Cuantificación de la incertidumbre en la predicción espacio-temporal con bayesian deep learning: Aplicación a El Niño

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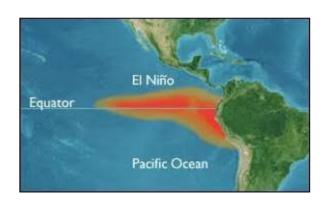
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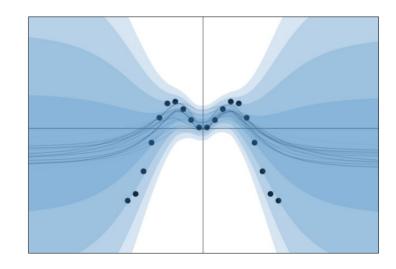


INTRODUCCIÓN

El Niño



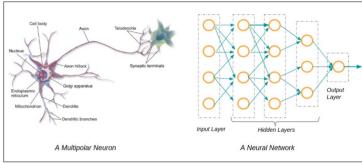
Cuantificación de la incertidumbre

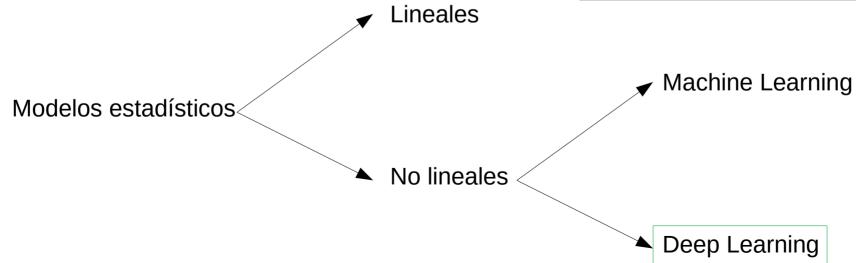


El Niño December 1988 December 1997 Difference from average temperature (°F)

El Niño

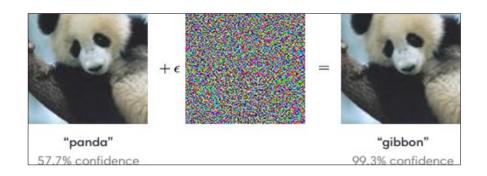
Modelos físico-matemáticos



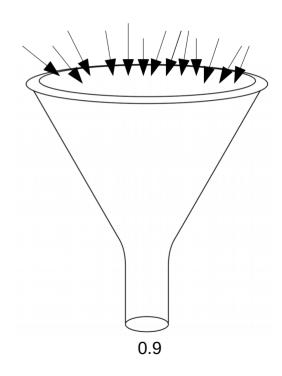


Cuantificación de la incertidumbre

¿Cómo de seguros están nuestros modelos?

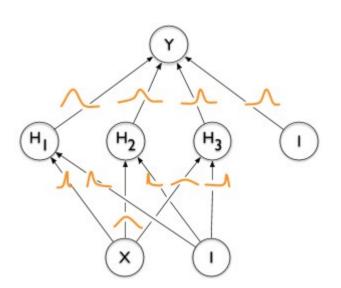


Intervalo de confianza

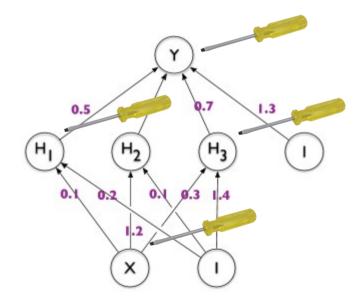


Cuantificación de la incertidumbre

Redes neuronales bayesianas



Bayesian deep learning



Predicción de El Niño

Bayesian Recurrent Neural Network Models for Forecasting and Quantifying Uncertainty in Spatial-Temporal Data

Patrick L. McDermott* Christopher K. Wikle

Department of Statistics

University of Missouri

February 8, 2018

Abstract

Recurrent neural networks (RNNs) are nonlinear dynamical models commonly used in the machine learning and dynamical systems literature to represent complex dynamical or sequential relationships between variables. More recently, as deep learning models have become more common, RNNs have been used to forecast increasingly complicated systems. Dynamical spatio-temporal processes represent a class of complex systems that can potentially benefit from these types of models. Although the RNN literature is expansive and highly developed, uncertainty quantification is often ignored. Even when considered, the uncertainty is generally quantified without the use of a rigorous framework, such as a fully Bayesian setting. Here we attempt to quantify uncertainty in a more formal framework while maintaining the forecast accuracy that



VS



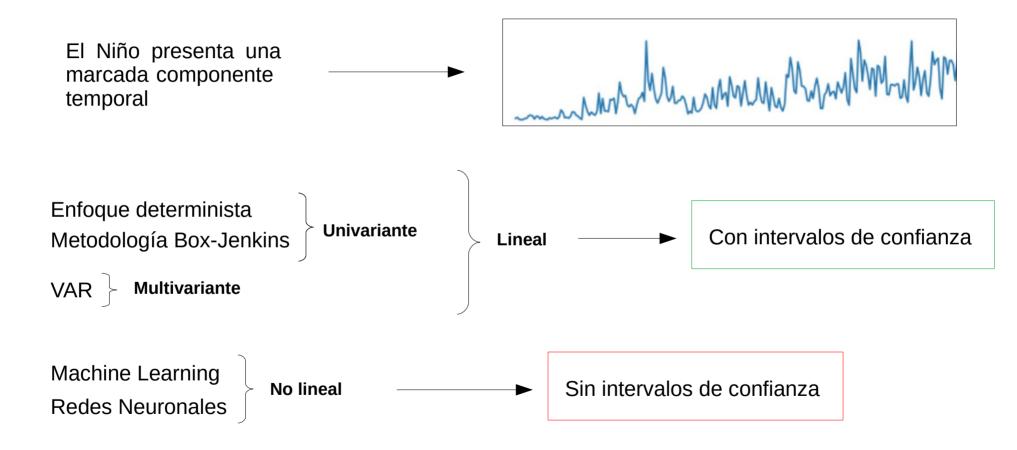
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Bayesian deep learning

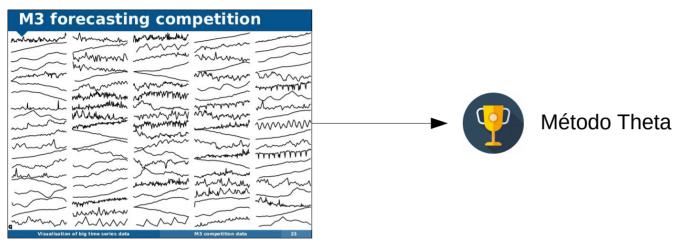
^{*}Department of Statistics, University of Missouri, 146 Middlebush Hall, Columbia, MO 65211 USA; E-mail: plmyt7@mail.missouri.edu (corresponding author)

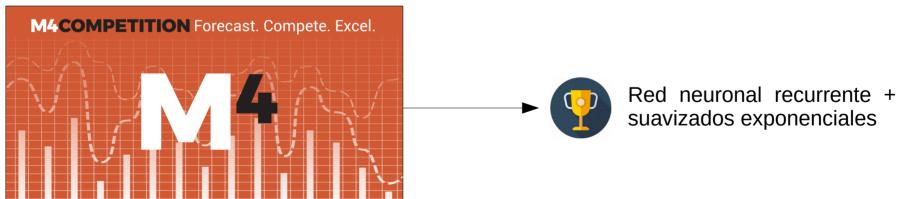
Deep Learning aplicado al Forecasting

Deep Learning aplicado al Forecasting

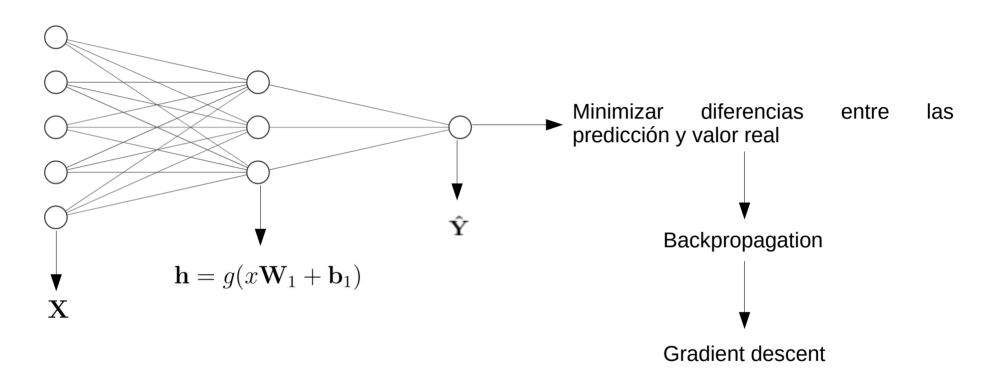


Deep Learning aplicado al Forecasting





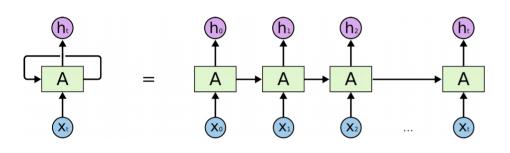
Red neuronal densa



Red neuronal recurrente

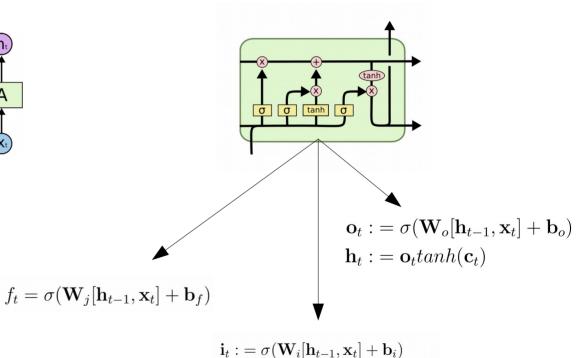
Red neuronal recurrente

LSTM



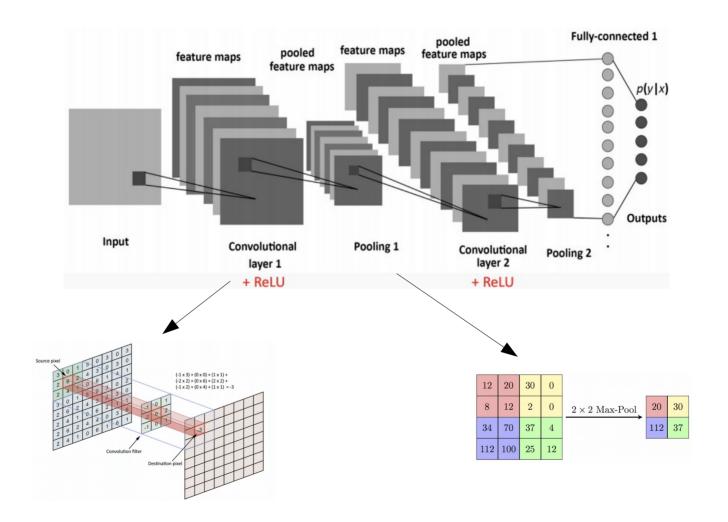
 $\mathbf{h}_t = g(\mathbf{W}\mathbf{x}_t + \mathbf{U}\mathbf{h}_{t-1})$

Vanishing Gradient

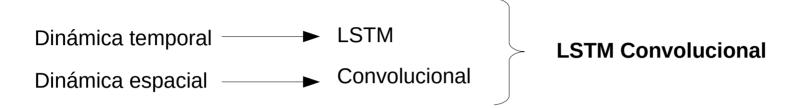


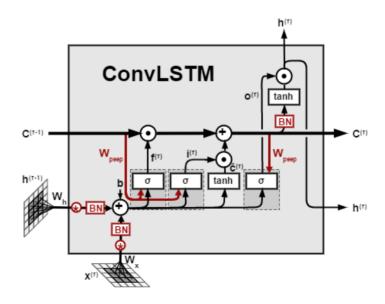
 $\mathbf{c}'_t := tanh(\mathbf{W}_C[\mathbf{h}_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}_t] + \mathbf{b}_C)$

Red neuronal convolucional

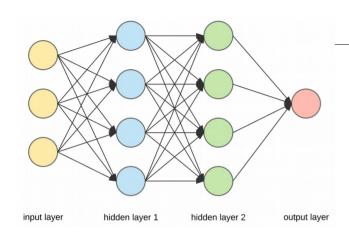


Red neuronal convolucional

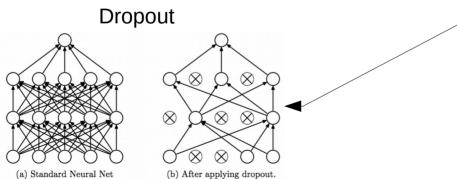


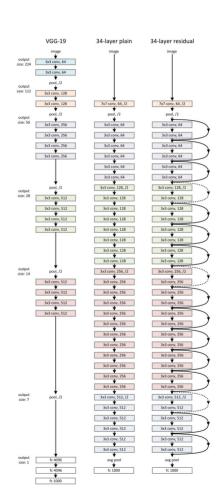


Deep learning

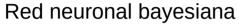


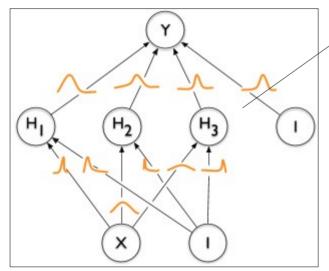
- Incremento exponencial en la cantidad de datos
- Desarrollo de hardware específico
- Desarrollo de nuevos algoritmos



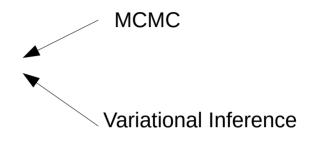


Bayesian deep learning





$$P(\mathbf{W}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) = \frac{P(\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{Y}, \mathbf{W})P(\mathbf{W})}{\int P(\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{Y}, \mathbf{W})P(\mathbf{W})d\mathbf{W}}$$



- Alto coste computacional
- Limitaciones en el diseño de arquitecturas

Bayesian deep learning



Uncertainty in Deep Learning



Yarin Gal

Department of Engineerin University of Cambridge

This dissertation is submitted for the Doctor of Philosophy

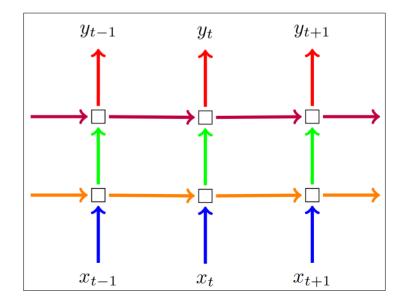
Gonville and Caius College

Si se define la función de distribución de aproximación Q del variational inference de una red neuronal bayesiana a partir de una Bernoulli su optimización es equivalente a la realizada por una red neuronal regularizada con dropout

Abstract

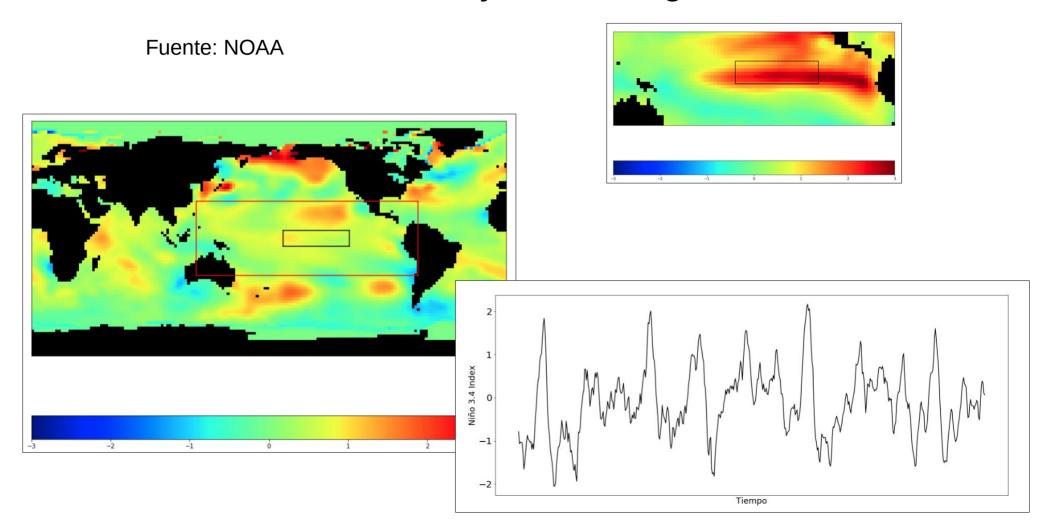
Deep learning has attracted tremendous attention from researchers in various fields of information engineering such as Al, computer vision, and language processing [Kalchremer and Blumsonn, 2013; Krizhevsky et al., 2012; Mmilt et al., 2013], but also from more traditional sciences such as physics, biology, and mamufacturing [Anjos et al., 2015]. Baldi et al., 2014; Bergmann et al., 2014]. Neural networks, image processing tools such as convolutional neural networks, sequence processing models such as recurrent neural networks, and regularisation tools such as dropout, are used extensively. However, fields such as physics, biology, and manufacturing are ones in which representing model uncertainty is of crucial importance [Ghabramani, 2015; Krzywinski and Altman, 2013; With the recent shift in many of these fields towards the use of Bayesian uncertainty [Herzeg and Ostwald, 2013; Nuzzo, 2014; Trafimow and Marls, 2015], new needs arise from done horselver.

In this work we develop tools to obtain practical uncertainty estimates in deep learning, casting recent deep learning tools as Beyenian models whout changing either the models or the optimisation. In the first part of this thesis we develop the theory for such tools, providing applications and illustrative examples. We tie approximate inference in Beyenian models to dropout and other stochastic regularisation techniques, and assess the approximations empirically. We give example applications arising from this connection between modern deep learning and Bayesian modelling such as active learning of image data and data-efficient deep reinforcement learning. We further demonstrate the tools' practicality through a survey of recent applications making use of the suggested techniques in language applications, medical diagnostics, bioinformatics, image processing, and autonomous driving. In the second part of the thesis we explore the insights stemming from the link between Bayesian modelling and deep learning, and its theoretical implications. We discuss what determines model uncertainty properties, analyse the approximate inference analytically in the linear case, and theoretically examine various priors such as spike and slab priors.



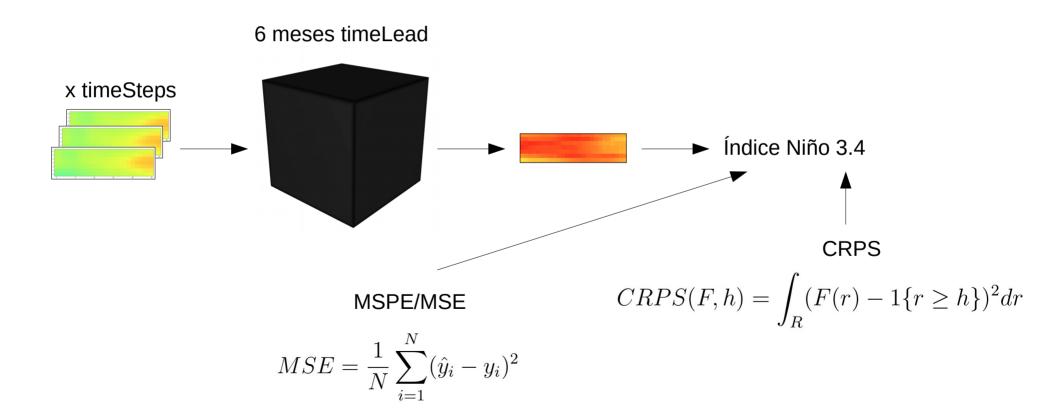
Datos y Metodología

Datos y Metodología



Datos y Metodología

Conjunto de entrenamiento: Enero 1970 – Agosto 2014 Conjunto de test: Febrero 2015 – Diciembre 2016 (forma alterna) — ➤ Anomalía ENSO Diciembre 2015



Métodos

Modelos de referencia

Linear DTSM

$$Y_{t,i} = \sum_{j=1}^{n_y} a_{i,j} Y_{t-1,j} + \zeta_{t,i}^{(l)}$$

GQN

$$Y_{t,i} = \sum_{j=1}^{n_y} a_{i,j} Y_{t-1,j} + \sum_{k=1}^{n_y} \sum_{k=1}^{n_y} b_{i,k,k} Y_{t-1,k} Y_{t-1,k} + \zeta_{t,i}^{(q)}$$

E-QESN

Reservoir computing

BAST-RNN

$$Y_t = \boldsymbol{\mu} + \mathbf{V}_1 \mathbf{h}_t + \mathbf{V}_1^2 \mathbf{h}_t^2 + \epsilon_t, \quad \epsilon_t \sim Gau(0, \mathbf{R}_t)$$

$$\mathbf{h}_t = f(\frac{\delta}{|\lambda_w|} \mathbf{W} \mathbf{h}_{t-1} + \mathbf{U} \mathbf{x}_t)$$
MCMC

Modelos desarrollados

Dropout p = 0.05, 0.1, 0.2, 0.5, 0.8Algoritmo ADAM Early-stopping sobre un 10% de datos de validación

LIN

Modelo lineal de Benchmark

Combinación lineal de píxeles

NN

Versión sin Dropout

Capa de entrada

+

Capa intermedia con 4 neuronas y ReLU

+

Capa Salida (Lineal)

Batch = 64 Learning Rate = 0.001

Versión con Dropout

Dropout en capa de entrada Learning Rate = 0.0001

Modelos desarrollados

timeSteps = 2, 12, 24

timeSteps = 12

<u>Versión sin Dropout</u>

timeSteps = 2

Capa de entrada

Capa intermedia con 20 neuronas (ReLU + tanh)

Capa Salida (Lineal)

Batch = 64 Learning Rate = 0.01

Versión con Dropout

Dropout de acuerdo al esquema

RNN

<u>Versión sin Dropout</u>

Capa de entrada

Capa intermedia con 20 neuronas (ReLU + tanh) y regularizador L2

Capa Salida (Lineal)

Batch = 64 Learning Rate = 0.01

<u>Versión con Dropout</u>

Dropout de acuerdo al esquema

LSTM

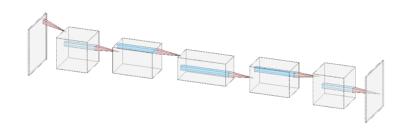
Modelos desarrollados

TimeSteps = 1, 2, 12, 24

timeSteps = 2

Conv AE

Versión sin Dropout



Activación ReLU Filtros 3x3 12 24 48 24 12

Batch = 64 Learning Rate = 0.01

timeSteps = 2, 12, 24

timeSteps = 12

Conv LSTM

Versión sin Dropout

Capa de entrada

+

Capa intermedia con 12 filtros

⊢

Capa salida con 1 filtro (Lineal)

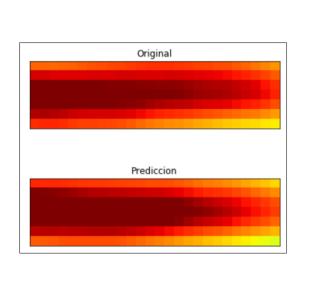
Batch = 64 Learning Rate = 0.001

Versión con Dropout

Dropout de acuerdo al esquema

Tabla 5.1: Comparación en términos de MSPE y CRPS de los distintos modelos ajustados. En negrita los de referencia. La t hace referencia al número de meses utilizados como recurrencia en la capa de entrada. El DP es el valor del hiperparámetro p del dropout.

Modelo	Niño 3.4 MSPE	Niño 3.4 CRPS
BAST-RNN	0.193	0.290
NN	0.241	-
LSTM t=2	0.259	-
E-QESN	0.261	0.354
RNN t=12	0.291	-
LIN	0.357	-
RNN t=24	0.4	-
Conv AE t=2	0.401	-
RNN t=2	0.427	-
LSTM t=24	0.438	-
Conv AE t=1	0.44	-
LSTM t=2 w/ DP=5 $\%$	0.491	0.534
RNN t=12 w/ DP=5 $\%$	0.503	0.469
GQN	0.619	0.538
Conv AE t=12	0.757	-
NN w/ DP=5 %	0.766	0.689
Lin. DSTM	0.785	0.699
LSTM t=12	0.839	-
Conv LSTM t=12	0.874	-
Conv AE t=24	0.936	-
Conv LSTM t=2	1.015	-
Conv LSTM t=12 w/ DP=5%	1.408	0.94
Conv LSTM t=24	1.801	-



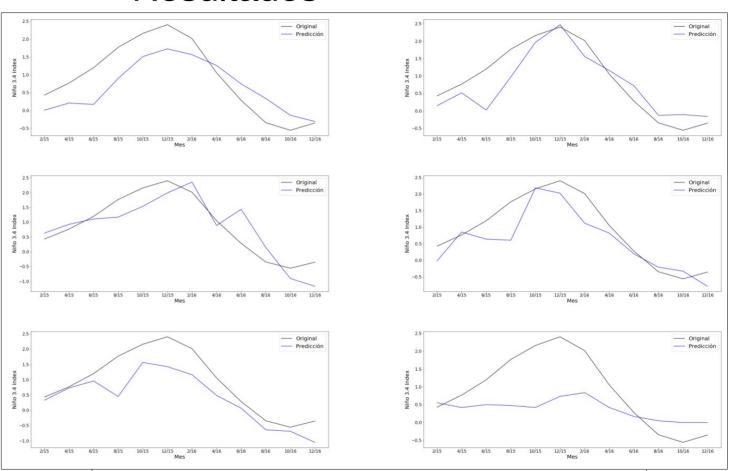


Figura 5.1: Predicciones respecto a los valores originales. En la columna de la izquierda de arriba a abajo se muestran las correspondientes a la red lineal, red recurrente y autoencoder convolucional. En la columna de la derecha de arriba a abajo se muestran las de la red densa, LSTM y LSTM convolucional.

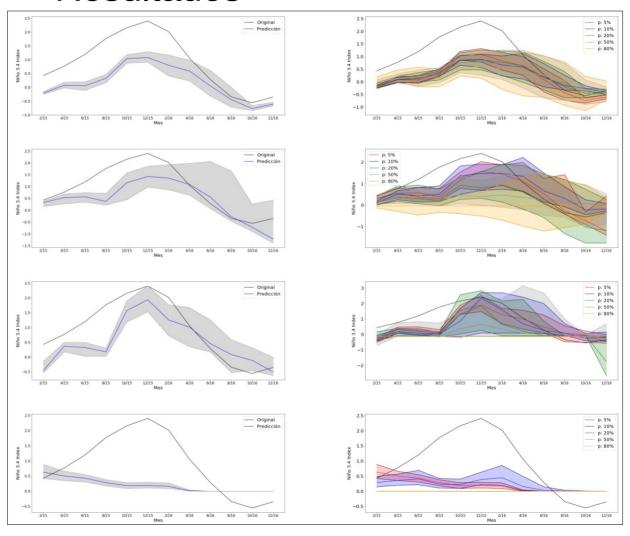


Figura 5.3: En la columna de la izquierda de arriba a abajo se muestran los intervalos de confianza con $p=5\,\%$ para la red densa, red recurrente, LSTM y LSTM convolucional. En la columna de la derecha los intervalos de confianza para distintos valores de p

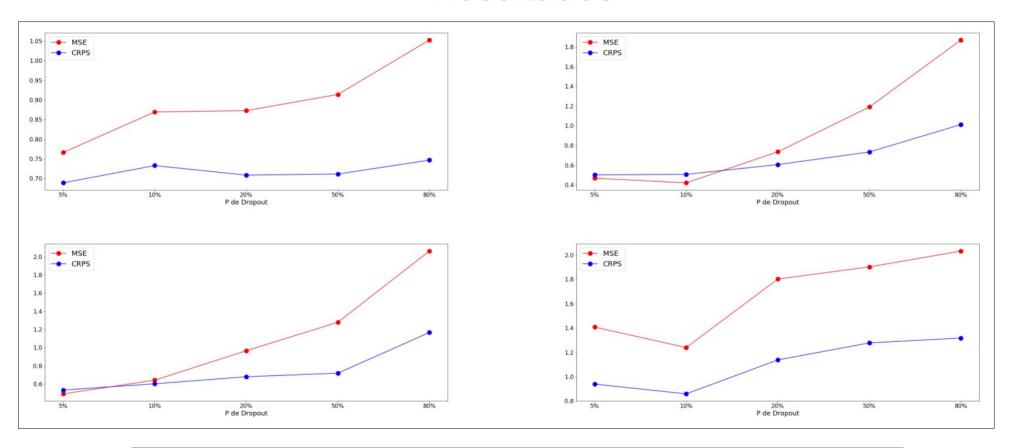


Figura 5.4: Evolución del MSE Y CRPS en función de la p del dropout. En la columna izquierda de arriba a abajo la correspondiente a la red densa y LSTM. En la columna derecha la de la red recurrente y LSTM convolucional

Conclusiones

Conclusiones

- Los modelos desarrollados superan al Benchmark lineal
- Los modelos sencillos son los que mejores resultados obtienen
- La red neuronal densa consigue por primera vez predecir correctamente la anomalía de Diciembre de 2015
- Los intervalos de confianza están muy condicionados al valor de p
- Los mejores intervalos son los de los modelos recurrentes

Trade-off entre la capacidad de aprendizaje y la cuantificación de la incertidumbre



¿Preguntas?