Teaching Recurrent Neural Networks to Modify Chaotic Memories by Example

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Abstract

The ability to store and manipulate information is a hallmark of computational systems. Whereas computers are carefully engineered to represent and perform mathematical operations on structured data, neurobiological systems perform analogous functions despite flexible organization and unstructured sensory input. Recent efforts have made progress in modeling the representation and recall of information in neural systems. However, precisely how neural systems learn to modify these representations remains far from understood. Here we demonstrate that a recurrent neural network (RNN) can learn to modify its representation of complex information using only examples, and we explain the associated learning mechanism with new theory. Specifically, we drive an RNN with examples of translated, linearly transformed, or pre-bifurcated time series from a chaotic Lorenz system, alongside an additional control signal that changes value for each example. By training the network to replicate the Lorenz inputs, it learns to autonomously evolve about a Lorenz-shaped manifold. Additionally, it learns to continuously interpolate and extrapolate the translation, transformation, and bifurcation of this representation far beyond the training data by changing the control signal. Finally, we provide a mechanism for how these computations are learned, and demonstrate that a single network can simultaneously learn multiple computations. Together, our results provide a simple but powerful mechanism by which an RNN can learn to manipulate internal representations of complex information, allowing for the principled study and precise design of RNNs.

1 I. INTRODUCTION

Computers analyze massive quantities of data with speed and precision [1, 2]. At both the 2 hardware and software levels, this performance depends on fixed and precisely engineered 3 protocols for representing and executing basic operations on binary data [2–4]. In contrast, 4 neurobiological systems are characterized by flexibility and adaptability. At the biophysical 5 level, neurons undergo dynamic changes in their composition and patterns of connectivity 6 [5–8]. At the cognitive level, they abstract spatiotemporally complex sensory information to 7 recognize objects, localize spatial position, and even control new virtual limbs through expe-8 rience [9–11]. Hence, neural systems appear to work on fundamentally different computing 9 principles that are learned, rather than engineered. 10

To uncover these principles, artificial neural networks have been used to study the repre-11 sentation and manipulation of information. While feed-forward networks can classify input 12 data [12], biological organisms contain recurrent connections that are necessary to sustain 13 short-term memory of internal representations [13], allowing for more complex functions 14 such as tracking time, distance, and emotional context [14–18]. Further, recurrent neural 15 systems actually manipulate internal representations to simulate the outcome of dynamic 16 processes such as kinematic motion and navigation [19–21], and to decide between different 17 actions [22]. How do recurrent neural systems learn to represent and manipulate complex 18 information? 19

One promising line of work involves representing static memories as patterns of neural 20 activity, or *attractors*, to which a network evolves over time [23]. These attractors can exist 21 in isolation (e.g. an image of a face) or as a continuum (e.g. smooth translations of a face) 22 using Hopfield or continuous attractor neural networks (CANNs), respectively [24, 25]. Other 23 studies use a differentiable neural computer (DNC) to read and write information to these 24 attractor neural networks to solve complex puzzles [26]. For understanding neurobiological 25 systems, these memory networks are limited by requiring specifically engineered patterns of 26 connectivity, and cannot manipulate time-varying memories necessary to plan and produce 27 speech and music [27–29]. Additionally, DNCs artificially segregate the computing and 28 storage components. Hence, we seek a single neural system that learns to both represent 29 and manipulate temporally complex information by perceiving and replicating examples. 30

In this work, we use the *reservoir computing framework* [30] to obtain such a system

(the reservoir), where the complex information is a chaotic attractor that is not static, 32 but evolves in a deterministic yet unpredictable manner through time [31]. Prior work 33 has demonstrated the reservoir's ability to represent and switch between isolated attractors 34 by imitating examples [32, 33]. Here, we demonstrate that reservoirs can further learn to 35 interpolate and extrapolate translations, linear transformations, and even bifurcations on 36 their representations of chaotic attractor manifolds simply by imitating examples. Further, 37 we put forth a mechanism of how these computations are learned, providing insights into the 38 set of possible computations, and offering principles by which to design effective networks. 39

40 II. MATHEMATICAL FRAMEWORK

Neural systems represent and manipulate periodic stimuli through example, such as baby songbirds modifying their song to imitate adult songbirds [28]. However, they also perform more advanced and original manipulations on aperiodic stimuli with higher-order structure, such as musicians improvising on jazz melodies [29]. To model such complex stimuli, we use chaotic attractors that evolve deterministically yet unpredictably along a global structure: a fractional-dimensional manifold. Specifically, we consider the Lorenz attractor defined as

$$\dot{x}_1 = \sigma(x_2 - x_1)$$

$$\dot{x}_2 = x_1(\rho - x_3) - x_2$$
(1)

$$\dot{x}_3 = x_1 x_2 - \beta x_3,$$

and use the parameters $\sigma = 10, \beta = 8/3, \rho = 28$ from the original study [31] (Fig. 1).



FIG. 1. Chaotic Lorenz manifold. Lorenz attractor plotted in space (left) and time (right).

⁵⁰ Next, we model the neural system as a recurrent neural network driven by our inputs

$$\frac{1}{\gamma}\dot{\boldsymbol{r}} = -\boldsymbol{r} + \boldsymbol{g}\left(A\boldsymbol{r} + B\boldsymbol{x} + \boldsymbol{d}\right),$$

where \boldsymbol{r} is a real-valued vector of N reservoir neuron states, A is an $N \times N$ matrix of interneuron connections, B is an $N \times 3$ matrix of connections from the inputs to the neurons, \boldsymbol{d} is an $N \times 1$ bias vector, \boldsymbol{g} is a scalar activation function applied entry-wise to its input arguments (hence mapping vectors to vectors), and γ is a time constant.

Several prior studies use echo state [32] and FORCE learning [33] which allow reservoirs to predict a chaotic time series by modifying the inter-neuron connections. This modification can be accomplished by using the chaotic time series $\boldsymbol{x}(t)$ to drive the reservoir, thereby generating the reservoir time series $\boldsymbol{r}(t)$ (Fig. 2a,b). Here, $\boldsymbol{x}(t)$ and $\boldsymbol{r}(t)$ are $3 \times T$ and $N \times T$ matrices, respectively, from numerically evolving the differential equations over Ttime steps. By solving for a simple $3 \times N$ readout matrix W that uses linear combinations of reservoir states to approximate the input by minimizing the matrix 2-norm (see Supplement)

$$W = \underset{W}{\operatorname{argmin}} \|W\boldsymbol{r}(t) - \boldsymbol{x}(t)\|_2,$$

the output $\hat{\boldsymbol{x}}(t) = W\boldsymbol{r}(t)$ mimics the input $\boldsymbol{x}(t)$ (Fig. 2c). Finally, we close the feedback loop by substituting the output as the input to create the autonomous reservoir (Fig. 2d)

$$\frac{1}{\gamma} \dot{\boldsymbol{r}}' = -\boldsymbol{r}' + \boldsymbol{g} \left((A + BW) \boldsymbol{r}' + \boldsymbol{d} \right),$$

⁶⁴ whose evolution projects to a Lorenz-shaped attractor as $\mathbf{x}'(t) = W\mathbf{r}'(t)$ (Fig. 2e). Hence, ⁶⁵ reservoirs sustain representations of complex temporal information by learning to au-⁶⁶ tonomously evolve along a chaotic attractor from example inputs.



FIG. 2. Representing chaotic attractors with reservoirs. (a) Time series of a chaotic Lorenz attractor that (b) drives the recurrent neural network reservoir. (c) Weighted sums of the reservoir states are trained to reproduce the original time series. (d) By using these weighted sums of reservoir states to drive the reservoir instead of the inputs, (e) the reservoir autonomously evolves along a trajectory that projects to a Lorenz-shaped chaotic manifold.

67 68 To study how reservoirs might perform computations by modifying the position or geometry of these representations in a desired way, we first adapt the framework to include a vector of control parameters c that map to the reservoir neurons through matrix C to yield

$$\frac{1}{\gamma}\dot{\boldsymbol{r}} = -\boldsymbol{r} + \boldsymbol{g}\left(A\boldsymbol{r} + B\boldsymbol{x} + C\boldsymbol{c} + \boldsymbol{d}\right).$$

⁷² Such control parameters were also previously used to switch between multiple attractor ⁷³ outputs [33]. The second adaptation is to approximate the reservoir dynamics using a ⁷⁴ Taylor series to quadratic order around equilibrium values $r^*, x^* = 0, c^* = 0$, yielding

$$\frac{1}{\gamma}\delta\dot{\boldsymbol{r}} = -\delta\boldsymbol{r} + U(A\delta\boldsymbol{r} + B\boldsymbol{x} + C\boldsymbol{c}) + V(A\delta\boldsymbol{r} + B\boldsymbol{x} + C\boldsymbol{c})^2.$$
(2)

⁷⁵ Here, $\delta \boldsymbol{r} = \boldsymbol{r} - \boldsymbol{r}^*$, U, and V are diagonal matrices whose *i*-th entries are the first and half ⁷⁶ of the second derivatives of g_i evaluated at the fixed point, respectively, and ()² is the entry-⁷⁷ wise square of the vector (see Supplement for details). By studying quadratic reservoirs ⁷⁸ and how they learn to manipulate their representations of chaotic manifolds, we will gain ⁷⁹ an intuition due to their analytic tractability, and generalizability across many activation ⁸⁰ functions \boldsymbol{g} when driven within a range over which the quadratic expansion is accurate.

81 III. LEARNING A TRANSLATION OPERATION BY EXAMPLE

Reservoirs learn complex information through simple imitation: approximating the driving inputs using the reservoir states is enough to autonomously represent and evolve about a chaotic manifold. Here we show that this simple scheme is also enough to learn to translate the representation. We begin with a Lorenz time series $\boldsymbol{x}_0(t)$, and create shifted copies

$$\boldsymbol{x}_c(t) = \boldsymbol{x}_0(t) + P\boldsymbol{c}.$$
(3)

For the purposes of demonstration, we consider a translation in the x_1 direction such that P = [1;0;0] is a column vector, and $\mathbf{c} = 0, 1, 2, 3$ is a scalar. We use these four time series to drive our reservoir according to Eq. 2, thereby generating four reservoir time series $\mathbf{r}_c(t)$. Numerically, $\mathbf{x}_c(t)$ and $\mathbf{r}_c(t)$ are matrices of dimension $3 \times T$ and $N \times T$ over T time steps, which we concatenate along the time dimension into $\mathbf{x}(t) = [\mathbf{x}_0(t), \mathbf{x}_1(t), \mathbf{x}_2(t), \mathbf{x}_3(t)]$ and $\mathbf{r}(t) = [\mathbf{r}_0(t), \mathbf{r}_1(t), \mathbf{r}_2(t), \mathbf{r}_3(t)]$, respectively. Then, we compute output weights

$$W = \underset{W}{\operatorname{argmin}} \|W\boldsymbol{r}(t) - \boldsymbol{x}(t)\|_2, \tag{4}$$

⁹² such that our output $\hat{\boldsymbol{x}} = W\boldsymbol{r}(t)$ approximates our input $\boldsymbol{x}(t)$ (Fig. 3a–c). Finally, we ⁹³ substitute the output as the input to yield the feedback system (Fig. 3d)

$$\frac{1}{\gamma}\delta\dot{\boldsymbol{r}}' = -\delta\boldsymbol{r}' + U(R\delta\boldsymbol{r}' + C\boldsymbol{c}) + V(R\delta\boldsymbol{r}' + C\boldsymbol{c})^2,$$
(5)

where R = A + BW (see Supplement for a discussion on $W \boldsymbol{r}_c(t) \approx W \delta \boldsymbol{r}_c(t)$).



FIG. 3. Learning and extrapolating a translation operation through examples. (a) Schematic of the time series of the Lorenz and control inputs, beginning with the original Lorenz time series $\mathbf{x}_0(t)$ at $\mathbf{c} = 0$, followed by three equally spaced shifts in the x_1 direction and in the \mathbf{c} parameter. (b) These inputs generate four reservoir time series $\mathbf{r}_c(t)$. (c) Next, weighted sums of the reservoir states are used to generate outputs $W\mathbf{r}_c(t) = \hat{\mathbf{x}}_c(t) \approx \mathbf{x}_c(t)$ that mimic the inputs. (d) The outputs $W\mathbf{r}(t)$ replace the inputs $\mathbf{x}(t)$ to create a reservoir with a closed feedback loop. (e) Over the course of a single simulation, the reservoir evolves autonomously about a Lorenz-shaped manifold, and translates this representation along x_1 by smoothly and continuously changing \mathbf{c} as a real number over a range much larger than the training range.

As we evolve this autonomous reservoir while varying c to extreme values $-40 \le c \le 40$ both inside and outside of the training values, it has learned to evolve about a Lorenz-shaped manifold that is translated based on the value of c (see Supplement for translations in all spatial directions). Hence, by training the network on shifted copies of the input time series, the reservoir has learned a translation operation on the attractor.

100 IV. LEARNING A LINEAR TRANSFORMATION OPERATION BY EXAMPLE

In addition to learning a translation operation that does not change the geometry of the representation, here we demonstrate that reservoirs can learn linear transformation using the exact same framework. Similarly, we begin with a Lorenz time series $\boldsymbol{x}_0(t)$ generated from Eq. 1, and create linearly transformed copies of the time series such that

$$\boldsymbol{x}_c(t) = (I + cP)\boldsymbol{x}_0(t), \tag{6}$$

for c = 0, 1, 2, 3, where P is a matrix encoding a transformation (Fig. 4a,c). Specifically, we perform a squeeze along x_1 by setting $[P]_{11} = -0.012$ and the remaining elements to 0.

Exactly as before, we drive the reservoir according to Eq. 2, concatenate our input and reservoir time series into $\boldsymbol{x}(t)$ and $\boldsymbol{r}(t)$ to train the output weights W according to Eq. 4, and feed the outputs back as inputs to yield the feedback system Eq. 5. This reservoir autonomously evolves about a Lorenz-shaped manifold that stretches based on the parameter $-40 \leq c \leq 40$ (Fig. 4b,d) far outside of the parameters used in the training regime c =0, 1, 2, 3 (see Supplement for more examples). Hence, using the same framework, the reservoir has learned the linear transformation operation on the attractor manifold.





114 V. LEARNING TO INFER A BIFURCATION BY EXAMPLE

For both translations and transformations, the reservoir learned a smooth change in its 115 representation of the chaotic manifold. Here we demonstrate that a reservoir can infer, 116 without actually ever having experienced, a much more dramatic change: a bifurcation. In 117 the Lorenz attractor (Eq. 1 for $\rho > 1, \sigma = 10, \beta = 8/3$), there are two fixed points: one at 118 the center of each wing, which undergo a subcritical Hopf bifurcation when $\rho = \rho^* \approx 24.7$ 119 [23]. When $\rho < \rho^*$, these two fixed points are stable. When $\rho > \rho^*$, the fixed points become 120 unstable, yielding the characteristic wing-shaped flow. Here we demonstrate that a reservoir 121 trained only on stable examples ($\rho < \rho^*$) can accurately predict the unstable flow ($\rho > \rho^*$). 122



FIG. 5. Extrapolating the bifurcation of the Lorenz. (a) Two training trajectories for each of the stable Lorenz fixed points at the wings, for $\rho = 23$ with c = 0 (blue) and for $\rho = 24$ with c = 1 (light blue). (b) The predicted trajectory of the feedback reservoir moves towards a stable fixed point for c = 0, and bifurcates into a Lorenz-shaped manifold as c is increased. (c) Four training examples for one of the stable Lorenz fixed points for $\rho = 21, 22, 23, 24$ with c = 0, 1, 2, 3. (d) The predicted trajectory moves towards a stable fixed point for c = 0, and then bifurcates into a Lorenz-shaped manifold as c is increased. a Lorenz-shaped manifold as c is increased.

For the two fixed points \boldsymbol{a} and \boldsymbol{b} , we begin with four training trajectories: $\boldsymbol{x}_{23}^{a}(t)$ and $\boldsymbol{x}_{23}^{b}(t)$ that evolve stably towards the fixed points for $\rho = 23$, and $\boldsymbol{x}_{24}^{a}(t)$ and $\boldsymbol{x}_{24}^{b}(t)$ that evolve stably towards the fixed points for $\rho = 24$ (Fig. 5a). We then drive the reservoir with $\boldsymbol{x}_{23}^{a}(t)$ and $\boldsymbol{x}_{23}^{b}(t)$ while setting c = 0, and with $\boldsymbol{x}_{24}^{a}(t)$ and $\boldsymbol{x}_{24}^{b}(t)$ while setting c = 1, and train the output weights. Finally, we evolve the feedback reservoir while changing c from 0 to 5, and note that the trajectory bifurcates into a Lorenz-shaped manifold (Fig. 5b).

As a second demonstration, we begin with another set of four training trajectories: $\mathbf{x}_{21}^{a}(t), \dots, \mathbf{x}_{24}^{a}(t)$ that evolve stably towards only one fixed point for $\rho = 21, \dots, 24$ (Fig. 5c).

¹²³ 124

We then drive the reservoir with $\boldsymbol{x}_{21}^{a}(t), \cdots, \boldsymbol{x}_{24}^{a}(t)$ while setting $c = 0, \cdots, 3$, and train the output weights. Finally, we evolve the feedback reservoir while changing c from 0 to 7, and note that the trajectory again bifurcates into a Lorenz-shaped manifold (Fig. 5d). Hence, after only observing a few stable trajectories before the bifurcation ($\rho < \rho^*$), the reservoir accurately extrapolates the geometry of the Lorenz trajectory after the bifurcation ($\rho > \rho^*$).

138 VI. MECHANISM OF HOW OPERATIONS ARE LEARNED

Now that we have taught reservoirs to manipulate chaotic manifolds, we seek to understand the mechanism. We begin with some intuition by expanding the feedback dynamics

$$\frac{1}{\gamma}\delta\dot{\boldsymbol{r}}' = ([U + \underbrace{2V \operatorname{diag}(C\boldsymbol{c})}_{\operatorname{stretch}}]R - I)\delta\boldsymbol{r}' + \underbrace{UC\boldsymbol{c}}_{\operatorname{shift}} + V(R\delta\boldsymbol{r}')^2 + \underbrace{V(C\boldsymbol{c})^2}_{\operatorname{small}},$$

and notice that the control parameter can scale the shape of the reservoir's internal dynamics (stretch), and add a constant driving input (shift). For small changes in c, the quadratic term Cc is negligible. To formalize this intuition, we consider the time series $\mathbf{r}'(t) = \mathbf{r}'_{c=0}(t)$ generated by evolving the autonomous reservoir according to Eq. 5 at c = 0. Next, we take the total differential of Eq. 5 evaluated at $\mathbf{r}'(t)$ and c = 0 to yield

$$(I - KA)d\mathbf{r}' + \frac{1}{\gamma}d\dot{\mathbf{r}}' = K(BWd\mathbf{r}' + Cd\mathbf{c}), \tag{7}$$

where $K = U + 2V \operatorname{diag}(R\delta \boldsymbol{r}'(t))$. Our goal is to write the change in the reservoir state $d\boldsymbol{r}'(t)$ that is induced by changing the control parameter by an infinitesimal amount $d\boldsymbol{c}$.

When learning translations, the output weights are trained such that $W \mathbf{r}_c(t) \approx \mathbf{x}_c(t) = \mathbf{x}(t) + P \mathbf{c}$. For sufficiently nearby training examples (small P, \mathbf{c}), we also implicitly approximate the differential relation $W d\mathbf{r}(t) \approx P d\mathbf{c}$. Additionally, if the feedback reservoir stabilizes these examples, then $W d\mathbf{r}'(t) \approx P d\mathbf{c}$. Substituting this relation into Eq. 7 yields

$$(I - KA)d\mathbf{r}' + \frac{1}{\gamma}d\dot{\mathbf{r}}' \approx K(BP + C)d\mathbf{c}.$$

If we fix $d\mathbf{c}$, we have 2N variables, $d\mathbf{r}'$ and $d\dot{\mathbf{r}}'$, but only N equations. By taking the time derivative of the differential relation, we generate another N variables and N equations.



FIG. 6. Changing the control parameter changes the reservoir dynamics to manipulate representations. (a) Schematic of a reservoir with feedback connections after the output weights W have been trained. (b) Reservoir time series generated by evolving the autonomous reservoir with the original Lorenz input with c = 0 (dark gold). We also show the predicted time series from solving Eq. 8 after training on translated examples and setting $dc = \Delta c = 20$ (light gold). The output projections of the two time series are shown in blue and green, respectively. (c) The original and predicted reservoir states and their output projections for $\Delta c = -40$ after training on transformed Lorenz inputs by solving Eq. 9. (d) Plot of the real and imaginary components of the two most unstable eigenvalues of the autonomous reservoir trained on two stable Lorenz trajectories (Fig. 5a,b). The reservoir is linearized about its fixed point according to Eq. 10 as c is slowly changed.

¹⁵⁴ Continuing to take time derivatives yields the following system of equations

$$\begin{bmatrix} H_0 & H_{-1} & 0 & \cdots \\ H_1 & H_0 & H_{-1} & \cdots \\ H_2 & 2H_1 & H_0 & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} d\mathbf{r'} \\ d\dot{\mathbf{r'}} \\ d\ddot{\mathbf{r'}} \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} \approx \begin{bmatrix} K \\ \dot{K} \\ \ddot{K} \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} (BP+C)d\mathbf{c},$$

where $H_{-1} = \frac{1}{\gamma}I$, $H_0 = I - KA$, and $H_i = -K^{(i)}A$ is the *i*-th time-derivative of KA. This matrix is a block-Hessenberg matrix, with an analytic solution [34] for the first term $d\mathbf{r}'$. ¹⁵⁷ We truncate this solution (see Supplement) to explicitly relate dc to dr' as follows:

$$d\mathbf{r}' \approx -\left[\gamma H_0^2 - H_1\right]^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} -\gamma H_0 & I \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} K \\ \dot{K} \end{bmatrix} (BP + C) d\mathbf{c}.$$
(8)

As a demonstration, we pick a finite $\Delta c = 20$, and plot the original and predicted change in the reservoir states, and their outputs in spatial coordinates (Fig. 6b). Hence, using only the feedback dynamics Eq. 5 and sufficiently nearby training examples, changing c causes changes in the reservoir states from Eq. 8 that map to a translation.

The same approach can be used for linear transformations, where the output weights are trained such that $W\mathbf{r}_c(t) \approx \mathbf{x}_c(t) = (I + cP)\mathbf{x}(t)$. For sufficiently nearby training examples, we implicitly approximate the differential relation $Wd\mathbf{r}(t) \approx P\mathbf{x}(t)dc \approx PW\mathbf{r}(t)dc$, which if properly stabilized, yields $Wd\mathbf{r}'(t) \approx PW\mathbf{r}'(t)$. Performing the same time derivatives and solution truncation as in the translation, we get the following relation between dc and $d\mathbf{r}'$:

$$d\mathbf{r}' \approx -\left[\gamma H_0^2 - H_1\right]^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} -\gamma H_0 & I \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} K(BPW\mathbf{r}' + C) \\ \dot{K}(BPW\mathbf{r}' + C) + KBPW\dot{\mathbf{r}}' \end{bmatrix} dc.$$
(9)

As another demonstration, we set $\Delta c = -40$, and plot the original and predicted change in the reservoir states, and their outputs (Fig. 6c).

Finally, to understand how the reservoir is able to infer a bifurcation, we demonstrate that it learns a smooth translation of eigenvalues. Specifically, at ρ^* , the fixed points at the wings of the Lorenz system undergo a Hopf bifurcation, whereby the real component of complex conjugate eigenvalues goes from negative to positive. To track the eigenvalues of the autonomous reservoir, we linearize Eq. 5 about a fixed point δr^* such that

$$\frac{1}{\gamma}\delta\dot{\boldsymbol{r}}' \approx [-I + UR + 2V \operatorname{diag}(R\delta\boldsymbol{r}^* + C\boldsymbol{c})R](\delta\boldsymbol{r}' - \delta\boldsymbol{r}^*).$$
(10)

Then, using the output weights trained only on stable Lorenz trajectories (at $c = 0, \rho = 23$ and $c = 1, \rho = 24$; Fig. 5a,b), we track the autonomous reservoir's two most unstable eigenvalues (largest real component) at the fixed point as we vary the control parameter from c = 0 to c = 3. We find that these eigenvalues are complex conjugates whose real components go from negative to positive (Fig. 6d). Hence, we demonstrate that not only can reservoirs learn smooth translations and transformations by mapping dc to dr', but they can also perform bifurcations by learning smooth changes in their eigenvalues.

181 VII. SIMULTANEOUS LEARNING OF MULTIPLE OPERATIONS



FIG. 7. Flight of the Lorenz. A reservoir trained on translated inputs along the x_1 and x_3 directions evolves autonomously along a Lorenz-shaped chaotic manifold. We can change the x_1 and x_3 position of its representation by changing control parameters c_1 and c_2 , respectively.

To close, here we demonstrate that reservoirs can easily learn multiple computations by changing multiple control inputs. We train a translation in the x_1 direction with control parameter c_1 , and a translation in the x_3 direction with control parameter c_2 . As before, we begin with a Lorenz time series $\boldsymbol{x}_{0,0}(t)$ generated from Eq. 1, and created shifted copies

$$\boldsymbol{x}_{c_1,c_2}(t) = \boldsymbol{x}_{0,0}(t) + c_1 \boldsymbol{a}_1 + c_2 \boldsymbol{a}_2,$$

where $a_1 = [1; 0; 0]$ corresponds to an x_1 shift, and $a_2 = [0; 0; 1]$ corresponds to an x_3 shift. 186 We generate 10 shifted inputs, with one unshifted attractor $(c_1 = 0, c_2 = 0)$, three shifts in 187 the x_1 direction ($c_1 = 1, 2, 3, c_2 = 0$), three shifts in the x_3 direction ($c_1 = 0, c_2 = 1, 2, 3$), 188 and three shifts in both directions $(c_1 = 1, 2, 3, c_2 = 1, 2, 3)$. We use these shifted copies 189 along with their corresponding control inputs to drive our reservoir and produce 10 reservoir 190 time series $\mathbf{r}_{c_1,c_2}(t)$. Then, we concatenate these 10 time series into $\mathbf{x}(t)$ and $\mathbf{r}(t)$ to train 191 output weights W according to Eq. 4, and perform the feedback according to Eq. 5 where 192 $\boldsymbol{c} = [c_1; c_2]$ is a vector. By changing parameters c_1 and c_2 , the reservoir evolves about a 193 Lorenz-shaped manifold that is shifted in the x_1 and x_3 directions (Fig. 7). 194

195 VIII. DISCUSSION

In this paper, we teach an RNN to evolve about a Lorenz-shaped manifold, and to control 196 its evolution about a translated, transformed, and bifurcated continua of such manifolds. 197 Our approach contributes to prior work on artificial neural networks in three significant ways 198 [25, 32, 33, 35]. First, we provide a means by which a neural system can learn continuous 199 interpolated and extrapolated modifications, along with discontinuous bifurcations, of its 200 own representation solely through examples. Second, the learned manifolds are spatially 201 and temporally complex, allowing for potential extensions to learning modifications of time 202 series data such as speech or music with a structured yet unpredictable evolution. Third, 203 we use a randomly generated and arbitrarily connected network that does not need to be 204 artificially engineered to preserve invariance or manipulate information [25]. 205

One of the main limitations of this work is the lack of a clear mechanism of how the net-206 work connectivity ultimately stabilizes the chaotic manifold. Much progress has been made 207 in tackling this limitation, both by exercising theoretical concepts of generalized synchro-208 nization [36], and by developing tools for controlling chaos [37]. However, there is insufficient 200 knowledge to guarantee that a set of training and reservoir parameters will always success-210 fully teach the desired computation. Similarly, we are unable to specify exactly how far 211 to space the training examples for the feedback reservoir to successfully learn the linear 212 relationships between the differential of the reservoir states and the control parameter. 213

A particularly promising area for future work is related to the simple quadratic form of the 214 reservoir. Because all of these results are obtained by driving our reservoir in the quadratic 215 regime, the same results should hold for common neural mass models, such as the Wilson-216 Cowan model [38]. Hence, these results may provide a unifying framework for learning 217 and computing in dynamical neural models. Additionally, these results provide a basis for 218 exploring more complex computations, such as inferring bifurcations in experimental data, 219 and testing the reservoir's "imagination" in reconstructing more complex chaotic manifolds 220 using incomplete data. Finally, and perhaps most astonishingly, the reservoir's ability to 221 accurately reconstruct the full nonlinear geometry of the bifurcated Lorenz manifold after 222 only observing pre-bifurcation data implies that it is not only imitating examples, but actu-223 ally inferring higher-order nonlinear structure. This work therefore provides a starting point 224 for exploring exactly how higher-order structure is learned by neural systems. 225

226 IX. ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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239 X. CITATION DIVERSITY STATEMENT

Recent work in several fields of science has identified a bias in citation practices such 240 that papers from women and other minorities are under-cited relative to other papers in the 241 field [39]. Here we sought to proactively consider choosing references that reflect the diver-242 sity of our field in thought, form of contribution, gender, and other factors. We classified 243 gender based on the first names of the first and last authors, with possible combinations 244 including male/male, male/female, female/male, and female/female. We regret that our 245 current methodology is limited to consideration of gender as a binary variable. Excluding 246 self-citations to the first and senior authors of our present paper, the references contain 50%247 male/male, 23.5% male/female, 11.8% female/male, and 14.7% female/female categoriza-248 tions. We look forward to future work that will help us to better understand how to support 249 equitable practices in science. 250

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Supplement to "Teaching Recurrent Neural Networks to Modify Chaotic Memories by Example"

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1 I. METHODS

In this section, we describe additional details about the methods and simulations used in the main text. We begin with a more thorough overview of reservoir dynamics and their derivation, followed by specific details of the numerical simulations.

5 A. Reservoir dynamics

⁶ The reservoir computing framework is a general scheme by which a nonlinear dynamical ⁷ system (the reservoir) is driven by some input, and a simple linear readout of the reservoir ⁸ states is trained [1]. The reservoir consists of N neural units, where each unit i has a ⁹ real-valued level of activity over time, $r_i(t)$. We collect this activity into an N-dimensional ¹⁰ column vector

$$oldsymbol{r}(t) = egin{bmatrix} r_1(t) \ r_2(t) \ dots \ r_N(t) \end{bmatrix},$$

that we refer to as the *reservoir state*. These reservoir states are driven by some input time series of M inputs $x_1(t), x_2(t), \dots, x_M(t)$, that we collect into the input vector

$$oldsymbol{x}(t) = egin{bmatrix} x_1(t) \ x_2(t) \ dots \ x_M(t) \end{bmatrix}.$$

In our framework, we add a set of K control inputs c_1, \dots, c_K that we collect into the control vector

$$oldsymbol{c} = egin{bmatrix} c_1 \ c_2 \ dots \ c_K \end{bmatrix}.$$

For continuous time systems $(t \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0})$, a typical equation for the time-evolution of a reservoir consists of a nonlinear (usually sigmoidal [1]) transformation g on a linear sum of ¹⁷ all inputs and states written as

$$\frac{1}{\gamma}\dot{\boldsymbol{r}}(t) = -\boldsymbol{r}(t) + \boldsymbol{g}(A\boldsymbol{r}(t) + B\boldsymbol{x}(t) + C\boldsymbol{c} + \boldsymbol{d}),$$

¹⁸ where $\dot{\boldsymbol{r}}(t)$ represents the time derivative [2, 3], A is a real-valued matrix of dimension $N \times N$, ¹⁹ B is a real-valued matrix of dimension $N \times M$, C is a real-valued matrix of dimension $N \times K$, ²⁰ and \boldsymbol{d} is a constant bias vector of dimension $N \times 1$. We can write the dynamics for each ²¹ reservoir state, $r_i(t)$, as

$$\frac{1}{\gamma}\dot{r}_i(t) = -r_i(t) + g_i\left(\sum_{n=1}^N A_{in}r_n(t) + \sum_{m=1}^M B_{im}x_m(t) + \sum_{k=1}^K C_{ik}c_k + d_i\right).$$

If we write A_{i*}, B_{i*} , and C_{i*} as the *i*-th row of matrices A, B, and C, respectively, we can write this equation more concisely as

$$\frac{1}{\gamma}\dot{r}_i(t) = -r_i(t) + g_i \left(A_{i*}\boldsymbol{r}(t) + B_{i*}\boldsymbol{x}(t) + C_{i*}\boldsymbol{c} + d_i \right).$$
(1)

We begin by observing that the reservoir states are evolved according to some predetermined input $\boldsymbol{x}(t)$ and control input \boldsymbol{c} to generate the reservoir state time series $\boldsymbol{r}(t)$. Next, linear combinations of the reservoir state are taken to approximate the input $\boldsymbol{x}(t)$ by minimizing the matrix 2-norm of the difference in the numerical time series (see Sec. IE)

$$\|W\boldsymbol{r}(t) - \boldsymbol{x}(t)\|_2,$$

where W is the real valued matrix of dimension $M \times N$ that is trained. After training, we perform feedback by replacing the inputs $\boldsymbol{x}(t)$ with the trained outputs $W\boldsymbol{r}(t)$ to yield the feedback dynamics

$$\frac{1}{\gamma}\dot{\boldsymbol{r}}'(t) = -\boldsymbol{r}'(t) + \boldsymbol{g}(A\boldsymbol{r}'(t) + BW\boldsymbol{r}'(t) + C\boldsymbol{c} + \boldsymbol{d}),$$

and by factoring the term R = A + BW, we obtain

$$\frac{1}{\gamma}\dot{\boldsymbol{r}}'(t) = -\boldsymbol{r}'(t) + \boldsymbol{g}(R\boldsymbol{r}'(t) + C\boldsymbol{c} + \boldsymbol{d}).$$

³² This feedback equation is written element-wise as

$$\frac{1}{\gamma}\dot{r}'_{i}(t) = -r'_{i}(t) + g_{i}\left(\sum_{n=1}^{N} R_{in}r'_{n}(t) + \sum_{k=1}^{K} C_{ik}c_{k} + d_{i}\right).$$

³³ We note that R is an $N \times N$ matrix.

34 B. Derivation of quadratic reservoir

While the reservoir computing framework often uses a specific nonlinear sigmoid function 35 for \boldsymbol{g} , our goal is to find principles of learning relevant to a broad range of functional forms of 36 g. To achieve this goal, we study the reservoir in the weakly nonlinear regime. By deriving 37 insights in this regime, we aim to make statements about dynamical systems with many 38 different forms of g as long they are driven in the same regime. By weakly nonlinear, we 39 mean the *quadratic* regime, where the reservoir evolves nearby some constant stable fixed 40 point attractor r^* . This regime is explicitly encoded by taking the second-order Taylor series 41 expansion of the dynamics about a steady state in all of the inputs r^*, x^*, c^* . For notational 42 convenience, we write $\delta \boldsymbol{r} = \boldsymbol{r} - \boldsymbol{r}^*$, $\delta \boldsymbol{x} = \boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{x}^*$, and $\delta \boldsymbol{c} = \boldsymbol{c} - \boldsymbol{c}^*$, and also omit the notation 43 of time dependence, (t). If we write the full dynamics from Eq. 1 as 44

$$\frac{1}{\gamma}\dot{r}_i = f_i(\boldsymbol{r}, \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{c}) = -r_i + g_i \left(A_{i*}\boldsymbol{r} + B_{i*}\boldsymbol{x} + C_{i*}\boldsymbol{c} + d_i \right),$$

⁴⁵ then the Taylor series expansion to second order contains terms

$$T_{i,0} = f_i |_{\boldsymbol{r}=\boldsymbol{r}^*, \boldsymbol{x}=\boldsymbol{x}^*, \boldsymbol{c}=\boldsymbol{c}^*}$$
$$T_{i,1} = \nabla_{\boldsymbol{r}, \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{c}} f_i |_{\boldsymbol{r}=\boldsymbol{r}^*, \boldsymbol{x}=\boldsymbol{x}^*, \boldsymbol{c}=\boldsymbol{c}^*}$$
$$T_{i,2} = \nabla_{\boldsymbol{r}, \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{c}}^2 f_i |_{\boldsymbol{r}=\boldsymbol{r}^*, \boldsymbol{x}=\boldsymbol{x}^*, \boldsymbol{c}=\boldsymbol{c}^*},$$

46 where ∇ is the gradient operator with respect to the subscripted variables

$$\nabla_{\boldsymbol{r},\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{c}} = \begin{bmatrix} \nabla_{\boldsymbol{r}}, \ \nabla_{\boldsymbol{x}}, \ \nabla_{\boldsymbol{c}} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial r_1}, \ \cdots, \ \frac{\partial}{\partial r_N}, \ \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1}, \ \cdots, \ \frac{\partial}{\partial x_M}, \ \frac{\partial}{\partial c_1}, \ \cdots, \ \frac{\partial}{\partial c_K} \end{bmatrix},$$

47 yielding a vector of partial derivatives, and ∇^2 yields a matrix of all pairwise second partial 48 derivatives. Then the quadratic dynamics become

$$\frac{1}{\gamma} \delta \dot{r}_i \approx T_{i,0} + T_{i,1} \begin{bmatrix} \delta \boldsymbol{r} \\ \delta \boldsymbol{x} \\ \delta \boldsymbol{c} \end{bmatrix} + \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} \delta \boldsymbol{r}^\top & \delta \boldsymbol{x}^\top & \delta \boldsymbol{c}^\top \end{bmatrix} T_{i,2} \begin{bmatrix} \delta \boldsymbol{r} \\ \delta \boldsymbol{x} \\ \delta \boldsymbol{c} \end{bmatrix}.$$

As we are evaluating the dynamics about a fixed point, the reservoir does not change its state at this point, such that $f_i|_{\boldsymbol{r}=\boldsymbol{r}^*,\boldsymbol{x}=\boldsymbol{x}^*,\boldsymbol{c}=\boldsymbol{c}^*}=0$. Hence the term

$$T_{i,0} = 0$$

vanishes. The next term, $T_{i,1}$, is a linear approximation of the dynamics f_i

$$T_{i,1} = \nabla_{\boldsymbol{r},\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{c}}(-r_i) + \nabla_{\boldsymbol{r},\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{c}}g_i \left(A_{i*}\boldsymbol{r} + B_{i*}\boldsymbol{x} + C_{i*}\boldsymbol{c} + d_i\right) = \begin{bmatrix} 0, \ \cdots, \ 0, \ -1, \ 0, \ \cdots, \ 0 \end{bmatrix} + u_i \begin{bmatrix} A_{i*}, \ B_{i*}, \ C_{i*} \end{bmatrix},$$

where $u_i = \frac{\partial g_i}{\partial (\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{c})} \Big|_{\mathbf{r}^*, \mathbf{x}^*, \mathbf{c}^*}$ is the evaluation of the first derivative of g_i at the fixed point, and the subsequent term $T_{i,2}$ approximates the quadratic curvature of f_i as follows:

$$T_{i,2} = \nabla_{\boldsymbol{r},\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{c}}^2 f_i |_{\boldsymbol{r}=\boldsymbol{r}^*,\boldsymbol{x}=\boldsymbol{x}^*,\boldsymbol{c}=\boldsymbol{c}^*}$$
$$= 2v_i \begin{bmatrix} A_{i*}^\top \\ B_{i*}^\top \\ C_{i*}^\top \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} A_{i*}, \ B_{i*}, \ C_{i*} \end{bmatrix},$$

⁵⁴ where $v_i = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 g_i}{\partial(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{c})^2} \Big|_{\mathbf{r}^*, \mathbf{x}^*, \mathbf{c}^*}$ is half of the evaluation of the second derivative of g_i at the ⁵⁵ fixed point. Substituting these values back into the quadratic dynamics, we obtain

$$\frac{1}{\gamma}\delta\dot{r}_{i} \approx -\delta r_{i} + u_{i} \begin{bmatrix} A_{i*}, B_{i*}, C_{i*} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \delta \boldsymbol{r} \\ \delta \boldsymbol{x} \\ \delta \boldsymbol{c} \end{bmatrix} + v_{i} \begin{bmatrix} \delta \boldsymbol{r}^{\top} & \delta \boldsymbol{x}^{\top} & \delta \boldsymbol{c}^{\top} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} A_{i*}^{\top} \\ B_{i*}^{\top} \\ C_{i*}^{\top} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} A_{i*}, B_{i*}, C_{i*} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \delta \boldsymbol{r} \\ \delta \boldsymbol{x} \\ \delta \boldsymbol{c} \end{bmatrix},$$

56 and we notice that

$$\begin{bmatrix} \delta \boldsymbol{r}^\top \ \delta \boldsymbol{x}^\top \ \delta \boldsymbol{c}^\top \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} A_{i*}^\top \\ B_{i*}^\top \\ C_{i*}^\top \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A_{i*}, \ B_{i*}, \ C_{i*} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \delta \boldsymbol{r} \\ \delta \boldsymbol{x} \\ \delta \boldsymbol{c} \end{bmatrix},$$

57 to yield

$$\frac{1}{\gamma}\delta\dot{r}_{i}\approx-\delta r_{i}+u_{i}\left[A_{i*},\ B_{i*},\ C_{i*}\right]\left[\begin{matrix}\delta\boldsymbol{r}\\\delta\boldsymbol{x}\\\delta\boldsymbol{c}\end{matrix}\right]+v_{i}\left(\left[A_{i*},\ B_{i*},\ C_{i*}\right]\left[\begin{matrix}\delta\boldsymbol{r}\\\delta\boldsymbol{x}\\\delta\boldsymbol{c}\end{matrix}\right]\right)^{2},$$

⁵⁸ which can be rewritten as

$$\frac{1}{\gamma}\delta\dot{r}_i \approx -\delta r_i + u_i(A_{i*}\delta\boldsymbol{r} + B_{i*}\delta\boldsymbol{x} + C_{i*}\delta\boldsymbol{c}) + v_i(A_{i*}\delta\boldsymbol{r} + B_{i*}\delta\boldsymbol{x} + C_{i*}\delta\boldsymbol{c})^2.$$

⁵⁹ Compiling the dynamics of all reservoir nodes r, we write the compact vector form of the ⁶⁰ dynamics as

$$\frac{1}{\gamma}\delta\dot{\boldsymbol{r}} = -\delta\boldsymbol{r} + U(A\delta\boldsymbol{r} + B\delta\boldsymbol{x} + C\delta\boldsymbol{c}) + V(A\delta\boldsymbol{r} + B\delta\boldsymbol{x} + C\delta\boldsymbol{c})^2,$$

where U and V are diagonal matrices where the *i*-th elements are u_i and v_i obtained by evaluating the first and second derivatives of g_i , respectively. To avoid making any assumptions about the operating point of the input states or control inputs, we linearize about $\mathbf{x}^* = \mathbf{0}$ and $\mathbf{c}^* = \mathbf{0}$. Further, we notice that $\delta \dot{\mathbf{r}} = \frac{d}{dt}(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}^*) = \dot{\mathbf{r}}$. Hence, the above vector form of the equation becomes

$$\frac{1}{\gamma}\delta\dot{\boldsymbol{r}} = -\delta\boldsymbol{r} + U(A\delta\boldsymbol{r} + B\boldsymbol{x} + C\boldsymbol{c}) + V(A\delta\boldsymbol{r} + B\boldsymbol{x} + C\boldsymbol{c})^2.$$
(2)

Importantly, we note that the elements of U and V are not allowed to arbitrarily be any value. Instead, their values depend on the first and second derivatives of the activation function g evaluated at the fixed points r^*, x^* , and c^* . For the sake of remaining relevant to the existing literature that frequently uses the hyperbolic tangent function tanh [1], we will restrict the values of U and V. First, we note that at the fixed point, we have

$$\mathbf{0} = -\boldsymbol{r}^* + \boldsymbol{g}(A\boldsymbol{r}^* + B\boldsymbol{x}^* + C\boldsymbol{c}^*).$$

⁷¹ Recall that we evaluate our functions at $x^* = 0$ and $c^* = 0$, such that $g(Ar^*) = r^*$, ⁷² regardless of the form of g. Next, we consider the specific activation function

$$\boldsymbol{g}(\boldsymbol{r}, \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{c}) = \tanh(A\boldsymbol{r} + B\boldsymbol{x} + C\boldsymbol{c} + \boldsymbol{d}),$$

⁷³ and evaluate its first derivative at $r^*, x^* = 0, c^* = 0$ to yield

$$dg_{r^*,x^*=0,c^*=0} = 1 - \tanh(Ar^*)^2 = 1 - r^{*2}, \qquad (3)$$

⁷⁴ where **1** is an *N*-dimensional vector of ones, and the square notation of the vector implies an ⁷⁵ element-wise square. Hence, *U* is a diagonal matrix where the *i*-th entry is $1 - r_i^{*2}$. Finally, ⁷⁶ we take the second derivative

$$d^{2}\boldsymbol{g}_{\boldsymbol{r}^{*},\boldsymbol{x}^{*}=\boldsymbol{0},\boldsymbol{c}^{*}=\boldsymbol{0}} = -2(\tanh(A\boldsymbol{r}^{*}) - \tanh(A\boldsymbol{r}^{*})^{3}) = 2(\boldsymbol{r}^{*3} - \boldsymbol{r}^{*}), \qquad (4)$$

⁷⁷ such that the *i*-th diagonal element of V is given by $r_i^{*3} - r_i^*$. Hence, for the quadratic ⁷⁸ approximation of *tanh*, it is sufficient to specify a fixed point r^* to fully determine the ⁷⁹ matrices U and V.

80 C. Simulation parameters

For all simulations in the main text of the paper, we used the following parameter choices:

82 1. Global parameters

• simulation time step: $\Delta t = 0.001$.

84 2. Lorenz training data parameters

• dynamical equation:

86
$$\dot{x}_1 = \sigma(x_2 - x_1)$$
 $\dot{x}_2 = x_1(\rho - x_3) - x_2$ $\dot{x}_3 = x_1 x_2 - \beta x_3.$

- parameters: $\sigma = 10, \beta = 8/3, \rho = 28$ (except in the bifurcation example).
- uniform random initial conditions: $x_1, x_2, x_3 \in [0, 10]$.
- throwaway simulation time (per attractor): $T_{\text{waste}} = 20$.
- training simulation time (per attractor): $T_{\text{train}} = 200$.
- translation training shift: $P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$. • transformation training stretch: $P = \begin{bmatrix} -.012 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$.

93 3. Reservoir

• dynamical equation:
$$\frac{1}{\gamma}\dot{\boldsymbol{r}} = -\delta \boldsymbol{r} + U(A\delta \boldsymbol{r} + B\boldsymbol{x} + C\boldsymbol{c}) + V(A\delta \boldsymbol{r} + B\boldsymbol{x} + C\boldsymbol{c})^2$$
.

• reservoir initial condition: $\mathbf{r}(0) = \mathbf{0}$.

• adjacency matrix A has 10% binary density. We begin with matrix \tilde{A} where each nonzero element is drawn from a uniform random distribution $\tilde{A}_{ij} \in [-1, 1]$. Then the matrix is normalized such that $A = 0.95 \frac{\tilde{A}}{\operatorname{real}(\lambda_{\max})}$, where λ_{\max} is the eigenvalue with the largest real value. For a *tanh* activation function, this normalization is used to ensure the echo-state property in discrete time reservoir systems [2].

- number of reservoir neurons: N = 300.
- time constant: $\gamma = 100$.

• fixed point: each element was drawn from a random uniform distribution $r_i^* \in$ $[-1, -0.8] \cup [0.8, 1].$

• data input matrix: every row i of B has one non-zero element at index j. This index is chosen uniformly at random $(Pr(j = 1) = \cdots = Pr(j = M))$. For examples involving translations and transformations, the value of the element is drawn uniformly from $B_{ij} \in [-0.004, 0.004]$. For examples involving bifurcations, the magnitude of the observed data is much smaller (local to the stable fixed point, instead of the full chaotic attractor manifold), and therefore the element is drawn uniformly from $B_{ij} \in [-0.04, 0.04]$.

• control input matrix: every row i of C has one non-zero element at index j. This index is chosen uniformly and randomly $(Pr(j = 1) = \cdots = Pr(j = K))$, and the value of the element is drawn uniformly from $C_{ij} \in [-0.002, 0.002]$.

115 D. Simulation method

To simulate both the input and reservoir dynamics, we used a 4-th order Runge-Kutta numerical integration. For the dynamics of the Lorenz attractor,

$$\dot{\boldsymbol{x}} = \boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{x}),$$

¹¹⁶ the Runge-Kutta computes the following values

$$k_{x1} = \Delta t \cdot \boldsymbol{f} \left(\boldsymbol{x}(t) \right)$$
$$k_{x2} = \Delta t \cdot \boldsymbol{f} \left(\boldsymbol{x}(t) + \frac{k_{x1}}{2} \right)$$
$$k_{x3} = \Delta t \cdot \boldsymbol{f} \left(\boldsymbol{x}(t) + \frac{k_{x2}}{2} \right)$$
$$k_{x4} = \Delta t \cdot \boldsymbol{f} \left(\boldsymbol{x}(t) + k_{x3} \right),$$

¹¹⁷ and evolves the state forward using

$$\boldsymbol{x}(t + \Delta t) = \boldsymbol{x}(t) + \frac{1}{6}(k_{x1} + 2k_{x2} + 2k_{x3} + k_{x4}).$$

The simulation of the reservoir dynamics requires more careful analysis, because it is a system driven by external inputs. For the original reservoir dynamics given by Eq. 2

$$\frac{1}{\gamma}\dot{\boldsymbol{r}} = \boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{r}, \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{c}) = -\delta \boldsymbol{r} + U(A\delta \boldsymbol{r} + B\boldsymbol{x} + C\boldsymbol{c}) + V(A\delta \boldsymbol{r} + B\boldsymbol{x} + C\boldsymbol{c})^2,$$

¹²⁰ the algorithm to update the reservoir states is given by

$$k_{r1} = \Delta t \cdot \boldsymbol{f} \left(\boldsymbol{r}(t), \boldsymbol{x}(t), \boldsymbol{c}(t) \right)$$

$$k_{r2} = \Delta t \cdot \boldsymbol{f} \left(\boldsymbol{r}(t) + \frac{k_{r1}}{2}, \boldsymbol{x}(t) + \frac{k_{x1}}{2}, \boldsymbol{c}(t) + \frac{k_{c1}}{2} \right)$$

$$k_{r3} = \Delta t \cdot \boldsymbol{f} \left(\boldsymbol{r}(t) + \frac{k_{r2}}{2}, \boldsymbol{x}(t) + \frac{k_{x2}}{2}, \boldsymbol{c}(t) + \frac{k_{c2}}{2} \right)$$

$$k_{r4} = \Delta t \cdot \boldsymbol{f} \left(\boldsymbol{r}(t) + k_{r3}, \boldsymbol{x}(t) + k_{x3}, \boldsymbol{c}(t) + k_{c3} \right),$$

¹²¹ and the reservoir state evolves forward according to

$$\mathbf{r}(t + \Delta t) = \mathbf{r}(t) + \frac{1}{6}(k_{r1} + 2k_{r2} + 2k_{r3} + k_{r4}).$$

Hence, when we simulate the Lorenz state $\boldsymbol{x}(t)$, we also save the corresponding values k_{x1}, \dots, k_{x3} to use in the reservoir update algorithm. Finally, we note that in our simulations, we slowly vary the control input $\boldsymbol{c}(t)$ over time, requiring us to determine the trajectory of $\boldsymbol{c}(t)$ beforehand. However, we require a differential equation that generated $\boldsymbol{c}(t)$ to solve for the final parameters k_{c1}, \dots, k_{c4} . We assume the differential equations that generate \boldsymbol{c} are constant, such that between time t and $t + \Delta t$, the rate of change of $\boldsymbol{c}(t)$ is given by

$$\dot{\boldsymbol{c}}(t) = \boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{c}(t)) = \frac{\boldsymbol{c}(t + \Delta t) - \boldsymbol{c}(t)}{\Delta t}$$

¹²⁸ Such dynamics yield the parameters

$$k_{c1} = \Delta t \cdot \boldsymbol{f} (\boldsymbol{c}(t)) = \boldsymbol{c}(t + \Delta t) - \boldsymbol{c}(t)$$

$$k_{c2} = \Delta t \cdot \boldsymbol{f} \left(\boldsymbol{c}(t) + \frac{k_{c1}}{2} \right) = \Delta t \cdot \boldsymbol{f} \left(\frac{\boldsymbol{c}(t + \Delta t) + \boldsymbol{c}(t)}{2} \right) = \boldsymbol{c}(t + \Delta t) - \boldsymbol{c}(t)$$

$$k_{c3} = \Delta t \cdot \boldsymbol{f} \left(\boldsymbol{c}(t) + \frac{k_{c2}}{2} \right) = \Delta t \cdot \boldsymbol{f} \left(\frac{\boldsymbol{c}(t + \Delta t) + \boldsymbol{c}(t)}{2} \right) = \boldsymbol{c}(t + \Delta t) - \boldsymbol{c}(t).$$

The same integration is used with feedback where $\frac{1}{\gamma}\dot{\boldsymbol{r}} = \boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{r}, \boldsymbol{c}) = -\delta \boldsymbol{r} + U(R\delta \boldsymbol{r} + C\boldsymbol{c}) + V(R\delta \boldsymbol{r} + C\boldsymbol{c})^2$.

131 E. Training

Using the dynamical equations and RK4 integration scheme, we first generated the Lorenz 132 attractor training inputs $\boldsymbol{x}(t)$. Each of the single direction translation and transformation 133 examples described in the main text used four Lorenz attractor inputs. The first was the 134 original Lorenz time series x(t), and the remaining three were translations or rotations of the 135 original. Each of these four time series were simulated for $T = T_{\text{waste}} + T_{\text{train}} = 20 + 200 = 220$ 136 time. At a time step of $\Delta t = 0.001$, each time series $\boldsymbol{x}(t)$ contained $\frac{T}{\Delta t} = 220,000$ simulation 137 time points, stored in data matrix X_0 for the original attractor. Because we also kept the 138 4 outputs of the RK4 numerical integration scheme, the data matrix X_0 had dimensions 139 variables \times time steps \times RK4 = 3 \times 220,000 \times 4. With three additional time series for 140 translation or rotation, X_1, X_2, X_3 , we concatenated the four time series along the second 141 dimension into the full matrix X with dimension $3 \times 880,000 \times 4$. 142

Using this Lorenz data matrix X, and a corresponding control input data matrix, we 143 drove the reservoir to generate r(t), contained in a reservoir data matrix D that was of 144 size $N = 300 \times 880,000$. For every $\frac{T}{\Delta t} = 220,000$ time steps, we three away the first 145 $\frac{T_{\text{waste}}}{\Delta t} = 20,000$ time points, as this simulation allowed both the Lorenz and reservoir systems 146 to forget their initial conditions. The remaining $\frac{T_{\text{train}}}{\Delta t} = 200,000$ time points of each attractor 147 were kept for training. This process yields a Lorenz training matrix X_{train} of dimension 148 $3 \times 800,000$ (as we throw away the RK4 simulation parameters after driving the reservoir), 149 and a reservoir training matrix D_{train} of dimension $300 \times 800,000$. 150

Finally, we seek a training matrix M of dimension 3×300 that minimizes the matrix 2-norm

$$||MD_{\text{train}} - X_{\text{train}}||_2.$$

Specifically, we use MATLAB's command lsqminnorm, that not only minimizes this norm, but in the event that multiple solutions exist, also minimizes the norm of M.

155 F. Training maps the fixed point to 0

Here, we describe a particular but important methodological nuance to the training.
 Recall that from Eq. 2, our reservoir evolves according to

$$\frac{1}{\gamma}\delta\dot{\boldsymbol{r}} = -\delta\boldsymbol{r} + U(A\delta\boldsymbol{r} + B\boldsymbol{x} + C\boldsymbol{c}) + V(A\delta\boldsymbol{r} + B\boldsymbol{x} + C\boldsymbol{c})^2,$$

where $\delta \mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}^*$. If our training scheme involved approximating the inputs with the difference of the reservoir states $\delta \mathbf{r}$ such that $W \delta \mathbf{r}(t) \approx \mathbf{x}(t)$, then this nuance would be unnecessary, as the feedback dynamics would take the proper form

$$\frac{1}{\gamma}\dot{\boldsymbol{r}}' = -\delta\boldsymbol{r}' + U(A\delta\boldsymbol{r}' + BW\delta\boldsymbol{r}' + C\boldsymbol{c}) + V(A\delta\boldsymbol{r}' + BW\delta\boldsymbol{r}' + C\boldsymbol{c})^2$$
$$= -\delta\boldsymbol{r}' + U(R\delta\boldsymbol{r}' + C\boldsymbol{c}) + V(R\delta\boldsymbol{r}' + C\boldsymbol{c})^2.$$

¹⁶¹ Unfortunately, such a scheme would require the additional assumptions that during training, ¹⁶² the neural system was able to accurately retain knowledge of its fixed point r^* , and that it ¹⁶³ was also able to take the difference of the neural activity with respect to this fixed point in ¹⁶⁴ real time. We avoid these additional assumptions by training on the true reservoir states ¹⁶⁵ such that $Wr(t) \approx x(t)$, yielding

$$\frac{1}{\gamma}\delta\dot{\boldsymbol{r}}' = -\delta\boldsymbol{r}' + U(A\delta\boldsymbol{r}' + BW\boldsymbol{r}' + C\boldsymbol{c}) + V(A\delta\boldsymbol{r}' + BW\boldsymbol{r}' + C\boldsymbol{c})^2$$
$$= -\delta\boldsymbol{r}' + U(R\delta\boldsymbol{r}' + BW\boldsymbol{r}^* + C\boldsymbol{c}) + V(R\delta\boldsymbol{r}' + BW\boldsymbol{r}^* + C\boldsymbol{c})^2.$$

In both the linear and quadratic terms, we notice an extra and undesired term BWr^* . In all of our simulations, the training of matrix W actually maps the fixed point to a small number, such that Wr^* is on the order of 10^{-6} , whereas $W\delta r(t)$ is on the order of 10^1 . Hence, the matrix W maps the fixed point to values that are 7 orders of magnitude smaller than the magnitude of the inputs, such that $Wr'(t) = W\delta r'(t) + Wr^* \approx W\delta r'(t)$, thereby rendering the undesired term BWr^* effectively negligible.

At first, we might be tempted to explain this phenomenon by the fact that the Lorenz attractor $\boldsymbol{x}(t)$ is centered around $x_1 = 0$ and $x_2 = 0$. Hence, it would make sense that a constant fixed point \boldsymbol{r}^* would map to a value of 0. However, the third coordinate of the Lorenz system is centered around $x_3 = \rho - 1 = 27$, and yet in our simulations training still produces an output matrix M that maps the fixed point to 0, even along the x_3 coordinate, across randomly assigned fixed points \boldsymbol{r}^* and reservoir parameters A, B, and C.

178 G. Truncation of the block-Hessenberg matrix

To understand the mechanism of learning translations and transformations, we had taken the differential of the reservoir feedback dynamics,

$$(I - KA)d\boldsymbol{r}' + \frac{1}{\gamma}d\dot{\boldsymbol{r}}' = K(BWd\boldsymbol{r}' + Cd\boldsymbol{c}).$$

¹⁸¹ If we take time derivatives of the left-hand side of this equation, we obtain

$$\begin{bmatrix} (I - KA) & \frac{1}{\gamma}I & 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots \\ \downarrow & \searrow & & \searrow & & \\ -\dot{K}A & (I - KA) & \frac{1}{\gamma}I & 0 & 0 & \cdots \\ \downarrow & \searrow & \downarrow & \searrow & & \searrow & & \\ -\ddot{K}A & -2\dot{K}A & (I - KA) & \frac{1}{\gamma}I & 0 & \cdots \\ \downarrow & \searrow & \downarrow & \searrow & & \searrow & & \\ -\ddot{K}A & -3\ddot{K}A & -3\ddot{K}A & (I - KA) & \frac{1}{\gamma}I & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} d\mathbf{r}' \\ d\ddot{\mathbf{r}}' \\ d\ddot{\mathbf{r}}' \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix},$$

where the element in the *i*-th row and *j*-th column has a coefficient

$$p_{i,j} = \begin{pmatrix} i-1\\ j-1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{for } j \le i,$$

according to Pascal's triangle. For the translation examples, we can write the continued
time derivatives of the differential relation as

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} H_0 & H_{-1} & 0 & 0 & \cdots \\ H_1 & H_0 & H_{-1} & 0 & \cdots \\ H_2 & 2H_1 & H_0 & H_{-1} & \cdots \\ H_3 & 3H_2 & 3H_1 & H_0 & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{bmatrix}_{J} \begin{bmatrix} d\mathbf{r'} \\ d\dot{\mathbf{r'}} \\ d\dot{\mathbf{r'}} \\ d\ddot{\mathbf{r'}} \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} \approx \begin{bmatrix} K \\ \ddot{K} \\ \ddot{K} \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} (BP+C)d\mathbf{c},$$

where $H_{-1} = \frac{1}{\gamma}I$, $H_0 = I - KA$, and $H_i = -K^{(i)}A$ is the *i*-th time-derivative of *KA*. This matrix is a block matrix (each element *H* is a matrix), and is specifically a block-Hessenberg matrix (zero above the first block-super diagonal). The goal here is to solve for $d\mathbf{r}'$ with respect to $d\mathbf{c}$. If we truncate *J* to a finite-dimensional matrix such that

$$J \simeq \begin{bmatrix} J_{11} & J_{12} \\ J_{21} & J_{22} \end{bmatrix},$$

189 where

$$J_{11} = \begin{bmatrix} H_0 \\ H_1 \\ \vdots \\ H_{k-1} \end{bmatrix}, \qquad J_{12} = \begin{bmatrix} H_{-1}, & 0, & \cdots, & 0 \\ H_0, & H_{-1}, & \cdots, & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ p_{k,2}H_{k-2}, & p_{k,3}H_{k-3}, & \cdots, & H_{-1} \end{bmatrix},$$
$$J_{21} = \begin{bmatrix} p_{k+1,1}H_k \end{bmatrix}, \qquad J_{22} = \begin{bmatrix} p_{k+1,2}H_{k-1} & p_{k+1,3}H_{k-2} & \cdots & H_0 \end{bmatrix},$$

Then, the closed form solution for the first N rows of J^{-1} (the first block) can be written [4] as

$$[J^{-1}]_{(1:N,:)} \simeq -(J_{22}J_{12}^{-1}J_{11} - J_{21})^{-1} \left[-J_{22}J_{12}^{-1} I \right].$$
(5)

¹⁹² However, in reality, J is not a finite matrix, but an infinite dimensional matrix. An important ¹⁹³ fact to verify, then, is whether there exists a sufficiently large value of k to yield an accurate ¹⁹⁴ inversion. While proving that this inverse converges is outside the scope of this work, we ¹⁹⁵ numerically demonstrate in what follows that after k = 1, successive terms do not perceivably ¹⁹⁶ change the results. Specifically, we solve for $d\mathbf{r}'$ with respect to $d\mathbf{c}$ for k = 0, 1, 2, 3.

As a reference for translation, at k = 0, the approximation becomes

$$d\mathbf{r}' \approx H_0^{-1} K(BP + C) d\mathbf{c},$$

and at k = 1, we obtain the approximation used in the main text. The 0-th order approximation at k = 0 yields no change (Fig. 1a), where the predicted reservoir states (light gold) are identical to the original states (dark gold). The first order approximation at k = 1(Fig. 1b) yields a change in the reservoir states that outputs to the expected translation in spatial coordinates. Taking more terms in the approximation (k = 2, Fig 1c; and k = 3, Fig. 1d) yields no perceivable change in either the reservoir states or their outputs.



FIG. 1. Predicted change in reservoir states given a change in control parameter. Reservoir time series generated by driving the reservoir with the original Lorenz input with c = 0 (dark gold), and the predicted time series from solving for $d\mathbf{r'}$ after training on translated examples and changing the control parameter $\Delta c = 20$ (light gold), along with their output projections (dark and light red, respectively). These approximations were taken by computing the inverse Eq. 5 for (a) k = 0, (b) k = 1, (c) k = 2, and (d) k = 3.

204 H. Summary

In sum, we have provided a general form for reservoir dynamics (Eq. 1), the derivation 205 for the quadratic form of the reservoir (Eq. 2), as well as the dependence of matrices U206 and V that arise from the choice of fixed point when using tanh as the activation function 207 (Eq. 3,4). We further provide all simulation parameters (time step, Lorenz parameters 208 and initial conditions, reservoir parameters and initial conditions), along with the specific 209 details of our simulation method, data dimensions, and training process. Finally, we provide 210 numerical justification for the truncation of our approximation when deriving the mechanism 211 of learning (Eq. 5). 212

213 II. RESULTS

In this section, we provide some additional results to support the generalizability of the framework.

A. Translation in multiple directions

In the main text, we demonstrated that a reservoir can translate its representation of a Lorenz attractor along the x_1 direction. Specifically, we took an untranslated Lorenz time series $\boldsymbol{x}_0(t)$, and generated three additional training examples $\boldsymbol{x}_c(t)$ for c = 1, 2, 3 such that

$$\boldsymbol{x}_{c}(t) = \boldsymbol{x}_{0}(t) + c \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

We then drove the reservoir using these four training examples and an additional control parameter c that we also varied from $c = 0, \dots, 4$. Afterwards, we performed the feedback, and translated the reservoir's representation by varying the external control parameter cfrom -40 to 40. We reproduce this translated representation here (Fig. 2a). We show the same output of the feedback reservoir trained on four examples translated in the x_2 direction $(\mathbf{x}_c(t) = \mathbf{x}_0(t) + c[0; 1; 0])$ and in the x_3 direction ($\mathbf{x}_c(t) = \mathbf{x}_0(t) + c[0; 0; 1]$) (Fig. 2b,c). Hence, we demonstrate that the reservoir can learn these translations in arbitrary directions.



FIG. 2. Translation of the Lorenz representation in all three spatial directions. (a) Output of the feedback reservoir after being trained on 4 time series of a Lorenz attractor translated in the x_1 direction at $c = 0, \dots, 4$. By varying c from -40 to 40, the representation shifts in the x_1 direction. (b) The same scheme is employed for translations in the x_2 direction, and (c) in the x_3 direction.

B. Different types of transformations

In the main text, we demonstrated that a reservoir trained on the original Lorenz attractor $\mathbf{x}_0(t)$ and on three transformed examples $\mathbf{x}_c(t) = (I + cP)\mathbf{x}_0(t)$ for c = 1, 2, 3, was able to continuously interpolate and extrapolate the transformation on its internal representation, even for control inputs between -40 and 40. Here, we consider a stretch in the x_3 direction, a shear in the x_1 direction, and a shear in the x_1 and x_2 directions. Specifically, we use the three matrices

$$P_{\text{stretch},x_3} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0.012 \end{bmatrix}, \quad P_{\text{shear},x_1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0.012 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad P_{\text{shear},x_1,x_2} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -0.012 & 0 \\ 0.012 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix},$$

to train our reservoir for $c = 0, \dots, 4$. For each transformation, we drive the reservoir with the input Lorenz attractors $\boldsymbol{x}_c(t)$ and an additional control input c for $c = 0, \dots, 4$. We then train the reservoir by applying the feedback method used in the main text. Finally, we drive the autonomous feedback reservoir by varying the control parameter from c = -40 to c = 40 for these three transformations (Fig. 3).



FIG. 3. Transformation of the Lorenz representation using stretch and shear in several spatial directions. (a) Output of the feedback reservoir after being trained on 4 time series of a Lorenz attractor stretched in the x_3 direction at $c = 0, \dots, 4$. By varying c from -40 to 40, the representation stretches in the x_3 direction. (b) The same scheme is employed for a shear in the x_2 direction, and (c) for a shear in the x_1 and x_2 directions.

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