Extreme Learning Machine in J

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2019

1 Regression

 $\boldsymbol{x}^{(1)} \dots \boldsymbol{x}^{(P)}$ are vectors of \mathbb{R}^{n-1} with associated values $y^{(1)} \dots y^{(P)}$ of \mathbb{R} . We search a function $f(\boldsymbol{x})$: $\mathbb{R}^{n-1} \to \mathbb{R}$ to model the observed relationship between \boldsymbol{x} and \boldsymbol{y} . f can have a fixed parameterized form. For example:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = a_0 + a_1 x_1 + a_2 x_2 + \dots + a_{n-1} x_{n-1}$$

If P = n, parameters $a_0 \dots a_{n-1}$ are found by solving a linear system.

$$\begin{cases} y^{(1)} &= a_0 + a_1 x_1^{(1)} + a_2 x_2^{(1)} + \dots + a_{n-1} x_{n-1}^{(1)} \\ \dots &= \dots \\ y^{(P)} &= a_0 + a_1 x_1^{(P)} + a_2 x_2^{(P)} + \dots + a_{n-1} x_{n-1}^{(P)} \end{cases}$$

This system can be written in matrix form.

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_1^{(1)} & \dots & x_{n-1}^{(1)} \\ 1 & x_1^{(2)} & \dots & x_{n-1}^{(2)} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 1 & x_1^{(P)} & \dots & x_{n-1}^{(P)} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ \dots \\ a_{n-1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} y^{(1)} \\ y^{(2)} \\ \dots \\ y^{(P)} \end{pmatrix}$$

Each line of the first term matrix is a vector $x^{(i)T}$ with the addition of a constant coordinate that accounts for parameter a_0 . Thus, naming this matrix X^T , the linear system can also be written:

$$\boldsymbol{X}^T \boldsymbol{a} = \boldsymbol{y}$$

Consider the special case when x is a number and f is a polynomial of degree n-1:

$$f(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + \dots + a_{n-1} x^{n-1}$$

With P = n examples $(x^{(k)}, y^{(k)})$, the parameters are found by solving the following linear system:

$$\begin{pmatrix}
1 & x^{(1)} & (x^{(1)})^2 & \dots & (x^{(1)})^{n-1} \\
1 & x^{(2)} & (x^{(2)})^2 & \dots & (x^{(2)})^{n-1} \\
\dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\
1 & x^{(P)} & (x^{(P)})^2 & \dots & (x^{(P)})^{n-1}
\end{pmatrix}
\begin{pmatrix}
a_0 \\
a_1 \\
\dots \\
a_{n-1}
\end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix}
y^{(1)} \\
y^{(2)} \\
\dots \\
y^{(P)}
\end{pmatrix}$$
(1)

Incidentally, the first term is called the Vandermonde Matrix.

1.1 Experiment with a 1-dimensional synthetic dataset

We define a non linear function f from which we generate a dataset.

```
\langle dataset \ 2a \rangle \equiv
f=: 3 : '(^y) * cos 2*pi * sin pi * y'
\langle noise \ 2b \rangle
\langle gendat \ 2d \rangle
```

In traditional mathematical form, this function is:

2a

2b

$$f(x) = e^x \times \cos(2\pi \sin(\pi x))$$

Function noise adds some random noise to the values of a vector. For example 0.5 noise v, will add random values uniformly drawn from interval [-0.5, 0.5] to the terms of vector v.

```
\langle noise\ 2b \rangle \equiv
noise=: 4 : 'y + -&x *&(+:x) ? (#y) # 0'
```

0.5 gendat 10 generates from f a dataset (X,Y) of 10 points with random noise in [-0.5, 0.5] added to Y. It also stores in minmaxX the minimum and maximum values of X. It computes the pair minmaxf, where the first term is ten percent smaller than the minimum of f on interval [0,1], and the second term is ten percent bigger than the maximum of f on interval [0,1]. minmaxf is later used to crop the plots so that extreme values are not visible.

A test set (XT,YT) is used to assert the capacity of the model to generalize on unseen data. Its size is fixed to 10% of the size of the training set.

minmaxf=: (([: pushdown <./) , ([: pushup >./)) f steps 0 1 100

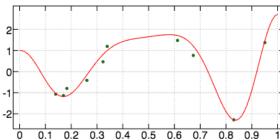
XT=: ? (>. 0.1 * y) \$ 0

YT=: f XT

0

```
plotdat 0 plots the dataset.
```

```
\langle plotdat \; 3a \rangle \equiv
3a
                                                                                                                          (11b)
           plotdatnoshow=: 3 : 0
              \langle initplot 3b \rangle
              pd X;Y
              \langle \mathit{plotf} \; 3c \rangle
           )
           plotdat=: 3 : 0
              plotdatnoshow 0
              pd 'show'
           )
        ⟨initplot 3b⟩≡
3b
                                                                                                                        (3a 4e)
           pd 'reset'
           pd 'color green'
           pd 'type marker'
           pd 'markersize 1'
           pd 'markers circle'
3c
        \langle \mathit{plotf} \; 3c \rangle \equiv
                                                                                                                        (3a 4e)
           pd 'color red'
           pd 'type line'
          pd 'pensize 1'
           pd (;f) steps 0 1 100
```



0.5 gendat 10 plotdat 0

polyreg 0 solves the linear system (1), stores the coefficients of the polynomial in variable c and computes YThat, the predictions on the test dataset.

```
\langle utils \ 2c \rangle + \equiv
                                                                                                       (11b) ⊲2c 4c⊳
          NB. locate the elements with values between \{.x \text{ and } \{:x\}\}
          sel=: (] >: {.@[) *. (] <: {:@[)
        \langle plotpoly 4b \rangle \equiv
4b
                                                                                                                 (11b)
          plotpoly=: 3 : 0
             plotdatnoshow 0
             pd 'color blue'
             xs=: (] #~ minmaxX"_ sel ]) /:~ X,steps 0 1 100
             pval=: c&p. xs
             crop=: minmaxf sel pval
             pd (crop # xs);(crop # pval)
             pd 'show'
                                                                              polyreg 0
                   0.2 0.3 0.4 0.5 0.6 0.7 0.8 0.9
           test 0 returns the root mean square error (RMSE) on the test set, and a plot of the predictions.
        \langle utils \ 2c \rangle + \equiv
4c
                                                                                                       (11b) ⊲4a 6b⊳
          mean=: +/ % #
          rmse=: [: %: [: mean ([: *: -)
        \langle test \ 4d \rangle \equiv
4d
                                                                                                                 (11b)
          test=: 3 : 0
             plottest 0
             YT rmse YThat
          )
        \langle plottest 4e \rangle \equiv
                                                                                                                 (11b)
4e
          plottest=: 3 : 0
             \langle initplot \; 3b \rangle
             pd XT;YT
             pd 'color magenta'
             pd XT;YThat
             \langle plotf 3c \rangle
             pd 'show'
```

4a

1.2 Generalization to a function space

Given a basis for a function space, we can try to express f as a combination of basis functions.

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = a_1 f_1(\mathbf{x}) + a_2 f_2(\mathbf{x}) + \dots + a_n f_n(\mathbf{x})$$

Given a dataset of n pairs $(x^{(k)}, y^{(k)})$, the coefficients a_i are found by solving a linear system.

$$\begin{pmatrix} f_1(\boldsymbol{x}^{(1)}) & f_2(\boldsymbol{x}^{(1)}) & \dots & f_n(\boldsymbol{x}^{(1)}) \\ f_1(\boldsymbol{x}^{(2)}) & f_2(\boldsymbol{x}^{(2)}) & \dots & f_n(\boldsymbol{x}^{(2)}) \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ f_1(\boldsymbol{x}^{(n)}) & f_2(\boldsymbol{x}^{(n)}) & \dots & f_n(\boldsymbol{x}^{(n)}) \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \dots \\ a_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} y^{(1)} \\ y^{(2)} \\ \dots \\ y^{(n)} \end{pmatrix}$$

Let us denote this linear system by Ax = b.

1.3 Least squares

The linear system $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ (with $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$) doesn't necessarily have a solution when there are more examples than the number of basis functions (i.e. m > n). Thus, we want to find an approximate solution $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} \approx \mathbf{b}$ that minimizes the squares of the errors: $\|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}\|_{2}^{2}$.

$$\begin{aligned} &\|\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{x}-\boldsymbol{b}\|_{2}^{2} \\ &= \{\|\boldsymbol{x}\|_{2} = \sqrt{\boldsymbol{x}\cdot\boldsymbol{x}}\} \\ &(\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{x}-\boldsymbol{b})\cdot(\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{x}-\boldsymbol{b}) \\ &= \{\text{euclidean scalar product}\} \\ &(\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{x}-\boldsymbol{b})^{T}(\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{x}-\boldsymbol{b}) \\ &= \{\text{property of transposition}\} \\ &(\boldsymbol{x}^{T}\boldsymbol{A}^{T}-\boldsymbol{b}^{T})(\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{x}-\boldsymbol{b}) \\ &= \{\text{multiplication}\} \\ &\boldsymbol{x}^{T}\boldsymbol{A}^{T}\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{x}-\boldsymbol{x}^{T}\boldsymbol{A}^{T}\boldsymbol{b}-\boldsymbol{b}^{T}\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{x}+\boldsymbol{b}^{T}\boldsymbol{b} \\ &= \{\text{Since each element of the sum is a scalar, } \boldsymbol{b}^{T}\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{x}=\left(\boldsymbol{b}^{T}\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{x}\right)^{T}=\boldsymbol{x}^{T}\boldsymbol{A}^{T}\boldsymbol{b}\} \\ &\boldsymbol{x}^{T}\boldsymbol{A}^{T}\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{x}-2\boldsymbol{x}^{T}\boldsymbol{A}^{T}\boldsymbol{b}+\boldsymbol{b}^{T}\boldsymbol{b} \end{aligned}$$

To this quadratic expression corresponds a convex surface. Its minimum is found by setting its derivative to zero.

$$egin{aligned} \mathbf{0} &= 2 oldsymbol{A}^T oldsymbol{A} oldsymbol{x} - 2 oldsymbol{A}^T oldsymbol{b} \ &= oldsymbol{A}^T oldsymbol{A} oldsymbol{x} = oldsymbol{A}^T oldsymbol{b} \end{aligned}$$

Thus, when m > n, we solve $Ax \approx b$ by solving $A^T Ax = A^T b$. $A^T A$ is called the Gram matrix.

 ${\tt gram}\ {\tt y}\ {\tt computes}\ {\tt the}\ {\tt Gram}\ {\tt matrix}\ {\tt S}\ {\tt for}\ {\tt a}\ {\tt polynomial}\ {\tt basis}\ {\tt of}\ {\tt degree}\ {\tt y-1}.$

```
6a ⟨gram 6a⟩≡
gram=: 3 : 0
A=: X ^/ i.y
S=: (mp~ |:) A
)

6b ⟨utils 2c⟩+≡
mp=: +/ . * NB. matrix product
```

leastsq y solves the overdetermined linear system by computing the Gram matrix for a polynomial basis of degree y-1.

```
6c ⟨gram 6a⟩+≡

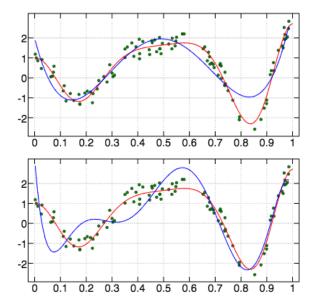
leastsq=: 3 : 0

gram y

c=: ((|:A) mp Y) %. S

YThat=: c&p. XT

plotpoly 0
```



0.5 gendat 100 leastsq 5

leastsq 8

1.4 Tikhonov regularization

With less examples than the number of basis functions (i.e. m < n, underdetermined system), Ax = b doesn't have a unique solution. Even with $m \ge n$, the linear system can have approximate solutions more desirable than the optimal one. In particular, this is the case when several examples are very similar. For example, the solution to...

$$\left(\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1.00001 \end{array}\right) \left(\begin{array}{c} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{array}\right) = \left(\begin{array}{c} 1 \\ 0.99 \end{array}\right)$$

... is $\boldsymbol{x}^T = (1001, -1000)$. However, the approximate solution $\boldsymbol{x}^T = (0.5, 0.5)$ is more suitable. Indeed, the optimal solution is not likely to adapt well to new inputs (e.g., input (1, 2) would be projected onto -999...).

Thus, when several solutions are feasible, we want to favor smaller norms $||x||_2$ by solving a new minimization problem:

$$\min_{\boldsymbol{x}} \|\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{b}\|_{2}^{2} + \alpha \|\boldsymbol{x}\|_{2}^{2}$$

$$with \quad 0 < \alpha < 1$$

The minimum of this expression is found by setting its derivative to zero.

$$0 = 2\mathbf{A}^{T}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - 2\mathbf{A}^{T}\mathbf{b} + 2\alpha\mathbf{x}$$

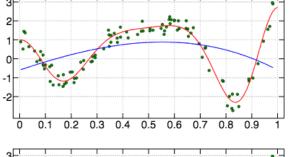
$$= \left(\mathbf{A}^{T}\mathbf{A} + \alpha\mathbf{I}_{n \times n}\right)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^{T}\mathbf{b}$$

It comes down to adding a small positive value to the diagonal of the Gram matrix. This approach has been given several names: Tikhonov regularization, ridge regression...

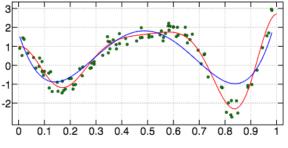
1E_3 ridge 5 will solve the ridge regression for a polynomial basis of degree 5 and a regularization coefficient equal to 10^{-3} .

```
8a  ⟨ridge 8a⟩≡
    ridge=: 4 : 0
        gram y
        c=: ((|:A) mp Y) %. x addDiag S
        YThat=: c&p. XT
        plotpoly 0
    )

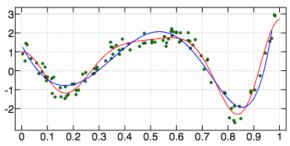
8b  ⟨utils 2c⟩+≡
        diag=: (<0 1)&|:: (([:(>:*i.)[:#])})
        addDiag=: ([+diag@]) diag ] NB. add x to the diagonal of y
```







1E_4 ridge 5



1E_4 ridge 8

1.5 Extreme Learning Machine

The following parameterized form of f corresponds to a single hidden layer neural network.

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = c_1 g(\mathbf{w_1} \cdot \mathbf{x} + b_1) + c_2 g(\mathbf{w_2} \cdot \mathbf{x} + b_2) + \dots + c_M g(\mathbf{w_M} \cdot \mathbf{x} + b_M)$$

g is a non-linear activation function. We use the rectified linear unit (ReLU): g(y) = max(0, y).

If vectors $w_1 \dots w_M$ and scalars $b_1 \dots b_M$ are initialized randomly and never modified (i.e., if they are not parameters), we can solve a linear system Hc = y of unknown c.

$$\boldsymbol{H}: \left(\begin{array}{cccc} g(\boldsymbol{w_1} \cdot \boldsymbol{x_1} + b_1) & \dots & g(\boldsymbol{w_M} \cdot \boldsymbol{x_1} + b_M) \\ \dots & \dots & \dots \\ g(\boldsymbol{w_1} \cdot \boldsymbol{x_N} + b_1) & \dots & g(\boldsymbol{w_M} \cdot \boldsymbol{x_N} + b_M) \end{array} \right)$$

$$oldsymbol{c}^T:(c_1\dots c_M) \ oldsymbol{y}^T:(y_1\dots y_N)$$

This approach is named Extreme Learning Machine ¹.

https://scholar.google.fr/scholar?q=extreme+learning+machine

initelm 100 initializes randomly matrix H with 100 neurons on the hidden layer (i.e., M=100) and computes its Gram form S.

```
\langle elm 10a \rangle \equiv
                                                                                                (11b) 10b⊳
10a
          initelm=: 3 : 0
            W=: _1 + 2 * ? (y,1) $ 0 NB. input weights
            B=: ? y $ 0 NB. bias
            H=: mkH ,. X
            0 [ S=: (mp~ |:) H
          mkH=: 3 : '0&>. B +"1 y mp"1/ W'
           elm 1E_4 solves the extreme learning machine linear system with a Tikhonov regularization
        coefficient of 10^{-4}.
10b
        \langle elm \ 10a \rangle + \equiv
                                                                                                 (11b) ⊲10a
          elm=: 3 : 0
            c=: ((|:H) mp Y) \%. y addDiag S
            YThat=: (mkH ,. XT) mp c
            plotelm 0
          )
        \langle plotelm \ 10c \rangle \equiv
10c
                                                                                                      (11b)
          plotelm=: 3 : 0
            plotdatnoshow 0
            pd 'type line'
            pd 'color blue'
            xs=: (] #~ minmaxX"_ sel ]) steps (<.<./X),(>.>./X),100
            pd xs; (mkH ,. xs) mp c
            pd 'show'
          )
```

