A Classification of G-Invariant Shallow Neural Networks

Abstract

When trying to fit a deep neural network (DNN) to a G-invariant target function with respect to a group G, it only makes sense to constrain the DNN to be G-invariant as well. However, there can be many different ways to do this, thus raising the problem of "G-invariant neural architecture design": What is the optimal G-invariant architecture for a given problem? Before we can consider the optimization problem itself, we must understand the search space, the architectures in it, and how they relate to one another. In this paper, we take a first step towards this goal; we prove a theorem that gives a classification of all G-invariant single-hidden-layer or "shallow" neural network (G-SNN) architectures with ReLU activation for any finite orthogonal group G. The proof is based on a correspondence of every G-SNN to a signed permutation representation of G acting on the hidden neurons. The classification is equivalently given in terms of the first cohomology classes of G, thus admitting a topological interpretation. Based on a code implementation, we enumerate the G-SNN architectures for some example groups G and visualize their structure. We draw the network morphisms between the enumerated architectures that can be leveraged during neural architecture search (NAS). Finally, we prove that architectures corresponding to inequivalent cohomology classes in a given cohomology ring coincide in function space only when their weight matrices are zero, and we discuss the implications of this in the context of NAS.

1 Introduction

When trying to fit a deep neural network (DNN) to a target function that is known to be G-invariant with respect to a group G, it is desirable to enforce G-invariance on the DNN as prior knowledge. This is a common scenario in many applications such as computer vision, where the class of an object in an image may be independent of its orientation [Veeling et al., 2018], or point clouds that are permutation-invariant [Qi et al., 2017]. Numerous G-invariant DNN architectures have been proposed over the years, including group-equivariant convolutional neural networks (G-CNNs) [Cohen and Welling, 2016], DNNs with high-order G-equivariant multilinear layers [Maron et al., 2019], and a more recent architecture built on a G-invariant sum-product layer [Kicki et al., 2020]. However, it is unclear which of these architectures a practitioner should choose for a given problem, and even after one is selected, additional design choices must be made; for G-CNNs alone, the practitioner must select a sequence of representations of G to determine the composition of layers, and it is unknown how best to do this. Moreover, despite a complete classification of G-CNNs [Kondor and Trivedi, 2018, Cohen et al., 2019], it is unknown if every G-invariant DNN is a G-CNN, and hence the "optimal" G-invariant architecture may not even exist in the space of G-CNNs.

For some architectures, universality theorems have been proven guaranteeing the approximation of any G-invariant function with arbitrarily small error [Maron et al., 2019, Ravanbakhsh, 2020, Kicki et al., 2020], and it is thus tempting to conclude that these universal architectures are sufficient for all

G-invariant problems. However, it is well-known that universality [Cybenko, 1989] alone is not a sufficient condition for a good DNN model and that the function subspaces that a network traverses as it grows to the universality limit is just as important as the limit itself. This suggests that the way in which a DNN is constrained to be G-invariant does matter, and different G-invariant architectures may be suitable for different problems. This raises the fundamental question: For a given problem, what is the "best" way to constrain the parameters of a DNN such that it is G-invariant?

This paper takes a first step towards answering the above question. Specifically, before we can consider the optimization problem for the best G-invariant architecture, we must understand the search space: What are all the possible ways to constrain the parameters of a DNN such that it is G-invariant, and how are these different G-invariant architectures related to one another?

The above is a special case of the broader and more fundamental problem of neural architecture design. One of the most prominent approaches to this problem in the literature is neural architecture search (NAS), which at its core is trial-and-error [Elsken et al., 2019]. While trial-and-error is—in principle—straightforward for determining, e.g., the optimal depth or hidden widths of a DNN, it is less clear for G-invariant architectures, where a practitioner does not even know all their options. More generally, NAS presupposes knowledge about which architectures are in the search space, which ones are not, which ones are equivalent or special cases of others, and how best one should move from one architecture to another. Thus, to apply even the simplest approach to G-invariant neural architecture design, we must first be able to enumerate all G-invariant architectures.

Our main result is Thm. 5, which gives a classification of all G-invariant single-hidden-layer or "shallow" neural network (G-SNN) architectures with rectified linear unit (reLU) activation, for any finite orthogonal group G acting on the input space. More precisely, every G-SNN architecture can be decomposed into a sum of "irreducible" ones, and Thm. 5 classifies these. The classification is based on a correspondence of each irreducible architecture to a representation of G in terms of its action on the hidden neurons via so-called "signed permutations", where the representation is required to satisfy an additional condition to eliminate degenerate (linear) architectures and redundant architectures equivalent to simpler ones. The classification then boils down to the classification of these representations. These representations, and hence the corresponding architectures as well, are classified in terms of the first cohomology classes of G and thus admit a topological interpretation. We note that, while connections between neural networks and the group of signed permutations have been previously made in the literature [Ojha, 2000, Negrinho and Martins, 2014, Arjevani and Field, 2020], to our knowledge, no such connection has yet been leveraged to begin a classification program of G-invariant architectures.

This paper is perhaps most similar in spirit to the works of Kondor and Trivedi [2018] and Cohen et al. [2019] and draws on similar mathematical machinery; like them, this paper's contribution is also primarily theoretical. Kondor and Trivedi [2018] prove that every G-invariant DNN is a g-cnn under the assumption that every layer is G-equivariant; that this is true without the assumption is only conjectured. Cohen et al. [2019] generalize this to G-CNNs where hidden activations are vector fields and provide a classification of all G-CNNs, but the conjecture of Kondor and Trivedi [2018] is left open. In contrast to these works, in our paper, we do not assume the pre-activation affine transformation to be G-equivariant– only that the whole network is G-invariant. Thus, a future extension of Thm. 5 to deep architectures would either prove or refute the cited conjecture.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows: In Sec. 2, we give a classification of the "signed permutation representations" of G and relate these representations to the cohomology classes of G.[1] Then in Sec. 3, we build towards the statement of our main classification theorem of G-SNN architectures. While Sec. 2 makes little reference to G-SNNs, presenting it upfront helps to streamline the exposition in Sec. 3, with much of the notation and terminology established. In Sec. 4, we visualize the G-SNN architectures for some example groups G and remark on the "network morphisms" between the architectures. Finally, in Sec. 5, we end with conclusions and next steps towards the problem of G-invariant neural architecture design.

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[1]We assume some familiarity with group theory including semidirect products and quotient groups, conjugacy classes of subgroups, and group action [see Herstein, 2006]. We also assume a basic understanding of group cohomology in Sec. 2.3 [Brown, 2012], but we hope the visualizations in Figs. 1,4-6 are sufficient to convey the concept. The visualizations are based on a geometric perspective of cohomology on Cayley graphs [Druţu and Kapovich, 2018, sec. 5.9]; see [Tao, 2012] for intuition.

2 Signed permutation representations

2.1 Preliminaries

Throughout this paper, let G be a finite group of $m \times m$ orthogonal matrices. Let $\mathcal{P}(n)$ be the group of all $n \times n$ permutation matrices and $\mathcal{Z}(n)$ the group of all $n \times n$ diagonal matrices with diagonal entries ± 1. Let $\mathrm{PZ}(n) = \mathcal{P}(n) \ltimes \mathcal{Z}(n)$, which is the group of all *signed permutations*– i.e., the group of all permutations and reflections of the standard orthonormal basis $\{e_1, \ldots, e_n\}$. This group is also called the hyperoctahedral group in the literature [Baake, 1984].

A *signed permutation representation* (signed perm-rep) of degree n of G is a homomorphism $\rho : G \mapsto \mathrm{PZ}(n)$. Whenever we say ρ is a signed perm-rep, let it be understood that its degree is n unless we say otherwise. A signed perm-rep ρ is said to be *irreducible* if for every $i, j = 1, \ldots, n$, there exists $g \in G$ such that $\rho(g)e_i = \pm e_j$. As we will see in Sec. 3.2, every G-SNN can be written as a sum of "irreducible" G-SNNs, and every irreducible G-SNN corresponds to an irreducible signed perm-rep. It is therefore sufficient for our purposes to classify all irreducible signed perm-reps of G; moreover, this need only be done up to conjugacy as seen next.

2.2 Classification up to conjugacy

Two signed perm-reps ρ, ρ' are said to be *conjugate* if there exists $A \in \mathrm{PZ}(n)$ such that $\rho'(g) = A^{-1}\rho(g)A \forall g \in G$. We let ρ^{PZ} denote the conjugacy class of the signed perm-rep ρ. Note that conjugation preserves the (ir)reducibility of a signed perm-rep (Prop. 7 in Supp. A.1), and it thus makes sense to speak of the irreducibility of an entire conjugacy class ρ^{PZ}. The significance of the conjugacy relation is that conjugate signed perm-reps correspond to the same G-SNN (see Sec. 3.2); we are thus interested in the classification of irreducible signed perm-reps only up to conjugacy.

Our first theorem below gives the desired classification of signed perm-reps.[2] For $H, K \leq G$, let $(H, K)^G$ denote the *paired conjugacy class*

$$(H, K)^G = \{(g^{-1}Hg, g^{-1}Kg) : g \in G\}.$$

Define the following set of conjugacy classes of subgroup pairs:

$$\mathcal{C}^G_{\leq 2} = \{(H, K)^G : K \leq H \leq G \mid |H : K| \leq 2\}.$$

Theorem 1. *Let $(H, K)^G \in \mathcal{C}^G_{\leq 2}$ and $(g_1, \ldots, g_n)$ a transversal of G/H with $g_1 \in K$. For each $i = 1, \ldots, n$, define $g_{-i} = g_i h$ for some $h \in H \setminus K$ if $|H : K| = 2$ and $h = 1$ if $|H : K| = 1$. Define the signed perm-rep ρ_{HK} such that $\rho_{HK}(g)e_i = e_j$ if $gg_iK = g_jK$ for every $i, j = \pm 1, \ldots, \pm n$. Then:*

    (a) Every ρ_{HK} is irreducible.

    (b) For every irreducible signed perm-rep ρ', there exists a unique $(H, K)^G$ such that ρ' is conjugate to ρ_{HK}.

Theorem 1 equivalently states that the set

$$\mathcal{R}^{\mathrm{PZ}}(G) = \{\rho^{\mathrm{PZ}}_{HK} : (H, K)^G \in \mathcal{C}^G_{\leq 2}\}$$

is a partition on the set of all irreducible signed perm-reps into conjugacy classes.

2.3 Group cohomology

Every irreducible signed perm-rep is either *type 1* or *type 2*, which differ in their properties; see Lemma 8 in Supp. A.1 for details. We originally introduced this dichotomy because the two types would often give rise to casewise results or proofs. It turns out, however, that there is a deeper meaning as well, which will be important for interpreting the classification of G-SNNs.

For every $\rho_{HK} \in \mathcal{R}(G)$, let $\pi_H : G \mapsto \mathcal{P}(n)$ and $\zeta^{\mathrm{L}}_{HK} : G \mapsto \mathcal{Z}(n)$ be the unique functions satisfying $\rho_{HK}(g) = \zeta^{\mathrm{L}}_{HK}(g)\pi_H(g) \forall g \in G$.[3] Note that π_H is independent of K (Prop. 14 in

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[2]All proofs, as well as additional lemmas and useful propositions, can be found in the supplementary material.
[3]By uniqueness of factorization in a semidirect product, there exist unique functions $\pi : G \mapsto \mathcal{P}(n)$ and $\zeta, \zeta^{\mathrm{L}} : G \mapsto \mathcal{Z}(n)$ such that $\rho(g) = \pi(g)\zeta(g) = \zeta^{\mathrm{L}}(g)\pi(g) \forall g \in G$. The superscript "L" in ζ^{L} indicates that it is the left factor, in contrast to ζ.

Supp. A.3). The following proposition relates the structure of irreducible signed perm-reps of G to its cohomology.

Proposition 2. *For every $\rho_{HK}^{\mathrm{PZ}} \in \mathcal{R}^{\mathrm{PZ}}(G)$, let M_H be a G-module over the field $\mathbb{F}_2 = \{0, 1\}$, where G acts on M_H by the perm rep π_H. Define $\hat{\zeta}^{\mathrm{L}}_{HK} : G \mapsto M_H$ such that $\hat{\zeta}^{\mathrm{L}}_{HK}(g) = \frac{1}{2}[I - \mathrm{diag}(\zeta_{HK}^{\mathrm{L}}(g))]$. Then:*

(a) The first cohomology group of G with coefficients in M_H is given by[4]

$$\mathcal{H}^1(G, M_H) = \{[hat\zeta^{\mathrm{L}}_{HK}] : K \le H \mid |H : K| \le 2\}_{\ne},$$

where $[\hat{\zeta}^{\mathrm{L}}_{HK}]$ is the set of all cocycles cohomologous to ζ_{HK}^{L}, and where the addition operation satisfies

$$[\hat{\zeta}^{\mathrm{L}}_{HK}] = [\hat{\zeta}^{\mathrm{L}}_{HK_1}] + [\hat{\zeta}^{\mathrm{L}}_{HK_2}] \Leftrightarrow K = K_1 \cap K_2 \cup ((H \setminus K_1) \cap (H \setminus K_2)).$$

(b) The partition of the first cohomology group into orbits under the action of the G-module automorphism group $\mathrm{aut}(M_H)$ is given by

$$H^1(G, M_H)/\mathrm{aut}(M_H) = \{\{[\hat{\zeta}^{\mathrm{L}}_{HK'}] : (H, K') \in (H, K)^G\} : (H, K)^G \in \mathcal{C}_{\le 2}^G\}.$$

(c) ρ_{HK} is type 1 if and only if $\hat{\zeta}^{\mathrm{L}}_{HK}$ is in the zero cohomology class.

The type 1 vs. type 2 dichotomy is thus rooted in whether a signed perm-rep "twists" over G/H. Proposition 2 also lets us interpret the notation ρ_{HK}: The subgroup H determines the coefficient module M_H and hence the cohomology ring, and the subgroup K determines the cohomology class in $\mathcal{H}^1(G, M_H)$. Most importantly, Prop. 2 provides a topological interpretation of the organization of the space of G-SNNs, as we will see later in this paper.

3 Classification of G-SNNs

3.1 Canonical parameterization

A *shallow neural network* (SNN) is a function $f : \mathbb{R}^m \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ of the form

$$f(x) = a^\top \mathrm{ReLU}(Wx + b), \tag{1}$$

where $W \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ and $a, b \in \mathbb{R}^n$ for some n. Here ReLU is the *rectified linear unit* activation function defined as $\mathrm{ReLU}(x) = \max(0, x)$ elementwise. The parameterization of an SNN given in Eq. 1 contains redundancies in the sense that different parameter configurations can define the same function. For example, applying a permutation to the rows of a, b, and W generally results in a different parameter configuration but always leaves f invariant. Also, by the identity

$$\mathrm{ReLU}(zx) = \mathrm{ReLU}(x) - H(-z)x, x \in \mathbb{R}, z \in \{-1, 1\}, \tag{2}$$

(where H is the Heaviside step function; see Prop. 15 in Supp. B), the reflection of a row of the augmented matrix $[W \mid b]$ in Eq. 1 is equivalent to the addition of an affine term, which can be interpreted as two additional hidden neurons. Note that these permutation and reflection redundancies form the group $\mathrm{PZ}(n)$. The lemma below will help us define a "canonical parameterization" in which such redundancies are eliminated.

Lemma 3. *Let Θ_n be the set of all augmented matrices $[W \mid b] \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times (m+1)}$ such that the rows of W have unit norms and no two rows of $[W \mid b]$ are parallel. Let $\Omega_n \subset \Theta_n$ be a fundamental domain[5] under the action of $\mathrm{PZ}(n)$. Let $f : \mathbb{R}^m \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ be an SNN of the form in Eq. 1. Then there exist unique $n_* \in \mathbb{N}$, $[W_* \mid b_*] \in \Omega_{n_*}$, $a_* \in \mathbb{R}^{n_*}$ with nonzero elements, $c_* \in \mathbb{R}^m$, and $d_* \in \mathbb{R}$ such that:*

$$f(x) = a_*^\top \mathrm{ReLU}(W_*x + b_*) + c_*^\top x + d_* \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^m.$$

We refer to the unique parameterization of the SNN f in terms of $(a_*, b_*, c_*, d_*, W_*)$ as its *canonical parameterization*, and the SNN is then said to be in *canonical form*. We call b_*, W_*, and the rows of W_* the canonical *bias*, *weight matrix*, and *weight vectors* of the G-SNN respectively. Note that the canonical parameterization is a function of the choice of fundamental domain Ω_{n_*}.

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[4] We use the notation $\{\dots\}_{\ne}$ to emphasize that, during the construction of the set, the enumerated elements are distinct.

[5] If a group G acts on a set $\mathcal{X}$, then a fundamental domain is a set $\Omega \subseteq \mathcal{X}$ such that $\{g\Omega : g \in G\}$ is a partition of $\mathcal{X}$. An example fundamental domain in Θ_n under the action of $\mathrm{PZ}(n)$ is given in Prop. 17 (see Supp. B.1).

3.2 G-SNNs and signed perm-reps

For f to be a G-invariant SNN (G-SNN), the action of $g \in G$ on the domain of f must be equivalent to one of the redundancies in the parameterization of SNNs. In the canonical parameterization, however, this means that the parameters of f and of $f \circ g$ must be identical. This places constraints on the canonical parameters of a G-SNN, as made precise in the lemma below.

Lemma 4. *Let $f : \mathbb{R}^m \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ be an SNN expressed in canonical form with respect to a fundamental domain $\Omega_{n_*} \subset \Theta_{n_*}$. Then f is G-invariant if and only if there exists a unique signed perm-rep $\rho : G \mapsto \mathrm{PZ}(n_*)$ such that the canonical parameters of f satisfy the following equations for all $g \in G$:*

$$\rho(g)W_* = W_*g \tag{3}$$
$$\pi(g)a_* = a_* \tag{4}$$
$$\rho(g)b_* = b_* \tag{5}$$
$$gc_* = c_* + \frac{1}{2}(I - g)W_*^\top a_*. \tag{6}$$

We see that the constraints on the canonical parameters of a G-SNN are not necessarily unique, as they depend on a signed perm-rep ρ, whence the classification program of G-SNNs in this paper. Lemma 4 thus establishes the promised connection between G-SNNs and signed perm-reps. To formalize this correspondence, let $\mathrm{SNN}(G)$ be the set of all G-SNNs and $\mathcal{R}^{\mathrm{PZ}}(G)$ the set of all conjugacy classes of signed perm-reps of G. Define the map $F : \mathrm{SNN}(G) \mapsto \mathcal{R}^{\mathrm{PZ}}(G)$ such that if $f \in \mathrm{SNN}(G)$ and ρ is the corresponding signed perm-rep appearing in Lemma 4, then $F(f) = \rho^{\mathrm{PZ}}$. Then F is a well-defined function in the sense that $F(f)$ does not depend on the choice of fundamental domain Ω_{n_*}. Indeed, a change of fundamental domain $\Omega_{n_*} \to \Omega'_{n_*}$ induces a transformation $[W_* \mid b_*] \to A[W_* \mid b_*]$ for a unique $A \in \mathrm{PZ}(n_*)$. By Eq. 3, this in turn induces the conjugation $\rho \to A\rho(\cdot)A^{-1}$, thereby leaving $F(f) = \rho^{\mathrm{PZ}}$ invariant.

We now define a *G-SNN architecture* to be a subset $S \subseteq \mathrm{SNN}(G)$ such that $S = F^{-1}(\rho^{\mathrm{PZ}})$ for some $\rho^{\mathrm{PZ}} \in \mathrm{ran}(F)$; it consists of all G-SNNs that are constrained to respect the same representation of G. In this language, the purpose of this paper is to classify all G-SNN architectures.

A G-SNN f is said to be *irreducible* if $F(f)$ is a conjugacy class of irreducible signed perm-reps. Let f^{PZ} denote the G-SNN architecture containing the G-SNN f, and observe that if f is irreducible, then so are all G-SNNs in f^{PZ}; in this case, f^{PZ} is said to be an *irreducible architecture*.

It can be shown that every G-SNN admits a decomposition into a sum of irreducible G-SNNs (Prop. 18 in Supp. B.2). It follows that to classify all G-SNN architectures, it is enough to classify all irreducible G-SNN architectures. This amounts to two tasks: (1) Classify all irreducible signed perm-rep conjugacy classes in $\mathrm{ran}(F)$, and (2) for every irreducible $\rho^{\mathrm{PZ}} \in \mathrm{ran}(F)$, give a parameterization of all G-SNNs in the architecture $F^{-1}(\rho^{\mathrm{PZ}})$.

3.3 The classification theorem

We now state our main theorem, but first we introduce some notation. If A is a linear operator (resp. set of linear operators), then let P_A be the orthogonal projection operator onto the vector subspace that is pointwise-invariant under the action of A (resp. all elements of A). Note that if A is a finite orthogonal group, then [Serre, 1977, sec. 2.6]

$$P_A = \frac{1}{|A|} \sum_{a \in A} a.$$

Let $\mathrm{st}_G(P_A)$ denote the stabilizer subgroup

$$\mathrm{st}_G(P_A) = \{g \in G : gP_A = P_A\}.$$

Theorem 5. *Let ρ_{HK} be an irreducible signed perm-rep of G, and let $\{g_1, \ldots, g_n\}$ be a transversal of G/H such that $\rho_{HK}(g_i)e_1 = e_i$. Let $\tau = |H : K| - 1$. Then:*

(a) $\rho_{HK}^{\mathrm{PZ}} \in \mathrm{ran}(F)$ if and only if $\mathrm{st}_G(P_K \tau P_H) = K$.

(b) If $\rho_{HK}^{\text{PZ}} \in \text{ran}(F)$, then $f \in F^{-1}(\rho_{HK}^{\text{PZ}})$ if and only if the canonical parameters of f have the following forms:

$$W_* = \sum_{i=1}^{n} e_i (g_i w)^\top, w \in \text{ran}(P_K - \tau P_H), \|w\| = 1 \tag{7}$$

$$a_* = a\vec{1}, a \neq 0 \tag{8}$$

$$b_* = \tau b \vec{1}, b \in \mathbb{R} \tag{9}$$

$$c_* = -\frac{1}{2}\tau W_*^\top a_* + c, c \in \text{ran}(P_G). \tag{10}$$

Combining this with the classification of irreducible signed perm-reps up to conjugacy (Thm. 1), we obtain a complete classification of the irreducible G-SNN architectures as an immediate corollary. Theorems 1&5 can be assembled into an algorithm that enumerates all irreducible G-SNN architectures for any given finite orthogonal group G. We implemented the enumeration algorithm using a combination of GAP[6] and Python; our implementation currently supports, in principle, all finite permutation groups $G < \mathcal{P}(m)$.[7] Using our code implementation, we enumerated all irreducible G-SNN architectures for one permutation representation of every group G, $|G| \leq 8$, up to isomorphism. We report the number of architectures, broken down by type, for each group in Table 1 (see Supp. C.1; a discussion is included there as well).

We end this section with a proposition stating that architectures corresponding to distinct cohomology classes in a given cohomology ring are in a sense orthogonal, the implications of which we discuss in Sec. 4.

Proposition 6. *Let w_1 and w_2 be the first rows of the canonical weight matrices of two irreducible G-SNN architectures $F^{-1}([\rho_{HK_1}^{\text{PZ}}])$ and $F^{-1}([\rho_{HK_2}^{\text{PZ}}])$ where $K_1 \neq K_2$. Then $w_1^\top w_2 = 0$.*

4 Examples

4.1 The cyclic permutation group

Consider the group $G = C_6$ of all cyclic permutations on the dimensions of the input space $\mathbb{R}^6$.[8] There are six irreducible G-SNN architectures for $G = C_6$ (Fig. 1); "architecture i.j" refers to $F^{-1}(\rho_{H_i K_j}^{\text{PZ}})$ where $H_0, \ldots, H_3$ are isomorphic to C_1, C_2, C_3, and C_6 respectively and $K_j \leq H_i$ such that $|H_i : K_j| = j + 1$. Architectures i.0 are thus exactly the type 1 ones, and two architectures i.j and i.k for distinct j and k correspond to inequivalent cohomology classes in the same cohomology group. Note that the architectures with n hidden neurons correspond to $H_i \cong C_{\frac{6}{n}}$.

The type 1 architectures i.0 correspond to ordinary perm reps of G. These are the "obvious" architectures that practitioners probably could have intuited. From Fig. 1, we see that the weight matrices of these architectures are constrained to have a circulant structure; cycling the input neurons is thus equivalent to cycling the hidden neurons, leaving the output invariant as all weights in the second layer (not depicted) are constrained to be equal. This circulant structure is also apparent in the cohomology class illustrations. Note that H_i is the stabilizer subgroup of each row of the weight matrices.

Architectures i.1 are type 2 and are perhaps less obvious. Cycling the input neurons is equivalent to cycling the hidden neurons only up to sign; if we cycle a weight vector around all the hidden neurons, then we do not return to the original weight vector but instead to its opposite. If we think of the dashed arcs in the cohomology class illustrations as "half-twists" in a cylindrical band, then Architectures i.1 correspond to a Möbius band, thereby distinguishing them topologically from architectures i.0. Alternatively, in terms of graph colorings, if the nodes incident to a solid (resp. dashed) arc are constrained to have the same (resp. different) color(s), then architectures i.1 are the only ones not 2-colorable.

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[6]GAP is a computer algebra system for computational discrete algebra with particular emphasis on computational group theory [GAP].

[7]Code for our implementation and for reproducing all results in this paper was submitted along with supplementary material.

[8]See Supp. C for richer examples that could not fit in the main paper.

Figure 1: Constraint pattern of the weight matrix and illustration of the cohomology class of each irreducible G-SNN architecture for the cyclic permutation group $G = C_6$. The number of rows (resp. columns) in each pattern is the number of hidden (resp. input) neurons in the architecture. In each pattern, weights of the same color and texture (solid vs. hatched) are constrained to be equal; weights of the same color but different texture are constrained to be opposites (colors should not be compared across different architectures). In each cohomology class illustration, the nodes represent the hidden neurons of the architecture, and the arcs represent the action of the generators of G on the rows of the weight matrix (all arcs are the same color because C_6 has only one generator). Solid (resp. dashed) arcs preserve (resp. reverse) orientation. See Supp. C.2 for a richer example– the dihedral permutation group D_6.

By Prop. 6, the first row of the weight matrix of architecture i.1 is constrained to be orthogonal to that of architecture i.0; this is analogous to the constraint that every continuous global section of a Möbius band must vanish at some point. The upshot is that architectures i.0 and i.1 can coincide in function space if and only if their weight matrices vanish– i.e., the architectures degenerate into linear functions. Since neural networks are trained with local optimization, then we think it is unlikely that a G-SNN being fit to a nonlinear dataset will degenerate to a linear function at any point in its training; assuming this is true, architectures i.0 and i.1 are effectively confined from one another due to their inequivalent topologies. We discuss this phenomenon in more detail in Sec. 4.3.

4.2 The cyclic rotation group

Consider again the group $G = C_6$, but this time a 2D orthogonal representation where each group element acts as a rotation by a multiple of $60°$ on the 2D plane. There are only two irreducible G-SNN architectures– one of each type. To visualize these architectures, we set $w = [1,0]^\top$, $a = 1$, $b = 0.5$, $c = 0$, and $d_* = 0$ in Thm. 5 (b). Based on their contour plots (Fig. 2), we find that the level curves of the type 1 (resp. type 2) architecture are concentric regular dodecagons (resp. hexagons); both architectures are thus clearly invariant to $60°$-rotations.

In the type 2 architecture, the hexagonal level curves increase linearly with radial distance. Since the bias is required to be zero (Eq. 9), a sharp minimum forms at the origin. The architecture has three weight vectors and thus three hidden neurons, and it additionally has a linear term (whose gradient is shown in red in Fig. 2), which—when combined with weight vector 2 using Eq. 2—results in three

Figure 2: Contour plots of the two irreducible G-SNN architectures for the 2D orthogonal representation of $G = C_6$. The blue vectors are the weight vectors– i.e., rows of the weight matrix W_*, and their offsets from the origin in the type 1 architecture indicate the bias b_*. The red vector in the type 2 architecture is the canonical parameter c_* of the G-SNN. See Supp. C.3 for a richer example– the dihedral rotation group D_6.

weight vectors with C_3 symmetry. Observe that if we cycle the three hidden neurons of the type 2 architecture , so that each weight vector is rotated three times by $60°$, then we obtain the three weight vectors with reversed orientation; this is a manifestation of the nontrivial topology of the type 2 architecture.

The type 1 architecture has six weight vectors and thus six hidden neurons. Observe that for each weight vector, there is another that is its opposite. Thus, for $[W_* \mid b_*]$ to have pairwise nonparallel rows (see Lemma 3), the bias $b_* = b\vec{1}$ must be nonzero, whence the dodecahedral region in the example G-SNN (Fig. 2) where its value plateaus to zero. However, in the asymptotic limit $b \to 0$, the type 1 architecture degenerates to the type 2 architecture but with twice the number of hidden neurons. Thus, even though the two architectures are topologically distinct, the type 1 architecture can get arbitrarily close to the type 2 architecture in function space (see Supp. C.3 for a richer example—the dihedral rotation group D_6—which has irreducible architectures that cannot easily access one another). This has important consequences, which we discuss more in the next section.

4.3 Remarks

Numbers of hidden neurons The type 1 and type 2 irreducible architectures for the $G = C_6$ rotation group (Fig. 2) have six and three hidden neurons respectively. In addition, the linear term $c_* x$ in the canonical form of a G-SNN—if not zero—can be interpreted as two additional hidden neurons. It follows that a general G-SNN that is a sum of copies of the two irreducible architectures cannot have $3k + 1$ hidden neurons for any integer k. Thus, if we fit a traditional fully-connected SNN with $3k + 1$ hidden neurons to a dataset invariant under $60°$-rotations, then the fit SNN can be a G-SNN if and only if one or more of its hidden neurons are redundant– e.g., one hidden neuron is zeroed out, or four hidden neurons sum to form a linear term, leaving $(3k + 1) - 4 = 3(k - 1)$ hidden neurons corresponding to "proper" weight vectors. Although this is a rather simple example, it suggests the possibility of more severe or complicated restrictions on numbers of hidden neurons for larger and richer groups G. In these cases, the redundant hidden neurons could (1) make it more difficult for the SNN to discover the symmetries in the dataset and (2) make the SNN more prone to overfitting, all at the cost of additional computation. We thus conjecture that one factor that determines the optimal number of hidden neurons in traditional SNNs is whether the number admits a G-SNN architecture, or—going further—how many different G-SNN architectures the number admits.

Asymptotic inclusion Let $f_i^{\mathrm{PZ}} = F^{-1}(\rho_i^{\mathrm{PZ}})$ for $i = 1, 2$ be two G-SNN architectures. If for every $\varepsilon > 0$ and $f_2 \in f_2^{\mathrm{PZ}}$, there exists $f_1 \in f_1^{\mathrm{PZ}}$ such that $\|f_1 - f_2\| < \varepsilon$ (for some choice of functional norm), then we say f_1^{PZ} is "asymptotically included" in f_2^{PZ} and write $f_1^{\mathrm{PZ}} \hookrightarrow f_2^{\mathrm{PZ}}$. In the cyclic rotation example in Sec. 4.2, as already discussed there, the type 2 architecture is asymptoticly included in the type 1 architecture. In the cyclic permutation example in Sec. 4.1, the

asymptotic inclusions[9] furnish a 3-partite topology on the space of irreducible architectures (Fig. 3). This topology provides the necessary structure to perform neural architecture search (NAS), where the inclusions serve as "network morphisms" [Wei et al., 2016]. In NAS, network morphisms are used to map underfitting architectures to larger ones, after which training resumes; the upshot is that the larger architecture need not be re-initialized, thereby significantly cutting computation time. In future work, we will run NAS on the space of irreducible G-SNN architectures to learn an optimal G-SNN in a greedy manner.

Topological tunneling   Recall in the cyclic permutation example in Sec. 4.1, architectures i.0 and i.1 correspond to distinct cohomology classes and coincide in function space only when their weight matrices are zero. In the dihedral rotation group example (see Supp. C.3)—a generalization of the cyclic rotation example in Sec. 4.2—we observe another instance of this penomenon. We call this "topological confinement", and it implies that if, for example, we generate a nontrivial dataset using architecture 1.1 for $G = C_6$ (Fig. 1) and if we initialize a G-SNN with three hidden neurons and find that–purely by chance–the initial parameters satisfy architecture 1.0 and not 1.1, then our network will fail to fit to the dataset; upon a re-initialization, if this time the initial parameters satisfy architecture 1.1., the network will succeed. Rather than relying on random initializations and chance, or resorting to a larger archi-

Figure 3:   Network morphisms between irreducible G-SNN architectures for the cyclic permutation group $G = C_6$. Every direct path in black represents an asymptotic inclusion. Red doubled-arrowed arcs represent the feasibility of topological tunneling. See Supp. C.2 for a richer example– the dihedral permutation group D_6.

tecture such as 0.0, we propose to allow "topological tunneling", where the cohomology class of an architecture is transformed by applying the appropriate orthogonal transformation to the top weight vector (see Prop. 6). Topological tunneling thus introduces "shortcuts" between certain points in architecture space, hopefully facilitating NAS (Fig. 3). We plan to test this in practice in future work.

5   Conclusion

We proved Thm. 5, which gives a classification of all (irreducible) G-SNN architectures with ReLU activation for any finite orthogonal group G acting on the input space. The proof is based on a correspondence of every G-SNN to a signed perm-rep of G acting on the hidden neurons. Based on our code implementation, we enumerated the irreducible G-SNN architectures for some example groups and made a number of remarks, primarily on how the architectures relate to one another in function space (Sec. 4.3). Perhaps most interestingly, we found that architectures corresponding to inequivalent first cohomology classes in a given cohomology ring of G are practically "confined" from one another in function space (Prop. 6).

Various next steps can be taken towards the ultimate goal of G-invariant neural architecture design. On one hand, we could try to extend Thm. 5 to deep architectures, which would require us to understand the redundancies of a deep network; on the other, we could go ahead and investigate NAS on G-SNNs after further developing the ideas of asymptotic inclusion and topological tunneling. Alternatively, we could strengthen our intuition about the condition in Thm. 5 (a) used to eliminate degenerate (i.e., linear) or redundant architectures; indeed, due to this condition, and as exemplified by the dihedral rotation group (Supp. C.3), the cohomology classes for which the condition is satisfied need not even form a subgroup, and hence any patterns in G-SNN architecture space are unclear. Finally, we could consider what are "good" combinations of irreducible G-SNN architectures; e.g., which sequences of irreducible architectures converge in sum to universal G-invariant approximators fastest? Perhaps answers to these questions could aid not just in G-invariant neural architecture design but could give hints about the design problem in general.

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[9]These inclusions are "asymptotic" because no two rows of the canonical parameter $[W_* \mid b_*]$ can be exactly antiparallel, preventing the degeneration of one architecture into another.

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