

Section A

Architecture Discussion

Problem

The problem is a two class classification problem - occupancy detection based on sensor readings. The recorded sensor data is temperature, humidity, light and carbon dioxide. The features include an additional derived feature, humidity ratio, which was derived from the original recorded variables. Each point in the data set is also timestamped. In [2] the time stamp was used to derive two additional features - week status(WS) and number of seconds from midnight(NSM). A certain amount of noise is expected in the recorded data so a suitable architecture should have good generalisation. Since data was measured in a controlled environment we expect the range of training variables to roughly match the range of expected data.

Architectures

There are several neural network architectures suitable for this kind of classification problem - Multilayer perceptron, Radial basis function network and Correlation memory matrix.

Multilayer Perceptron (MLP)

MLP is a feedforward neural network with multiple neurons composed in multiple layers. All neurons are the same in the case of classification and they compute a weighted sum of inputs and apply an activation function (sigmoid or tanh). There is an input layer, which distributes the inputs, zero or more hidden layers and an output layer. Each layer feeds into the next one. This type of neural network uses an error correcting learning rule and a backpropagation training algorithm. Backpropagation consists of two stages - a forward pass, where outputs are computed and a backward pass where weights are adjusted according to the error in outputs. In the backward pass the output layer weights are adjusted according to the local gradient of the error function and the hidden layer weights are adjusted according to the local gradients of the nodes in the subsequent layer.

MLP Advantages and disadvantages

The multilayer perceptron is suitable for nonlinearly separable classification problems. Once a good approximate solution is found generalisation can be easily improved by adjusting the stopping criteria of the training algorithm or using regularisation. MLP is a global approximator (because it splits the entire pattern space using lines), which can be an advantage if dataset we have doesn't describe the full range of expected data.

Determining the number of hidden layers and number of neurons in each layer may require a lot of experimentation. The training algorithm uses local gradients and can often get stuck in a local minimum of the error function.

Radial Basis Function Network (RBF)

RBF is a feedforward network, consisting of single hidden layer and an input and output layer. Input layer just distributes inputs to the hidden layer. Each neuron in the hidden layer computes a radially symmetric basis activation function (typically a Gaussian) from the inputs. The output layer neurons compute a weighted sum of the outputs of the hidden layer. Each neuron in the hidden layer has two associated parameters - a point in the feature space, which is called a

center, and a spread. It computes its response to a given input based on the euclidean distance between the data point and its center. Training is typically done in two stages - center selection and weight estimation, where weights can be computed in a single matrix vector calculation. RBFs can also be trained in a supervised manner (like MLP) or by selecting centers at each data point and using regularisation, but these approaches are much slower.

RBF Advantages and Disadvantages

There is only one hidden layer so we only need to experiment with its size. When using unsupervised center selection, weights can be computed in a single calculation. There are much less architecture parameters that can be varied when searching for an architecture compared to the MLP. The RBF is a local approximator, which is an advantage when we expect new data to be in a similar range to the training data or when abnormal inputs need to be ignored.

It is difficult to determine center locations. When data isn't clustered might need a very large hidden layer. Supervised center selection and regularisation training approaches are very slow.

Correlation Matrix Memory(CMM)

CMMs are single layer neural networks, which use the Hebbian learning rule. They consist of a single weight matrix which stores correlations between input and output patterns. Learning is done by computing the outer product of the input and output and adding it to the outer products of all other patterns to form the weight matrix. Recall of a stored pattern is done by multiplying the weight matrix and the input. For efficiency these networks usually have binary inputs and weights. In order to use a CMM as a classifier the output needs to be thresholded, so the highest output value is set to 1 and represents the class, or some kind of postprocessing needs to be done such as the one used in [4].

CMM advantages and disadvantages

A hardware implementation of CMM can be very fast. Training and recall are both very fast operations.

A CMM can store a limited number of pattern associations after which new associations become diluted. Real valued data needs to be encoded using a binning algorithm. Best performance requires input patterns to follow a uniform distribution. Good classification might require additional post processing (e.g. k nearest neighbours).

Choice of network architecture

Comparing the three architectures stated above we choose an RBF network architecture. Compared to the MLP the RBF has a simpler training process. Furthermore, using our knowledge of the problem we can see that the data we have should more or less be like the expected data after training. Because of this an RBF would be more suitable as a local classifier rather than an MLP. The CMM is superior in terms of speed, and would be a very suitable choice for a real time application. However it would require further domain knowledge of the data in order to decide on encoding of inputs. The CMM's capacity limitations might mean we would need a very large weight matrix.

Creation and Application

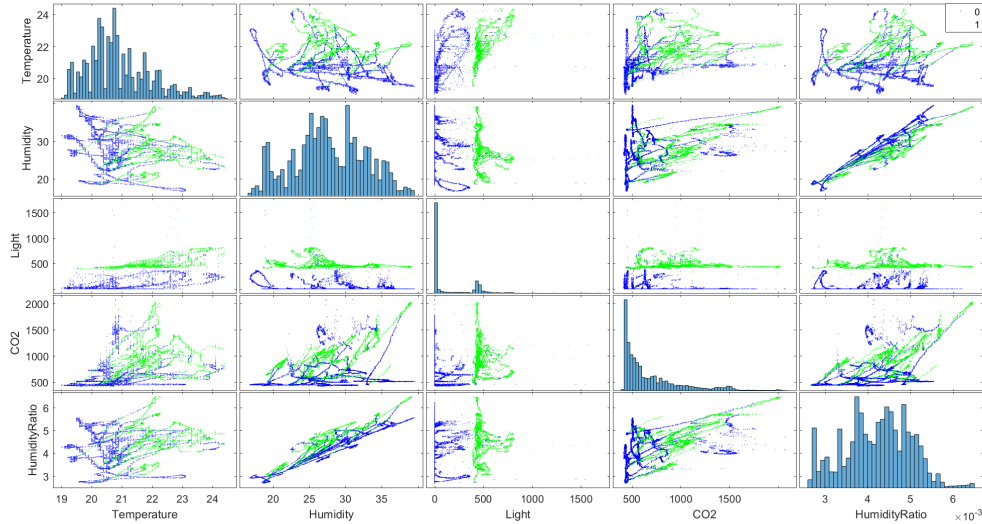
The neural network architecture we are going to use is an RBF network with unsupervised center selection. As a benchmark we will use a fixed number of centres determined by the rule of thumb $m = \sqrt[3]{N}$, $N = \text{number of datapoints}$ and a spread $d_{max} = \text{maximum distance between centers}$. The network is implemented and tested in Matlab and the code is available in the appendix.

Data

Three data sets are provided for training, validation and testing. The test sets are merged together according to the chronological order of the timestamps. The composite test set has 20,560 data points. The timestamps themselves are not used as features. The features are Temperature, Humidity, Light, CO2, Humidity Ratio and are all real valued. The target outputs are binary. Humidity Ratio has not been measured, it has been derived from Humidity measurements [2].

In figure 1 the MATLAB *gplotmatrix* function is used to plot all input variables against each other and create histograms of each variable along the diagonal and classes are color coded. We can make several observations based on this plot. The plots of light against all other features show a clear separation of the two classes, so light is probably an important feature. On the other hand the histogram of light is bimodal and clearly the examples around the second peak are much less than around the first, which means they are under-represented and might not be properly incorporated in the model. Looking at CO2 we see that its distribution is skewed, which also might cause problems for our model. The other distributions of variables look normal.

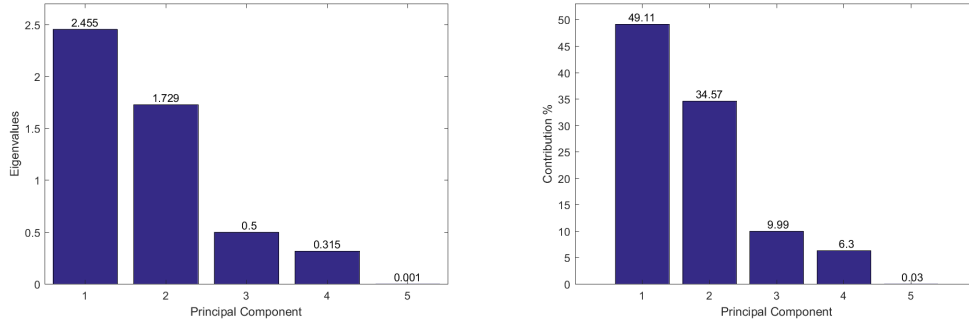
Figure 1: Plot matrix



There seems to be a big correlation between Humidity and HumidityRatio, which makes sense since the later is derived from the first one. It might be a good idea to discard HumidityRatio. However to make sure that we are really removing unimportant features and be able to measure their contribution to the dataset we use Principal component analysis (PCA). PCA does two things. It orthogonalises input components to remove correlation between them. It can also be used to remove principal components which have very little contribution towards

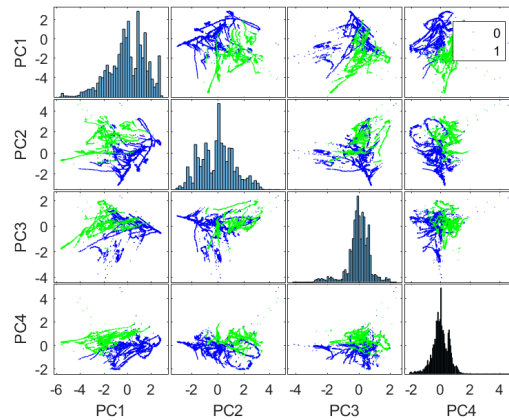
the total variance of the data. Since PCA is sensitive to big variances in the data we first preprocess the data to have a variance of 1 (using Matlab *mapstd* function) and then we apply PCA (Matlab *pca* function). PCA gives us the eigenvectors and eigenvalues of the covariance matrix of the data. The eigenvectors are the transformed inputs (principal components) and the eigenvalues tell us how much each component contributes to the overall variance. Looking at figure 2 we can see that the eigenvalue for the fifth principal component is only 0.001 and in terms of percentage, the contribution of this component to overall variance is 0.03%. This means that the fifth principal component hardly has any contribution on the variance of the data. Removing it wouldn't affect the separability of the data but might make network training more efficient. The fourth principal component has a much greater contribution to overall variance (6.3%) so we decide keep it. The threshold for eigenvalues of principal components has to be between the value of the fourth and fifth. We decide to set it at 0.02.

Figure 2: Eigenvalues and percent contribution to overall variance of each principal components



Furthermore, looking at figure 3 we see that the distributions of all 4 principal components are more or less normal, which means we don't have to worry about potential problems arising from the skewed CO2 distribution or asymmetric bimodal distribution of Light.

Figure 3: Plot matrix of principal components



In the end, preprocessing of the input data consist of normalising variances of features to 1. And applying a transformation using principal component analysis, removing principal components with eigenvalues less than 0.02. We use the Matlab functions $x1, trans1 = mapstd(x)$ and $x2, trans2 = processpca(x1, 0.02)$. The transformation settings *trans1* and *trans2* are provided in the appendix in table 5 and table 6.

Network

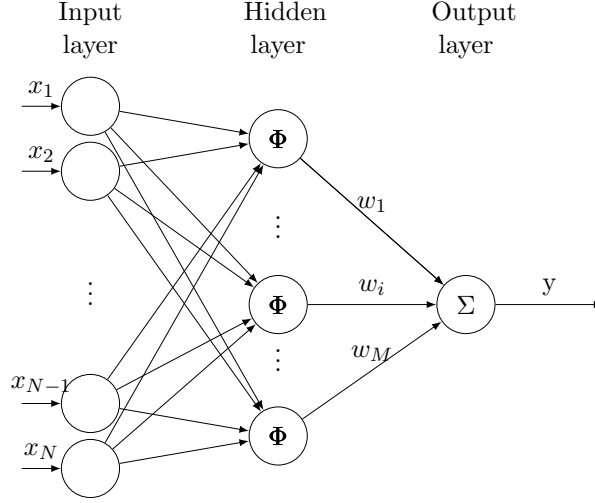


Figure 4: RBFN architecture diagram.

Inputs

Inputs are preprocessed before they are presented to the network. The data set is then randomly split into a training set and a test set with ratio 75%/25%.

Input Layer

The input layer distributes inputs, after preprocessing, to each neuron in the hidden layer. The size of the input layer is therefore the size of the input vector $N = 4$ (after PCA). It is fully connected to the hidden layer.

Hidden Layer

There is a single hidden layer fully connected to the output layer. The optimal size of the hidden layer found by experimentation is $M = 20$. The activation function of each neuron is an isotropic Gaussian:

$$\Phi_i(\mathbf{x}) = \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{c}_i\|^2\right) \quad \text{where} \quad \sigma^2 = \frac{1}{2}(\epsilon \times d_{max})^2 \quad (1)$$

Where m is the number of hidden neurons (number of centres), d_{max} is the maximum distance between centres, ϵ is a parameter used to vary the spread of the Gaussian ($0 < \epsilon < 2$) and \mathbf{c}_i is the center vector of neuron i . The centres for each hidden layer neuron are found using a k-means clustering algorithm. The number of centres (c_i) and spread parameter ϵ were found through experimentation.

Output Layer

The output layer calculates a weighted sum of hidden layer outputs:

$$y(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^m w_i \Phi_i(\mathbf{x}) \quad (2)$$

In order to obtain hard classification output a threshold is applied to $y(\mathbf{x})$ - if $y > 0.5$ output is 1, else output is 0. The outputs use a boolean encoding, where 1 signifies occupancy.

Best found architecture

The best architecture found through experimentation uses k-means algorithm to find center locations. The experimentally discovered parameter values are $m = 20, \epsilon = 0.8$. The network architecture and parameters are given below in table 1.

Network type	Radial basis function network
Data features/inputs	Temperature, Humidity, Light, CO2, HumidityRatio
Data preprocessing	Normalize standard deviation to 1 Principal component analysis (PCA)
PCA variance threshold	0.02
Data train/test set split	Random 75%/25%
Hidden layer activation function (RBF)	$\Phi_i(\mathbf{x}) = \exp\left(-\frac{1}{(\epsilon \times d_{max})^2} \ \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{c}_i\ ^2\right)$
Hidden layer size (m)	20
RBF spread σ^2	$\frac{1}{2}(0.8 \times d_{max})^2$
Output layer activation function	Linear: $y(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^m w_i \Phi_i(\mathbf{x})$
Output layer size	1
Training algorithm	1. Unsupervised center selection 2. One step weight calculation using matrix pseudo inverse
Centre selection algorithm	k-means clustering
Backprop performance function	Mean Squared Error (MSE)

Table 1: Best found RBFN architecture.

Implementation

The RBF network was implemented in Matlab following the solution from practical session. The code is given in the appendix (RBFN.m). For performing experiments an additional script was used it is also provided in the appendix (runRBFN.m)

Training

Three types of RBFN training algorithms were considered - regularisation with number of hidden neurons equal to the number of data points, supervised center selection and unsupervised center selection. Unsupervised center selection was chosen out of the three because of it's performance in terms of speed. This is a two step training algorithm. The first step is selecting the center points for each hidden neuron. The second step is calculating the output layer weights based on the outputs of the hidden layer in order to minimise an error function (MSE in this case). After having selected the center points and preprocessed the data, the training algorithms goes through the following steps, assuming center points are in a matrix c , preprocessed training

data is in a matrix x , the target data is stored in a binary vector D and the predefined number of centres is m :

- 1 Calculate the euclidean distance from each of the centres (columns of c) to each of the data points (columns in x) and store them in a matrix $distance$. Calculate the distances from centres to centres and store them in a matrix dc .
- 2 Find the maximum center to center distance and store it in d_{max} . d_{max} is then used to calculate the spread of all radial basis functions in the hidden layer: $\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{2}(\epsilon \times d_{max})^2$, where ϵ is a user defined parameter.
- 3 Calculate a matrix of responses from each basis function to each data point. Using equation 1 this calculation would be:

$$F = \Phi_i(\mathbf{x}) = \exp\left(-\frac{m}{(\epsilon \times d_{max})^2} distances^2\right) \quad (3)$$

- 4 Calculate the weights of the output layer W using the pseudo inverse of F^+ and the target data D : $W = F^+D$.

For the center selection step of the training algorithm two options were considered - random center selection and k-means clustering. The kmeans function from Matlab was used for the second approach, which uses k-means++ algorithm [1] for generating initial center locations and then runs the k-means clustering algorithm [3] to iteratively search for the true center locations. In order to decide which one to use an experiment was performed using two networks, structurally the same as the one in table 1, but with number of centres $m = 10, 15, 20, 25$ and $\epsilon = 1$. The two networks use the two different center selection algorithms. They were ran 10 times for each number of centres. The results are given below in table 2

Number of centres (m)	10	15	20	25
Random center selection Test MSE mean	0.0735	0.0785	0.0832	0.0649
Random center selection Test MSE Std	0.0306	0.0523	0.0499	0.0304
K-means Test MSE mean	0.0331	0.0237	0.0190	0.0187
K-means Test MSE Std	0.0032	0.0044	0.0043	0.0041

Table 2: Performance results for random centre selection and k-means

Clearly the performance (in terms of MSE) of k-means is much better than random center selection. So this is the algorithm we will use.

Evaluation

We have made decisions about the network structure, training algorithm, data preprocessing and splitting into training and test sets. The parameters that need to be discovered experimentally are the number of centres (size of hidden layer) and basis function spread parameter ϵ , which we introduced in the Network section.

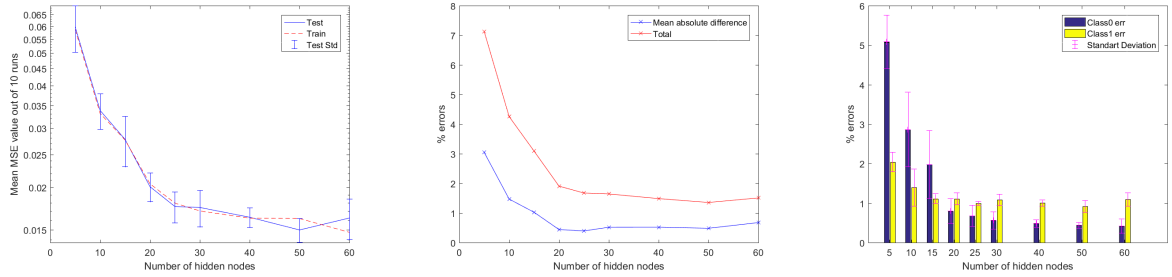
Metrics

MSE was used as a metric of performance. However MSE on it's own is not sufficient, because it will keep decreasing as we increase the number of nodes in the network, but if we add too many nodes the generalisation of the network will be poor. This is why in addition to MSE,

we also look at the percentage of errors in each of the two classes. Ideally we want our model to make an approximately equal amount of errors in both classes. If the model develops a bias against a particular class this means that we are probably over fitting the data or not capturing the structure of the data.

Experimentation for determining final network

Initially we consider only the number of centres m and search for networks with low MSE and approximately equal percentage of errors in both classes. We set the spread parameter of the network $\epsilon = 1$ and run for different hidden layer sizes $m = 5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 40, 50, 60$. For each value of m we train and evaluate the network 10 times and record the mean value of MSE, mean percentage of errors and mean absolute difference of errors for both the training and test sets. Results are plotted in figure ??.

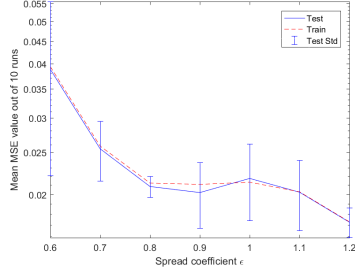


(a) Mean MSE of Test and Train sets. (b) Mean absolute difference of errors in class 0 and class 1 and mean percentage of errors in both classes, measured on test set. (c) Bar plot of mean percentage of errors in class 0 and class 1 measured on test set.

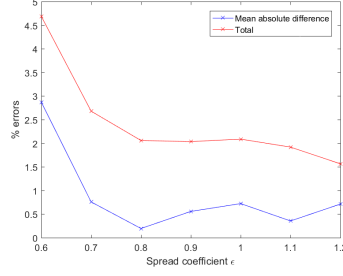
Figure 5: Performance of RBFN with parameters $m = 5, 15, 20, 25, 30, 40, 50, 60$ and $\epsilon = 1$, ran 10 times for each parameter combination.

From figure 5a above we can see that the MSE decreases when increasing the number of nodes, as we expected. After 20 hidden nodes MSE decreases at a slower rate. Looking at figure 5b we see that after around 20 hidden nodes the mean absolute difference in errors doesn't change very much and the total number of errors decreases very slowly. These two plots give us an understanding of how performance increases by increasing number of neurons, but tells us little about how much we are overfitting the data. Looking at figure 5c we can see that after 25 hidden nodes the errors in class 1 remain the same, while the errors in class 0 decrease. After that point the network is developing a bias against class 0. This is a hint that we are overfitting after this point. On the other hand, when we use fewer than 20 nodes the bias of the network is against the other class. This probably means we don't have enough neurons to capture the structure of the data. So we decide to use 20 hidden nodes the hidden layer and perform experiments to determine the spread coefficient ϵ , while keeping $m = 20$. The results are shown in figure 7.

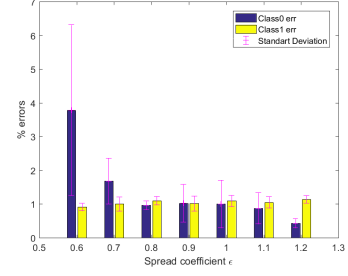
Looking at figure 7a we see that MSE reaches a local minimum around $\epsilon = 0.9$ and at that point the test set MSE is lower than the training set MSE. After $\epsilon = 1$ it starts decreasing, which indicates we might be overfitting again. Looking at 7b, we see that at $\epsilon = 0.8$ we get very low mean absolute difference in errors between the two classes. Furthermore, looking at 7c we see that at the same point the mean percentage of errors for both classes is around 1% with a very small standard deviation. We choose $\epsilon = 0.8$ for our final architecture, as it achieves a low MSE, a balance between errors in the two classes and stable results.



(a) Mean MSE of Test and Train sets.



(b) Mean absolute difference of errors in class 0 and class 1 and mean percentage of errors in both classes, measured on test set.



(c) Bar plot of mean percentage of errors in class 0 and class 1 measured on test set.

Figure 6: Performance of RBFN with parameters $m = 20$ and $\epsilon = 0.6, 0.7, 0.8, 0.9, 1.0, 1.1, 1.2$, ran 10 times for each parameter combination.

Results

The final chosen architecture achieves an average MSE of 0.025. In tables 3 and 4 the mean results for the training and test sets out of 20 runs of the architecture are shown. We can see that the distribution of errors in the two classes isn't as balanced as when we ran the network 10 times. This could mean that the experiments performed were insufficient.

mse	std mse	err0	std err0	err1	std err1	err diff	std err diff
0.025075	0.0065629	1.5438	0.90081	1.0428	0.19202	0.68385	0.82889

Table 3: Mean test results for $m = 20$, $\epsilon = 0.8$ out of 20 runs.

mse	std mse	err0	std err0	err1	std err1	err diff	std err diff
0.025452	0.0062647	1.6051	0.85912	1.0639	0.10549	0.67672	0.80653

Table 4: Mean train results for $m = 20$, $\epsilon = 0.8$ out of 20 runs.

On figure ??elow the confusion matrix ROC plot and error histograms are shown for a single run of the network.

From the confusion matrix we see that the network achieves 96.4% accuracy with a relatively equal distribution of errors in both classes. The ROC plot indicates a very good classifier as well. However on the error histogram we see that there are a lot of errors at the far right. This indicates that the network wasn't even close to classifying these data points correctly. These maybe points located near a class boundary which are misclassified due to noise or outliers, which are not in range of any of the RBFs.

We also notice that the network shows a relatively small MSE even with a very small hidden layer. This could mean that the data we have isn't representative of the problem.

Comparing the performance of the RBFN to that of the models proposed in [2] we see that we get approximately the same accuracy as the models using the same input variables.

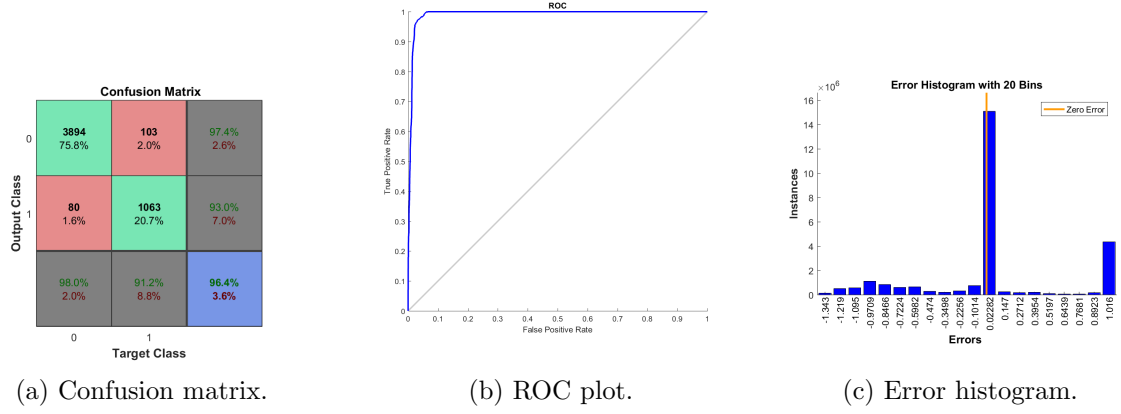


Figure 7: Performance of RBFN with parameters $m = 20$ and $\epsilon = 0.6, 0.7, 0.8, 0.9, 1.0, 1.1, 1.2$, ran 10 times for each parameter combination.

Section B

References

- [1] David Arthur and Sergei Vassilvitskii. K-means++: The advantages of careful seeding. In *Proceedings of the Eighteenth Annual ACM-SIAM Symposium on Discrete Algorithms, SODA '07*, pages 1027–1035, Philadelphia, PA, USA, 2007. Society for Industrial and Applied Mathematics.
- [2] Luis M. Candanedo and Vronique Feldheim. Accurate occupancy detection of an office room from light, temperature, humidity and $\{CO_2\}$ measurements using statistical learning models. *Energy and Buildings*, 112:28 – 39, 2016.
- [3] Stuart P. Lloyd. Least squares quantization in pcm. *IEEE Transactions on Information Theory*, 28:129–137, 1982.
- [4] Ping Zhou and Jim Austin. *A Binary Correlation Matrix Memory k-NN Classifier*, pages 251–256. Springer London, London, 1998.

Appendices

Data import script

Listing 1: getData.m

```
1 [dataTable, ~, ~, ~] = getDataTable();
2 x = dataTable(:, {'Temperature', 'Humidity', 'Light', 'CO2', '
   HumidityRatio'})';
3 t = dataTable(:, {'Occupancy'})';
4
5 function [table1, tableTest1, tableTrain, tableTest2] =
   getDataTable()
6 datatest1 = getDataset('data\datatest.txt');
7 datatraining = getDataset('data\datatraining.txt');
8 datatest2 = getDataset('data\datatest2.txt');
9
10 dates = [datatest1.Date; datatraining.Date; datatest2.Date];
11 temp = [datatest1.Temperature; datatraining.Temperature;
   datatest2.Temperature];
12 hum = [datatest1.Humidity; datatraining.Humidity; datatest2.
   Humidity];
13 light = [datatest1.Light; datatraining.Light; datatest2.Light];
14 co2 = [datatest1.CO2; datatraining.CO2; datatest2.CO2];
15 humr = [datatest1.HumidityRatio; datatraining.HumidityRatio;
   datatest2.HumidityRatio];
16 occ = [datatest1.Occupancy; datatraining.Occupancy; datatest2.
   Occupancy];
17
18 tableTest1 = table(datatest1.Date, datatest1.Temperature,
   datatest1.Humidity, ...
19   datatest1.Light, datatest1.CO2, datatest1.HumidityRatio,
   datatest1.Occupancy, ...
20   'VariableNames', {'Date', 'Temperature', 'Humidity', 'Light', '
   CO2', 'HumidityRatio', 'Occupancy'});
21
22 tableTest2 = table(datatraining.Date, datatraining.Temperature,
   datatraining.Humidity, ...
23   datatraining.Light, datatraining.CO2, datatraining.
   HumidityRatio, datatraining.Occupancy, ...
24   'VariableNames', {'Date', 'Temperature', 'Humidity', 'Light', '
   CO2', 'HumidityRatio', 'Occupancy'});
25
26 tableTrain = table(datatest2.Date, datatest2.Temperature,
   datatest2.Humidity, ...
27   datatest2.Light, datatest2.CO2, datatest2.HumidityRatio,
   datatest2.Occupancy, ...
28   'VariableNames', {'Date', 'Temperature', 'Humidity', 'Light', '
   CO2', 'HumidityRatio', 'Occupancy'});
```

```

29
30     table1 = table(dates, temp, hum, light, co2, humr, occ, ...
31         'VariableNames', {'Date', 'Temperature', 'Humidity', 'Light', '
          CO2', 'HumidityRatio', 'Occupancy'});
32 end
33
34
35 function datatraining = getDataset(filename, startRow, endRow)
36 %IMPORTFILE Import numeric data from a text file as a matrix.
37 %   DATATRaining = IMPORTFILE(FILENAME) Reads data from text file
          FILENAME
38 %   for the default selection.
39 %
40 %   DATATRaining = IMPORTFILE(FILENAME, STARTROW, ENDROW) Reads data
          from
41 %   rows STARTROW through ENDROW of text file FILENAME.
42 %
43 % Example:
44 %   datatraining = importfile('datatraining.txt', 2, 8144);
45 %
46 %   See also TEXTSCAN.
47
48 % Auto-generated by MATLAB on 2017/03/17 14:26:37
49
50 %% Initialize variables.
51 delimiter = ',';
52 if nargin <= 2
53     startRow = 2;
54     endRow = inf;
55 end
56
57 %% Format for each line of text:
58 %   column2: datetimes (%{yyyy-MM-dd HH:mm:ss}D)
59 %   column3: double (%f)
60 %   column4: double (%f)
61 %   column5: double (%f)
62 %   column6: double (%f)
63 %   column7: double (%f)
64 %   column8: double (%f)
65 % For more information, see the TEXTSCAN documentation.
66 formatSpec = '%*q%{yyyy-MM-dd HH:mm:ss}D%f%f%f%f%f%f%[\n\r]';
67
68 %% Open the text file.
69 fileID = fopen(filename, 'r');
70
71 %% Read columns of data according to the format.
72 % This call is based on the structure of the file used to generate
    this

```

```

73 % code. If an error occurs for a different file , try regenerating
    the code
74 % from the Import Tool.
75 dataArray = textscan(fileID , formatSpec , endRow(1)-startRow(1)+1, '
    Delimiter' , delimiter , 'EmptyValue' ,NaN,'HeaderLines' , startRow
    (1)-1, 'ReturnOnError' , false , 'EndOfLine' , '\r\n');
76 for block=2:length(startRow)
77     frewind(fileID);
78     dataArrayBlock = textscan(fileID , formatSpec , endRow(block)-
        startRow(block)+1, 'Delimiter' , delimiter , 'EmptyValue' ,NaN,
        'HeaderLines' , startRow(block)-1, 'ReturnOnError' , false , '
        EndOfLine' , '\r\n');
79     for col=1:length(dataArray)
80         dataArray{col} = [dataArray{col};dataArrayBlock{col}];
81     end
82 end
83
84 %% Close the text file.
85 fclose(fileID);
86
87 %% Post processing for unimportable data.
88 % No unimportable data rules were applied during the import , so no
    post
89 % processing code is included. To generate code which works for
90 % unimportable data, select unimportable cells in a file and
    regenerate the
91 % script.
92
93 %% Create output variable
94 datatraining = table(dataArray{1:end-1}, 'VariableNames', {'Date', '
    Temperature' , 'Humidity' , 'Light' , 'CO2' , 'HumidityRatio' , 'Occupancy'
    });
95
96 % For code requiring serial dates (datetime) instead of datetime ,
    uncomment
97 % the following line(s) below to return the imported dates as
    datetime(s).
98
99 % datatraining.Temperature=datetime(datatraining.Temperature);
100
101 end

```

Network creation script

Listing 2: RBFN.m

```
1 %% Set parameters of the RBF network
2 % 1. Center selection algorithm – kmeans = 1 for kmeans algorithm;
   random
3 % center selection otherwise
4 % 2. Number of centers/hidden nodes –
5 % 3. Scaling coefficient for the standard deviation of each hidden
   layer
6 % neuron – if coefficient = 1, use maximum distance between centers.
7 % 4. Input data matrix
8 % 5. Target class vector
9 use_kmeans = use_kmeans;
10 m1 = m1; % number of centres
11 std_coef = std_coef;
12 x = x;
13 t = t;
14
15 %% Train and evaluate Network
16 % 1. Preprocess inputs
17 x1 = mapstd(x);
18 x2 = processpca(x1, 0.02);
19 inputs = x2;
20
21
22 % 2. Split Data into training and test sets
23 N = size(x,2); % Calculate number of data points
24 training_set_part = 75;
25 perm_idx = randperm(N);
26 X1 = inputs(:, perm_idx(1:(N*training_set_part/100)));
27 D1 = t(:, perm_idx(1:(N*training_set_part/100)));
28 X2 = inputs(:, perm_idx((N*training_set_part/100)+1:end));
29 D2 = t(:, perm_idx((N*training_set_part/100)+1:end));
30
31
32 % 3. Select centers using either Kmeans algorithm or randomly select
   points from data set.
33 if use_kmeans
34     [~,c] = kmeans(X1',m1); % find m1 points as centres
35     c = c';
36 else
37     N = size(X1,2); % calculate number of data points
38     sample = randsample(N,m1); % generate m1 random numbers
39     c = X1(:,sample'); % sample m1 points from N as centres
40 end;
41
42
```

```

43 % 4. Calculate the distance from each of these centres to all of
    these data points.
44 % Use the function pdist() to generate a matrix of distances , then
    select that part of
45 % the matrix containing the distances required.
46 N = size(X1,2); % calculate number of data points
47 points = [X1 c]; % append the centres to the data
48 dist = squareform(pdist(points')); % calculate the distance matrix,
    from
49                                     % every point or centre to
50                                     % every other point or centre
51 distance = dist(1:N,N+1:N+m1); % extract the section with distances
52                                     % from points to centres
53 dc = dist(N+1:end,N+1:end); % extract the section with distances
54                                     % from centre to centre
55
56
57 % 5. Find the maximum centre to centre distance times a coefficient
    to use as the
58 % standard deviation of the basis functions.
59 % The matrix dc will contain the distance from every centre (in
    rows) to every other centre (in
60 % columns).
61 dmax = std_coef * max(max(dc)); % find the maximum of these
62
63 % 6. Calculate the matrix F composed of the individual basis
    functions responses to each
64 % data point.
65 % Take 'dmax' as an estimate of the standard deviation of the RBF
66 % nodes.
67 % The response from each RBF node to each data point depends on the
    distance
68 % between the node centre and the data point. The operation dist.^2
    squares all these
69 % distances. The calculation of F is the exp() function applied to
    each element of the matrix.
70 F = exp((-m1/(dmax*dmax))*(distance.^2)); % using these distances ,
    calculate the
71                                     % response from each
                                     % centre
72
73
74 % 7. Using the pseudo-inverse of F and the target data, find the
    weights.
75 pF = pinv(F); % calculate the pseudoinverse of F
76 W = pF * D1'; % use pF instead of F-1 to calculate the weights
77               % required to give the outputs D
78
79

```

```

80 % 8. Check how well the network classifies the training data
81 % Compare the calculated and desired outputs. Apply a threshold on
    the
82 % output to turn the low responses into a no classification .
83 Dcalc = F*W; % calculated outputs based on F and W
84 Dclass = Dcalc > 0.5; % and compare to find the bigger output
85 MSE1 = sum((D1 - Dcalc') .^ 2)/numel(D1);
86
87
88 % 9. Evaluate performance on a separate set of data.
89 % Use the same basis functions (same number, centres, standard
90 % deviation) and weights, but recalculate the distances and
    therefore F.
91 % Calculate F but using the same centres
92 % and dmax. This means calculating a new distance matrix for X2
93 N = size(X2,2); % calculate number of data points
94 points = [X2 c]; % append the centres to the data
95 dist = squareform(pdist(points')); % calculate the distance matrix,
    from
96 % every point or centre to
97 % every other point or centre
98 dist = dist(1:N,N+1:N+m1); % extract the section with distances
99 % from points to centres
100
101
102 % 10. Once you have the distance matrix, calculate the new F matrix
    using the same expression, and
103 % then calculate classes using the same W as before:
104 F2 = exp((-m1/(dmax*dmax))*(dist.*dist)); % using new distances,
    calculate F2
105 Dcalc = F2*W; % calculated outputs based on F2 and W
106 Dthresh = Dcalc > 0.5; % and compare
107 MSE2 = sum((D2 - Dcalc') .^ 2)/numel(D2);

```


Network experimentation script

Listing 3: runRBFN.m

```
1 use_kmeans = 1;
2 nodes = [20];
3 std_coefitients = [0.8];
4 reps = 1;
5
6 % Create structure to hold mean training results
7 s = length(nodes) * length(std_coefitients);
8 mtrr.mse = zeros(1, s);
9 mtrr.std_mse = zeros(1, s);
10 mtrr.err0 = zeros(1, s);
11 mtrr.std_err0 = zeros(1, s);
12 mtrr.err1 = zeros(1, s);
13 mtrr.std_err1 = zeros(1, s);
14 mtrr.err_diff = zeros(1, s);
15 mtrr.std_err_diff = zeros(1, s);
16 mtrr.nodes = nodes;
17 mtrr.reps = reps;
18 mtrr.std_coefitients = std_coefitients;
19
20 % Create structure to hold mean test results
21 mtr.mse = zeros(1, s);
22 mtr.std_mse = zeros(1, s);
23 mtr.err0 = zeros(1, s);
24 mtr.std_err0 = zeros(1, s);
25 mtr.err1 = zeros(1, s);
26 mtr.std_err1 = zeros(1, s);
27 mtr.err_diff = zeros(1, s);
28 mtr.std_err_diff = zeros(1, s);
29 mtr.nodes = nodes;
30 mtr.reps = reps;
31 mtr.std_coefitients = std_coefitients;
32
33 % Create structure to hold intermediate training results
34 train_res.mse = zeros(1, reps);
35 train_res.err0 = zeros(1, reps);
36 train_res.err1 = zeros(1, reps);
37 train_res.err_diff = zeros(1, reps);
38
39 % Create structure to hold intermediate test results
40 test_res.mse = zeros(1, reps);
41 test_res.err0 = zeros(1, reps);
42 test_res.err1 = zeros(1, reps);
43 test_res.err_diff = zeros(1, reps);
44
45 count = 1;
46
```

```

47 for m1 = nodes
48 for std_coef = std_coefitients
49
50 fprintf('Hidden Nodes = %i; std coefficient = %5.3f\n', m1,
        std_coef)
51
52 for i=1:reps
53
54     rbnet % Create, train and evaluate network
55
56     temp = D1-Dclass';
57     train_res.mse(i) = MSE1;
58     train_res.err0(i) = sum(temp(temp>0))*100/numel(temp);
59     train_res.err1(i) = abs(sum(temp(temp<0))*100/numel(temp));
60     train_res.err_diff(i) = abs(train_res.err0(i) - train_res.
        err1(i));
61
62     temp = D2-Dthresh';
63     test_res.mse(i) = MSE2;
64     test_res.err0(i) = sum(temp(temp>0))*100/numel(temp);
65     test_res.err1(i) = abs(sum(temp(temp<0))*100/numel(temp));
66     test_res.err_diff(i) = abs(test_res.err0(i) - test_res.err1(
        i));
67
68     plotconfusion(D1, Dclass', 'Training', D2, Dthresh', 'Test')
        ;
69     fprintf('MSE1 = %6.4f; MSE2 = %6.4f; Err0 = %4.2f; Err1 =
        %4.2f \n', MSE1, MSE2, test_res.err0(i), test_res.err1(i)
        );
70
71 end;
72
73 mtrr.mse(count) = mean(train_res.mse);
74 mtrr.std_mse(count) = std(train_res.mse);
75 mtrr.err0(count) = mean(train_res.err0);
76 mtrr.std_err0(count) = std(train_res.err0);
77 mtrr.err1(count) = mean(train_res.err1);
78 mtrr.std_err1(count) = std(train_res.err1);
79 mtrr.err_diff(count) = mean(train_res.err_diff);
80 mtrr.std_err_diff(count) = std(train_res.err_diff);
81
82 mtr.mse(count) = mean(test_res.mse);
83 mtr.std_mse(count) = std(test_res.mse);
84 mtr.err0(count) = mean(test_res.err0);
85 mtr.std_err0(count) = std(test_res.err0);
86 mtr.err1(count) = mean(test_res.err1);
87 mtr.std_err1(count) = std(test_res.err1);
88 mtr.err_diff(count) = mean(test_res.err_diff);
89 mtr.std_err_diff(count) = std(test_res.err_diff);

```

```
90
91     count = count+1;
92 end;
93 end;
94 clear temp s count
```

Transformation settings

xmean	xstd	xrows	yrows	ymean	ystd	gain	xoffset	nochange
20.9062	1.0553	5	5	0	1	0.94758	20.9062	0
27.6559	4.9822					0.20072	27.6559	
130.7566	210.4309					0.0047522	130.7566	
690.5533	311.2013					0.0032134	690.5533	
0.0042283	0.00076787					1302.3054	0.0042283	

Table 5: mapstd transformation settings

properties	transform					inverseTransform			
name = processpca	-0.37955	-0.39547	-0.40712	-0.49929	-0.53339	-0.37955	0.52236	0.21998	-0.69077
xrows = 5	0.52236	-0.58823	0.4643	0.10901	-0.392	-0.39547	-0.58823	0.1784	0.065158
maxfrac = 0.02	0.21998	0.1784	0.37132	-0.85446	0.22761	-0.40712	0.4643	0.37132	0.6934
yrows = 4	-0.69077	0.065158	0.6934	0.091391	-0.17156	-0.49929	0.10901	-0.85446	0.091391
nochange = 0						-0.53339	-0.392	0.22761	-0.17156

Table 6: processpca transformation settings