

# From Regression to Learning the Underlying Trajectory: Forecasting the Homelessness

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# Motivation

- Predicting homelessness allow us to focus on prevention rather than reaction.
- With limited resources available for social services and housing programs, it's crucial to allocate resources efficiently.
- Addressing homelessness contributes to the stability of the housing market and reduces the economic burden on healthcare, emergency services, and the criminal justice system.
- Understanding and addressing homelessness can position the UK as a global leader in social policy and serve as a model for other nations facing similar challenges.
- The motivation is to improve the lives of individuals and families, ensuring they have the opportunity for stable housing, better health, education, and employment prospects.
- Refer [1], [2] and [3].

[1] United Nations Commission for Social Development. Affordable housing and social protection systems for all to address homelessness. Report of the Secretary-General. E/CN.5/2020/3. New York: United Nations Commission for Social Development; 2019 Nov 27 [cited 2020 May 10]. Available from: <https://undocs.org/en/E/CN.5/2020/3>.

[2] Directorate of Employment, Labour and Social Affairs. HC3.1 Homeless population. Paris: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development; 2020 [cited 2020 May 3]. Available from: <https://www.oecd.org/els/family/HC3-1-Homeless-population.pdf>.

[3] Tsai J. Lifetime and 1-year prevalence of homelessness in the US population: results from the National Epidemiologic Survey on Alcohol and Related Conditions-III. J Public Health (Oxf). 2018;40(1):65–74. pmid:28335013

# Preliminaries

## Traditional Approaches: Regression-based Analysis

- Given, at time step (i.e. year)
  - $Y$  represents the “Homeless Decisions”
  - $X_1$  represents the “Year”
  - $X_2$  represents factors such as “Local Authority Regions”.
- Then, a simple multi-regression model can be given using
  - $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \varepsilon$
  - where,
  - $\beta_0$  is the intercept, while  $\beta_1$  and  $\beta_2$  are the coefficient parameters,  $\varepsilon$  is the error terms.

[4] Gutwinski, S., Schreiter, S., Deutscher, K. and Fazel, S., 2021. The prevalence of mental disorders among homeless people in high-income countries: An updated systematic review and meta-regression analysis. *PLoS medicine*, 18(8), p.e1003750.

## Limitations to a Regression-based Analysis

Assumptions about Data- Linearity, Homoscedasticity, Normality & Independence assumption.

Poor Modelling - Regression analysis often ignores the temporal nature of the data while only focusing on  $y_t = f(x_{1,t}, \dots, x_{n,t})$  rather than  $y_t = g(y_{t-1}, \dots, y_0) + f(x_{1,t}, \dots, x_{n,t})$ , where the first term captures the temporal property.

# The success of Deep Learning

With the surge in computational capabilities and access to abundant data, neural networks emerged as the state-of-the-art for prediction tasks.

Complicated neural network architectures such as Recurrent Neural Networks (RNNs) were proposed for the time-series predictions.

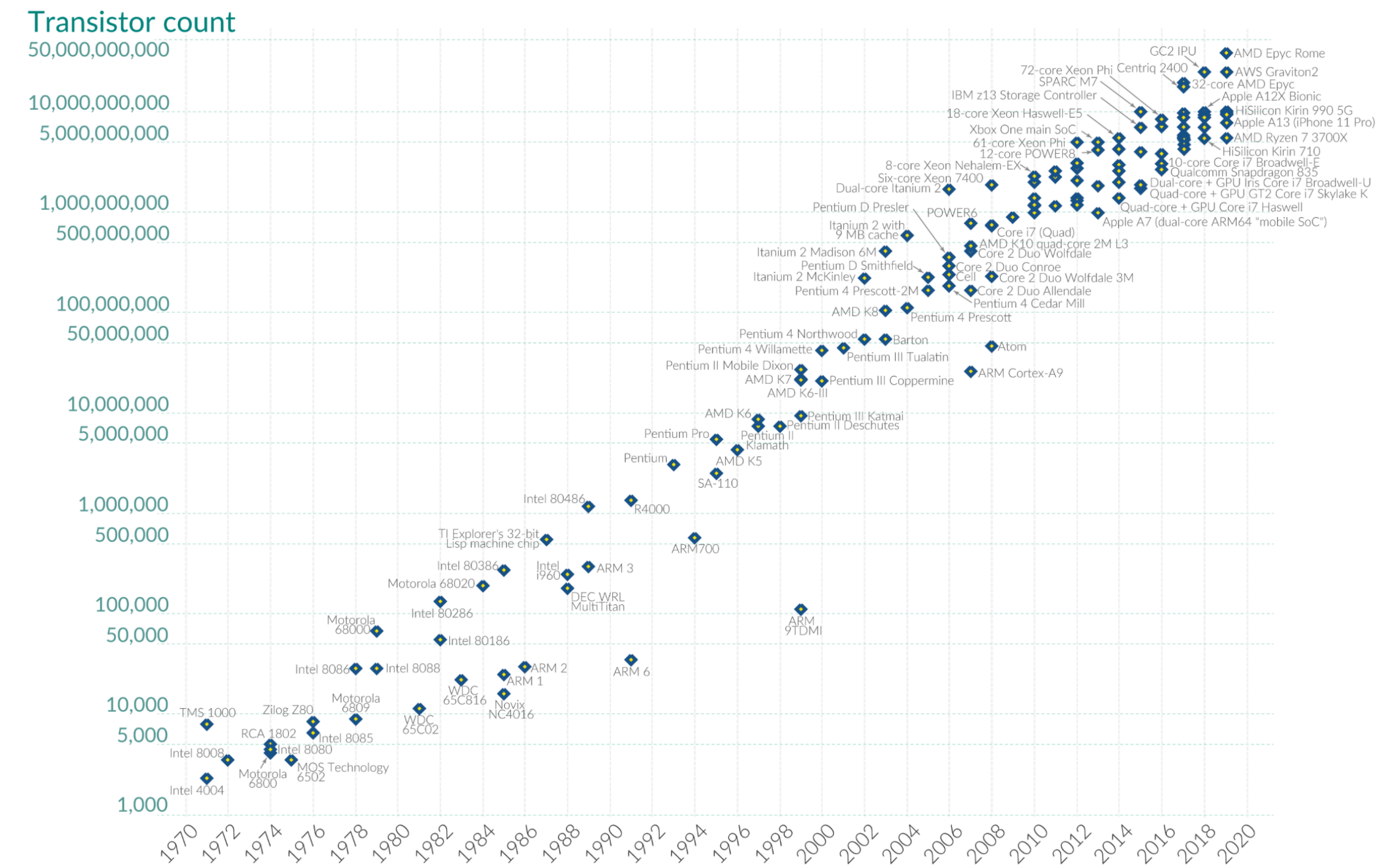


Figure 1. The number of transistors on microchips over years

# Preliminaries

## Traditional Approaches: RNNs for forecasting

The hidden state  $h_t$  at time step  $t$  is given as

State Update:

$$h_t = \sigma(W_{hh} \cdot h_{t-1} + W_{xh} \cdot x_t + b_h),$$

Where:

$\sigma(\cdot)$  is a non-linear activation function

$W_{hh}$  is the weight matrix for the previous hidden state.

$W_{xh}$  is the weight matrix for the current input.

$b_h$  is the bias.

Then, the predictions can be now be given as

Output at time  $t$  :

$$y_t = W_{hy} \cdot h_t + b_y \text{ Where:}$$

$W_{hy}$  is the weight matrix connecting the hidden state to the output.

$b_y$  is the output bias.

For training, we simply use the loss function as to backpropagate

$$\mathcal{L}_{mse} = \sum_{t=0}^T ||y_t - \hat{y}_t||$$

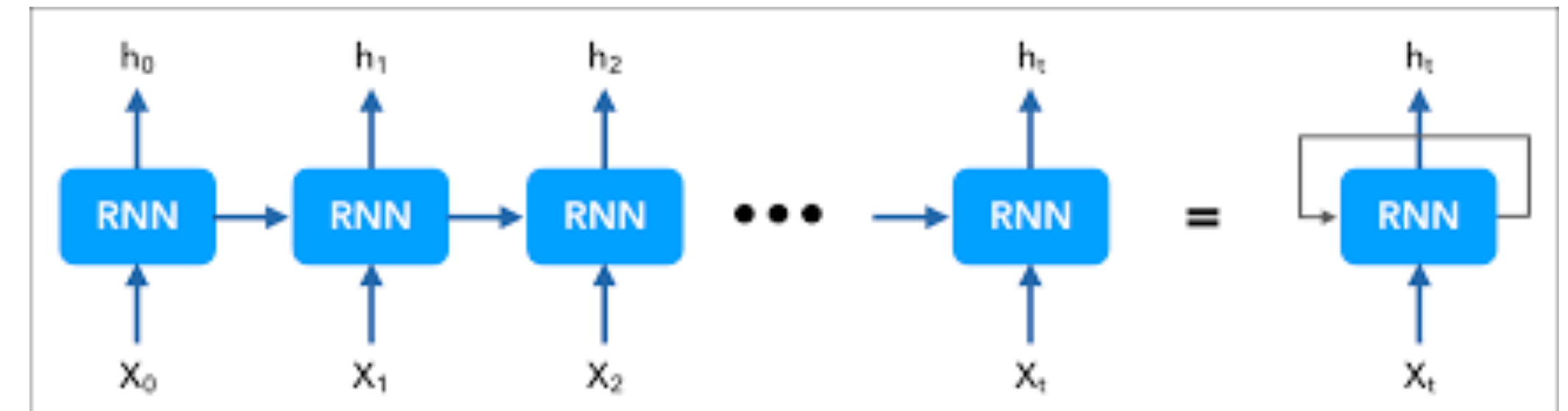


Figure 2. Architecture of the RNN



# Downfalls of the traditional approaches

- While traditional methodologies that predict  $y$  based on  $x$  have shown significant efficacy, they come with inherent challenges in practical applications (where data is collected):
  - **Over-reliance on  $x$  Variables:** A heavy dependence on predictor variables can sometimes overshadow the intrinsic properties of the target variable  $y$ .
  - **Data Incompleteness:** The presence of missing data can introduce biases and reduce the robustness of the predictions.
  - **Absence of Correlation:** In some instances, the predictors  $x$  might not have a meaningful or strong relationship with the target variable  $y$ , leading to weak predictive power.

# Learning the underlying trajectory

## Koopman Theory

- The discrete mapping between the target variable  $y$  can be represented as:
  - $y_{t+1} = F(y_t)$ ,
    - where  $F(\cdot)$  is a non-linear function mapping which is usually unknown.
  - Lifting operation to represent in linear space using an observable function  $\varphi(\cdot)$ , which gives
    - $\mathbf{z}_t = \varphi(y_t) \in \mathbb{R}^k$ , where  $k$  can be infinite dimensional long.
    - The mapping, now can be given using a linear operation,
      - $\mathbf{z}_{t+1} = \mathbf{K}\mathbf{z}_t$ , where  $\mathbf{K}$  is the Koopman Operator.
    - Finally, we have
      - $\hat{y}_{t+1} = \varphi^{-1}(\mathbf{K}\varphi(y_t))$  which represents a one step prediction.
  - We can exploit the property of the linearity to make  $T$  time step predictions by sampling multiplying the  $\mathbf{K}$  matrix  $T$  times.

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{y}_{t+1} &= \varphi^{-1}(\mathbf{K}\varphi(y_t)) \\ \hat{y}_{t+2} &= \varphi^{-1}(\mathbf{K}^2\varphi(y_t)) \\ &\vdots \\ \hat{y}_{t+T} &= \varphi^{-1}(\mathbf{K}^T\varphi(y_t))\end{aligned}$$



**B.O. Koopman (1931)**

“It is possible to represent a nonlinear dynamical system in terms of an infinite-dimensional linear operator”

# Approximating the Koopman Operator

## Neural Network approach

- We do not discuss the previously proposed approaches such as Dynamic Mode Decomposition (DMD) or Extended DMD (EDMD) and rather focus on the state-of-the-art approach for learning the Koopman Operator.

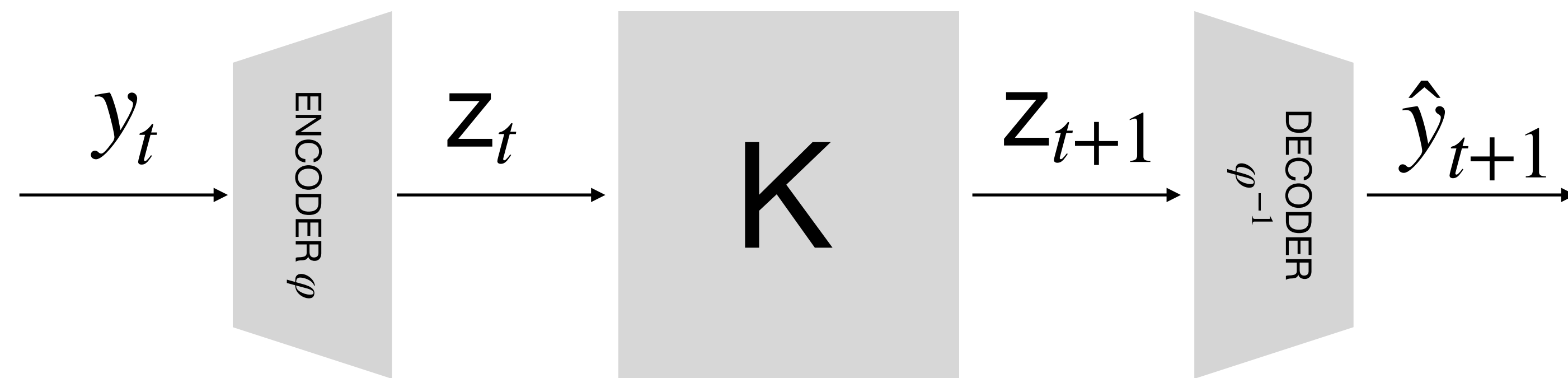


Figure 3. The Koopman Autoencoder (KAE).

- Encoder  $\varphi$  and Decoder  $\varphi^{-1}$  are blocks of fully connected layers.
- $K$  is a fully connected layer without bias or non-linear activations.



# Training the KAE

- Training the KAE considers the following loss functions

- $\mathcal{L}_{rec} = \sum_{t=1}^T ||y_t - \hat{y}_t||_2^2$

- $\mathcal{L}_{linear} = \sum_{t=1}^{\tau} ||z_t - \mathbf{K}^t z_1||_2^2$ , where we enforce linearity over  $\tau$  time steps.

- $\mathcal{L}_{pred} = \sum_{t=1}^{S_p} ||\varphi^{-1}(\mathbf{z}_{t+S_p}) - \varphi^{-1}(\mathbf{K}^{S_p} \mathbf{z}_t)||_2^2$ ,  $S_p$  determines the prediction window.

- The total loss function is written as a weighted sum of the

- $\mathcal{L}_{KAE} = \alpha_1 \mathcal{L}_{rec} + \alpha_2 \mathcal{L}_{pred} + \alpha_3 \mathcal{L}_{linear}$

# Interesting use-cases

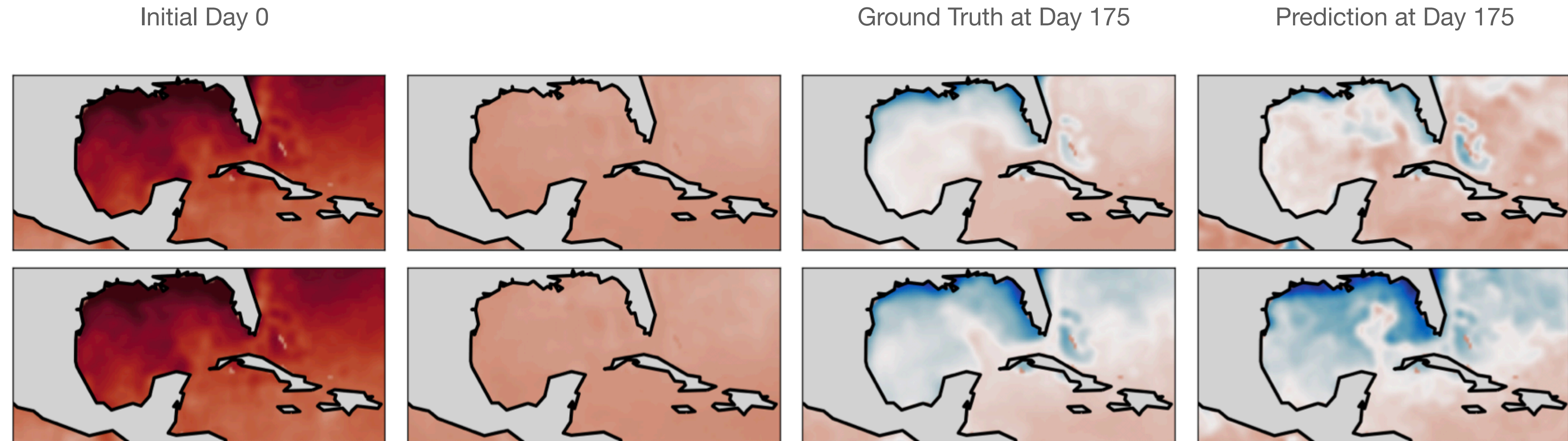


Figure 4. Predicting SEA surface levels.

Predictions were made using Consistent KAE (CKAE), where modifications were made to the original KAE.

# Simulation using a circular slow-manifold dataset

$$\begin{aligned}x(t) &= r(t) \cos \left( 2\pi \frac{t \bmod 50}{50} \right) \\y(t) &= r(t) \sin \left( 2\pi \frac{t \bmod 50}{50} \right), \text{ where} \\r(t) &= 1 + 0.5 \sin \left( \frac{2\pi t}{T} \right)\end{aligned}$$

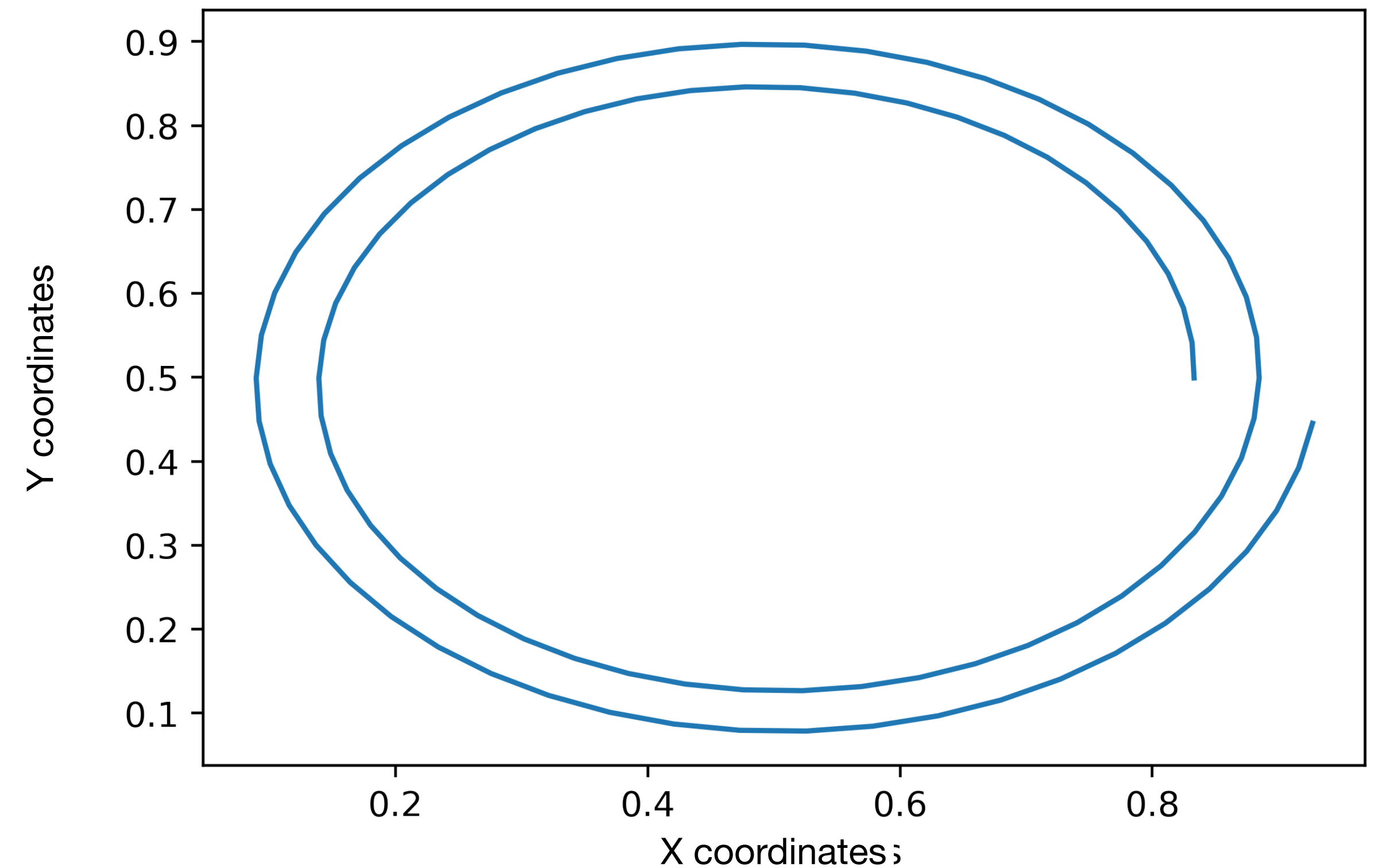


Figure 5. Trajectory depicted over 50 time steps.

# Simulating the trajectory using the KAE

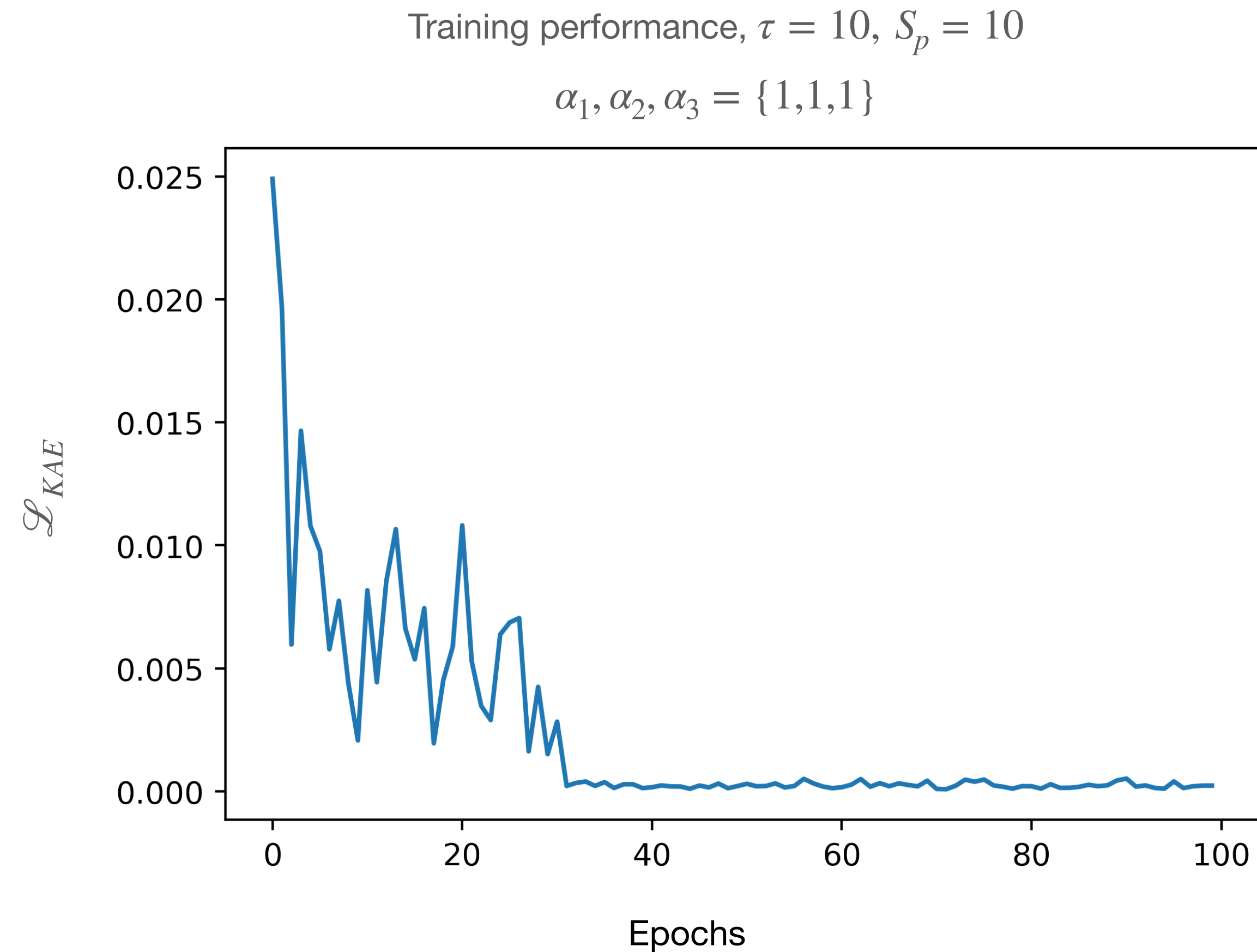


Figure 6. Training performance

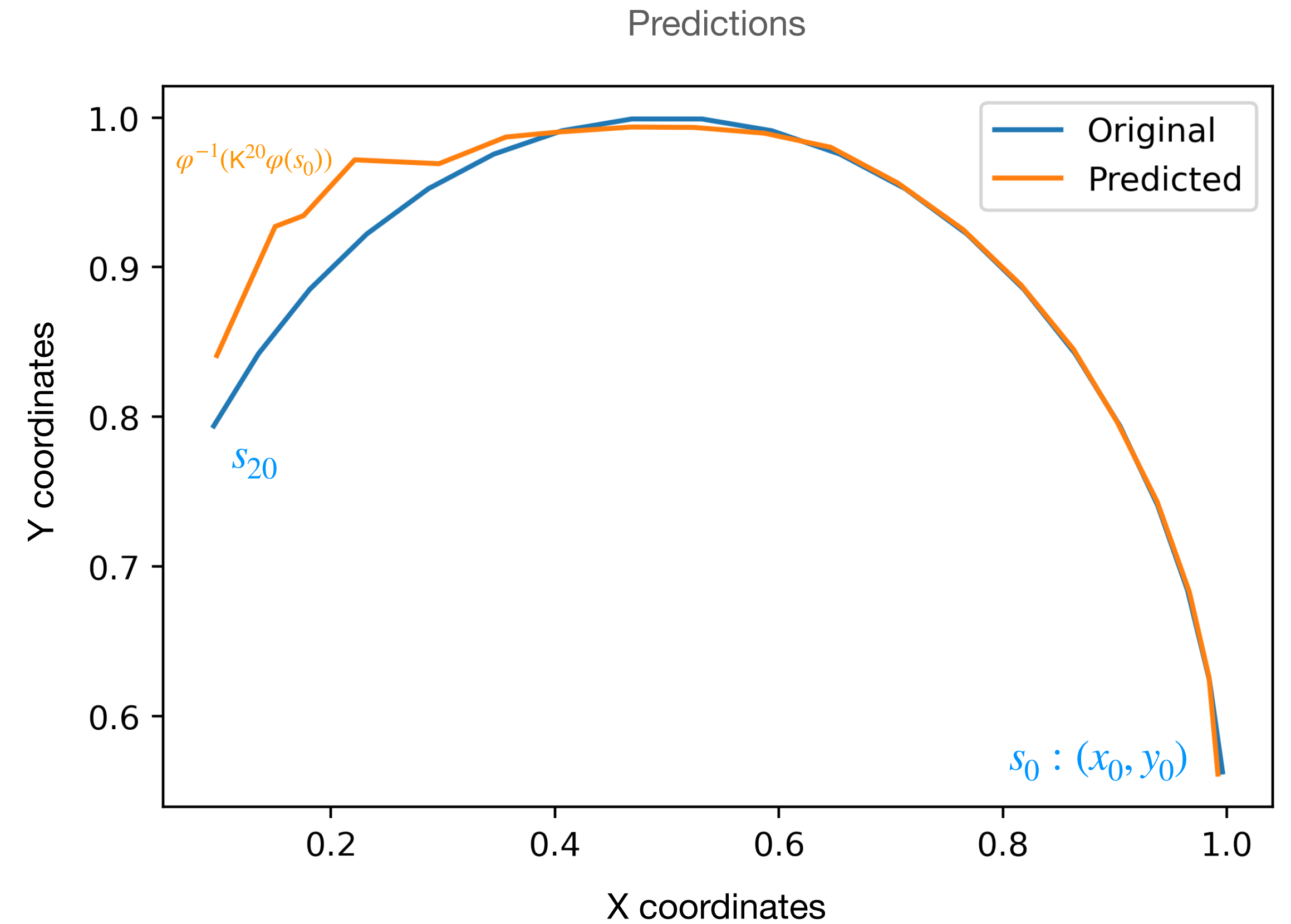


Figure 7. Ground truth vs Predictions over 20 time steps