

Applying Radial Basis Function Networks and Markov Chains for on-line detection of concept drift in non-stationary environments

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Abstract

The amount of data produced by computer systems has grown sharply in recent decades, and a significant part of it is generated as uninterrupted and potentially infinite sequences known as data streams. Generally, these streams are produced by non-stationary environments, in which the data distribution can change over time, possibly deteriorating the system performance. In the literature, this phenomenon is named concept drift. Nevertheless, most drift detection methods are unsuited for non-stationary environments with data streams. These algorithms usually require the correct labeling of data - infeasible in these settings - or do not match the strict response time and resource usage restrictions inherent to scenarios with data streams. In an attempt to mitigate the aforementioned problem, this paper proposes a novel proactive method for on-line drift detection, called RBFChain. The proposed method relies on Radial Basis Function Networks implicit clustering property and uses Markov Chains to model the drifts transitions. To assess the proposed method as a viable concept drift detector, an analysis of sensitivity, accuracy, and noise tolerance was performed using synthetic datasets, and results were compared to the most established algorithms in the literature. Furthermore, the algorithm was applied to the real-world problem of eye-tracking. A critical issue for different areas of knowledge, since many behavioral experiments use eye-tracking information as a relevant analysis factor. Experimental results suggest that RBFChain is statistically better or equivalent to other detectors as it offers greater or equal overall classification accuracy. Also, the technique demonstrated good performance in the eye-tracking problem, being able to identify fixations and saccades in real-time with precision comparable to state of the art.

1. Introduction

In recent years, the volume of data produced by computer systems has grown dramatically. Technological advances favored this growth, such as the pervasiveness of mobile devices, the popularization of social networks, and the expansion of the internet of things [1].

A significant share of this data is produced in the form of uninterrupted and potentially infinite sequences [2]. In the literature, sequences with these characteristics are known as data streams. These streams are present in various fields of application, such as financial market monitoring [3], road traffic monitoring [4], telecom network management [5], real-time sentiment analysis [6] and intruder prevention and identification systems [7].

Most of the environments that produce data streams are non-stationary. That is, the joint probability distribution changes arbitrarily over time, such as a switch in the conditional probability distribution on a classification problem, or a change of some moment (such as mean and variance) on a time series forecasting problem [8]. Systems applied to these environments may be unable to adapt to the new information, hence dramatically deteriorating their performance. This phenomenon is known as concept drift [9].

Still, most drift detection methods are unsuitable for non-stationary environments with data streams. These methods usually require the correct labeling of data - impracticable in these contexts - or do not meet the severe response time and resource usage restrictions inherent to contexts with data streams.

This paper proposes a novel proactive method for on-line drift detection, called RBFChain. The proposed algorithm is based on Radial Basis Function Networks implicit clustering property and employs Markov Chains to model the drifts transitions. To validate the proposed method as a viable concept drift detector, an examination of sensitivity, accuracy, and noise tolerance was performed using synthetic datasets, and results were compared to the most established algorithms in the literature.

Moreover, the algorithm was also applied to the real-world problem of eye-tracking. A problem with impact in different areas of knowledge, since many behavioral experiments use eye-tracking information as a relevant analysis factor.

Experimental results suggest that RBFChain is statistically better or equivalent to other detectors as it offers greater or equal overall classification accuracy. Additionally, the method demonstrated good performance in the eye-tracking problem, being able to identify fixations and saccades in real-time with precision comparable to state of the art.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows: Section 2 describes the concept drift phenomenon and the main detection techniques; Section 3 presents the eye-tracking problem; Section 4 describes the RBFChain algorithm and its pseudo-code; Section 5 presents the setup and results of the experiment with synthetic datasets; Section 6 shows the setup and results of the eye-tracking experiment; and, finally, Section 7 provides conclusions and discusses future work.

2. Concept Drift

Most real-world problems scenarios can be regarded as non-stationary environments [9]. In these environments, the joint probability distribution can change over time, such as a switch in the conditional probability distribution on a classification problem, or a change of some moment (such as mean and variance) on a time series forecasting problem [8]. Systems applied to these settings may be unable to adapt to the changes, hence dramatically deteriorating their performance. This phenomenon is called concept drift.

The Bayesian Theory can be used to formally define the concept drift phenomenon [10]: consider the posterior probability of a sample x belonging to a class y , a concept drift happens when this probability changes over time, that is, $P_{t+1}(y|x) \neq P_t(y|x)$. In a supervised learning scenario, this can be interpreted as when the relationship between the input data and the target variable change over time.

According to [8, 9], concept drifts can occur in four main patterns. These patterns are demonstrated in Figure 1 and described below:

- **Abrupt:** occurs when a concept A switches abruptly to another concept B.
- **Gradual:** occurs when a concept A is being exchanged for the B concept slowly. In this case, while there is no definitive change from concept A to concept B, occurrences of B become more frequent, while fewer events of A are observed.

- **Incremental:** occurs when a concept A is being exchanged for B through intermediate concepts. These concepts differ little from its predecessor and successor, so changes are noticeable only in the long run.
- **Recurrent:** occurs when a previously active concept reappears after a certain period. However, this cannot be understood as a periodic seasonality.

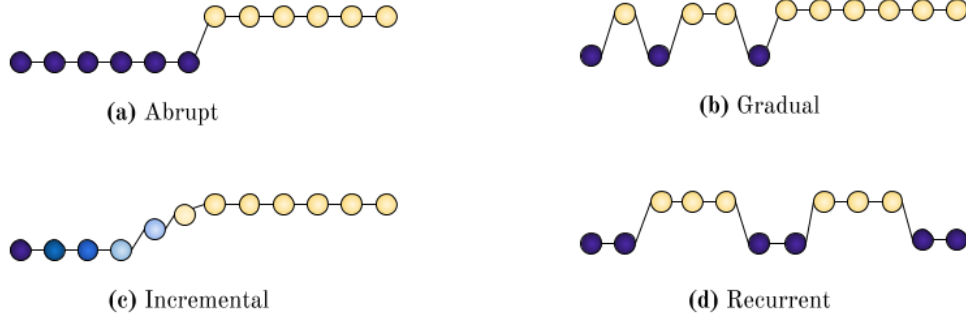


Figure 1: Concept Drift Patterns

Concept drift detection methods characterize and quantify concept drifts through the delimitation of moments or time intervals in which change happens [11]. These algorithms fall into two categories, according to the need for data labeling [12]:

- **Explicit Algorithms/Supervised:** Adopt a reactive approach, as they depend on the correct labeling of the data. The model performance is monitored continuously, and drifts are detected when its performance starts to deteriorate, passing past a threshold.
- **Implicit Algorithms/Unsupervised:** Implement a proactive approach and are independent of correct data labeling. Concept drifts are detected through the analysis of incoming data or indicators produced by the applied learning techniques. Although more prone to false alarms, they are an alternative to scenarios where obtaining labels is

89 expensive, time-consuming, or unviable. Also, this approach can lead
90 to better results, since it is possible to refit the model or adjust the
91 data before the deterioration of the predictions.

92 This paper proposes a novel unsupervised and proactive concept drift de-
93 tection method. The algorithm continually groups the incoming data through
94 Radial Basis Function Networks and maintains a model of the drift transi-
95 tions in a Markov Chain. Drifts are detected when the probability of a
96 transition reaches a parametric threshold.

97 **3. Eye-tracking**

98 Visual perception involves six types of eye movements [13], among which
99 fixations and saccades are the most relevant. During fixation, the eye is kept
100 relatively stable on an area of interest (AOI). In contrast, saccades are fast
101 eye movements enabling the fovea to fixate different regions of the scene [14].
102 Thus, the process of looking at a scene can be represented by a sequence of
103 fixations and saccades, the so-called visual scan path. Research on scan path
104 analysis and visual perception has benefited from the recent development of
105 eye trackers. Today's eye-tracking systems allow a precise recording of eye
106 movements at high sampling rates, thus enabling a detailed analysis of the
107 viewing behavior.

108 Despite recent advances, reliable automated clustering of eye movements
109 is still challenging, even more so in dynamic scenarios. In many applications,
110 e.g., human-computer gaze-based interaction, driving assistance systems, on-
111 line adaptation of digital content based on gaze analysis, the identification
112 of fixations and saccades has to occur in an online fashion. There is a wide
113 variety of methods for the online analysis of eye-tracking data and the recog-
114 nition of fixations and saccades. However, only a few of them are suited for
115 online applicability to dynamic scenes. Such methods have to quickly adapt
116 not only to the individual viewing behavior but also to the changes occurring
117 in the viewing scene. This small group of highly promising methods is based
118 on probabilistic formalizations, e.g., as Markov Models [15, 16], Bayesian
119 Mixture Models [17], etc.

120 Prior techniques for the automated recognition of different types of eye
121 movements from eye-tracking data fall into two main categories: (i) threshold-
122 based methods, where the distinction of fixations from saccades is based on
123 dispersion, velocity, or acceleration thresholds, and (ii) probabilistic meth-
124 ods. These groups of techniques will be briefly discussed in the following.

125 Threshold-based methods distinguish between fixations and saccades based
126 on the assumption that the distances, velocities, or accelerations occurring
127 between subsequent fixations differ from those occurring between saccades.
128 The goal then is to identify a threshold based on which saccades can be
129 reliably distinguished from fixations.

130 When distance thresholds are used, fixation clusters are usually identi-
131 fied by searching for data points that are close enough to each other (i.e.,
132 below the established threshold) within a predefined time window [18]. A
133 representative of this group, is the Dispersion Threshold Identification (I-
134 DT) algorithm [15]. Other similar approaches differ mainly in the way the
135 threshold is calculated [19, 20].

136 Other algorithms in this realm are based on the computation of Minimum
137 Spanning Trees (MST). In [15] an MST is built on the eye-tracking points
138 within a temporal window of predefined length. An edge (i.e., representing
139 the distance between two points) is classified as a saccade if its length is
140 significantly larger than the lengths of neighboring edges, which have been
141 previously classified as distances between fixations. Yet other methods em-
142 ploy smart clustering algorithms, e.g., [21, 22] but have serious limitations
143 concerning their applicability to dynamic online scenarios, since, in such sce-
144 narios, the cluster properties for fixations and saccades show high variability.

145 Methods that are based on velocity or acceleration thresholds work simi-
146 larly. A representative of this group is the Velocity-Threshold Identification
147 (I-VT) algorithm, where a point is identified as a saccade point, if the im-
148 plicit velocity along the distance from the previous data point to that point
149 exceeds a predefined threshold. Otherwise the data point is assigned to a
150 fixation cluster [15].

151 In summary, the major drawback of threshold-based methods is that they
152 rely on thresholds that have to be empirically adjusted to the individual
153 viewing behavior, the viewing area, and the specific task. Each of these pa-
154 rameters can have significant influence on the classification result [16, 15].
155 For this reason and because of the fact that the viewing behavior is strongly
156 physically and physiologically-dependent, such methods are not reliable, es-
157 pecially when real-time analysis of eye-tracking data is needed.

158 Probabilistic methods are built on soft decision rules, which are formalized
159 as probabilities, e.g., the probability of a data point being a saccade given
160 the previous observations. The probabilities and thus, the decisions are
161 adjusted to the observations.

162 One of the most prominent probabilistic methods applied to the identifica-

tion of fixations and saccades is the Hidden Markov Model (HMM). An HMM is a simple dynamic Bayesian network with variables representing values from a discrete state and observation space. The state of a variable represents the class of the current observation. It is only dependent on the state (i.e., class of the previous observation). Because of this sequential nature, such models are a popular choice for the analysis of successively arising data points (i.e., observations). For the detection of fixations and saccades from eye data, HMMs have been used with velocity observations between successive data points, thus allowing the adaptation of the model to the physiological viewing behavior [15]. In the model of [15] (coined I-HMM), the two states used represent discretized velocity distributions over fixations and saccades. Transition probabilities between the states represent the probability of the current sample belonging to a fixation cluster or a saccade, given the previous state [18]. Due to the above probabilistic representation, no thresholds are needed. The I-HMM is reported to outperform fixed-threshold methods, such as I-VT [15]. In summary, the sequential, dynamic, and probabilistic nature of HMMs makes them an adequate choice for data arising in an online fashion and containing variability in its features.

Probabilistic mixture models, such as the Bayesian Mixture Model (BMM) presented in [17], build on the assumption that the observed data is generated from a mixture of unknown density distributions. The goal is to estimate the parameters of these distributions based on observed data points and to derive the most probable distribution that might have generated a given data point.

The algorithm presented in [17] could distinguish between fixations and saccades in an online fashion, only by considering the Euclidean distances between subsequent data points. The underlying model is based on the assumption that distances between subsequent fixation points will, in general, be shorter than distances between subsequent saccade points; that is, distances between subsequent fixation points would be generated from a specific Gaussian distribution and those between subsequent saccade points from another. This intuition was modeled by a Bayesian Online Mixture Model. The benefit of the Bayesian formalization of the mixture model is that the parameters of the two distributions are updated and learned in an online fashion as more and more data is observed. For every new data point, the prior probabilities are replaced by the latest estimates. For practical purposes, this means that for every new user the algorithm needs a relatively small number of data points to adjust to that user and learn user- or scene-dependent

201 parameters.

202 In summary, probabilistic methods come with three main advantages over
203 threshold-based ones:

- 204 1. No fixed thresholds are needed. Instead, the parameters of the model
205 (e.g., state transition probabilities, label emission probabilities, and
206 other settings) are learned from labeled data.
- 207 2. Both HMMs and BMMs can adapt to the individual (i.e., physiological)
208 viewing behavior of a subject and the specific task.
- 209 3. Given the dynamic nature of the underlying models, the methods are
210 naturally suited for data arising in an online fashion, such as eye-
211 tracking data.

212 4. RBFChain algorithm

213 This section details the RBFChain implementation. However, before de-
214 scribing the proposed method, it is significant to present the main applied
215 concepts of Radial Base Function Networks and Markov Chains.

216 4.1. Radial Basis Function Networks (RBFN)

217 Radial Basis Function Networks (RBFN) are used in various disciplines
218 with a reasonable degree of success. The broad applicability is a result of
219 their excellent ability to make function approximation, especially when the
220 relationships among the variables of interest are nonlinear [23].

221 A radial basis function network is a type of artificial neural network
222 (ANN), and most neural networks are known to be useful in modeling com-
223 plex and nonlinear relationships. An RBFN has advantages in specific appli-
224 cations in that for a given parameter set, RBFN networks do not require an
225 iterative procedure to learn the model. Iterative learning for most ANN types
226 is computationally expensive and vulnerable to the local minima problem.

227 The topology of an RBFN is given in Fig. 2 as a multiple input sin-
228 gle output feedforward network. Assume that there are n input variables
229 labeled from x_1 to x_n . The network receives input samples as vectors $x =$
230 (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) of size $1 \times n$. The initial layer is only a buffer that feeds the in-
231 put values to the intermediate layer, which is called the hidden layer. There
232 are n_h processing elements in the hidden layer. Each processing element
233 in the hidden layer processes the input vector and produces a single value
234 output. This processing is performed through a basis function ϕ . Finally,

235 the output layer weights the results of the intermediate layer by weights,
 236 aggregating them linearly to compose the final network response.

237 Among many candidates for basis functions, Gaussian radial basis func-
 238 tion (RBF), presented in Eq. 1, is used in this study. The main reason
 239 for this choice is that it can be shown that an RBFN with Gaussian RBF
 240 can sufficiently approximate any given function for a large enough number
 241 of hidden layer elements [24].

242 Probabilistic methods are built on soft decision rules, which are formalized
 243 as probabilities, e.g., the probability of a data point being a saccade given
 244 the previous observations. The probabilities and thus, the decisions are
 245 adjusted to the observations.

$$\varphi(v_i) = e^{-(\sigma r)^2} \quad (1)$$

246 In the hidden layer, each processing element has a separate vector called
 247 the center, which has the same dimensions as the input vector. For n_h
 248 hidden layer elements we have n_h center vectors as $(c_1; c_2; \dots; c_{n_h})$. Then
 249 each processing element looks at the distance between the input vector and
 250 its center and uses this distance to create its output (activation phase).

251 This work uses only the initial and intermediary layers of the presented
 252 architecture. The initial layer channels the incoming data to the middle layer,
 253 which implicitly forms clusters during the activation phase. The formed
 254 grouping has an active center that changes according to the processed value.
 255 Changes in the active center are interpreted as possible concept drifts.

256 4.2. Markov Chains

257 A Markov chain model can be defined by the tuple $(S; A; \lambda)$. S corre-
 258 sponds to the state space, A is a matrix representing transition probabilities
 259 from one state to another, and λ is the initial probability distribution of the
 260 states in S . If there are n states in our Markov chain, then the matrix of
 261 transition probabilities A is of size $n \times n$.

262 The fundamental property of the Markov model is the dependency on the
 263 previous state. If the vector $s(t)$ denotes the probability vector for all the
 264 states at time t , then:

$$\hat{s}(t) = \hat{s}(t-1)A \quad (2)$$

265 In this proposal, Markov chains are used to model the transitions (ac-
 266 tivations) between centers in the Radial Basis Function Network. For this

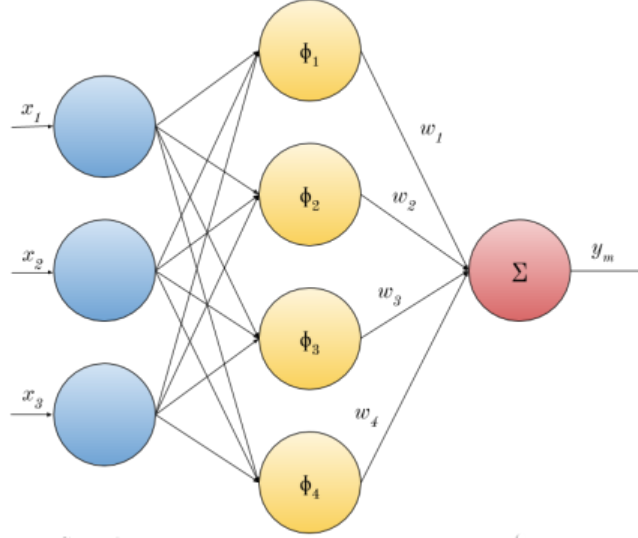


Figure 2: Topology of a RBFN

formulation, a Markov state corresponds to one of the centers.

When the RBFN identifies a different center, a new state is registered in the Markov Chain. Initially, all possible transitions from this center have a zero value. If another center is activated, this change produces an increment in the probability of the correspondent transition. In parallel, all other transitions probabilities are decreased proportionally to the total number of possible transitions.

The use of a Markov Chain allows the proposed algorithm to keep an online model of the transitions. The probabilities sustained in this model are compared to parametric thresholds, to indicate when a warning zone is triggered, or a concept drift happens.

4.3. RBFChain

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280 5. Analyses on Synthetic Datasets with Concept Drift

281 5.1. Experimental Setup

282 5.2. Results

283 6. Detection of Saccade and Fixation

284 6.1. Experimental Setup

285 6.2. Results

286 7. Concluding Remarks

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