

# Some Theorems for Feed Forward Neural Networks

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## ABSTRACT

This paper introduces a new method which employs the concept of "Orientation Vectors" to train a feed forward neural network. It is shown that this method is suitable for problems where large dimensions are involved and the clusters are characteristically sparse. For such cases, the new method is not NP hard as the problem size increases. We 'derive' the present technique by starting from Kolmogorov's method and then relax some of the stringent conditions. It is shown that for most classification problems three layers are sufficient and the number of processing elements in the first layer depends on the number of clusters in the feature space. This paper explicitly demonstrates that for large dimension space as the number of clusters increase from  $N$  to  $N+dN$  the number of processing elements in the first layer only increases by  $d(\log N)$ , and as the number of classes increase, the processing elements increase only proportionately, thus demonstrating that the method is not NP hard with increase in problem size. Many examples have been explicitly solved and it has been demonstrated through them that the method of Orientation Vectors requires much less computational effort than Radial Basis Function methods and other techniques wherein distance computations are required, in fact the present method increases logarithmically with problem size compared to the Radial Basis Function method and the other methods which depend on distance computations e.g statistical methods where probabilistic distances are calculated. A practical method of applying the concept of Occum's razor to choose between two architectures which solve the same classification problem has been described. The ramifications of the above findings on the field of Deep Learning have also been briefly investigated and we have found that it directly leads to the existence of certain types of NN architectures which can be used as a "mapping engine", which has the property of "invertibility", thus improving the prospect of their deployment for solving problems involving Deep Learning and hierarchical classification. The latter possibility has a lot of future scope in the areas of machine learning and cloud computing.

## General Terms

Artificial Intelligence, Machine Learning

## Keywords

Neural Networks, Neural Architecture, Deep Learning, Orientation Vector, Kolmogorov

## 1. INTRODUCTION

A typical classification or pattern recognition problem involves a multi-dimensional feature space. Features are variables: they can be, for example in a medical data, blood pressure, cholesterol, sugar content etc. of a patient, so each data point in feature space represents a patient. Data points will be normally grouped into various clusters in feature space, each cluster will belong to a particular class (disease), the problem is further complicated by the fact that more than one cluster may belong to the same class (disease). The problem in pattern recognition is how to make a computer recognize patterns and classify them. Such tasks in the real world can be extremely complex as there may be thousands of clusters and hundreds of classes in a space of a hundred or more dimensions, therefore computers are used to detect patterns in such data and recognize classes for decision making.

The trend in the last 25 years is to use an artificial neural network (ANN) architecture to solve such problems with the aid of computers. One of the great difficulties that researchers have been working with and enduring, is that there was no known method of obtaining a suitable architecture for a given problem and therefore various configurations of artificial neurons aligned in different arrays were tried out and after a great deal of trials one particular architecture which suited the present problem was finally chosen and used for pattern recognition and classification.

However, it must be reiterated here that the theoretical basis of a feed forward neural network, was first provided by Kolmogorov(1957) ([1]), who first showed that a continuous function of  $n$  variables:  $f(x_1, x_2, ..x_n)$  can be mapped to a single function of one variable  $v(u)$ . His monumental discovery was improved and perfected by others (Lorentz, Sprecher and Hect-Nielsen) ([2]-[6]) to demonstrate that his proof proved an existence of a three layer network for every pattern recognition problem that was classifiable. However, though his theorem proved the existence of a neural architecture, there was no easy way of actually constructing the mapping for a given practical problem ([7]-[12]). To quote Hect-Nielsen, "The proof of the theorem is not constructive, so it does not tell us how to determine these quantities. It is strictly an exis-

tence theorem.<sup>1</sup> It tells us that such a three layer mapping network must exist, but it doesn't tell us how to find it" ([13]-[15]).

Subsequently, Rumelhart, Hinton and Williams (1986) used the error minimization method to implement and popularize the Back Propagation (BP) algorithm which was discovered and developed by many researchers from Bryson; Kelley; Ho; Dreyfus; Linnainmaa; Werbos and Speelpeening during a 22 year period 1960-82 (see the comprehensive review by J. Schmidhuber [18] for precise historical details and references cited therein). The B.P. can be used for training artificial neural networks (ANN) consisting of multilayered processing elements (perceptrons) for solving general types of classification problems. Ever since then ANNs have been used over a very wide area of AI problems and currently in Deep Learning. Though these developments were wide and varied there was no good method of obtaining an optimal Architecture for an ANN for any particular problem.

For a given problem and for a given data set, various number of processing elements and very many layers were tried out before arriving at a particular architecture which suits the problem. However, this said, it was however well known that a three layer architecture is sufficient for any classification problem involving many samples which form clusters in feature space (Lippmann, 1987, see Fig 14 in p.14 and Fig 15 p. 16 in [27]). The idea was that any group of clusters can be separated from the others by confining each cluster inside a polygon (or polytope) by well defined lines or planes which form the convex hull of each cluster. See figure 2 below.

A classifier can then easily be constructed to discover if any point (sample) lies within any particular polytope (cluster), all the classifier has to do is to check if the particular point lies within the bounding planes which circumscribe the polygon. For example, if the polygon is a triangle, then the classifier can find out if a particular point is within the triangle by verifying that it is within the three sides (planes) of the triangle. If there are many polygons then each of them can be represented by its bounding planes (convex hull), a classifier using ANNs can be built. By this means a three layer ANN network wherein the first layer consists of as many processing elements as the number of planes needed (in figure 2, 43 planes are needed) to form the convex hulls of all the polytopes in the sample space [27]. However, this procedure though correct was not practically feasible, and will probably never be, because finding the convex hull of a given region, let alone a number of regions, is a NP hard Problem and especially so in n-dimension feature space where the number of clusters are many and the number of planes involved would exponentially increase. It is appropriate to mention here that around 20 years ago there were attempts to define the convex hull of a cluster by using sample points at the boundary of each cluster, leading to the so called Support Vector Machines which was introduced by Cortes and Vapnik [20], but even these could not get over the NP hard problem as was soon realized. (It will be seen later, how by adopting a new approach and the use of the concept of 'Orientation Vectors', [29]-[30] the problems of separability and outliers are tackled, see Fig. 4 ).

This paper describes a method to dodge the problem; where in it's shown that it is really not necessary to find the convex hull of each cluster: all it requires is that somehow we must be able to separate each cluster from the other by a single plane, if this is done, then the classification problem is much reduced and it can be performed by using a transformation from feature space (X-space) to another

S-space in such a manner that each cluster finds itself, after transformation, in a unique quadrant in S-space and thus each cluster is easily classified needing much less planes. See figure 3, where only 4 planes are necessary compared to 43 planes in figure 2.

The purpose of this paper is to show that this can always be done for problems where the clusters are separable, that is if clusters belonging to different classes do not overlap in feature space (of course if there is an overlap there is no method which can work without adding new features in the study - thus essentially enlarging the dimension of the feature space). In very high dimension problems the clusters, in practical cases, will almost always be sparse<sup>2</sup> and this transformation from X-space to S-space performed in such a manner that the co-domains are always within one quadrant in S-space is not only feasible but becomes a very powerful tool for classification, actually all the methods and results in this paper has been fashioned from this tool.

The concept of "Orientation" vectors [29]-[30] is being introduced to keep track of the clusters in feature space and solve the problem. The theorem determines, almost precisely, the number of processing elements which are needed for each layer to arrive at a "minimalistic" architecture which completely solves the classification problem. It's further proven that this method of classification is NOT NP hard by showing that if the number of clusters, N, is increased then the number of processing elements in this minimalistic architecture, at worst increases linearly with N and at best increases by  $\Delta(\log(N))$ .

There are two approaches that can be followed to develop the ideas given in the previous paragraph, but eventually it so turns out that they arrive at the same architecture, these are as follows: (i) Kolmogorov's approach is followed but by giving up on the effort of exactly trying to map the exact geometrical domain of the functions, and do not try to obtain a continuous function that maps the exact geometrical domains of each cluster. Instead piece wise continuous functions are used. Further, its made sure that only those planes are chosen that can separate one domain (cluster) from another, but assume that on each of these domains a single piece wise constant function is defined.

(ii) The idea of solving the complex hull problem for each cluster (which is NP hard) or even on the idea of trying to confine each cluster within planes (Lippmann 1987) which will form a polygon (or polytope), so that all points that belong to the cluster are inside the polytope is discarded. Instead, planes are chosen which separate each cluster from another cluster by planes (half space), see figures 1 and 2. It's shown that if this is done then the classification problem can be solved with much less number of planes figure 3. For the purposes of completeness and also to underline the fact that the ANN method is also a mapping technique and is thus related to the Kolmogorov technique, both the methods (i) and (ii) are described in fair detail in Section 2, though they lead to the same architecture.

In section 3, a geometrical constructive proof is provided, that under the conditions put forth in the theorem, which demonstrates how such a three layer network can be had if we are given the details of the piece wise function as described above. This is one of the theorems that is proven in this paper.

<sup>1</sup>Then he goes on to say "Unfortunately, there does not appear too much hope that a method for finding the Kolmogorov network will be developed soon"

<sup>2</sup>If there is an image involving 30 x 30 pixels, this means we are dealing with a 900 dimensions feature space, such a space will have  $2^{900} \approx 10^{270}$  quadrants; it will be hard to fill up this space even with one image per quadrant. Thus we see that the sample points are very sparsely distributed in feature space.

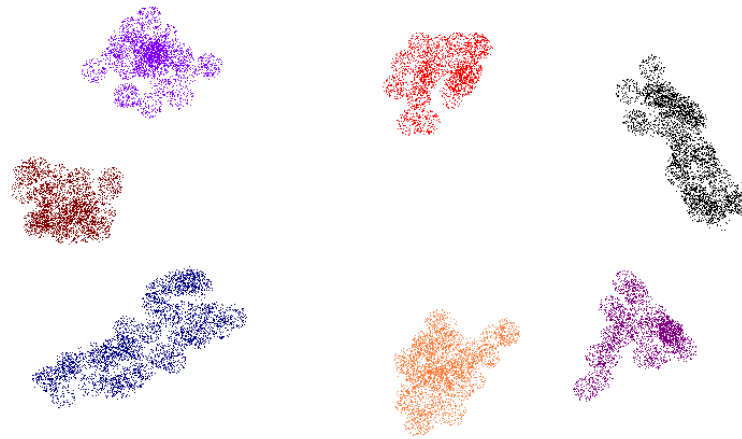
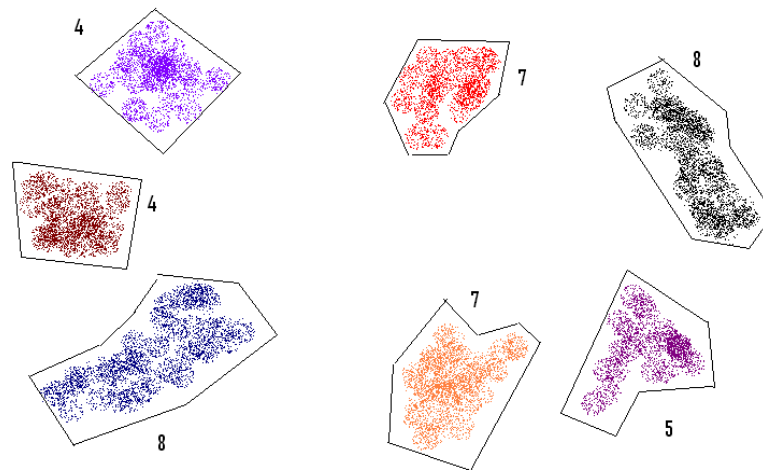


Fig. 1. Cluster Problem for Classification.



**Numbers indicate the planes required to confine one cluster**  
**Conventional Neural Classification Requires 43 Planes**

Fig. 2. Cluster Problem for Classification solved in conventional way

In section 4, example problems are constructed wherein the method of orientation vectors is used. These examples have been deliberately constructed with the intent to not only best illustrate the method but also to show how approximations to the classification problem can be made by assuming different ANN architectures and employ the BP algorithm to solve it. Since these examples are so devised that the “minimalistic” architecture<sup>3</sup> for each of them

<sup>3</sup>The term ‘minimalistic’ that we is used should be interpreted with caution, it generally means an architecture with the minimal number of processing elements in the 1st layer, this too is a bit imprecise: what it means is the

is known we can compare the various approximate with the exact solutions. This study therefore gives an insight into how one may solve practical problems when the number of clusters are not known and the number of partitioning planes (half spaces) are not known but have to be guessed at.

number of layers when we use a sigmoid function  $s_i = \tanh(\beta y_i)$  with  $\beta$  large, say,  $\beta > 5$ . With smaller values of  $\beta$  it is possible to arrive at an architecture which has a few processing elements less than the this ‘minimalistic’ value, a point which becomes clear later on.

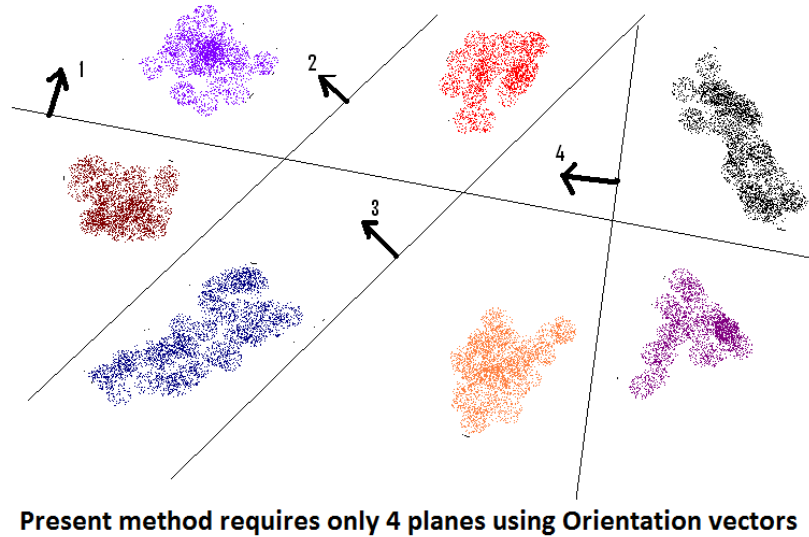


Fig. 3. Cluster Problem for Classification solved by present method

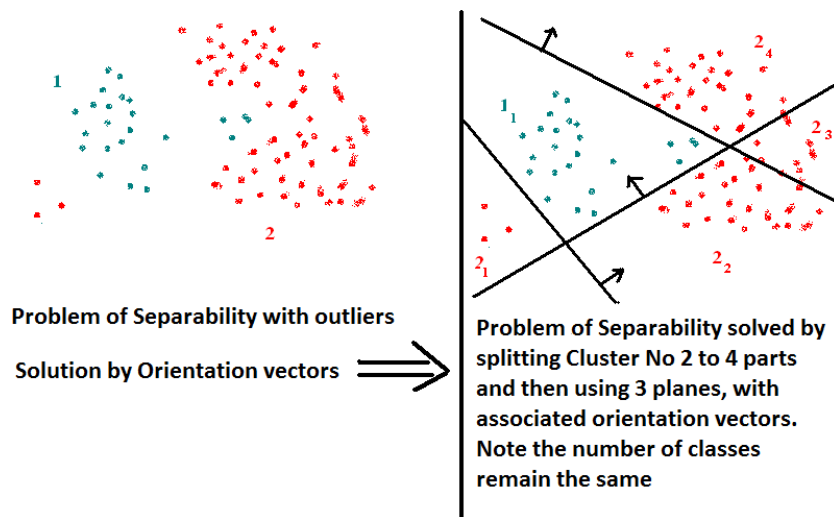


Fig. 4. Cluster Problem for Classification with outliers

Section 5 is an application section where some suggestions as to how one may “guess” the number of clusters and the number of partitioning planes so that one can arrive at an approximation to the ‘minimalistic’ architecture.

Section 6 shows that the present method is not NP hard. It ends with a brief discussion on applications on Deep Learning and a Conclusion. Section 7 is the conclusion.

## 2. APPROACHES TO THE PROBLEM

This section will detail the two approaches.

### 2.1 The Kolmogorov approach

As aforesaid, this paper solves a more restricted mapping problem which is suitable for most classification tasks. It does not require

the general continuous functions of  $n$  variables  $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ , but only require that the functions be “piece wise constant”, meaning that the function  $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  take on some constant value in a closed set (region) (ie inside and on the boundary of a particular cluster), therefore the function is continuous for every point of a closed set. For example in figure 5:  $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  can take on some constant value  $c_{1_1}$  in the region  $1_1$  and some other constant value  $c_{4_3}$  in the region  $4_3$ , etc. in fact there is no loss of generality if we assume that  $c_{1_1}$  equals the class number 1 of the particular cluster  $1_1$  ie we may define  $c_{1_1} = 1$ , similarly we may define  $c_{4_3} = 3$ , 3 being the class number of cluster  $4_3$ . Its further assumed that the domain of each function is separable from other domains by planes (ie they are separable). This assumption allows us to immediately exploit the idea of finding the minimal number of planes that can separate the domains, thus if we know how a point (belonging to

a domain is “oriented” with respect to all the planes then we can quickly find out as to which domain the point belongs to.

To draw a parallel with the work of Kolmogorov, this paper uses a technique to map a “piece wise constant” function defined in  $n$ -dimension space to a function defined in discrete 1-dimension space. A “piece wise constant” function in  $n$ -dimension space  $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  (which takes input as points in the  $n$ -dimensional feature space and outputs the class number of that point) is mapped to an equivalent 1-dimensional function  $(v(u))$  which takes input as the cluster number to which the point in  $n$ -dimensional feature space belongs and outputs the corresponding class number. The function  $(v(u))$  takes as input one among a discrete set of values (cluster number) and its set of all output values also forms a discrete set (class number). Our construction also shows a unique way to map points in the  $n$ -dimensional feature space to their corresponding cluster number. This method uses planes  $S_1, S_2, S_3$  to separate the domains and perform the mapping. It will be shown that these planes are the same planes that are used in the second approach (next subsection), to separate the clusters in such a manner that no two clusters are in the same side of all the planes.

## 2.2 Orientation Vector approach

This approach uses the concept of an ‘orientation vector’ to provide a geometrical constructive proof, under the conditions put forth in the theorem, which demonstrates how such a three layer network can be had if we are given the details of the piece wise function as described above.

The proof also provides a method which would overcome some of the difficulties in arriving at a suitable architecture for a given data in a classification problem. It is shown that given a data set of clusters in feature space there exists an artificial neural network architecture which can classify the data with near 100 percent accuracy (provided the data is consistent and the train samples describe a convex hull of each cluster). Further, it is shown how by using the concept of an “orientation vector” for each cluster, an optimal architecture is arrived at. It is also shown that the weights of the second hidden layers are related to the orientation vector thus making the classification easily possible.

Three examples are provided on the method, each of increasing complexity. The purpose of these examples is to show how once the architecture of the network is fixed, the weights of the network can be easily obtained by using the Back Propagation algorithm to a feed forward network.

## 3. STATEMENT OF THEOREM AND PROOF

Suppose there are  $m$  clusters of points in  $n$  dimensional feature space, figure 5 is a typical depiction, such that each cluster of points belongs to one of  $k$  distinct classes, and further if there exist  $q$  distinct  $n$ -dimensional planes which separate each cluster from its neighbors in such a manner that no two clusters are “on the same side” of all the planes, then it is possible to classify all the clusters by means of a feed forward neural network consisting of three hidden layers which has an architecture indicated as:  $q - m - k$ . That is the neural network will have  $q$  processing elements in the first hidden layer,  $m$  processing elements in the second layer, and  $k$  processing elements in the last layer. The input to this neural network will be  $n$ -dimensional, that is it will be the coordinates of a data point in  $n$ -dimensional space whose membership to a particular class will be ascertained uniquely by this neural network. The output of this network will be  $k$  binary numbers, out of which only one of them will be 1 and the rest will be zero. In the  $k$ -dimensional

output vector if the first component is 1 then it means the input vector belongs to the first class, or if the second component is 1 it means that the input vector belongs to the second class ....and so on to the last ( $k$ th class). In some notations which include the number of inputs, then the architecture would be denoted as:  $n - q - m - k$ . In the figure 5,  $q=5$ ,  $m=8$  and  $k=3$ , there are 8 clusters number 1 to 8, the suffix indicates the class assignment, for example cluster number 4 is denoted with a suffix 3 ie as  $4_3$  this just indicates that the points in this cluster belong to class 3, it may be noticed that there are other points in cluster number 8 which also belong to class 3.

**NOTE A:** It is assumed that the  $q$  planes do not intersect any cluster dividing it into two parts, if there happens to be a particular cluster which is so divided i.e. if there is a plane which cuts a particular cluster into two contiguous parts, then the part which is on one side of this plane will be counted as a different cluster from the one which is on the other side : that is the number of clusters will be nominally increased by one :  $m$  to  $m + 1$ .

**NOTE B:** It may be noticed that it is assumed that all points in a cluster belong to a single class (though the same class may be spread to many clusters, this assumption is necessary else it means that the  $n$ -features are not enough to separate the classes and one would require more features. Example suppose there is a sample point  $R$  which actually belongs to class 2 inside the cluster  $4_3$ , this means class 2 and class 3 are indistinguishable in our  $n$ -dimensional feature space and there should be more features added, thus increasing  $n$ . The proof of the theorem of course assumes that the dimension,  $n$ , of the selected feature space is sufficient to distinguish all the  $k$  classes.

**NOTE C:** Perhaps it is superfluous to caution that figure 5 is a pictorial representation of  $n$ -dimensional space and a plane which is merely indicated as a single line is actually of  $n-1$  dimensions and the arrow representing the normal (out of the plane) is perpendicular to all these  $n-1$  dimensions.

The theorem is proven by explicit construction. To fix the notation a diagram is provided which shows the architecture of a typical neural network shown in the figure 6, whose architecture is chosen for classifying the clusters given in figure 5.

However before proceeding to the proof a few definitions are needed:

The first definition explains what is meant by the terms “positive side” and “negative side” of a plane. The normal direction of each plane  $S_1, S_2, \dots, S_q$  (in the figure we have taken  $q = 5$ ) is indicated by an arrow. It may be noticed from figure 5 that all the points in the particular cluster indicated by  $1_1$  is on the side of the arrow direction of plane  $S_1$ , hence we say that  $1_1$  lies on the “positive side” of plane  $S_1$ , or as “+ve side” of plane  $S_1$ , points on the other side of this plane is defined to lie on the “negative side” of plane  $S_1$  or as “-ve side”. So we see each cluster will be either on the positive side or on the negative side of each plane, because by assumption no plane cuts through a cluster, (See Note A). Now we define a “orientation vector” of a cluster as follows: Let us take the cluster indicated by  $1_1$  we see that this cluster is on the +ve side of  $S_1$ , +ve side of  $S_2$ , -ve side of  $S_3$ , +ve side of  $S_4$  and +ve side of  $S_5$ , this situation is indicated by the array  $(1, 1, -1, 1, 1)$ . Thus the concept of a orientation vector of the cluster  $1_1$  is introduced as a vector which has  $q$  components and is defined as  $\underline{d}^{(1_1)} = (1, 1, -1, 1, 1)$ . To take another example, let us take the cluster  $4_3$  its orientation vector is  $\underline{d}^{(4_3)} = (-1, -1, -1, 1, 1)$  as can be ascertained from the figure. So in general the orientation vector of any cluster  $b$  can be denoted as  $\underline{d}^b = (d_1^b, d_2^b, \dots, d_r^b, \dots, d_q^b)$ ; where  $d_r^b = +1$  or  $-1$  according as cluster  $b$  is on the +ve or -ve side resp. of plane  $r$ . It should be

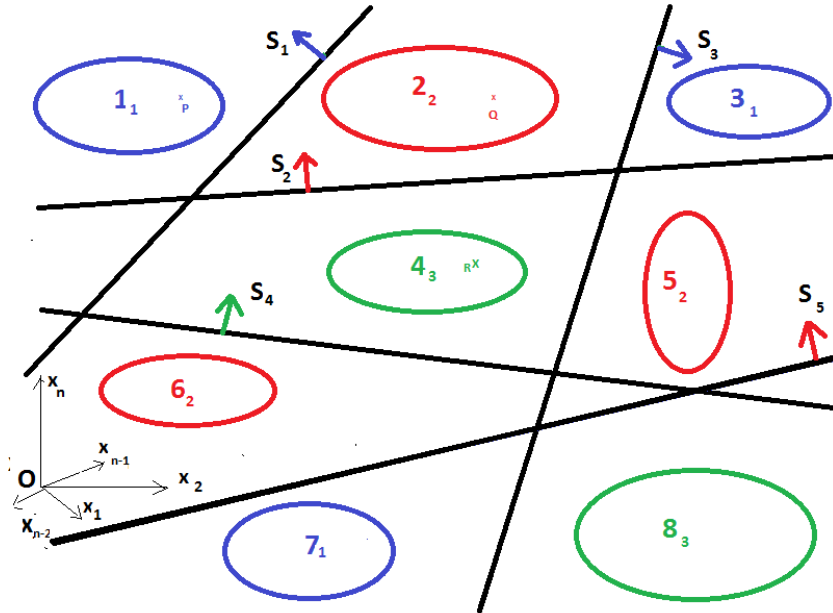


Fig. 5. Cluster of sample points in n-dimensional space

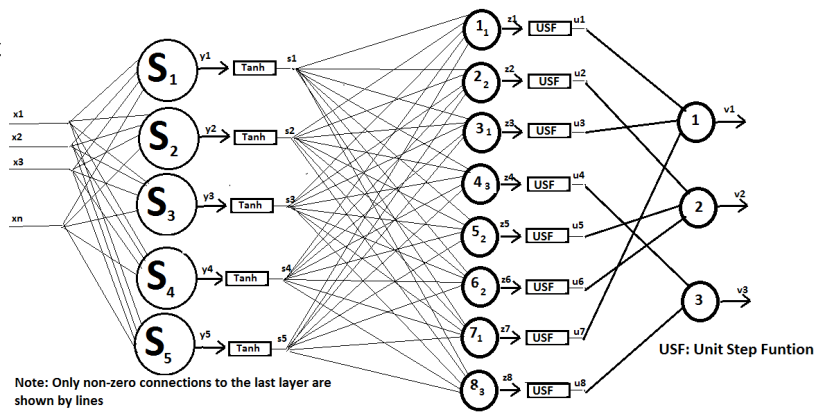


Fig. 6. Neural network architecture proposed in this paper

noted that the orientation vector of each cluster is unique and will not be exactly equal to the orientation vector of another cluster; this will always happen if the orientation vectors for each cluster are properly defined. Thus the dot product  $\underline{d}^b \cdot \underline{d}^c$  of the orientation vectors of two different clusters  $b$  and  $c$  will always be less than  $q$ :

$$\underline{d}^b \cdot \underline{d}^c = q, \text{ if } b = c$$

and

$$\underline{d}^b \cdot \underline{d}^c < q, \text{ if } b \neq c$$

actually it is because of the above property and the uniqueness of each orientation vector, that we its possible to build the architecture for any given problem.

The out put of the first processing element in the first layer denoted by  $S_1$  in the figure is:  $s_1 = \tanh(y_1)$

$$s_1 = \tanh(\beta y_1)$$

where we arbitrarily choose  $\beta = 5$

$$y_1 = w_{10} + w_{11}x_1 + w_{12}x_2 + \dots + w_{1n}x_n$$

it may be noted that the formula  $w_{10} + w_{11}x_1 + w_{12}x_2 + \dots + w_{1n}x_n = 0$  corresponds to the equation of the plane  $S_1$  of figure 6.

we have similar formulae for all the processing elements,  $S_j, j = 1, 2, \dots, q$  in the first layer, the last  $q^{th}$  being:

$$s_q = \tanh(\beta y_q)$$

where

$$y_q = w_{q0} + w_{q1}x_1 + w_{q2}x_2 + \dots + w_{qn}x_n$$

where  $w_{q0} + w_{q1}x_1 + w_{q2}x_2 + \dots + w_{qn}x_n = 0$  is the equation to the plane  $S_q$  of figure 6. Since the planes  $S_1, S_2, \dots, S_q$  are assumed

to be given, the coefficients (weights)  $w_{ij}$  of all the processing elements in the first layer are all known.

**NOTE D:** It may be noticed that the immediate out put of the first layer viz  $(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_q)$  passes through the sigmoid functions  $\tanh(\beta y_i)$  (with  $\beta$  large, say,  $\beta = 5$ ) and then produces a vector  $(s_1, s_2, \dots, s_q)$ . But since the sigmoid function  $s_i = \tanh(\beta y_i)$  maps almost all the points  $y_i$  (which are bit far away from  $y_i = 0$ ) to a point close to either  $s_i = -1$  or  $s_i = +1$ , we see that as a consequence that every input sample  $(x_1, y_2, \dots, x_n)$  maps to  $(s_1, s_2, \dots, s_q)$  where  $(s_1 \approx \pm 1, s_2 \approx \pm 1, \dots, s_i \approx \pm 1, \dots, s_q \approx \pm 1)$  that is the image point in S-space is always close to some q-dimensional Hamming vector which is  $(\pm 1, \pm 1, \dots, \pm 1)$ .

**Definition of the "Center" of a Quadrant in S-space:** Suppose a point Q has a coordinates which can be expressed as a Hamming Vector say  $(1, -1, 1, \dots, 1)$ , then we consider Q as the "Center" of that quadrant of the space whose points are having coordinates:  $(s_1 > 0, s_2 < 0, s_3 > 0, \dots, s_q > 0)$ . Eg (i) The point Q' whose coordinates are  $(1, 1, \dots, 1)$  is the "Center" of the "first" quadrant whose points are having coordinates:  $(s_1 > 0, s_2 > 0, s_3 > 0, \dots, s_q > 0)$ , similarly Eg. (ii) the point Q" whose coordinates are:  $(-1, -1, -1, \dots, -1)$  is the "Center" of the last" quadrant whose points are having coordinates:  $(s_1 < 0, s_2 < 0, s_3 < 0, \dots, s_q < 0)$ . Since, we are in q-dimensional space there are  $2^q$  quadrants, this provides an upper limit to the number of clusters that can be separated by q planes viz.  $2^q$ .

So a worthwhile observation to make is that the images of all the points which are not near any dividing plane  $S_i$  will be points close the Center of some quadrant in S-space. Further, all points belonging to a particular cluster get mapped to a region very close to the center of a particular quadrant, in other words all the images of one particular cluster will be found near the center of its own quadrant in S-space. (We will see later that this last property makes it easy to employ a further mapping if we wish).

Since all points belonging to a single cluster gets mapped to its unique quadrant in S-space, (uniqueness certainly follows because of the uniqueness of each orientation vector, that is when the planes are well chosen) and the we can easily classify them by "collecting" the points in each quadrant. This is done by writing down the appropriate weights of the processing elements in the second layer, which we call the "Collection Layer", because of its function. Let us start with the first one which is shown as  $1_1$  in the figure 6.

The output

$$u_1 = \tanh(\beta z_1)$$

where

$$z_1 = w'_{10} + w'_{11}s_1 + w'_{12}s_2 + \dots + w'_{1q}s_q$$

Now since we wish the the first processing element to output  $u_1 = +1$  if the input n-dimensional vector  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  belongs to the cluster  $1_1$  and to out put  $u_1 = -1$  if it belongs to any other cluster, we see that this condition will be adequately satisfied if we choose:

$$(w'_{11}, w'_{12}, w'_{13}, \dots, w'_{1q}) = (d_1^{11}, d_2^{11}, d_3^{11}, \dots, d_q^{11})$$

which we write in short hand as:  $w'_1 = d^{11}$

and the constant term:  $w'_{10} = \frac{1}{2} - q$ . It can be easily seen that if the sample point  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  belongs to the cluster  $1_1$  then  $z_1 = 1/2$  and hence the out put  $u_1 = \tanh(\beta z_1)$  becomes very close to +1, else the out put becomes very close to -1.

Similarly the second processing element indicated as  $2_2$  will output

$$u_2 = \tanh(\beta z_2)$$

where

$$z_2 = w'_{20} + w'_{21}s_1 + w'_{22}s_2 + \dots + w'_{2q}s_q$$

and if we choose

$$(w'_{21}, w'_{22}, w'_{23}, \dots, w'_{2q}) = (d_1^{22}, d_2^{22}, d_3^{22}, \dots, d_q^{22})$$

ie.  $w'_{2j} = d^{22}$

and the constant term:  $w'_{20} = \frac{1}{2} - q$

We can now write down the general term viz the output of the ith processing element belonging to the jth class:

$$u_i = \tanh(\beta z_i)$$

where

$$z_i = w'_{i0} + w'_{i1}s_1 + w'_{i2}s_2 + \dots + w'_{iq}s_q$$

and if we choose

$$(w'_{i1}, w'_{i2}, w'_{i3}, \dots, w'_{iq}) = (d_1^{ij}, d_2^{ij}, d_3^{ij}, \dots, d_q^{ij})$$

ie.  $w'_{ij} = d^{ij}$

and the constant term:  $w'_{i0} = \frac{1}{2} - q$

It can be easily seen that if the sample point  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  belongs to the cluster  $i_j$  then  $z_i = 1/2$ .

### 3.1 Use of Unit Step Function

Now to simplify the proof the Unit Step Function is used instead of the activation tanh function in the second layer, ie. instead of defining  $u_i = \tanh(\beta z_i)$  as above, the unit step function  $U_{sf}(z)$ , which is define as:  $U_{sf}(z) = 1$  if  $z > 0$  else  $U_{sf}(z) = 0$ , is used. The output  $u_i = U_{sf}(\beta z_i)$  becomes 1 or 0 (binary).

This is done only to demonstrate the proof, but in actuality in practical cases the original tanh function would suffice with some appropriate changes in the equations below.

Now we come to the last layer:

This is easy to do, we choose the connection weight between the processing element in the second layer say  $i_j$  and processing element  $l$  of the last layer as equal to the Kronecker delta  $\delta_{jl}$  :(by definition  $\delta_{jl} = 1$ , if  $j = l$  else  $\delta_{jl} = 0$ ).

Thus explicitly writing

$$v_l = p_{l0} + p_{l1}u_1 + p_{l2}u_2 + \dots + p_{li}u_i + \dots + p_{lm}u_m$$

where

$$p_{l0} = 0$$

is defined and we choose  $p_{li} = 1$  if the cluster  $i_j$  belongs to class  $l$ , that is  $j = l$ , else we define  $p_{li} = 0$

With the above choices all the weights in the network are now known, thus completely defining the Neural Network which can classify all the data.

To demonstrate why it works let us consider, in figure 6, the connection weight between the processing element  $1_1$  and the processing element 1 (in the last layer)  $p_{11} = 1$ , but the connection weight to 2  $p_{21} = 0$ . Similarly, the connection weight between the processing element indicated as  $6_2$  and 1  $p_{16} = 0$ , the connection weight between  $6_2$  and 2,  $p_{26} = 1$  and the connection weight between  $6_2$  and 3,  $p_{36} = 0$ ; thus ensuring that if the input point  $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  belongs to the cluster  $6_2$  then it will be classified as class 2. We thus see that the neural network will out put a point belonging to a cluster  $i_j$  to the class  $j$  as required, since the jth processing element outputs  $v_j$  a number which is equal to 1 as the final output; the other  $v_k, k \neq j$  will out put 0. QED.

### 3.2 Four layer problem

The output of the first layer maps all points onto S-space; and since each cluster is mapped to its "own quadrant" in this space the problem has already become separable. It was only necessary to identify the particular quadrant that a sample had got mapped to, in order that it can be classified; a task undertaken by the collection layer. Though the above section shows that the number of layers (three) is sufficient, it is sometime better to make one more transformation from the S space to h space by using orientation vectors in this space (see figures 7 and 8) this could lead to a network with with less processing elements in the layer.

(That is if there are clusters belonging to the same class in one half space then it is not necessary to separate these clusters individually since anyway they belong to the same class, we can save on the number of planes if we group such clusters as belonging to a single region.) The figures, show how such regions, containing "clusters of clusters" belonging to the same class can be separated by planes. In this section we show how all this can be done by introducing another layer before the "Collection Layer". Also the Collection Layer in this case collects samples belonging to one region which has samples belonging to possibly more than one cluster but all belonging to the same class. This becomes apparent in the figures which depict the orientation vectors  $H$ , in the s-space.

The above diagram shows that there are several places where clusters belonging to the same class can be grouped as one region containing a "cluster of clusters", these regions can then be separated by fewer planes (the figure 8 shows 4 planes and to prevent clutter the cone containing Region  $2_{2,2}$  in the negative side of  $H_1$  and separated by the positive side of  $H_2$  has not been drawn).

The Architecture for such a situation can be easily arrived at by introducing the orientation vectors  $H$  as another layer . We than have the architecture shown in figure 9.

In the example problems below, we did not use the Unit Step function but rather used the Tanh function to enable the use of Back propagation algorithm ([16]). So the outputs will be in the range  $[-1, +1]$ , and all positive points are treated as +1 and all the negative points are treated as 0.

## 4. EXAMPLES

For the purpose of illustration, a few problems are solved and its shown that for a given classification problem if a neural network architecture is chosen as per the above theorem then the classification is guaranteed to be 100% correct, provided the data satisfies all the conditions of the theorem.

**A NOTE On Choice of Examples:** These examples , were purposely constructed because we need to know exactly the geometrical configuration of each cluster and the number of points involved and how the clusters are nested one within an another. So even though the example may seem artificial and the first one seems to be a "toy" example, they were purposely constructed so that we can theoretically calculate the minimum number of planes require to separate the clusters. This latter information is very important to us otherwise there is no way of comparing our results with the "exact" result. However, the examples become increasingly complex in Sec IV E we have r-levels of nested clusters one within another in n-dimensions, and yet they are so constructed that we know (the minimalistic architecture), the number of planes that will separate them!

First the 3 layer architecture is chosen as per the configuration dictated by the theorem, then the Back Propagation algorithm is used

to show that in each of the 3 example problems the classification is 100%.

Secondly, we introduce a fourth layer; since we cannot know the number of processing elements in the second and third layers, different configurations were tried. This is just to show that even if we do not know the exact number of clusters we can by a judicious guesses choose processing elements in the second and third layer in such a manner that the classification is done 100% or near 100%. The 3 Examples (below) are constructed in such a way that we know the number of clusters, the number of classes and also which cluster belongs to which class. For convenience we assume the shape of all the clusters, in the examples, to be spherical. In all the examples we generate the coordinates of sample points within clusters and coordinates of test points by using random number generators. We then use the back-propagation method after choosing the appropriate architecture as dictated by the above theorem for the 3 layer case and a variety of architectures for the 4 layer case. (Later, in sections V(B) and V(D), we give techniques of choosing a suitable architecture). The 3 examples are: (A) The 3D cube, (B) The 4D cube and (C) The 4D nested cubes. We then generalize in para (D) the nested cubes to n dimensions and in para (E) consider r levels of nestings in n-dimensions and give a minimalistic architecture for these and draw interesting comparisons with Radial Basis Function classifiers.

### TEST RESULTS ON EXAMPLES:

#### 4.1 Three Dimensional Cube

This is a 3-d problem involving a cube which is centered at origin and whose neighboring vertices at a distance of 2 apart from each other. There are 8 clusters, centered at each of the vertices, we assume that each cluster has a radius of 0.3. The symmetrically opposite vertices of the cube belong to the same class, and hence there are a total of 4 classes. For example, the symmetrically opposite vertex of (1, -1, 1) is (-1, 1, -1). We use the same definition of symmetrically opposite vertices in the remaining examples in this paper. For instance, in example 4.2, the symmetrically opposite vertex of (-1, 1, -1, 1) is (1, -1, 1, -1). Therefore the points belonging to the clusters around these vertices belong to the same class.

We have drawn samples from these clusters to formulate the train data set, these are 100 sample points randomly generated within each spherical cluster (100 samples per cluster) and test data set (50 samples per cluster). A feed-forward neural network was then trained to classify the training data set. The architecture of the network is as follows: dimension of the input layer is 3, dimension of the first hidden layer is 8 (equals the assumed number of planes required to split the clusters, though for this simple case the 3 coordinate planes are sufficient to split the clusters we do not use this information), dimension of the second hidden layer is 8 (equals the number of clusters) and the dimension of the output layer is 4 (equals the number of classes). Therefore by using the network architecture: 3-8-8-4 The feed forward neural network was trained using Back propagation algorithm and it gave 100% classification accuracy on both the training and test data sets.

#### 4.2 Four Dimensional Cube

This is a 4-d problem involving a hypercube which is centered at the origin and whose neighboring vertices at a distance of 2 apart from each other. For convenience we assume the shape of the clusters in this and the next problem to be that of a 4d sphere. There are thus 16 spherical clusters, centered at each of the vertices, and having a radius of 0.3. The symmetrically opposite clusters of the 4-d cube belong to the same class, (i.e. if the cluster centered at the



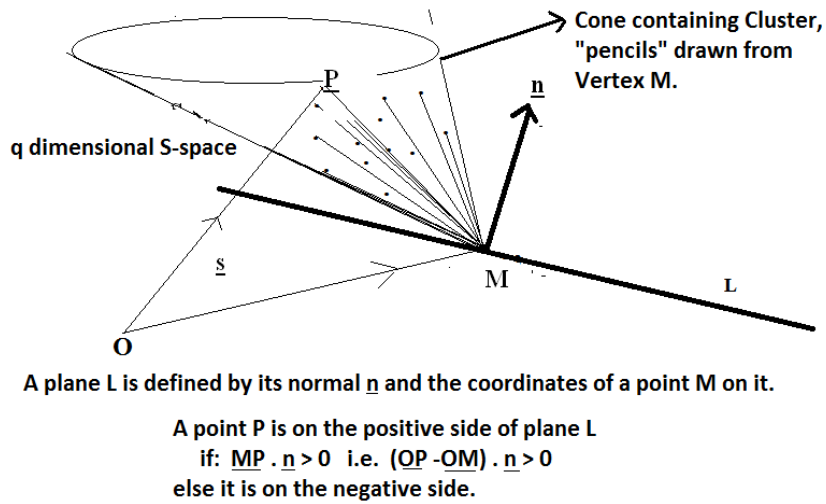


Fig. 7. Cluster within a cone

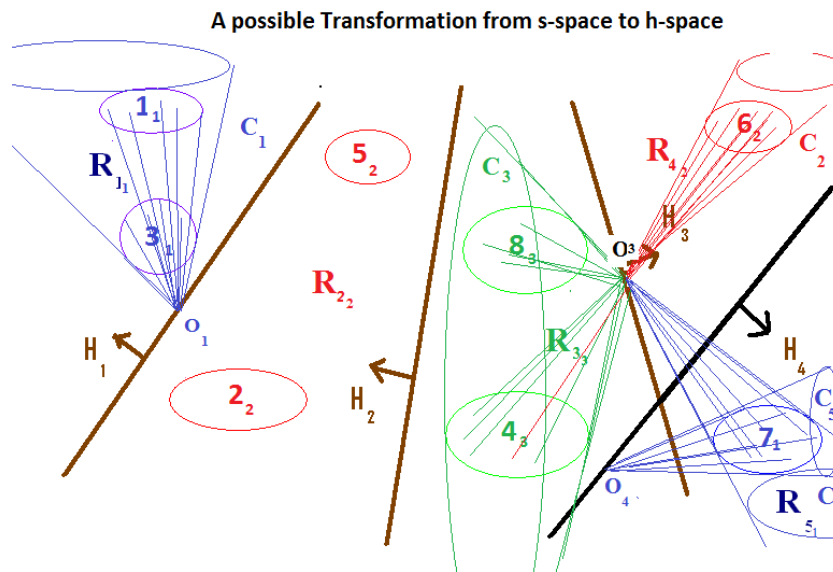


Fig. 8. Clusters in conical pencils

coordinate (1,1,1,1) belongs to class 1, then the cluster whose center is situated at (-1,-1,-1,-1) also belongs to class 1. Hence, there are a total of 8 classes.

As in the above experiment, we have drawn samples from these clusters to formulate the train data set (100 samples per cluster) and test data set (50 samples per cluster). A feed-forward neural network was then trained to classify the training data set.

(i) Using the 3 layers of processing elements in the architecture: The architecture of the network is as follows: dimension of the input layer is 4, dimension of the first hidden layer is 16 (equals the assumed number of planes required to split the clusters), dimension of the second hidden layer is 16 (equals the number of clusters) and the dimension of the output layer is 8 (equals the number of classes).

(a) Using: 4-16-16-8 architecture, the Back propagation algorithm produced 100% classification accuracy on both the training and test data sets.

(b) Actually for this problem we can show that just 4 planes are sufficient to separate the cluster, these are the 4 coordinate planes:  $x=0$ ;  $y=0$ ;  $z=0$ ;  $t=0$ ;

ii) Using the 4 layers of processing elements in the architecture:  
(a) 4-16-2-8

(b) 4-15-5-8 (c) 4-9-9-8 The feed forward neural network was trained using Back propagation algorithm and it gave 100% classification accuracy on both the training and test data sets.

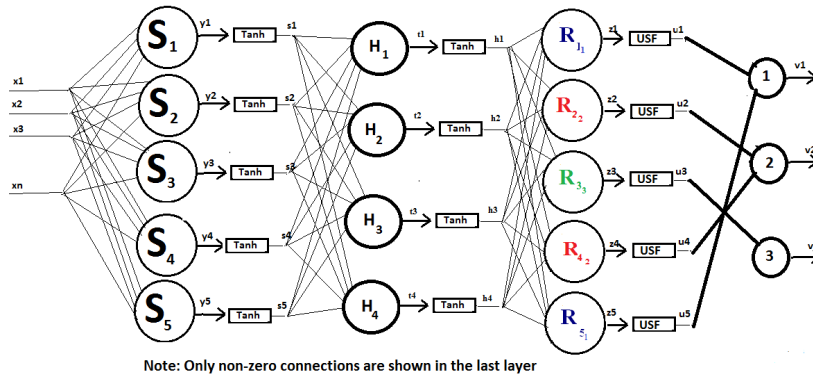


Fig. 9. Neural network architecture of a four layer network

### 4.3 Nested Four Dimensional Cubes

This is a 4-d problem of a big hypercube which has smaller hypercubes centered at each of its 16 vertices. That is each smaller hypercube has its center at one of the vertices of the larger hypercube. Thus a total of 256 spherical clusters belonging to 8 classes. The neighboring vertices of the bigger hypercube are at a distance of 4 apart from each other. The vertices of this bigger 4-d cube form the center of the smaller 4-d cube. The neighboring vertices of the smaller hypercube are at a distance of 2 apart from each other. Hence there are 256 (16x16) clusters having a radius of 0.7 (there are no clusters at the vertices of the bigger hypercube) Now we classify each cluster as follows. As in the example 4.2, each small hypercube will have 16 clusters and clusters symmetrically opposite will belong to the same class, thus there are 8 classes for each small hypercube. As there are 16 small hypercubes there will be 256 clusters belonging to 8 classes. Note we have imposed a symmetry to our problem by placing all the cubes in such a manner that the edges of each of the cubes are parallel to one of the coordinate axis. *This symmetry has been imposed on this and all the subsequent examples considered in this paper.*

(i) Three layer of Processing elements: As in the above experiment, we have drawn samples from these clusters to formulate the train data set (100 samples per cluster) and test data set (50 samples per cluster). A feed-forward neural network was then trained to classify the training data set. The architecture of the network is as follows: dimension of the input layer is 4, dimension of the first hidden layer is 256 (equals the number of planes, which was purposely chosen very high and equal to the number of clusters), dimension of the second hidden layer is 256 (equals the number of clusters) and the dimension of the output layer is 8 (equals the number of classes). Thus the architectures tried out is: (a) 4-256-256-8, The feed forward neural network was trained using BP algorithm, which converged in less than 500 epochs, and it gave 100% classification accuracy on both the training and test data sets. We have chosen the number of planes as 256 (equal to the number of clusters), which is sufficient to distinguish all the clusters from one another by a 256 dimension orientation vector. Actually, it would not have mattered even if we had chosen more planes than 256.

However, it may be noticed that because of the symmetry of the configuration, only 12 planes are actually required to separate all 256 clusters, these planes are:  $x=0; y=0; z=0; t=0; x=1; y=1; z=1; t=1; x=-1; y=-1; z=-1; t=-1$ ; so an architecture of the type 4-12-

256-8 is theoretically sufficient for this problem, therefore by using various architectures we got results as per this table:

- (a) 4-12-256-8 : 99.852% train & 99.672% test
- (b) 4-13-256-8: 99.191% train & 99.117% test
- (c) 4-14-256-8: 99.891% train & 99.641% test
- (d) 4-18-256-8 :100% train & 99.969% test
- (ii) Architectures with Four layers of Processing elements which also worked are:
- (e) 4-12-40-300-8 (f) 4-12-100-150-8 (g) 4-12-120-80-8 (h) 4-12-50-50-8

### 4.4 Generalization of Nested Cube Problem to n dimensions

The problem 3 which has clusters of smaller cubes placed at corners of larger cubes can be generalized to  $n$ - dimensions. There will be a large  $n$ -dimension cube with smaller  $n$ -dimensional cubes at the corners: so we have  $2^{2n}$  clusters and if each pair of "diagonally opposite" clusters in the smaller cube belong to the same class then there will be  $2^{n-1}$  classes. We require only  $3n$  planes to separate the clusters so the minimal neural network architecture will be :  $n - 3n - 2^{2n} - 2^{n-1}$ .

This problem is interesting because a Radial Basis Function method would involve  $2^{2n}$  distance measurements to classify a single sample, where as by this method there are only  $3n$  linear equations to be evaluated to obtain the unique Hamming vector which identifies the same sample.

### 4.5 Generalization to sequence of nested cubes one inside the other

In fact the  $n$  dimensional example given in the previous section can be further generalized. Suppose we define the previous example as level-2 nesting: that is we take a large  $n$ -dimensional cube and place smaller  $n$ -dimensional cubes at the vertices, each of these small cubes have a cluster at its vertex. Now we can consider such level-2 structures placed at the vertices of a still larger  $n$ -dimensional cube we get a level-3 structure (ie level-2 nested cubes at the vertices of another large cube). So we can go on to get a level- $r$  nested structure. This level- $r$  nested structure will have  $2^{rn}$  clusters belonging to  $2^{n-1}$  classes. It can be shown that such a cluster can be distinguished by using  $(2^r - 1)n$  planes and thus we will have a NN architecture:  $n - (2^r - 1)n - 2^{rn} - 2^{n-1}$ .

There are only  $(2^r - 1)n$  linear equations to be evaluated to obtain the unique Hamming vector which identifies a sample which may belong to any one of the  $2^{rn}$  clusters and finds which of the  $2^{n-1}$  classes it belongs to. These  $(2^r - 1)n$  linear evaluations may be once again compared with  $2^{rn}$  distance measurements which would be necessary, to classify a single sample, if one uses the Radial Basis Function method.

## 5. APPLICATION TO CLASSIFICATION PROBLEMS

Now it is probably appropriate to answer the query: What type of patterns and what type of cluster configurations can be easily classified by our method? It would be quite apparent by now that if the patterns are in clear clusters like those given in Example 1 and 2 (Level 1) then the problem is completely classifiable by using the above mentioned neural architecture, the EXAMPLES section clearly illustrate this (in particular problem 1 and 2, viz the 3-d and 4-d cubes). However in some other cases wherein we have clusters within clusters, Level 2, (eg. problem 3; the nested 4-d cube); that is when each large cluster contains sub-clusters, much like a cluster of galaxies each of which is a cluster of stars, some more investigation needs to be done. For these and other cases (cluster configurations of Level-r), it is possible to estimate the number of planes required. However, the precise number of planes would depend on the number of clusters and their geometrical positions in feature space. So we can only make an estimate. This estimate helps determine a possible architecture for the Neural network classifier. Before proceeding to our estimates, we would first need a definition.

**Malleable cluster:** We will define (consider) a cluster as 'malleable' if (i) a sample point is classifiable to a cluster by just taking its Euclidean distance to the centroid of a cluster, OR (ii) a sample point can be associated to its cluster by a k nearest neighbor algorithm. All clusters will be assumed to be malleable. We further assume that different clusters are separable from one another by planes, if necessary a cluster may be divided into two or more parts to facilitate such a separation (see figure 4).

We wish to say without being *ad nauseam* that in cases where clusters belonging to different classes overlap with each other then it is not possible to classify the problem without using probabilistic techniques and we do not consider such situations in the paper. It could also mean that we have not taken enough number of relevant features to solve the problem.

### ESTIMATION OF NUMBER OF PLANES

In the next three subsections, we give methods with heuristic proofs on how to estimate the number planes which can separate Level 1 and Level 2 clusters and also for the case when the clusters are not too sparse.

Though our proofs are heuristic, it may be mentioned that our estimates are in concordance with the bounds proved by Ralph P. Boland and Jorge Urrutia [28], 1995, who in their work had elegantly exploited the crucial fact: In  $n$ -dimension space a single plane, in general, can simultaneously separate  $n$  pairs of points (randomly placed, but not all in the same plane), thus if we choose the first pair of  $2n$  points (among  $N$ ), the first plane thus cuts these  $2n$  points and places them into two sets one on either side of the plane,<sup>4</sup> this plane of course divides the other points among  $N$

<sup>4</sup> Another way of looking at this is to think that each pair of points as a line segment which has a midpoint, since there are  $n$  pairs, one can always find the  $n$  coefficients  $\alpha_i$ , ( $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ ) of a plane (say)  $1 + \alpha_1 x_1 + \alpha_2 x_2 + \dots + \alpha_n x_n = 0$  which passes through these  $n$  midpoints.

to to either side; after this  $n$  new pairs of  $2n$  points are chosen such that each pair is unseparated, a second plane is then chosen which divides the new  $n$  pairs and also the space to 4 'quadrants', the next plane gives 8 'quadrants', the process continues and new planes are added, but must quickly end because all the  $N$  points will be soon exhausted.<sup>5</sup> The proofs by Boland and Urrutia[28] are involved though rigorous.

### 5.1 Estimate of number of planes: Clusters of Level 1

This section shows that for problems, involving large  $n$ -dimensional feature space, which has  $N$  clusters,  $N < 2^n$ , sparsely and randomly distributed and configured as Level 1, the number of planes  $q$  are  $O(\log_2(N))$ .

As is known a 2d space has 4 quadrants, 3d space has 8 quadrants and  $n$  dimensional space has  $2^n$  quadrants. Suppose the dimension of the feature space is large (say 40), then it is most likely, in practical situations such as face recognition, disease classification etc., that the number of clusters (say 10000), will be far less than the number of quadrants, (as  $2^{40} \approx 10^{12}$ ) that is, the number of clusters will be sparsely and randomly distributed. Therefore an interesting question arises: Is it possible to transform the feature space  $X$  of  $n$ -dimension to another  $n$ -dimensional  $Z$  space such that each cluster in  $X$  space finds itself to be in one quadrant in  $Z$  space, such that each cluster is in a different coordinate in this  $Z$  space? If this is so then the problem can be tackled in  $Z$  space instead of the original feature space, thus making the classification problem trivial. The answer to the question is yes, if the cluster configuration is of type Level-1. In fact, the present problem is closely related to the problem first dealt with by Johnson and Lindenstrauss [21](1984), who showed that if one is given  $N$  points in a large  $n$  dimensional space then it is possible to map these  $N$  points to a lower dimension space  $k$  of order  $k = \log_2(N)$ , in such a manner, that the pairwise distances between these points are approximately preserved, (in fact our requirement is much less stringent we only require that the 'centroid' of  $N$  clusters, be mapped to a different 'quadrant'). The transformation is easy: Every point  $P$ , in  $n$  dimension space, whose coordinate is  $\underline{x}_P$  and which belongs to cluster  $i$  can be transformed to  $\underline{x}'_P$  another point in  $n$  dimension space. This transformation from  $X$  space to  $X'$  space is given by:  $\underline{x}'_P = \underline{C}_i + (\underline{x}_P - \underline{x}_i)$  Where  $\underline{x}_i$  is the centroid of cluster  $i$  in the  $X$  space;  $\underline{C}_i$  is the coordinate of the point to which the centroid of  $i$  has been shifted in  $X'$  space. We can choose  $\underline{C}_i$  to be sufficiently far away from the origin such that its distance, from the origin of  $X'$  space is larger than the radius of the largest cluster (for convenience, we can choose the origin of the  $X'$  space to be the global centroid of the sample space). Typically, if  $n = 5$  we could choose some point say,  $\underline{C}_i = D(1, 1, -1, 1, -1)$  where  $D$  is sufficiently large. Thus we see that the problem is classifiable in  $X'$  space, and a classifier with (say)  $q$  planes,  $q = \log_2(N)$ , exists and since the transformation from  $X$  space to  $X'$  space is essentially linear and the clusters are sparse in  $X'$  space and can be separated by these  $q$  planes, then a similar classifier exists in  $x$  space. In  $X'$  space the centroid of each cluster can be given 'coordinates' by measuring the perpendicular distance from each of the  $q$  planes to get the 'coordinates'  $(z_1, z_2, \dots, z_q)$ , ie related to the orientation vector, therefore each

<sup>5</sup> Another crucial point to note regarding  $n$ -dimensional geometry: Every time you add a plane in  $n$ -dimensional space you are dividing the space and doubling the number of existing number of 'quadrants', but this doubling happens only for the first  $n$  planes the  $(n + 1)^{th}$  plane will not double the 'quadrants' but create a 'region' confined by other  $n$  planes. Remember we have chosen  $n$  large and  $N < 2^n$ .

cluster will be in a 'quadrant' of the q dimensional z space. A situation somewhat similar to Johnson and Lindenstrauss [21]-[22] because  $q = O(\log_2(N))$ . QED.<sup>6</sup>

From the above we see that problems involving labeled data in class 1 are always classifiable by transformation into Z space. Thus we see when the number of clusters N are such that  $N < 2^n$ , n being the dimension of space, then we require only q planes  $q = \log_2(N)$ . In the example we see that Problem 1 and Problem 2 are problems of class 1 type. further, problem 1 is a cluster in three dimension space involving 8 clusters in this case 8 is equal to  $2^3$ , hence we see that the clusters are sparse and hence it can be solved by using only 3 planes the equations of these 3 planes are  $x=0, y=0$ , and  $z=0$ . Similarly in Problem 2 we have a 4 dimension cube involving 16 clusters which is equal to  $2^4$ , here again we need only 4 planes whose equations are  $x=0, y=0, z=0$  and  $t=0$ . In problem 3 we have too many clusters (256) which is much more than  $2^4$ . Therefore, we will deal with this case later.

## 5.2 Estimate of number of planes: Clusters of Level 2

Here again its assumed that the number of clusters N,  $N < 2^n$ . In this case, there is a large cluster involving 'regions' each of which consists of clusters (analogous to galaxies and stars). We can solve this as follows: we divide the problem into K regions such that each region does not have more than  $2^n$  clusters. We can separate these K regions by  $\log_2(K)$  planes and each of these have a max of  $N' \approx N/K$  clusters in a region by  $\log_2(N')$  planes, thus the total number of planes q, would be  $O(K \log_2(N/K)) + O(\log_2(K))$ . The number of planes can be estimated by repeatedly using the logic of the previous paragraph for clusters of Level-r. In problem 3 we have too many clusters (256) which is much more than  $2^4$ . These are 16 large clusters each containing 16 smaller clusters therefore one would have thought that they would require  $16 \times 4 + 4 = 68$  planes, however from the symmetry of the problem we see that we require only 12 planes. Therefore we see that 3, 4, and 12 planes are sufficient to solve problems 1, 2 and 3 respectively; these are the minimal. Now it is interesting to see if the Back-Propagation algorithm can discover the weights of the planes if the number of planes are specified, we report that if the cluster sizes are small and if the separation between clusters is large than the algorithm succeeds, else more number of planes are required. Details are provided in the Example section. What happens if we have labeled clusters and if we do not know the number of clusters? We have seen (in the Example section) that we need to approximately guess the number of clusters as m and if the problem is of Level-1 than choose the number of planes to be a little higher than  $\log_2(m)$ . In fact if we choose the number of planes is equal to the number of clusters, the upper limit, the problem is automatically resolved but this is inefficient. In the Example problems, we did start with this rather inefficient guess (by assuming the number of planes as equal to the number of clusters) and apply the BP algorithm. We then solved the examples by using a variety of more efficient architectures which were then trained by the Back Propagation algorithm.

<sup>6</sup> An alternative argument can be had by transforming all the points in X-space of n dimension to points on the surface of a sphere (radius R) of n+1 dimensional X'-space. After, choosing the origin as the global centroid of all the clusters, we use the transformation  $x'_i = Rx_i/A$  ( $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ ); and  $x'_{n+1} = R/A$  with the choice  $A = (1 + x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \dots + x_n^2)^{1/2}$ . The clusters on the sphere can be separated from one another (because they are sparse) by (say) q 'great circles', each contained in a plane through the origin. We thus arrive at the same result.

## 5.3 Problems when the number of clusters are not sparse

So far this paper assumes that the number of clusters are sparse. What happens if the number of clusters are not smaller than  $2^n$ ? In this case we use the method previously try to divide the total number of clusters as belonging to different regions. Choose K regions, such that each of the K regions does not have more than  $2^n$  clusters. Of course the final answer will depend on the geometrical distribution of the clusters. See ref [28] for further details on this subject.

## 5.4 Some points for implementation in practical classification problems

For the sake of completeness, we briefly suggest a means of implementation of the method of classification described in this paper for practical cases.

(i) Choosing an Architecture The procedure for software implementation could be as follows: When data is first given, a suitable nearest neighbor clustering algorithm may be applied (may be done after suitable dimension reduction). This will give the number of clusters as shown in figure 5. The number of separating planes will be ascertained or estimated. Normally for sparsely distributed, N, clusters in high n-dimensional space, the number of planes will be  $O(\log_2(N))$ , in practical cases the number of planes can be taken to be 30% or 40% more than  $\log_2(N)$ , the exact number of planes are not necessary because an over specification does not matter, the number of layers of processing elements will be three, thus the architecture of the ANN is known as the number of classes is known for a supervised problem. Then the well-known back propagation (BP) algorithm could be employed using this chosen architecture to solve the classification problem just as what was demonstrated in section IV.

(ii) Evaluating a chosen Architecture

Suppose we have two Architectures, which give equally good predictions, how do we say which is better? One way is to use the concept of Occum's Razor, in order to do this we could use the following two ratios: (i) the ratio of the 'number of equations'<sup>7</sup> fitted (while training) to the total number of weights used in the neural architecture, we may call this the knowledge content ratio per weight (KCR), (ii) the second ratio is nothing but the first multiplied by the fraction of correct predictions (fcp) on unseen test samples, this would give the prediction efficiency per unit weight (PEW),  $PEW = KCR \cdot fcp$  It is best to use that architecture which has the highest possible KCR or PEW.

Architecture	Train Accuracy	Test Accuracy	KCR	PEW
4-12-256-8	99.852%	99.672%	18.81	18.74
4-13-256-8	99.191%	99.117%	17.95	17.79
4-14-256-8	99.891%	99.641%	17.16	17.10
4-18-256-8	100%	99.969%	14.52	14.51
4-256-256-8	100%	100%	1.48	1.48

The Table shown above gives the values of KCR and PEW for problem 3 (the nested 4 d clusters), for a variety of architectures which were trained using BP.

<sup>7</sup>We define the 'number of equations' as the total number of conditions imposed while training. This is equal to number of training samples multiplied by the number of processing elements in the last layer.

## 6. THE METHOD OF ORIENTATION VECTORS IS NOT NP HARD

Suppose we have arrived at our so called "Minimalistic" architecture by using the method of Orientation vectors for solving a particular problem involving  $N$  clusters and  $k$  classes. (It is assumed that in this section we are dealing with large dimension space with sparse cluster). Now what happens if we increase the number of clusters by  $\Delta(N)$  and the number of classes from  $k$  to  $k+1$ ? By this time, we have covered enough ground to be able to answer this question.

Suppose we have a certain number of clusters say  $N = N_f$ , in a large  $n$  dimension space, how do we begin to separate them by planes? We will now describe such a process. We start with a certain number of clusters in an initial set (say)  $N = N_0$ , belonging to the actual configuration of  $N = N_f$  clusters and then choose an initial set of planes  $q = q_0$ , to separate these  $N_0$ , as a start<sup>8</sup> we will assume  $N_0 \ll 2^{q_0}$ . We will then include more clusters into this set and at the same time choosing an additional plane (or planes) to separate the new arrivals of clusters from one another and from those which are already in this set. This study will help us to understand that as we increase the number of clusters, the number of planes needs to be increased at a far, far lesser rate, thus demonstrating that our method is not NP hard. We will then arrive at  $N = N_f$  and  $q = q_f = O(\log_2(N_f))$ . Suppose that at some intermediate stage of our process, we have arrived at a situation where the clusters are as shown in figure 5 and this stage (say) we have  $N = N$  in our set which are all separated by  $q$  planes. Now suppose we include a new cluster from the configurations thus increasing the number of clusters in our collection by one,  $N$  to  $N+1$ , this new cluster has to appear some where in the diagram. If it is far away from the entire figure say 'above' all the rest then it can be separated from the others by introducing just one 'horizontal' plane. Now if the new cluster appears inside the figure, then it will have, at most, one neighboring cluster from which it is not separated by a plane. This is because if it has (say) *two* neighbors not separated by a plane, then this implies that there is no plane separating the other two clusters - an impossibility: since all the other clusters have already been separated from each other. (We ignore, the rare case when the new cluster will happen to cut by a plane, since the clusters are sparsely distributed). Let us say that this new cluster has a neighbor  $4_3$ , then in this case adding a new plane,  $q \rightarrow q + 1$ , separates this new cluster from  $4_3$  and automatically isolates the new cluster from all the others.

It is worthwhile to investigate a little further: What happens if we now add one more cluster to our set the  $(N + 2)^{nd}$  cluster? The answer to this is not too easy especially if we are dealing with crowded clusters in low dimension spaces. Surprisingly as is shown in Ref [30], it is easier to separate points by planes in a large  $n$ -dimension space, rather than clusters. This is because cluster shapes vary - they may be filamentary, dragon like or amoeba like objects and to define the shape of a cluster requires more parameters than to define the coefficients of a plane! In large dimension space the many degrees of freedom available allows one to separate innumerable points with comparatively fewer planes. However for sparse clusters this question will be answered by following the methods of Ref[30], but with some what modified arguments because here, we are dealing with separation of sparse clusters by planes rather

<sup>8</sup>Perhaps a good way to visualize a particular situation, is to assume that  $n = 50$ ;  $N_f = 10000$  and starting values:  $N_0 = 10$  and  $q_0 = 10$ , this satisfies  $N_0 \ll 2^{q_0}$ .

than separation of points by planes as was done in [30]. It will be clear that most of the time we need not add one more plane, the new plane can be adjusted so that it can separate both the cluster number  $N+1$  and the cluster number  $N+2$  at the same time. Now if the  $(N + 2)^{nd}$  cluster falls in an empty quadrant among all the  $2^{q+1}$  current quadrants then it is already separated from the others and we don't need to do anything (no need to add a plane); but if it falls in the a quadrant where say one of the existing clusters (say)  $7_1$  resides then we do as follows: we find the centroid of the  $7_1$  and join it to the centroid of this  $N+2$  cluster, these two centroids can be thought of as the ends of a line segment, similarly the centroids of the  $N+1$  and  $4_3$  can be thought of as the ends of another line segment - we now modify the  $q + 1$  plane so that it passes through the "mid points" of these two segments thus separating the  $N + 1$  and  $N + 2$  from all the others and themselves. (Remember  $N + 1$  and  $N + 2$  are already separated from each other because it is assumed that they are in different quadrants). If the next  $n$  clusters do not fall in empty quadrants, then we can actually add a total of  $N + n$  clusters into our set and in all probability the  $(q + 1)^{st}$  will take care of all of them. Only when we have cluster number  $N + n + 1$  do we may need to add the  $(q + 2)^{nd}$  plane. Actually this addition of a new plane may not even be needed as soon as cluster number  $(N + n + 1)$  because many of the  $n$  new clusters which are added will likely fall on empty quadrants so there is no need to immediately account for them by adjusting the  $(q + 1)^{st}$  plane or adding the  $(q + 2)^{nd}$  plane. (In this para we have extended the logic enunciated in para preceding section V A). The logic will fail if the any of the  $n$  new clusters happen to fall in the same quadrant or two of them sharing the same quadrant space with an existing cluster say  $4_3$ , then of course we must introduce the  $(q + 2)^{nd}$  as soon as this happens. But the chance of two new (given) clusters falling in the same quadrant has a probability of  $1/2^{q+1}$  which is very rare indeed! (And if this rare event happens, there is no real problem: we simply add a new plane at this point and start counting the clusters from here on).<sup>9</sup> But we have already shown that the number of planes for sparse clusters is  $\log_2(N)$ , we thus have proved the following: The present method of classification using 'Orientation Vectors', is NOT NP hard for the type of problems we are dealing with.<sup>10</sup> If the number of clusters is increased from  $N$  to  $N + \Delta N$ , then the number of planes increase at worst linearly by  $\Delta N$  and at best only logarithmically  $\Delta(\log(N))$ . Increasing the number of classes from  $k$  to  $k+1$  only increases a processing elements by one. QED

**A NOTE : Regarding Algorithm** It is perhaps quite obvious that the above process of including clusters and determining planes can be the basis of an algorithm, the details of the algorithm is available in [29 b],[30] as applied to separation of points by planes, the

<sup>9</sup>Having arrived at  $N$  clusters and  $q$  planes we have added the  $(q + 1)^{st}$  plane, we now have  $2^{q+1}$  quadrants from the present  $2^q$ ; it is interesting to conjecture how many clusters can we accommodate before we fill up the  $2^{q+1}$  quadrants, or before we need the  $(q + 2)^{nd}$  plane? The above logic seems to indicate that if our starting  $q$  was much larger than the required that is if  $N < 2^q$ , it is reasonable to expect that this must be of  $O(N)$  clusters, see Ref[30] for more details. Another problem is when the new plane cuts across some existing cluster if this happens (an event not likely for sparse clusters) the resulting cluster needs to be treated as two separate clusters - the clusters need to be renumbered.

<sup>10</sup>It will probably be appreciated by those who have followed our logic, closely till now, that the situation is far from NP Hard, in fact, the relationship  $q = O(\log_2(N))$  greatly underlines the efficiency of the present method.

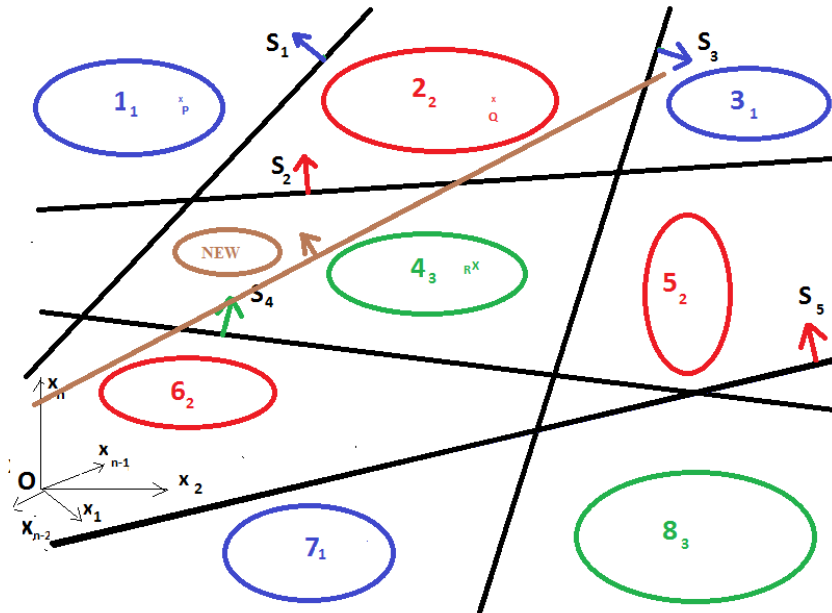


Fig. 10. Cluster of sample points in n-dimensional space

methods of which can be modified to separation of sparse clusters by planes. The results of this study will be reported subsequently.

### 6.1 Dimension reduction

Dimension reduction is done by using auto encoders or by MNN's, which are nothing but neural networks with many layers and a converging diverging type of architecture. See figure

The task of the auto encoder is to reduce the dimensionality of input data and they are trained in such a way that the output just reproduces, "mirrors", the input. Since an auto encoder first reduces the data from an initial dimension say  $n$  to a lower dimension say  $m$  and then increases it back to  $n$ , albeit in stages, we can think of an auto encoder (or MNN) as a mapping engine which uses a NN architecture of a special type. There is an alternative way of training an auto encoder i.e. is by considering it as a Boltzmann machine (with binary units), however we will not consider this here primarily because a Boltzmann machine is stochastic and non-deterministic and secondly its binary nature makes applications more difficult. So we will consider an auto encoder (or MNN) as a mapping engine which uses a NN having a special converging-diverging type of architecture.

The purpose of the auto encoder is to reduce the dimension of the data: If all the samples belong to an  $n$ -dimensional X-space, it is assumed that each sample uses more number of dimensions to describe an exemplar than strictly necessary: hence all the  $n$ -components of an input vector (sample) are not really all independent and it is hypothesized that the data really can be described by say  $m$  variables. Therefore for every input sample  $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  in X-space there exists some  $m$  dimensional vector say  $(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_m)$  in Y-space, which describes the input vector. If such an equivalence between every vector in X-space and some vector in Y-space exists for all exemplars in the entire data set in X-space, then we can conclude that all the data can be described by using only  $m$ -dimensions. We can then say that every sample in X-space is a function of  $m$ -variables in Y-space and we can think

of the components of  $m$ -variables in Y-space as independent variables and the  $n$ -components of the X-space vectors are actually not independent but dependent on these  $m$  variables. The function of an auto encoder (MNN) is to capture this functional dependence between X and Y, and a neural architecture is used for approximately capturing this functional dependence. The weights of the processing elements are determined by imposing the condition that it should "mirror" each input sample in the data set. The figure below shows a sequence of transformations X-space to S-space to T-space then to Y-space then to R-space to U-space and back to X-space (since the condition  $V=X$  is imposed). These can be thought of as a sequence of mappings (functions of functions etc.) which reduces the data from  $n$ -dimension X-space to  $m$ -dimension Y-space and back to  $n$ -dimension X-space (V-space), in stages:  $n > k > i > m < j < l < n$ . The variables  $(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_m)$  can be considered as the reduced "independent" variables<sup>11</sup> and the input data as  $n$ -dimensional dependent variables in x space.

The purpose of this section is just to demonstrate only two facts: (i) That the mapping performed by a fully trained auto encoder (MNN) is such that each cluster starting from a cluster in an input layer is mapped to a unique cluster in the next layer, and this is true from layer to layer. To prove this we take a simpler MNN shown below:

The mappings made by the above architecture are shown pictorially below:

It is clear that since we want the MNN to "mirror" each vector this property of the mapping moving from one cluster to another is correctly depicted for points 1 and 2 as shown above. The case of

<sup>11</sup>Think of a sample vector (point) in X space as a large sized photograph involving  $n$  pixels and its reduced sized photograph of  $m$  pixels as a vector in Y space representing the same photograph,  $m < n$ , in addition we may have to think of  $m$  as a measure of the smallest sized photograph (the smallest number  $m$ ), which can be used to distinguish the photographs in the input set one from another.

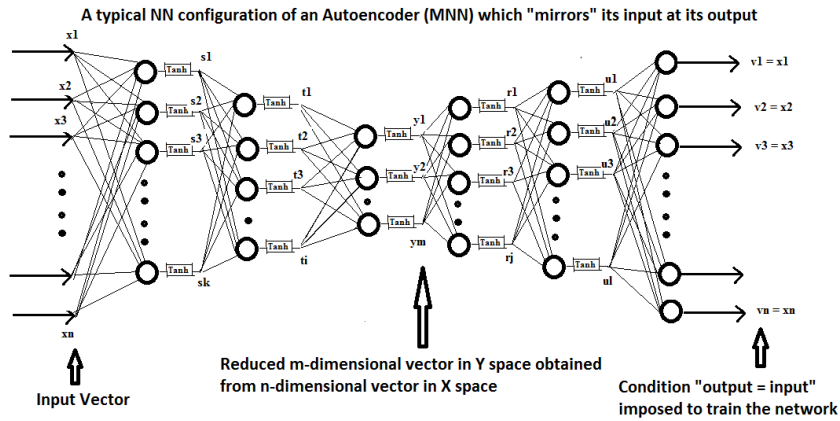


Fig. 11. A Typical Configuration of an Auto encoder (MNN)

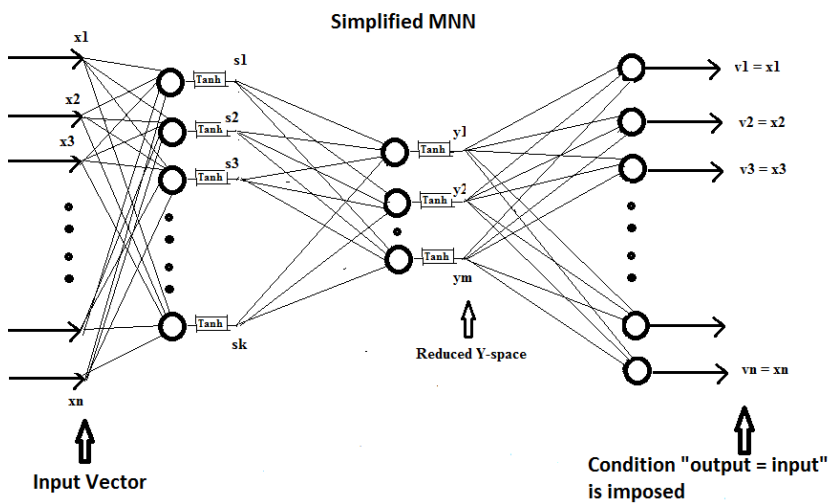


Fig. 12. A Simple Auto encoder (MNN)

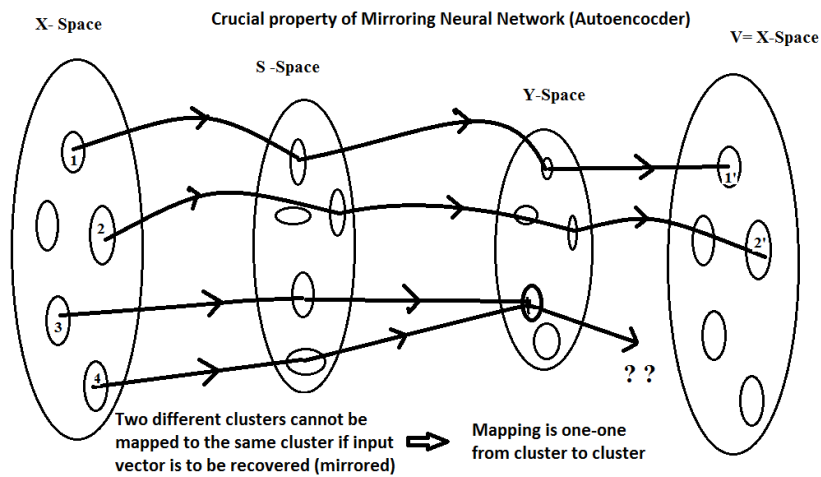


Fig. 13. Mapping Property of Auto encoder (MNN)



points 3 and 4 which start from different clusters and land in the same cluster cannot happen, because if the points 3 and 4 land up in the same cluster (as shown for e.g. in Y-space), the network cannot “mirror” the input thus the input vector cannot be recovered. This property is important because it leads to an important Theorem which shows that such MNN architectures can be used for hierarchical classifiers where classes can be further sub classified to subclasses. See Ref. [24]-[25].

(ii) The second fact is with regard to the activation function introduced after each processing element. Going back to Fig 2, we have defined  $s_1 = \tanh(\beta y_1)$ , now if  $\beta$  is large say  $\beta = 5$  then the output  $s_1$  becomes either close to +1 or -1, hence if we choose such a  $\beta$  for all the processing elements in the network, then all the clusters will be mapped near the center of each quadrant in each space. Such a situation makes the training of a MNN difficult, so if one chooses the activation functions such that  $\beta \approx 0.5$  or smaller than the mapping will take place in such a manner that the image points fill up the quadrant space and not just crowd around its ‘center’, this situation makes the training easier and it makes the functioning of the architecture more flexible and a suitable configuration that reduces the input data can be found more easily. Many researchers in Deep Learning have found this to be the case in their numerical experiments.

## 7. CONCLUSION

To conclude, this paper has the following contributions:

- Introduction of the method of Orientation Vectors to show that the classification problem using neural networks can be solved in a manner which is NOT NP hard.
- A correspondence between the method of Orientation Vectors and the Kolmogorov technique provided some stringent conditions in the latter are relaxed.
- Its proved that a classification problem wherein each cluster is distinguishable from the other, is always solvable (classifiable) with a suitable feed forward neural network architecture containing three hidden layers.
- The number of processing elements solely depends on the number of clusters in the feature space,
- Further, we have shown when the feature space is of large dimension and the number of clusters,  $N$ , are sparse s.t.  $N < 2^n$ , then the processing elements in the first layer are  $O(\log_2(N))$ .
- When the problem size increases that is if the number of clusters is increased from  $N$  to  $N + \Delta N$ , then the number of planes increase at worst, linearly by  $\Delta N$ , and at best, only logarithmically by  $\Delta(\log(N))$ . Increasing the number of classes from  $k$  to  $k + 1$  only increases the processing elements by one.
- Many examples have been explicitly solved and it has been demonstrated through them that the method of Orientation Vectors requires much less computational effort than Radial Basis Function methods and other techniques wherein distance computations are required (e.g. statistical).
- A practical method of applying the concept of Occum’s razor to choose between two architectures which solves the same classification problem has been illustrated.
- The ramifications of the above findings on the field of Deep Learning have also been briefly investigated and we have found that it directly leads to the existence of certain types of NN architectures which can be used as a “mapping engine”, which has the property of “invertibility”, thus improving the prospect of their deployment for solving problems involving Deep Learning

and hierarchical classification. The latter possibility has a lot of future scope.

As a future work to this paper, we would focus on finding methods to apply these methods on practical data sets which occur in the areas of Deep Learning ([17] - [19]), [31] on cloud computing platforms.

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## 9. DEDICATION

This paper is dedicated to the memory of D.S.M. Vishnu, (1925-2015), Chief Research Engineer, Corporate Research Division BHEL, Vikasnagar Hyderabad.

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