

Combined Genetic Algorithm Optimization and Regularized Orthogonal Least Squares Learning for Radial Basis Function Networks

S. Chen, *Senior Member, IEEE*, Y. Wu, and B. L. Luk

Abstract—The paper presents a two-level learning method for radial basis function (RBF) networks. A regularized orthogonal least squares (ROLS) algorithm is employed at the lower level to construct RBF networks while the two key learning parameters, the regularization parameter and the RBF width, are optimized using a genetic algorithm (GA) at the upper level. Nonlinear time series modeling and prediction is used as an example to demonstrate the effectiveness of this hierarchical learning approach.

Index Terms—Genetic algorithms, orthogonal least squares algorithm, radial basis function networks, regularization.

I. INTRODUCTION

THE GA [1], [2], as a powerful nonlinear optimization technique, has been used to learn neural-network topologies as well as the weights in fixed network structures (e.g., [3]–[7]). A key advantage of using the GA as a neural-network learning method is that it is capable of achieving optimal or near-optimal network topology and weight settings under given training conditions. This is, however, obtained at the cost of extensive computational requirements. In particular, direct optimizing the network weights using GA's is hampered by difficulties of high evaluation cost and slow convergence.

Simpler learning can often be achieved if a neural network has a linear-in-the-parameters structure. When the width parameter is fixed and a set of RBF centers is provided, a RBF network has such a structure and an orthogonal least squares (OLS) algorithm [8] has been developed for constructing parsimonious RBF networks. Other construction algorithms based on the parsimonious principle have been derived for “linear-in-the-parameters” neural networks (e.g., [9]–[11]). A well-constructed small neural network often has desired generalization properties.

If training data are highly noisy, the parsimonious principle alone may not be sufficient to guarantee good generalization performance. Regularization is one of the principal techniques for improving the generalization properties [12]–[14]. By combining the parsimonious principle with a regularization method, a ROLS algorithm [15] has been derived for constructing RBF networks under severely noisy conditions. A good regularization parameter required by the ROLS algorithm is usually obtained by iterations using a Bayesian formula [13].

The regularization parameter so generated, however, may not necessarily be the best one since the regularization parameter is strongly coupled with some other learning parameter, as will be demonstrated later.

We propose a two-level learning hierarchy for constructing RBF networks based on the combined GA and ROLS algorithms. Because the generalization performance is a complex multimodal function on the space of the width and regularization parameters, these two parameters are optimized using the GA at the upper level. Given these two parameters, the ROLS algorithm is used to construct parsimonious RBF networks at the lower level. Since the GA only optimizes two parameters and the lower layer only involves linear learning problems, the computational complexity of this combined approach is much less than that of using the GA to learn all the network parameters directly. RBF networks produced by this learning hierarchy have superior generalization performance as is demonstrated by the included examples of nonlinear time series modeling.

II. THE ROLS ALGORITHM

The RBF network considered in this paper has a single output and a Gaussian nonlinearity with a uniform width ρ . Specifically, the network output is defined by

$$\hat{y} = F_r(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^n \theta_i \exp(-\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{c}_i\|^2/\rho) \quad (1)$$

where \mathbf{x} is the network input vector, n is the number of nodes, θ_i are the weights, \mathbf{c}_i are the center vectors and $\|\cdot\|$ denotes the Euclidean norm. Although each node may have a different width and for some applications adjusting individual widths can often improve performance [16], a uniform width is sufficient for the RBF network to achieve universal approximation [17]. Using a uniform width obviously results in a simpler learning process. Replacing the Euclidean distance in the standard RBF network by the Mahalanobis distance gives rise to a more general neural-network model [16], [18]. A novel Gaussian-bar network has also been proposed [19]. We will concentrate on the simple network model (1). The approach developed, however, is not restricted to this particular Gaussian RBF network and can readily be applied to multioutput RBF networks [20].

Assume that a training set of N samples $\{y(k), \mathbf{x}(k)\}_{k=1}^N$ is available, where $y(k)$ is the desired network output corresponding to the network input $\mathbf{x}(k)$. In order to obtain a “linear” regression model, each $\mathbf{x}(k)$ is considered as a candidate center, that is, $\mathbf{c}_i = \mathbf{x}(i)$ for $1 \leq i \leq N$, and a

Manuscript received December 23, 1998; revised May 25, 1999.

S. Chen is with the Department of Electrics and Computer Science, University of Southampton, Highfield, Southampton SO17 1BJ, U.K.

Y. Wu is with the Department of Radiation Oncology, William Beaumont Hospital, Royal Oak, MI 48073 USA.

B. L. Luk is with the Department of Electrical and Electronic Engineering, University of Portsmouth, Anglesea Building, Portsmouth PO1 3DJ, U.K.

Publisher Item Identifier S 1045-9227(99)07236-7.

fixed width ρ is given. By defining

$$\phi_i(k) = \exp(-\|\mathbf{x}(k) - \mathbf{c}_i\|^2/\rho) \quad (2)$$

we can express the desired output $y(k)$ as

$$y(k) = \hat{y}(k) + e(k) = \sum_{i=1}^N \theta_i \phi_i(k) + e(k), \quad 1 \leq k \leq N \quad (3)$$

where $e(k)$ is the error between $y(k)$ and the actual network output $\hat{y}(k)$. By introducing

$$\mathbf{y} = [y(1) \cdots y(N)]^T \quad (4)$$

$$\Phi = [\Phi_1 \cdots \Phi_N] \quad (5)$$

$$\Phi_i = [\phi_i(1) \cdots \phi_i(N)]^T \quad (6)$$

$$\Theta = [\theta_1 \cdots \theta_N]^T \quad (7)$$

$$\mathbf{e} = [e(1) \cdots e(N)]^T \quad (8)$$

we can rewrite the system (3) in the matrix form

$$\mathbf{y} = \Phi\Theta + \mathbf{e}. \quad (9)$$

The ROLS algorithm is an efficient forward subset selection procedure for constructing a smaller subset model from the full regression model (9).

Let an orthogonal decomposition of the regression matrix Φ be $\Phi = \mathbf{W}\mathbf{A}$, where $\mathbf{W} = [\mathbf{w}_1 \cdots \mathbf{w}_N]$ satisfies $\mathbf{w}_i^T \mathbf{w}_j = 0$ for $i \neq j$, and \mathbf{A} is an upper triangular matrix with unit diagonal elements. The system (9) can be rewritten as

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{W}\mathbf{g} + \mathbf{e} \quad (10)$$

where

$$\mathbf{g} = [g_1 \cdots g_N]^T = \mathbf{A}\Theta \quad (11)$$

is the orthogonal weight vector. The ROLS algorithm selects a subset of significant regressors based on the following regularized error criterion:

$$J_R(\mathbf{g}; \lambda) = \mathbf{e}^T \mathbf{e} + \lambda \mathbf{g}^T \mathbf{g} \quad (12)$$

where $\lambda \geq 0$ is a regularization parameter. The detailed selection procedure can be found in [15] and will not be repeated here.

In this "linear" learning approach, the width parameter ρ is fixed to some constant. Obviously, it is desirable to adjust the width during learning. However, nonlinear learning methods would be required since the network output is strongly nonlinear with respect to ρ . The ROLS algorithm adopts the evidence procedure [13] to estimate a regularization parameter. Given an initial guess of λ , the algorithm constructs a subset model. This in turn allows an updating of λ using the formula

$$\lambda = \frac{\gamma}{N - \gamma} \cdot \frac{\mathbf{e}^T \mathbf{e}}{\mathbf{g}^T \mathbf{g}} \quad (13)$$

where

$$\gamma = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\mathbf{w}_i^T \mathbf{w}_i}{\mathbf{w}_i^T \mathbf{w}_i + \lambda} \quad (14)$$

is the number of good parameter measurements [13] and n is the size of the subset model. After a few iterations, an

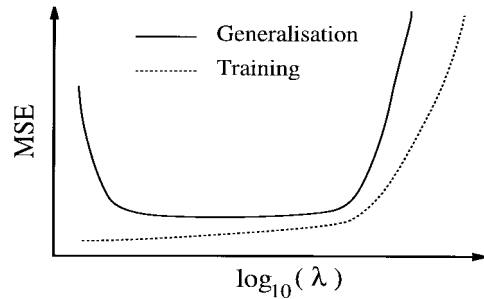


Fig. 1. Usually assumed characteristics of mean square error as a function of regularization parameter. Notice that this generalization curve is not generally correct.

appropriate λ value can usually be found. The regularization parameter so determined, however, may not be an optimal one, as will be shown later.

III. THE COMBINED GA AND ROLS LEARNING

To understand the motivations of using a global optimization method to learn the regularization parameter and width, it is best to examine the generalization performance as a function of these two parameters. It is often observed that regularized learning exhibits the characteristics of Fig. 1 [12], [15]. This appears to suggest that generalization performance curves may have a single low flat region, and a gradient algorithm such as the iterative evidence procedure of (13) will be able to lead to a good λ in this region. It should be emphasized that the evidence procedure in general can only obtain a local optimal value of λ and Fig. 1 does not provide a complete picture. In fact, the generalization performance is a highly complicated multimodal function in the space of λ and ρ . The characteristics of Fig. 1 may only be obtained under a particular value of ρ .

We use a simple example to demonstrate these points. Consider the modeling of the scalar function

$$F_s(x) = \sin(2\pi x), \quad 0 \leq x \leq 1 \quad (15)$$

by a Gaussian RBF network. The training data was generated from $F_s(x) + e$, where the Gaussian noise e had a zero mean and variance 0.02 and x was taken from the uniform distribution in $(0, 1)$. The training data had a signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) of 14 dB. Given values of ρ and λ , the ROLS algorithm constructed RBF networks. The learning procedure was terminated when the regularized error reduction ratio [15] was smaller than a preset threshold. RBF models constructed had five to seven nodes depending on the values of ρ and λ . The generalization performance, the mean square error (MSE) between the noise-free system output $F_s(x)$ and the network response $F_r(x)$, was computed. The inverse of this MSE as the function of ρ and λ is depicted in Fig. 2.

Even for such a simple example, the complexity of the generalization performance surface is apparent. A gradient method cannot in general find the global optimal values of ρ and λ . Furthermore, performance improvement by achieving the global optimum is very significant. We propose a two-level learning scheme by combining the GA and ROLS algorithms,

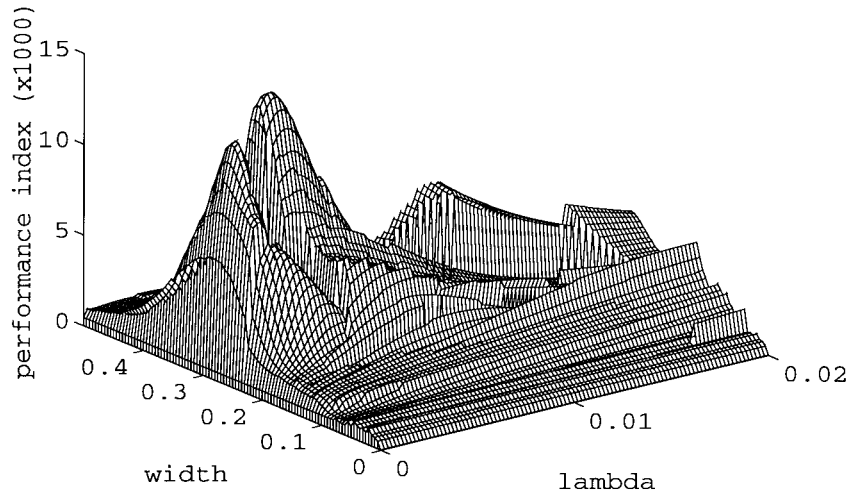


Fig. 2. Surface of the inverse generalization performance on the space of ρ and λ .

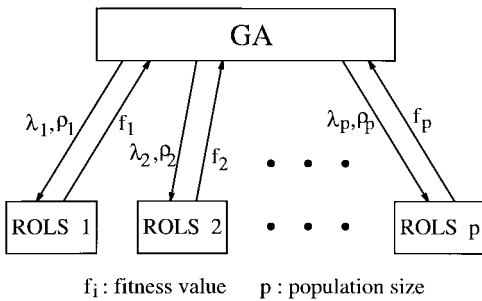


Fig. 3. Schematic of two-level learning hierarchy for RBF networks.

as illustrated in Fig. 3. At the upper level, the GA, with a population size of p , learns the width ρ and the regularization parameter λ based on the fitness function values provided by the lower level. The lower level consists of the p parallel ROLS algorithms, one for each pair of ρ_i and λ_i provided by the GA. The data set is divided into a training set and a validation set. The i th ROLS algorithm constructs a RBF network using the training data set with given ρ_i and λ_i . The generalization performance, the MSE over the validation data set, of the resulting RBF model is computed. The inverse of this generalization performance is the fitness function value f_i for the given ρ_i and λ_i .

With the goal being to find a global optimum solution as quickly as possible, we adopt the so-called micro-GA [21]. This version of GA uses a population that is much smaller than typically employed. In the original work [21], it was reported that the micro-GA can find optimal regions faster than standard GA's for selected optimization problems. However, allowing a single sequence of a micro-GA to converge may not be very useful apart from quickly locating local optima. Therefore, after such convergence, the population is reinitialized randomly while the best individual found up to that point is copied into the newly generated population. This iterative reinitialization is repeated until no further improvement is evidenced. The two parameters, ρ and λ , are each coded into a 16-bit string, and a population size of $p = 5$ is used. The crossover rate is set to 1.0, with the number of crossover points typically set to four.

No mutation is employed, as the reinitialization routine serves to introduce diversity. Tournament selection [21] is employed to determine parents for reproduction.

The computational complexity of the proposed two-level learning scheme is determined by the total number of function evaluations at the upper level. Assume that the micro-GA converges after n_g generations and the complexity of the ROLS algorithm is C_{ROLS} . Then the complexity of the combining GA and ROLS learning scheme is

$$C = n_g \times p \times C_{ROLS}. \tag{16}$$

Since the micro-GA is only used to optimize the two key parameters and the lower level involves linear learning problems, the overall computational requirement of the proposed scheme is well within the computing power of a standard PC. The micro-GA employed is specifically designed to minimize the required number of function evaluations $n_g \times p$ at the upper level. In contrast, using a GA directly to determine the network structure as well as to learn all the network parameters [5]–[7] will require far more extensive computation.

IV. NONLINEAR TIME SERIES APPLICATION

Nonlinear time series modeling and prediction are used to illustrate the combined GA and the ROLS learning approach.

A. Example 1

This was the simple example of modeling the scalar function (15) used to generate Fig. 2. To demonstrate superior generalization properties of the regularized learning under severely noisy conditions, we used the two-level learning hierarchy to construct Gaussian RBF networks for different SNR conditions with and without regularization. Both the training and testing sets contained 100 noisy samples. The RBF models constructed had five to eight centers depending on the SNR of the training data. For the case of no regularization, the lower level employed the OLS algorithm and the upper level only learned the width ρ .

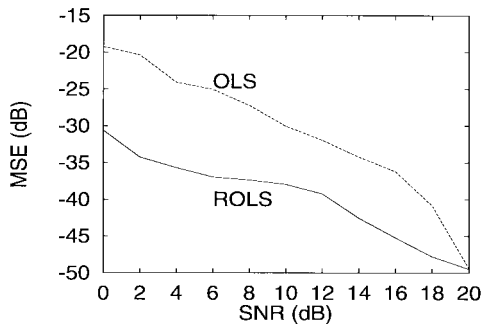


Fig. 4. Generalization performance with and without regularization for example 1.

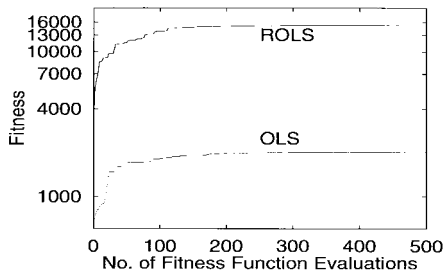


Fig. 5. Convergence behavior of the GA for example 1 with a SNR of 14 dB.

Fig. 4 depicts the generalization performance, the MSE between the noise-free system output $F_s(x)$ and the actual RBF model output $F_r(x)$, for these two cases. It can be seen that the simple regularization technique employed has superior generalization performance under highly noisy training conditions. For the training data of SNR = 14 dB, it was observed that the optimal regularization parameter $\lambda_{opt} = 2.5 \times 10^{-3}$ and width $\rho_{opt} = 0.27$, corresponding to the highest peak $f_{opt} = 1.5 \times 10^4$ in Fig. 2, was achieved by the combined GA and ROLS learning. To examine the convergence behavior of the GA, Fig. 5 plots the best fitness value versus the number of fitness function evaluations with a SNR of 14 dB.

B. Example 2

The second example was Mackey–Glass time series prediction. The data was generated using the following equation:

$$\frac{dx(t)}{dt} = -0.1x(t) + \frac{0.2x(t-\tau)}{1+x^{10}(t-\tau)} \quad (17)$$

where $\tau = -21$ and initial conditions $x(t-\tau) = 0.5$ for $0 \leq t \leq \tau$. A sampling step size of 2 s was used, and Gaussian white noise was added to the time series samples, giving rise to a SNR of 40 dB. A data set of 1000 noisy samples $\{y(k)\}_{k=0}^{1000}$ were obtained with the first 500 samples used as the training set and the last 500 samples as the validation set. The input vector to the Gaussian RBF predictor at k was $\mathbf{x}(k) = [y(k-1) \dots y(k-6)]^T$. The RBF predictors were constructed with and without regularization. Again in the case of no regularization, the upper level only learned ρ . The RBF predictor constructed with regularization had 18 centers while the predictor obtained without regularization had 24 centers. The multistep prediction accuracies over the validation set

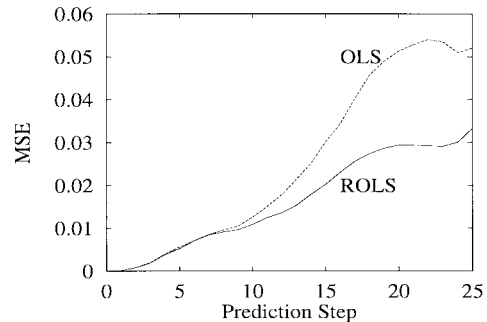


Fig. 6. Multistep prediction performance for Mackey–Glass time series.

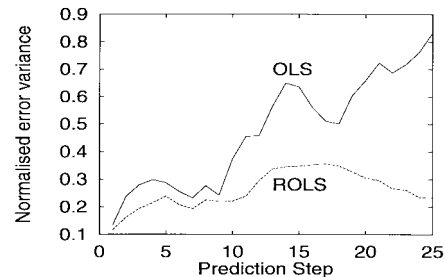


Fig. 7. Multistep prediction performance for sunspot time series.

were then computed and the results are plotted in Fig. 6. From Fig. 6, it can be seen that better generalization performance was achieved with regularization when the prediction step is large.

C. Example 3

This example was sunspot time series prediction based on the 280 sunspot observations over the years 1700 to 1979. The observations of 1752 to 1979 were used as the training set and the observations of 1700 to 1767 were used as the validation set. Two Gaussian RBF models of 25 centers were constructed using the two-level learning hierarchy with and without regularization. The model input vector consisted of eight past observations. The normalized multistep prediction accuracies of the two resulting models over the validation set are plotted in Fig. 7, where it can be seen that the combined GA and ROLS learning has superior generalization performance. The convergence speeds of the two-level learning hierarchy with and without regularization are illustrated in Fig. 8.

V. CONCLUSIONS

A two-level learning hierarchy has been developed for RBF networks by combining the GA with the ROLS learning. The GA at the upper level finds the global optimum of the width and regularization parameters while the ROLS algorithm at the lower level automatically constructs RBF networks. It has been shown that the generalization performance is a complex multimodal function on the space of the width and regularization parameters, and significant performance improvement can be achieved by searching a global optimal solution. The proposed method is computationally more effi-

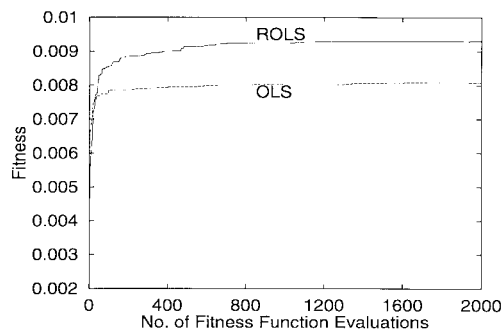


Fig. 8. Convergence behavior of the GA for sunspot time series modeling.

cient compared with using the GA directly to construct the network model. Time series modeling and prediction have been used to demonstrate superior generalization properties of the combined GA and ROLS learning approach.

REFERENCES

- [1] J. H. Holland, *Adaptation in Natural and Artificial Systems*. Ann Arbor, MI: Univ. Michigan Press, 1975.
- [2] D. E. Goldberg, *Genetic Algorithms in Search, Optimization, and Machine Learning*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley, 1989.
- [3] D. J. Montana and L. Davis, "Training feedforward neural networks using genetic algorithms," in *Proc. 11th Int. Joint Conf. Artificial Intell.*, San Mateo, CA, 1989, pp. 762–767.
- [4] L. Yao and W. A. Sethares, "Nonlinear parameter estimation via the genetic algorithm," *IEEE Trans. Signal Processing*, vol. 42, pp. 927–935, 1994.
- [5] V. Maniezzo, "Genetic evolution of the topology and weight distribution of neural networks," *IEEE Trans. Neural Networks*, vol. 5, pp. 39–53, 1994.
- [6] P. J. Angeline, G. M. Saunders, and J. B. Pollack, "An evolutionary algorithm that constructs recurrent neural networks," *IEEE Trans. Neural Networks*, vol. 5, pp. 54–65, 1994.
- [7] S. A. Billings and G. L. Zheng, "Radial basis function network configuration using genetic algorithms," *Neural Networks*, vol. 8, no. 6, pp. 877–890, 1995.
- [8] S. Chen, C. F. N. Cowan, and P. M. Grant, "Orthogonal least squares learning algorithm for radial basis function networks," *IEEE Trans. Neural Networks*, vol. 2, pp. 302–309, 1991.
- [9] M. Brown and C. J. Harris, *Neurofuzzy Adaptive Modeling and Control*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1994.
- [10] T. Kavli, "ASMOD: An algorithm for adaptive spline modeling of observation data," *Int. J. Contr.*, vol. 58, no. 4, pp. 947–968, 1993.
- [11] L. X. Wang and J. M. Mendel, "Fuzzy basis functions, universal approximation, and orthogonal least-squares learning," *IEEE Trans. Neural Networks*, vol. 3, pp. 807–814, 1992.
- [12] C. Bishop, "Improving the generalization properties of radial basis function neural networks," *Neural Comput.*, vol. 3, no. 4, pp. 579–588, 1991.
- [13] D. J. C. MacKay, "Bayesian interpolation," *Neural Comput.*, vol. 4, no. 3, pp. 415–447, 1992.
- [14] F. Girosi, M. Jones, and T. Poggio, "Regularization theory and neural-network architectures," *Neural Comput.*, vol. 7, pp. 219–269, 1995.
- [15] S. Chen, E. S. Chng, and K. Alkadhimi, "Regularised orthogonal least squares algorithm for constructing radial basis function networks," *Int. J. Contr.*, vol. 64, no. 5, pp. 829–837, 1996.
- [16] M. T. Musavi, W. Ahmed, K. H. Chan, K. B. Faris, and D. M. Hummels, "On the training of radial basis function classifiers," *Neural Networks*, vol. 5, no. 4, pp. 595–603, 1992.
- [17] J. Park and I. W. Sandberg, "Universal approximation using radial-basis-function networks," *Neural Comput.*, vol. 3, pp. 246–257, 1991.
- [18] S. Lee and R. M. Kil, "A Gaussian potential function network with hierarchically self-organizing learning," *Neural Networks*, vol. 4, pp. 207–224, 1991.
- [19] E. J. Hartman and J. D. Keeler, "Predicting the future: Advantages of semilocal units," *Neural Comput.*, vol. 3, no. 4, pp. 566–578, 1991.
- [20] S. Chen, P. M. Grant, and C. F. N. Cowan, "Orthogonal least squares algorithm for training multioutput radial basis function networks," in *Proc. Inst. Elect. Eng.*, vol. 139, pt. F, no. 6, pp. 378–384, 1992.
- [21] K. Krishnakumar, "Micro-genetic algorithms for stationary and nonstationary function optimization," in *Proc. SPIE Intell. Cont. Adapt. Syst.*, 1989, vol. 1196, pp. 289–296.