NEURAL NETWORKS FOR SYSTEM MODELING

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Outline

- Introduction
- System identification: a short overview
 - Classical results
 - Black box modeling
- Neural networks architectures
 - An overview
 - Neural networks for system modeling
- Applications



Introduction

• The goal of this course:

to show why and how neural networks can be applied for system identification

- Basic concepts and definitions of system identification
 - classical identification methods
 - different approaches in system identification
- Neural networks
 - classical neural network architectures
 - support vector machines
 - modular neural architectures
- The questions of the practical applications, answers based on a real industrial modeling task (case study)



System identification

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System identification: a short overview

- Modeling
- Identification
 - Model structure selection
 - Model parameter estimation
- Non-parametric identification
 - Using general model structure
- Black-box modeling
 - Input-output modeling, the description of the behaviour of a system





- What is a model?
- Why we need models?
- What models can be built?
- How to build models?



- What is a model?
 - Some (formal) description of a system, a separable part of the world.

Represents essential aspects of a system

- Main features:
 - All models are imperfect. Only some aspects are taken into consideration, while many other aspects are neglected.
 - Easier to work with models than with the real systems
- Key concepts: separation, selection, parsimony



• Separation:

- the boundaries of the system have to be defined.
- system is separated from all other parts of the world

• Selection:

Only certain aspects are taken into consideration e.g.

- information relation, interactions
- energy interactions

• Parsimony:

It is desirable to use as simple model as possible

- Occam's razor (William of Ockham or Occam) 14th Century English philosopher)

The most likely hypothesis is the simplest one that is consistent with all observations

The simpler of two theories, two models is to be preferred.



- Why do we need models?
 - To understand the world around (or its defined part)
 - To simulate a system
 - to predict the behaviour of the system (prediction, forecasting),
 - to determine faults and the cause of misoperations, fault diagnosis, error detection,
 - to control the system to obtain prescribed behaviour,
 - to increase observability: to estimate such parameters which are not directly observable (indirect measurement),
 - system optimization.
 - Using a model
 - we can avoid making real experiments,
 - we do not disturb the operation of the real system,
 - more safe then working with the real system,
 - etc...



- What models can be built?
 - Approaches
 - functional models
 - parts and its connections based on the functional role in the system
 - physical models
 - based on physical laws, analogies (e.g. electrical analog circuit model of a mechanical system)
 - mathematical models
 - mathematical expressions (algebraic, differential equations, logic functions, finite-state machines, etc.)



- What models can be built?
 - A priori information
 - physical models, "first principle" models use laws of nature
 - models based on observations (experiments) the real physical system is required for obtaining observations
 - Aspects
 - structural models
 - input-output (behavioral) models



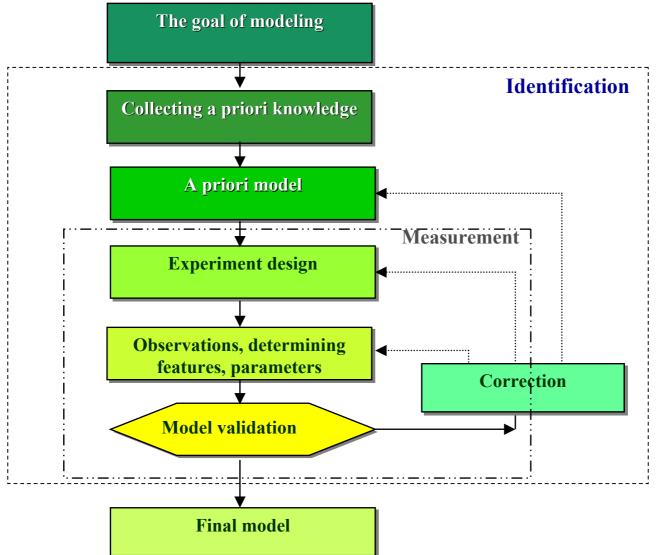
- What is identification?
 - Identification is the process of deriving a (mathematical) model of a system using observed data



Measurements

- Empirical process
 - to obtain experimental data (observations),
 - primary information collection, or
 - to obtain additional information to the a priori one.
 - to use the experimental data for obtaining (determining) the free parameters (features) of a model.
 - to validate the model

Identification (measurement)





- Based on the system characteristics
- Based on the modeling approach
- Based on the a priori information



- Based on the system characteristics
 - Static dynamic
 - Deterministic stochastic
 - Continuous-time discrete-time
 - Lumped parameter distributed parameter
 - Linear non-linear

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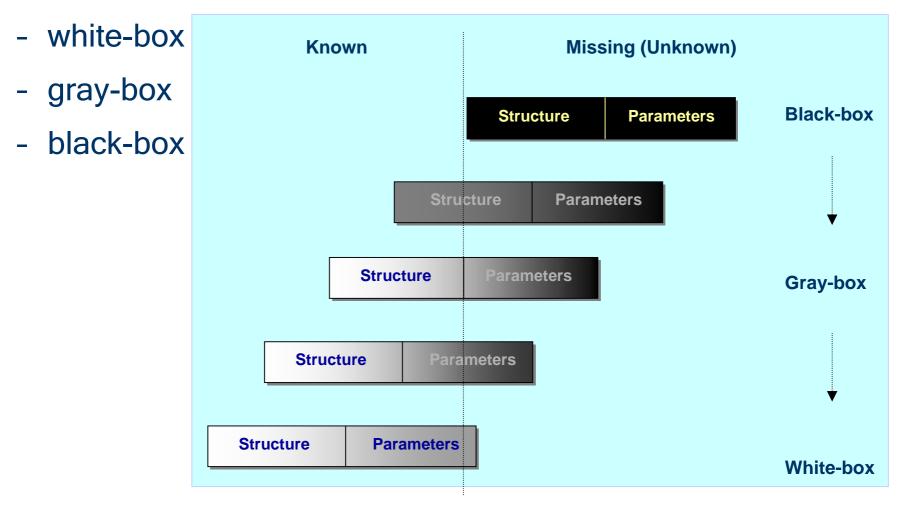
- Time invariant - time variant



- Based on the modeling approach
 - parametric
 - known model structure
 - limited number of unknown parameters
 - nonparametric
 - no definite model structure
 - described in many points (frequency characteristics, impulse response)
 - semi-parametric
 - general class of functional forms are allowed
 - the number of parameters can be increased independently of the size of the data



• Based on the a priori information (physical insight)





- Main steps
 - collect information
 - model set selection
 - experiment design and data collection
 - determine model parameters (estimation)
 - model validation



- Collect information
 - physical insight (a priori information)
 - understanding the physical behaviour
 - only observations or experiments can be designed
 - application
 - what operating conditions
 - one operating point
 - a large range of different conditions
 - what purpose
 - scientific basic research
 - engineering
 - to study the behavior of a system,
 - to detect faults,
 - to design control systems,
 - etc.





- Model set selection
 - static dynamic
 - linear non-linear
 - non-linear
 - linear in the parameters
 - non-linear in the parameters
 - white-box black-box
 - parametric non-parametric



- Model structure selection
 - known model structure (available a priori information)
 - no physical insights, general model structure
 - general rule: always use as simple model as possible (Occam's razor)
 - linear
 - feed-forward
 - ٠
 - -)



Experiment design and data collection

Excitation

- input signal selection
- design of excitation
 - time domain or frequency domain identification (random signal, multi-sine excitation, impulse response, frequency characteristics)
 - persistent excitation
- Measurement of input-output data
 - no possibility to design excitation signal
 - noisy data, missing data, distorted data
 - non-representing data

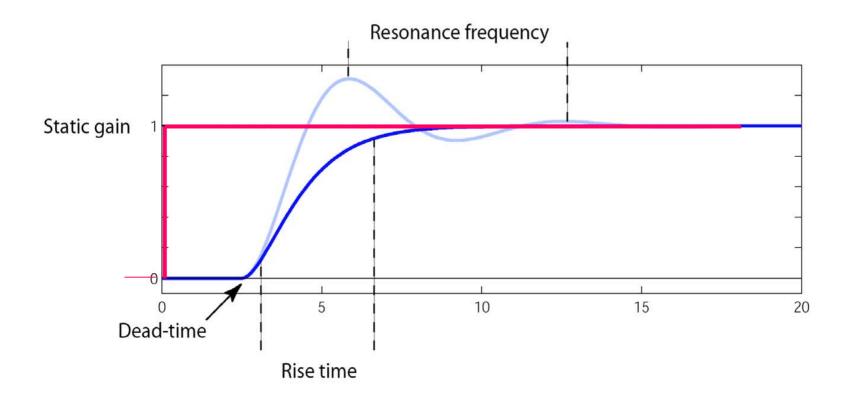


- Step function
- Random signal (autoregressive moving average (ARMA) process)
- Pseudorandom binary sequence
- Multisine

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• Step function





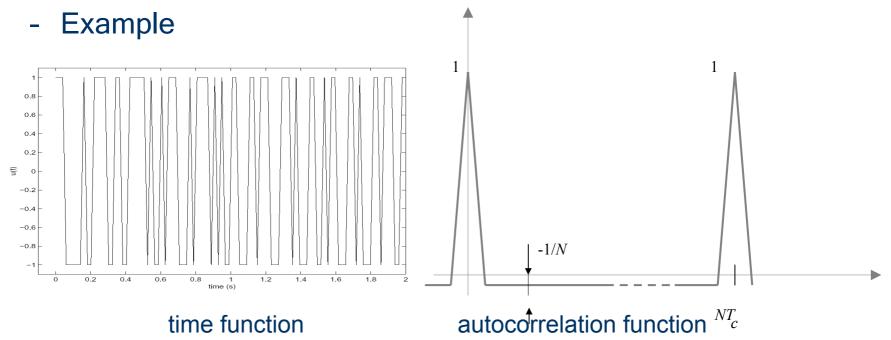
- Random signal (autoregressive moving average (ARMA) process)
 - obtained by filtering white noise
 - filter is selected according to the desired frequency characteristic
 - an ARMA(*p*,*q*) process can be characterized
 - in time domain
 - in lag (correlation) domain
 - in frequency domain



- Pseudorandom binary sequence
 - The signal switches between two levels with given probability

$$u(k+1) = \begin{cases} u(k) & \text{with probability } p \\ -u(k) & \text{with probability } 1-p \end{cases}$$

- Frequency characteristics depend on the probability p

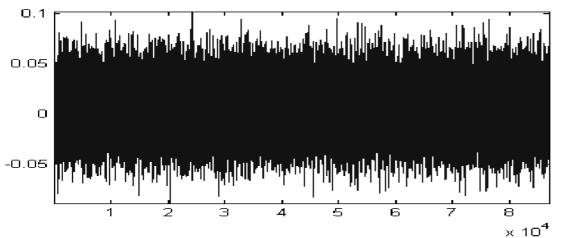


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- Multisine $u(k) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} U_k \cos\left(2\pi \frac{k}{N} f_{\max} + \varphi(k)\right)$
 - where f_{max} is the maximum frequency of the excitation signal, *K* is the number of frequency components
- Crest factor

 $CF = \frac{\max(|u(t)|)}{u_{rms}(t)}$

minimizing CF with the selection of φ phases



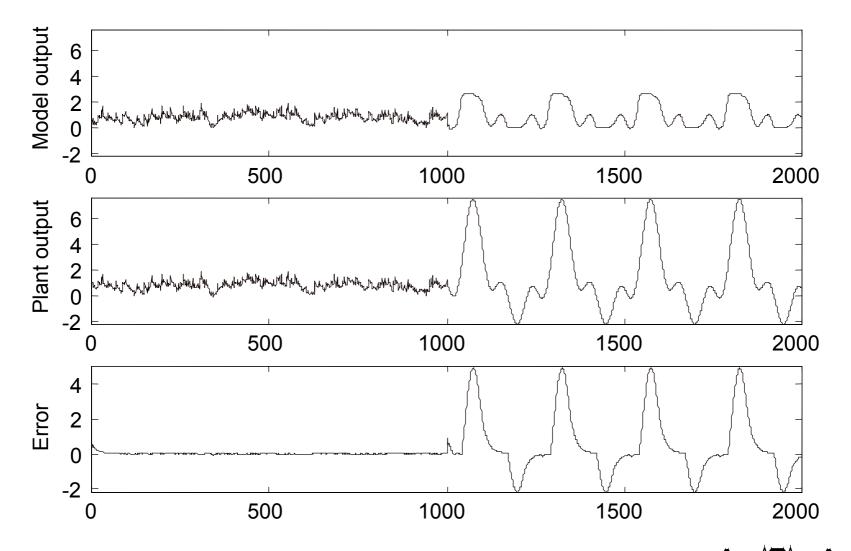
Multisine with minimal crest factor



- Persistent excitation
 - The excitation signal must be "rich" enough to excite all modes of the system
 - Mathematical formulation of persistent excitation
- For linear systems
 - Input signal should excite all frequencies, amplitude not so important
- For nonlinear systems
 - Input signal should excite all frequencies and amplitudes
 - Input signal should sample the full regressor space

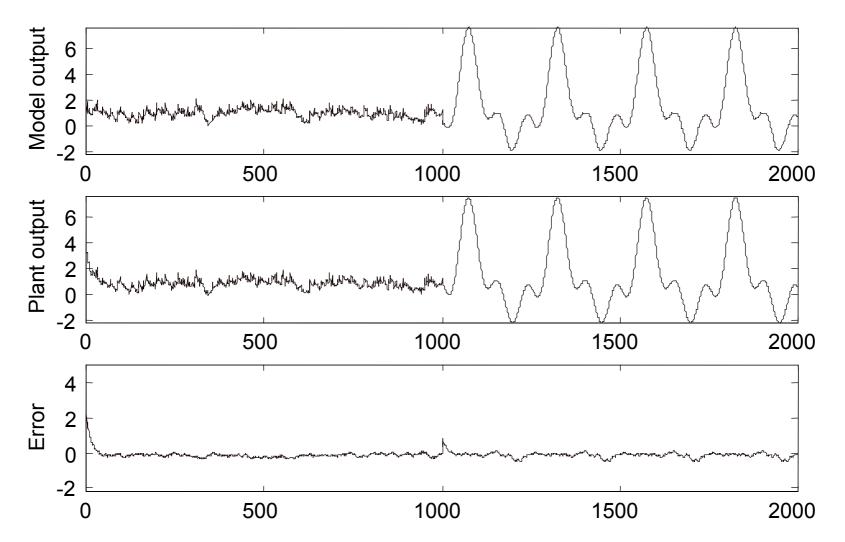


The role of excitation: small excitation signal (nonlinear system identification)



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The role of excitation: large excitation signal (nonlinear system identification)



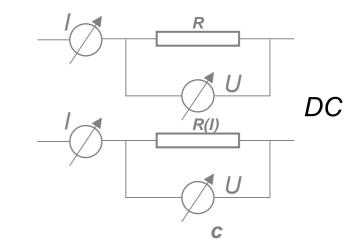


Modeling (some examples)

- Resistor modeling
- Model of a duct (an anti-noise problem)
- Model of a steel converter (model of a complex industrial process)
- Model of a signal (time series modeling)



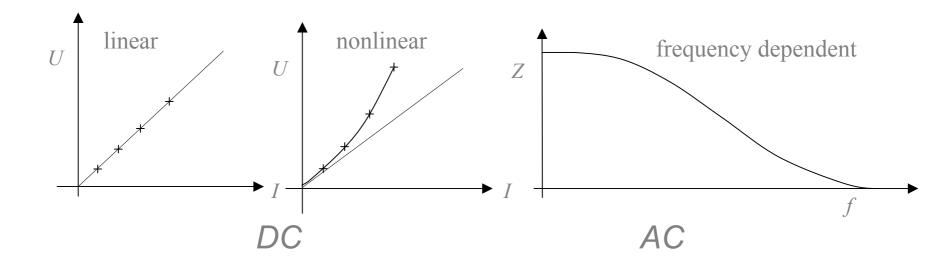
- Resistor modeling
 - the goal of modeling: to get a description of a physical system (electrical component)
 - parametric model
 - linear model
 - constant parameter U = RI
 - variant model U = R(I)I



• frequency dependent

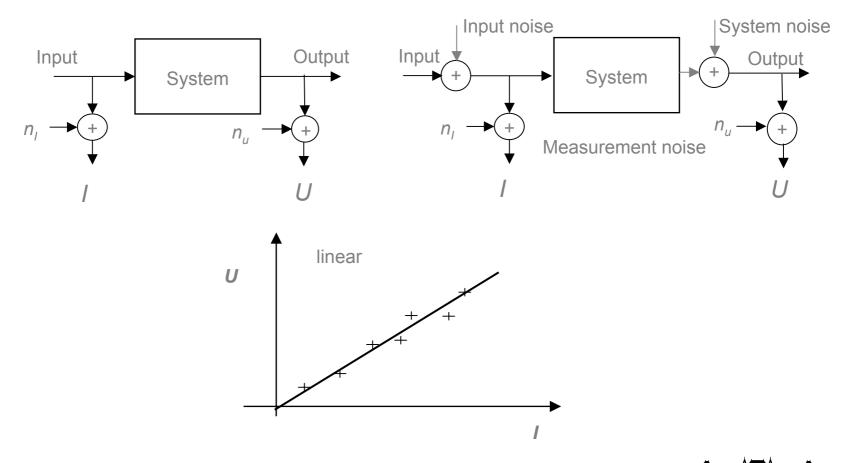
$$U(f) = Z(f)I(f)$$
 $Z(f) = \frac{U(f)}{I(f)}$ $Z(f) = \frac{R}{j 2\pi f R C + 1}$ AC

- Resistor modeling
 - nonparametric model





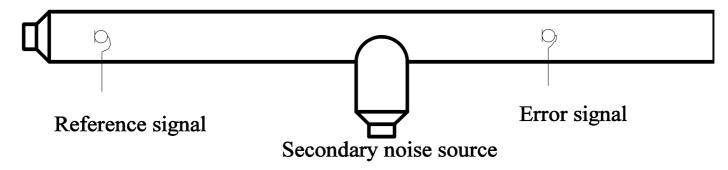
- Resistor modeling
 - parameter estimation based on noisy measurements



- Model of a duct
 - the goal of modeling: to design a controller for noise compensation.

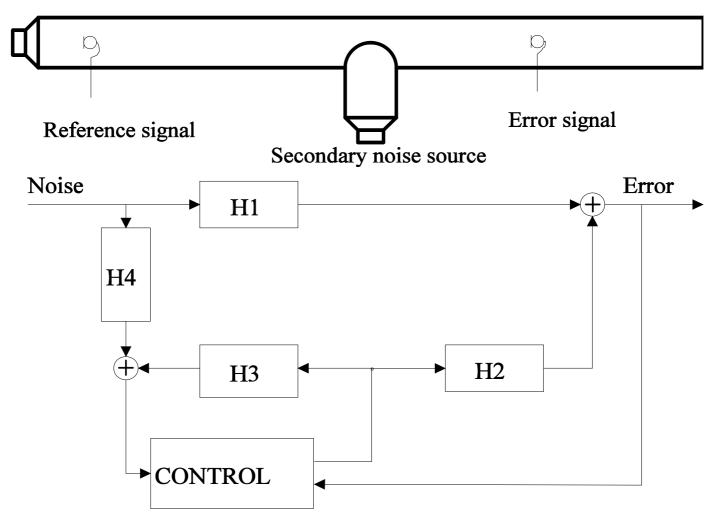
active noise control problem

Primary noise source





Primary noise source



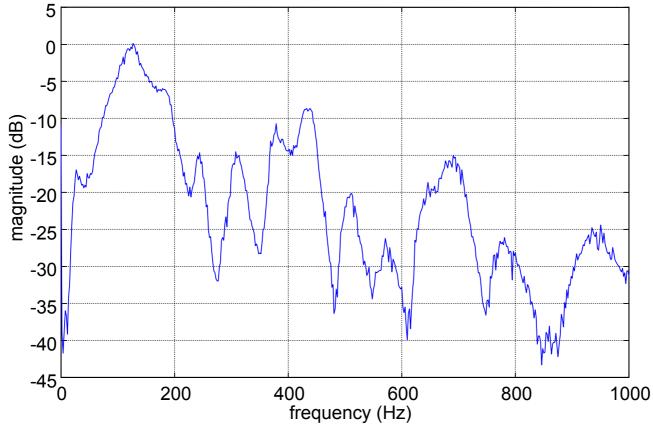


- Model of a duct
 - physical modeling: general knowledge about acoustical effects; propagation of sound, etc.
 - no physical insight. *Input:* sound pressure, *output:* sound pressure
 - what signals: stochastic or deterministic: periodic, nonperiodic, combined, etc.
 - what frequency range
 - time invariant or not
 - fixed solution, adaptive solution. Model structure is fixed, model parameters are estimated and adjusted: adaptive solution



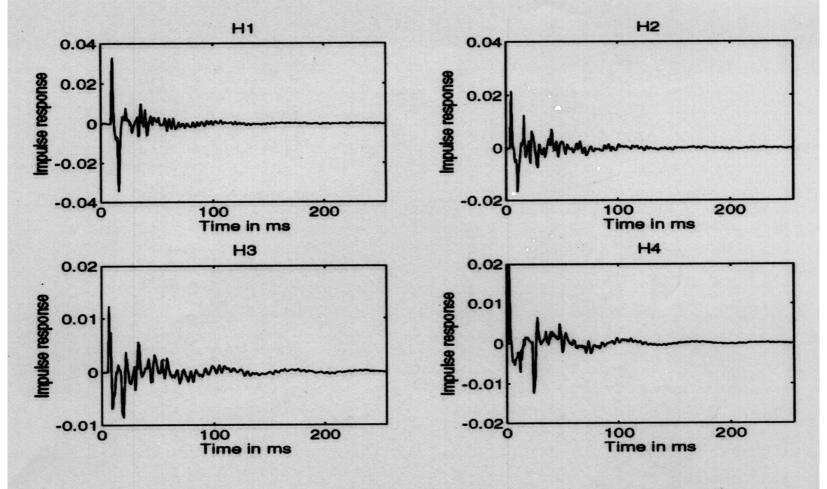


- Model of a duct
 - nonparametric model of the duct (H1)
 - FIR filter with 10-100 coefficients



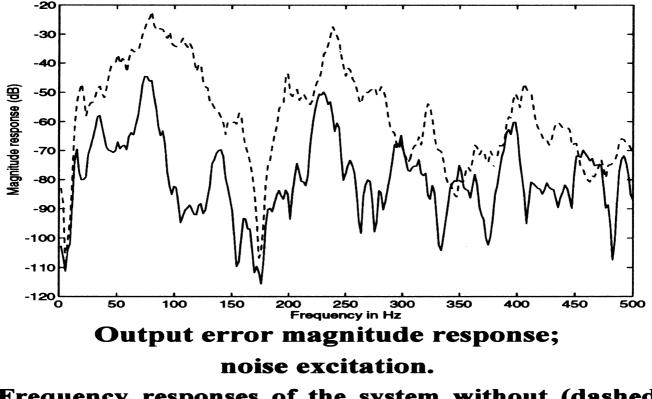


Nonparametric models: impulse responses





• The effect of active noise compensation



Frequency responses of the system without (dashed line) and with the application of adaptive controller (solid line).



 Model of a steel converter (LD converter)



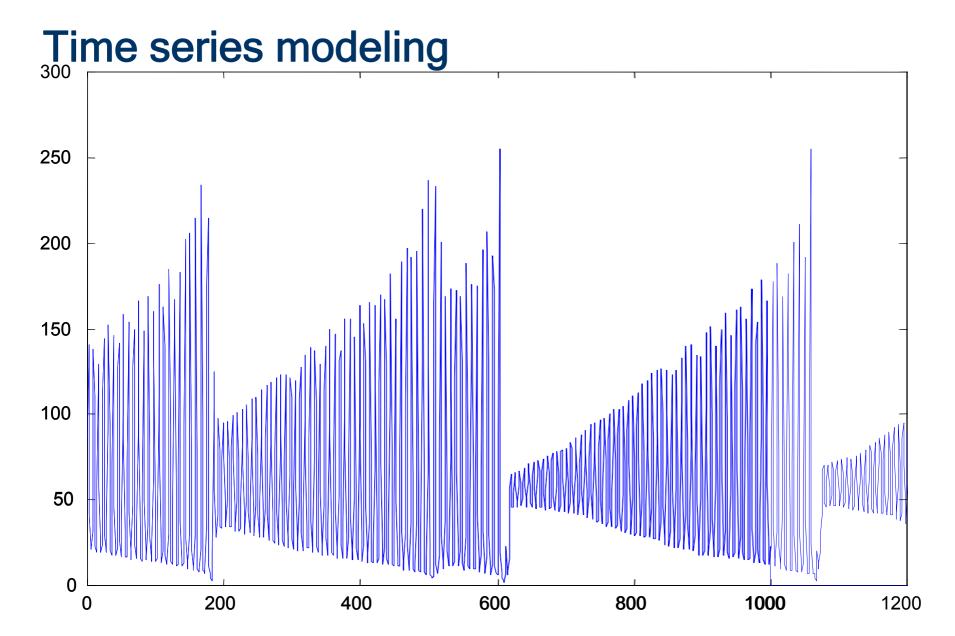


- Model of a steel converter (LD converter)
 - the goal of modeling: to control steel-making process to get predetermined quality steel
 - physical insight:
 - complex physical-chemical process with many inputs
 - heat balance, mass balance
 - many unmeasurable (input) variables (parameters)
 - no physical insight:
 - there are input-output measurement data
 - no possibility to design input signal, no possibility to cover the whole range of operation



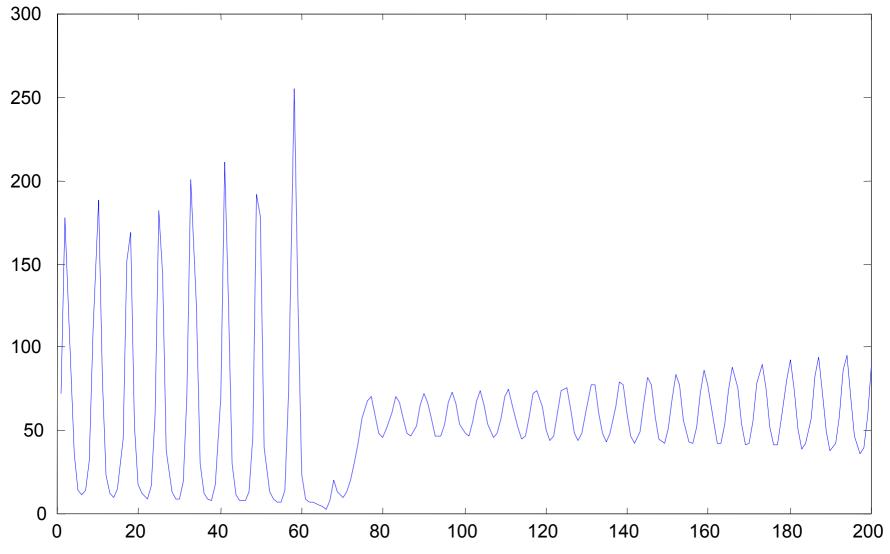
- Time series modeling
 - the goal of modeling: to predict the future behaviour of a signal (forecasting)
 - financial time series
 - physical phenomena e.g. sunspot activity
 - electrical load prediction
 - an interesting project: Santa Fe competition
 - etc.
 - signal modeling = system modeling





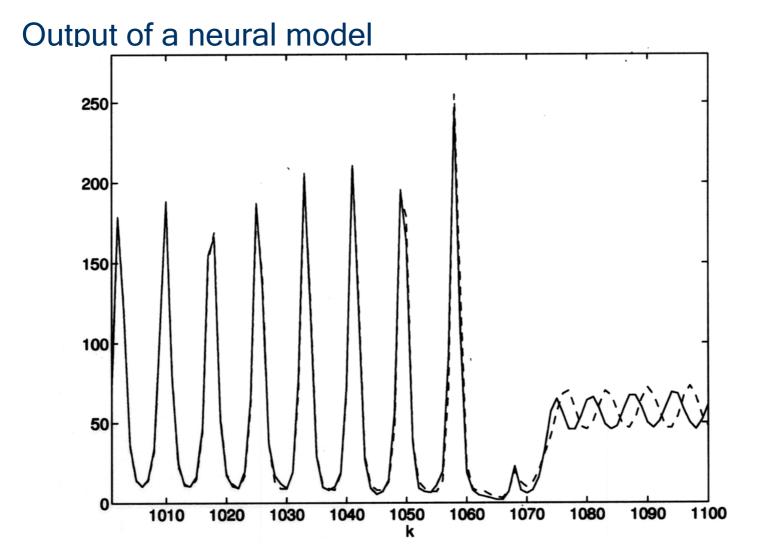


Time series modeling





Time series modeling





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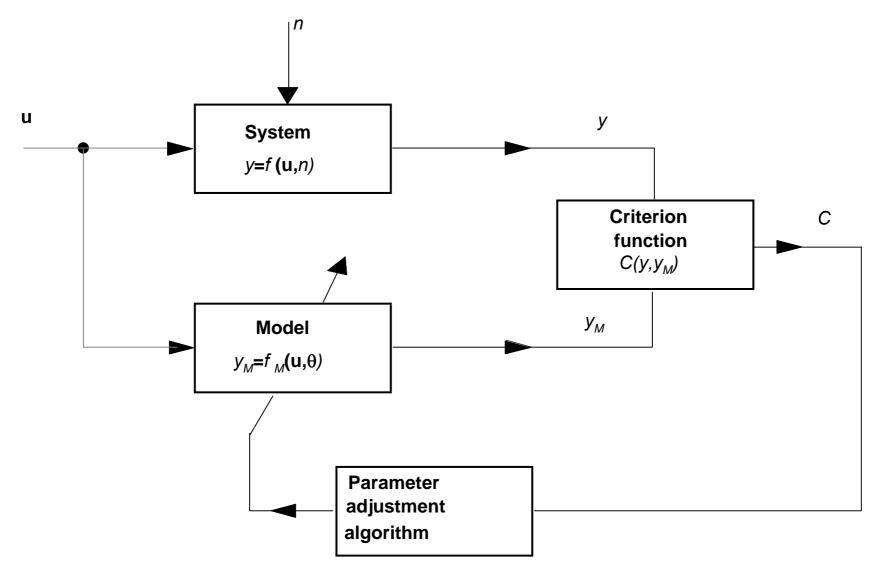


Identification (linear systems)

- Parametric identification (parameter estimation)
 - LS estimation
 - ML estimation
 - Bayes estimation
- Nonparametric identification
 - Transient analysis
 - Correlation analysis
 - Frequency analysis









- Parameter estimation
 - linear system

$$\mathbf{U} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}(1)^T \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{u}(N)^T \end{bmatrix} \qquad \begin{aligned} \mathbf{y}(i) = \mathbf{u}(i)^T \Theta + n(i) = \sum_{j=1}^L u_j(i)\Theta_j + n(i) & i = 1, 2, ..., N \\ \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{U}\Theta + \mathbf{n} \\ \mathbf{y}^T = \mathbf{y}_N^T = \begin{bmatrix} y(1) & \cdots & y(N) \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

- linear-in-the parameter model

$$y_M(i) = \mathbf{u}(i)^T \hat{\Theta} = \sum_j u_j(i) \hat{\Theta}_j \qquad \mathbf{y}_M = \mathbf{U} \hat{\Theta}$$

- criterion (loss) function

$$\varepsilon(\hat{\Theta}) = \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{y}_M(\hat{\Theta}) \qquad V(\hat{\Theta}) = V(\varepsilon(\hat{\Theta})) = V(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{y}_M) = V(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{y}_M(\hat{\Theta}))$$



LS estimation

quadratic loss function

$$V(\hat{\boldsymbol{\Theta}}) = \frac{1}{2} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^{T} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}(i)^{2} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(y(i) - \mathbf{u}(i)^{T} \hat{\boldsymbol{\Theta}} \right) \left(y(i) - \mathbf{u}(i)^{T} \hat{\boldsymbol{\Theta}} \right) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\mathbf{y}_{N} - \mathbf{U} \hat{\boldsymbol{\Theta}} \right)^{T} \left(\mathbf{y}_{N} - \mathbf{U} \hat{\boldsymbol{\Theta}} \right)$$

LS estimate

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\Theta}}_{LS} = \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{\hat{\boldsymbol{\Theta}}} V(\hat{\boldsymbol{\Theta}}) \qquad \frac{\partial V(\hat{\boldsymbol{\Theta}})}{\partial \hat{\boldsymbol{\Theta}}} = 0$$

 $\hat{\boldsymbol{\Theta}}_{LS} = (\mathbf{U}_{N}^{T} \mathbf{U}_{N})^{-1} \mathbf{U}_{N}^{T} \mathbf{y}_{N}$

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- Weighted LS estimation
 - weighted quadratic loss function

 $V(\hat{\boldsymbol{\Theta}}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \varepsilon(i)^2 = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,k=1}^{N} \left(y(i) - \mathbf{u}(i)^T \hat{\boldsymbol{\Theta}} \right) q_{ik} \left(y(k) - \mathbf{u}(k)^T \hat{\boldsymbol{\Theta}} \right) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\mathbf{y}_N - \mathbf{U} \hat{\boldsymbol{\Theta}} \right)^T \mathbf{Q} \left(\mathbf{y}_N - \mathbf{U} \hat{\boldsymbol{\Theta}} \right)$

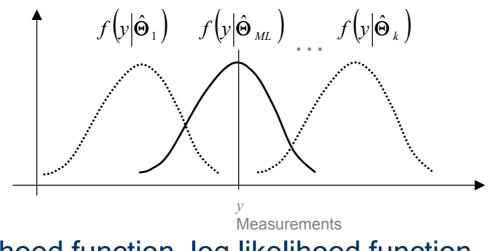
weighted LS estimate

 $\hat{\boldsymbol{\Theta}}_{WLS} = (\mathbf{U}_{N}^{T}\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{U}_{N})^{-1}\mathbf{U}_{N}^{T}\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{y}_{N}$

- Gauss-Markov estimate (*BLUE=best linear unbiased* estimate) $E\{n\}=0$ $cov[n]=\Sigma$ $Q=\Sigma^{-1}$ $\hat{\Theta}_{WIS} = (\mathbf{U}_{N}^{T}\Sigma^{-1}\mathbf{U}_{N})^{-1}\mathbf{U}_{N}^{T}\Sigma^{-1}\mathbf{y}_{N}$



- Maximum likelihood estimation
 - we select the estimate which makes the given observations most probable



- likelihood function, log likelihood function
 - $f(\mathbf{y}_N | \hat{\mathbf{\Theta}}) \qquad \log f(\mathbf{y}_N | \hat{\mathbf{\Theta}})$
- maximum likelihood estimate

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\Theta}}_{ML} = \operatorname*{arg\,max}_{\hat{\boldsymbol{\Theta}}} f(\mathbf{y}_N | \hat{\boldsymbol{\Theta}})$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \hat{\boldsymbol{\Theta}}} \log f(\mathbf{y}_N | \hat{\boldsymbol{\Theta}}) = \mathbf{0}$$

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- Properties of ML estimates
 - consistency

$$\lim_{N \to \infty} P\left\{ \left| \hat{\boldsymbol{\Theta}}_{ML(N)} - \boldsymbol{\Theta} \right| > \varepsilon \right\} = 0 \quad \text{for any} \quad \varepsilon > 0$$

- asymptotic normality

 $\hat{\Theta}_{ML(N)}$ converges to a normal random variable as $N \rightarrow \infty$

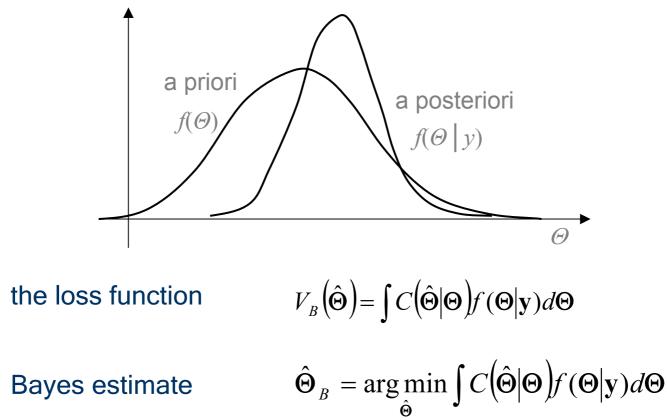
 asymptotic efficiency: the variance reaches *Cramer-Rao* lower bound

$$\lim_{N \to \infty} \operatorname{var}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\Theta}}_{ML(N)} - \boldsymbol{\Theta}) = -\left(E\left\{\frac{\partial^2 \ln f(y|\boldsymbol{\Theta})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\Theta}^2}\right\}\right)^{-1}$$

- Gauss-Markov if $f(\mathbf{y}_N | \hat{\mathbf{\Theta}})$ Gaussian

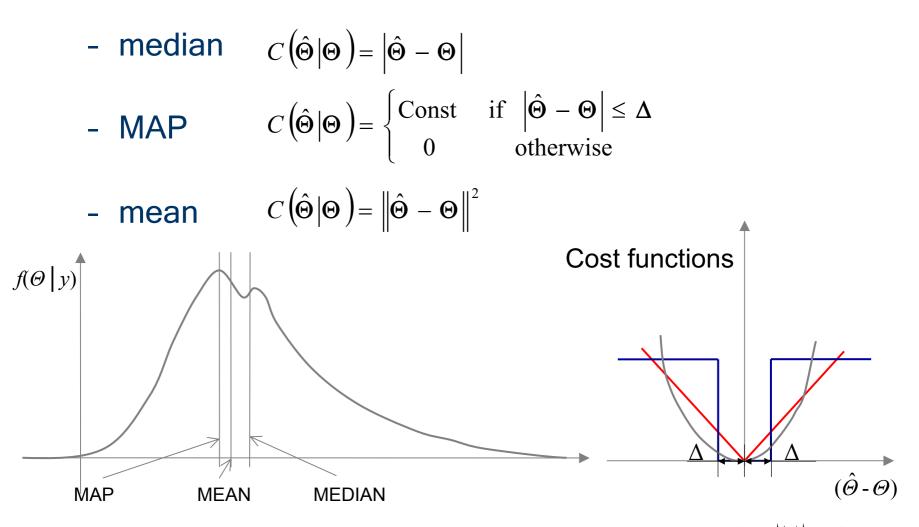


- Bayes estimation
 - the parameter Θ is a random variable with known pdf





Bayes estimation with different cost functions



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- Recursive estimations
 - $\hat{\Theta}(k)$ is estimated from $\{y(i)\}_{i=1}^{k-1}$
 - y(k) is predicted as $y_M(k) = \mathbf{u}(k)^T \hat{\mathbf{\Theta}}$
 - the error $e(k) = y(k) y_M(k)$ is determined
 - update the estimate $\hat{\Theta}(k+1)$ from $\hat{\Theta}(k)$ and e(k)



- Recursive estimations
 - least mean square LMS

 $\hat{\boldsymbol{\Theta}}(k+1) = \hat{\boldsymbol{\Theta}}(k) + \mu(k)\varepsilon(k)\mathbf{u}(k)$

- the simplest gradient-based iterative algorithm
- it has important role in neural network training



- Recursive estimations
 - recursive least square *RLS*

$$\hat{\Theta}(k+1) = \hat{\Theta}(k) + \mathbf{K}(k+1)\varepsilon(k)$$

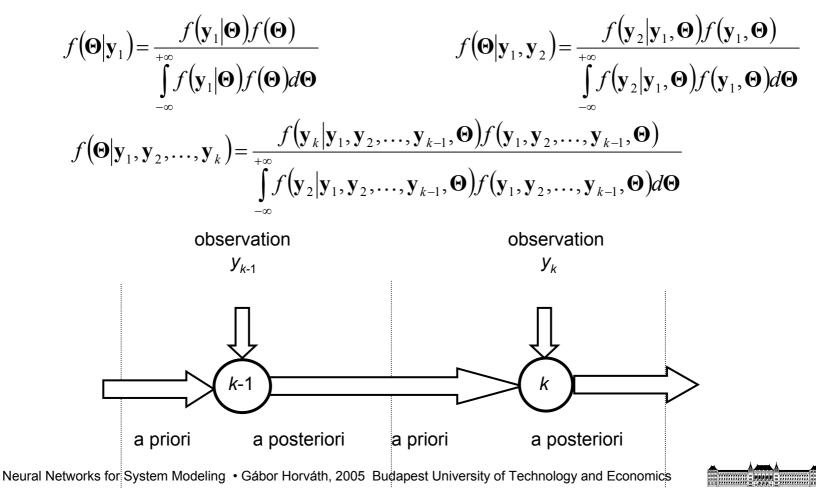
$$\mathbf{K}(k+1) = \mathbf{P}(k)\mathbf{U}(k+1)[\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{U}(k+1)\mathbf{P}(k)\mathbf{U}^{T}(k+1)]^{-1}$$

$$\mathbf{P}(k+1) = \mathbf{P}(k) - \mathbf{P}(k)\mathbf{U}^{T}(k+1)[\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{U}(k+1)\mathbf{P}(k)\mathbf{U}^{T}(k+1)]^{-1}\mathbf{U}(k+1)\mathbf{P}(k)$$
where $\mathbf{P}(k)$ is defined as $\mathbf{P}(k) = [\mathbf{U}(k)^{T}\mathbf{U}(k)]^{-1}$

$$\mathbf{K}(k)$$
 changes the search direction from instantenous gradient direction



- Recursive estimations
 - recursive Bayes a posteriori df $f(\mathbf{\Theta}|y)$



- Parameter estimation
- Least square
- Maximum Likelihood

conditional probability density f. $f(\mathbf{y}_N | \hat{\boldsymbol{\Theta}})$

- Bayes

a priori probability density f. $f(\Theta)$ conditional probability density f. $f(\mathbf{y}_N | \hat{\Theta})$ cost function $C(\hat{\Theta} | \Theta)$

most a priori information

less a priori information



Non-parametric identification

- Frequency-domain analysis
 - frequency characteristic, frequency response
 - spectral analysis
- Time-domain analysis
 - impulse response
 - step response
 - correlation analysis
- These approaches are for linear dynamical systems



Non-parametric identification (frequency domain)

- Secial input signals
 - sinusoid
 - multisine

multisine
$$u(t) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} U_k e^{j\left(2\pi \frac{k}{N}f_{\max} + \varphi(k)\right)}$$

where f_{max} is the maximum frequency of the excitation signal *K* is the number of frequency components

crest factor
$$CF = \frac{\max(|u(t)|)}{u_{rms}(t)}$$

minimizing *CF* with the selection of φ phases



Non-parametric identification (frequency domain)

- Frequency response
 - Power density spectrum, periodogram
 - Calculation of periodogram
 - Effect of finite registration length
 - Windowing (smoothing)

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Black box modeling

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Black-box modeling

- Why do we use black-box models?
 - the lack of physical insight: *physical modeling is not possible*
 - the physical knowledge is too complex, there are mathematical difficulties; physical modeling is *possible in principle* but *not possible in practice*
 - there is no need for physical modeling, (only the behaviour of the system should be modeled)
 - black-box modeling may be much simpler

Black-box modeling

- Steps of black-box modeling
 - select a *model structure*
 - determine the *size* of the model (the *number of parameters*)
 - use *observed (measured) data* to adjust the model (estimate the *model order* - the number of parameters - and the *numerical values* of the parameters)
 - validate the resulted model



Black-box modeling

Model structure selection

Dynamic models: $y_M(k) = f(\Theta, \varphi(k))$ with $\varphi(k)$ regressor-vectors

how to chose φ(k) regressor-vectors?
 past inputs

$$\varphi(k) = [u(k-1), u(k-2), \dots, u(k-N)]$$

past inputs and outputs

$$\varphi(k) = [u(k-1), u(k-2), \dots, u(k-N), y_M(k-1), y_M(k-2), \dots, y_M(k-P)]$$

past inputs and system outputs
$$\varphi(k) = [u(k-1), u(k-2), \dots, u(k-N), y(k-1), y(k-2), \dots, y(k-P)]$$

past inputs, system outputs and errors $\varphi(k) = [u(k-1), \dots, u(k-N), y(k-1), \dots, y(k-P), \varepsilon(k-1), \dots, \varepsilon(k-L)]$

past inputs, outputs and errors

 $\varphi(k) = [u(k-1), ..., u(k-N), y_M(k-1), ..., y_M(k-P), \varepsilon(k-1), ..., \varepsilon(k-L), \varepsilon_u(k-1), ..., \varepsilon_u(k-K)]$



Black-box identification

• Linear dynamic model structures

FIR

$$y_M(k) = a_1 u(k-1) + a_2 u(k-2) + \ldots + a_N u(k-N)$$

ARX

$$y_{M}(k) = a_{1}u(k-1) + \dots + a_{N}u(k-N) + b_{1}y(k-1) + \dots + b_{P}y(k-P)$$
OE

$$y_{M}(k) = a_{1}u(k-1) + \dots + a_{N}u(k-N) + b_{1}y_{M}(k-1) + \dots + b_{P}y_{M}(k-P)$$
ARMAX

$$y_{M}(k) = a_{1}u(k-1) + \dots + a_{N}u(k-N) + b_{1}y(k-1) + \dots + b_{P}y(k-P) + c_{1}\varepsilon(k-1) + \dots + c_{L}\varepsilon(k-L)$$
BJ

$$y_{M}(k) = a_{1}u(k-1) + \dots + a_{N}u(k-N) + b_{1}y(k-1) + \dots + b_{P}y(k-P) + c_{1}\varepsilon(k-1) + \dots + c_{L}\varepsilon(k-L)$$

$$= [a_{1}a_{2}\dots a_{N}]^{T}$$
parameter vector

$$\Theta = [a_{1}a_{2}\dots a_{N}, b_{1}b_{2}\dots b_{P}, c_{1}c_{2}\dots c_{L}, d_{1}d_{2}\dots d_{K}]^{T}$$

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Black-box identification

• Non-linear dynamic model structures NFIR $v_{M}(k) = f(u(k-1), u(k-2), ..., u(k-N))$

$$y_M(k) = f(u(k-1), ..., u(k-N), y(k-1), ..., y(k-P))$$

NOE

$$y_M(k) = f(u(k-1), \ldots, u(k-N), y_M(k-1), \ldots, y_M(k-P))$$

NARMAX $y_M(k) = f(u(k-1), ..., u(k-N), y(k-1), ..., y(k-P), \varepsilon(k-1), ..., \varepsilon(k-L))$

NBJ $y_M(k) = f[u(k-1), ..., u(k-N), y(k-1), ..., y(k-P), \varepsilon(k-1), ..., \varepsilon(k-L), \varepsilon_u(k-1), ..., \varepsilon_u(k-K)]$



• How to choose nonlinear mapping?

 $y_M(k) = f(\Theta, \varphi(k))$

- linear-in-the-parameter models

$$y_M(k) = \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j f_j(\mathbf{\varphi}(k)) \qquad \mathbf{\Theta} = [\alpha_1 \alpha_2 \dots \alpha_n]^T$$

- nonlinear-in-the-parameters

$$y_M(k) = \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j f_j(\boldsymbol{\beta}_j, \boldsymbol{\varphi}(k)) \qquad \boldsymbol{\Theta} = [\alpha_1 \alpha_2 \dots \alpha_n, \beta_1 \beta_2 \dots \beta_n]^T$$



- Model validation, model order selection
 - residual test
 - Information Criterion:
 - AIC Akaike Information Criterion
 - BIC Bayesian Information Criterion
 - NIC Network Information Criterion
 - etc.
 - Rissanen MDL (Minimum Description Length)
 - cross validation



Model validation: residual test

residual: the difference between the model and the measured (system) output $\mathcal{E}(k) = \mathbf{y}(k) - \mathbf{y}_M(k)$

- autocorrelation test:
 - are the residuals white (white noise process with mean 0)?
 - are residuals normally distributed?
 - are residuals symmetrically distributed?
- cross correlation test:
 - are residuals uncorrelated with the previous inputs?



• Model validation: residual test autocorrelation test:

$$\hat{C}_{\varepsilon\varepsilon}(\tau) = \frac{1}{N-\tau} \sum_{k=\tau+1}^{N} \varepsilon(k) \varepsilon(k-\tau)$$

$$\mathbf{r}_{\varepsilon\varepsilon} = \frac{1}{\hat{C}_{\varepsilon\varepsilon}(0)} \left(\hat{C}_{\varepsilon\varepsilon}(1) \dots \hat{C}_{\varepsilon\varepsilon}(m) \right)^{T}$$

$$\sqrt{N}\mathbf{r}_{\varepsilon\varepsilon} \xrightarrow{\mathrm{dist}} \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})$$



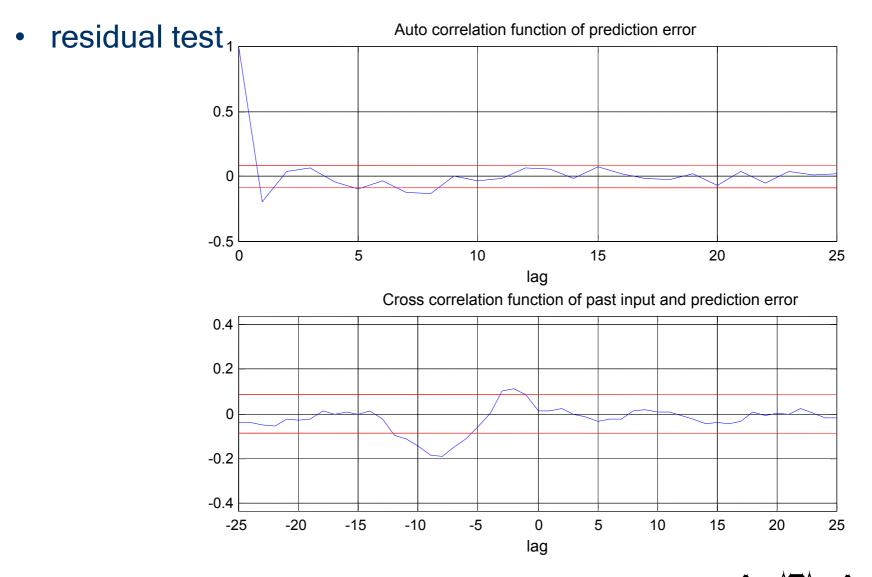
- Model validation: residual test
 - cross-correlation test:

$$\hat{C}_{u\varepsilon}(\tau) = \frac{1}{N-\tau} \sum_{k=\tau+1}^{N} \varepsilon(k) u(k-\tau)$$

$$\mathbf{r}_{u\varepsilon}(m) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\hat{C}_{u\varepsilon}(0)}} \left(\hat{C}_{u\varepsilon}(\tau+1) \dots \hat{C}_{u\varepsilon}(\tau+m) \right)^T$$

$$\sqrt{N}\mathbf{r}_{u\varepsilon} \xrightarrow{\text{dist}} \mathcal{N}(0, \ \hat{\mathbf{R}}_{uu})$$
$$\hat{\mathbf{R}}_{uu} = \frac{1}{N-m} \sum_{k=m+1}^{N} \begin{bmatrix} u_{k-1} \\ \vdots \\ u_{k-m} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_{k-1} & \cdots & u_{k-m} \end{bmatrix}$$





- Model validation, model order selection
 - the importance of a priori knowledge (physical insight)
 - under- or over-parametrization
 - Occam's razor
 - variance-bias trade-off



- Model validation, model order selection
 - criterions: noise term+penalty term

• AIC: AIC($\hat{\Theta}$) = (-2) log (max imum likelihood) + 2p AIC(p) = (-2) log $L(\hat{\Theta}_N)$ + 2p

NIC network information

criterion extension of ATC for fed ($\hat{\Theta}_N$) $\pm \frac{p}{2}\log N + \frac{p}{2}\log \left\|\hat{\Theta}_N\right\|_M$

• MDL

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- Model validation, model order selection
 - cross validation
 - testing the model on new data (from the same problem)
 - leave out one cross validation
 - leave out k cross validation



- Model validation, model order selection
 - variance-bias trade-off

difference between the model and the real system

- model class is not properly selected: *bias*
- actual parameters of the model are not correct: *variance*



- Model validation, model order selection
 - variance-bias trade-off

 $y(k) = f_o(\Theta, \varphi(k)) + n(k) \quad n(k) \text{ white noise with variance } \sigma$ $V(\Theta) = E\{\|\mathbf{y} - f(\Theta)\|^2\} = \sigma + E\{\|f_0(\Theta, \varphi(k)) - f(\hat{\Theta}, \varphi(k))\|^2\}$ $E\{V(\Theta)\} = \sigma + E\{\|f_0(\Theta, \varphi(k)) - f(\hat{\Theta}, \varphi(k))\|^2\}$ $\approx \sigma + E\{\|f_0(\Theta, \varphi(k)) - f(\Theta^*(m), \varphi(k))\|^2\} + E\{\|f(\Theta^*(m), \varphi(k)) - f(\hat{\Theta}, \varphi(k))\|^2\}$ noise bias variance

The order of the model (*m*) is the dimension of $\varphi(k)$. *The larger m the smaller bias and the larger variance*



- Model validation, model order selection
 - approaches
 - A sequence of models are used with increasing *m*
 - Validation using cross validation or some criterion e.g. AIC, MDL, etc.
 - A complex model structure is used with a lot of parameters (overparametrized model)



Neural modeling

- Neural networks are (general) nonlinear black-box structures with "interesting" properties
 - general architecture
 - universal approximator
 - non-sensitive to over-parametrization
 - inherent regularization

Neural networks

- Why neural networks?
 - There are many other black-box modeling approaches:
 e.g. polynomial regression.
 - Difficulty: curse of dimensionality
 - In high-dimensional (N) problem and using M-th order polynomial the number of the independently adjustable parameters will grow as N^{M} .
 - To get a trained neural network with good generalization capability the dimension of the input space has significant effect on the size of required training data set.



Neural networks

- The advantages of neural approach
 - Neural nets (MLP) use basis functions to approximate nonlinear mappings, which depend on the function to be approximated.
 - This adaptive basis function set gives the possibility to decrease the number of free parameters in our general model structure.



Other black-box structures

- Wavelets
 - mother function (wavelet), dilation, translation
- Volterra series

$$y_M(k) = \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} g_l u(k-l) + \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} \sum_{s=0}^{\infty} g_{ls} u(k-l) u(k-s) + \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} \sum_{s=0}^{\infty} \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} g_{lsr} u(k-l) u(k-s) u(k-r) + \cdots$$

Volterra series can be applied succesfully for weakly nonlinear systems and impractical in strongly nonlinear systems



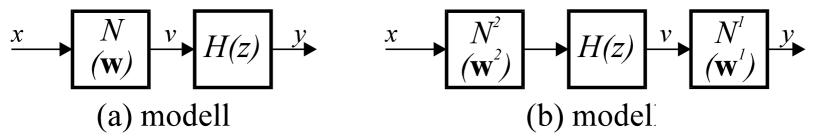
Other black-box structures

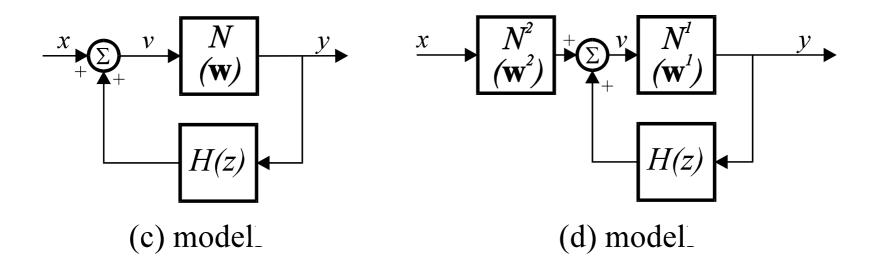
- •Fuzzy models, fuzzy neural models
 - general nonlinear modeling approach
- •Wiener, Hammerstein, Wiener-Hammerstein
 - dynamic linear system + static nonlinear
 - static nonlinear + dynamic linear system
 - dynamic linear system + static nonlinear + dynamic linear
- Narendra structures
 - other combined linear dynamic and nonlinear static systems



Combined models

Narendra structures





References and further readings

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Neural networks



Outline

Introduction

- Neural networks
 - elementary neurons
 - classical neural structures
 - general approach
 - computational capabilities of NNs
- Learning (parameter estimation)
 - supervised learning
 - unsupervised learning
 - analytic learning
- Support vector machines
 - SVM architectures
 - statistical learning theory
- General questions of network design
 - generalization
 - model selection
 - model validation



Neural networks

- Elementary neurons
 - linear combiner
 - basis-function neuron
- Classical neural architectures
 - feed-forward
 - feedback
- General approach
 - nonlinear function of regressors
 - linear combination of basis functions
- Computational capabilities of NNs
 - approximation of function
 - classification



Neural networks (a definition)

Neural networks are massively parallel distributed information processing systems, implemented in hardware or software form

- made up of: a great number highly interconnected identical or similar simple processing units (*processing elements, neurons*) which are doing local processing, and are arranged in ordered topology,
- have *learning algorithm* to acquire knowledge from their environment, using examples
- have recall algorithm to use the learned knowledge



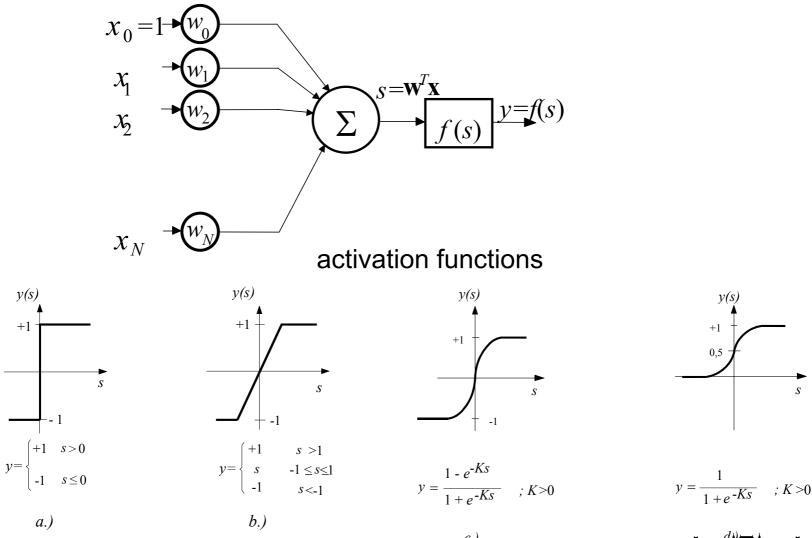
Neural networks (main features)

- Main features
 - complex nonlinear input-output mapping
 - adaptivity, learning capability
 - distributed architecture
 - fault tolerance
 - VLSI implementation
 - neurobiological analogy



The elementary neuron (1)

• Linear combiner with nonlinear activation function

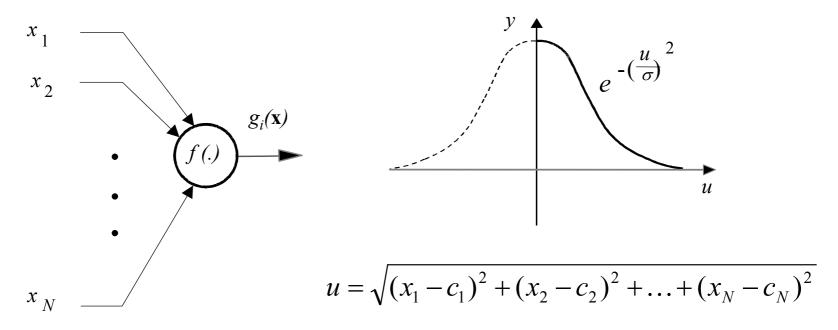


Elementary neuron (2)

Neuron with basis function

$$y = \sum_{i} w_{i} g_{i}(\mathbf{x})$$

Basis functions $g_i(\mathbf{x}) = g \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{c}_i\|$ e.g. Gaussian



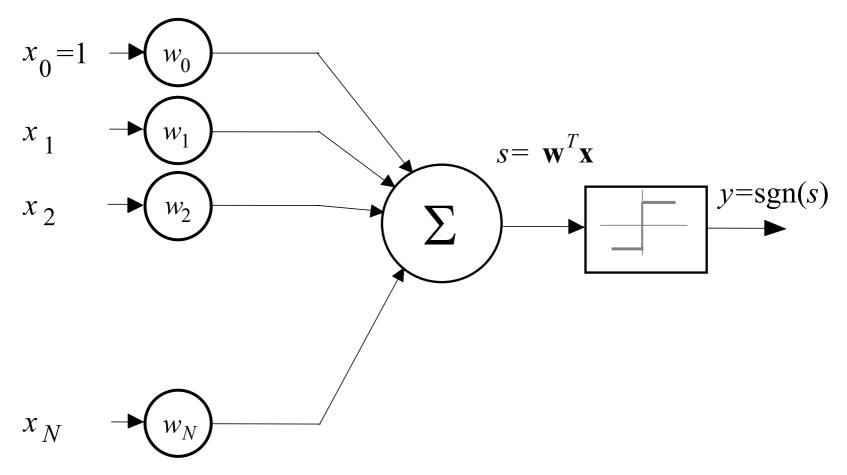


Classical neural networks

- static (no memory, feed-forward)
 - single layer networks
 - multi-layer networks
 - MLP
 - RBF
 - CMAC
- dynamic (memory or feedback)
 - feed-forward (storage elements)
 - feedback
 - local feedback
 - global feedback

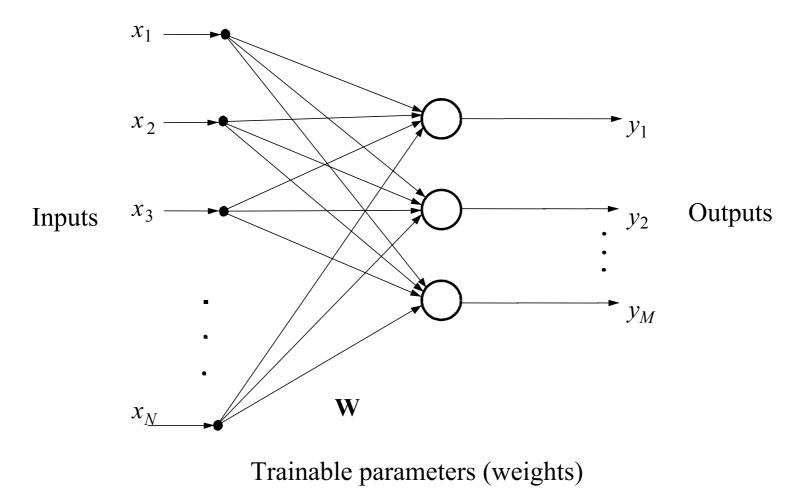


• Single layer network: Rosenblatt's perceptron



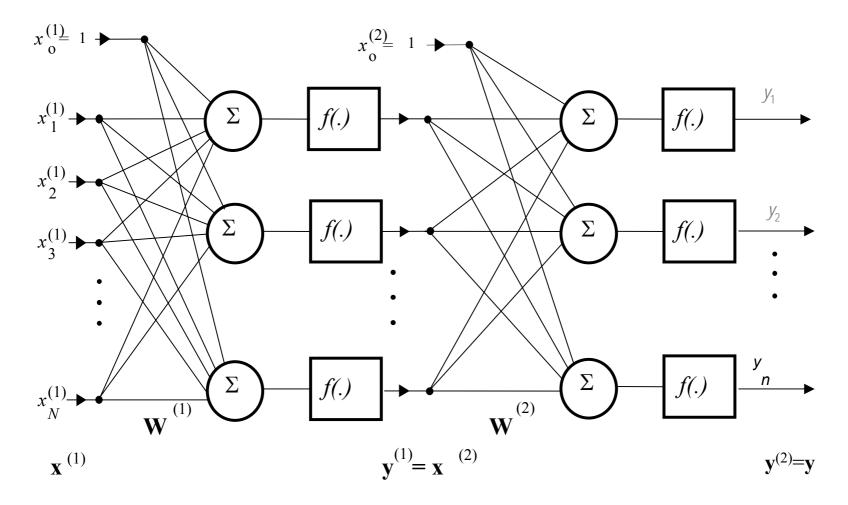


• Single layer network



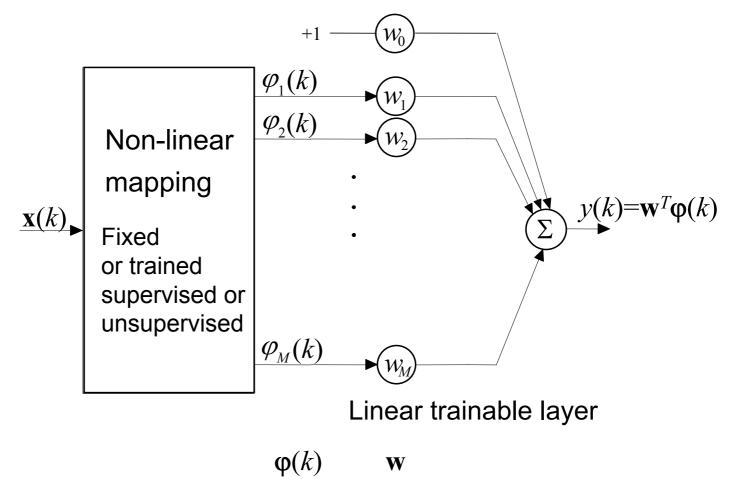


• Multi-layer network (static MLP network)





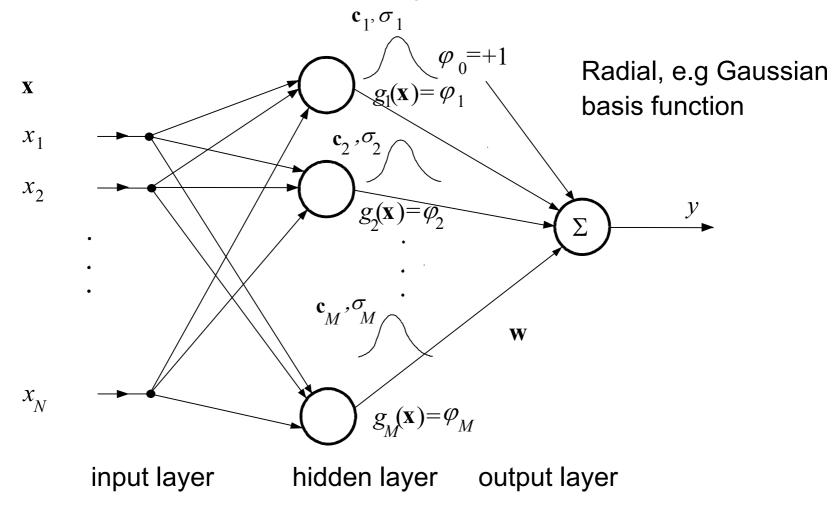
Network with one trainable layer (basis function networks)





Radial basis function (RBF) network

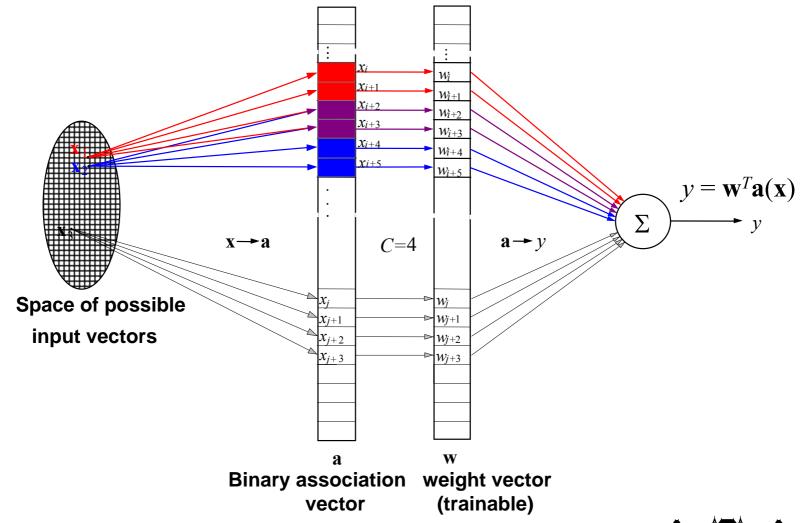
• Network with one trainable layer



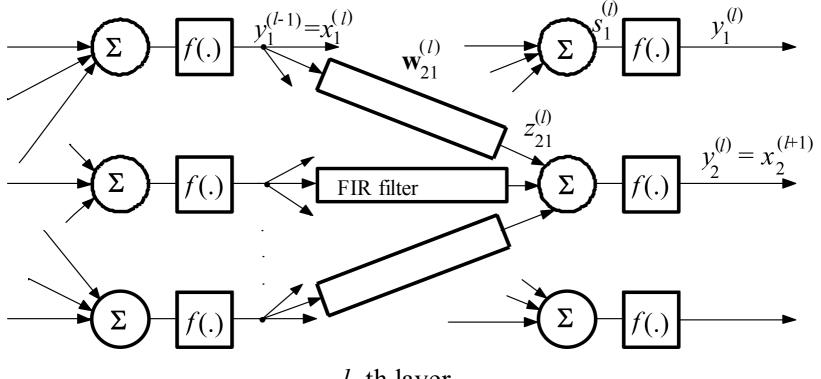


CMAC network

• Network with one trainable layer



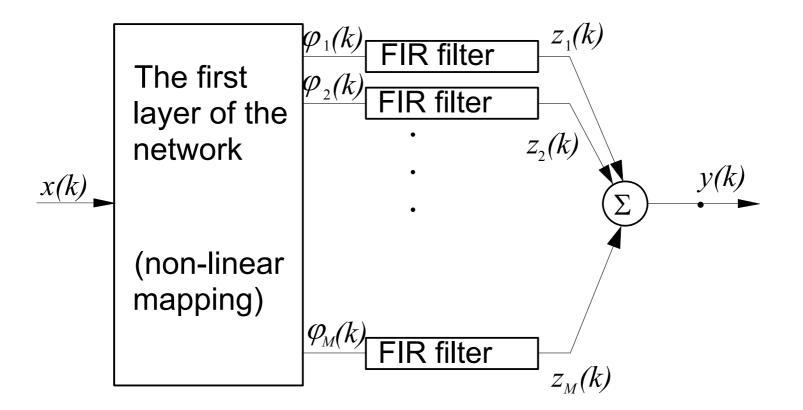
Dynamic multi-layer network



l -th layer



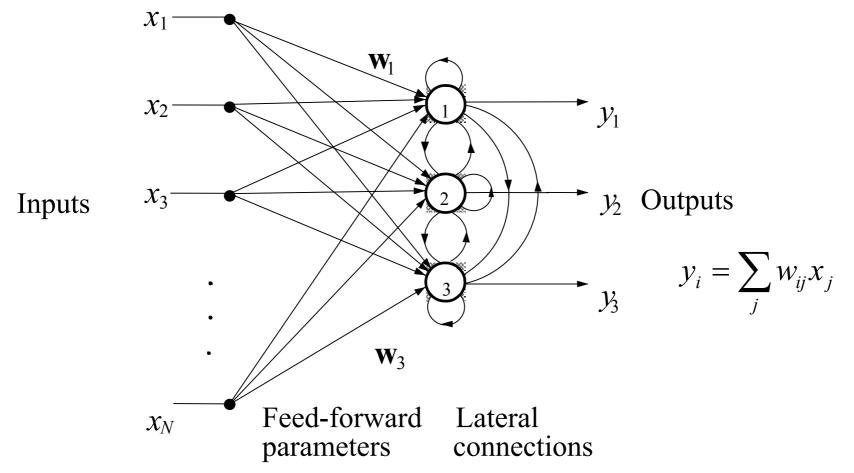
• Dynamic multi layer network (single trainable layer)





Feedback architecture

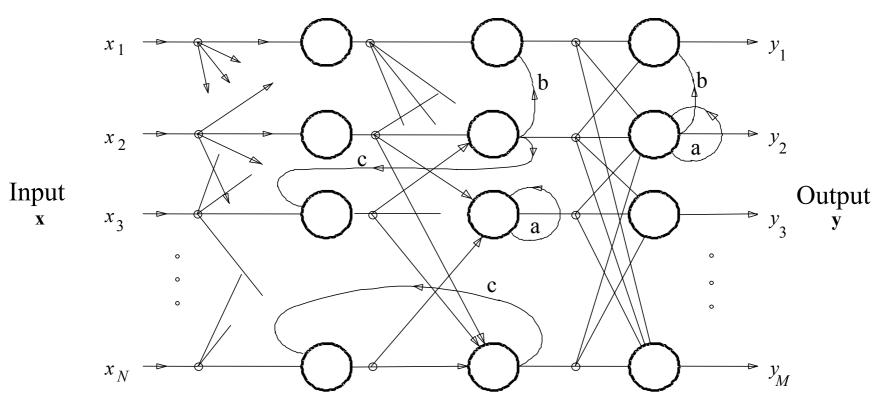
Lateral feedback (single layer)





Feedback architecture

Local feedback (MLP)

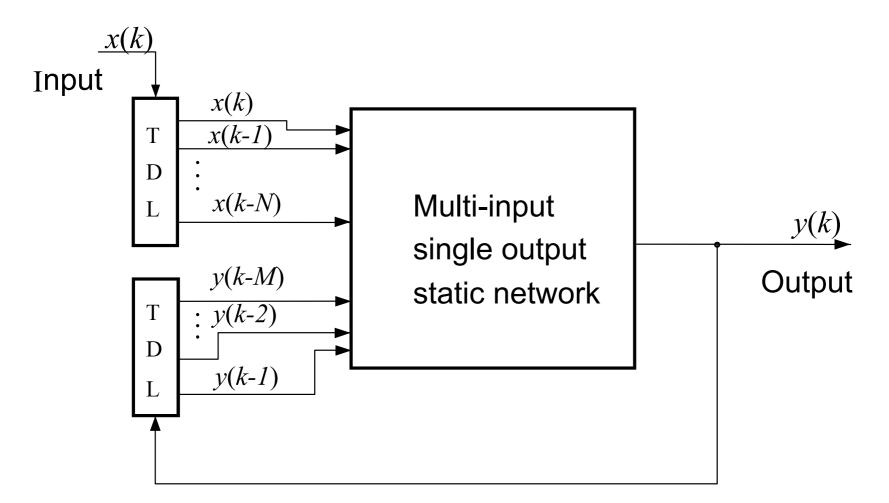


Input layer 1. hidden layer 2. hidden layer Output layer a.)self feedback, b.) lateral feedback, c.) feedback between layers



Feedback architecture

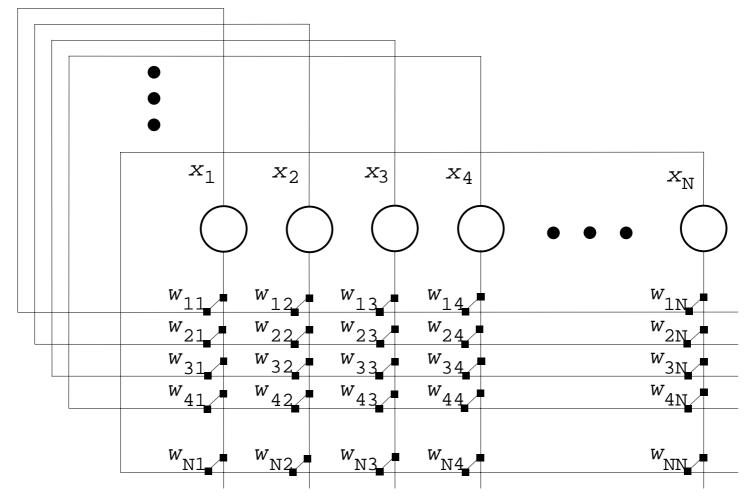
Global feedback (sequential network)





Feedback architecture

• Hopfield network (global feedback)



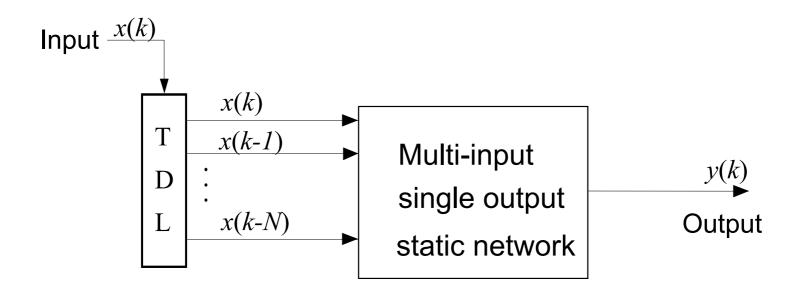
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- Genaral approach
 - Regressors
 - current inputs (static networks)
 - current inputs and past outputs (dynamic networks)
 - past inputs and past outputs (dynamic networks)
 - Basis functions
 - non-linear-in-the-parameter network
 - linear-in-the-parameter networks



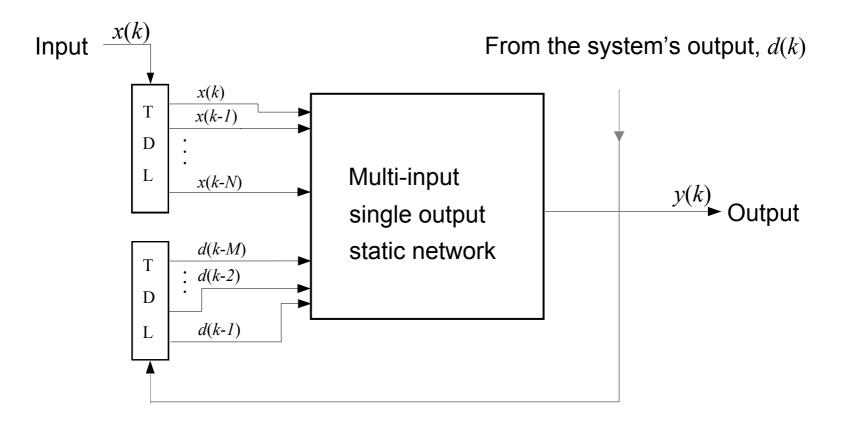
- Non-linear dynamic model structures based on regressor
 - NFIR

$$y(k) = f(x(k), x(k-1), \dots, x(k-N))$$

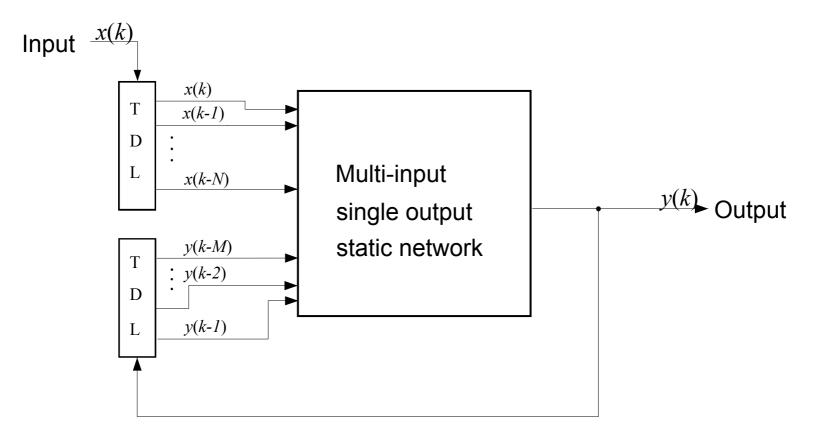




- Non-linear dynamic model structures based on regressor
 - NARX y(k) = f(x(k), ..., x(k-N), d(k-1), ..., d(k-M))



- Non-linear dynamic model structures based on regressor
 - NOE y(k) = f(x(k), ..., x(k-N), y(k-1), ..., y(k-M))





- Non-linear dynamic model structures based on regressor
 - NARMAX

 $y(k) = f(x(k), \ldots, x(k-N), d(k-1), \ldots, d(k-M), \varepsilon(k-1), \ldots, \varepsilon(k-L))$

- NJB

- $y(k) = f(x(k), \dots, x(k-N), y(k-1), \dots, y(k-M), \varepsilon(k-1), \dots, \varepsilon(k-L), \varepsilon_x(k-1), \dots, \varepsilon_x(k-K))$
 - NSS nonlinear state space representation



Nonlinear function of regressor

 $y(k) = f(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{\varphi}(k))$

- linear-in-the-parameter models (basis function models)

$$y(k) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} w_j f_j(\boldsymbol{\varphi}(k)) \qquad \mathbf{w} = [w_1 w_2 \dots w_n]^T$$

- nonlinear-in-the-parameter models

$$y(k) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} w_j^{(2)} f_j(\mathbf{w}^{(1)}, \mathbf{\phi}(k)) \quad \mathbf{w} = \left[w_1^{(2)} w_2^{(2)} \dots w_n^{(2)}, \mathbf{w}^{(1)}\right]^T$$



- Basis functions $f_j(\varphi(k))$
 - MLP (with single nonlinear hidden layer)
 - sigmoidal basis function

 $sgm(s) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-Ks}}$

$$y(k) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} w_j^{(2)} f_j(\mathbf{w}^{(1)}, \mathbf{\phi}(k)) \qquad f_j(\mathbf{w}^{(1)}, \mathbf{\phi}(k)) = sgm(\mathbf{\phi}(k)^T \mathbf{w}_j^{(1)} + w_{j0}^{(1)})$$

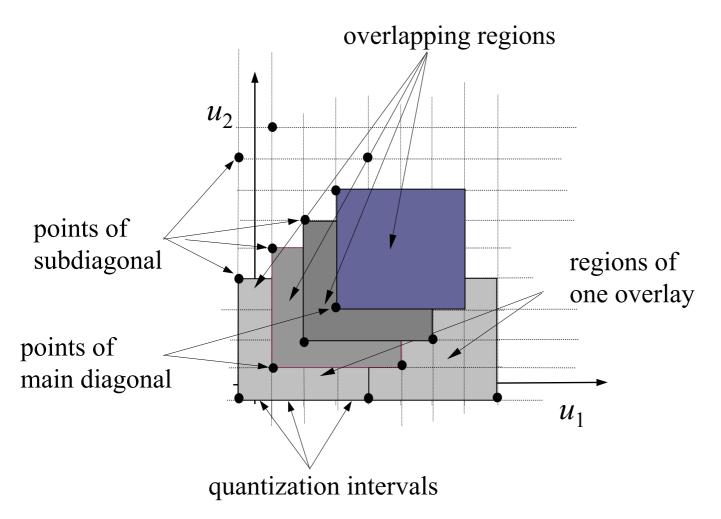
- RBF (radial basis function, e.g. Gaussian)

$$y(k) = \sum_{j} w_{j} f_{j}(\boldsymbol{\varphi}(k)) = \sum_{j} w_{j} f(\|\boldsymbol{\varphi} - \boldsymbol{c}_{j}\|) \qquad f(\boldsymbol{\varphi} - \boldsymbol{c}_{j}) = \exp\left[-\|\boldsymbol{\varphi} - \boldsymbol{c}_{i}\|^{2} / 2\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{i}^{2}\right]$$

- CMAC (rectangular basis functions, splines)



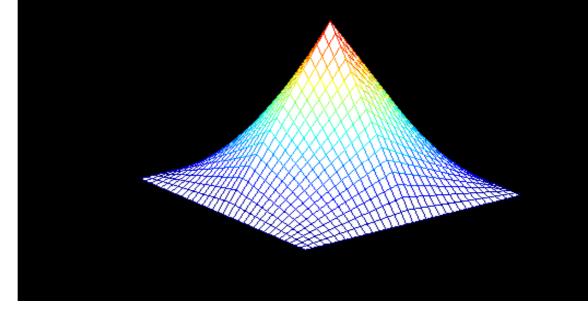
• CMAC (rectangular basis functions)





- General basis functions of compact support (higher-order CMAC)
- B-splines advantages

A two-dimensional basis function with compact support: tensor product of a second-order B-spline



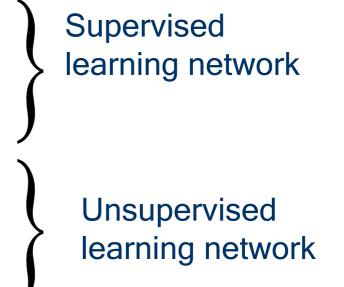
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- Function approximation
- Classification
- Association
- Clustering
- Data compression
- Significant component selection
- Optimization





- Approximation of functions
 - Main statements: some FF neural nets (MLP, RBF) are universal approximators (in some sense)
 - Kolmogorov's Theorem (representation theory): any continuous real-valued *N*-variable function defined on [0,1]^N can be represented using properly chosen functions of one variable (non constructive).

$$f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N) = \sum_{q=0}^{2N} \phi_q \left(\sum_{p=1}^{N} \psi_{pq}(x_p) \right)$$



- Approximation of function (MLP)
 - Arbitrary continuous function $f: \mathbb{R}^N \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ on a compact subset K of \mathbb{R}^N can be approximated to any desired degree of accuracy (maximal error) if and only if the activation function, g(x) is non-constant, bounded, monoton increasing.

(Hornik, Cybenko, Funahashi, Leshno, Kurkova, etc.)

$$\hat{f}(x_1,...,x_N) = \sum_{i=1}^{M} c_i g(\sum_{j=0}^{N} w_{ij} x_j) \quad ; \quad x_0 = 1$$
$$\max_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{K}} \left| f(x_1,...,x_N) - \hat{f}(x_1,...,x_N) \right| < \varepsilon \qquad \varepsilon > 0$$



- Approximation of function (MLP)
 - Arbitrary continuous function *f*: *R*^N→*R* on a compact subset of *R*^N can be approximated to any desired degree of accuracy (in the *L*₂ sense) if and only if the activation function is non-polynomial (Hornik, Cybenko, Funahashi, Leshno, Kurkova, etc.)

$$\hat{f}(x_1,...,x_N) = \sum_{i=1}^{M} c_i g(\sum_{j=0}^{N} w_{ij} x_j), \quad x_0 = 1$$



- Classification
 - Perceptron: linear separation
 - MLP: universal classifier

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = j$$
, iff $x \in X^{(j)}$ $f: K \to \{1, 2, \dots, k\}$

K compact subset of R^N

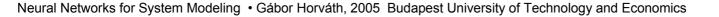
$$X^{(j)}$$
 j=1,...,k disjoint subsets of K
 $K = \bigcup_{j=1}^{k} X^{(j)}$ and $X^{(j)} \cap X^{(j)}$ is empty if $i \neq j$



Universal approximator (RBF)
 An arbitrary continuous function *f* : *R^N→R* on a compact subset K of *R^N* can be approximated to any desired degree of accuracy in the following form

$$\hat{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{M} w_i g\left(\frac{\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{c}_i}{\sigma_i}\right)$$

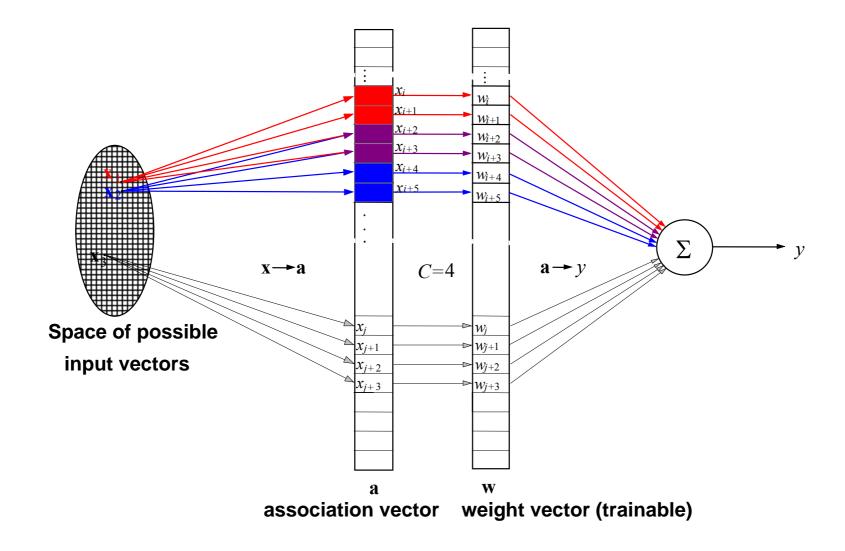
if $g: \mathbb{R}^N \to \mathbb{R}$ is non-zero, continuous, integrable function.





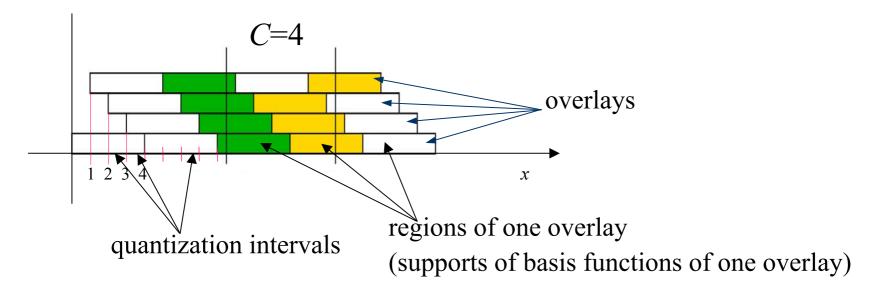
- The approximation capability of the Albus binary CMAC
- Single-dimensional (univariate) case
- Multi-dimensional (multivariate) case







Arrangement of basis functions: uni-variate case

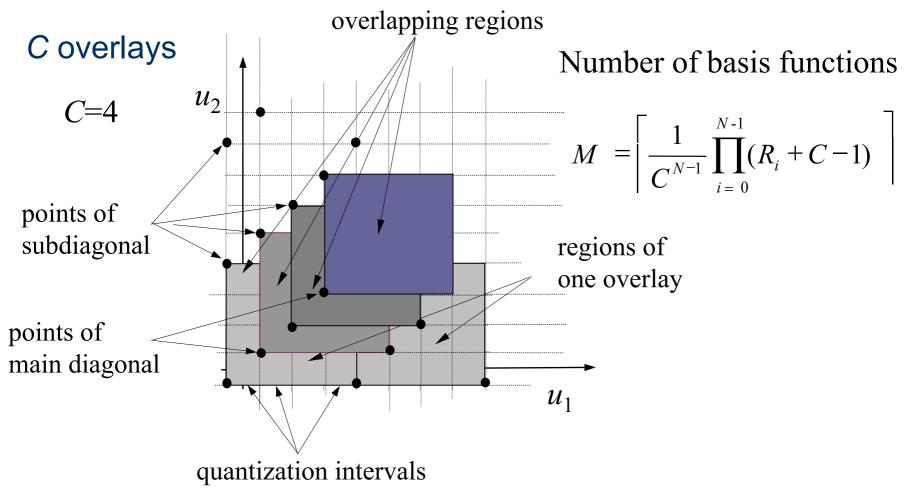


Number of basis functions: M = R + C - 1

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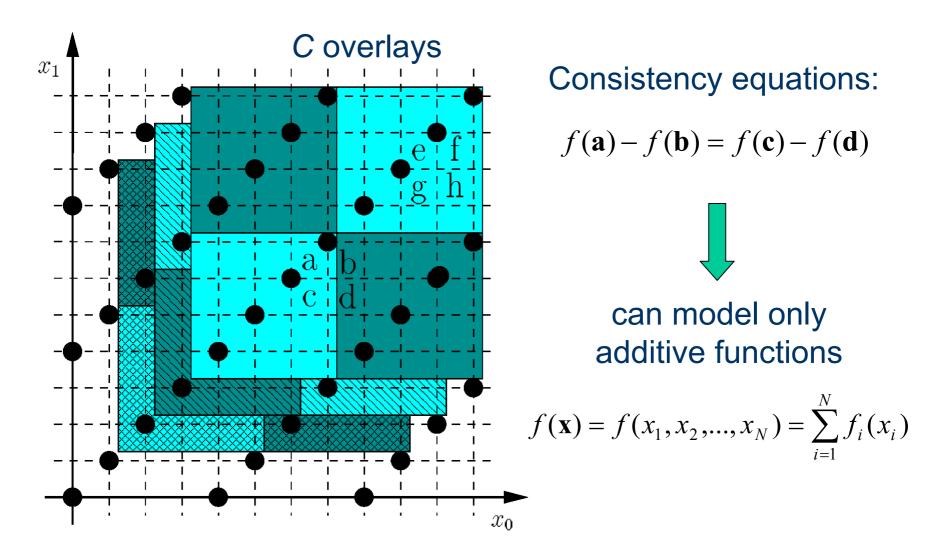


Arrangement of basis functions: multi-variate case





CMAC approximation capability





CMAC modeling capability

- One-dimensional case: can learn any training data set exactly
- Multi-dimensional case: can learn any training data set from the additive function set (consistency equations)



CMAC generalization capability

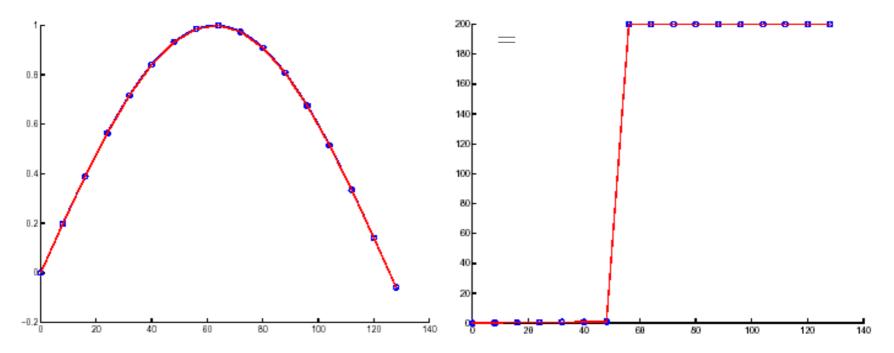
Important parameters:

- C generalization parameter
- d_{train} distance between adjacent training data
- Interesting behavior
 - $C=l*d_{train}$: linear interpolation between the training points
 - $C \neq l^*d_{train}$: significant generalization error non-smooth output



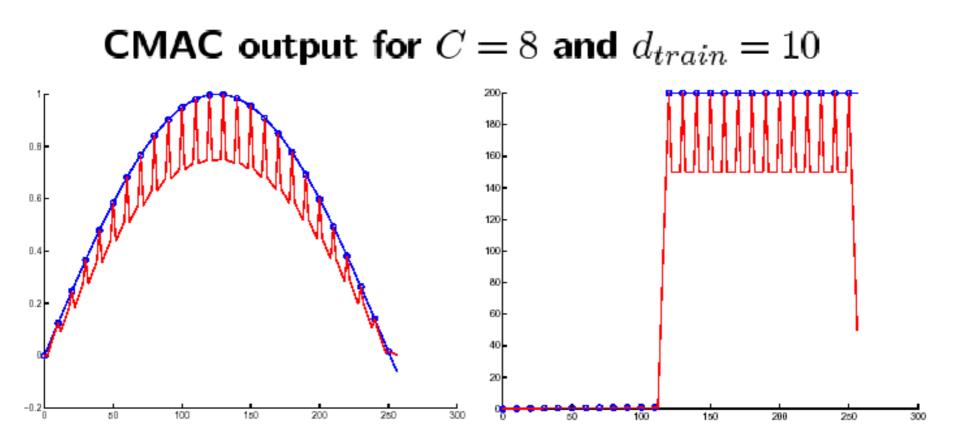
CMAC generalization error

CMAC output for C = 8 and $d_{train} = 8$ param





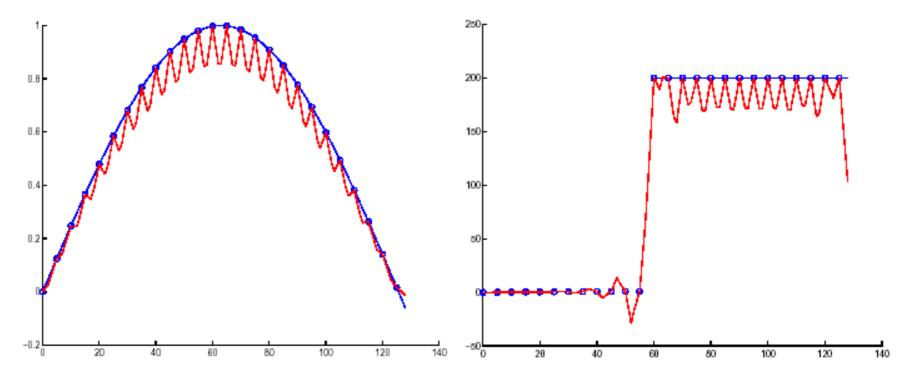
CMAC generalization error





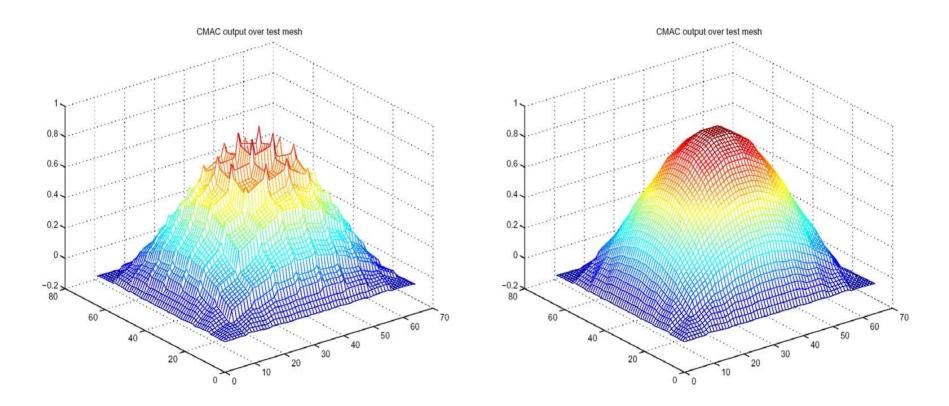
CMAC generalization error

CMAC output for C = 8 and $d_{train} = 5$





CMAC generalization error Multidimensional case

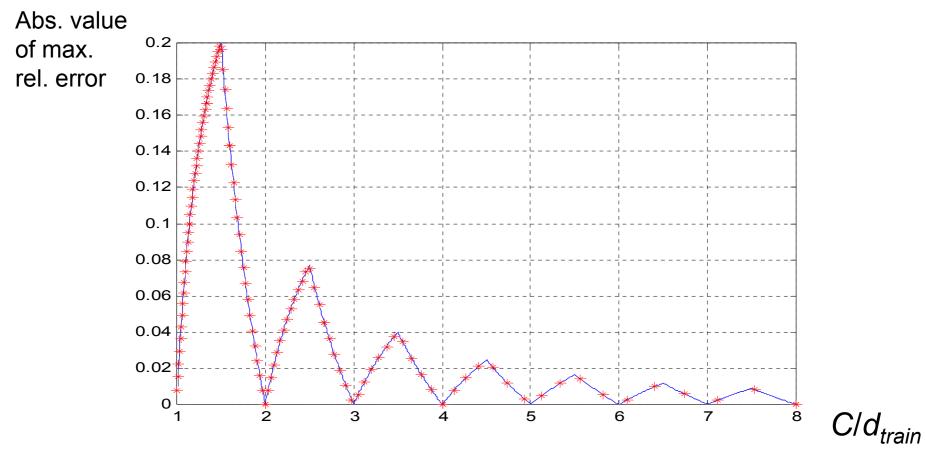


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CMAC generalization error univariate case (max)

$$h = \frac{\min\left\{C \mod d_{train}, (d_{train} - C \mod d_{train})\right\}}{\left(2\lfloor \frac{C}{d_{train}} \rfloor + 1\right)C - \lfloor \frac{C}{d_{train}} \rfloor \left(\lfloor \frac{C}{d_{train}} \rfloor + 1\right)d_{train}}$$





Application of networks (based on the capability)

- Regression: function approximation
 - modeling of static and dynamic systems, signal modeling, system identification
 - filtering, control, etc.
- Pattern association
 - association
 - autoassociation (similar input and output) (dimension reduction, data compression)
 - Heteroassociation (different input and output)
- Pattern recognition, clustering
 - classification



Application of networks (based on the capability)

- Optimization
 - optimization
- Data compression, dimension reduction
 - principal component analysis (PCA), linear networks
 - nonlinear PCA, non-linear networks
 - signal separation, BSS, independent component analysis (ICA).



Data compression, PCA networks

Karhunen-Loève tranformation

 $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{\Phi}\mathbf{x} \quad \mathbf{\Phi} = [\mathbf{\varphi}_1, \mathbf{\varphi}_2, ..., \mathbf{\varphi}_N]^T \quad \mathbf{\varphi}_i^T \mathbf{\varphi}_j = \delta_{ij}, \text{ further } \mathbf{\Phi}^T \mathbf{\Phi} = \mathbf{I}, \quad \rightarrow \quad \mathbf{\Phi}^T = \mathbf{\Phi}^{-1}$

$$\mathbf{x} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} y_i \mathbf{\phi}_i \qquad \hat{\mathbf{x}} = \sum_{i=1}^{M} y_i \mathbf{\phi}_i, \ M \le N$$

$$\varepsilon^{2} = \mathbf{E}\left\{\left\|\mathbf{x} - \hat{\mathbf{x}}\right\|^{2}\right\} = \mathbf{E}\left\{\left\|\sum_{i=1}^{N} y_{i} \boldsymbol{\varphi}_{i} - \sum_{i=1}^{M} y_{i} \boldsymbol{\varphi}_{i}\right\|^{2}\right\} = \sum_{i=M+1}^{N} \mathbf{E}\left\{\left(y_{i}\right)^{2}\right\}$$

$$\widehat{\boldsymbol{\varphi}}_{i} = \sum_{i=M+1}^{N} \mathbf{E}\left\{\left(y_{i}\right)^{2}\right\}$$

$$\hat{\varepsilon} = \varepsilon^2 - \sum_{i=M+1}^N \lambda_i (\boldsymbol{\varphi}_i^T \boldsymbol{\varphi}_i - 1) = \sum_{i=M+1}^N [\boldsymbol{\varphi}_i^T \mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}} \boldsymbol{\varphi}_i - \lambda_i (\boldsymbol{\varphi}_i^T \boldsymbol{\varphi}_i - 1)] \qquad \mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}} = E \{ \mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}^T \}$$

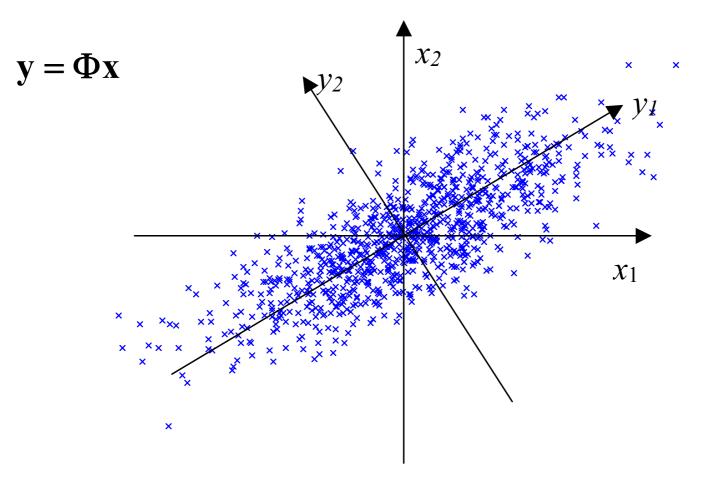
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Data compression, PCA networks

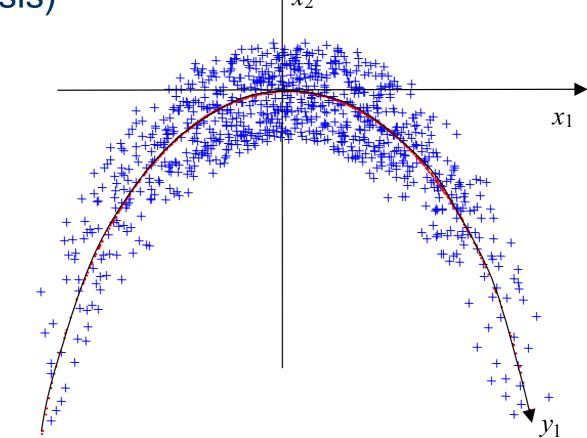
• Principal component analysis (Karhunen-Loève tranformation





Nonlinear data compression

Non-linear problem (curvilinear component analysis)

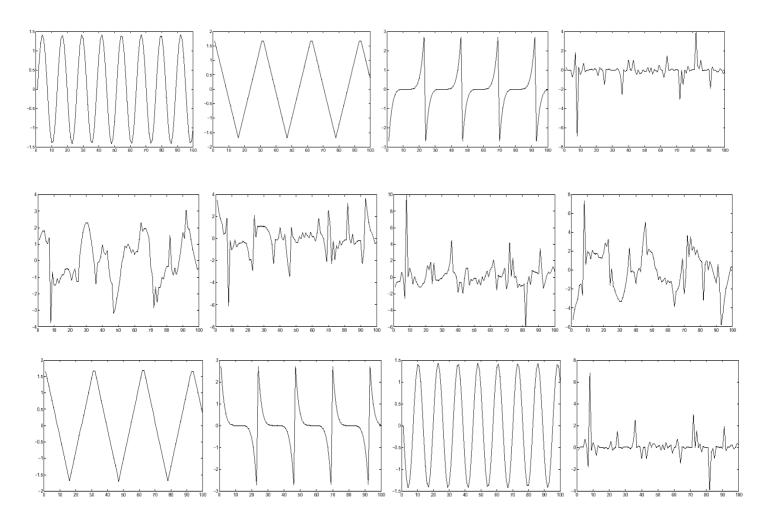




ICA networks

- Such linear transformation is looked for that restores the original components from mixed observations
- Many different approaches have been developed depending on the definition of independence (entropy, mutual information, Kullback-Leibleir information, non-Gaussianity)
- The weights can be obtained using nonlinear network (during training)
- Nonlinear version of the Oja rule

The task of independent component analysis



Pictures taken from: Aapo Hyvärinan: Survey of Independent Component Analysis



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Learning



Learning in neural networks

- Learning: parameter estimation
 - supervised learning, learning with a teacher

x, **y**, **d** training set: $\{\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{d}_i\}_{i=1}^{P}$

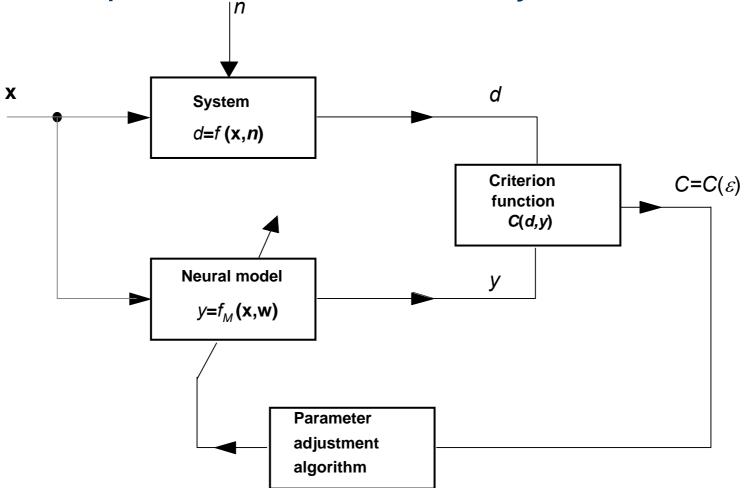
- unsupervised learning, learning without a teacher

х, у

- analytical learning



• Model parameter estimation: x, y, d





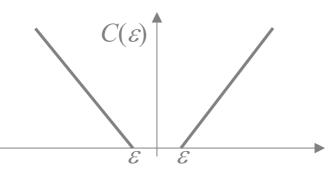
- Criterion function
 - quadratic criterion function:

$$C(\mathbf{d}, \mathbf{y}) = C(\mathbf{\epsilon}) = E\left\{ (\mathbf{d} - \mathbf{y})^T (\mathbf{d} - \mathbf{y}) \right\} = E\left\{ \sum_j (d_j - y_j)^2 \right\}$$

1

)

- other criterion functions
 - e.g. ε insensitive



- regularized criterion functions: $C(\mathbf{d}, \mathbf{y}) = C(\varepsilon) + \lambda C_R$ adding a penalty (regularization) term



- Criterion minimization
- Analytical solution

$$\hat{\mathbf{w}} = \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{\mathbf{w}} C(\mathbf{d}, \mathbf{y}(\mathbf{w}))$$

only in linear-in-the parameter cases e.g. linear networks: Wiener-Hopf equation

- Iterative solution
 - gradient methods
 - search methods
 - exhaustive search
 - random search
 - genetic search



- Error correction rules
 - perceptron rule $\mathbf{w}(k+1) = \mathbf{w}(k) + \mu \varepsilon(k) \mathbf{x}(k)$
 - gradient methods $\mathbf{w}(k+1) = \mathbf{w}(k) + \mu \mathbf{Q}(-\nabla(k))$
 - steepest descent $\mathbf{Q} = \mathbf{I}$
 - Newton $\mathbf{Q} = \mathbf{R}^{-1}$
 - Levenberg-Marquardt

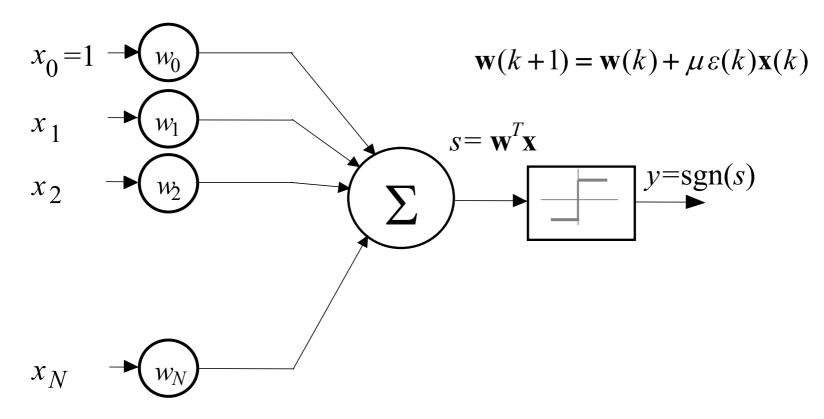
 $\mathbf{w}(k+1) = \mathbf{w}(k) - \mathbf{H}(\mathbf{w}(k))^{-1} \nabla C(\mathbf{w}(k)). \qquad \mathbf{H} \cong \mathbf{E} \left\{ \nabla y(\mathbf{w}) \nabla y(\mathbf{w})^T \right\} + \lambda \Omega$

• conjugate gradient

 $\mathbf{w}(k+1) = \mathbf{w}(k) + \alpha_k \mathbf{g}_k \qquad \mathbf{g}_j^T \mathbf{R} \mathbf{g}_k = 0 \quad \text{if} \quad j \neq k$



Perceptron training



Converges in finite number of training steps if we have a linearly separable two-class problem with finite number of samples with a finite upper bound $\|\mathbf{x}\| \le M$ $\mu > 0$



Gradient method

- Analytical solution
 - linear-in-the parameter model

 $y(k) = \mathbf{w}^{T}(k)\mathbf{x}(k).$

- quadratic criterion function

$$C(k) = E\left\{\left(d(k) - \mathbf{w}^{T}(k)\mathbf{x}(k)\right)^{2}\right\}$$

= $E\left\{d^{2}(k)\right\} - 2E\left\{d(k)\mathbf{x}^{T}(k)\right\}\mathbf{w}(k) + \mathbf{w}^{T}(k)E\left\{\mathbf{x}(k)\mathbf{x}^{T}(k)\right\}\mathbf{w}(k)$
= $E\left\{d^{2}(k)\right\} - 2\mathbf{p}^{T}\mathbf{w}(k) + \mathbf{w}^{T}(k)\mathbf{R}\mathbf{w}(k)$
- Wiener-Hopf equation

$$\mathbf{w}^* = \mathbf{R}^{-1}\mathbf{p}, \qquad \mathbf{R} = \mathbf{E}\left\{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}^T\right\} \qquad \mathbf{p} = \mathbf{E}\left\{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{y}\right\}$$



Gradient method

Iterative solution

$$\mathbf{w}(k+1) = \mathbf{w}(k) + \mu(-\nabla(k)).$$

- gradient

$$\nabla(k) = \frac{\partial C(k)}{\partial \mathbf{w}(k)} = 2\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{w}(k) - \mathbf{w}^*)$$

- condition of convergence

$$0 < \mu < \frac{1}{\lambda_{\max}}$$

 λ_{\max} : maximal eigenvalue of **R**



Gradient method

• LMS: iterative solution based on instantaneous error

$$\varepsilon(k) = d(k) - \mathbf{x}^T(k)\mathbf{w}(k) \qquad \hat{C}(k) = \varepsilon^2(k)$$

- instantaneous gradient

$$\hat{\nabla}(k) = \frac{\partial \hat{C}(k)}{\partial \mathbf{w}(k)} = 2\varepsilon(k) \frac{\partial \varepsilon(k)}{\partial \mathbf{w}(k)}$$

- weight updating

$$\mathbf{w}(k+1) = \mathbf{w}(k) + \mu(-\hat{\nabla}(k)) = \mathbf{w}(k) + 2\mu\varepsilon(k)\mathbf{x}(k)$$

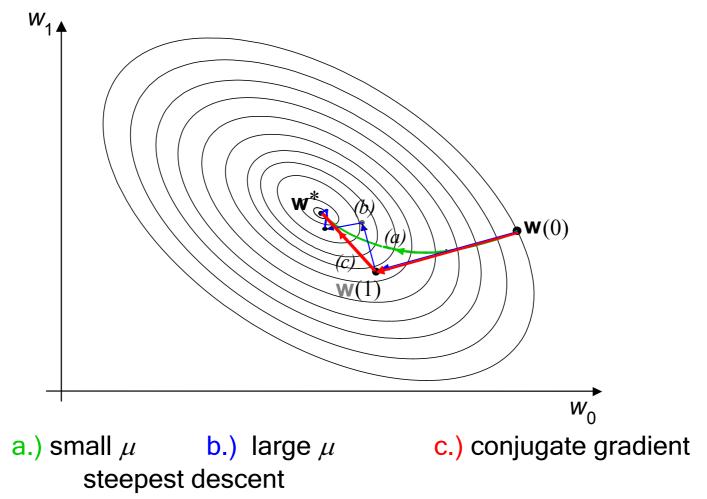
- condition of convergence

$$0 < \mu < \frac{1}{\lambda_{\max}}$$



Gradient methods

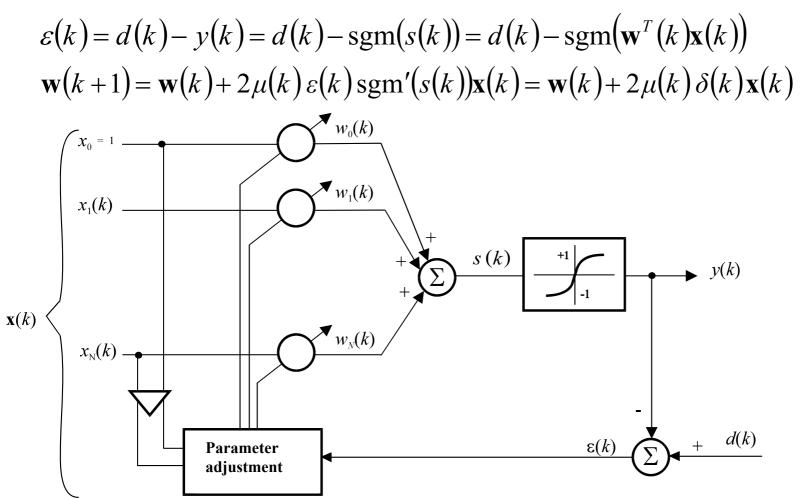
• Example of convergence





Gradient methods

Single neuron with nonlinear activation function





Gradient methods

• Multi-layer network: error backpropagation (BP)

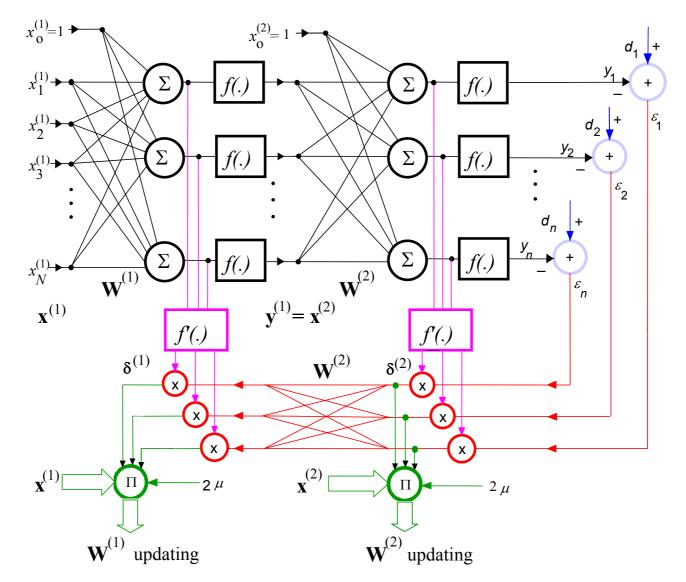
$$\mathbf{w}_{i}^{(l)}(k+1) = \mathbf{w}_{i}^{(l)}(k) + 2\mu \left(\sum_{r=1}^{N_{l+1}} \delta_{r}^{(l+1)}(k) w_{ri}^{(l+1)}(k)\right) \operatorname{sgm}'(s_{i}^{(l)}(k)) \mathbf{x}^{(l)}(k)$$
$$= \mathbf{w}_{i}^{(l)}(k) + 2\mu \delta_{i}^{(l)}(k) \mathbf{x}^{(l)}(k)$$

$$\delta_{i}^{(l)}(k) = \left(\sum_{r=1}^{N_{l+1}} \delta_{r}^{(l+1)}(k) w_{ri}^{(l+1)}(k)\right) \operatorname{sgm}'(s_{i}^{(l)}(k))$$

l = layer index*i* = processing element index*k* = iteration index



MLP training: BP





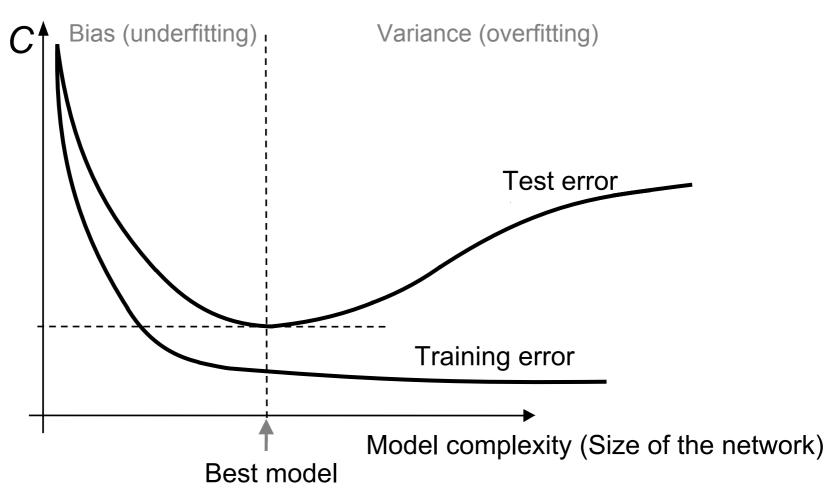
- important questions
 - the size of the network (model order: number of layers, number of hidden units)
 - the value of the learning rate, μ
 - initial values of the parameters (weights)
 - validation, cross validation learning and testing set selection
 - the way of learning, batch or sequential
 - stopping criteria



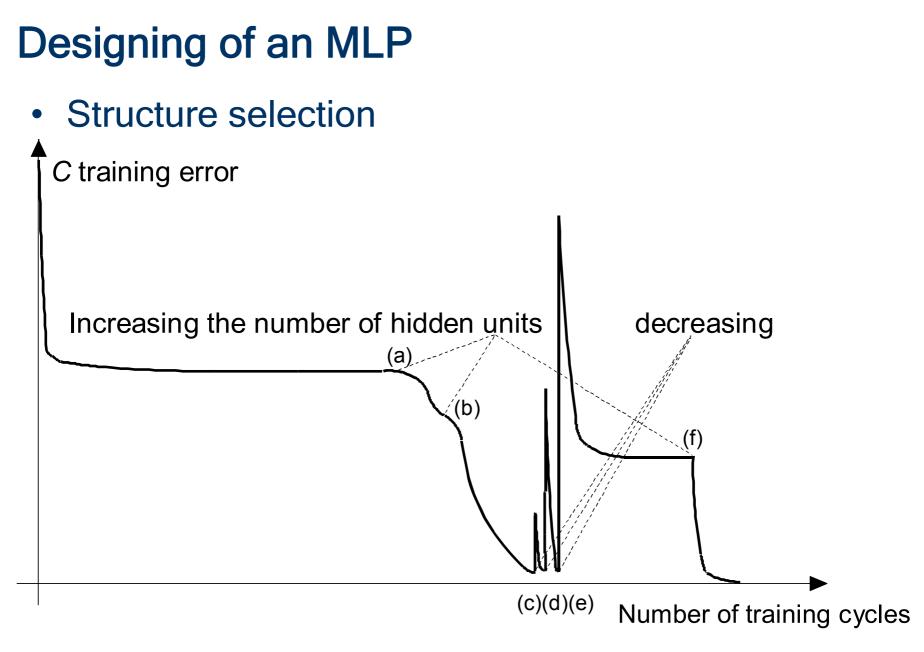
- The size of the network: the number of hidden units (model order)
 - theoretical results: upper limits
- Practical approaches: two different strategies
 - from simple to complex
 - adding new neurons
 - from complex to simple
 - pruning
 - regularization
 - (OBD, OBS, etc)



Cross validation for model selection

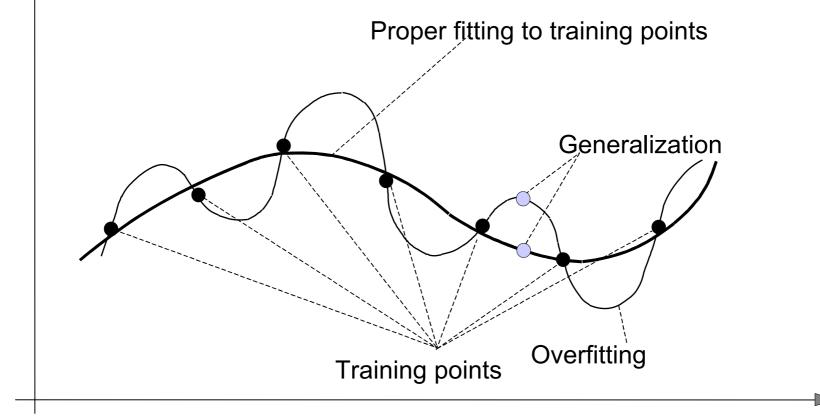






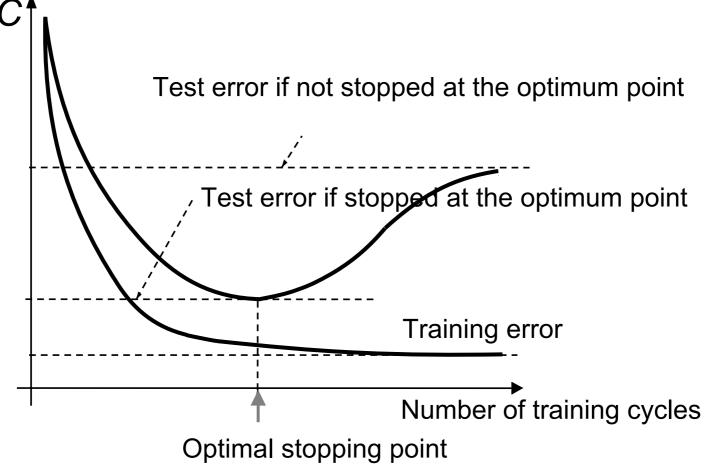


• Generalization, overfitting Output



Input

• Early stopping for avoiding overfitting





- Regularization
 - parametric penalty

$$C_r(\mathbf{w}) = C(\mathbf{w}) + \lambda \sum_{i,j} |w_{ij}|$$
$$\Delta w_{ij} = \mu \left(-\frac{\partial C}{\partial w_{ij}} \right) - \mu \lambda \operatorname{sgn}(w_{ij})$$

$$C_r(\mathbf{w}) = C(\mathbf{w}) + \lambda \sum_{|w_{ij}| \le \Theta} |w_{ij}|$$

- nonparametric penalty

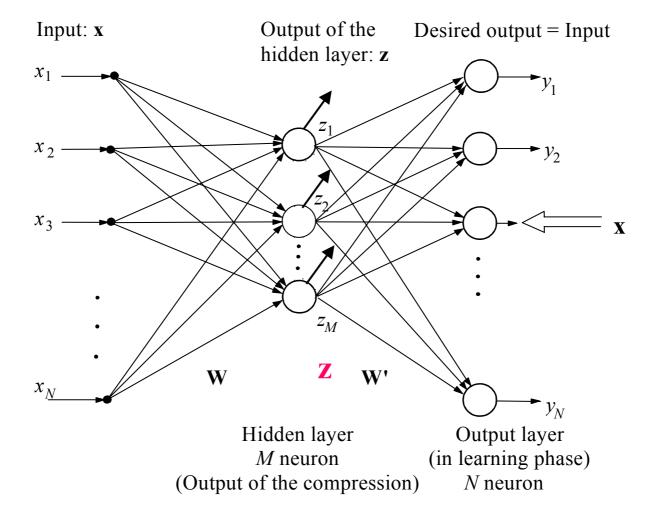
$$C_r(\mathbf{w}) = C(\mathbf{w}) + \lambda \Phi(\hat{f}(x))$$

where $\Phi(\hat{f}(x))$ is some measure of smoothness



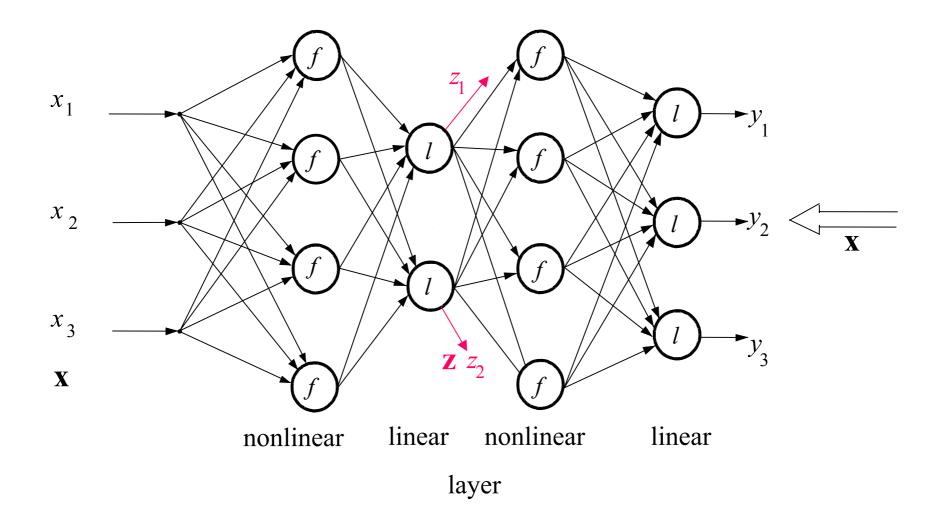
MLP as linear data compressor

Subspace transformation



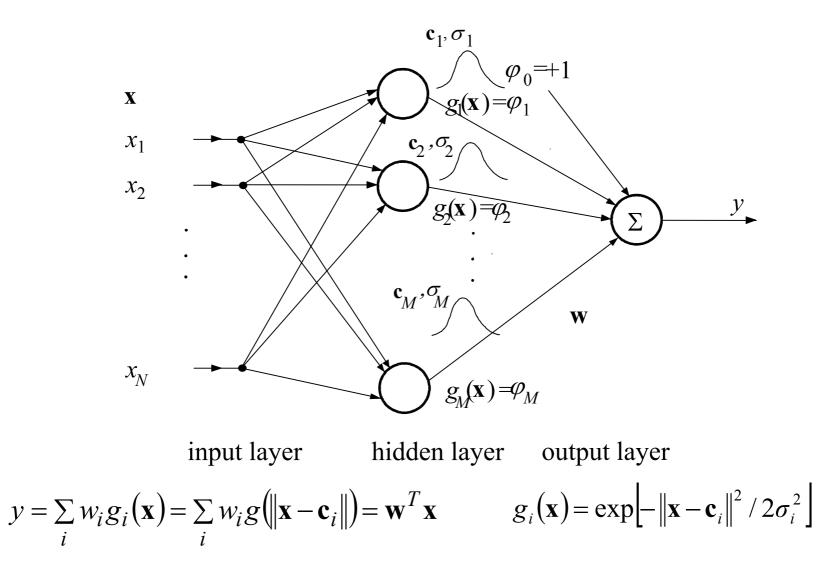


Nonlinear data compression





RBF (Radial Basis Function)





RBF training

- Linear-in-the parameter structure
 - analytical solution
 - LMS
- Cetres (nonlinear-in-the-parameters)
 - K-means
 - clustering
 - unsupervised learning



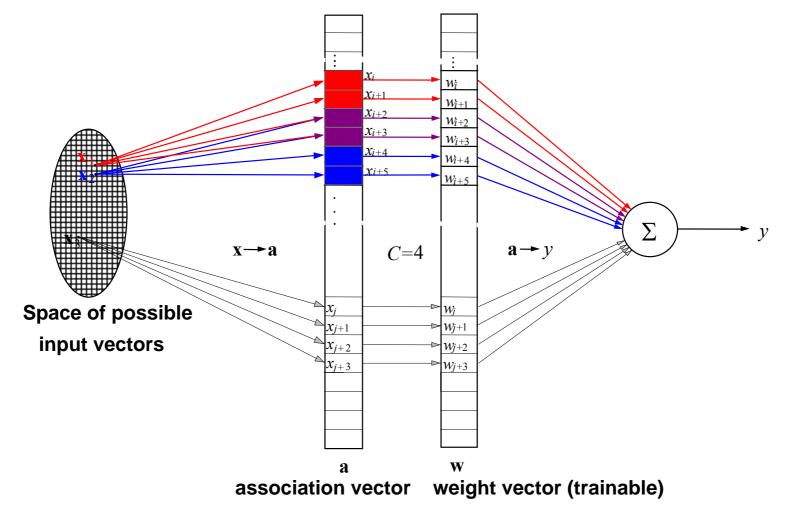
Designing of an RBF

- Important questions
 - the size of the network (number of hidden units) (model order)
 - the value of learning rate, μ
 - initial values of parameters (centres, weights)
 - validation, learning and testing set selection
 - the way of learning, batch or sequential
 - stopping criteria



CMAC network

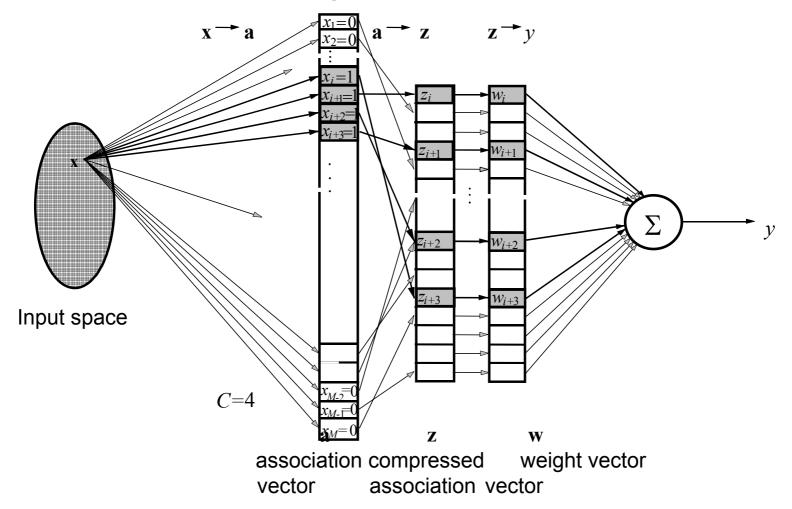
• Network with one trainable layer





CMAC network

• Network with hash-coding





CMAC modeling capability

- Analytical solution
- Iterative algorithm (LMS)

$$y(\mathbf{u}_i) = \mathbf{a}(\mathbf{u}_i)^T \mathbf{w} \quad i=1, 2, ..., P \qquad \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{w}$$

$$\mathbf{w}^* = \mathbf{A}^{\dagger} \mathbf{d} \qquad \qquad \mathbf{A}^{\dagger} = \mathbf{A}^T \left(\mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}^T \right)^{-1}$$

for univariate cases: $M \ge P$ for multivariate cases: $M \le P$



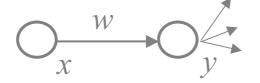
Networks with unsupervised learning

- Selforganizing network
 - Hebbian rule
 - Competitive learning
 - Main task
 - clustering, detection of similarities (normalized Hebbian + competitive)
 - data compression (PCA, KLT) (nomalized Hebbian)



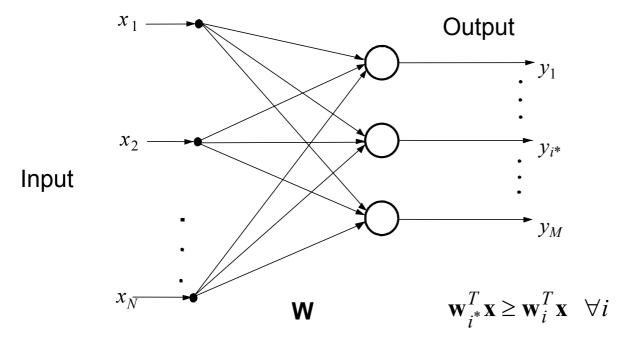
Unsupervised learning

- Hebbian learning
 - $\Delta w = \eta \, xy$



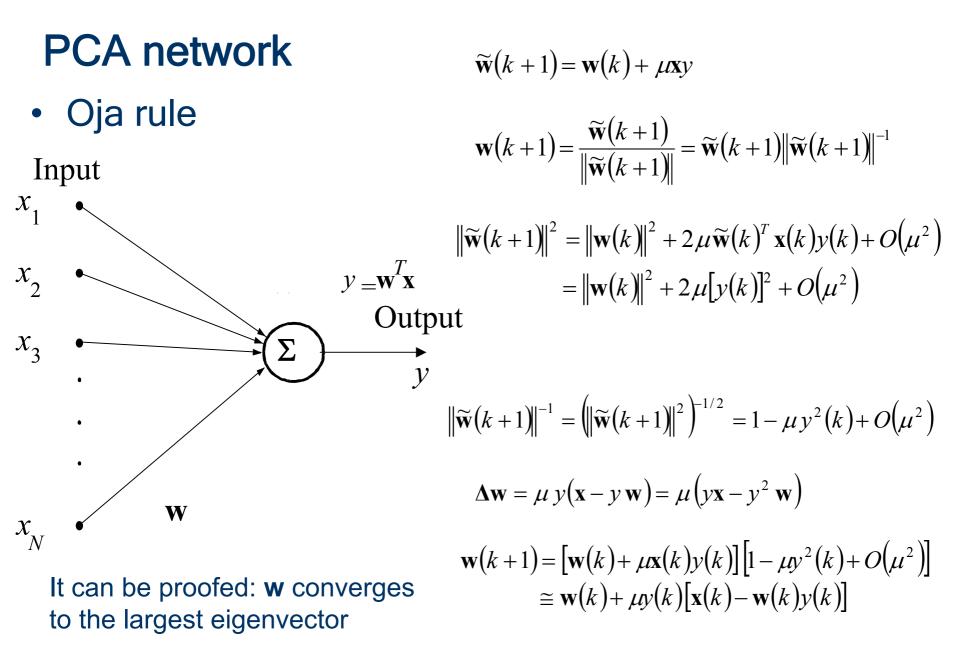
Competitive learning

Normalized Hebbian rule



 $\Delta \mathbf{w}_{i*} = \mu (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{w}_{i*})$

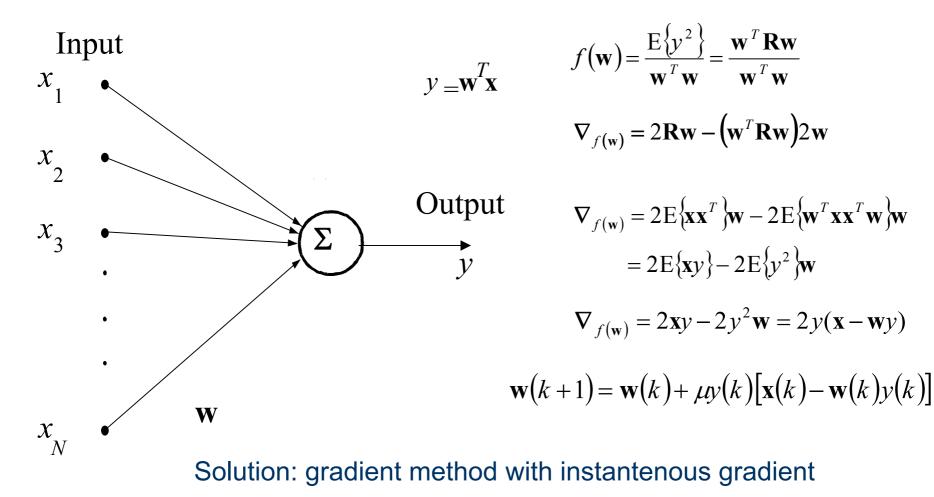


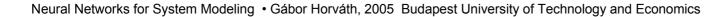




PCA network

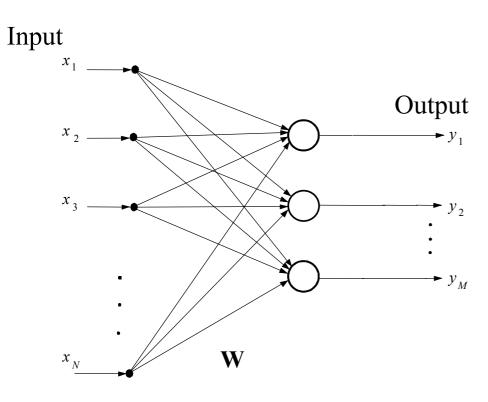
• Oja rule as a maximum problem (gradient search)





PCA networks

• GHA network (Sanger network)



$$\Delta \mathbf{w}_{1} = \mu \left(y_{1} \mathbf{x}^{(1)} - y_{1}^{2} \mathbf{w}_{1} \right)$$
$$\mathbf{x}^{(2)} = \mathbf{x}^{(1)} - \left(\mathbf{w}_{1}^{T} \mathbf{x}^{(1)} \right) \mathbf{w}_{1} = \mathbf{x}^{(1)} - y_{1} \mathbf{w}_{1}$$
$$\Delta \mathbf{w}_{2} = \mu \left(y_{2} \mathbf{x}^{(2)} - y_{2}^{2} \mathbf{w}_{2} \right) =$$
$$\mu \left(y_{2} \mathbf{x}^{(1)} - y_{1} y_{2} \mathbf{w}_{1} - y_{2}^{2} \mathbf{w}_{2} \right)$$
$$\Delta \mathbf{w}_{i} = \mu \left(y_{i} \mathbf{x}^{(1)} - y_{i}^{2} \mathbf{w}_{i} \right)$$
$$= \mu \left(y_{i} \mathbf{x}^{(1)} - y_{1} y_{2} \mathbf{w}_{i} - \dots - y_{i}^{2} \mathbf{w}_{i} \right)$$
$$= \mu \left(y_{i} \mathbf{x}^{(1)} - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} y_{j} y_{j} \mathbf{w}_{i} - y_{i}^{2} \mathbf{w}_{i} \right)$$

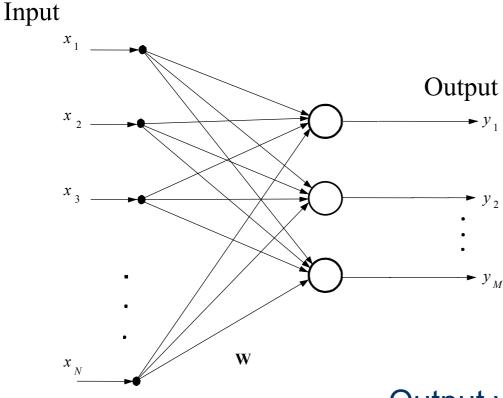
 $\Delta \mathbf{W} = \eta \left[\mathbf{y} \mathbf{x}^T - \mathbf{L} \mathbf{T} \left(\mathbf{y} \mathbf{y}^T \right) \mathbf{W} \right]$

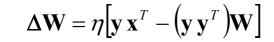
Oja rule + Gram-Schmidt orthogolarization



PCA networks

• Oja rule for multi-output (subspace problem)

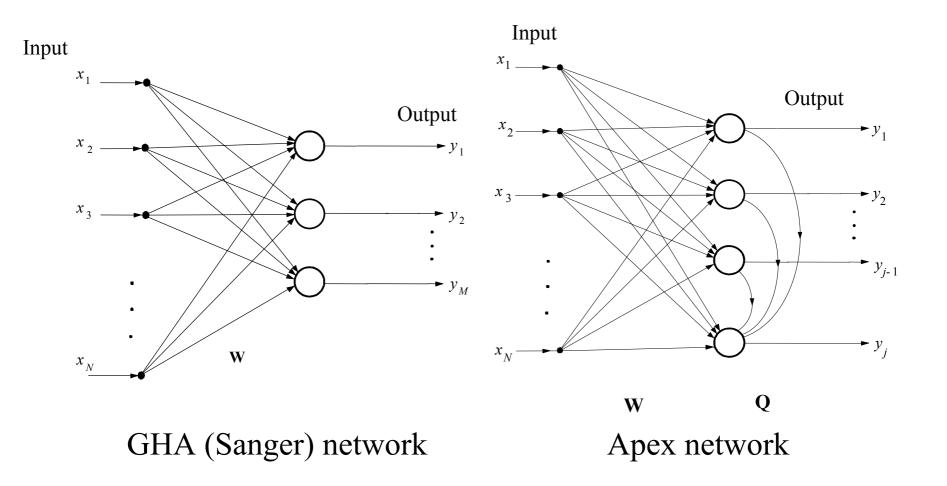




Output variance maximization rule



PCA networks





ICA networks

- Such linear transformation is looked for that restores the original components from mixed observations
- Many different approaches have been developed depending on the definition of independence (entropy, mutual information, Kullback-Leibleir information, non-Gaussianity)
- The weights can be obtained using nonlinear network (during training)
- Nonlinear version of the Oja rule

ICA training rule (one of the possible methods)

$$\mathbf{x}(k) = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{s}(k) + \mathbf{n}(k) = \sum_{i=1}^{M} \mathbf{a}_{i} s_{i}(k) + \mathbf{n}(k) \qquad \mathbf{y}(k) = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{x}(k) = \hat{\mathbf{s}}(k)$$

First step: whitening

$$\mathbf{v}(k) = \mathbf{V}\mathbf{x}(k) \qquad \mathbf{E}\left\{\mathbf{v}(k)\mathbf{v}(k)^{T}\right\} = \mathbf{I}$$

$$\mathbf{V}(k+1) = \mathbf{V}(k) - \mu(k) [\mathbf{v}(k)\mathbf{v}(k)^T - \mathbf{I}]\mathbf{V}(k)$$

Second step: separation

$$C(\mathbf{y}) = \sum_{i=1}^{M} \left| \operatorname{cum}(y_i^{4}) \right| = \sum_{i=1}^{M} \left| \operatorname{E}\left\{ y_i^{4} \right\} - 3\operatorname{E}^{2}\left\{ y_i^{2} \right\} \right|$$
$$\mathbf{B}(k) = \mathbf{W}(k)\mathbf{V}(k)$$
$$\mathbf{W}(k+1) = \mathbf{W}(k) + \eta \left(k \right) [\mathbf{v}(k) - \mathbf{W}(k)\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{y}(k))] \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{y}^{T}(k))$$

$$g(t)$$
=tanh(t)



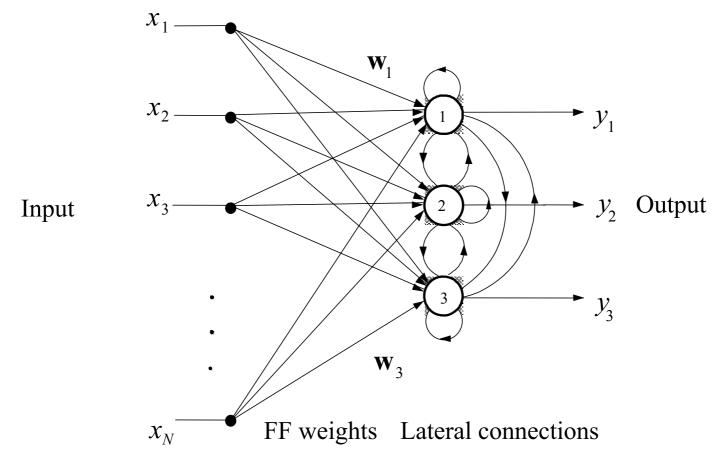
Networks with unsupervised learning

- clustering
- detection of similarities
- data compression (PCA, KLT)
- Independent component analysis (ICA)



Networks with unsupervised learning

Kohonen network: clustering





Independent component analysis

$$\mathbf{x}(k) = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{s}(k) + \mathbf{n}(k) = \sum_{i=1}^{M} \mathbf{a}_{i} s_{i}(k) + \mathbf{n}(k)$$

$$\mathbf{y}(k) = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{x}(k) = \hat{\mathbf{s}}(k)$$

$$\mathbf{X} \qquad \mathbf{v} \qquad \mathbf{y}$$
ICA network
architecture
$$x_{1} \qquad \mathbf{v} \qquad \mathbf{v}$$

$$x_{2} \qquad \mathbf{v}$$

$$x_{2} \qquad \mathbf{v}$$

$$x_{2} \qquad \mathbf{v}$$

$$\mathbf{v} \qquad \mathbf{w}$$
Input complex signal complex signal signal signal complex signal signal complex signal complex



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Dynamic neural architectures



Dynamic neural structures

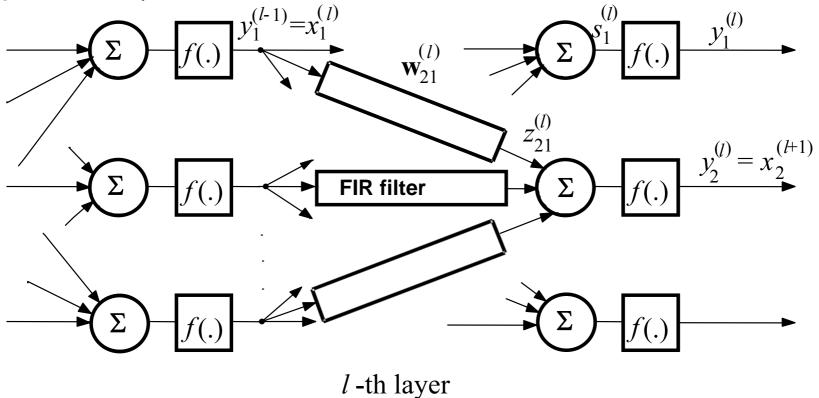
- Feed-forward networks
 - NFIR: FIR-MLP, FIR-RBF, etc.
 - NARX
- Feedback networks
 - RTRL
 - BPTT
- Main differences from static networks
 - time dependence (for all dynamic networks)
 - feedback (for feedback networks: NOE, NARMAX, etc.)
 - training: not for single sample pairs, but for sample sequences (sequantial networks)



Feed-forward architecture

• NFIR: FIR-MLP

(winner of the Santa Fe competition for laser signal prediction)





Feed-forward architecture

Е

FIR-MLP training: temporal backpropagation

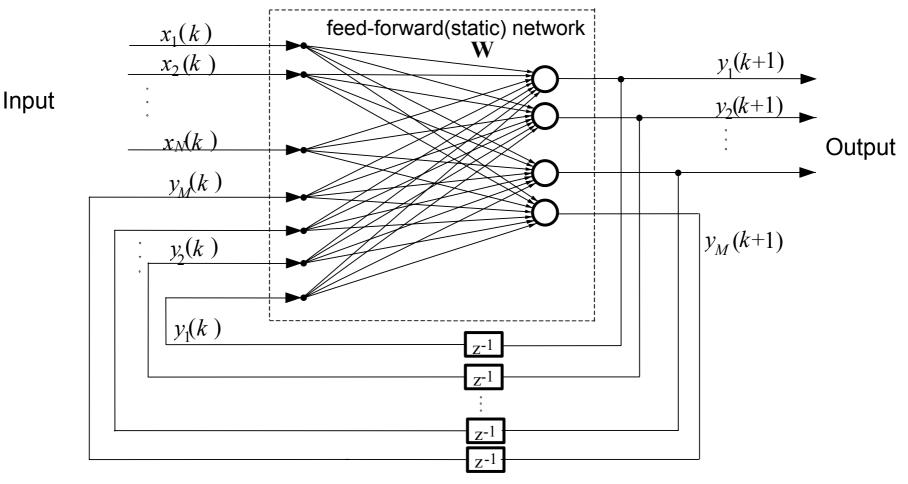
$${}^{2} = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \varepsilon^{2}(k) \qquad \frac{\partial \varepsilon^{2}}{\partial \mathbf{w}_{ij}^{(l)}} = \sum_{k} \frac{\partial \varepsilon^{2}(k)}{\partial \mathbf{w}_{ij}^{(l)}} \qquad \frac{\partial \varepsilon^{2}}{\partial \mathbf{w}_{ij}^{(l)}} = \sum_{k} \frac{\partial \varepsilon^{2}}{\partial s_{i}^{(l)}(k)} \frac{\partial s_{i}^{(l)}(k)}{\partial \mathbf{w}_{ij}^{(l)}}$$
$$\frac{\partial \varepsilon^{2}(k)}{\partial \mathbf{w}_{ij}^{(l)}} \neq \frac{\partial \varepsilon^{2}}{\partial s_{i}^{(l)}(k)} \frac{\partial s_{i}^{(l)}(k)}{\partial \mathbf{w}_{ij}^{(l)}}$$

- output layer $\mathbf{w}_{ij}^{(L)}(k+1) = \mathbf{w}_{ij}^{(L)}(k) + 2\mu\varepsilon_i f'(s_i^{(L)}(k))\mathbf{x}_j^{(L)}(k)$
- hidden layer $\mathbf{w}_{ij}(k+1) = \mathbf{w}_{ij}(k) + 2\mu \delta_i (k-M) \mathbf{x}_j (k-M)$ $\delta_i (k-M) = f'(s_i(k)) \sum_m \Delta_m^T (k-M) \mathbf{w}_{mi}$ $\Delta_m^{(l)}(k) = \left[\delta_m^{(l)}(k), \delta_m^{(l)}(k+1), \dots, \delta_m^{(l)}(k+M_m^{(l)}) \right]$



Recurrent network

• Architecture



Recurrent network

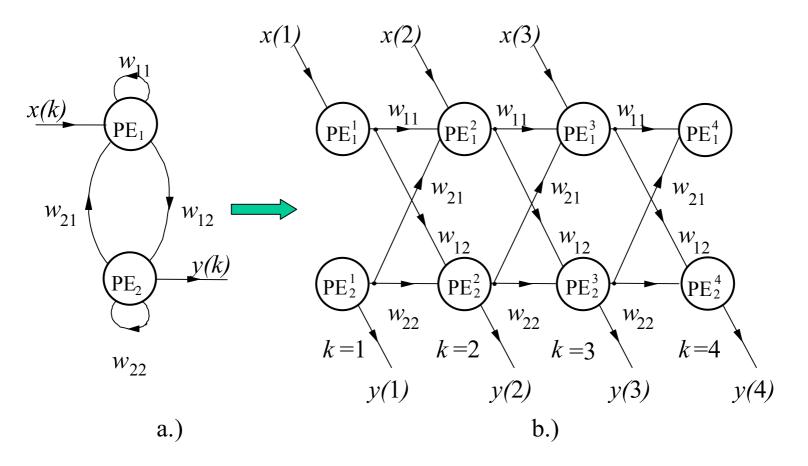
• Training: real-time recursive learning (RTRL)

$$\frac{\partial \varepsilon^{2}(k)}{\partial w_{ij}(k)} = \sum_{l \in \mathbf{C}} \frac{\partial \varepsilon_{l}^{2}(k)}{\partial w_{ij}(k)}; \quad \Delta w_{ij}(k) = -\mu \frac{\partial \varepsilon^{2}(k)}{\partial w_{ij}(k)}; \quad \frac{\partial \varepsilon^{2}(k)}{\partial w_{ij}(k)} = 2\sum_{l \in \mathbf{C}} \varepsilon_{l}(k) \frac{\partial \varepsilon_{l}(k)}{\partial w_{ij}(k)}$$
$$= -2\sum_{l \in \mathbf{C}} \varepsilon_{l}(k) \frac{\partial y_{l}(k)}{\partial w_{ij}(k)}$$



Recurrent network

 Training: backpropagation through time (BPTT) unfolding in time





Dynamic neural structures

• Combined linear dynamic and non-linear dynamic architectures

$$x \longrightarrow N \xrightarrow{v} H(z) \xrightarrow{y} x \longrightarrow N^{2} \xrightarrow{v} H(z) \xrightarrow{v} N^{l} \xrightarrow{y} \xrightarrow{v} (\mathbf{w}^{2}) \xrightarrow{v} H(z) \xrightarrow{v} N^{l} \xrightarrow{y} \xrightarrow{v} (\mathbf{w}^{2}) \xrightarrow{v} H(z) \xrightarrow{v} N^{l} \xrightarrow{v} (\mathbf{w}^{2}) \xrightarrow{v} H(z) \xrightarrow{$$

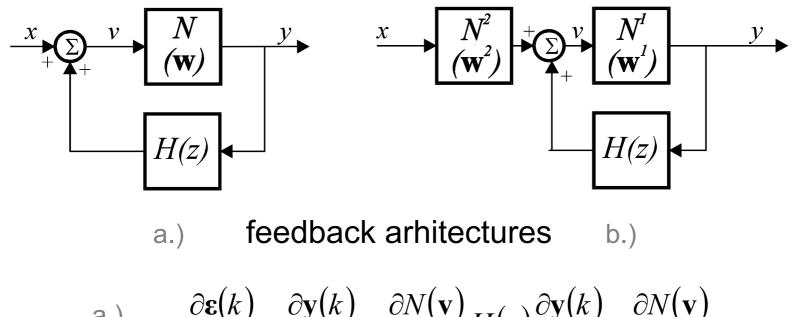
feed-forward architectures

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{\varepsilon}(k)}{\partial w_{ij}} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{y}(k)}{\partial w_{ij}} = H(z) \frac{\partial \mathbf{v}}{\partial w_{ij}} \qquad \qquad \frac{\partial \varepsilon(k)}{\partial w_{ij}^{(2)}} = \frac{\partial y(k)}{\partial w_{ij}^{(2)}} = \sum_{l} \frac{\partial y(k)}{\partial v_{l}} \frac{\partial v_{l}}{\partial w_{ij}^{(2)}}$$

Dynamic backpropagation



Dynamic neural structures



a.)
$$\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}(k)}{\partial w_{ij}} = \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{y}(k)}{\partial w_{ij}} = \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{V}(\mathbf{v})}{\partial \mathbf{v}} H(z) \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{y}(k)}{\partial w_{ij}} + \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{V}(\mathbf{v})}{\partial w_{ij}}$$

b.)
$$\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}(k)}{\partial w_{ij}} = \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{y}(k)}{\partial w_{ij}} = \frac{\partial N^{1}(v)}{\partial v} \left(\frac{\partial N^{2}(u)}{\partial w_{ij}} + H(z) \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{y}(k)}{\partial w_{ij}} \right)$$



Dynamic system modeling

• Example: modeling of a discrete time system

$$y(k+1) = 0.3y(k) + 0.6y(k-1) + f[u(k)]$$

- where

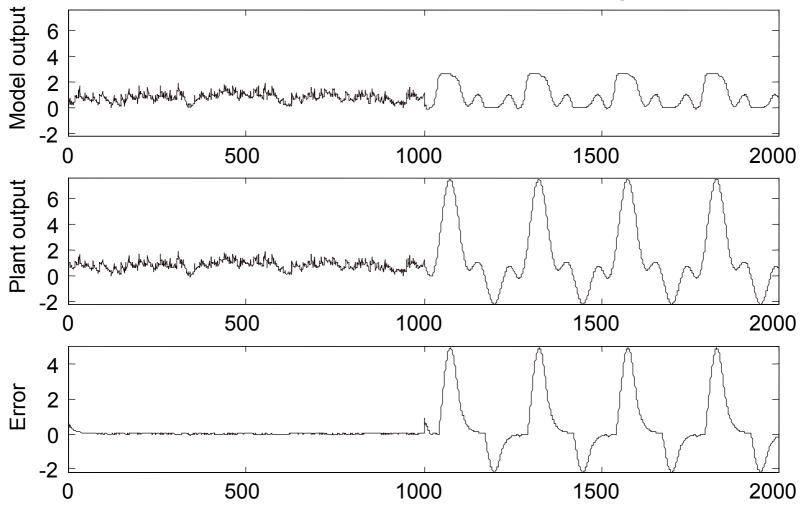
$$f(u) = u^3 + 0.3u^2 - 0.4u$$

- Training signal: uniform, random, two different amplitudes



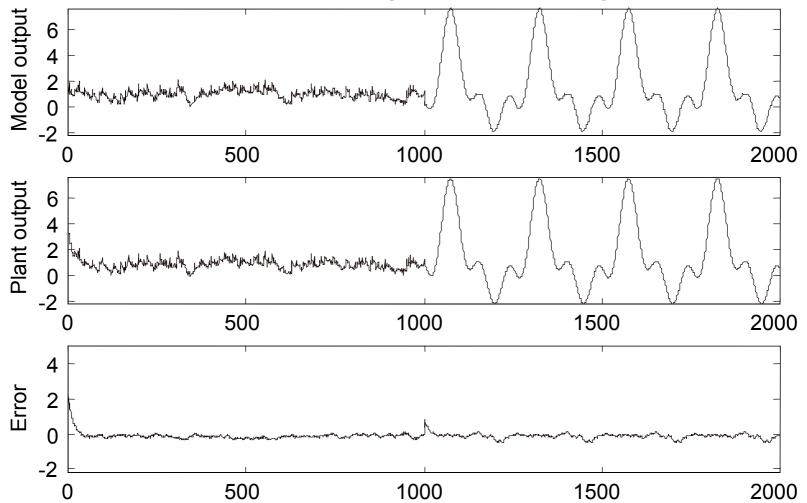
Dynamic system modeling

• The role of excitation: small excitation signal



Dynamic modeling

• The role of excitation: large excitation signal





References and further readings

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Outline

- Why we need a new approch
- Support vector machines
 - SVM for classification
 - SVM for regression
 - Other kernel machines
- Statistical learning theory
 - Validation (measure of quality: risk)
 - Vapnik-Chervonenkis dimension
 - Generalization



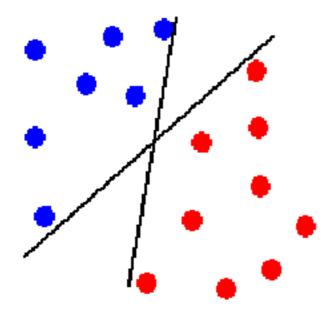
• A new approach:

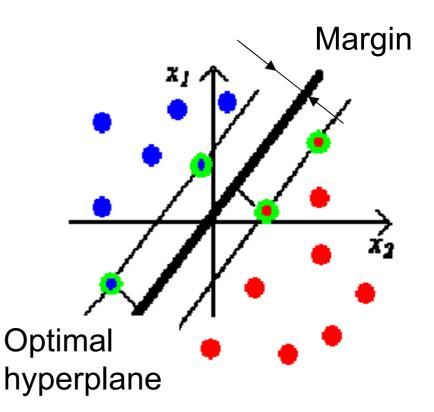
gives answers for questions not solved using the classical approach

- the size of the network
- the generalization capability



Classification





Classical neural learning (perceptron)

Support Vector Machine



• Linearly separable two-class problem

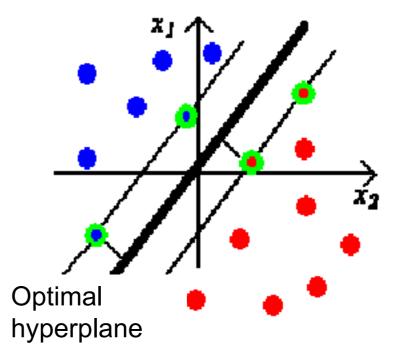
$$\{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^P$$
 $\mathbf{x}_i \in X^1$ $y_i = +1$, $\mathbf{x}_i \in X^2$ $y_i = -1$

separating hyperpalne

$$\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b = 0$$

$$\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b \ge +1$$
, if $\mathbf{x}_i \in X^1$
and

$$\mathbf{w}^{T}\mathbf{x}_{i} + b \leq -1, \text{ if } \mathbf{x}_{i} \in X^{2}$$
$$(\mathbf{w}^{T}\mathbf{x}_{i} + b)y_{i} \geq 1, \quad \forall i$$





• Geometric interpretation The formulation of optimality x_2

$$d(\mathbf{w}, b, \mathbf{x}) = \frac{\left\|\mathbf{w}^{T}\mathbf{x} + b\right\|}{\left\|\mathbf{w}\right\|}$$

$$d = \frac{b}{\|\mathbf{w}\|} \qquad \qquad \mathbf{x}_{1}$$

$$\rho(\mathbf{w}, b) = \min_{\{\mathbf{x}_i; y_i = 1\}} d(\mathbf{w}, b, \mathbf{x}_i) + \min_{\{\mathbf{x}_i; y_i = -1\}} d(\mathbf{w}, b, \mathbf{x}_i) =$$
$$= \min_{\{\mathbf{x}_i; y_i = 1\}} \frac{\left| \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b \right|}{\|\mathbf{w}\|} + \min_{\{\mathbf{x}_i; y_i = -1\}} \frac{\left| \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b \right|}{\|\mathbf{w}\|} = \frac{2}{\|\mathbf{w}\|}$$



• Criterion function (primal problem)

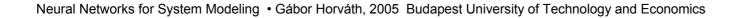
 $\min \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 \to \max \operatorname{margin}$

 $\Phi(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2$ with the conditions $(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b) y_i \ge 1, \forall i$

a constrained optimization problem

(KKT conditions, saddle point) $J(\mathbf{w}, b, \alpha) = \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 - \sum_{i=1}^{P} \alpha_i \{ [\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b] y_i - 1 \} \qquad \max_{\alpha} \min_{\mathbf{w}, b} J(\mathbf{w}, b, \alpha)$ conditions

$$\frac{\partial J}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = \mathbf{w} - \sum_{i=1}^{P} \alpha_i \mathbf{x}_i y_i = 0 \qquad \frac{\partial J}{\partial b} = \sum_{i=1}^{P} \alpha_i y_i = 0 \qquad \mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^{P} \alpha_i \mathbf{x}_i y_i \qquad \sum_{i=1}^{P} \alpha_i y_i = 0$$



• Lagrange function (dual problem)

$$\max_{\alpha} W(\alpha) = \max_{\alpha} \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{P} \sum_{j=1}^{P} \alpha_{i} \alpha_{j} y_{i} y_{j} (\mathbf{x}_{i} \mathbf{x}_{j}) + \sum_{i=1}^{P} \alpha_{i} \right\}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{P} \alpha_i y_i = 0 \qquad \qquad \alpha_i \ge 0 \quad \text{for all } i$$

support vectors

optimal hyperplane

$$\mathbf{x}_i: \alpha_i > 0$$

$$\mathbf{w}^* = \sum_{i=1}^P \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i$$

output

$$y(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^{*^{T}}\mathbf{x} + b = \sum_{i=1}^{P} \alpha_{i} y_{i}(\mathbf{x}_{i}^{T}\mathbf{x}) + b$$



• Linearly nonseparable case (slightly nonlinear case)

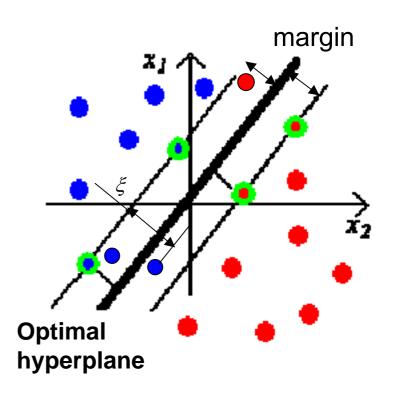
separating hyperplane

$$y_i[\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{x}_i+b] \ge 1-\xi_i \qquad i=1,...,P$$

criterion function (slack variable ξ)

$$\Phi(w,\xi) = \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^{P} \xi_i$$

Lagrange function



i=1

$$J(\mathbf{w}, b, \xi, \alpha, \beta) = \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^{P} \xi_i - \sum \alpha_i \{y_i [\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b] - 1 + \xi_i\} - \sum_{i=1}^{P} \beta_i \xi_i$$
$$0 \le \alpha_i \le C$$
support vectors $\mathbf{x}_i : \alpha_i > 0$ optimal hyperplane $\mathbf{w}^* = \sum_{i=1}^{P} \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i$



- Nonlinear separation, feature space
 - separating hypersurface (hyperplane in the ϕ space)

$$\mathbf{w}^{T} \boldsymbol{\varphi}(\mathbf{x}) + b = 0 \qquad \qquad \sum_{j=0}^{M} w_{j} \varphi_{j}(\mathbf{x}) = 0$$

- decision surface

$$\sum_{i=1}^{P} \alpha_i y_i K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{P} \left(\alpha_i y_i \sum_{j=0}^{M} \varphi_j(\mathbf{x}_i) \varphi_j(\mathbf{x}) \right) = 0$$

- kernel function (Mercer conditions)

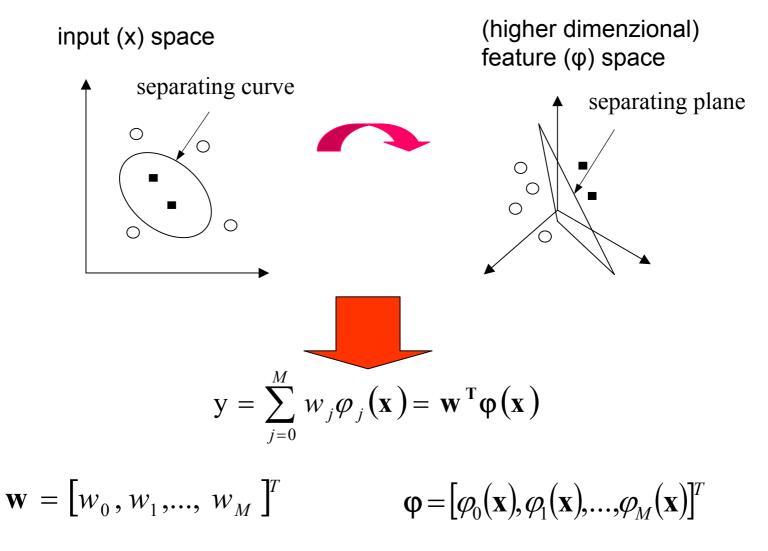
$$K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = \boldsymbol{\varphi}^T(\mathbf{x}_i) \boldsymbol{\varphi}(\mathbf{x}_j)$$

- criterion function

$$W(\alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^{P} \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{P} \sum_{j=1}^{P} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j K(\mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{x}_j)$$



Feature space

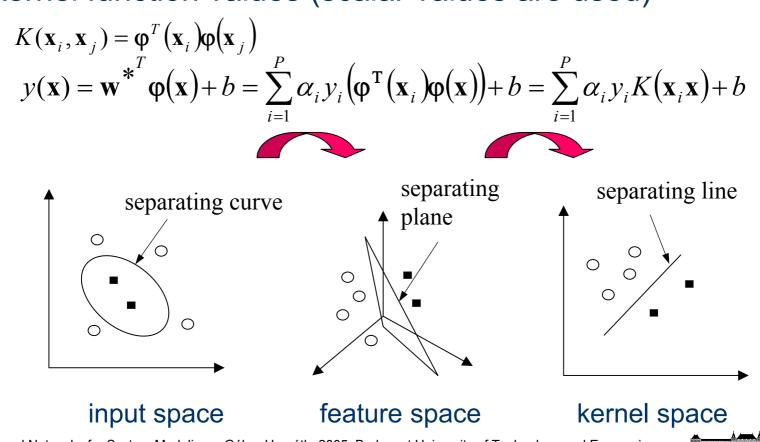




Kernel space

Kernel trick

feature representation (nonlinear transformation) is not used kernel function values (scalar values are used)



- Examples of kernel functions
 - Polynomial

$$K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_i) = (\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}_i + 1)^d$$
, $d = 1,...$

- RBF

$$K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_i) = \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_i\|^2\right)$$

- MLP (only for certain β_0 and β_1)

$$K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_i) = \tanh(\beta_0 \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}_i + \beta_1)$$

- CMAC B-spline



- Example: polynomial basis and kernel function
 - basis functions

$$\varphi(\mathbf{x}_i) = [1, x_{i1}^2, \sqrt{2}x_{i1}x_{i2}, x_{i2}^2, \sqrt{2}x_{i1}, \sqrt{2}x_{i2}]^T$$

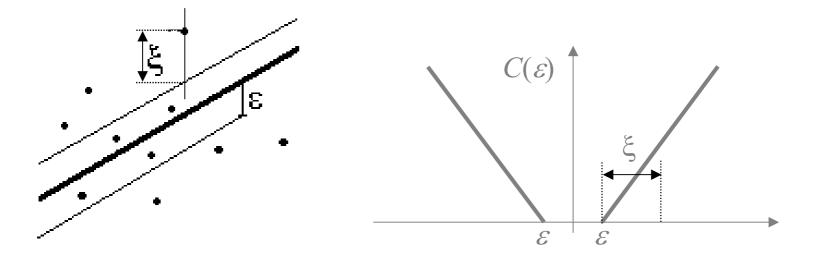
- kernel function

$$K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_{i}) = 1 + x_{1}^{2} x_{i1}^{2} + 2x_{1} x_{2} x_{i1} x_{i2} + x_{2}^{2} x_{i2}^{2} + 2x_{1} x_{i1} + 2x_{2} x_{i2}$$



SVR (regression)

ε -insensitive loss(criterion) function



$$C_{\varepsilon}(y, f(\mathbf{x}, \alpha)) = |y - f(\mathbf{x}, \alpha)|_{\varepsilon} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{ha } |y - f(\mathbf{x}, \alpha)| \le \varepsilon \\ |y - f(\mathbf{x}, \alpha)| - \varepsilon & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

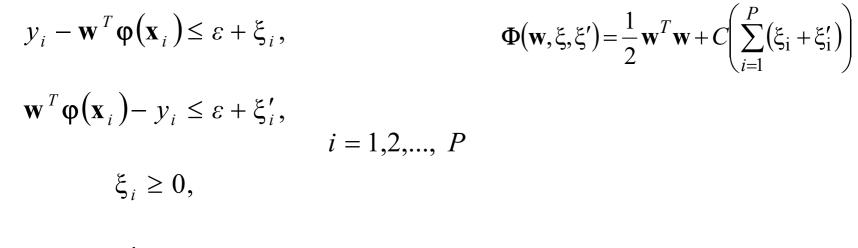


SVR (regression)

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{j=0}^{M} w_j \varphi_j(\mathbf{x})$$

Constraints:

Minimize:





SVR (regression) Lagrange function

$$J(\mathbf{w},\xi,\xi',\alpha,\alpha',\gamma,\gamma') = C\sum_{i=1}^{P} (\xi_i + \xi_i') + \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w} - \sum_{i=1}^{P} \alpha_i [\mathbf{w}^T \varphi(\mathbf{x}_i) - \gamma_i + \varepsilon + \xi_i] - \sum_{i=1}^{P} \alpha_i' [\gamma_i - \mathbf{w}^T \varphi(\mathbf{x}_i) + \varepsilon + \xi_i'] - \sum_{i=1}^{P} (\gamma_i \xi_i + \gamma_i' \xi')$$
$$\gamma_i = C - \alpha_i \qquad \gamma_i' = C - \alpha_i'$$

Neural Networks for System Modeling • Gábor Horváth, 2005 Budapest University of Technology and Economics



SVR (regression)

Dual problem

$$W(\alpha_i \alpha_i') = \sum_{i=1}^{P} y_i (\alpha_i - \alpha_i') - \varepsilon \sum_{i=1}^{P} (\alpha_i + \alpha_i') - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{P} \sum_{j=1}^{P} (\alpha_i - \alpha_i') (\alpha_j - \alpha_j') K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$$

constraints

support vectors

$$\sum_{i=1}^{P} (\alpha_i - \alpha'_i) = 0 \qquad 0 \le \alpha_i \le C, \qquad 0 \le \alpha'_i \le C, \qquad \mathbf{x}_i : \alpha_i \neq \alpha'_i$$

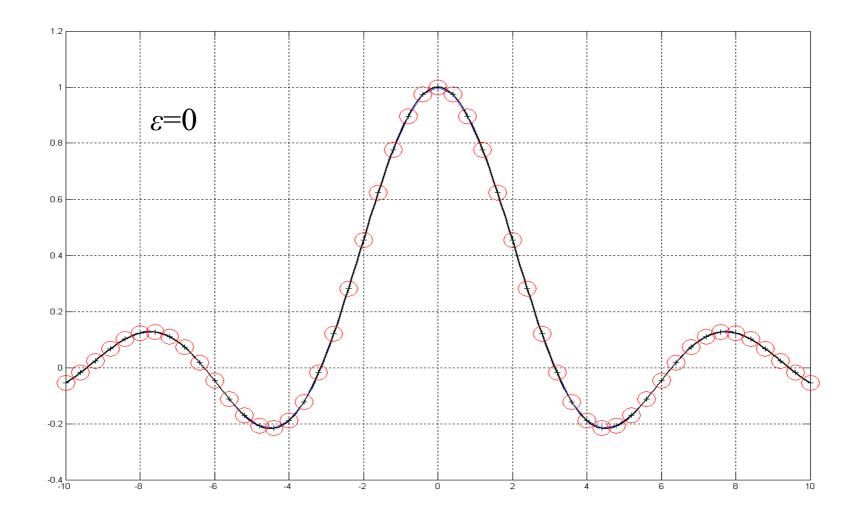
solution

$$\mathbf{w}^* = \sum_{i=1}^{P} (\alpha_i - \alpha'_i) \boldsymbol{\varphi}(\mathbf{x}_i)$$

$$y(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^{*^{T}} \boldsymbol{\varphi}(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{P} (\alpha_{i} - \alpha_{i}') (\boldsymbol{\varphi}^{T}(\mathbf{x}_{i}) \boldsymbol{\varphi}(\mathbf{x})) = \sum_{i=1}^{P} (\alpha_{i} - \alpha_{i}') K(\mathbf{x}_{i} \mathbf{x})$$

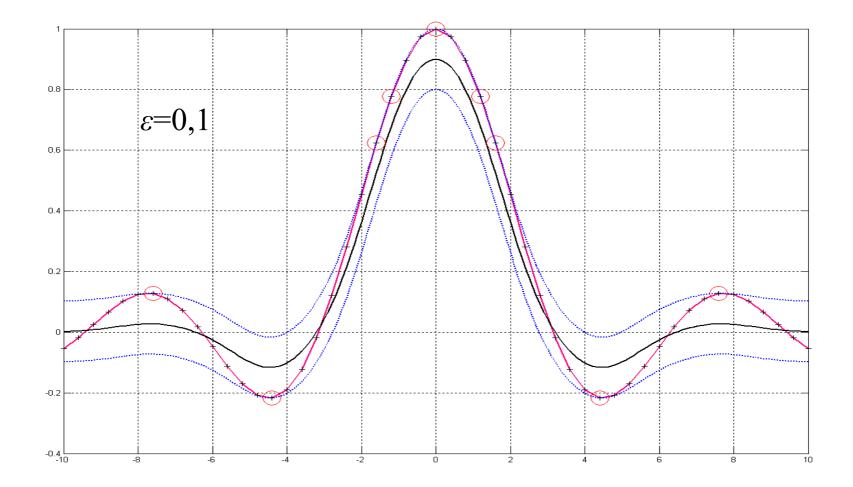


SVR (regression example)



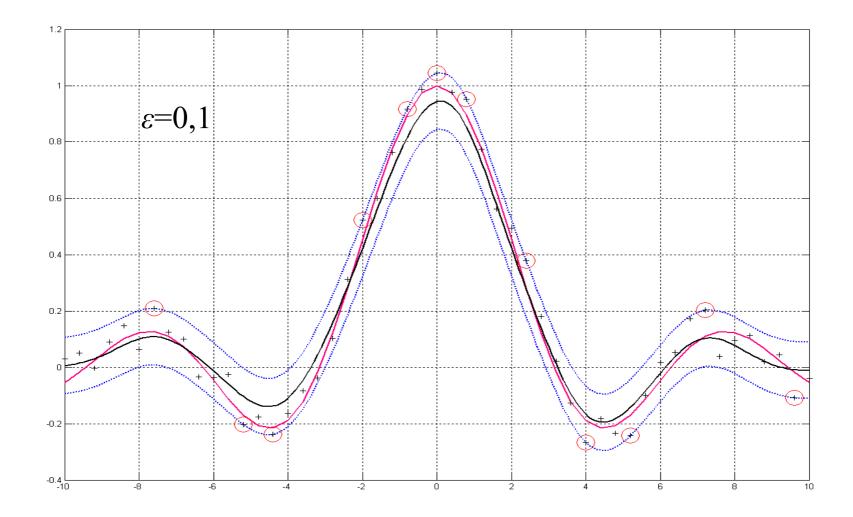


SVR (regression example)





SVR (regression)





Support vector machines

- Main advantages
 - automatic model complexity (network size)
 - relevant training data point selection
 - allows tolerance (ϵ)
 - high-dimensional feature space representation is not used directly (kernel trick)
 - upper limit of the generalization error (see soon)
- Main difficulties
 - quadratic programming to solve dual problem
 - hyperparameter (C, ε, σ) selection
 - batch processing (there are on-line versions too)



SVM versions

- Classical Vapnik's SVM (drawbacks)
- LS-SVM

classification

regression

$$\Phi(\mathbf{w},\xi,\xi') = \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{w} + C\left(\sum_{i=1}^P e_i^2\right) \qquad \Phi(\mathbf{w},\xi,\xi') = \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{w} + C\left(\sum_{i=1}^P e_i^2\right)$$

equality constraints

$$y_i[\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b] = 1 - e_i$$
 $i = 1,...,P$ $y_i = \mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_i) + b + e_i$ $i = 1,...,P$

no quadratic optimization to be solved : a linear set of equations

Ridge regression
 similar to LS-SVM



LS-SVM

Lagrange equation

$$L(\mathbf{w}, b, \mathbf{e}; \boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w} + \frac{1}{2} \gamma \sum_{k=1}^{P} e_k^2 - \sum_{k=1}^{P} \alpha_k \left\{ \mathbf{w}^T \boldsymbol{\varphi}(\mathbf{x}_k) + b + e_k - y_k \right\}$$

The results

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = \mathbf{0} \quad \rightarrow \quad \mathbf{w} = \sum_{k=1}^{P} \alpha_k \boldsymbol{\varphi}(\mathbf{x}_k)$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial b} = \mathbf{0} \quad \rightarrow \quad \sum_{k=1}^{P} \alpha_k = \mathbf{0}$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial e_k} = \mathbf{0} \quad \rightarrow \quad \alpha_k = \gamma \, e_k \qquad \qquad k = 1, \dots, P$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \alpha_k} = \mathbf{0} \quad \rightarrow \quad \mathbf{w}^T \boldsymbol{\varphi}(\mathbf{x}_k) + b + e_k - y_k = \mathbf{0} \quad k = 1, \dots, P$$



LS-SVM

Linear equation Regression

Clasification

 $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & \mathbf{\vec{1}}^T \\ \mathbf{\vec{1}} & \mathbf{\Omega} + \gamma^{-1}\mathbf{I} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b \\ \mathbf{\alpha} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \mathbf{y} \end{bmatrix} \qquad \qquad \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \mathbf{y}^T \\ \mathbf{y} & \mathbf{\Omega} + \gamma^{-1}\mathbf{I} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b \\ \mathbf{\alpha} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \mathbf{\vec{1}} \end{bmatrix}$ where

 $\boldsymbol{\Omega}_{i,j} = K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = \boldsymbol{\varphi}^T(\mathbf{x}_i) \boldsymbol{\varphi}(\mathbf{x}_j) \qquad \boldsymbol{\Omega}_{i,j} = y_i y_j K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$

the response of the network

$$y(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{k=1}^{N} \alpha_k K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_k) + b \qquad \qquad y(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{k=1}^{N} \alpha_k y_k K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_k) + b$$



Main features of LS-SVM and ridge regression

- Benefits
 - Easy to solve (no quadratic programming , only a linear equation set)
 - On-line, adaptive version (important in system identification)
- Drawbacks
 - Not sprase solution, all training points are used (there are no "support vectors")
 - No "tolerance parameter" (ε)
 - No proved upper limit of the generalization error
 - Large kernel matrix if many training points are available



Improved LS Kernel machines

- There are sparse versions of the LS-SVM
 - The training points are ranked and only the most important ones are used (iterative solution)
 - The kernel matrix can be reduced (a tolerance parameter is introduced again)
 - Detailes: see the references
- Additional contraints can be used for special applications (see e.g. regularized kernel CMAC)



Kernel CMAC (an example)

- Goal
 - General goal:
 - to show that additional constraints can be used in the framework of LS-SVM
 - here: the additional constraint is a weight-smoothing term
 - Special goal:
 - to show that kernel approach can be used for improving the modelling capability of the CMAC



General goal

- Introducing new constraints
- General LS-SVM problem

Criterion function: two terms weight minimization term + error term

Lagrange function

criterion function+ Lagrange term

Extension

adding new constraint to the criterion function Extended Lagrange function new criterion function (with the new constraint) + Lagrange term



Special goal: improving the capability of the CMAC

- Difficulties with multivariate CMAC:
 - too many basis functions (too large weight memory)
 - poor modelling and generalization capability
- Improved generalization: regularization
- Improved modelling capability:
 - more basis functions:

difficulties with the implementation kernel trick, kernel CMAC

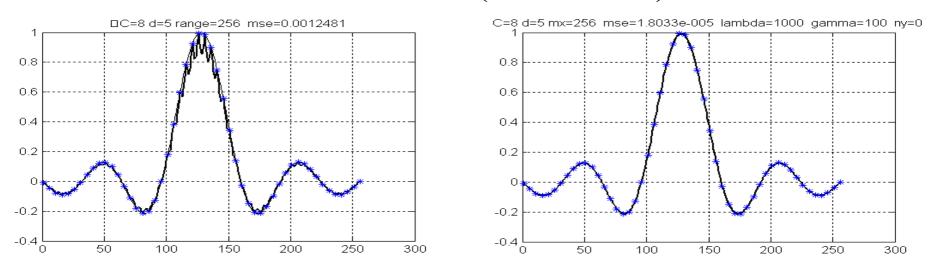
- Improved modelling and generalization capability
 - regularized kernel CMAC



Regularized CMAC

• Regularized criterion function (weight smoothing)

$$J(k) = \frac{1}{2} \left(y_d(k) - y(k) \right)^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} \left(\frac{y_d(k)}{C} - w_i(k) \right)^2$$
$$w_i(k+1) = w_i(k) + \mu(k)e(k) + \lambda \left(\frac{y_d(k)}{C} - w_i(k) \right)$$



Kernel CMAC

Classical Albus CMAC: analytical solution

$$y_{d_k} = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{a}_k \qquad k = 1,...,P \qquad \mathbf{y}_d = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{w}$$
$$\mathbf{w}^* = \mathbf{A}^{\dagger} \mathbf{y}_d \qquad \mathbf{A}^{\dagger} = \mathbf{A}^T \left(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T\right)^{-1} \qquad y(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{a}^T (\mathbf{x})\mathbf{w}^* = \mathbf{a}^T (\mathbf{x})\mathbf{A}^T (\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T)^{-1} \mathbf{y}_d$$

• Kernel version

criterion function (LS)
$$\min_{\mathbf{w}} J(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{e}) = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w} + \frac{\gamma}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{P} e_k^2$$

constraint
$$y_{d_k} = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{a}_k + e_k$$

Lagrangian
$$L(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{e}, \mathbf{\alpha}) = J(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{e}) - \sum_{k=1}^{P} \alpha_k (\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{a}_k + e_k - y_d)$$

k=1

Kernel CMAC (ridge regression)

Using the derivatives the resulted equations

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial L(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{e}, \boldsymbol{\alpha})}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = \mathbf{0} \rightarrow \mathbf{w} = \sum_{k=1}^{P} \alpha_k \mathbf{a}_k \\ \frac{\partial L(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{e}, \boldsymbol{\alpha})}{\partial e_k} = \mathbf{0} \rightarrow \alpha_k = \gamma e_k \qquad k = 1, \dots, P \\ \frac{\partial L(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{e}, \boldsymbol{\alpha})}{\partial \alpha_k} = \mathbf{0} \rightarrow \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{a}(\mathbf{x}_k) + e_k - y_{d_k} = \mathbf{0} \qquad k = 1, \dots, P \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{K} + \frac{1}{\gamma} \mathbf{I} \end{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\alpha} = \mathbf{y}_d \qquad \mathbf{K} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T$$
$$y(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{a}^T(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{a}^T(\mathbf{x})\sum_{k=1}^{P} \alpha_k \mathbf{a}_k = \sum_{i=1}^{P} \alpha_k K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_k) = \mathbf{K}^T(\mathbf{x})\boldsymbol{\alpha}$$



Kernel CMAC with regularization

Extended criterion function:

$$\min_{\mathbf{w}} J(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{e}) = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w} + \frac{\gamma}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{P} e_k^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{P} \sum_{i} \left(\frac{y_{d_k}}{C} - w_k(i) \right)^2$$

Lagrange function

$$L(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{e}, \alpha) = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{w}^{T} \mathbf{w} + \frac{\gamma}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{P} e_{k}^{2} + \frac{\lambda}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{P} \sum_{i} \left(\frac{y_{d_{k}}}{C} - w_{k}(i) \right)^{2} - \sum_{k=1}^{P} \alpha_{k} \left(\mathbf{w}^{T} \mathbf{a}_{k} + e_{k} - y_{d_{k}} \right)$$

$$L(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{e}, \alpha) = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w} + \frac{\gamma}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{P} e_k^2 - \sum_{k=1}^{P} \alpha_k \left(\mathbf{a}_k^T diag(\mathbf{a}_k) \mathbf{w} + e_k - y_{d_k} \right)$$
$$+ \frac{\lambda}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{P} \frac{y_{d_k}^2}{C} - \lambda \sum_{k=1}^{P} \frac{d_k}{C} \mathbf{a}_k^T diag(\mathbf{a}_k) \mathbf{w} + \frac{\lambda}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{P} \mathbf{w}^T diag(\mathbf{a}_k) \mathbf{w}$$

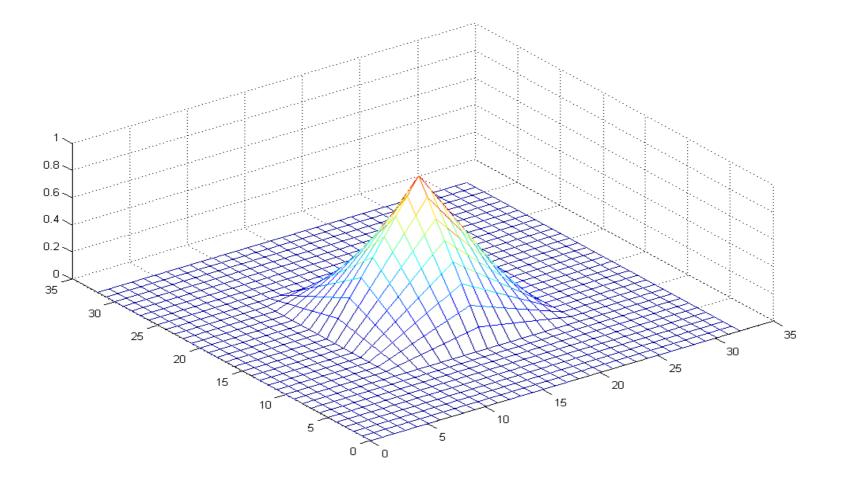
Output

$$y(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{a}^T(\mathbf{x})(\mathbf{I} + \lambda \mathbf{D})^{-1} \mathbf{A}^T \left[\mathbf{\alpha} + \frac{\lambda}{C} \mathbf{y}_d \right] \quad \text{where} \quad \mathbf{D} = \sum_{k=1}^{P} diag(\mathbf{a}_k)$$



Kernel CMAC with regularization

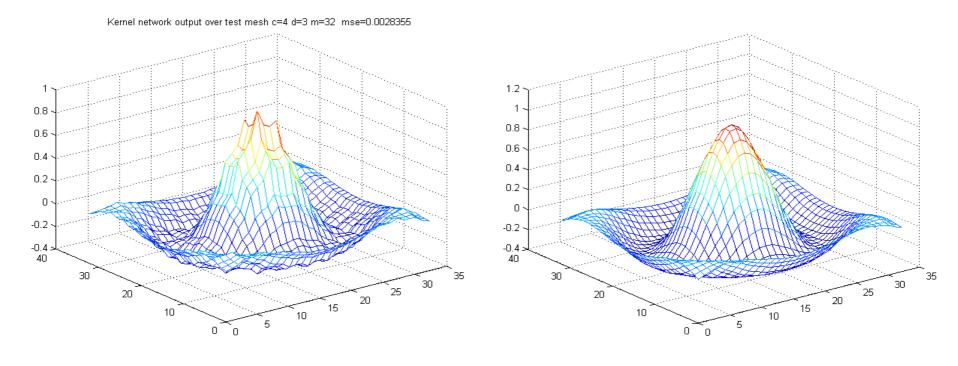
Kernel function for two-dimensional kernel CMAC





Regularized Kernel CMAC (example)

• 2D sinc





with

regularization

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Statistical learning theory

- Main question: how can the quality of a learning machine be estimated
- Generalization measure based on the empirical risk (error).
- Empirical risk: the error determined in the training points



Statistical learning theory

Goal: to find a solution that minimizes the risk

$$R(\mathbf{w}) = \int l(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) \ p(\mathbf{x}, y) d\mathbf{x} dy = \int [y - f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w})]^2 p(\mathbf{x}, y) d\mathbf{x} dy \qquad R(\mathbf{w}^* | P)$$

Difficulties: joint density function is unknown

Only the empirical risk can be determined

$$R_{\text{emp}}(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{P} \sum_{l=1}^{P} \left[y_i - f(\mathbf{x}_l, \mathbf{w}) \right]^2$$

$$R_{\rm emp}(\mathbf{w}^*|P)$$

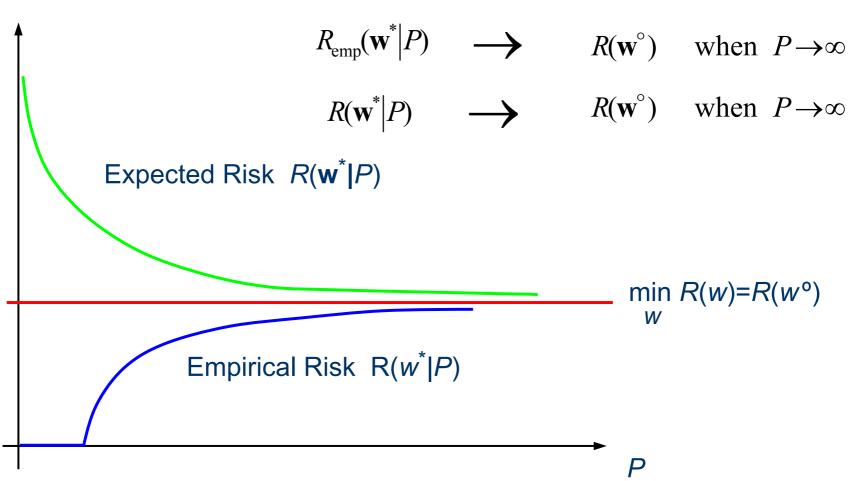
optimal value

minimizing the empirical risk



Statistical learning theory: ERM principle

Asymptotic consistency of empirical risk





Statistical learning theory

- Condition of consistency of the ERM principle Necessarry and sufficient condition: *finite VC dimension* Also: this is a sufficient condition of *fast convergence*
- VC (Vapnik-Chervonenkis) dimension:

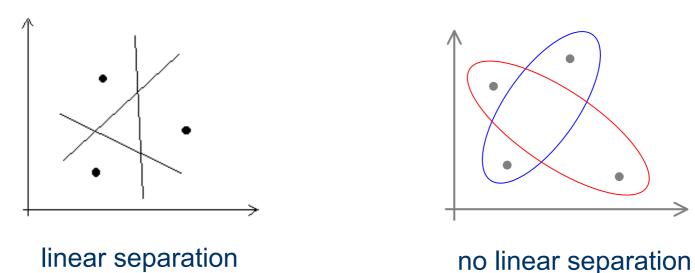
A set of function has VC dimension *h* if there exist *h* samples *that can be shattered* (can be separated into two classes in all possible ways: all 2^h possible ways) by this set of functions but there do not exist *h*+1 samples that can be shattered by the same set of functions.

Model complexity, VC dimension

- •VC dimension of a set of indicator functions
 - definition

VC dimension is the *maximum number* of samples for which *all possible binary labellings* can be induced by a set of functions

- illustration



VC dimension

- Based on VC dimension *upper bounds of the risk* can be obtained
- Calculating the VC dimension
 - general case: rather difficult
 e.g for MLP VC-dimension can be infinite
 - special cases: e.g. linear function set
- VC dimension of a set of linear functions (linear separating task)

h = N + 1 (*N*: input space dimension)

An important statement: *It can be proved that the VC dimension can be less than N +1*



Generalization error

- Bound on generalization
 - Classification: with probability of at least 1-η (confidence level; η is a given value within the additional term)

$$R(\mathbf{w}) \le R_{\text{emp}}(\mathbf{w}) + \text{additional term}(h)$$
 (confidence interval)
 $h \le \min(R^2 / M^2, N) + 1;$

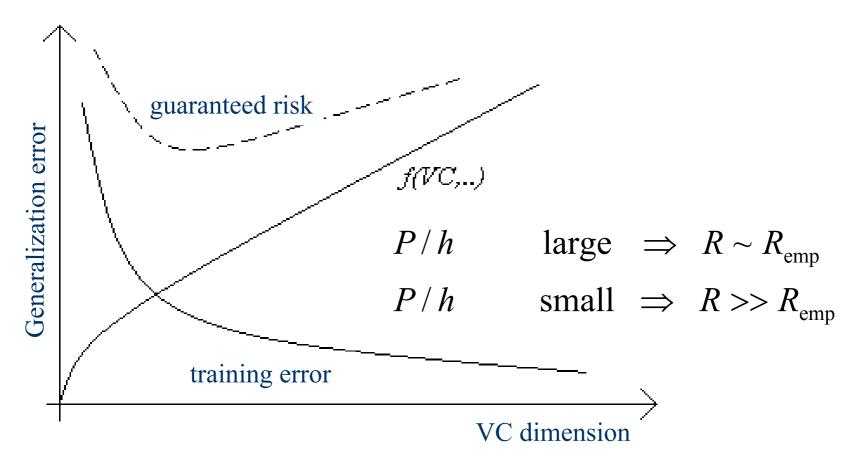
R =Radius of a sphere containing all data points

$$M = \frac{1}{\|\mathbf{w}\|}$$
 margin of classification

- regression

$$R(\mathbf{w}) \le \frac{R_{\text{emp}}(\mathbf{w})}{\left(1 - c\sqrt{\varepsilon(h)}\right)_{+}} \qquad \varepsilon = a_1 \frac{h\left[\log(a_2 N / h) + 1\right] - \log(\eta / 4)}{N}$$

Generalization error



Tradeoff between the quality of approximation and the complexity of the approximating function



Structural risk minimization principle

- Good generalization: *both terms should be minimized S* set of approximating functions The elements of *S*, nested subset of *S_k* with finite VC dimension *h_k S*₁ ⊂ *S*₂ ⊂ ... ⊂ *S_k* ⊂ ... The ordering of complexity of the elements *h*₁ ≤ *h*₂ ≤ ... ≤ *h_k*≤ ... Based on a priori information *S* is specified.
 - For a given data set the optimal model estimation:
 - selection of an element of the set (model selection) estimating the model from this subset (training the model) there is an upper bound on the prediction risk with a given confidence level



Constructing a learning algorithm

- Structural risk minimization
 - Such S_k will be selected for which the guaranted risk is minimal
 - SRM principle suggests a *tradeoff between the quality of approximation and the complexity of the approximating function* (model selection problem)
 - Both terms are controlled:
 - the empirical risk with training
 - the complexity with the selection of S_k

$$R(\mathbf{w}_{P}^{k}) \leq R_{emp}(\mathbf{w}_{P}^{k}) + additional term(P/h_{k})$$

confidence interval





 Support vector machines are such a learning machines that minimize the length of the weight vector

- They minimize the VC dimension. The upper bounds are valid for SVMs.
- For SVMs not only the structure (the size of the network) can be determined, but an estimate of its generalization error can be obtained.



References and further readings

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- Cherkassky, V., Mulier, F. "Learning from Data, Concepts, Theory, and Methods", John Wiley and Sons, 1998.



Modular network architectures

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Modular solution

- A set of networks: competition/cooperation
 - all networks solve the same problem (competition/cooperation)
 - the whole problem is decomposed: the different networks solve different part of the whole problem (cooperation)
- Ensemble of networks
 - linear combination of networks
- Mixture of experts
 - using the same paradigm (e.g. neural networks)
 - using different paradigms (e.g. neural networks + symbolic systems, neural networks + fuzzy systems)

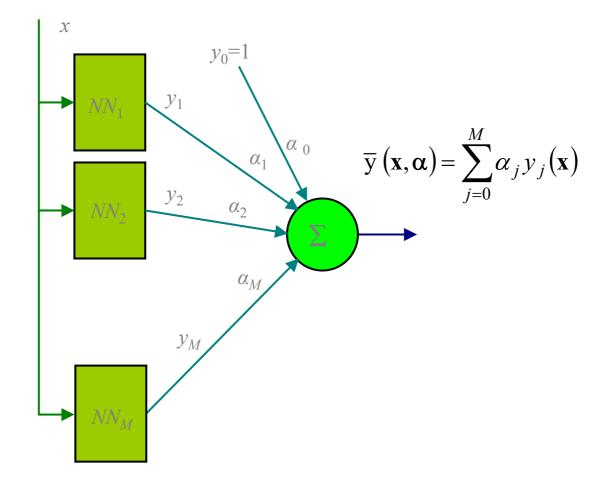


Cooperative networks

Ensemble of cooperating networks (classification/regression)

- The motivation
 - Heuristic explanation
 - Different experts together can solve a problem better
 - Complementary knowledge
 - Mathematical justification
 - Accurate and diverse modules

Linear combination of networks





Ensemble of networks

- Mathematical justification
 - Ensemble output
 - Ambiguity (diversity)
 - Individual error

- Ensemble error

$$\overline{\mathbf{y}}(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \sum_{j=0}^{M} \alpha_{j} y_{j}(\mathbf{x})$$
$$a_{j}(\mathbf{x}) = \left[y_{j}(\mathbf{x}) - \overline{y}(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\alpha})\right]^{2}$$
$$\varepsilon_{j}(\mathbf{x}) = \left[d(\mathbf{x}) - y_{j}(\mathbf{x})\right]^{2}$$
$$\varepsilon(\mathbf{x}) = \left[d(\mathbf{x}) - \overline{y}(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\alpha})\right]^{2}$$

- Constraint

$$\sum_{j=1}^{M} \alpha_{j} = 1$$



Ensemble of networks

- Mathematical justification (cont'd)
 - Weighted error

$$\overline{\varepsilon}(\mathbf{x},\alpha) = \sum_{j=0}^{M} \alpha_{j} \varepsilon_{j}(\mathbf{x})$$

- Weighted diversity \bar{a}

$$\overline{a}(\mathbf{x},\alpha) = \sum_{j=0}^{M} \alpha_{j} \alpha_{j}(\mathbf{x})$$

- Ensemble error $\varepsilon(\mathbf{x}) = [d(\mathbf{x}) \overline{y}(\mathbf{x}, \alpha)]^2 = \overline{\varepsilon}(\mathbf{x}, \alpha) \overline{a}(\mathbf{x}, \alpha)$
- Averaging over the input distribution

$$E = \int_{\mathbf{x}} \varepsilon(\mathbf{x}, \alpha) f(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} \qquad \overline{E} = \int_{\mathbf{x}} \overline{\varepsilon}(\mathbf{x}, \alpha) f(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} \qquad \overline{A} = \int_{\mathbf{x}} \overline{a}(\mathbf{x}, \alpha) f(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}$$
$$E = \overline{E} - \overline{A}$$

Solution: Ensemble of accurate and diverse networks



Ensemble of networks

- How to get accurate and diverse networks
 - different structures: more than one network structure (e.g. MLP, RBF, CCN, etc.)
 - different size, different complexity networks (number of hidden units, number of layers, nonlinear function, etc.)
 - different learning strategies (BP, CG, random search, etc.)
 batch learning, sequential learning
 - different training algorithms, sample order, learning samples
 - different training parameters
 - different initial parameter values
 - different stopping criteria



Linear combination of networks

- Computation of optimal (fix) coefficients
 - $\alpha_{k} = \frac{1}{M}, \quad k = 1 \dots M \quad \rightarrow \text{ simple average}$ $\alpha_{k} = 1, \alpha_{j} = 0, \quad j \neq k \quad , k \text{ depends on the input}$
 - for different input domains different network (alone) gives the output
 - optimal values using the constraint

$$\sum_{\kappa=1}^{M} \alpha_k = 1$$

- optimal values without any constraint

Wiener-Hopf equation $\alpha^*_{(1)}$

$$\mathbf{R}_{y} = \mathbf{E}\left[\overline{\mathbf{y}}(\mathbf{x})\,\overline{\mathbf{y}}(\mathbf{x})^{T}\right]$$

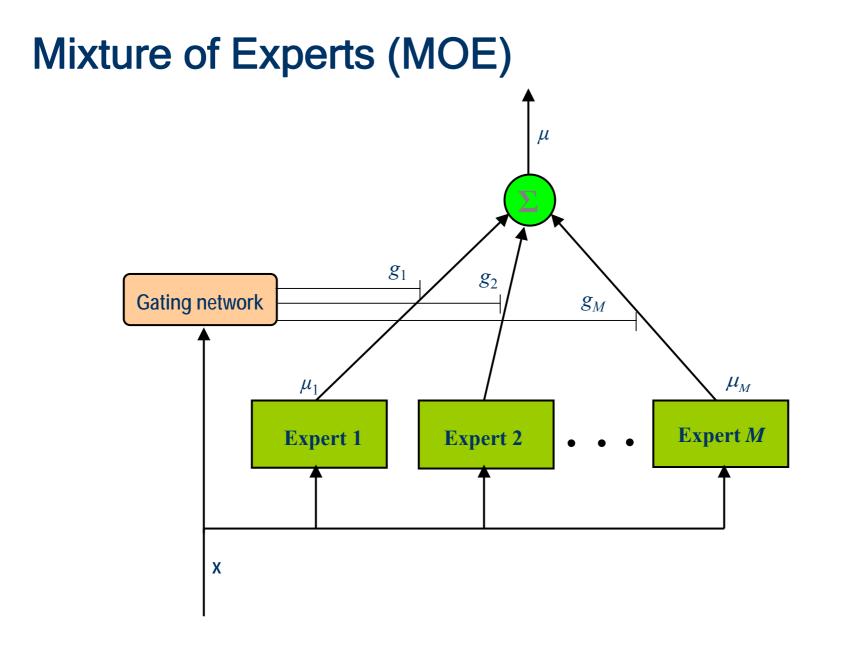
$$\boldsymbol{\alpha}_{(1)}^{*} = \mathbf{R}_{y}^{-1}\mathbf{P}$$
$$\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{E}\left[\overline{\mathbf{y}}(\mathbf{x}) d(\mathbf{x})\right]$$



References and further readings

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- Gasser Auda and Mohamed Kamel: "Modular Neural Networks: A survey" Pattern Analysis andíMachine Intelligence Lab. Systems Design Engineering Department, University of Waterloo, Canada.







• The output is the weighted sum of the outputs of the experts

$$\mu = \sum_{i=1}^{M} g_i \mu_i \qquad \mu_i = f(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\Theta}_i) \qquad \sum_{i=1}^{M} g_i = 1 \qquad g_i \ge 0 \quad \forall i$$

 Θ_i is the parameter of the *i*-th expert

• The output of the gating network: "softmax" function

$$g_i = \frac{e^{\xi_i}}{\sum_{j=1}^M e^{\xi_j}} \qquad \qquad \xi_i = \mathbf{v}_i^T \mathbf{x}$$

• \mathbf{v}_i^T is the parameter of the gating network



Probabilistic interpretation

$$\mu_i = E[y \mid \mathbf{x}, \Theta_i] \qquad g_i = P(i \mid \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{v}_i)$$

the probabilistic model with true parameters

$$P(\mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{\Theta}^{0}) = \sum_{i} g_{i}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{v}_{i}^{0}) P(\mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{\Theta}_{i}^{0})$$

a priori probability $g_i(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{v}_i^0) = P(i|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{v}_i^0)$



- Training
 - Training data $X = \{ \left(\mathbf{x}^{(l)}, \mathbf{y}^{(l)} \right) \}_{l=1}^{P}$
 - Probability of generating output from the input

$$P(\mathbf{y}^{(l)} | \mathbf{x}^{(l)}, \mathbf{\Theta}) = \sum_{i} P(i | \mathbf{x}^{(l)}, \mathbf{v}_{i}) P(\mathbf{y}^{(l)} | \mathbf{x}^{(l)}, \mathbf{\Theta}_{i})$$
$$P(\mathbf{y} | \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{\Theta}) = \prod_{l=1}^{P} P(\mathbf{y}^{(l)} | \mathbf{x}^{(l)}, \mathbf{\Theta}) = \prod_{l=1}^{P} \left[\sum_{i} P(i | \mathbf{x}^{(l)}, \mathbf{v}_{i}) P(\mathbf{y}^{(l)} | \mathbf{x}^{(l)}, \mathbf{\Theta}_{i}) \right]$$

- The log likelihood function (maximum likelihood estimation) $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\Theta}) = \sum_{l} \log \left[\sum_{i} P(i \mid \mathbf{x}^{(l)}, \mathbf{v}_{i}) P(\mathbf{y}^{(l)} \mid \mathbf{x}^{(l)}, \boldsymbol{\Theta}_{i}) \right]$



- Training (cont'd)
 - Gradient method

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\Theta})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\Theta}_i} = \mathbf{0} \qquad \text{and} \qquad$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{x},\boldsymbol{\Theta})}{\partial \mathbf{v}_i} = \mathbf{0}$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\Theta})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\Theta}_i} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\Theta})}{\partial \mu_i} \frac{\partial \mu_i}{\partial \boldsymbol{\Theta}_i}$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{\Theta})}{\partial \mathbf{v}_{i}} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{\Theta})}{\partial \xi_{i}} \frac{\partial \xi_{i}}{\partial \mathbf{v}_{i}}$$

- The parameter of the expert network $\Theta_i(k+1) = \Theta_i(k) + \eta \sum_{l=1}^{P} h_i^{(l)} (\mathbf{y}^{(l)} - \mu_i) \frac{\partial \mu_i}{\partial \Theta_i}$
- The parameter of the gating network

$$\mathbf{v}_{i}(k+1) = \mathbf{v}_{i}(k) + \eta \sum_{l=1}^{P} \left(h_{i}^{(l)} - g_{i}^{(l)} \right) \mathbf{x}^{(l)}$$



- Training (cont'd)
 - A priori probability

$$g_i^{(l)} = g_i(\mathbf{x}^{(l)}, \mathbf{v}_i) = P(i \mid \mathbf{x}^{(l)}, \mathbf{v}_i)$$

- A posteriori probability

$$h_i^{(l)} = \frac{g_i^{(l)} P(\mathbf{y}^{(l)} | \mathbf{x}^{(l)}, \Theta_i)}{\sum_j g_j^{(l)} P(\mathbf{y}^{(l)} | \mathbf{x}^{(l)}, \Theta_j)}$$



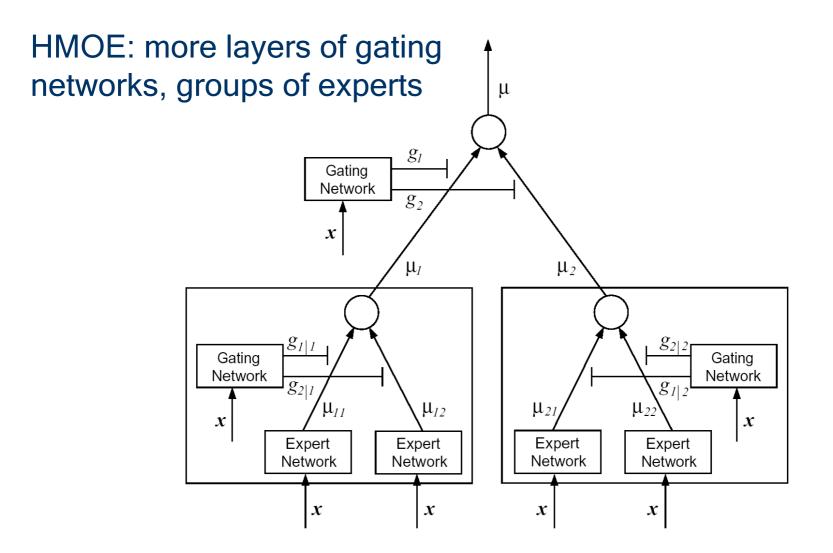
- Training (cont'd)
 - EM (Expectation Maximization) algorithm
 A general iterative technique for maximum likelihood

estimation

- Introducing hidden variables
- Defining a log-likelihood function
- Two steps:
 - Expectation of the hidden variables
 - Maximization of the log-likelihood function



Hierarchical Mixture of Experts (HMOE)

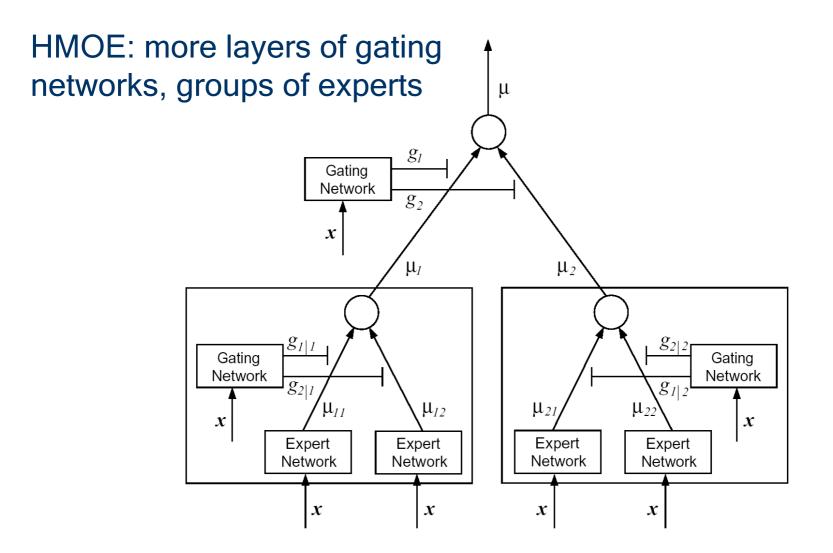




- MOE construction
- Cross-validation can be used to find the proper architecture
- CART (Clasification And Regression Tree) for initial hierarchical MOE (HMOE) architecture and for the initial expert and gating network parameters
- MOE based on SVMs: different SVMs with different hyperparameters

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Hierarchical Mixture of Experts (HMOE)





- MOE construction
- Cross-validation can be used to find the proper architecture
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References and further readings

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Application: modelling an industrial plant (steel converter)

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Overview

- Introduction
- Modeling approaches
- Building neural models
- Data base construction
- Model selection
- Modular approach
- Hybrid approach
- Information system
- Experiences with the advisory system
- Conclusions



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Introduction to the problem

- Task
 - to develop an advisory system for a Linz-Donawitz steel converter
 - to propose component composition
 - to support the factory staff in supervising the steelmaking process
- A model of the process is required: first a system modelling task should be solved



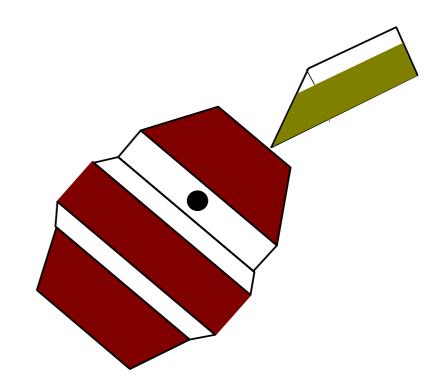
LD Converter modeling The Linz-Donawitz converter in Hungary (Dunaferr Co.)

Basic Oxigen Steelmaking (BOS)



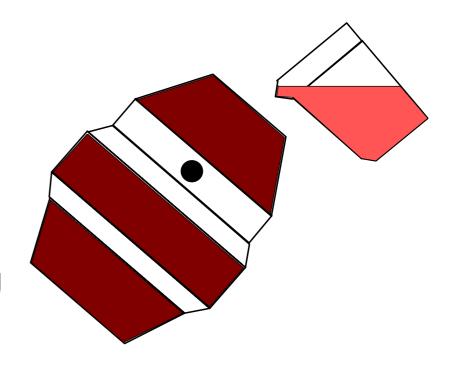


- 1. Filling of waste iron
- 2. Filling of pig iron
- 3. Blasting with pure oxygen
- 4. Supplement additives
- 5. Sampling for quality testing
- 6. Tapping of steel and slag



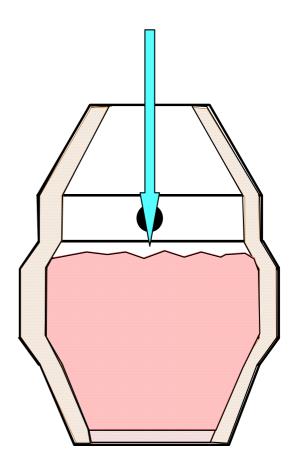


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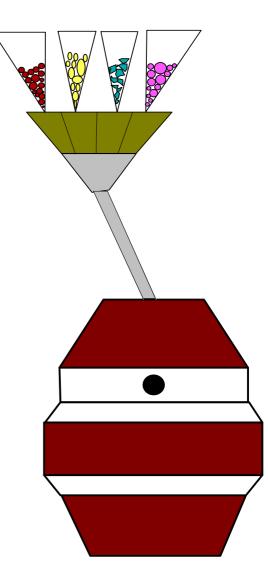


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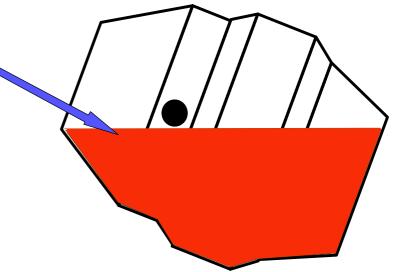


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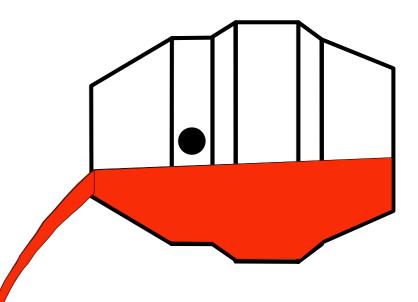


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Main featutes of the process

- Nonlinear input-output relation between many inputs and two outputs
- input parameters (~50 different parameters)
 - certain features "measured" during the process
- The main output parameters (output measured values of the produced steel)
 - temperature (1640-1700 C^{O} -10 ... +15 C^{O})
 - carbon content (0.03 0.70 %)
- More than 5000 records of data



Modeling task

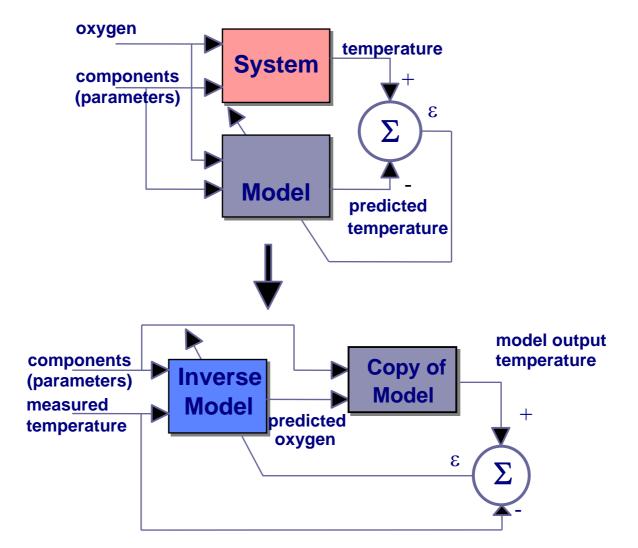
- The difficulties of model building
 - High complexity nonlinear input-output relationship
 - No (or unsatisfactory) physical insight
 - Relatively few measurement data
 - There are unmeasurable parameters of the process
 - Noisy, imprecise, unreliable data
 - Classical approach (heat balance, mass balance) gives no acceptable results



Modeling approaches

- Theoretical model based on chemical and physical equations
- Input output behavioral model
 - Neural model based on the measured process data
 - Rule based system based on the experimental knowledge of the factory staff
 - Combined neural rule based system: a hybrid model

The modeling task



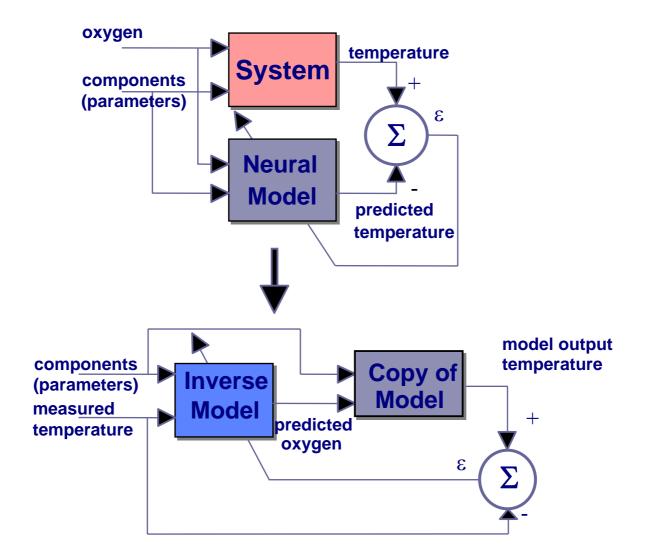


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The modeling task

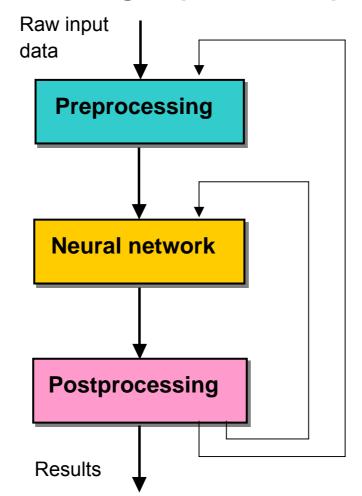


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"Neural" solution

• The steps of solving a practical problem





Building neural models

- Creating a reliable database
 - the problem of noisy data
 - the problem of missing data
 - the problem of uneven data distribution
- Selecting a proper neural architecture
 - static network (size of the network)
 - dynamic network
 - size of the network: nonlinear mapping
 - regressor selection + model order selection
- Training and validating the model



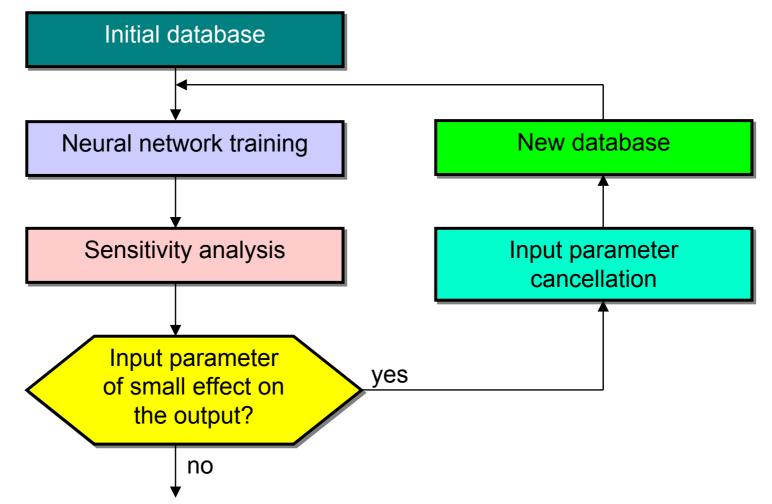
Creating a reliable database

- Input components
 - measure of importance
 - physical insight
 - sensitivity analysis (importance of the input variables)
 - mathematical methods: dimension reduction (e.g. PCA)
- Normalization
 - input normalization
 - output normalization
- Missing data
 - artificially generated data
- Noisy data
 - preprocessing, filtering,
 - errors-in-variables criterion function, etc.



Building database

• Selecting input components, sensitivity analysis





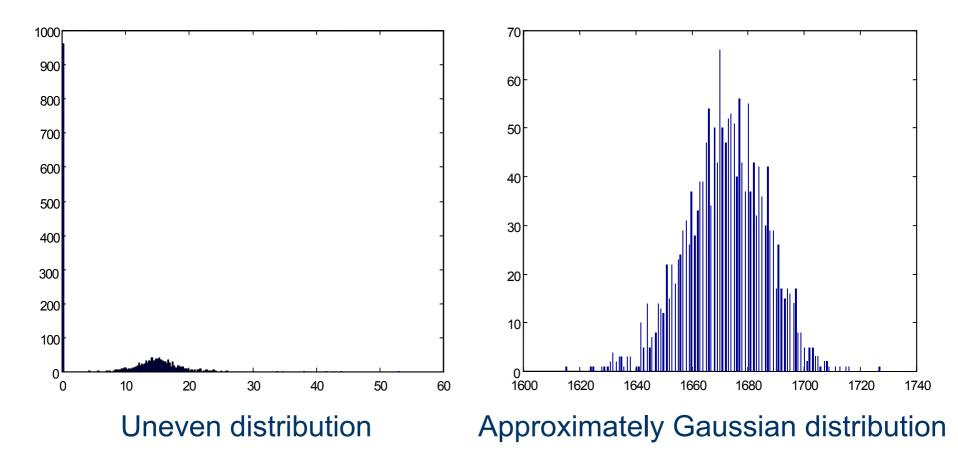
Building database

- Dimension reduction: mathematical methods
 - PCA
 - Non-linear PCA, Kernel PCA
 - ICA
- Combined methods



The effect of data distribution

Typical data distributions





Normalization

• Zero mean, unit standard deviation

$$\overline{x}_{i} = \frac{1}{P} \sum_{p=1}^{P} x_{i}^{(p)} \qquad \sigma_{i}^{2} = \frac{1}{P-1} \sum_{p=1}^{P} (x_{i}^{(p)} - \overline{x}_{i})^{2} \qquad \widetilde{x}_{i}^{(p)} = \frac{x_{i}^{(p)} - \overline{x}_{i}}{\sigma_{i}}$$

• Normalization into [0,1]

$$\widetilde{x}_i = \frac{x_i - \min\{x_i\}}{\max\{x_i\} - \min\{x_i\}}$$

Decorrelation + normalization

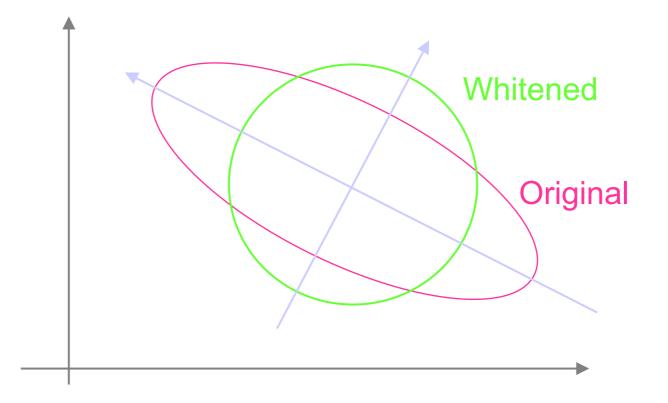
$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \frac{1}{P-1} \sum_{p=1}^{P} (\mathbf{x}^{(p)} - \overline{\mathbf{x}}) (\mathbf{x}^{(p)} - \overline{\mathbf{x}})^{\mathrm{T}} \quad \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \boldsymbol{\varphi}_{j} = \lambda_{j} \boldsymbol{\varphi}_{j} \qquad \boldsymbol{\Lambda} = \mathrm{diag}(\lambda_{1} ... \lambda_{N})$$

$$\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}^{(p)} = \mathbf{\Lambda}^{-1/2} \mathbf{\Phi}^{\mathrm{T}} (\mathbf{x}^{(p)} - \overline{\mathbf{x}}) \qquad \mathbf{\Phi} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{\varphi}_1 \, \mathbf{\varphi}_2 \, \dots \, \mathbf{\varphi}_N \end{bmatrix}^T$$



Normalization

• Decorrelation + normalization = Whitening transformation





Missing or few data

- Filling in the missing values
 - based on available information
- Artificially generated data
 - using trends
 - using correlation
 - using realistic transformations

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Missing or few data

- Filling in the missing values based on: correlation coefficient between x_i and x_j $\tilde{C}(i, j) = \frac{C(i, j)}{\sqrt{C(i, i) C(j, j)}}$ previous (other) values $\hat{x}_i = \bar{x}_i + \sigma_i \xi$ other parameters $\hat{x}_i^{(k)} = \hat{f}(x_j^{(k)})$ or $\hat{x}_i^{(k)} = \hat{f}(x_j^{(k)}, x_j^{(k)}, ...)$ time dependence (dynamic problem) $R_i(t, \tau) = E\{x_i(t) x_i(t + \tau)\}$
- Artificially generated data
 - using trends
 - using correlation
 - using realistic transformations



Few data

- Artificial data generation
 - using realistic transformations
 - using sensitivity values: data generation around various working points (a good example: ALVINN)

(ALVINN = *Autonomous Land Vehicle In a Neural Net* an onroad neural network navigation solution developed in CMU)



Noisy data

Inherent noise suppression

- classical neural nets have noise suppression property (inherent regularization)
- Regularization (smoothing regularization)
- averaging (modular approach)
- SVM

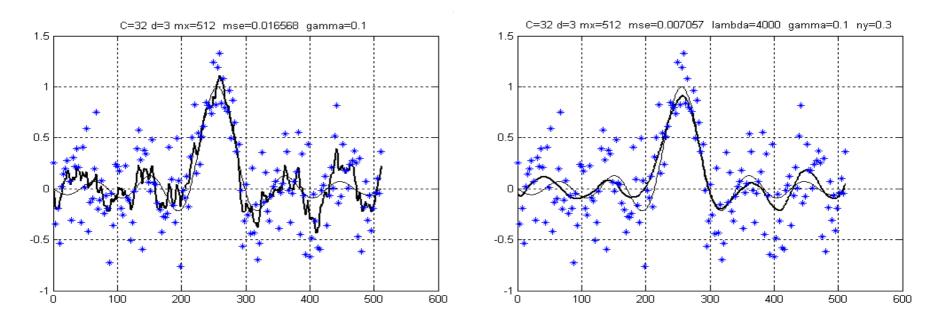
 $\Box \ \varepsilon$ -insensitive criterion function

- EIV
 - input and output noise are taken into consideration
 - modified criterion function



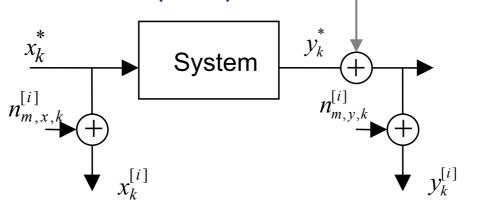
Reducing the effect of output noise

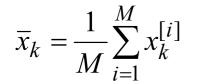
- Inherent regularization of MLP (smooth sigmoidal function)
- SVM with ε insensitive loss function
- Regularization: example regularized (kernel) CMAC

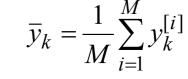


Reducing the effect of input and output noise

Errors in variables (EIV)







 $n_{p,k}^{[i]}$

 $\sigma_{x,k}^{2} = \frac{1}{M-1} \sum_{i=1}^{M} (x_{k}^{[i]} - \bar{x}_{k})^{2}$

 $\sigma_{y,k}^{2} = \frac{1}{M-1} \sum_{i=1}^{M} (y_{k}^{[i]} - \overline{y}_{k})^{2}$



LS vs EIV criterion function

$$C_{LS} = \frac{1}{P} \sum_{k=1}^{P} (y_k^* - f_{NN}(x_k^*, \mathbf{W}))^2$$
$$C_{EIV} = \frac{1}{P} \sum_{k=1}^{P} \left(\frac{(y_k - f_{NN}(x_k, \mathbf{W}))^2}{\sigma_{y,k}^2} + \frac{(x^*_k - x_k)^2}{\sigma_{x,k}^2} \right)$$

• EIV training

$$\Delta \mathbf{W}_{j} = \eta \frac{M}{2P} \sum_{k=1}^{P} \frac{e_{f,k}}{\sigma_{y,k}^{2}} \frac{\partial f_{NN}(x_{k}, \mathbf{W})}{\partial \mathbf{W}_{j}} \qquad \Delta x_{k} = \eta \frac{M}{2} \left[\frac{e_{f,k}}{\sigma_{y,k}^{2}} \frac{\partial f_{NN}(x_{k}, \mathbf{W})}{\partial x_{k}} + \frac{e_{x,k}}{\sigma_{x,k}^{2}} \right]$$

$$e_{f,k} = y_k - f_{NN}(x_k, \mathbf{W})$$

• Danger : overfitting \rightarrow early stopping

Noisy data

- Output noise is easier to suppress than input noise
- SVM, regularization can reduce the effect of output noise
- EIV (and similar other methods) can take into consideration the input noise
- EIV results in only slightly better approximation
- EIV is rather prone to overfitting (much more free parameters) → early stopping

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Model selection

- Static or dynamic
 - why better a dynamic model
- Dynamic model class
 - regressor selection
 - basis function selection
- Size of the network
 - number of layers
 - number of hidden neurons
 - model order



Model selection

- NFIR
- NARX
- NOE
- NARMAX

NARX model, NOE model: model order selection

$$y_M(k) = f[\mathbf{x}(k), \mathbf{x}(k-1), \mathbf{x}(k-2), ..., \mathbf{x}(k-n), y(k-1), y(k-2), ..., y(k-m)]$$

Model order: the input dimension of the static network

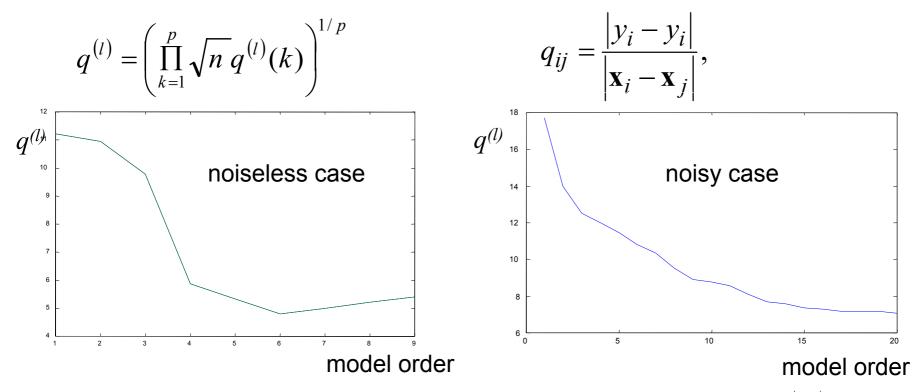


Model order selection

AIC, MDL, NIC, Lipschitz number

 $y(k) = f[\mathbf{x}(k), \mathbf{x}(k-1), \mathbf{x}(k-2), ..., \mathbf{x}(k-n), y(k-1), y(k-2), ..., y(k-m)]$

Lipschitz number, Lipschitz quotient



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Model order selection

• Lipschitz quotient

general nonlinear input-output relation, f(.) continuous, smooth multivariable function $y = f[x_1, x_2, ..., x_n]$

bounded derivatives

$$\left|f_{i}'\right| = \left|\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_{i}}\right| \le M \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

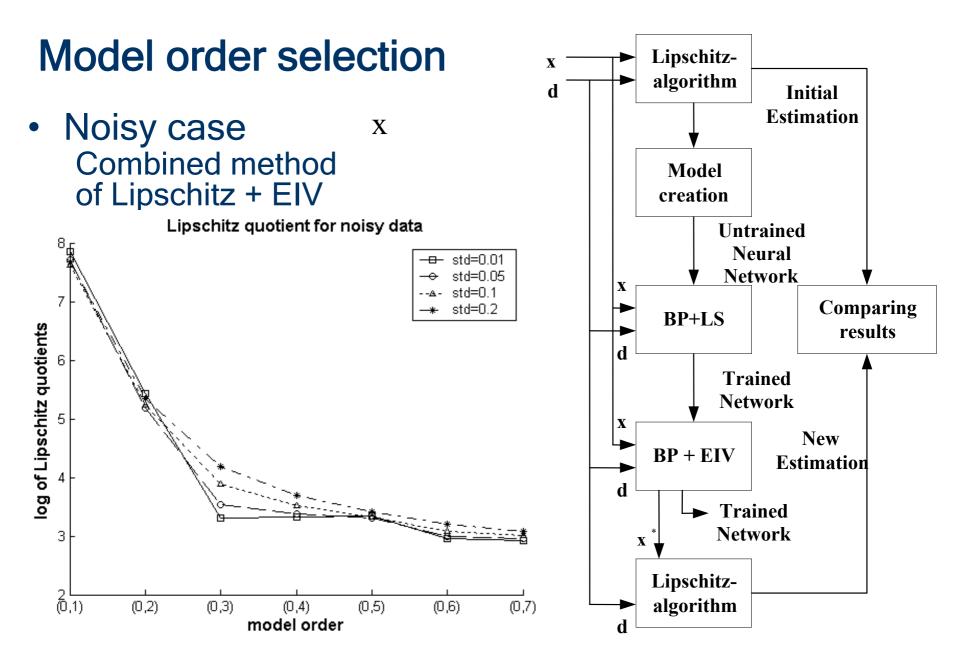
Lipschitz quotient

$$q_{ij} = \frac{|y_i - y_i|}{|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j|}, \quad i \neq j \qquad 0 \le q_{ij} \le L$$

Sensitivity analysis

$$\Delta y = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} \Delta x_1 + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2} \Delta x_2 + \dots + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n} \Delta x_n = f_1 \Delta x_1 + f_2 \Delta x_2 + \dots + f_n \Delta x_n$$







Correlation based model order selection

- Model order 2...4 because of prcatical problems
- Too many input components
- (2...4) * (number of input components + outputs)
- Too large network
- Too few training data
- The problem of missing data
- Network size: cross-validation

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References and further readings

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Modular solution

- More neural modell for the different working conditions
- Processing of special cases
- Depending on the distribution of inputparameters
- Cooperative or competitive modular architecture



Hybrid solution

- Utilization of different forms of information
 - measurement, experimental data
 - symbolic rules
 - mathematical equations, physical knowledge



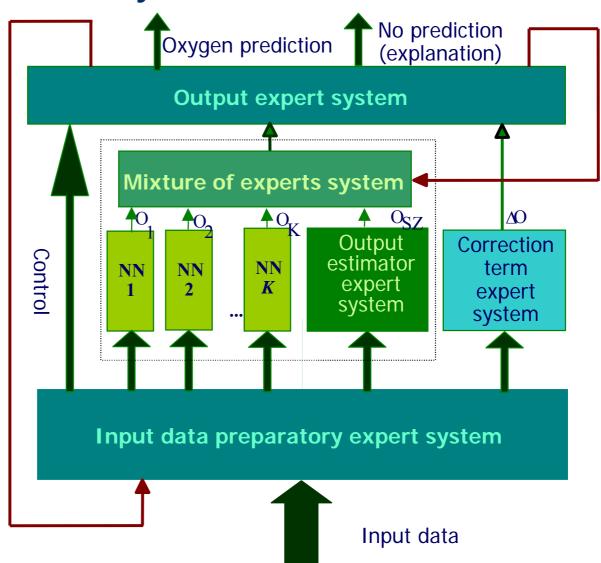
The hybrid information system

- Solution:
 - integration of measurement information and experimental knowledge about the process results
- Realization:
 - development system supports the design and testing of different hybrid models
 - advisory system
 - hybrid models using the current process state and input information,
 - experiences collected by the rule-base system can be used to update the model.



The hybrid-neural system

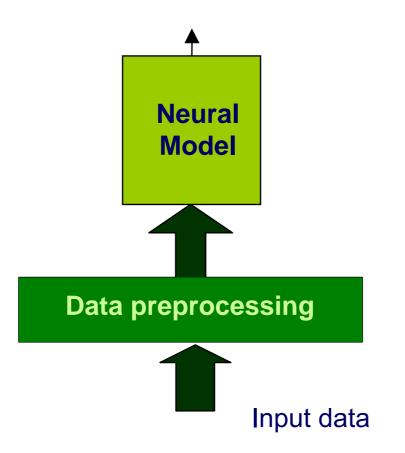
Information processing





The hybrid-neural system

Data preprocessing and correction

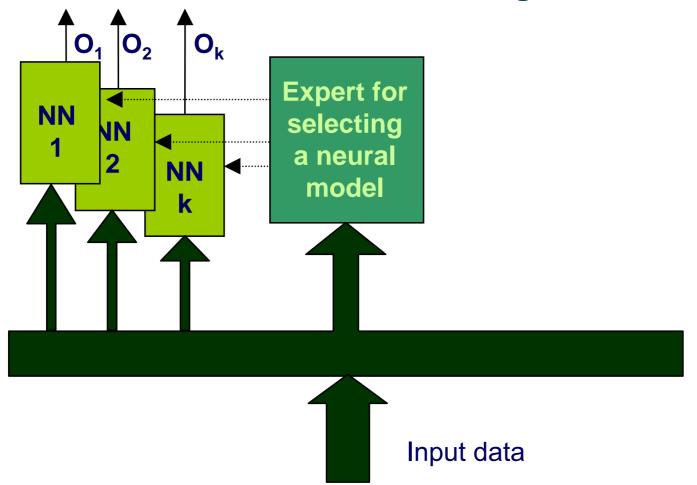


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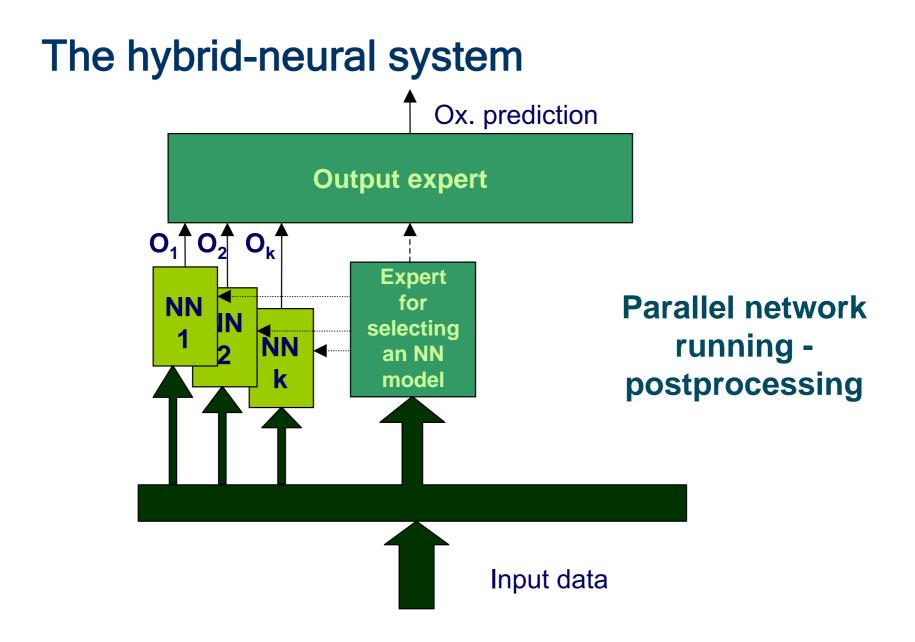
The hybrid-neural system

Conditional network running



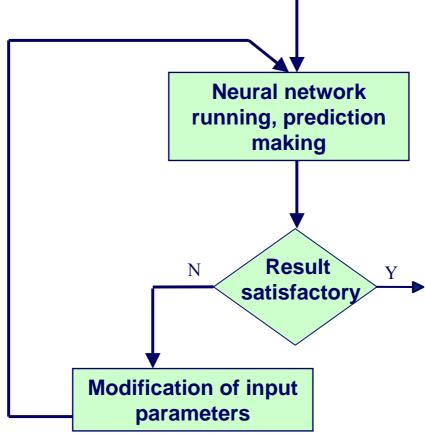
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The hybrid-neural system Iterative network running





Validation

- Model selection
 - iterative process
 - utilization of domain knowledge
- Cross validation
 - fresh data
 - on-site testing



Experiences

- The hit rate is increased by + 10%
- Most of the special cases can be handled
- Further rules for handling special cases should be obtained
- The accuracy of measured data should be increased



Conclusions

- For complex industrial problems all available information have to be used
- Thinking about NNs as universal modeling devices
 alone
- Physical insight is important
- The importance of preprocessing and post-processing
- Modular approach:
 - decomposition of the problem
 - cooperation and competition
 - "experts" using different paradigms
- The hybrid approach to the problem provided better results



Summary

- Main questions
- Open questions
- Final conclusions



Main questions

- Neural modeling: black-box or not?
- When to apply neural approach?
- How to use neural networks?
- The role of prior knowledge
- How to use prior knowledge?
- How to validate the results?



Open (partly open) questions

- Model class selection
- Model order selection
- Validation, generalization capability
- Sample size, training set, test set, validation set
- Missing data, noisy data, few data
- Data consistency



Final coclusions

- Neural networks are especially important and proper architectures for (nonlinear) system modelling
- General solutions: NN and fuzzy-neural systems are universal modeling devices (universal approximators)
- The importance of the theoretical results, theoretical background
- The difficulty of the application of theoretical results in practice
- The role of data base
- The importance of prior information, physical insight
- The importance of preprocessing and post-processing
- Modular approach:
 - decomposition of the problem
 - cooperation and competition
 - "experts" using different paradigms
- Hybrid solutions: combination of rule based, fuzzy, neural, mathematical



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