DeepAR: Probabilistic Forecasting with Autoregressive Recurrent Networks

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Introduction: Motivation



Classical forecasting model

- ► ARIMA (Autoregressive Integrated Moving Average)
- Exponential smoothing

A New type of forecasting problem

Forecasting thousands or millions of related time series

Introduction: Motivation





Figure 1: Log-log histogram of the number of items versus number of sales for the 500K time series of ec, showing the scale-free nature (approximately straight line) present in the ec dataset (axis labels omitted due to the non-public nature of the data).

There are two problems

- Magnitudes of the time series differ widely
- √ Distribution of the magnitudes is strongly skewed

Divide the data set into sub-groups of time series?

- √ Each velocity sub-group would have a similar skew
- √ Velocities will be vastly different within each group

Introduction: Contribution



1. Propose RNN architecture for probabilistic forecasting

- √ Incorporating a Negative Binomial likelihood for count data
- √ Special treatment for the case when the magnitudes of the time series vary widely
- Demonstrate this model produces accurate probabilistic forecasts.
 - $\sqrt{\ }$ across a range of input characteristic, on several real-world data sets.
 - √ in contrast to common belief

Introduction: Key Advantages



- √ Minimal feature engineering
- √ Probabilistic forecasting
- √ Forecast for new items or no history
 - a case where traditional single-item forecasting methods fail
- √ Not assume Gaussian noise
 - allowing the user to choose one that is appropriate for the statistical properties of the data.

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Related Work



Forecasting individual time series

- ARIMA models
- exponential smoothing methods

Demand forecasting domain

- data preprocessing methods often do not alleviate these conditions
- incorporated more suitable likelihood functions (zero-inflated Poisson, Negative binomial,)

Sharing information across time series

- can improve the forecast accuracy
 - ⇒ difficult to accomplish in practice
 - ⇒ hierarchical structure

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Model: Notation(Input layer)



Definition

$$Z_{i,1:T} := [z_{i,1}, ..., z_{i,t_0-1}, z_{i,t_0}, ..., z_{i,T}]$$

Definition (Covariates)

covariates are assumed to be known for all time points, denoted by

$$\mathbf{X}_{i,1:T} := [x_{i,1}, x_{i,2}, ..., x_{i,T}]$$

Model: Architecture



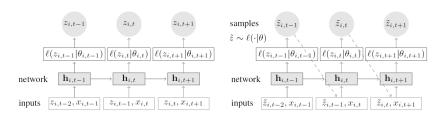


Figure: Training(Left) and Prediction(Right)

Goal is to model the conditional distribution $P(z_{i,t_o:T}|z_{i,1:t_o-1},x_{i,1:T})$ of the future of each time series $z_{i,t_o:T}$ given its past $z_{i,1:t_o-1}$

Two choices



Gaussian likelihood: real-valued data

•
$$\ell_G(z|\mu,\sigma) = (2\pi\sigma^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}} exp(-(z-\mu)^2/(2\sigma^2))$$

Negative Binomial likelihood: positive count data

$$\mu(h_{i,t}) = log(1 + exp(\mathbf{W}_{\mu}^{T} h_{i,t} + b_{\mu}))$$

$$\sqrt{\alpha} \in \mathbb{R}^+$$
 : shape parameter

Binomial distribution VS Negative Binomial Distribution



Binomial : $X \sim B(n, p)$ (trial n, probability p)

- ► Count the number of success
- Fixed number of trial
- ▶ $np \rightarrow \lambda, n \rightarrow \infty$

Binomial distribution VS Negative Binomial Distribution



Binomial : $X \sim B(n, p)$ (trial n, probability p)

- Count the number of success
- Fixed number of trial
- ▶ $np \rightarrow \lambda, n \rightarrow \infty$
 - \Rightarrow Poisson distribution : $X \sim Pois(\lambda)$
 - Given number of events on a fixed interval.

Negative Binomial : $X \sim NB(\mu, \alpha)$ (number of success μ , probability α)

- Count the number of trial
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Binomial distribution VS Negative Binomial Distribution



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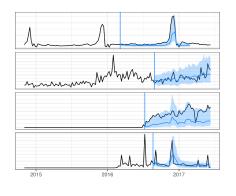
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Negative Binomial : $X \sim NB(\mu, \alpha)$ (number of success μ , probability α)

- Count the number of trial
- ► Fixed number of success

Related works: Estimating negative binomial demand for retail inventory management with unobservable lost sales(1996)





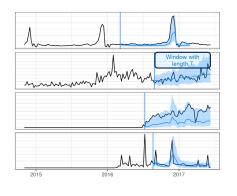
Input

- ▶ Past values : $z_1, z_2, ..., z_{t_0-1}$
- ► Covariates : $x_1, x_2, ..., x_T$!! Length of $x_{1,T} = t_0 + T$

Output

$$P(z_{t_o}, z_{t_o+1}, ..., z_{t_o+T})$$





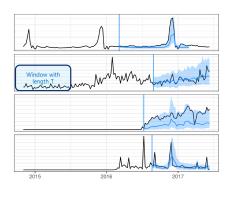
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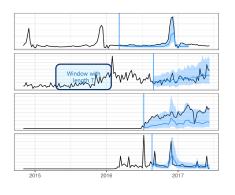
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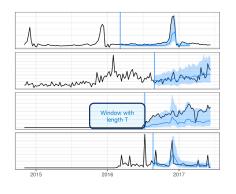
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Input

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Output

$$P(z_{t_o}, z_{t_o+1}, ..., z_{t_o+T})$$



Log Maximum Likelihood:

$$\mathcal{L} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{t=t_0}^{T} log \ell(z_{i,t} | \theta(\mathbf{h}_{i,t}))$$

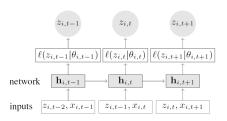


Figure: Encoder

Likelihood function $\mathcal{L}(\theta|x)$ is defined by probability of x when the parameter θ is given.

$$\Rightarrow \mathcal{L}(\theta|x) = P(x|\theta)$$

Model: Scale handling



Nonlinearity of the networks

- Adjust before and after input / output so as not to be affected by nonlinearity of the networks.
- ex Negative binomial distribution
 - $\qquad \qquad \mu = v_i \log(1 + \exp(o_\mu)), \, \alpha = \log(1 + \exp(o_\alpha)) / \sqrt{v_i}$
 - ► Scale $V_i = 1 + \frac{1}{t_0} \sum_{t=1}^{t_0} z_{i,t}$

Pick training instance uniformly ⇒ underfitting

The probability of selecting a window with scale v_i is proportional to v_i



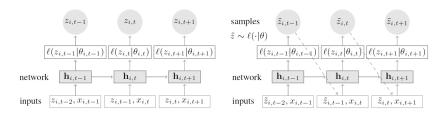


Figure: Training(Left) and Prediction(Right)



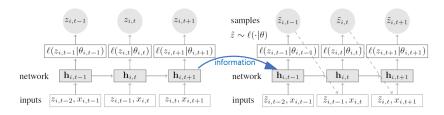


Figure: Training(Left) and Prediction(Right)



Generating one sampling trace

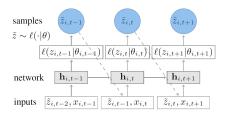


Figure: Decoder



Generating one sampling trace

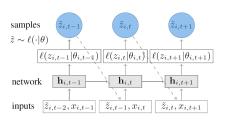
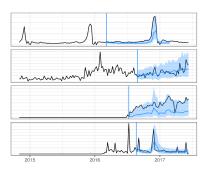


Figure: Decoder

Representing the joint predicted distribution



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Environments

► laptop: 1AWS p2.xlarge instance:4CPU + 1GPU

framework: MXNetnetwork: LSTM

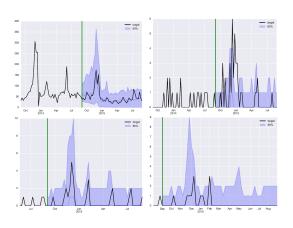
Datasets

	parts	electricity	traffic	ec-sub	ec
# time series	1046	370	963	39700	534884
time granularity	month	hourly	hourly	week	week
domain	N	R+	[0, 1]	\mathbb{N}	N
encoder length	8	168	168	52	52
decoder length	8	24	24	52	52
# training examples	35K	500K	500K	2M	2M
item input embedding dimension	1046	370	963	5	5
item output embedding dimension	1	20	20	20	20
batch size	64	64	64	512	512
learning rate	1e-3	1e-3	1e-3	5e-3	5e-3
# LSTM layers	3	3	3	3	3
# LSTM nodes	40	40	40	120	120
running time	5min	7h	3h	3h	10h

Experiments



Example time series of ec



- ► Blue line : The p50
- Shaded : The 80% confidence interval

Experiments: comparison



$\rho\text{-risk}$: normalized sum of $\rho\text{-quantile losses}$

(L,S)	0.5-risk				0.9-risk				average
	(0,1)	(2, 1)	(0, 8)	all(8)	$\begin{array}{c} {\tt parts} \\ (0,1) \end{array}$	(2, 1)	(0,8)	all(8)	average
Snyder (baseline)	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
rnn-gaussian	1.17	1.49	1.15	1.56	1.02	0.98	1.12	1.04	1.19
rnn-negbin	0.95	0.91	0.95	1.00	1.10	0.95	1.06	0.99	0.99
DeepAR	0.98	0.91	0.91	1.01	0.90	0.95	0.96	0.94	0.94
	1				ec-sub				
(L, S)	(0, 2)	(0, 8)	(3, 12)	all(33)	(0, 2)	(0, 8)	(3, 12)	all(33)	average
ISSM (baseline)	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
rnn-gaussian	1.03	1.19	1.24	0.85	0.91	1.74	2.09	0.67	1.21
rnn-negbin	0.90	0.98	1.11	0.85	1.23	1.67	1.83	0.78	1.17
DeepAR	0.64	0.74	0.93	0.73	0.71	0.81	1.03	0.57	0.77
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ISSM (baseline)	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
rnn-gaussian	0.89	0.91	0.94	1.14	0.90	1.15	1.23	0.90	1.01
rnn-negbin	0.66	0.71	0.86	0.92	0.85	1.12	1.33	0.98	0.93
DeepAR	0.59	0.68	0.99	0.98	0.76	0.88	1.00	0.91	0.85

Figure: Accuracy metrics relative to the strongest previously published method

Experiments: comparison



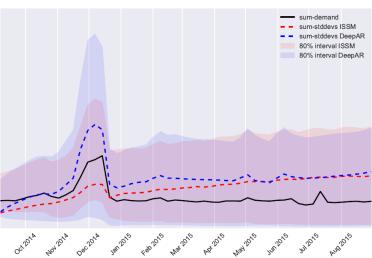
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 \surd Forecasting approaches based on modern deep learning techniques can drastically improve forecast accuracy.

√ DeepAR

- ► Effectively learns a global model
- handles widely-varying scales through rescaling
- generates calibrated probabilistic forecasts with high accuracy
- learn complex patterns such as seasonality and uncertainty growth over time from the data

