Locality-preserving encodings (LPE): Representing Continuous Values and Functions

How can we extend HD Computing/VSA to non-symbolic computation?

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We've glimpsed at these ideas before...

Visual working memory as a superposition of 'what' and 'where' bindings (Eric Weiss, Ph.D. thesis)



2.1 STORING SEQUENCES BY TRAJECTORY-ASSOCIATION

Elements of the sequence and loci (points) on the trajectory are all represented by n-dimensional vectors. The loci are derived from a single vector \mathbf{k} - they are its successive convolutive powers: \mathbf{k}^0 , \mathbf{k}^1 , \mathbf{k}^2 , etc. The convolutive power is defined in the obvious way: \mathbf{k}^0 is the identity vector and $\mathbf{k}^{i+1} = \mathbf{k}^i \otimes \mathbf{k}$.





Generalizing from Vectors to Symbols



VSA Formulation $I = \mathbf{c}_{red} \odot \mathbf{s}_{square} \odot \mathbf{v}_{top} \odot \mathbf{h}_{left}$ $+ \mathbf{c}_{blue} \odot \mathbf{s}_{triangle} \odot \mathbf{v}_{middle} \odot \mathbf{h}_{left}$ $+ \mathbf{c}_{green} \odot \mathbf{s}_{circle} \odot \mathbf{v}_{bottom} \odot \mathbf{h}_{right}$ VFA Formulation $I = \mathbf{c}^{630} \odot \mathbf{s}_{square} \odot \mathbf{v}^{54.7} \odot \mathbf{h}^{51}$

 $+ \mathbf{c}^{465} \odot \mathbf{s}_{triangle} \odot \mathbf{v}^{198} \odot \mathbf{h}^{48.24}$

 $+ \mathbf{c}^{532} \odot \mathbf{s}_{circle} \odot \mathbf{v}^{352.1} \odot \mathbf{h}^{344}$

LPE: Problem formulation

- Input: $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$, $d \ge 1$
- Output: $\mathbf{z}(\mathbf{x}) \in V^n$, n >> d
- Goal: find a mapping x -> z(x) that is a Locality Preserving Encoding (LPE)
 - High similarity between $\mathbf{x}_1 \otimes \mathbf{x}_2$ results in high similarity between $\mathbf{z}(\mathbf{x}_1) \otimes \mathbf{z}(\mathbf{x}_2)$
 - Low similarity between $\mathbf{x}_1 \otimes \mathbf{x}_2$ results in high similarity between $\mathbf{z}(\mathbf{x}_1) \otimes \mathbf{z}(\mathbf{x}_2)$

Some methods we will cover today

- Older methods for designing LPEs
 - Thermometer code
 - Float/sliding code
 - Scatter code
- Kernel LPEs and Vector Function Architectures (VFAs)
- Designing kernels in VFAs

arXiv.org > cs > arXiv:2109.03429

Computer Science > Machine Learning

[Submitted on 8 Sep 2021]

Computing on Functions Using Randomized Vector Representations

E. Paxon Frady, Denis Kleyko, Christopher J. Kymn, Bruno A. Olshausen, Friedrich T. Sommer

https://arxiv.org/abs/2109.03429

LPE for scalars: Thermometer code

- Encodes levels by the number of "activated" units
- Quantize x into n discrete levels $x \rightarrow s, s \in [0, n]$
- z(0) consists of all 0s.
- For other levels, the components of z(s) are determined by:
 - $z_i(s) = \begin{cases} +1, & i \le s \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$
- Thermometer code can only represent n+1 levels





Thermometer code: Example



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LPE for scalars: Float/Sliding code

- Encodes levels by the number of "activated" units
 - The number of activated units in a code is fixed to w
 - Activated units are consecutive -> float
- Quantize x into n discrete <u>levels</u> $x \rightarrow s, s \in [0, n-w]$
 - Float/Sliding code can only represent *n*-*w*+1 levels
- For **z**(0): first *w* units are 1s; the rest are 0s.
- For other levels, the components of z(s) are determined by:

$$z_i(s) = \begin{cases} +1, & s \le i < s + w \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$







Float/Sliding: Example

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LPE for scalars: Scatter code

- Encodes levels by randomly swapping some of the units
- Similarity decays nonlinearly
- Real-valued input x is quantized into levels (note: no strict limitation on the number of levels)
- z(0) is a random dense binary vector
- Each subsequent code is obtained from the previous one by randomly swapping its components with some probability p:

$$z_i(s) = \begin{cases} z_i(s-1) + 1 \mod 2, & r_i \le p\\ z_i(s-1), & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

D. Smith and P. Stanford, "A random walk in Hamming space," International Joint Conference on Neural Networks (IJCNN), vol. 2, pp. 465–470, 1990.





Kernel LPE definition (formal)

Definition 1: A randomizing LPE encoding function $f : r \in \mathbb{R} \to \mathbf{z}(r) \in \mathbb{C}^n$ is a kernel-LPE (KLPE), that is, it induces a similarity kernel, if the following requirement holds:

In the limit for large dimensionality n, the *inner product* between point representations defines a translation-invariant similarity kernel:

$$\mathbf{z}(r_1)^{\top} \overline{\mathbf{z}(r_2)} \stackrel{\text{large } n}{\longrightarrow} K(r_1 - r_2), \tag{9}$$

with a kernel function K(d), which is real-valued, assumes its maximum at d = 0 and gradually reaches zero for large |d|. Under quite general conditions, the convergence in (9), should be fast:

$$\left|\mathbf{z}(r_1)^{\top} \overline{\mathbf{z}(r_2)} - K(r_1 - r_2)\right| \le \epsilon \text{ for } n \propto O(g(m, \epsilon))$$
(10)

i.e., the required dimensionality of vectors is not very large (Rahimi and Recht, 2007; Thomas et al., 2020). We will discuss the required dimensionality of vectors for different concrete KLPE methods

Definition 2: A KLPE is compatible with a VSA binding operation \circ , if the addition of two values of the encoded variable can be represented by binding the individual representations of the values:

$$\mathbf{z}(r_1 + r_2) = \mathbf{z}(r_1) \circ \mathbf{z}(r_2). \tag{11}$$

Kernel LPE definition (informal)

• Inner product between point representations defines a translation invariant similarity kernel

$$\mathbf{z}(r_1)^{\top} \overline{\mathbf{z}(r_2)} \stackrel{\text{large } n}{\longrightarrow} K(r_1 - r_2)$$

• Compatible with VSA binding if binding adds encoded values:

$$\mathbf{z}(r_1+r_2) = \mathbf{z}(r_1) \circ \mathbf{z}(r_2).$$

Example of Kernel LPE: Fractional binding

Fractional binding is inspired by self-binding z i times with itself:

$$\mathbf{z}(x) = \underbrace{\mathbf{z} \odot \cdots \odot \mathbf{z}}_{\text{x times}} = \mathbf{z}^x$$

• With Fourier HRR:

$$\mathbf{z}(x) = [e^{i\phi_1 x}, e^{i\phi_2 x}, ..., e^{i\phi_n x}] ; \phi_j \sim U[-\pi, \pi)$$

- Observe that:
 - For FHRR, $\mathbf{z}(x)$ is well defined for any $x \in \mathbb{R}$
 - $\mathbf{z}(x_1) \odot \mathbf{z}(x_2) = \mathbf{z}(x_1 + x_2)$

Different Kernel LPEs

FPE with Hadamard product binding (Frady):

 $\mathbf{z}^{hp}(r) := (\mathbf{z})^r$

FPE with Circular convolution binding (Plate, Eliasmith): $\mathbf{z}^{cc}(r) := \mathbf{z}^{(\circledast r)} = \mathcal{F}^{-1}(\mathcal{F}(\mathbf{z})^r) = F^{-1}(F\mathbf{z})^r$

Block-local circular convolution (Frady et al. IEEE TNNLS 2021):

$$\mathbf{z}^{lcc}(r)_{(\text{block }i)} := \mathbf{z}_{(\text{block }i)}^{(*_B r)} = F^{-1} \left(F \mathbf{z}_{(\text{block }i)} \right)^r$$



FPEs with uniformly sampled base vectors have a universal kernel



Definition of Vector Function Architecture (VFA)

Definition 3: The combination of a VSA with a KLPE that is compatible with the VSA binding operation induces an RKHS of functions with inner product $\langle f, g \rangle := \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(r)g(r)dr$ that we will call a Vector Function Architecture (VFA):

a) A function of the form:

$$f(r) = \sum_{k} \alpha_k K(r - r_k) \tag{12}$$

is represented via (10), $f(r) = \mathbf{y}_f^\top \overline{\mathbf{z}(r)}$, by the vector:

$$\mathbf{y}_f = \sum_k \alpha_k \mathbf{z}(r_k) \tag{13}$$

Approximating functions with sinc



https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Whittaker%E2%80%93Shannon_interpolation_formula



Manipulating functions in VFA

• Point-wise readout of a function $f(s) = \langle f, K_s \rangle = \mathbf{y}_f^\top \overline{\mathbf{z}(s)}$ • Point-wise addition $\mathbf{y}_{f+g} = \mathbf{y}_f + \mathbf{y}_g$ • Function shifting $f(x) \to g(x) = f(x+r)$ • Function convolution $\mathbf{y}_{f*g} = \mathbf{y}_f \circ \mathbf{z}(r)$ $\mathbf{y}_{f*g} = \mathbf{y}_f \circ \mathbf{y}_g$ • Overall similarity between functions $\langle f, g \rangle = \mathbf{y}_f^\top \overline{\mathbf{y}_g}$

Vector space in FPE-VFA

Let us denote the set of norm-preserving vectors with respect to the binding operation \circ with:

$$A_{\circ} := \{ \mathbf{z} : ||\mathbf{v} \circ \mathbf{z}||^2 = ||\mathbf{v}||^2 \ \forall \ \mathbf{v} \}$$

$$\tag{23}$$

Note that with the base vector chosen in A_{\circ} , all points r are mapped by (22) to vectors also within A_{\circ} .



Phase distribution of the base vector determines similarity kernel



Random Features for Large-Scale Kernel Machines

Ali Rahimi and Ben Recht

Algorithm 1 Random Fourier Features.

Require: A positive definite shift-invariant kernel $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = k(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y})$. **Ensure:** A randomized feature map $\mathbf{z}(\mathbf{x}) : \mathcal{R}^d \to \mathcal{R}^D$ so that $\mathbf{z}(\mathbf{x})'\mathbf{z}(\mathbf{y}) \approx k(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y})$. Compute the Fourier transform p of the kernel k: $p(\omega) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int e^{-j\omega'\delta} k(\delta) d\Delta$. Draw D iid samples $\omega_1, \dots, \omega_D \in \mathcal{R}^d$ from p and D iid samples $b_1, \dots, b_D \in \mathcal{R}$ from the uniform distribution on $[0, 2\pi]$. Let $\mathbf{z}(\mathbf{x}) \equiv \sqrt{\frac{2}{D}} \left[\cos(\omega_1'\mathbf{x} + b_1) \cdots \cos(\omega_D'\mathbf{x} + b_D) \right]'$.



Theorem 1 (Bochner [13]). A continuous kernel $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = k(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y})$ on \mathcal{R}^d is positive definite if and only if $k(\delta)$ is the Fourier transform of a non-negative measure.

Discrete phase distributions produce periodic kernels



Binding FPEs to produce multi-dimensional kernels



Periodic 2D kernels (Lattices)



Periodic 2D kernels (finite coherence)



Periodic 2D kernels



Decoding (parsing) VFA vectors



Two-step method of decoding:

- Find closest pair of anchor points (spaced with 0<< β <1) stored in associative memory
- Determine exact position on path by optimizing $c(s) = [\mathbf{z}^s]^\top \overline{\mathbf{x}} = \sum_{i} e^{i(s-r)\phi_i}$

Generalizing from Vectors to Symbols



Some applications



Machine learning



Compositional image encodings



Modeling in neuroscience