RNN

Recurrent Neural Network

Artificial neural network that are able to recognize and predict **sequences of data** such as text, genomes, handwriting, spoken word, or numerical time series data.

They have **loops** that allow a consistent flow of information and can work on sequences of arbitrary lengths.

Make use of internal state (**memory**) to process a sequence of inputs.

RNN utilization

Processing sequential data, where the order of elements matters (e.g., time series, text, language).

RNNs are used to solve several problems:

- Language translation and modeling
- Speech recognition
- Image captioning
- Time series data such as stock prices (tell when to buy or sell)
- Automatic (autonomous?) driving systems to anticipate car trajectories; help avoid accidents.



The output of the hidden layer is *fed back* into the same hidden layer

We can model *time* or sequence-dependent data (time series)

t – time moment

The weights of the connections between time steps are *shared* i.e. there isn't a different set of weights for each time step.

https://adventuresinmachinelearning.com/recurrent-neural-networkslstm-tutorial-tensorflow/





"A **girl** walked into a bar, and **she** said: 'Can I have a drink please?'. The bartender said 'Certainly {**?**}"

```
{?} can be "miss", "ma'am", ...
```

"sir", "Mister", ... also could fit

To get the correct gender of the noun, the neural network needs to **recall** that two previous words designating the likely gender (i.e., "**girl**" and "**she**") were used.



Serial-to- parallel conversion of data sequence to supply a stream of data to the RNN

Example



input-to-activation model

many-to-many model

inputs: "A girl walked into a bar..." outputs (predicted): h_0 to h_t .

many-to-one model

one-to-many model

Basic RNN - critical analyses

For RNN, ideally, we would want to have long memories (many time steps), so the network can connect data relationships at significant distances in time.

An RNN with long memory could make real progress in understanding how language and narrative work, how stock market events are correlated, etc.

But

RNNs present a major setback

• vanishing gradient / exploding gradient

They have difficulties in learning long-range dependencies (relationship between entities that are several steps apart).

The more time steps we have, the more chance we have of back-propagation error gradients:

- accumulating and exploding (for values > 1)
- **vanishing** down to nothing (for values < 1)

Forward and backward propagation for a DNN



For each layer $W := w - \eta dw dw = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathcal{L}} - \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathcal{L}} -$

For multiple layer – multiplications accumulate for all layers

Basic RNN - critical analyses - cont.

In deep networks or recurrent neural networks, **error gradients can accumulate** during an update and result in very large gradients.

The explosion occurs through exponential growth by repeatedly multiplying gradients through the network layers that have values larger than 1.0.

These in turn result in large updates to the network weights, and in turn, an unstable network. At an extreme, the values of weights can become so large as to overflow and result in NaN values.

When *n* hidden layers use an activation that give small gradients (below unity, like the sigmoid function), *n* small derivatives are multiplied together. Thus, the **error gradient decreases exponentially** as we propagate down to the initial layers.

A small gradient means that the weights and biases of the initial layers will not be updated effectively with each training session. Since these initial layers are often crucial to recognizing the core elements of the input data, it can lead to **overall inaccuracy** of the whole network.



Basic RNN critical analyses

$$a_2 = F\left(U_2x_2 + V_2 \cdot \left(F\left(U_1x_1 + V_1 \cdot \left(F(U_0x_0)\right)\right)\right)\right)$$

For back-propagation we compute the gradients of the activation function

The problem with the sigmoid-type activation function occurs when the input values are such that the output is close to either 0 or 1:

the gradient is very small

Multiplying many sigmoid gradients: $\rightarrow 0$ Vanishing gradients

Solution: LSTM neural network



LSTM network Long Short-Term Memory

To reduce the vanishing/exploding gradient problem, **reduce the multiplication** of gradients.

The LSTM cell is a specifically designed unit of logic that help reduce the gradient problem sufficiently to make recurrent neural networks more useful for long-term memory tasks i.e. text sequence predictions.

The way it does so is by creating **an internal memory state** which is simply *added* to the processed input, which greatly reduces the multiplicative effect of small gradients.

The **time dependence and effects of previous inputs** are controlled by an interesting concept called a *forget gate*, which determines which states are **remembered or forgotten**.

selectively remember or forget information over time

Two other gates, the *input gate* and *output gate*, are also featured in LSTM cells.

LSTM excels at capturing long-range dependencies in sequences.

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$$egin{aligned} g &= tanh(b^g + x_t U^g + a_{t-1} V^g) \ i &= \sigma(b^i + x_t U^i + a_{t-1} V^i) \end{aligned}$$

U - weight matrix for input*V* - weight matrix for recurrent output

The value of *i* is "learned" during the training by its *bⁱ*, *Uⁱ*, *Vⁱ*

The **input gate** acts as a filter determining which inputs (through g) are switched on and off (i – between 0 and 1)

g and i - multiplied element-wise ($g \circ i$) giving the output of the input stage



Forget gate is a sigmoid activated set of nodes which is element-wise multiplied by s_{t-1} to determine which **previous states** should be

- remembered (i.e. forget gate output close to 1, $f \rightarrow 1$), s_{t-1} is remembered (add to s_t)
- forgotten (i.e. forget gate output close to 0, $f \rightarrow 0$), s_{t-1} is forgotten (no add to s_t)

$$f = \sigma(b^f + x_t U^f + a_{t-1} V^f)$$
 $s_t = s_{t-1} \circ f + g \circ i$

The forget-gate: "filtered" state is **simply added to the input, rather than multiplied by it**, or mixed with it via weights and a sigmoid activation function as occurs in a standard recurrent neural network.

This is important to reduce the issue of vanishing gradients.



The output gate has two components

- *tanh* squashing function
- output sigmoid gating function.

The output sigmoid gating function determine which values of the state are output from the cell (values of the output gate close to 1, o=1).

$$o = \sigma(b^o + x_t U^o + a_{t-1} V^o)$$
 $h_t = tanh(s_t) \circ o$

The LSTM cell is very flexible, with gating functions controlling

- ✓ what is taken as input,
- ✓ what is "remembered" in the internal state variable,
- \checkmark what is output from the LSTM cell.

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Case study

 Implement a time series analysis using a RNN (LSTM) to predict the prices of Bitcoin using historical data from <u>CryptoDataDownload</u>

Python, TensorFlow Colaboratory

Application flowchart

Uses TensorFlow Import libraries

Load data

Explore and preprocess data

View dataset

Standardize features

Format and split the dataset

RNN ahitecture

Define the sequential model

Compile and train the RNN model

Evaluate the CNN model

Predict

Original data

. CSV

	Date	0pen	High	Low	Close	Adj Close	Volume
0	2016-12-14	780.005005	782.033997	776.838989	781.481018	781.481018	75979000
1	2016-12-15	780.070007	781.434998	777.802002	778.088013	778.088013	81580096
2	2016-12-16	778.963013	785.031982	778.963013	784.906982	784.906982	83608200
3	2016-12-17	785.166016	792.508972	784.864014	790.828979	790.828979	78989800
4	2016-12-18	791.007996	794.737000	788.026001	790.530029	790.530029	60524400
1457	2020-12-10	18553.298828	18553.298828	17957.064453	18264.992188	18264.992188	25547132265
1458	2020-12-11	18263.929688	18268.453125	17619.533203	18058.904297	18058.904297	27919640985
1459	2020-12-12	18051.320313	18919.550781	18046.041016	18803.656250	18803.656250	21752580802
1460	2020-12-13	18806.765625	19381.535156	18734.332031	19142.382813	19142.382813	25450468637
1461	2020-12-14	19206.101563	19290.531250	19012.708984	19188.367188	19188.367188	23987949568

The dataset: [781.481018 778.088013 784.906982 ... 18803.65625 19142.382813 19188.367188]

Original data Close values

The size of the dataset is: 1462



Standardize features - normalization

Standardize features by removing the mean and scaling to unit variance. The standard score of a sample x is calculated as:

z = (x - u) / s

u is the mean of the training samples s is the standard deviation of the training samples.

Centering and scaling happen independently on each feature by computing the relevant statistics on the samples in the training set.

Mean and standard deviation are then stored to be used on later data using transform.

Standardization of a dataset is a common requirement for many machine learning estimators: they might behave badly if the individual features do not more or less look like standard normally distributed data (e.g. Gaussian with 0 mean and unit variance).

Standard Scaler



- **1. Centering:** The mean of the feature is subtracted from each feature value (x). This shifts the distribution of the feature so that its mean becomes 0.
- **2. Scaling:** Each centered feature value is then divided by the standard deviation. This scales the distribution so that its variance becomes 1.

```
from sklearn.preprocessing import StandardScaler
scaler = StandardScaler()
scaled_data = scaler.fit_transform(dataset.reshape(-1, 1))
```

Standardized data





max: [3.16485135] min: [-1.65324475] mean: 7.776117491218607e-17

Original data



Bitcoin prices from 2016-12-14 to 2020-12-14







Standardized data

^[3.16485135] min: [-1.65324475] 7.776117491218607e-17 max: mean:

Data formatting

window_size = 7; The number of previous days we consider to predict the bitcoin price for our case.

```
# This function is used to create Features and Labels (targets) datasets; By windowing the data.
 1
 2
    # Input: data - dataset used in the project
    # window size - how many data points we are going to use to predict the next datapoint in the sequence
 3
4
    # [Example: if window size = 7 we are going to use 7 previous day to predict todays stock prices]
    # Outputs: X - features splitted into windows of datapoints (if window size = 1, X = [len(data)-1, 7])
 5
     # y - 'labels', actually this is the next number in the sequence, this number we are trying to predict
6
7
8
    def window data(data, window size=3):
9
         X = [] # input data
10
         y = [] # output data (target)
        i = 0
11
12 \smallsetminus
        while (i + window size) <= len(data) - 1:</pre>
             X.append(data[i:i+window size])
13
14
            y.append(data[i+window size])
15
             i += 1
         assert len(X) == len(y)
16
    # Assertions are simply boolean expressions that checks if the conditions return true or not.
17
     # If it is true, the program does nothing and move to the next line of code.
18
19
     # However, if it's false, the program stops and throws an error.
    # It is also a debugging tool as it brings the program on halt as soon as any error is occurred.
20
21
         return X, y
22
    #windowing the data with window data function
23
24
    windowSize = 7
    X, y = window data(scaled data, window size = windowSize)
25
```





Data flow



Splitting the dataset

Processing sequential data, where the order of elements matters

```
# Split the data into training and test set; not random
trainSize = 1000
X_train = np.array(X[:trainSize])
y_train = np.array(y[:trainSize])
X_test = np.array(X[trainSize:])
y_test = np.array(y[trainSize:])
```

```
X_train size: (1000, 7, 1)
y_train size: (1000, 1)
```

```
X_test size: (455, 7, 1)
y_test size: (455, 1)
```

Defining the network

Hyperparameters

Hyperparameters explain higher-level structural information about the RNN model.

batch_size = 64; This is the number of windows of data we are passing at once.

window_size = 7; The number of previous days we consider to predict the bitcoin
price for our case.

hidden_layers = 3; (LSTM units: 256, 512, 512)

clip_margin = 4; This is to prevent exploding the gradient (to clip gradients below/ above this margin).

learning_rate = 0.00005

epochs = 500; This is the number of iterations (forward and back propagation) our model needs to make.

LSTM layer

keras.layers.LSTM(units. activation="tanh", recurrent activation="sigmoid", use bias=True, kernel initializer="glorot uniform", recurrent initializer="orthogonal", bias initializer="zeros", unit forget bias=True, kernel regularizer=None, recurrent_regularizer=None, bias regularizer=None, activity regularizer=None, kernel constraint=None, recurrent constraint=None, bias constraint=None, dropout=0.0. recurrent dropout=0.0, seed=None, return sequences=False, return state=False, go backwards=False, stateful=False, unroll=False, use cudnn="auto", **kwargs

Define the RNN model

```
## define a sequential model
my_RNN = Sequential (name='my_RNN') # sequential model
## add layers
my_RNN.add(LSTM(units=256, return_sequences=True,
                input_shape = (X_train.shape[1], X_train.shape[2]), name='LSTM_1'))
# units - Positive integer, dimensionality of the output space
my_RNN.add(Dropout(0.25))
my_RNN.add(LSTM(units=512, return_sequences=True, name='LSTM_2'))
my_RNN.add(Dropout(0.25))
my_RNN.add(LSTM(units=512, return_sequences=False, activation=None, name='LSTM_3'))
my RNN.add(Dropout(0.25))
my_RNN.add(Dense(units=y_train.shape[1], activation=None))
```

RNN model structure

Model: "my_RNN"

Layer (type)	Output Shape	Param #
LSTM_1 (LSTM)	(None, 7, 256)	264,192
dropout (Dropout)	(None, 7, 256)	0
LSTM_2 (LSTM)	(None, 7, 512)	1,574,912
dropout_1 (Dropout)	(None, 7, 512)	0
LSTM_3 (LSTM)	(None, 512)	2,099,200
dropout_2 (Dropout)	(None, 512)	0
dense (Dense)	(None, 1)	513

Total params: 3,938,817 (15.03 MB) Trainable params: 3,938,817 (15.03 MB) Non-trainable params: 0 (0.00 B)

RNN model structure



Configure (compile) and train the model

```
## compile the model
 1
    2
 3
 4
    my_RNN.compile(optimizer = opt,
                                                # optimiser = 'adam'
                 loss ='mse',
 5
                 metrics =['mape'] # mean absolute percentage error
 6
 7
 8
 9
    ## train the model
    max epochs = 500
10
    hist = my_RNN.fit(X_train, y_train,
11
12
                   epochs = max_epochs,
13
                   validation_data = (X_test, y_test),
14
                   batch_size = 64,
15
                   verbose = 1,
                   shuffle = True);
16
```

shuffle

• **Data Order:** During training, your model sees your training data in batches. By default (shuffle=True), model.fit() will randomly shuffle the order of your training data before each epoch (a full pass through the training data).

• Why it's important: Shuffling helps prevent your model from learning patterns that are specific to the order of your data. This can lead to better generalization and performance on unseen data.

• When to set shuffle=False: You might set shuffle=False in very specific situations, like when the order of your data is crucial (e.g., time-series data where the order represents a sequence of events) and you don't want it to be randomized.

Training evolution 500 epochs



15/15 - 0s - loss: 0.0111 - mape: 44.2792 - 85ms/epoch - 6ms/step Accuracy in the test data: 44.279170989990234

Elapsed time: 4696.791035413742 seconds = **78.30 min** = **1h 18 min no GPU**

Elapsed time: 279.7024142742157 seconds = **4.66 min T4 GPU 16.8x**

MSE vs MAPE

MSE (Mean Squared Error)

• **Definition:** MSE measures the average squared difference between the predicted and actual values.

- Formula: MSE = (1/m) * Σ(actual predicted)^2
- Characteristics:
 - It gives higher weight to larger errors due to the squaring.
 - It is sensitive to outliers.
 - It is in the same units as the target variable squared.
- Usefulness: MSE is widely used and is differentiable, which is important for optimization algorithms.

MAPE (Mean Absolute Percentage Error)

• **Definition:** MAPE measures the average absolute percentage difference between the predicted and actual values.

- Formula: MAPE = $(1/m) * \Sigma(|actual predicted| / |actual|) * 100$
- Characteristics:
 - It is expressed as a percentage, making it easy to interpret.
 - It is less sensitive to outliers compared to MSE.
 - It is not defined when actual values are zero.

• Usefulness: MAPE is useful when the relative error is more important than the absolute error. It is often used in forecasting and time series analysis.

MSE vs MAPE

Comparison

Feature	MSE	MAPE
Scale	Same units as target variable squared	Percentage
Outlier Sensitivity	High	Low
Interpretability	Less intuitive	More intuitive
Use Cases	Regression, optimization	Forecasting, time series

Choosing between MSE and MAPE

The choice between MSE and MAPE depends on your specific needs and the nature of your data.

- If you want to penalize larger errors more and your data has no zero values, MSE might be a good choice.
- If you prefer a more interpretable metric that is less sensitive to outliers, MAPE might be more suitable.





Prediction 500 epochs

Bitcoin price

Bitcoin price - training data



Prediction 500 epochs Bitcoin price - test data Actual price Predicted price Model Evaluation Metrics: Metric Train Test MSE 0.0097 0.0089



Train longer, 1000 epochs

Loss and accuracy during training



15/15 - 0s - 6ms/step - loss: 0.0095 - mape: 41.6279 Accuracy in the test data: 41.62788391113281

Elapsed time: 581.6502554416656 seconds = 9.67 min T4 GPU

Prediction 1000 epochs

Bitcoin price - training data



Prediction 1000 epochs

Bitcoin price - test data











Using the Notebook file

This is a link to the application notebook:

https://colab.research.google.com/drive/1zqHQZYvbeQMRtAQCl9A_64cLBeoI92-A?usp=sharing