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# On the universality of neural codes in vision

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## Abstract

1 A high level of similarity between neural codes of natural images has been reported  
2 for both biological and artificial brains. These observations beg the question  
3 whether this similarity of representations stems from a more fundamental similarity  
4 between neural coding strategies. In this paper, we show that neural networks  
5 trained on different image classification datasets learn similar weight summary  
6 statistics. Our results reveal the existence of a universal neural code for natural  
7 images.

## 8 1 Introduction

9 Deep neural networks reliably achieve high performance on visual tasks such as image classification,  
10 with remarkable robustness with respect to the exact details of the architecture, initialization, and  
11 training procedure. The success of transfer learning also demonstrates that networks trained on one  
12 task can perform well on another (related) task. This raises the question: do all these networks share  
13 a universal encoding of images, irrespective of their architecture and training dataset? And if so, is  
14 this encoding shared in human and animal visual cortex?

15 Hidden representations learned by networks trained from different initializations have been found  
16 to be similar at all layers [Raghu et al., 2017], and this similarity increases when the network width  
17 increases [Kornblith et al., 2019]. Similar observations in the context of human neural encodings  
18 have been made by studying fMRI response patterns in visual cortex [Haxby et al., 2011], as well  
19 as between neural network representations and IT spiking responses [Yamins et al., 2014]. Here,  
20 we ask whether this similarity at the level of network representations/activations arises from a more  
21 fundamental similarity between their learned weights.

22 Network weights are less easily prone to analysis than hidden representations, and have thus been  
23 less studied. The first layer can be directly visualized, and learns Gabor-like filters [Krizhevsky et al.,  
24 2012] in a wide range of settings. Attempts to generalize comparisons to deeper layers based on  
25 matching individual neurons between networks however lead to mixed results [Entezari et al., 2022,  
26 Benzing et al., 2022, Ainsworth et al., 2022]. The recent work of Guth et al. [2023] instead considers  
27 global weight statistics and shows that they do not depend on the initialization nor the network width.

28 In this paper, we extend these results by showing that networks trained on different image classification  
29 datasets share a set of universal weight statistics even deep within the network. In Section 2, we first  
30 review the approach of Guth et al. [2023] to compare weights in hidden layers between different  
31 networks. We then show in Section 3 that this approach applied to networks trained on different  
32 datasets reveals the universality of the learned weights.

## 33 2 Comparing weights of deep networks

34 How does one meaningfully compare weights of two trained deep networks? In this section, we  
35 briefly review the approach introduced by [Guth et al., 2023].

36 **Separating space and channels.** Weights of convolutional layers take the form of a four-  
 37 dimensional tensor with two spatial dimensions and two channel dimensions. To simplify the  
 38 analysis of the weights, it is helpful to consider a family of architectures for which operations across  
 39 space and channels are separated. We consider learned scattering networks [Guth et al., 2022],  
 40 in which the spatial convolutions are not learned and fixed to wavelets, yet achieve classification  
 41 accuracies on par with ResNets of similar depths on ImageNet. We thus focus on the learned weights  
 42 which apply along channels only, through a  $1 \times 1$  (or pointwise) convolution. Our approach is  
 43 however general and can be applied to any CNN with appropriate modifications [Guth et al., 2023].

44 **Aligning hidden layers.** Visualizations and comparisons of learned weights in deep networks are  
 45 generally limited to the first layer. A major difficulty in comparing weights in deeper layers is that  
 46 they are adapted to hidden representations which themselves vary across networks, contrary to the  
 47 input of the first layer which is fixed.

48 Comparing two layers can be done as follows. Consider two hidden representations  $\phi(x)$  and  $\phi'(x)$   
 49 learned by two different networks:  $\phi(x)$  and  $\phi'(x)$  are in general not comparable (they might even  
 50 have different numbers of dimensions). Representational similarity analysis [Kriegeskorte et al.,  
 51 2008] instead compares their similarity structures (or kernels)  $\langle \phi(x), \phi(y) \rangle$  and  $\langle \phi'(x), \phi'(y) \rangle$ , which  
 52 have empirically been found to be close in various settings [Raghu et al., 2017, Kornblith et al., 2019].  
 53 This implies that the variability in the representation between  $\phi$  and  $\phi'$  must preserve this similarity  
 54 structure, and is thus limited to an orthogonal transform. In other words, when  $\langle \phi(x), \phi(y) \rangle \approx$   
 55  $\langle \phi'(x), \phi'(y) \rangle$ , there exists an orthogonal alignment matrix  $A$  such that  $\phi'(x) \approx A\phi(x)$  [Guth et al.,  
 56 2023].

57 Now consider two neurons  $w$  and  $w'$  in the next layer of the two different networks. What does it  
 58 mean for  $w$  and  $w'$  to be equivalent? It seems natural to ask that the two neurons compute similar  
 59 outputs:

$$\langle w, \phi(x) \rangle \approx \langle w', \phi'(x) \rangle.$$

60 Because  $\phi(x) \neq \phi'(x)$ , this condition is not equivalent to  $w \approx w'$ . Rather, we have

$$\langle w', \phi'(x) \rangle \approx \langle w', A\phi(x) \rangle = \langle A^T w', \phi(x) \rangle,$$

61 so that the two neurons compute similar outputs when  $w \approx A^T w'$ , or equivalently, when  $w' \approx Aw$ .  
 62 Just like the alignment  $A$  maps representations in the first network to representations in the second  
 63 network, it maps next-layer neurons in the first network to equivalent neurons in the second network.  
 64 Comparing hidden neurons from different networks thus requires aligning their hidden representations  
 65 and taking this alignment into account in the comparison.

66 **Comparing neuron distributions.** Comparing individual neurons in two different networks  
 67 amounts to searching for a one-to-one mapping between them. If the two networks had exactly  
 68 the same neurons, but possibly in a different order, then their representations would differ by a  
 69 permutation [Entezari et al., 2022, Benzing et al., 2022, Ainsworth et al., 2022]. The use of rotations  
 70 when aligning representations suggests that more variability might be present.

71 Rather than comparing individual neurons from two different networks, we search for similarities  
 72 between the neural populations at a global level: do they have the same statistics? This corresponds to  
 73 testing whether the neurons in both networks can be modeled as samples from the same distribution.  
 74 as done in so-called “mean-field” analyses of neural networks.

75 **Weight principal directions.** When considering probability distributions, which statistics of the  
 76 neural populations should we measure and compare? Guth et al. [2023] have shown that the covariance  
 77 of neuron weights, and in particular its leading eigenvectors, captures most of the encoding properties,  
 78 as knowledge of the weight covariances can be sufficient to generate new networks with similar  
 79 performance.

80 In summary: to compare weights between two networks, for each layer, we compute the alignment  
 81 matrix  $A$  between the input representations, and use it to compare the covariances of the neuron  
 82 weights of both networks. In Figure 1, we reproduce some of the results of Guth et al. [2023]. We  
 83 show that two networks with different random initializations learn the same weight eigenvectors when  
 84 trained on CIFAR-10. This shows that the leading eigenvectors of the weight covariance correspond  
 85 to a stable low-dimensional “informative” subspace. In the next section, we extend this result to  
 86 networks trained on *different* datasets.

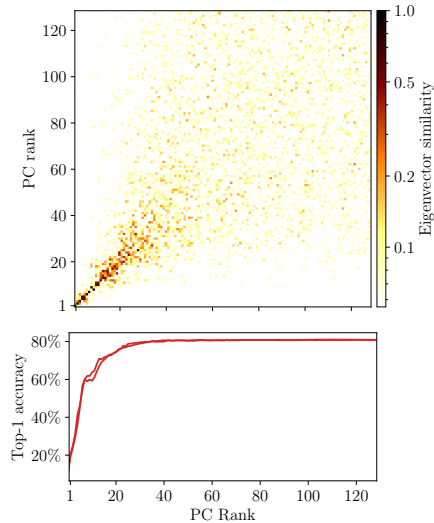


Figure 1: Comparison between the weight covariance eigenvectors of two four-layer learned scattering networks trained on the CIFAR-10 dataset (after alignment). We focus on the second layer (all layers lead to similar results). **Top:** matrix of pairwise cosine similarities between covariance eigenvectors of the two networks. High values along the diagonal at low ranks indicate that the same leading eigenvectors are learned by both networks. **Bottom:** classification accuracy after projection of the neuron weights in the subspace spanned by the top  $r$  eigenvectors as a function of maximal rank  $r$ . A relatively small fraction of the eigenvectors is sufficient to achieve the maximal performance for both networks. This fraction coincides with the number of eigenvectors that are stable to the random initialization.

### 87 3 Universality of weight eigenvectors learned from natural images

88 In order to evaluate the universality of the learned neural codes, we train the same eight-layer learned  
 89 scattering architecture on various image classification datasets which vary in the number and diversity  
 90 of their image classes. We consider subsets of CIFAR10, CIFAR100, and ImageNet (downsampled  
 91 to  $32 \times 32$  resolution for direct comparison with the same architecture). In particular, CIFAR5 is the  
 92 subset of CIFAR10 composed of the first 5 classes, while ImageNet100a and ImageNet100b are two  
 93 subsets of ImageNet composed of 100 random classes. Naturally, networks trained on classification  
 94 tasks with more classes learn a higher number of relevant weight eigenvectors. A meaningful learned  
 95 encoding comparison therefore requires considering networks trained on tasks with similar numbers  
 96 of classes. This justifies the choices of the pairs of datasets presented in Figure 2.

97 Using the same image resolution and architecture for all datasets ensures that all networks have the  
 98 same number of layers and receptive field sizes. This allows comparing each layer independently.  
 99 The results are shown in the figure. Interestingly, we find universal weight eigenvectors over an  
 100 appreciable range of layer depth. We observe this universality of learned weight eigenvectors to  
 101 vanish towards the final classifier. This is expected to happen at some level as the representation  
 102 has to become task-specific. Further, we find that the more challenging datasets (with more classes,  
 103 or more diversity such as ImageNet100 as opposed to CIFAR100) lead to a richer encoding with a  
 104 higher number of universal weight eigenvectors.

105 The existence of this universality has a number of fascinating implications. It suggests that the  
 106 training procedure of artificial networks could be significantly simplified as networks could be preset  
 107 with these generic features. It also opens the door to quantitative comparisons between datasets  
 108 through a definition of encoding dimensionality or complexity. If such results also apply to biological  
 109 brains, it suggests that different individuals may encode the visual world in a very similar manner.

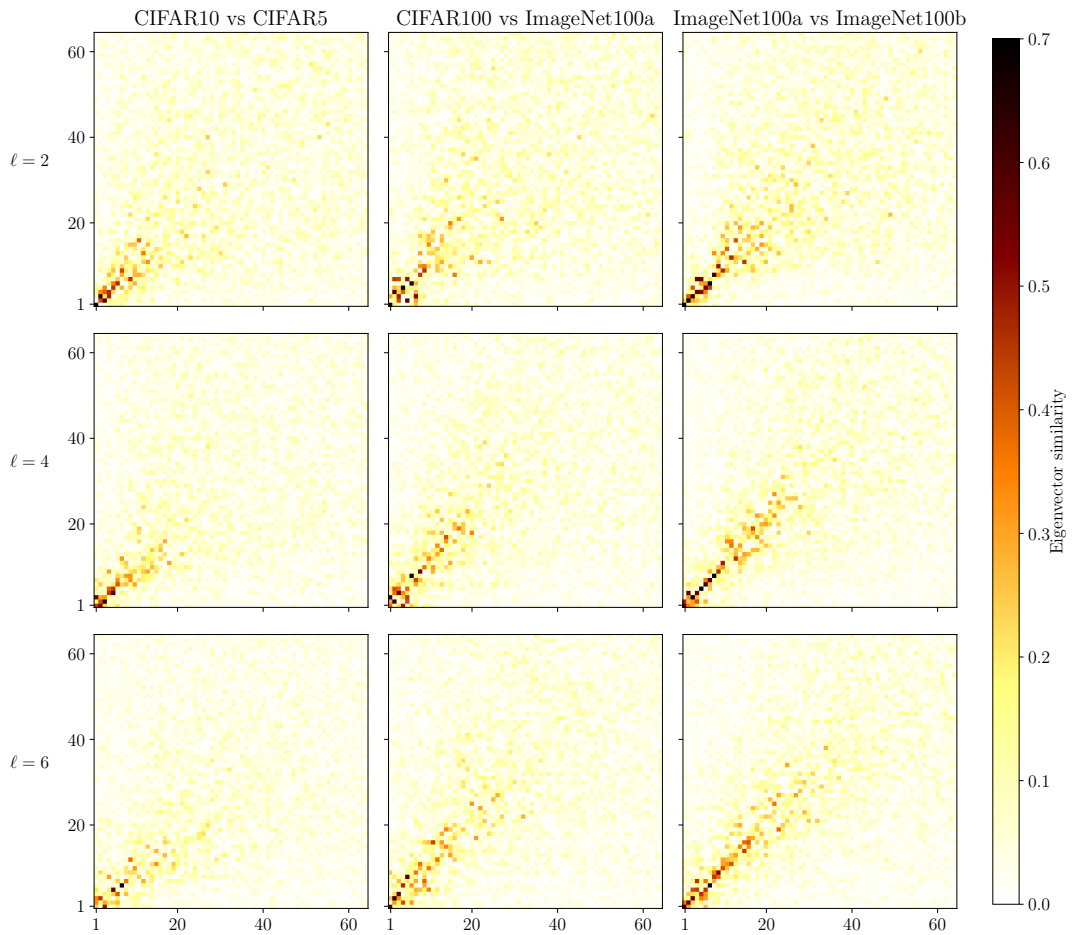


Figure 2: Universality of the leading covariance eigenvectors. We train several eight-layer learned scattering networks on various image classification datasets. We compute pairwise cosine similarities between weight covariance eigenvectors at several layers (**in rows**) for several dataset pairs (**in columns**). The color scheme has been cut off at 0.7 to better represent the dynamic range of the correlations. In the three cases, the low-rank eigenvectors are similar across datasets, even for deeper layers. The number of such eigenvectors increases with the number of classes.

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