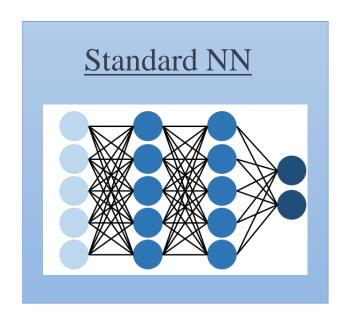
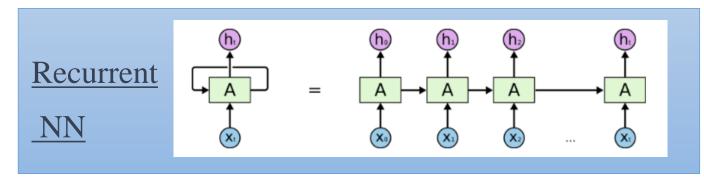
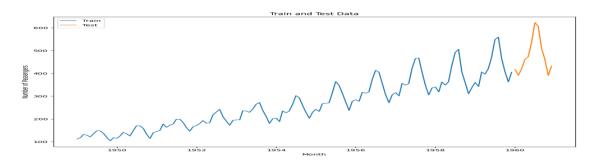
# Module 7 – Part I DNN vs RNN for Timeseries Intuition











# Road map!

- Module 1- Introduction to Deep Forecasting
- Module 2- Setting up Deep Forecasting Environment
- Module 3- Exponential Smoothing
- Module 4- ARIMA models
- Module 5- Machine Learning for Time series Forecasting
- Module 6- Deep Neural Networks
- Module 7- Deep Sequence Modeling (RNN, LSTM)
- Module 8- Prophet and Neural Prophet

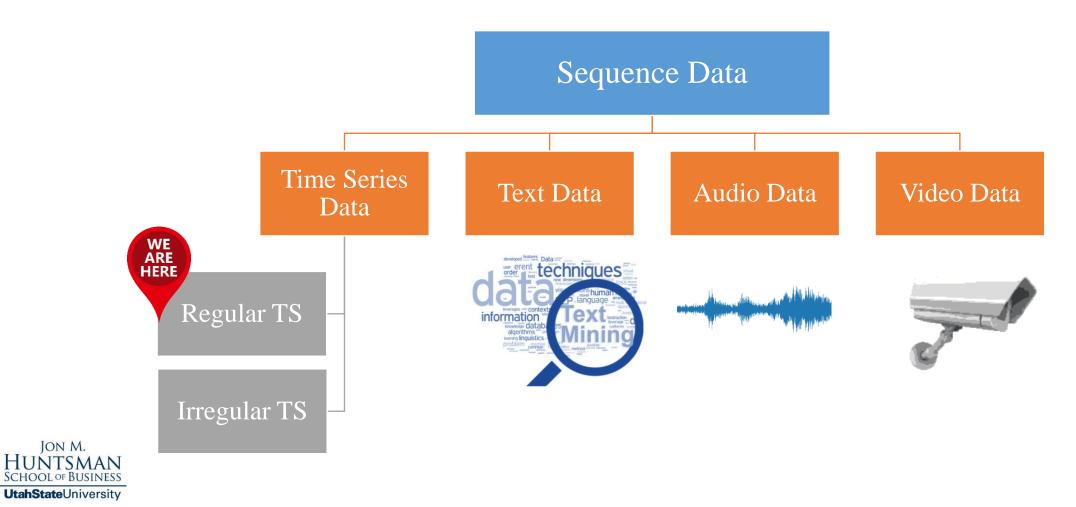






# What is Sequence Data?

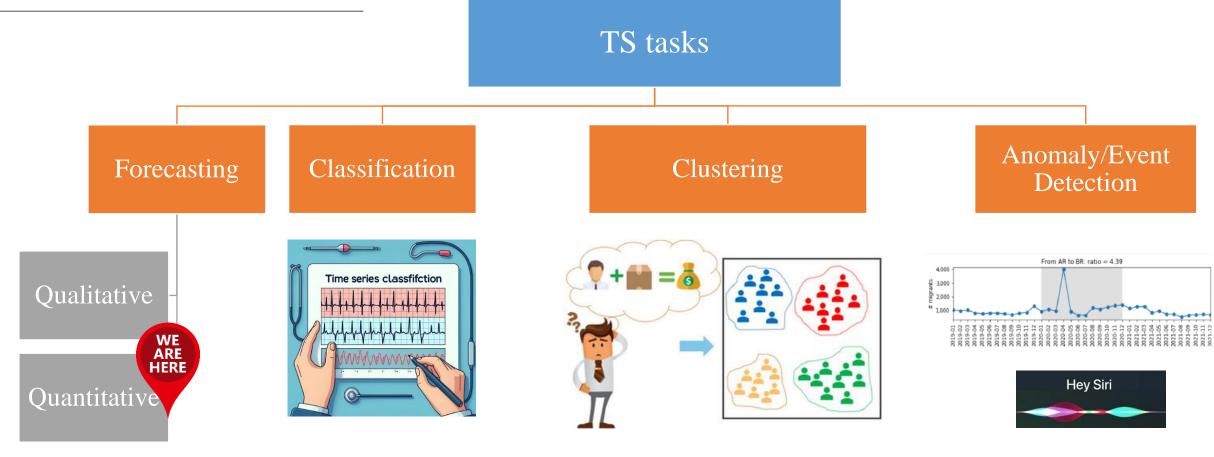
• Sequence data refers to any data that has a specific **order** or sequence to it!



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## Time series Tasks



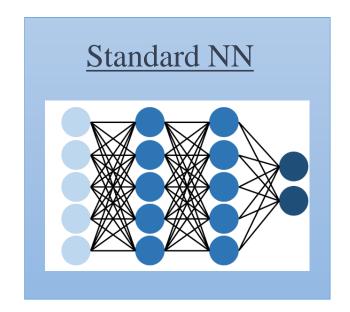


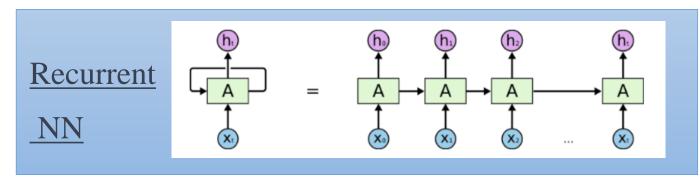


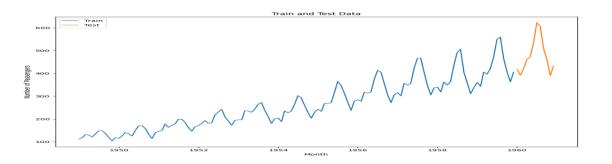


## Understanding DNNs & RNNs for Time Series Forecasting

- Comparing feed-forward networks with sequential models
- Key ideas: data transformation, memory













# Feature Engineering in DNN

- Use lagged values (e.g., 12 lags) as independent input features
- Each observation: vector of 12 features representing consecutive time steps

```
Xtest, Ytest = X[-test_period:], Y[-test_period:]

# printing shapes

JON M.

Print(Xtrain.shape, Ytrain.shape, Ytest.shape)

V 0.0s

V 0.0s

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(120, 12) (120, 1) (12, 12) (12, 1)
```

N = len(X)

X: (132, 12) Y: (132, 1) N: 132

√ 0.0s

Tx = 12 # Number of lags! using the past Tx observations to forecast the next one.

X = np.array([series[t:t+Tx] for t in range(len(series) - Tx-Ty+1)])

Y = np.array([series[t+Tx: t+Tx+Ty] for t in range(len(series) - Tx-Ty+1)])

Ty = 1 # Forecasting Ty outputs at once

print("X:", X.shape, "Y:", Y.shape, "N:", N)

Xtrain, Ytrain = X[:-test\_period], Y[:-test\_period]



# It's All about shapes! DNN

```
def build_DNN_model(Tx, Ty):
    i = Input(shape=(Tx,))
    x = Dense(32, activation='relu')(i)
    x = Dense(16, activation='relu')(x)
    output = Dense(Ty , activation = 'linear')(x)
    model = Model(i, output)
    model.compile(loss='mse', optimizer='adam')
    return model
```

Layer (type)	Output Shape	Param #
input_layer (InputLayer)	(None, 12)	0
dense (Dense)	(None, 32)	416
dense_1 (Dense)	(None, 16)	528
dense_2 (Dense)	(None, 1)	17



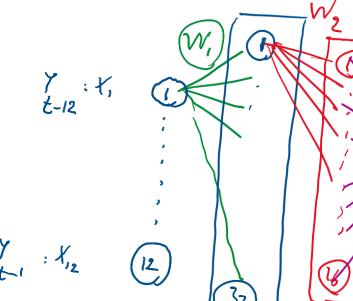




It's All about shapes! DNN /\*

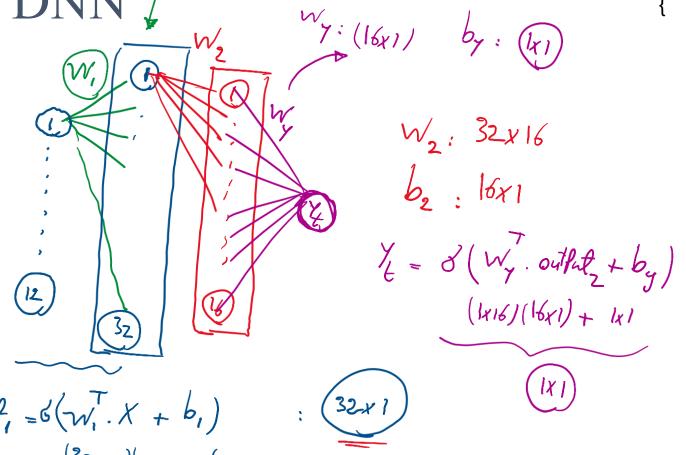
DNN X: 12 lags

$$X: (12x1)$$
 $W_1: (12x32)$ 
 $b_1: (32x1)$ 



odput, = 
$$6(W_1 \cdot X + b_1)$$
: (32x1)

outfut<sub>2</sub> = 
$$\delta(W_2 \cdot \text{odfut}, + b_2)$$
  $\rightarrow$   $(16x32)(32x1) + 16x1)$ 









# Batch Training in DNNs

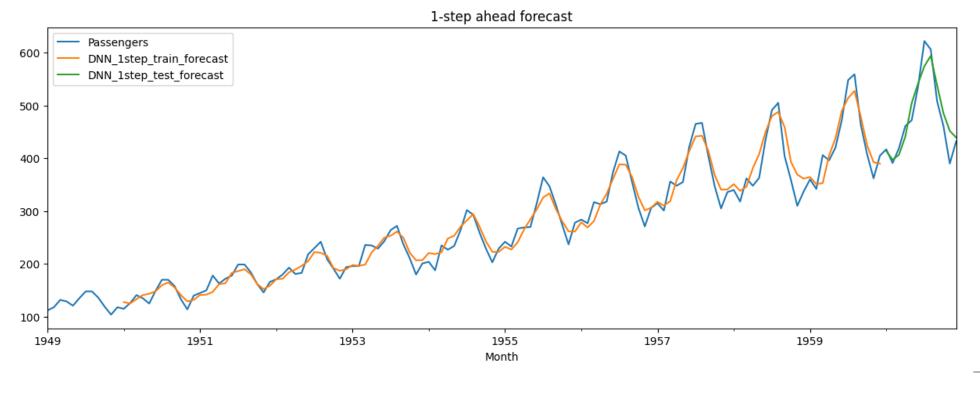
- Data is shuffled into batches (e.g., batch size = 16)
- Temporal order among different observations is lost
- Within each observation, the sequential order of lags is preserved





# Learning in DNNs

- Model learns to map fixed windows of past values to a target
- Temporal relationships are implicitly modeled through feature patterns

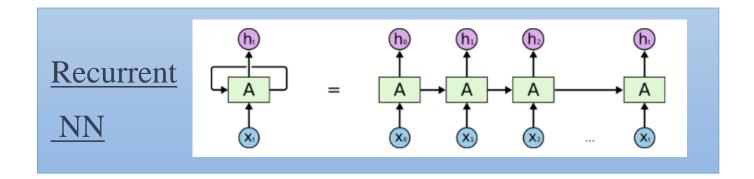






#### How RNNs Process Time Series Data

- Sequential Processing:
  - Input is the time series itself (one feature)
  - RNN unrolls over a sequence (e.g., sequence length = 12)



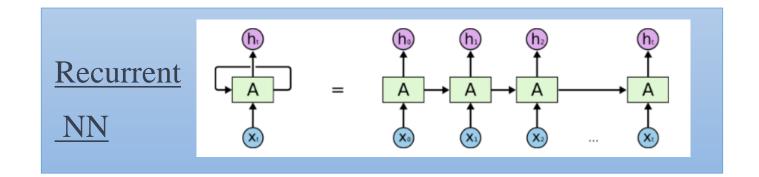






### How RNNs Process Time Series Data

- Hidden State Mechanism:
  - Hidden state carries information from previous time steps
  - Explicitly models temporal dependencies



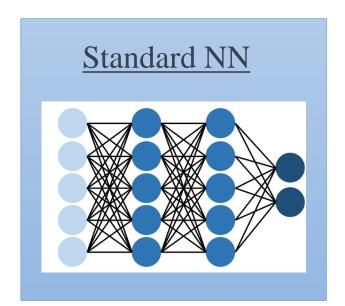


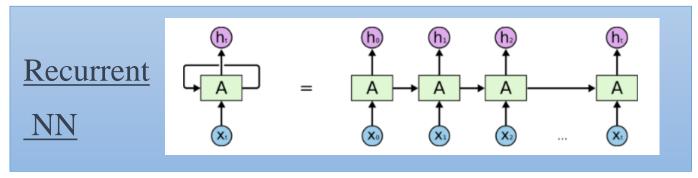




### How RNNs Process Time Series Data

- Key Difference from DNNs:
  - DNNs treat lagged inputs as independent features
  - RNNs connect time steps via hidden states, preserving order











# Memory in RNNs

#### • Sequence Length:

- Sets the potential memory span/length (how many past time steps are seen)
- Limited by practical issues (e.g., vanishing gradients limit long-term retention)

#### • Hidden State Size:

- Determines the capacity/depth of the memory
- Larger hidden states can capture richer, more complex patterns







# Feature Engineering in RNN?

```
# now let's do a simple RNN model with sequence length of 12
    sequence length = 12
    n features = 1
  ✓ 0.0s
Preparing the data for sequence modeling:
    Tx = sequence length # Number of lags! using the past Tx observations to forecast the next one
    Ty = 1 # Forecasting Ty outputs at once
    X = np.array([series[t:t+Tx] for t in range(len(series) - Tx-Ty+1)])
    # we need to reshape X as sequence of data for RNN:
    X = np.array(X).reshape(-1, Tx, 1)
    Y = np.array([series[t+Tx: t+Tx+Ty] for t in range(len(series) - Tx-Ty+1)])
    N = len(X)
    print("X:", X.shape, "Y:", Y.shape, "N:", N)
                                                                         Xtrain, Ytrain = X[:-test period], Y[:-test period]

√ 0.0s

                                                                         Xtest, Ytest = X[-test period:], Y[-test period:]
X: (132, 12, 1) Y: (132, 1) N: 132
                                                                         # printing shapes
                                                                         print(Xtrain.shape, Ytrain.shape, Xtest.shape, Ytest.shape)
                                                                        0.0s
      JON M.
  HUNTSMAN
                                                                      (120, 12, 1) (120, 1) (12, 12, 1) (12, 1)
  UtahStateUniversity
```





# It's All about shapes! RNN

```
def build_RNN_model(sequence_length, n_features, Ty):
    i = Input(shape=(sequence_length,n_features))
    x = layers.SimpleRNN(16, return_sequences=False)(i)
    # each recurrent cell has one output when return sequence = False
    output = Dense(Ty , activation = 'linear')(x)
    model = Model(i, output)
    model.compile(loss='mse', optimizer='adam')
    return model
```

Layer (type)	Output Shape	Param #
input_layer_2 (InputLayer)	(None, 12, 1)	0
simple_rnn_1 (SimpleRNN)	(None, 16)	288
dense_4 (Dense)	(None, 1)	17



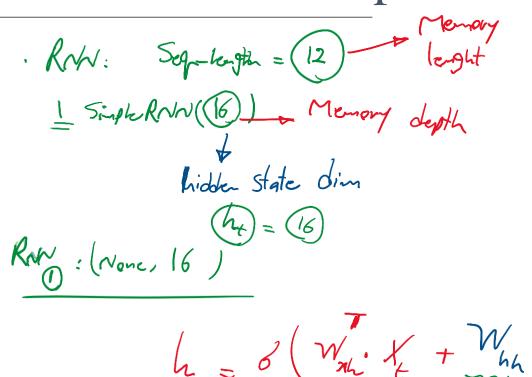


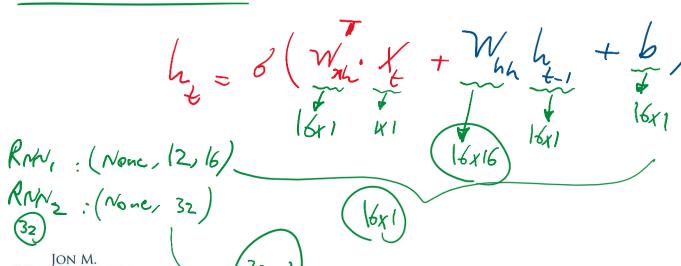


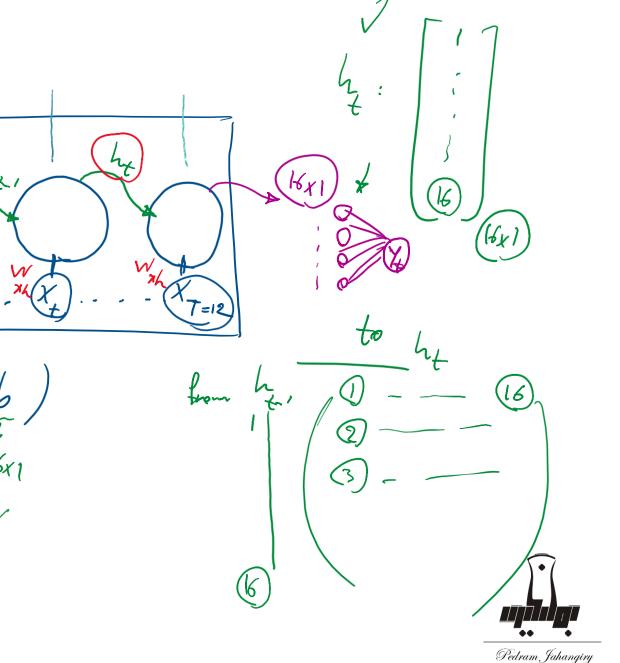
HUNTSMAN

**UtahState**University

# All about shapes!









# Key Comparisons (DNN vs RNN)

#### • DNN:

- Simple and effective for short-term dependencies via engineered features
- Uses engineered lagged features as independent inputs
- Shuffling within batches loses order between samples

#### • RNN:

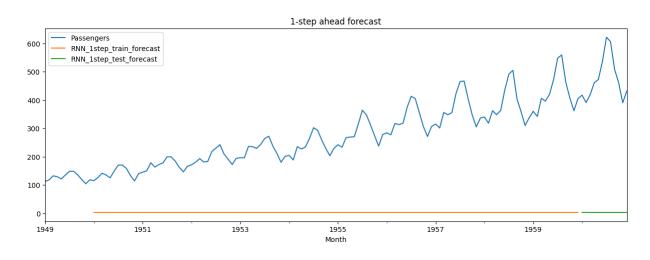
- Designed for sequential data
- Processes sequences one time step at a time with a hidden state
- Explicitly captures the order and dependencies in the data
- Memory is influenced by both sequence length and hidden state size

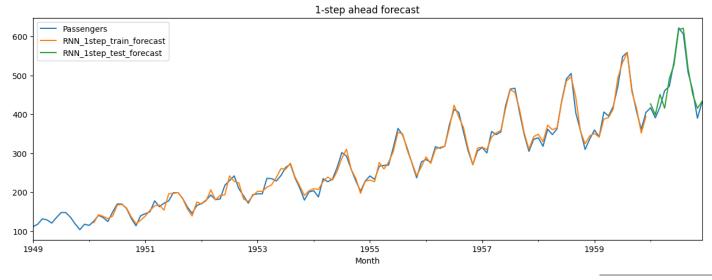






### RNN performance (raw data vs pre-processed data)

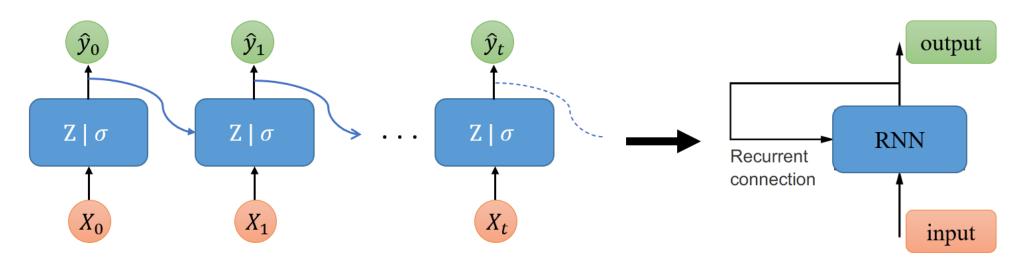






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# Module 7 – Part II Deep Sequence Modeling Recurrent Neural Networks (RNN)









# Sequence Modeling

To model sequence data efficiently, we need a new architecture that:

- Preserve the order
- Account for long-term dependencies
- Handle input-length
- Share parameters across the sequence

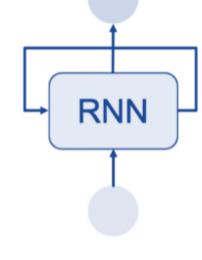






#### What is RNN (Recurrent Neural Network)?

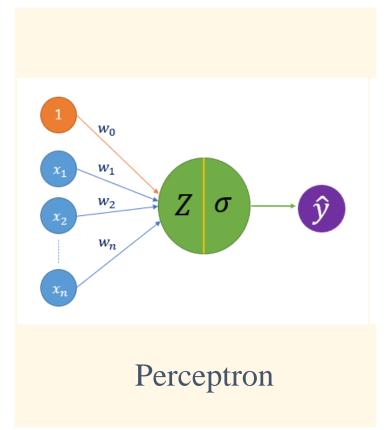
- The architecture of RNNs is inspired by the way biological intelligence processes information incrementally while maintaining an internal model of what it is processing.
- This ability to remember previous inputs and <u>incorporate them</u> into the current output allows RNNs to model sequential data.
- RNN maintains a state that contains information relative to what it has seen so far
- RNNs can be thought of as neural networks with an internal loop, which allows them to process sequences of varying lengths and learn from temporal dependencies.

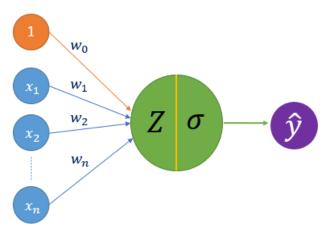


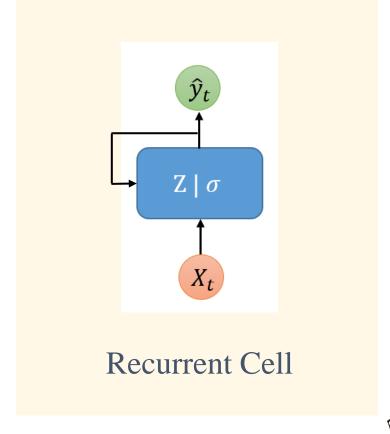




# Perceptron vs Recurrent Cell



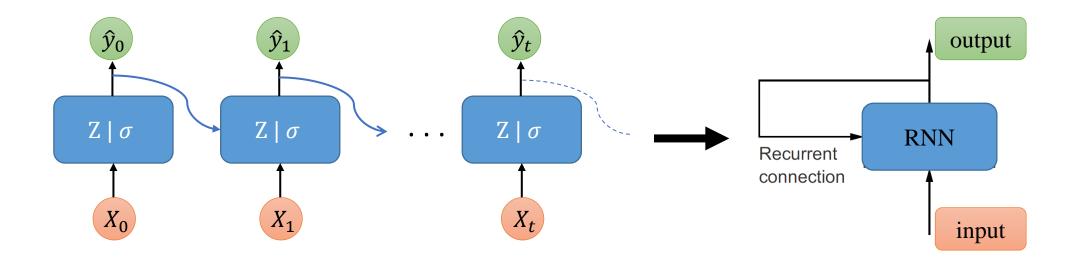








# Unrolling the Recurrent Cell

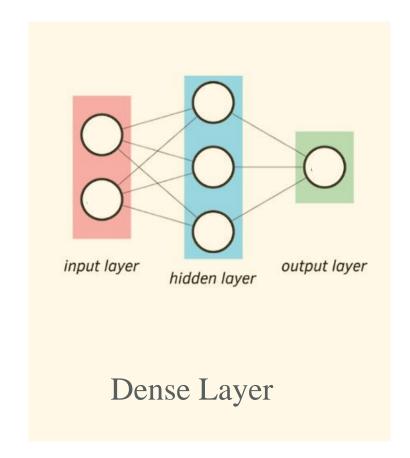


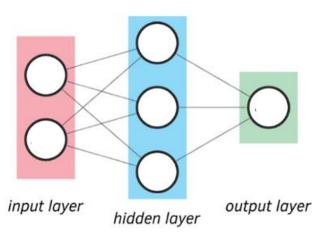


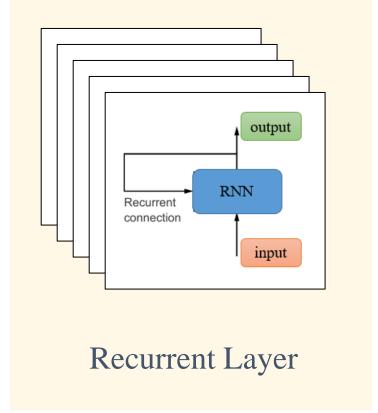




# Dense Layer vs Recurrent Layer





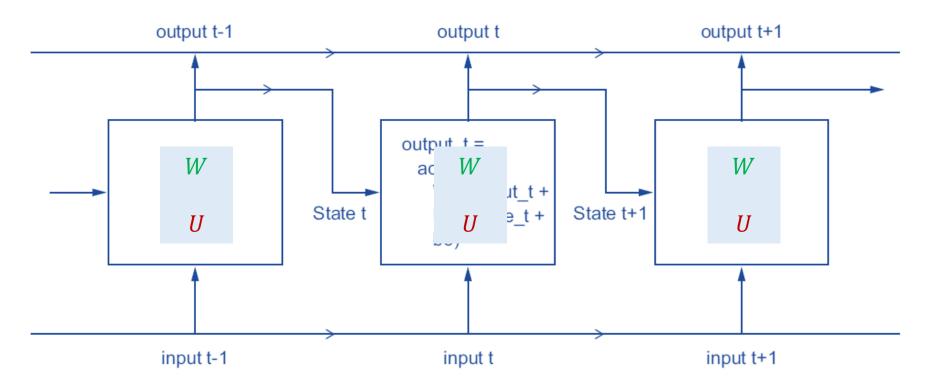






### Inside the Recurrent Cell

#### $output_t = f(input_t, State_t)$



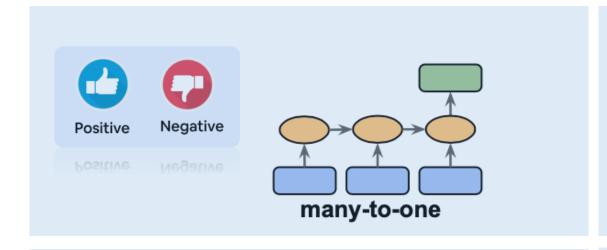


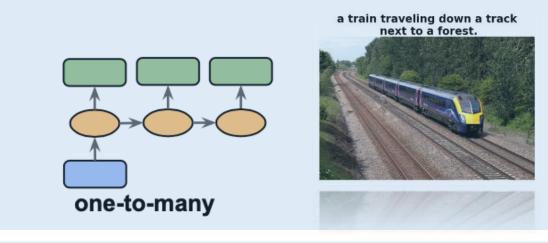
$$s_{t+1} = activation(WX_t + Us_t + b)$$

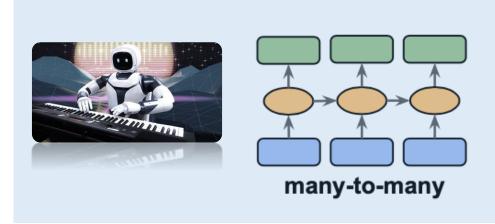


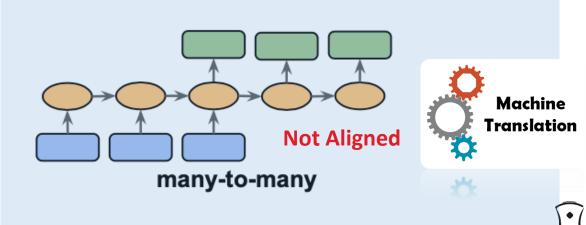


# RNN architectures









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## How does RNN learn representations?

- Backpropagation Through Time (BPTT)
- $\frac{\partial J}{\partial P}$  P are the parameters

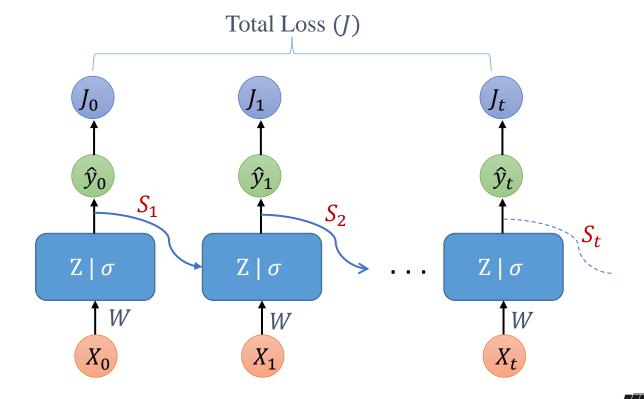
• 
$$\frac{\partial J}{\partial W} = \frac{\partial J_0}{\partial W} + \frac{\partial J_1}{\partial W} + \dots$$

• 
$$\frac{\partial J_0}{\partial W} = \frac{\partial J_0}{\partial y_0} \frac{\partial y_0}{\partial S_0} \frac{\partial S_0}{\partial W}$$

• 
$$\frac{\partial J_1}{\partial W} = \frac{\partial J_1}{\partial y_1} \frac{\partial y_1}{\partial S_1} \frac{\partial S_1}{\partial W}$$
 ,  $\frac{\partial S_1}{\partial W} = \frac{\partial S_1}{\partial S_0} \frac{\partial S_0}{\partial W}$ 

•

• 
$$\frac{\partial J_t}{\partial W} = \sum_{k=0}^t \frac{\partial J_t}{\partial y_t} \frac{\partial y_t}{\partial S_t} \frac{\partial S_t}{\partial S_k} \frac{\partial S_k}{\partial W}$$



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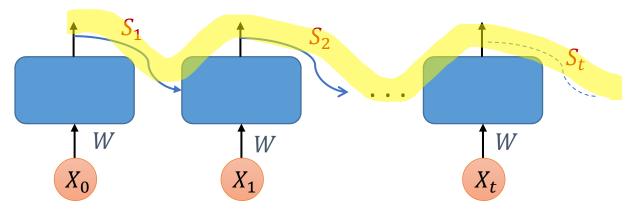
# Vanishing Gradient Problem

- As the time horizon gets bigger, this product gets longer and longer.
- We are multiplying a lot of <u>small numbers</u>  $\rightarrow$  <u>smaller gradients</u>  $\rightarrow$  <u>biased parameters</u> unable to capture long term dependencies.

• 
$$\frac{\partial J_t}{\partial W} = \sum_{k=0}^t \frac{\partial J_t}{\partial y_t} \frac{\partial y_t}{\partial S_t} \frac{\partial S_t}{\partial S_k} \frac{\partial S_k}{\partial W}$$

• 
$$\frac{\partial S_{10}}{\partial S_0} = \frac{\partial S_{10}}{\partial S_9} \frac{\partial S_9}{\partial S_8} \frac{\partial S_8}{\partial S_7} \frac{\partial S_7}{\partial S_6} \dots \frac{\partial S_1}{\partial S_0}$$

$$S_t = activation(WX_{t_1} + US_{t-1})$$

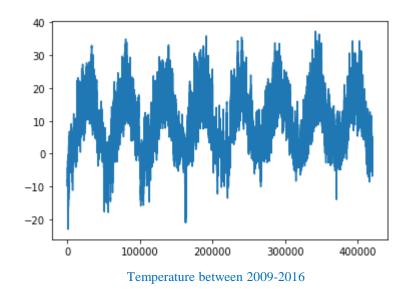


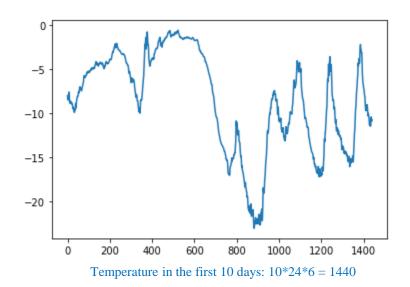




#### A simple timeseries with multiple features example

- A temperature forecasting example: <u>deep-learning-with-python-notebooks</u>
- Predicting the temperature 24 hours in the future
  - Target: temperature
  - Features: 14 different variables including pressure, humidity, wind direction and etc
  - Data recorded every 10 minutes from 2009-2016









# Preparing the data

- Given the previous 5 days (120 hours) and samples once per hour, can we predict temperature in 24 hours (after the end of the sequence)?
- Data batches:
  - Sequence length = 120
  - [1,2,3,...,120][144]
  - [2,3,4,...,121][145]
  - [3,4,5,...,122][146]
  - Bath size: 256 of these samples are shuffled and batched
  - Sample shape: (256, 120, 14)
  - Target shape: (256,)







#### Naïve forecaster: common-sense baseline

- Temperature 24 hours from now = Temperature right now
- This is our random walk with no drift forecaster.



- Validation MAE = 2.44 degrees Celsius
- Test MAE = 2.62 degrees Celsius
- The baseline model is off by about 2.5 degrees on average. Not bad!!









## Let's try DNN (Deep Neural Networks)

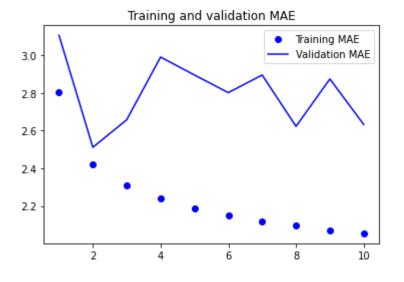
```
inputs = keras.Input(shape=(sequence_length, raw_data.shape[-1]))
x = layers.Flatten()(inputs)
x = layers.Dense(16, activation="relu")(x)
outputs = layers.Dense(1)(x)
model = keras.Model(inputs, outputs)
```

Layer (type)	Output Shape	Param #
input_1 (InputLayer)	[(None, 120, 14)]	0
flatten (Flatten)	(None, 1680)	0
dense (Dense)	(None, 16)	26896
dense_1 (Dense)	(None, 1)	17

Total params: 26,913

Trainable params: 26,913 Non-trainable params: 0

.....



- Test MAE = 2.62 degrees Celsius
- No improvement!!
- Flattening a timeseries data is not a good idea!





#### Let's try CNN (Convolutional Neural Networks)

• Motivation: Maybe a temporal convnet could reuse the same representations across different days, much like a spatial convnet can reuse the same representations across different locations in an image!

```
inputs = keras.Input(shape=(sequence_length, raw_data.shape[-1]))
x = layers.Conv1D(8, 24, activation="relu")(inputs)
x = layers.MaxPooling1D(2)(x)
x = layers.Conv1D(8, 12, activation="relu")(x)
x = layers.MaxPooling1D(2)(x)
x = layers.Conv1D(8, 6, activation="relu")(x)
x = layers.GlobalAveragePooling1D()(x)
outputs = layers.Dense(1)(x)
model = keras.Model(inputs, outputs)
```

Layer (type)	Output Shape	Param #
input_2 (InputLayer)	[(None, 120, 14)]	0
conv1d (Conv1D)	(None, 97, 8)	2696
<pre>max_pooling1d (MaxPooling1D )</pre>	(None, 48, 8)	0
conv1d_1 (Conv1D)	(None, 37, 8)	776
<pre>max_pooling1d_1 (MaxPooling 1D)</pre>	(None, 18, 8)	0
conv1d_2 (Conv1D)	(None, 13, 8)	392
<pre>global_average_pooling1d (G lobalAveragePooling1D)</pre>	(None, 8)	0
dense_2 (Dense)	(None, 1)	9
Total papage: 2 972		

Total params: 3,873 Trainable params: 3,873 Non-trainable params: 0

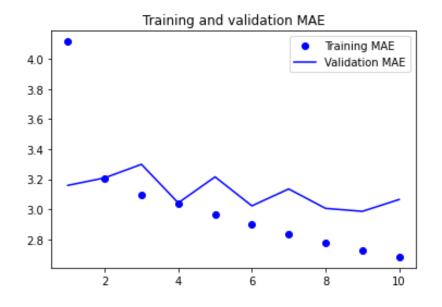






# CNN performance

- Test MAE = 3.10 degrees Celsius
- Even worse than the densely connected model!!
  - CNN treats every segment of the data the same way!
  - Pooling layers are destroying order information.









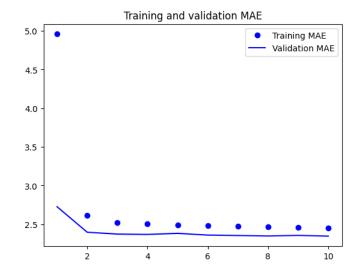
# Let's try a simple RNN

```
inputs = keras.Input(shape=(sequence_length, raw_data.shape[-1]))
x = layers.SimpleRNN(16)(inputs)
outputs = layers.Dense(1)(x)
model = keras.Model(inputs, outputs)
```

Layer (type)	Output Shape	Param #
input_3 (InputLayer)	[(None, 120, 14)]	0
simple_rnn (SimpleRNN)	(None, 16)	496
dense_3 (Dense)	(None, 1)	17

Total params: 513 (2.00 KB)
Trainable params: 513 (2.00 KB)

Non-trainable params: 0 (0.00 Byte)



- Baseline Test MAE = 2.62
- Simple RNN Test MAE = 2.51
- beats the naïve forecaster.

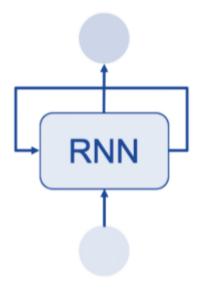




# Beyond RNN

#### RNN can handle the following sequence modeling criteria:

- Preserve the order
- Handle input-length
- Share parameters across the sequence



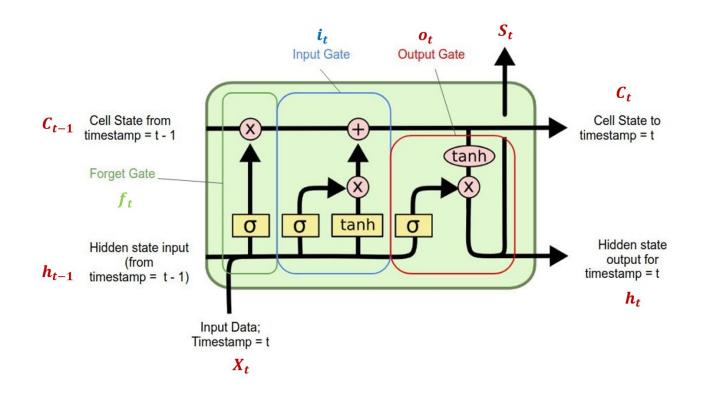
#### **RNN** limitations:

- Does not account for long-term dependencies (only remember short term history)
- Vanishing Gradient Problem





# Module 7 – Part III Deep Sequence Modeling (Gated cells, LSTM)





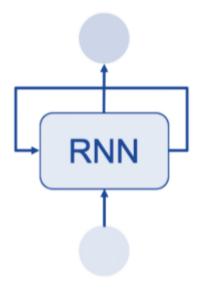




# Beyond RNN

#### RNN can handle the following sequence modeling criteria:

- Preserve the order
- Handle input-length
- Share parameters across the sequence



#### **RNN** limitations:

- Does not account for long-term dependencies (only remember short term history)
- Vanishing Gradient Problem

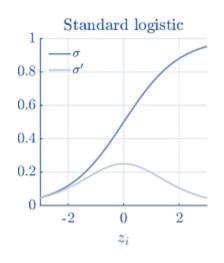


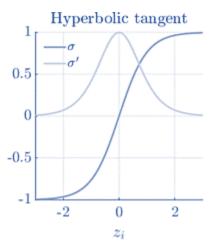


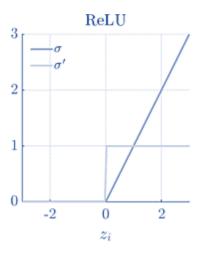


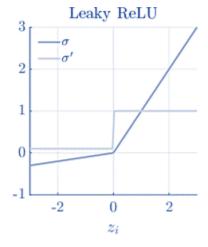
## How to solve vanishing gradient problem

1. Use Activation Function that prevents fast shrinkage of gradient











$$S_t = activation(WX_{t-1} + US_{t-1})$$





## How to solve vanishing gradient problem

- 1. Use Activation Function that prevents fast shrinkage of gradient
- 2. Use weight initialization techniques that ensure that the initial weights are not too small
- 3. Use gradient clipping which limits the magnitude of the gradients from becoming too small (vanishing gradient) or too large (exploding gradient)
- 4. Use batch normalization, which normalizes the input to each layer and helps to reduce the range of activation values and thus the likelihood of vanishing gradients.
- 5. Use a different optimization algorithm that is more resilient to vanishing gradients, such as Adam or RMSprop.
- **6. Gated cells:** Use some sort of **skip connections**, which allow gradients to bypass some of the layers in the network and thus prevent them from becoming too small.

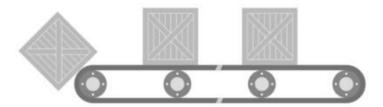


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#### Gated cells

- Instead of using a simple RNN cell, let's use a more complex cell with gates which control the flow of information.
- Think of a conveyer belt running parallel to the sequence being processed:
  - Information can jump on  $\rightarrow$  transported to a later timestep  $\rightarrow$  jump off when needed.
  - This is what a gated cell does! Analogous to residual connections we saw before.

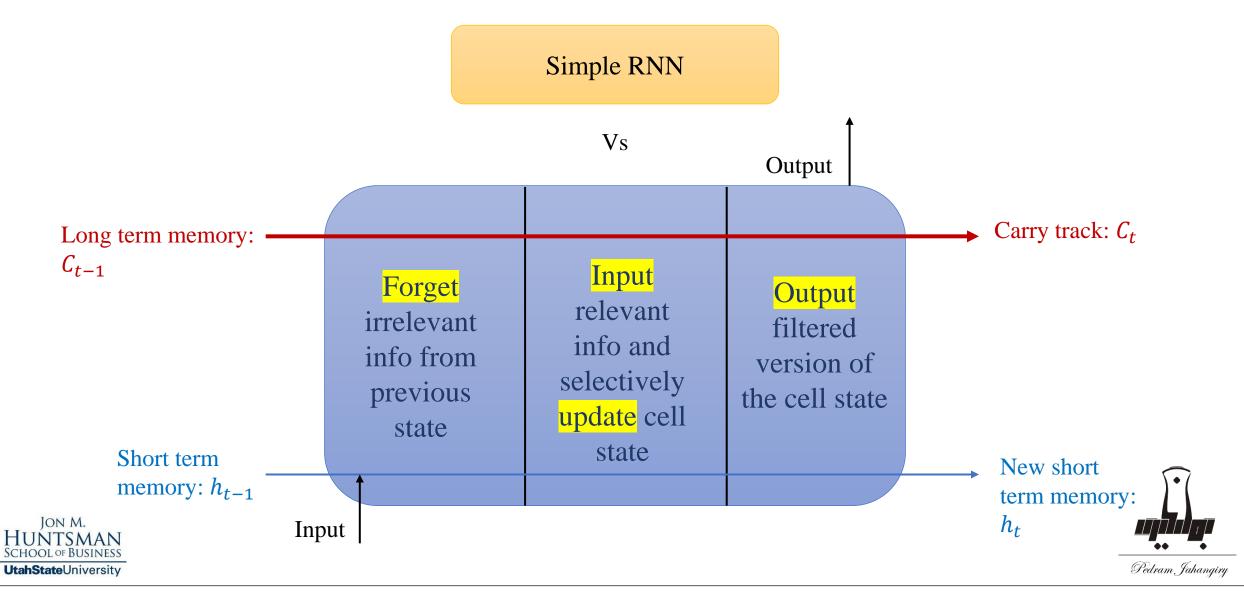


• Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) and Gated Recurrent Unit (GRU) are two examples of gated cells that can keep track of information throughout many timesteps.





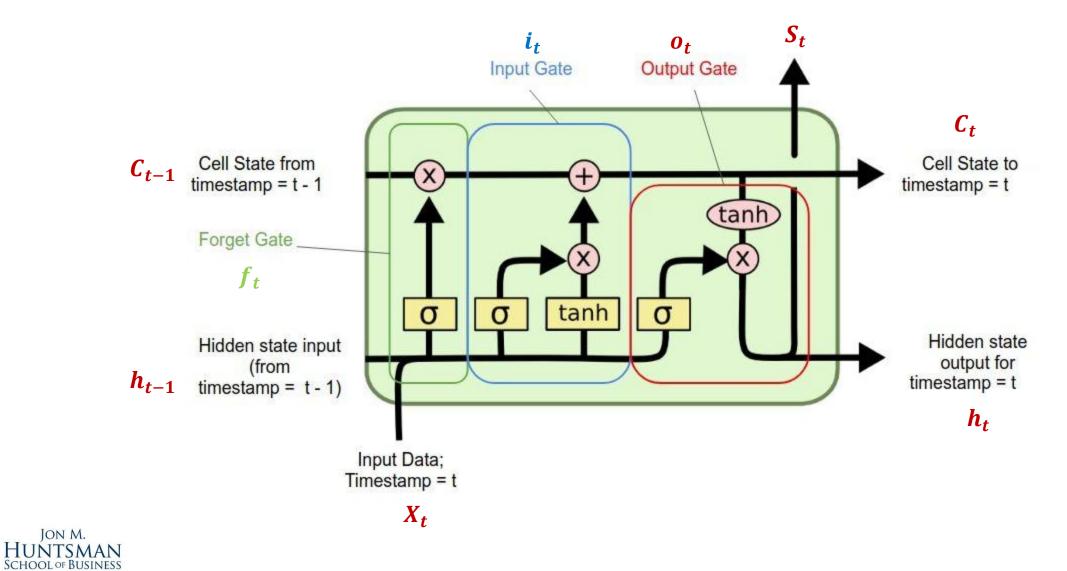
## Inside the LSTM cell





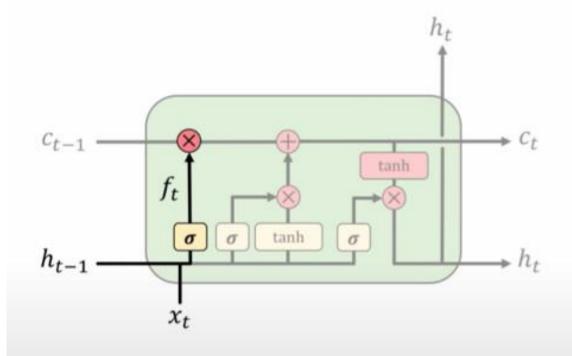
**UtahState**University

#### LSTM details





## LSTMs: forget irrelevant information



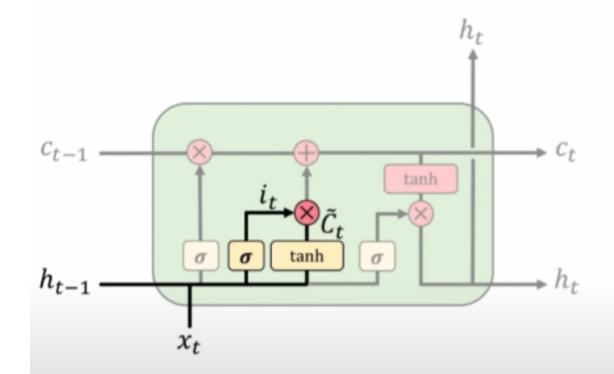
$$f_t = (\boldsymbol{W}_f \cdot \boldsymbol{\sigma} [h_{t-1}, x_t] + b_f)$$

- Use previous cell output and input
- Sigmoid: value 0 and I "completely forget" vs. "completely keep"

ex: Forget the gender pronoun of previous subject in sentence.



# LSTMs: identify new information to be stored



$$i_t = \sigma(\boldsymbol{W}_i[h_{t-1}, x_t] + b_i)$$

$$\tilde{C}_t = \tanh(\boldsymbol{W}_C[h_{t-1}, x_t] + b_C)$$

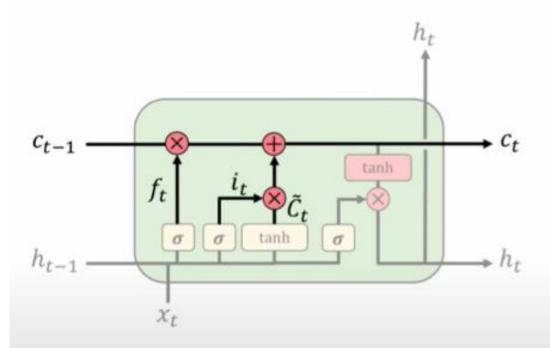
- Sigmoid layer: decide what values to update
- Tanh layer: generate new vector of "candidate values" that could be added to the state

ex: Add gender of new subject to replace that of old subject.





## LSTMs: update cell state



$$C_t = f_t * C_{t-1} + i_t * \tilde{C}_t$$

- Apply forget operation to previous internal cell state: f<sub>t</sub> \* C<sub>t-1</sub>
- Add new candidate values, scaled by how much we decided to update: i<sub>t</sub> \* C

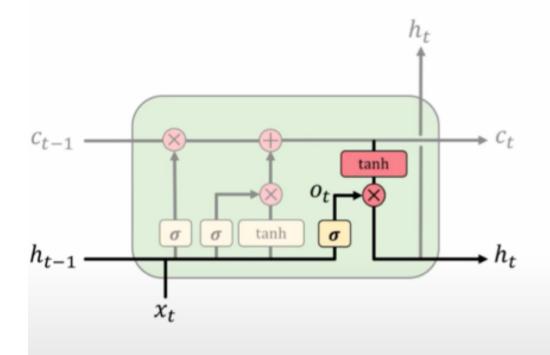
  <sub>t</sub>

ex: Actually drop old information and add new information about subject's gender.





## LSTMs: output filtered version of cell state



$$o_t = \sigma(\mathbf{W}_o[h_{t-1}, x_t] + b_o)$$
$$h_t = o_t * \tanh(C_t)$$

- Sigmoid layer: decide what parts of state to output
- Tanh layer: squash values between I and I
- o<sub>t</sub> \* tanh(C<sub>t</sub>): output filtered version of cell state

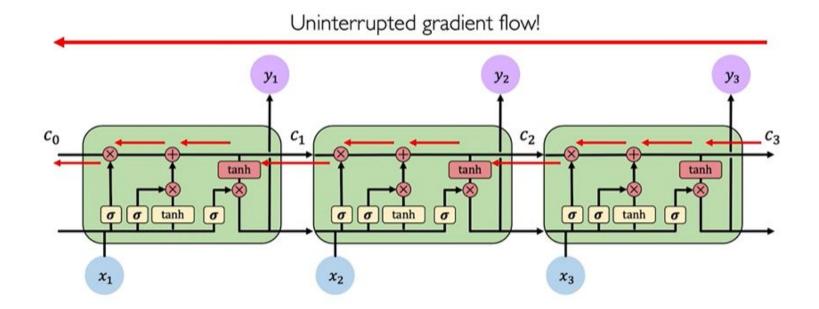
ex: Having seen a subject, may output information relating to a verb.





# LSTM takeaway

- LSTM uses gates to regulate the information flow (allows past information to be reinjected later)
- This new cell state (carry) can better capture longer term dependencies
- LSTM fights the vanishing gradient problem









#### Let's try LSTM on the temperature example

inputs = keras.Input(shape=(sequence\_length, raw\_data.shape[-1]))
x = layers.LSTM(16)(inputs)

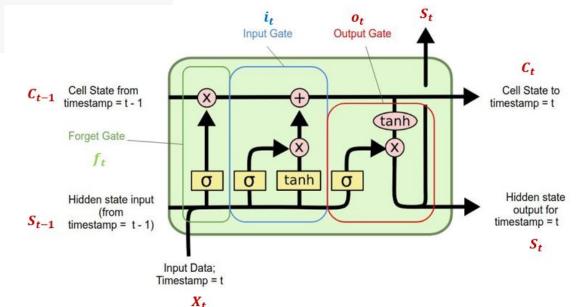
outputs = layers.Dense(1)(x)

model = keras.Model(inputs, outputs)

Layer (type)	Output Shape	Param #
input_3 (InputLayer)	[(None, 120, 14)]	0
lstm (LSTM)	(None, 16)	1984
dense_3 (Dense)	(None, 1)	17

Total params: 2,001 Trainable params: 2,001 Non-trainable params: 0

Non-crainable params. 0



```
output_t = activation(dot(state_t, Uo) + dot(input_t, Wo) + dot(c_t, Vo) + bo)
i_t = activation(dot(state_t, Ui) + dot(input_t, Wi) + bi)
f_t = activation(dot(state_t, Uf) + dot(input_t, Wf) + bf)
k_t = activation(dot(state_t, Uk) + dot(input_t, Wk) + bk)
```

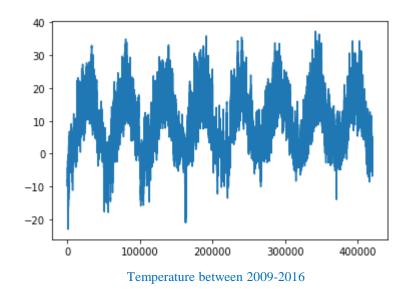


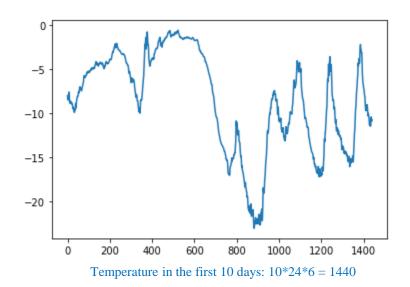




#### A simple timeseries with multiple features example

- A temperature forecasting example: <u>deep-learning-with-python-notebooks</u>
- Predicting the temperature 24 hours in the future
  - Target: temperature
  - Features: 14 different variables including pressure, humidity, wind direction and etc
  - Data recorded every 10 minutes from 2009-2016









#### Let's try LSTM on the temperature example

inputs = keras.Input(shape=(sequence\_length, raw\_data.shape[-1]))
x = layers.LSTM(16)(inputs)

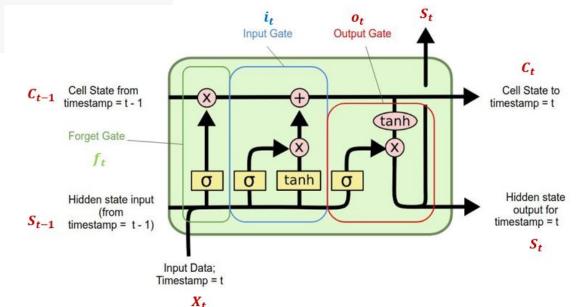
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Non-crainable params. 0



```
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i_t = activation(dot(state_t, Ui) + dot(input_t, Wi) + bi)
f_t = activation(dot(state_t, Uf) + dot(input_t, Wf) + bf)
k_t = activation(dot(state_t, Uk) + dot(input_t, Wk) + bk)
```

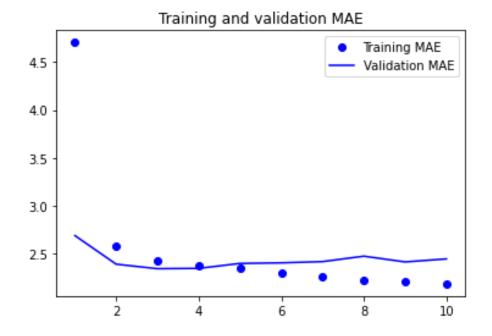






# LSTM performance

- Baseline Test MAE = 2.62
- Simple LSTM Test MAE = 2.53
- Also beats the naïve forecaster.
- Overfitting?







## Can we do better?







# Improving the simple LSTM model

- We can improve the performance of the simple LSTM model by:
- 1. Recurrent Dropout : use drop out to fight overfitting in the recurrent layers (in addition to drop out for the dense layers)
- 2. Stacking recurrent layers: increase model complexity to boost representation power
- 3. Using bidirectional RNN: processing the same information differently! Mostly used in NLP.









# Regular vs Recurrent Dropout

#### Regular Dropout vs. Recurrent Dropout

- Regular Dropout:
  - Applied to inputs/outputs of RNN layers
  - Example: Randomly dropping elements from an input vector  $[x_1, x_2, x_3]$
- Recurrent Dropout:
  - Applied to the hidden state (the connection between time steps)
  - Example: Dropping parts of  $h_{t-1}$  before computing  $h_t$  (e.g.,  $[h_1,h_2,h_3]$  becomes  $[h_1,0,h_3]$ )
- Purpose:
  - Both help prevent overfitting
  - Recurrent dropout specifically regularizes temporal memory





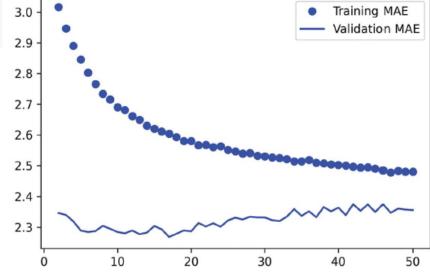


# Recurrent Drop out

• The same dropout pattern should be applied at every timestep

```
inputs = keras.Input(shape=(sequence_length, raw_data.shape[-1]))
x = layers.LSTM(32, recurrent_dropout=0.25)(inputs)
x = layers.Dropout(0.5)(x)
outputs = layers.Dense(1)(x)
model = keras.Model(inputs, outputs)
3.0
0.29
```

- Baseline Test MAE = 2.62
- Simple RNN, Test MAE = 2.51
- Simple LSTM, Test MAE = 2.53
- LSTM with dropout, Test MAE = 2.45







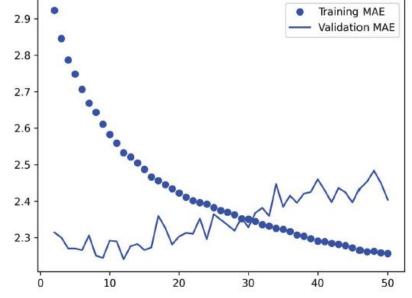
# Stacking Recurrent Layers

- Let's train a dropout-regulated, stacked GRU model.
- GRU is a slightly simpler version (hence, faster) of LSTM architecture

```
inputs = keras.Input(shape=(sequence_length, raw_data.shape[-1]))
x = layers.GRU(32, recurrent_dropout=0.5, return_sequences=True)(inputs)
x = layers.GRU(32, recurrent_dropout=0.5)(x)
x = layers.Dropout(0.5)(x)
outputs = layers.Dense(1)(x)
model = keras.Model(inputs, outputs)
```

- Baseline Test MAE = 2.62
- Simple RNN, Test MAE = 2.51
- Simple LSTM, Test MAE = 2.53
- Stacking GRU, Test MAE = 2.39





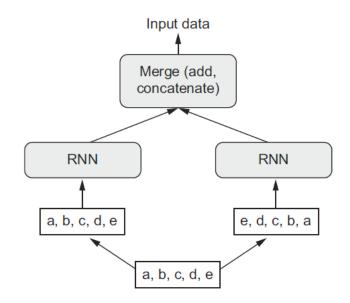




#### **Bidirectional RNN**

- Bidirectional RNN process the input sequence both chronologically and antichronologically.
- Idea: capturing patterns (representations) that might be overlooked by a unidirectional RNN.
- For the temperature example, the bidirectional LSTM strongly underperforms even the common-sense baseline.

```
inputs = keras.Input(shape=(sequence_length, raw_data.shape[-1]))
x = layers.Bidirectional(layers.LSTM(16))(inputs)
outputs = layers.Dense(1)(x)
model = keras.Model(inputs, outputs)
```



- Baseline Test MAE = 2.62
- Simple RNN, Test MAE = 2.51
- Simple LSTM, Test MAE = 2.53
- Stacking GRU, Test MAE = 2.39
- Bidirectional RNN, Test MAE= 2.79





# Final message

- Deep learning is more an art than science! Too many moving part!
  - Number of units in each recurrent layer
  - Number of stacked layers
  - Amount of dropout and recurrent dropout
  - Number of dense layers
  - Sequence horizon!
  - Optimizers, learning rates and etc
  - •









# Road map!

- ✓ Module 1- Introduction to Deep Forecasting
- ✓ Module 2- Setting up Deep Forecasting Environment
- ✓ Module 3- Exponential Smoothing
- ✓ Module 4- ARIMA models
- ✓ Module 5- Machine Learning for Time series Forecasting
- ✓ Module 6- Deep Neural Networks
- ✓ Module 7- Deep Sequence Modeling (RNN, LSTM)
- Module 8- Prophet and Neural Prophet



