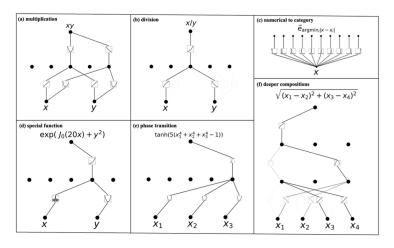


Figure: Visualization of KANs trained on some input functions.

Note also that the shape of these KANs correspond quite well to the structure of the input function.

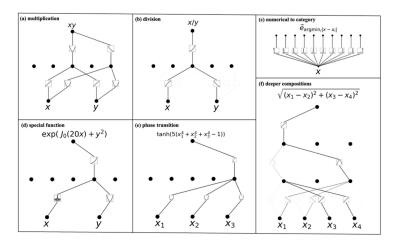


Figure: Visualization of KANs trained on some input functions.

With a bit of regularization/sparsification in the objective function, KANs can be trained to prune themselves down to a minimal depth and breadth, to the point that you can almost elicit an analytical function from the shape of the KAN.

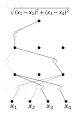


Figure: Pruned KAN.

There are a lot of really cool knot theoretic and physics-based examples in the original paper, which I encourage you to peruse. Why are we only hearing about KANs now?

There has been previous work on the application of Kolmogorov-Arnold to neural networks, but much of it predates modern concepts (like backpropagation and other efficient gradient methods). KAN training is also far more involved than MLP training.

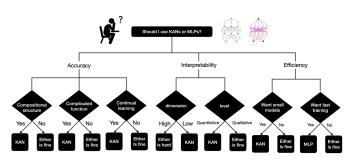


Figure: Fun figure from Liu et al.