CSE 5526: Introduction to Neural Networks

Radial Basis Function (RBF) Networks

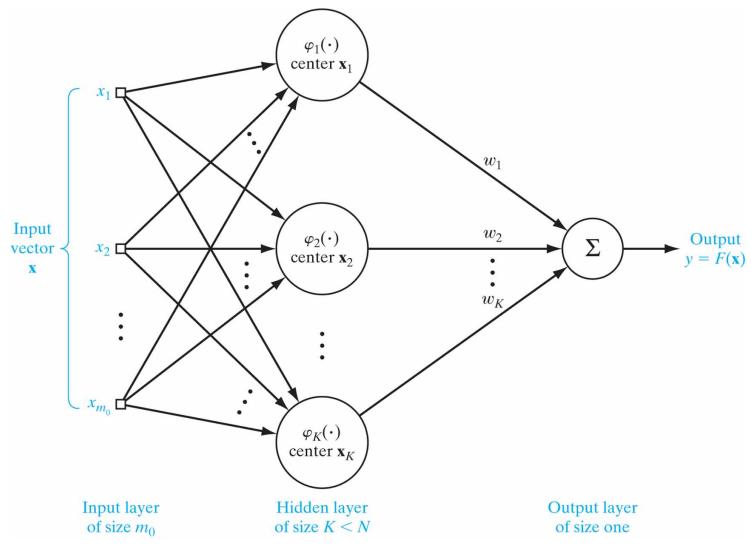
Function approximation

- We have been using MLPs as pattern classifiers
- But in general, they are function approximators
 - Depending on output layer nonlinearity
 - And error function being minimized
- As a function approximator, MLPs are nonlinear, semiparametric, and universal

Function approximation

- Radial basis function (RBF) networks are similar function approximators
- Also nonlinear, semiparametric, universal
- Can also be visualized as layered network of nodes
- Easier to train than MLPs
 - Do not require backpropagation
 - But do not necessarily find an optimal solution

RBF net illustration



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Function approximation background

- Before getting into RBF networks, let's discuss approximating scalar functions of a single variable
- Weierstrass approximation theorem: any continuous real function in an interval can be approximated arbitrarily well by a set of polynomials
- Taylor expansion approximates any differentiable function by a polynomial in the neighborhood around a point
- Fourier series gives a way of approximating any periodic function by a sum of sines and cosines

Linear projection

• Approximate function f (x) by a linear combination of simpler functions

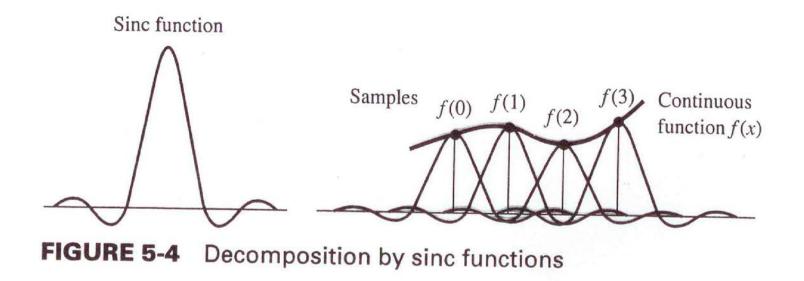
$$F(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{j} w_{j} \varphi_{j}(\mathbf{x})$$

If w_j's can be chosen so that approximation error is arbitrarily small for any function f (x) over the domain of interest, then {φ_j} has the property of universal approximation, or {φ_j} is complete

Example incomplete basis: sinc

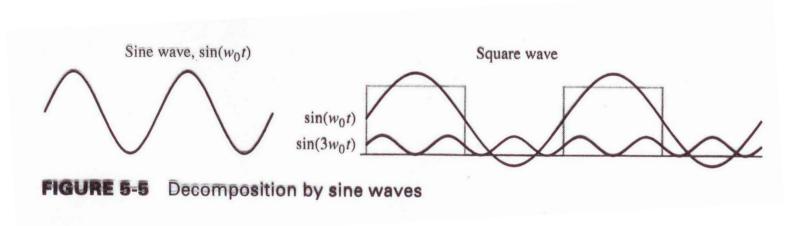
$$\operatorname{sinc}(x) = \frac{\sin(\pi x)}{\pi x}$$
 $\varphi_j(x) = \operatorname{sinc}(x - \mu_j)$

• Can approximate any smooth function



Example orthogonal complete basis: sinusoids

 $\varphi_{2n}(x) = \sin(2\pi n\omega x)$ $\varphi_{2n+1}(x) = \cos(2\pi n\omega x)$ Complete on the interval [0,1]



Example orthogonal complete basis: Chebyshev polynomials

$$T_{0}(x) = 1 \qquad T_{1}(x) = x \qquad T_{n+1}(x) = 2xT_{n}(x) - T_{n-1}(x)$$

Complete on the interval [0,1]
$$T_{2}(x) = 2x^{2} - 1$$

$$T_{3}(x) = 4x^{3} - 3x$$

etc.
$$T_{3}(x) = 4x^{3} - 3x$$

etc.

0.5

0.0

X

-0.5

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1.0

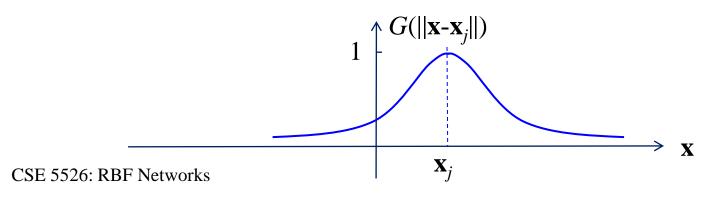
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Radial basis functions

- A radial basis function (RBF) is a basis function of the form $\varphi_j(\mathbf{x}) = \varphi(||\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_j||)$
 - Where $\varphi(r)$ is positive w/monotonic derivative for r > 0
- Consider a Gaussian RBF

$$\varphi_j(\mathbf{x}) = \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}\|\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{x}_j\|^2\right) = G(\|\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{x}_j\|)$$

• A *local* basis function, falling off from the center

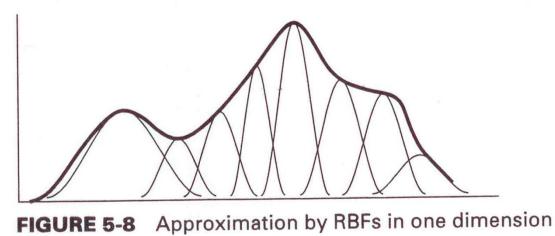


Radial basis functions (cont.)

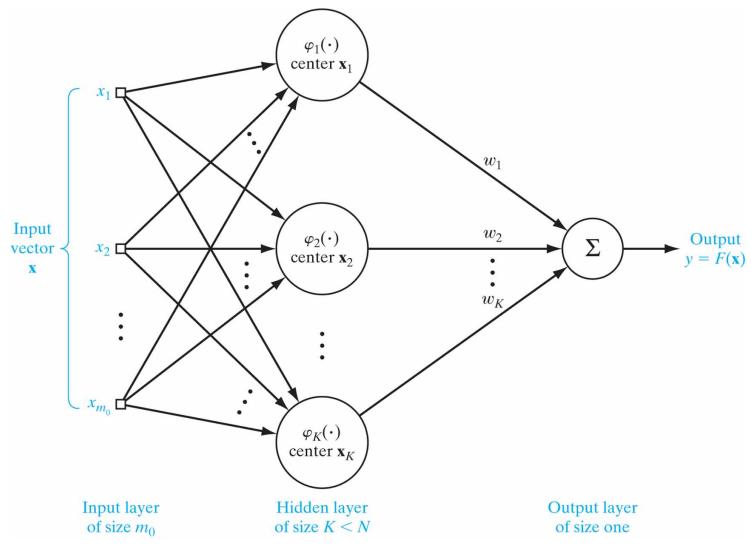
• Thus approximation by Gaussian RBF becomes

$$F(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{j} w_{j} G(||\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_{j}||)$$

- Gaussians are universal approximators
 - I.e., they form a complete basis



RBF net illustration



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Remarks (cont.)

- Other RBFs exist, but we won't be using them
- Multiquadrics

$$\varphi(x) = \sqrt{x^2 + c^2}$$

• Inverse multiquadrics

$$\varphi(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + c^2}}$$

- Micchelli's theorem (1986)
 - Let $\{x_i\}$ be a set of *N* distinct points, $\varphi(\cdot)$ be an RBF
 - Then the matrix $\phi_{ij} = \varphi(||\mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{x}_j||)$ is non-singular

Four questions to answer for RBF nets

- If we want to use Gaussian RBFs to approximate a function specified by training data
 - 1. How do we choose the Gaussian centers?
 - 2. How do we determine the Gaussian widths?
 - 3. How do we determine the weights w_i ?
 - 4. How do we select the number of bases?

1. How do we choose the Gaussian centers?

- Easy way: select *K* data points at random
- Potentially better way: unsupervised clustering, e.g. using the *K*-means algorithm

K-means algorithm

- Goal: Divide *N* input patterns into *K* clusters with minimum total variance
- In other words, partition patterns into *K* clusters *C_j* to minimize the following cost function

$$J = \sum_{j=1}^{K} \sum_{i \in C_j} ||\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{u}_j||^2$$

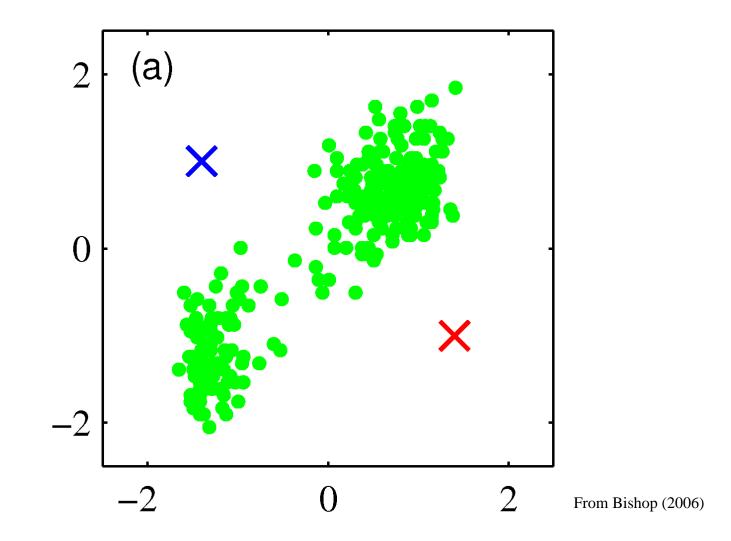
where $\mathbf{u}_j = \frac{1}{||C_j||} \sum_{i \in C_j} \mathbf{x}_i$ is the mean (center) of cluster *j*

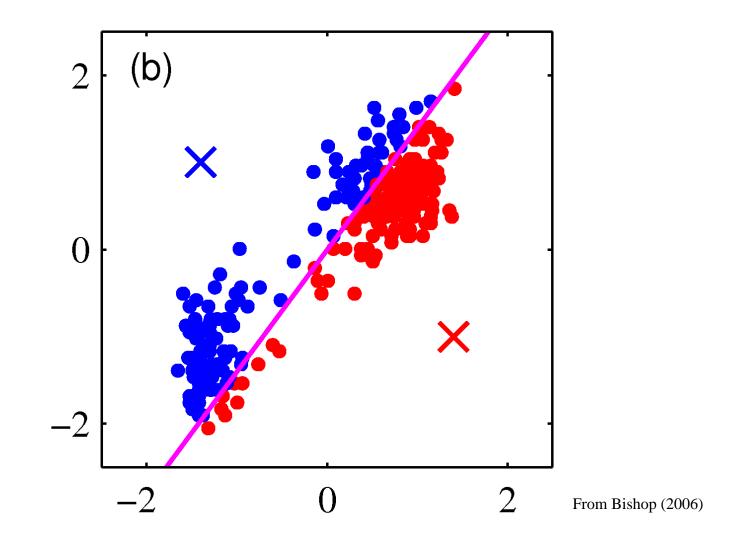
K-means algorithm

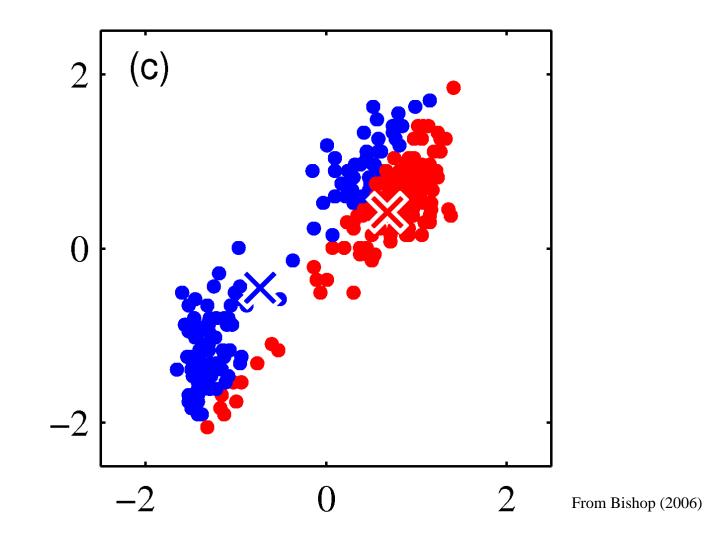
- 1. Choose a set of *K* cluster centers randomly from the input patterns
- 2. Assign the *N* input patterns to the *K* clusters using the squared Euclidean distance rule: **x** is assigned to C_j if $||\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{u}_j||^2 \le ||\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{u}_i||^2$ for all $i \ne j$
- 3. Update cluster centers

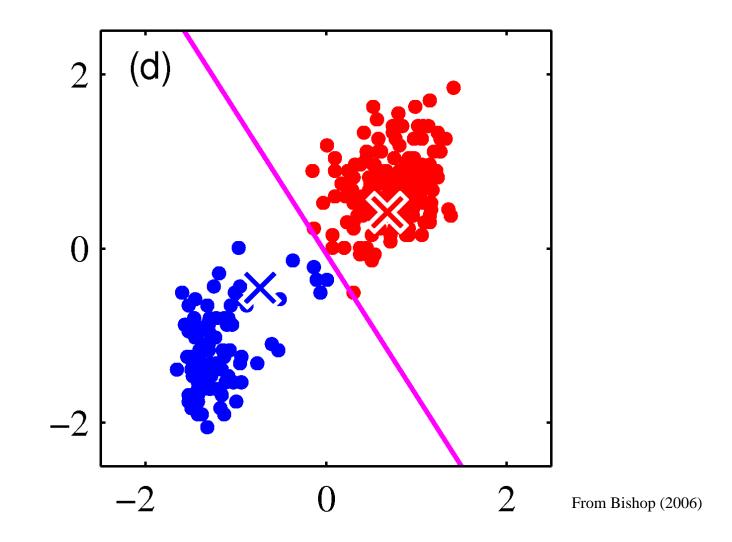
$$\mathbf{u}_j = \frac{1}{|C_j|} \sum_{i \in C_j} \mathbf{x}_i$$

4. If any cluster center changes, go to step 2; else stop

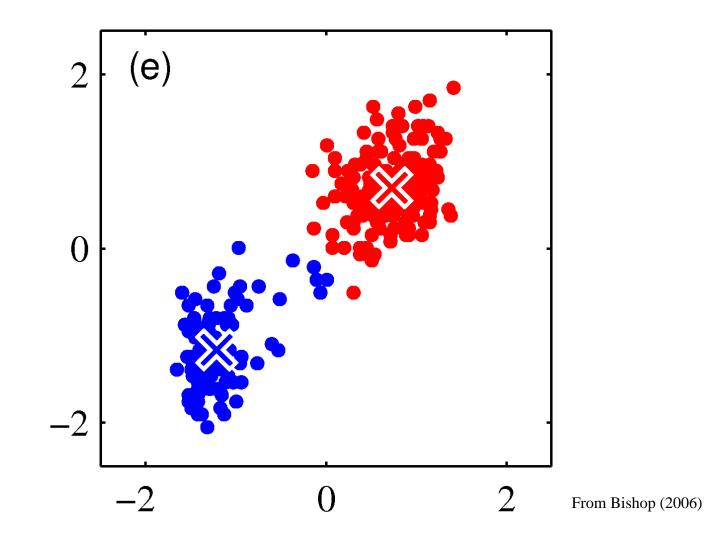


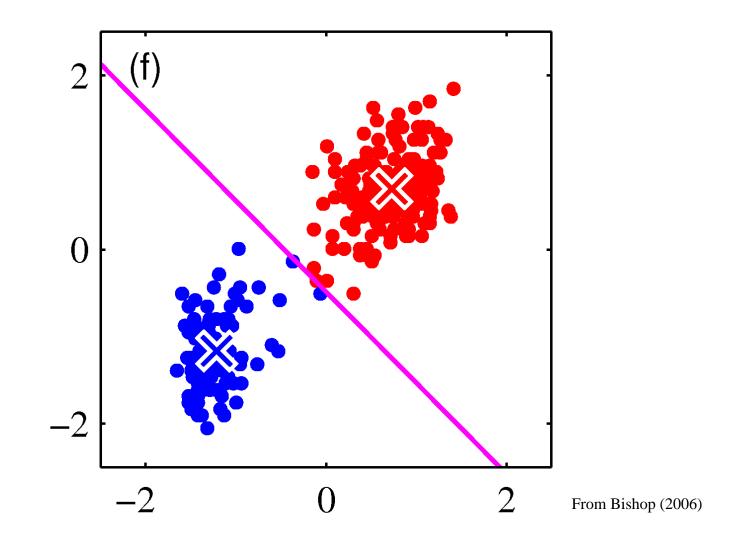


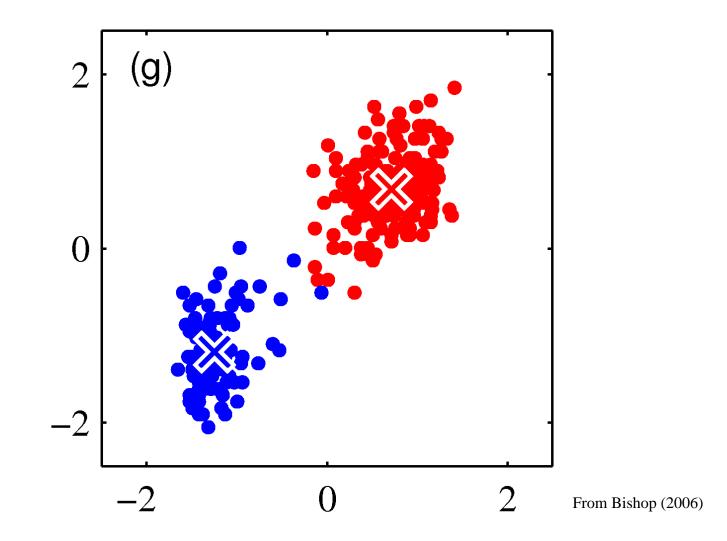


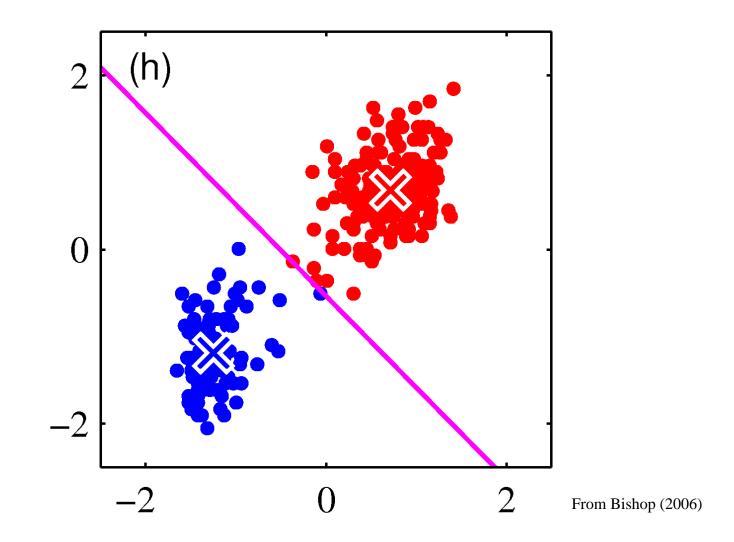


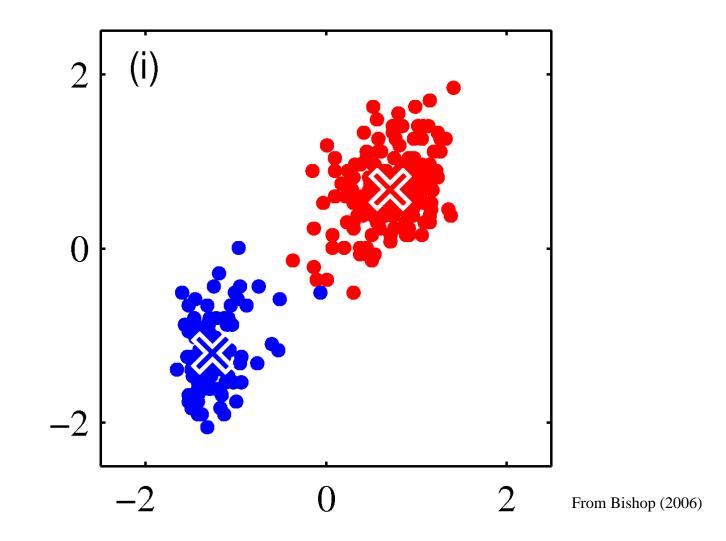
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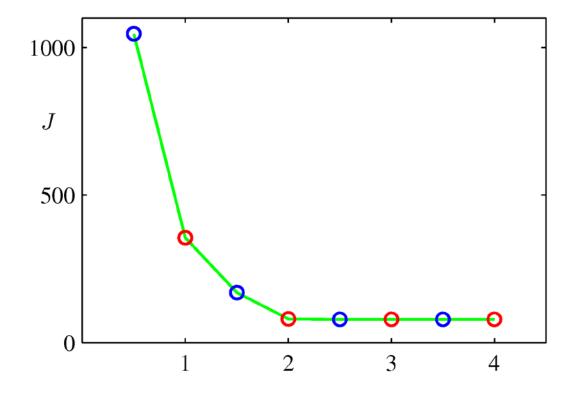








K-means cost function



From Bishop (2006)

K-means algorithm remarks

• The *K*-means algorithm always converges, but only to a local minimum

2. How to determine the Gaussian widths?

• Once cluster centers are determined, the variance within each cluster can be set to

$$\sigma_j^2 = \frac{1}{|C_j|} \sum_{i \in C_j} ||\mathbf{u}_j - \mathbf{x}_i||^2$$

• **Remark**: to simplify the RBF net design, all clusters can assume the same Gaussian width:

$$\sigma = \frac{d_{\max}}{\sqrt{2K}}$$

where d_{max} is the maximum distance between the *K* cluster centers

3. How do we determine the weights w_j ?

- With the hidden layer decided, weight training can be treated as a linear regression problem $\Phi w = d$
- Can solve using the LMS algorithm
- The textbook discusses recursive least squares (RLS) solutions
- Can also solve in one shot using the pseudo-inverse $w = \Phi^+ d = (\Phi^T \Phi)^{-1} \Phi^T d$
- Note that a bias term needs to be included in $\boldsymbol{\Phi}$

4. How do we select the number of bases?

- The same problem as that of selecting the size of an MLP for classification
- The short answer: (cross-)validation
- The long answer: by balancing bias and variance

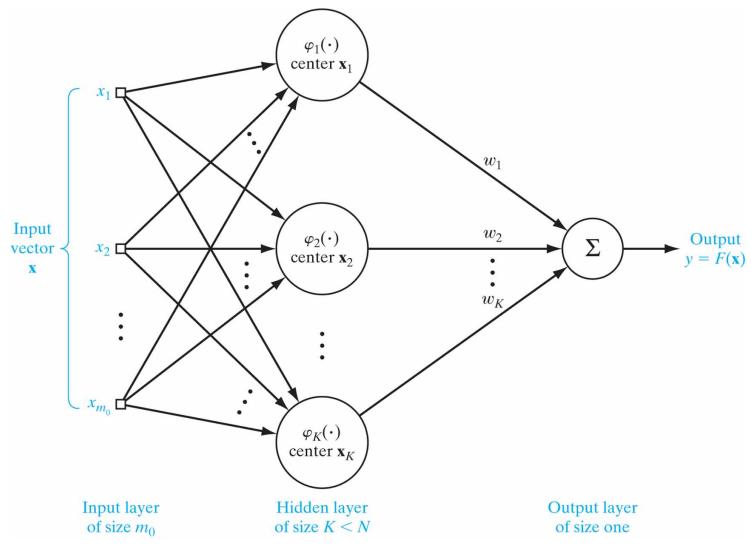
Bias and variance

- Bias: training error
 - Difference between desired output and actual output for a particular training sample
- Variance: generalization error
 - difference between the learned function from a particular training sample and the function derived from all training samples
- Two extreme cases: zero bias and zero variance
- A good-sized model is one where both bias and variance are low

RBF net training summary

- To train
 - 1. Choose the Gaussian centers using *K*-means, etc.
 - 2. Determine the Gaussian widths as the variance of each cluster, or using d_{max}
 - 3. Determine the weights w_i using linear regression
- Select the number of bases using (cross-)validation

RBF net illustration



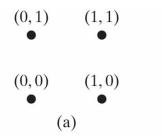
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Comparison between RBF net and MLP

- For RBF nets, bases are local, while for MLP, "bases" are global
- Generally, more bases are needed for an RBF net than hidden units for an MLP
- Training is more efficient for RBF nets

XOR problem, again

- RBF nets can also be applied to pattern classification problems
 - XOR problem revisited



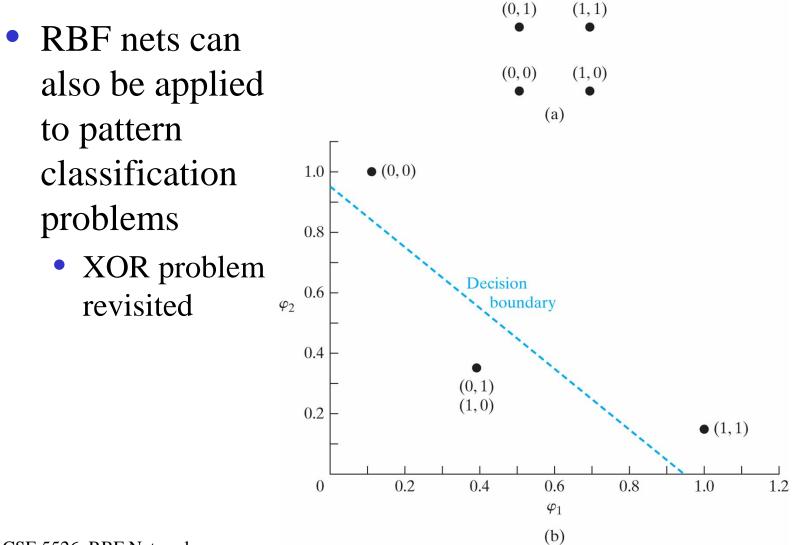
Let $\varphi_1(x) = \exp(-\|x - t_1\|^2)$ $\varphi_2(x) = \exp(-\|x - t_2\|^2)$

Where $t_1 = [1,1]^T$ $t_2 = [0,0]^T$

XOR problem (cont.)

TABLE 5.1Specification of the Hidden Functions for the XOR Problem of Example 1		
Input Pattern x	First Hidden Function $\varphi_1(\mathbf{x})$	Second Hidden Function $\phi_2(\mathbf{x})$
(1,1)	1	0.1353
(0,1)	0.3678	0.3678
(0,0)	0.1353	1
(1,0)	0.3678	0.3678

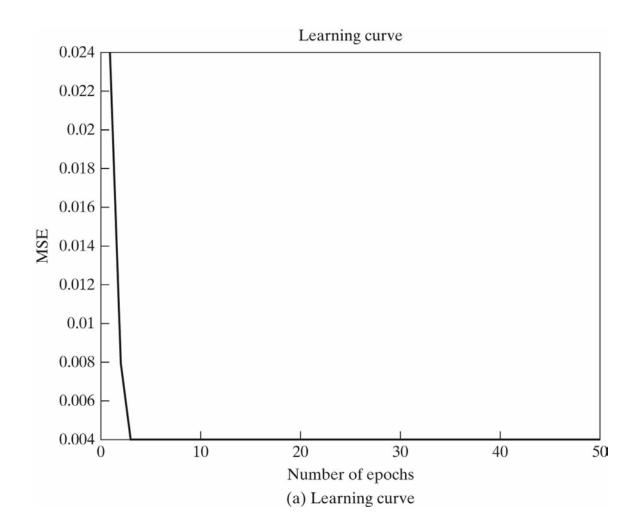
XOR problem, again

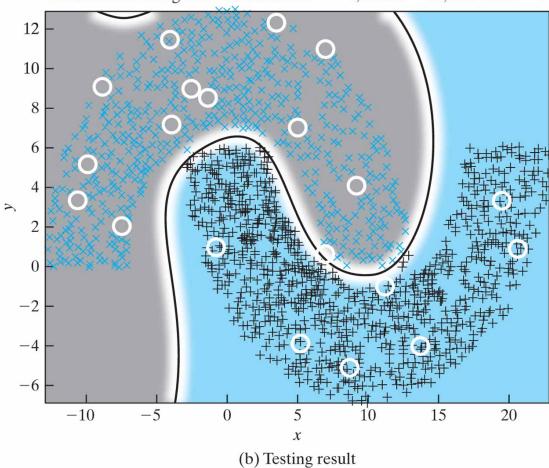


12 10 8 6 4 2 2 0 -2-4-6-5-100 10 15 20 5 х (b) Testing result

Classification using RBF with distance = -5, radius = 10, and width = 6

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Classification using RBF with distance = -6, radius = 10, and width = 6

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