RBF Neural Networks Based on BFGS Optimization Method for Solving Integral Equations

M. Sadeghi¹, M. Pashaie¹ and A. Jafarian¹,*
¹Department of Mathematics, Urmia Branch, Islamic Azad University, Urmia, Iran.
*Corresponding Author e-mail: Jafarian5594@yahoo.com

Abstract

In this paper, a new method using radial basis function (RBF) networks is presented. Integral equations are solved by converting them into an unconstrained optimization problem. The obtained solutions are approximated by Radial Basis Function (RBF) Networks. Then a cost function is achieved in terms of network parameters which need to be minimized. Now it is time to employ the Broyden Fletcher Goldfarb Shanno (BFGS) optimization method in order to minimize the established objective function. It has to be pointed out that once this function is differentiable, its convergence speed will be high over other existing methods in the literature. Results show that our method has the potentiality to behave such an efficient approach for solving integral equations as well as integral equations of the second kind. The main advantage of applying RBF networks is that it makes it effortless to calculate the gradient of the cost function. Some examples are presented to confirm our results.

Keywords: Integral differential equation, artificial neural network, unconstrained optimization, RBF network, BFGS method.

1. INTRODUCTION

Numerical Solution of integral equations plays major role in applications of sciences and engineering. It arises in wide variety of science applications for e.g. physics, mechanics, telecommunications, petrochemical and nuclear power plants, etc [12]. Once ordinary differential equations, integral equations and partial equations fails at giving us explicit solutions, so the numerical method will be applicable in solving them and one can see that compare to ordinary differential equations, the integral equations will be approximated more desirable. By transforming a differential equation into an integral equation using Leibniz integral rule, a differential integral equation is achieved. In this case the integral- differential equation can be considered as an intermediate step in determining Volterra integral equations which are
equivalent to the given differential equation [13]. Different types of numerical methods are also available for solving integral equations [20, 21]. For example, Biazar et al; [4], applied successfully Homotopy Perturbation Method to solve Fredholm nonlinear integral equation. Babolian et al; [5], have solved nonlinear Fredholm integral equations of the second kind using Haar wavelet method. E. Babolian, K. Maleknejad et al; [14], have employed two-dimensional triangular functions and their applications as basic functions to solve the nonlinear 2D Volterra–Fredholm integral equations. K. Maleknejad et al; [15], have proposed a method for solving two-dimensional Volterra–Hammerstein integral equations. Utilizing two-dimensional functions, it will be possible to transform the considered integral equations into nonlinear integral equation and the solution to this none linear system will be approximated. M. Alipour et al; [16], have considered Bernstein polynomials for solving Abel’s integral equation. Recently many applications of artificial neural networks have been reported in the literature, and applications in science and engineering are growing. Moreover, artificial neural networks have been so particular in an active field of research that has matured greatly in solving integral equations. For example, Shekari et al; [7], have solved partial differential equations using neural networks and optimization techniques. A. Golbabai et al; [8], have solved a system of nonlinear integral equations by RBF networks. It has been pointed out that the neural network architecture owns the attractive feature of being universal approximator which is applicable in solving integral equations. For example, Jafarian et al; [23], have solved the fuzzy Abel integral equations using back propagation multi-layer networks. Huang et al; [25], have approximated a function with damped wave using self-constructing RBF network, in which at the start, RBF network consists of a few sets of centers, then given the training, the number of centers will be fluctuating until it meets the successful training then the number of centers remains constant. Huang et al; [26], generalized the previous algorithm, and named it a generalized growing and pruning (GGAP) algorithm. For more details on the RBF neural networks see [24]. Asady et al; [17], have solved the two-dimensional Fredholm integral equation of the second kind using multi-layer artificial neural networks and an optimization method. In this paper the optimization method of steepest descent, also called the gradient descent method is applied [17]. Sharma et al; [6], have employed an efficient fifth order method for solving systems of nonlinear equations. By the time that the integral equation converts to dynamic system, this algorithm becomes more applicable. In this article, the integral equation or system of integral equations is written as the sum of squared errors (SSE). In this error function (cost), the solution to the integral equation is approximated by a RBF network. The RBF network parameters will be chosen to minimize the cost function. To minimize the cost function, an unconstrained optimization method should be used. To unconstrained optimization, quasi-Newton optimization method (BFGS) is implemented. It is a new feasible point, if the cost function is differentiable, we get good resultant of BFGS method in minimizing and it is going perform faster than other existing optimization methods [9]. In following there are some significant characteristics in transforming integral equation into an unconstrained optimization problem and then solve it by BFGS optimization method.
I. RBF neural network has been implemented as a universal approximator for different types, especially Fredholm equations of the second kind.

II. Application of this method is ordinary.

III. Comparing to other iterative methods, its convergence rate is high as in most cases it devotes less than 5 minutes to perform the process. While having gradient descent, it may reach up to 30 minutes. This method reduces processing and increases speed.

2. BFGS OPTIMIZATION METHOD

To actually solve many technical processes, optimization methods are needed. Hence optimization methods explore assumptions to varying parameters and suggest the best way to change them. Optimization methods generally categorized to: constrained and unconstrained. Since transforming constrained method into unconstrained method is feasible, unconstrained optimization techniques are vitally important [10]. Here we discuss methods for unconstrained optimization, including Nelder Mead method, Newton method and quasi-Newton methods [18]. Obviously, BFGS method is one of the most effective methods for unconstrained optimization [10, 9], this is one of the quasi-Newton methods which uses approximations instead of Hessian inverse matrix methods. If we have the following minimization problem of the form

\[ \text{Min } f(x), \; X \in R^n \]  

Given, \( f(x^*) \) is the minimal, the iterative process for finding \( x^* \) is:

\[ X_{k+1} = X_k - \alpha_k S_k \nabla f^T (x_k) \]  

Where \( S_k \) is a symmetric matrix \( n \times n \), and \( \alpha_k \) is learning rate which will be found to minimize \( f(x_{k+1}) \). For \( S_k \) is Hessian matrix of, Newton's method will be found, and if \( S_k = I \) then we have gradient descent. In general, choosing \( S_k \) as one of the approximation of Hessian matrix, quasi-Newton methods can be established. Suppose \( f \) on \( R^n \) contains the continuous second order partial derivatives, define

\[ g_k = \nabla f^T (x_k), \; p_k = X_{k+1} - X_k \]  

And \( H_k \) is Hessian matrix approximation in iteration \( k \). Hence approximation of the matrix \( H \) is applied by David-Fletcher-Powell. Starting from each of the positive constant symmetric matrix \( H_0 \) (i.e I), each point \( x_0 \) and \( k = 0 \) take the following phases:
Phase 1. Consider
\[ d_k = -H_k g_k \]

Phase 2. Minimize \( f(x_k + \alpha d_k) \) subject to \( \alpha \geq 0 \).
Now we have \( X_{k+1} \), \( P_k = \alpha_k d_k \) and \( g_{k+1} \) obtained.

Phase 3. Consider
\[ q_k = g_{k+1} - g_k \]
And
\[ H_{k+1} = H_k + \frac{p_k p_k^T}{p_k^T q_k} - \frac{H_k q_k^T H_k}{q_k^T H_k q_k} \]  \hspace{1cm} (4)

Then, Update \( \alpha \) and return to step 1.

It is proven that if \( H_k \) is real-valued constant, then \( H_{k+1} \) will be real-valued constant and the sequence of this algorithm is convergence [10]. A new method of updating for \( H \) is, Broyden- Fletcher- Goldfarb-Shanno [10]:
\[ H_{k+1} = H_k + \left( 1 + \frac{q_k^T H_k q_k}{q_k^T p_k} \right) \frac{p_k p_k^T}{p_k^T q_k} - \frac{H_k q_k^T H_k}{q_k^T H_k q_k} + \frac{H_k q_k^T H_k}{q_k^T p_k} \]  \hspace{1cm} (5)

Provided that in the above algorithm, state (5) is used instead of (4), the method will be plausible as BFGS method.

**Remark.** It is proven that for each \( \alpha_k > 0 \) which led to \( p_k^T q_k > 0 \), also matrix \( H_{k+1} \) remains constant positive [Lu]. So at phase 2, we will start with small value of \( \alpha_k \) and then deploy it to the point that we get \( p_k^T q_k > 0 \).

Respect to this, an optimization problem no longer need to be solved in the second phase.

**Example a.** BFGS algorithm will be employed in solving the following minimizing problem
\[ Min \left( x^2 - 5xy + y^4 - 25x - 8y \right) = Min f(x, y) \]  \hspace{1cm} (6)

After the gradient vector is computed, starting from the initial point \( X_0 = (20, -5) \), BFGS algorithm will get running until the obtained absolute error from the four previous errors (approximations) is small enough in other words:
\[ X_k - X_{k-4} = \begin{pmatrix} 1.2663 \times 10^{-9} \\ 3.4461 \times 10^{-13} \end{pmatrix} \]

After the optimal point iterations are done, \( x^* = (20, 3) \) will appear with the optimal value of -343. Integration of \( x \) and \( y \) during the BFGS algorithm can be seen in figure 1.

![Fig. 1. Integration of example a](image)

To verify the resulting solution, the graph of function \( f(x, y) \) on \([18, 23] \times [2, 4]\) is displayed in Figure 2.

![Fig. 2. The exact graph of function \( f(x, y) \) in example a](image)
We see that running time is limited. In fact, when \( f \) is differentiable, this method is superior to other methods.

3. ARTIFICIAL NEURAL NETWORK RBF

Artificial neural networks (ANN) have many uses in a variety of architecture to detect function approximation. ANNs have given considerable attention in multi-layer networks, radial basis function (RBF) networks and recursive networks. Radial basis function (RBF) networks typically have three layers: an input layer, a hidden layer and an output layer. The general form of a RBF network is plotted in Figure.3.

This RBF network involves an equation which is illustrated in Fig. 3

\[
y = f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i \phi_i \left( \|x - c_i\| \right).
\]  

(7)

Where \( c_i \) and \( w_i \) represent centers and weights to output layers, respectively. Function \( \phi_i \) is a nonlinear function and \( x = c_i \) possess the highest value. By increasing value of \( \|x - c_i\| \), the value of this function will be reduced to zero. Thus, this is called the radial basis functions. Here many states can be adopted, but the following is widely used

\[
\phi(x) = \exp \left( -\frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{x - c}{\sigma} \right)^2 \right),
\]

(8)
This function is called Gaussian function and $\sigma$ is the variance. And

$$\phi(x) = \left(\|x - c_i\|^2 + \alpha_i^2\right)^{\alpha_i},$$

Subject to $\alpha > 0$

And $\alpha$ is not an even number. Function $\phi$ in (9), is called multiquadric. Width $\alpha_i$ can be defined as mean absolute distance of origin point. And

$$\alpha_i = \frac{\beta}{k - 1} \sum_{i=1}^{k} c_i, \quad k = 2, \ldots, m$$

Where $c_i$ i-th center and $\beta$ is a real constant which is closed to one. The interesting feature of multilayer neural networks and RBF network is that they are known as universal approximator. The following theorem justifies that the RBF networks are universal approximator.

**Theorem 1:** Assume $\Omega$ is the set of all functions which are calculated by a Gaussian network on a compact set of $S$ includes $R^n$.

$$\Omega_N = \left\{ f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} w_i \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{m} \frac{x_k - c_{ik}}{\sigma_{ik}} \right)^2; w_i, c_{ik}, \sigma_{ik} \in \mathbb{R}, X \in S \right\}$$

And

$$\Omega = \bigcup_{N=1}^{\infty} \Omega_N$$

Now, $\Omega$ is dense in $C[S]$.

**Proof.** Refer to [11].

Having this theorem, it is proved that and by altering the function $\phi(0)$, Each of Gaussian RBF networks are universal approximator. (RBF) network has also been used successfully in a variety of applications, and which has a number of advantages. Selecting the numbers, spotting the centers and initial widths and how to update RBF network become very crucial to understand these networks. If learning is supervised in Gaussian networks, all optimized parameters will be achieved by using back propagation (BP) method. By considering the function $\phi$ in (9), then intervals $\alpha_i$ are provided from the equation (10), consequently, centers will be determined using testing error as well as employing K – means clustering algorithm (K-M). The algorithm then randomly chooses k points in vector space, these point serve as the initial centers while the same distance measure is chosen [19].
For example, a Gaussian RBF network such as (1-2-33) by 400 testing samples in \([ -1,1] \times [-1,1] \) is able to interpolate:

\[
f(x, y) = x^2 + \sin(\pi xy).
\]  

(11)

If the BP algorithm is implemented to learn and the initial variance of i-th is exhibited in \(\sigma_i = \frac{p_i}{i} \), after the 80.0 cycles (Epoch) we achieve to \(SSE = 0.0709\). Figure 4 displays the exact and approximate solution.

\[
\text{Fig.4. the exact solution and network response to approximate}
\]

\[
f(x, y) = x^2 + \sin(\pi xy)
\]

It should be noted that a Growing and Pruning Method for Radial Basis Function Networks is defined in [1] in which by running the method after the learning is done, the optimal number of centers and variance are obtained. In other words, during learning process the centers are removed or added to the point that learning will be done using the least centers.

RBF network is a type of artificial neural network for application to problems of supervised learning. Radial basis function (RBF) networks typically have three layers with clear structure. In a hidden layer, each of neurons implements a radial basis function. RBF network is superior to multi-layer networks in derivation which is easier. Especially when the function \(\phi(0)\) in RBF network places in the equation (9).

In this case, widths \(\alpha_i\) are chosen by (10), and centers are selected using testing error. As a result, in learning process weights need to be determined. The RBF widths are usually all fixed to same value which is proportional to the maximum distance
between the chosen centers. Their excellent approximation capabilities have been one of the advantages.

4. INTEGRAL EQUATIONS AND ITS RELATIONSHIP WITH NEURAL NETWORKS
In this section, converting integral equations and integral equations systems to an optimization problem has explained. Since in this method being linear and nonlinear integral equation seems to be not an issue, it is stated as

\[ f(t) = F(u(t)) + \int_{\Gamma} k(t,s)G(u(s))ds, \quad \Gamma = [a,b] \text{or} [a,x] \] (12)

In general the equation (*), is diagnosed as a Volterra or Fredholm linear or nonlinear integral equation, and it is assumed that equation (*) is second kind. In the other words:

\[ F(u(t)) \neq 0 \]

We define:

\[ \mu(u(t)) = F(u(t)) + \int_{\Gamma} k(t,s)G(u(s))ds. \]

Therefore, equation (*) is written as follows:

\[ f(t) - \mu(u(t)) = 0, \quad \forall t \in \Gamma_1 \]

In which \( \Gamma_1 \) is a set which is meant to find the solution to \( u(t) \), subject to \( t \in \Gamma_1 \). Consider the following cost function:

\[ E(f, \mu) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i \in B} (f(t) - \mu(u(t)))^2; \] (13)

Where \( B \) is a subset of \( \Gamma_1 \), defined as the training data set. It is quite clear that for such a function \( \hat{u}(t) \), the value of \( E \) on \( \Gamma_1 \) is reached to the least possible value, then \( \hat{u}(t) \) is identified as a solution to the equation (*). Here, unknown function \( \hat{u}(t) \) is approximated by a RBF network. As a result, \( \hat{u}(t) \) is considered RBF network, output layer weights are unknown and \( E \) in (12) based on the weight of the output layer is a function of multi-variables. We have explicitly included that weights are unknown. Ultimately, the purpose is to find RBF weights so that the value of \( E \) in (13) is about to minimized. To minimize \( E \), the unconstrained Broyden Fletcher Goldfarb Shanno (BFGS) optimization method will be used.
Remark 1. In finding cost function E, it is necessary to approximate certain integrals by a numerical method. Of all proposed algorithms in this paper, Simpson and Romberg numerical methods are less accurate and derivation of E is recognized problematic. Most examples are implemented 10 - points Gauss-Legendre numerical method to approximate integrals. In this way, the interval \([0,1]\) of approximation

\[
\int_0^1 f(t) \, dt \simeq \sum_{i=1}^n w_i f(t_i),
\]

where the parameters \(t_i\) and \(w_i\) are shown in Table 1:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>i</th>
<th>(t_i)</th>
<th>(w_i)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.0130467357414141399610179</td>
<td>0.03333567215434406879678440</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.067468316655077446339516</td>
<td>0.07472567557529029657288817</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.1602952158504877968828363</td>
<td>0.10954318125799102199776746</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.2833023029353764046003670</td>
<td>0.1346335965499817754561346</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.4255628305091843945575870</td>
<td>0.14776211235737643508694649</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.5744371694908156054424130</td>
<td>0.14776211235737643508694649</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>0.7166976970646235953996330</td>
<td>0.1346335965499817754561346</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.8397047841495122031171637</td>
<td>0.10954318125799102199776746</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.9325316833444922553660483</td>
<td>0.07472567557529029657288817</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.98695326425858600389820</td>
<td>0.03333567215434406879678440</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Transferring forms can be used for the other intervals. The main feature of n-point Gauss integration is that if we aim to derive the neural network of its inputs or weights, numerical method will still work. But derivation process using Romberg method will be not pretty straightforward.

Remark 2. Integral equations can also be converted to an optimization problem. In this case, because there are many variables and coefficients, calculation rate will be slightly lower.

For more details of non-linear integral equations, consider

\[
f(x) - \int_0^t k(x,t, f(t)) \, dt = g(x),
\]

(14)
Where
\[ f(x) = \left[ f_1(x), f_2(x), \ldots, f_n(x) \right]^T, \]
\[ g(x) = \left[ g_1(x), g_2(x), \ldots, g_n(x) \right]^T, \]
\[ k(x,t,f(t)) = \left[ k_1(x,t,f(t)), k_2(x,t,f(t)), \ldots, k_n(x,t,f(t)) \right]^T, \]

To solve the equation (1), unknown function \( f \), is approximated by a RBF network which is called \( NN_{rbf}(c,r) \), in other words
\[ f(x) = NN_{rbf}(x,c,r) \quad (15) \]

In which \( c \) and \( r \) represent centers and Gaussian functions distances, respectively. \( X \) is RBF input and \( f(x) \) is RBF output. After approximation of (2), and replace it in (1), it must be provided a function of energy (costs) to be minimized. Note that \( f(x) \) is a vector.

Creating energy function, the interval \([a,b]\) is recommended to solve equation (1). Then some points such as \( x_i \), from \([a,b]\) is selected which are called data training set. For each \( x_i \), the error is calculated as follows:
\[ \xi_i = NN_{rbf}(x_i,c,r) - \int_0^5 k(x_i,t,NN_{rbf}(x,c,r))dt - g(x_i) \quad (16) \]

Note that equation (3) is a vector. To complete the energy function, for different \( i \), least squares of vector \( \xi_i \) is considered. Thus, the energy function is stated as follows:
\[ E(NN) = \sum_{i=1}^d \| \xi_i \|^2 \quad (17) \]
Where \( d \) is the number of training data, \( \| \xi_i \|^2 \) is square of component \( \xi_i \) and \( \| \| \) goes as
\[ \| x \| = \sum_{i=1}^k |x_i| \quad (18) \]

Subject to \( x = (x_1, \ldots, x_k)^T \)

Finally, the unconstrained optimization problem is provided.
\[ E = \text{Min}_{c,r} E(NN), \]
Where \( E(NN) \) is multi-variable function with the unknown’s \( c \) and \( r \) which need to be defined that the resulting value will be the lowest. The process of obtaining \( c \) and \( r \) is the learning network. In computer program, you should note that the index components of the unknown vector function \( f(x) \) are not pressed wrong because it lead us to a wrong solution.
5. NUMERICAL RESULTS AND EXAMPLES
In this section, some examples on effectiveness of proposed algorithm for solving integral equations are investigated. In each example, properties and optimal parameters before and after the learning network will be mentioned. This method is used for a variety of integral equations but Fredholm equations of the first kind.

Example 1. Fredholm integral equation of the second kind is given:
\[ u(x) = \frac{1}{2} \sin(x) + \int_{0}^{\pi} \sin(x) \cos(t) u(t)dt \]

The exact solution is \( u(x) = \sin x \). After the desired learning network is created, properties of network will be detected. RBF network centers are
\[ c = \left[ 0.05, 0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.4, 0.5, 0.6, 0.7, 0.75, 0.8, 0.85, 0.9, 1, 1.1, 1.15, 1.2, 1.3, 1.4, 1.45, 1.5 \right] ; \]

The interval \([0, \frac{\pi}{2}]\) divided into 10 equal parts and the obtained points are training data. In each of iteration, Simpson numerical method with 8 points is employed to approximate integrals. After learning network, the least square error is obtained.
\[ E = 8.937129 \times 10^{-28} \]

The level of error in the specified points of interval \([0, \frac{\pi}{2}]\) can be seen in table 2.

After converting (15) to an unconstrained optimization problem and solving the problem by using Nelder-Mead, results to \( u(x) \) will be obtained (table 2).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( x )</th>
<th>( u(x) - u_{approx}(x) )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>( 2 \times 10^{15} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>( 2.08081 \times 10^{-3} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>( 6.91915 \times 10^{-4} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>( 7.64088 \times 10^{-4} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>( 3.63504 \times 10^{-4} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>( 5.21493 \times 10^{-5} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>( 2.31284 \times 10^{-4} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>( 8.44103 \times 10^{-5} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>( 4.19243 \times 10^{-5} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>( 1.25060 \times 10^{-4} )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Example 2. Consider the following Fredholm integral equation of the second kind [8]:

\[
f(x) + \frac{1}{3} \int_0^1 e^{2x + \frac{5t}{3}} f(t) dt = e^{2x + \frac{1}{3}} \quad 0 \leq x \leq 1
\]

The exact solution to this equation is \( f_e(x) = e^{2x} \)

RBF network centers include:

\[
c = [0.05, 0.1, 0.15, 0.2, 0.25, 0.3, 0.35, 0.4, 0.45, 0.5, 0.55, 0.6, 0.65, 0.7, 0.71, 0.77, 0.8, 0.85, 0.9, 0.95, 0.98]
\]

Numerical method to approximate integrals is 10 point Gauss-Legendre method and some of the parameters are:

\[
\alpha = 3, \quad \beta = \frac{8}{7}
\]

Using \( x = \text{linspace}(0,1,10) \), and dividing the interval \((0,1)\) into 10 parts, training data will be provided. After training is done, sum of squares of errors (SSE) is

\[
7.1005991 \times 10^{-25}
\]

The errors in some points of interval \((0,1)\) are presented in table 3:

**Table 3.** The level of errors in some points of interval \((0,1)\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>x</th>
<th>error</th>
<th>error [G]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>1.33458 \times 10^{-5}</td>
<td>5.40631\times 10^{-7}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>3.38696 \times 10^{-4}</td>
<td>4.17207\times 10^{-7}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>2.27475 \times 10^{-4}</td>
<td>1.62255\times 10^{-7}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>3.05104 \times 10^{-5}</td>
<td>9.97279\times 10^{-8}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>2.36931 \times 10^{-5}</td>
<td>5.33277\times 10^{-7}</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Exact solution \( f(x) = e^{2x} \) and network output for the points of above table can be seen in Figure.5.

\[ \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} 
\hline
 \text{0.5} & 6.02424 \times 10^{-5} & 5.12821 \times 10^{-7} \\
 \text{0.6} & 1.54610 \times 10^{-5} & 8.86581 \times 10^{-8} \\
 \text{0.7} & 8.62065 \times 10^{-5} & 3.82386 \times 10^{-7} \\
 \text{0.8} & 2.77102 \times 10^{-5} & 6.76977 \times 10^{-7} \\
 \text{0.9} & 1.29511 \times 10^{-4} & 3.36868 \times 10^{-7} \\
 \text{1} & 9.86130 \times 10^{-5} & 5.00635 \times 10^{-7} \\
\hline
\end{array} \]

Note that the amount of energy function is achieved by BFGS which is an appropriate amount of \( 7.1005991 \times 10^{-25} \). According to look up table, the error of proposed method in this paper is 0.01 more than errors of [G]. It is due to using different integration methods. In following example, RBF-BFGS method shows better performance.

**Example 3.** Consider the following nonlinear Fredholm integral equation [4]:

\[ u(x) = \sin(\pi x) + \frac{1}{5} \int_{0}^{1} \cos(\pi x) \sin(\pi t) (u(t))^3 \, dt \quad 0 \leq x \leq 1 \]
The exact solution is \( u(x) = \sin(\pi x) + \frac{20 - \sqrt{391}}{3} \cos(\pi x) \). Network centers are selected as previous example. And most of the parameters are constant. 10-point Gauss integration method is implemented.

After training is done, sum of squares of errors (SSE) is \( 9.92589 \times 10^{-24} \).

The integral equation in [4] is solved by Homotopy Perturbation method. The errors are shown in Table 4.

**Table 4.** Comparing the error of proposed method and Homotopy Perturbation method

| x     | \(|u_{\text{exact}} - u_{\text{homotopy}}|\) [2] | error       |
|-------|-----------------------------------------------|-------------|
| 0.0   | \(1.189762 \times 10^{-6}\)                  | \(5.68723 \times 10^{-8}\) |
| 0.1   | \(1.131531 \times 10^{-6}\)                  | \(4.59182 \times 10^{-5}\) |
| 0.2   | \(9.625379 \times 10^{-7}\)                  | \(1.13281 \times 10^{-4}\) |
| 0.3   | \(6.993244 \times 10^{-7}\)                  | \(1.52473 \times 10^{-4}\) |
| 0.4   | \(3.676567 \times 10^{-7}\)                  | \(1.35471 \times 10^{-4}\) |
| 0.5   | 0                                             | \(1.07678 \times 10^{-4}\) |
| 0.6   | \(3.676567 \times 10^{-7}\)                  | \(8.76315 \times 10^{-5}\) |
| 0.7   | \(6.993247 \times 10^{-7}\)                  | \(7.85306 \times 10^{-5}\) |
| 0.8   | \(9.625379 \times 10^{-7}\)                  | \(8.01164 \times 10^{-5}\) |
| 0.9   | \(1.131531 \times 10^{-6}\)                  | \(8.90415 \times 10^{-5}\) |
| 1     | \(1.189762 \times 10^{-6}\)                  | \(5.68700 \times 10^{-8}\) |

The obtained exact and approximate values of the neural network, in 20-point of the interval \((0,1)\) are plotted in Figure 5. It can be observed that the proposed method is more accurate at the end of interval \((0,1)\). According to the obtained results of proposed method, the amount of energy function is decreased enough to \( 9.92589 \times 10^{-24} \). After the training and running algorithm BFGS is completed, now it is time to apply trained RBF network to approximate \( f(x) \). Results can be studied in Table 4. It can be seen on some points, the proposed method of these article superiors to Homotopy Perturbation method. The number of errors is almost the same. Also at either end of the interval \([0,1]\) it shows the best performance compare to inside points.
of interval $[0, 1]$. In this example, RBF network provided a good approximation of the solution to $u(x)$ as seen in Figure 6. Efficiency of RBF network and optimization method can be comparable to relative existing numerical methods.

**Fig. 6.** The exact and approximate solution of network in example 3

**Example 4.** Consider the following linear Fredholm integral equations [2]:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{(1)} & \quad u_1(t) = \frac{t}{18} + \frac{17}{36} + \int_0^1 s + t + \frac{1}{3} (u_1(s) + u_2(s)) \, ds, \\
\text{(2)} & \quad u_2(t) = t^2 - \frac{19}{12} t + 1 + \int_0^1 st (u_1(s) + u_2(s)) \, ds.
\end{align*}
\]

The exact solutions include: $u_1(t) = t + 1$ and $u_2(t) = t^2 + 1$. In this example, we assume two RBF network to approximate $u_1$ and $u_2$. Centers are fixed and for both networks are as follows:

\[C = [0.05, 0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.4, 0.5, 0.6, 0.7, 0.75, 0.8, 0.9, 0.98]\]

The two sub-programs are aided to approximate two definite integral in given equations. After the training, the sum of squared error is $9.819509 \times 10^{-15}$. This
example in [t] has been solved using analyzing method. The values obtained from proposed method in this article and analyzing method are displayed in table 5.

**Table 5.** Comparing the error of proposed method and error of analyzing method

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>t</th>
<th>error of $u_1$ in [2]</th>
<th>error of $u_2$ in [2]</th>
<th>error of $u_1$ in proposed method</th>
<th>error of $u_2$ in proposed method</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>1.15 × 10^{-2}</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2.0273 × 10^{-5}</td>
<td>5.8222 × 10^{-9}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>1.33 × 10^{-2}</td>
<td>3.45 × 10^{-3}</td>
<td>3.5992 × 10^{-4}</td>
<td>3.0438 × 10^{-4}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>1.52 × 10^{-2}</td>
<td>6.90 × 10^{-3}</td>
<td>2.5798 × 10^{-4}</td>
<td>2.4737 × 10^{-4}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>1.71 × 10^{-2}</td>
<td>1.03 × 10^{-2}</td>
<td>2.1999 × 10^{-4}</td>
<td>1.7840 × 10^{-4}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>1.89 × 10^{-2}</td>
<td>1.38 × 10^{-2}</td>
<td>5.2762 × 10^{-5}</td>
<td>6.5656 × 10^{-5}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>2.08 × 10^{-2}</td>
<td>1.72 × 10^{-2}</td>
<td>1.0913 × 10^{-4}</td>
<td>8.1042 × 10^{-5}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>2.26 × 10^{-2}</td>
<td>2.07 × 10^{-2}</td>
<td>2.8376 × 10^{-5}</td>
<td>5.8746 × 10^{-6}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>2.45 × 10^{-2}</td>
<td>2.41 × 10^{-2}</td>
<td>8.8216 × 10^{-5}</td>
<td>6.3392 × 10^{-5}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>2.64 × 10^{-2}</td>
<td>2.76 × 10^{-2}</td>
<td>5.8917 × 10^{-5}</td>
<td>3.2255 × 10^{-5}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>2.82 × 10^{-2}</td>
<td>3.10 × 10^{-2}</td>
<td>9.2409 × 10^{-5}</td>
<td>6.8801 × 10^{-5}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.02 × 10^{-1}</td>
<td>3.45 × 10^{-2}</td>
<td>8.7507 × 10^{-5}</td>
<td>6.0757 × 10^{-5}</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This example in [2] is solved by analyzing method. The system is converted to energy function and operating two RBF network for unknown function $u_1(x)$ and $u_2(x)$. Table 5 contains results of approximation of the proposed method and [2].

By studying table 5, using training network and having $E = 9.819509 \times 10^{-16}$, determining $u_1$ and $u_2$ will be much better than using analyzing method. Also, the proposed method estimates $u_2$ a little better than $u_1$.

As seen in this example and the following examples, RBF networks are capable of solving integral equations systems and normal equations with high accuracy. Diagrams of function $u_1$, $u_2$ and their exact solutions are illustrated in Figure 7 and 8 Frequently.
Example 5. Consider the following nonlinear Fredholm integral equations:

\[ u(x) + \int_0^1 e^{x-2y} (u(y))^3 \, dy = e^{x+1} \quad a \leq x \leq 1 \]

Where \( u(x) = e^x \) is the exact solution. Babylonian et al in [5] have solved this equation using Haar wavelet method. The computing errors, on some points of the interval \([0,1]\) are categorized as follows:
Table 6. Comparing errors of using Haar wavelet method [5] and RBF-BFGS in example 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>x</th>
<th>( u_{exact} - u_{Haar-wavelet} )</th>
<th>RBF - BFGS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.002046</td>
<td>2.784 × 10^{-4}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>0.003299</td>
<td>2.066 × 10^{-4}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.008693</td>
<td>4.654 × 10^{-5}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.016906</td>
<td>2.927 × 10^{-4}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.018681</td>
<td>1.818 × 10^{-3}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>0.011742</td>
<td>2.370 × 10^{-4}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0.002927</td>
<td>4.860 × 10^{-4}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>0.008084</td>
<td>8.820 × 10^{-3}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0.021624</td>
<td>7.294 × 10^{-3}</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After converting the given problem to an unconstrained optimization problem, we get errors in the above table while instead of \( u(x) \), a network RBF is used. It is clear that the proposed method in each points of \([0,1]\) owns the best performance over Haar wavelet method. All errors are calculated using the least running time. In the other words it is not time-consuming.

Accuracy of RBF - BFGS method at the end of the table is much better. Ending to learning process is based on level of sum of squared error that is once the sum of squared error (SSE) is low so learning is not yet complete and error is high on \([0,1]\), while the amount of SSE is reduced enough, the RBF network successes in approximating \( u(x) \) with efficient accuracy.

\( u(x) \) Graph and its approximation using RBF - BFGS compare to different SSE are displayed in Figure 9.

![Graph and its approximation using RBF - BFGS compare to different SSE](image)

**Fig. 9.** Exact and approximate solution using RBF - BFGS compare to different SSE. Then, approximations to these figures are provided. In this example, RBF - BFGS method has determined great performances over Haar wavelet.
CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In this study we provide an introduction to the Radial Basis Function Networks which have very attractive properties such as function approximation, interpolation and cluster modeling. These properties made them very useful in many applications. In this article, integral equations are solved by converting to an unconstrained optimization problem. And integral equation was estimated by RBF network. The optimization BFGS method is used to solve the obtained optimization problem. Considering some changes in the approach, the proposed method can experience the enhancement. For instance, the network architecture was changed, other existing optimization methods such as Nelder-Mead method were employed and high speed computers or parallel algorithms were applied because solving some of problems is time consuming. As a direct consequence, RBF's have been employed to calculate gradient energy function E in the BFGS method easily. But in networks with different architecture, for example, multi-layered network, calculation of network derivation is a little difficult while calculation of inputs and weighs is pretty straight forward. The high-speed convergence qualifies the optimization BFGS method over other existing method such as gradient decent method, no derivative techniques and other searching method. We got good resultant of our model in relative field.

REFERENCES


