

# Time Series Modeling and Synchronization using Neural Networks

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## Abstract

In the last few years, neural networks have found interesting applications in the field of time series modeling and forecasting. Some recent results show the ability of these models to approximate the dynamical behavior of nonlinear chaotic systems, leading to similar dimensions and Lyapunov exponents. In this paper we analyze further the dynamical properties of neural networks when compared with chaotic systems. In particular, we show that the possibility of synchronizing chaotic systems gives a natural criterion for determining similar dynamical behavior between these systems and neural approximate models. In particular we show that a neural model obtained from an experimental scalar laser-intensity time series can be synchronized to the time series, indicating that it captures the dynamical behavior of the system underlying the data.

## Keywords

Neural networks, nonlinear time series, system identification, chaos synchronization.

# 1 Introduction

Time series analysis is an important discipline which deals with the modeling, control and forecast of real-world systems from a set of measured observations. Several methods for obtaining linear approximate models have been developed for this purpose, including the well-known ARMA models (see [1] for an introduction to linear time series analysis). The main goal of these methods is, first, fitting an appropriate model to the data and, then, using the obtained model for predicting the future, or for controlling the system's state. These ideas have been applied in a great variety of domains, going from Economics to Physics or from Engineering to Social Sciences, resulting in the identification of linear deterministic models underlying many time series associated with interesting problems.

However, in the last two decades a great deal of attention has been focused in nonlinear systems, which can exhibit a complex seemingly stochastic behavior known as deterministic chaos. This interest was mainly motivated by the discovering of chaos in simple low-dimensional nonlinear models, and in a great variety of experimental time series (stock markets [2], electronic circuits [3], biology [4], etc.). Although at first sight a chaotic system may seem unpredictable and unmanageable, its deterministic low-dimensional nature allows distinguishing it from noise and makes feasible reconstructing its functional structure from a time series using appropriate nonlinear techniques.

In recent years new approaches for nonlinear time series modeling have emerged (local and global prediction [5], neural networks [6], delay reconstruction space [7], wavelets [8], functional networks [9], etc.), providing more powerful methods and giving new insight into the dynamics of these systems (see [10] and references therein for an updated survey of this topic). Among these techniques, artificial Neural Networks (NNs) have been successfully applied in many practical situations [11, 12, 13]. Moreover, it has been shown that under some circumstances a neural approximate model resemble the original system, in the sense that both the original and neural models can exhibit similar unstable periodic orbits [14], or even similar Lyapunov exponents or fractal dimension [15] (see [16] for more details about these topics).

However, there is no general quantitative criterion for deciding whether a reconstructed model can be considered a dynamical approximation of the original system. This problem is specially important when there is no knowledge about the functional form of the system and the only information available is a scalar time series sampled from the system (note that this is always the situation in many experimental problems). In most cases, the residual error between the predicted and real values is used as a quantitative criterion for this purpose. However, in some cases low-error models can be overfitted to the data, leading to a wrong reconstruction of the system dynamics.

In this paper we show that the possibility of synchronizing chaotic systems gives a natural criterion for determining similar dynamical behavior among different systems. Chaos synchronization was first shown by Pecora and Carroll by linking exact replicas of a given system with common signals, in such a way that they converge to the same orbit [17]. Syn-

chronization was also found to be robust to small perturbations on the system parameters, so slightly different systems could also be synchronized. Therefore, the robustness of chaotic synchronization can be used as a natural criterion for determining similar dynamical behavior among different systems. In particular, this criterion can be applied to check the performance of different neural models obtained from a time series when compared with the underlying dynamical system. To illustrate the ideas presented in the paper, we shall analyze both computer-generated times series obtained by simulating simple deterministic dynamical systems (such as the Lorenz model), and an experimental scalar time series obtained from a  $NH_3$  infrared laser.

This paper is structured as follows. In Section 2 we present some basic results about NNs and their application to time series modeling. In Section 3 we describe chaos synchronization and show the possibility of synchronizing neural models with chaotic systems; we also describe the application for characterizing similar dynamical behaviors. Finally, Section 4 describes a real-world application of the technique using an experimental scalar time series.

## 2 Modeling Chaotic Systems with Neural Networks

It is now generally recognized that seemingly random time series may be the result of some stochastic process, but they may also be produced by some simple nonlinear system. In either case, a long-term prediction is possible only in probabilistic terms. However, in the short term, low-dimensional chaotic systems can be predicted by fitting an appropriate functional model to the available data for reconstructing its underlying functional structure.

Suppose we are given a time series  $\mathbf{u}_n$ , obtained from a dynamical system given by a flow  $\dot{\mathbf{u}}(t) = F(\mathbf{u}(t))$ , sampled at equally spaced intervals  $t_n = n\tau$ ,  $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ . We are interested in approximating the functional model which characterizes the short-term evolution of the time series,  $\mathbf{u}_{n+p} = f(\mathbf{u}_n)$ , where  $f$  is given in terms of  $F$ , the sampling time  $\tau$ , and the prediction horizon  $p$ .

To this aim we shall consider simple feed-forward NNs with sigmoidal  $\sigma(x) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-x}}$  and linear activation functions for hidden and output layers, respectively. This type of network has shown to be an universal approximator for continuous (one hidden layer) or arbitrary (more than one hidden layer) functions [18]. The training process is carried out by considering input–output couples of the form  $(\mathbf{u}_n, \mathbf{u}_{n+p})$ , where  $p$  is the prediction horizon.

To illustrate the concepts we shall use the well known Lorenz model, given by the set of differential equations [19]:

$$(\dot{x}, \dot{y}, \dot{z}) = (\sigma(y - x), -xz + rx - y, xy - bz) \quad (1)$$

which we study for the parameter values  $\sigma = 10$ ,  $b = 8/3$ , and  $r = 28$ . Considering the initial conditions  $(x_0, y_0, z_0) = (-10, -5, 35)$  and using a fourth-order Runge-Kutta algorithm with a fixed time step  $\tau = 10^{-2}$ , we recorded a time series consisting of 2000 sample points. This

set was divided in two parts; the first one was used for training whereas the second one was reserved for testing the models.

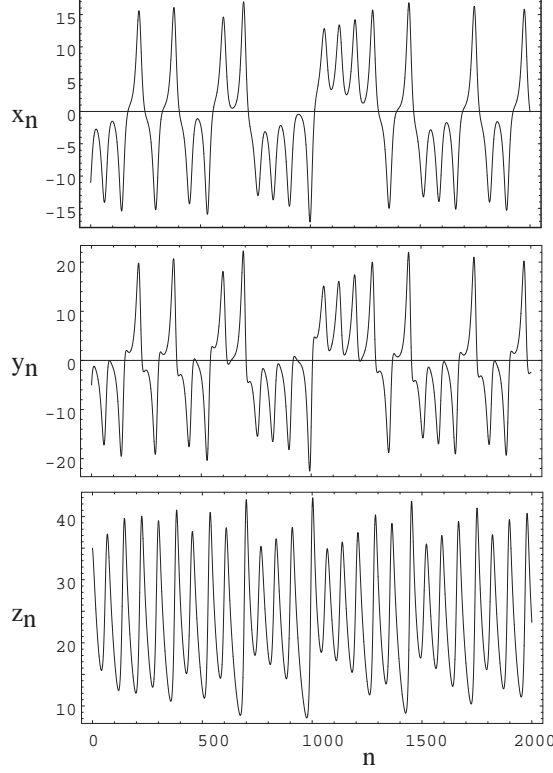


Figure 1: Time series of the Lorenz system obtained with a sample time  $\tau = 10^{-2}$ .

Since we are dealing with a continuous system, we have considered different NNs with three input neurons  $(x_n, y_n, z_n)$ , three output neurons  $(x_{n+1}, y_{n+1}, z_{n+1})$ , and a single hidden layer containing from one to twenty neurons (this type of architecture is usually referred to as a  $3 : a : 3$  feedforward network, where  $a$  is the number of hidden neurons). For each of these network structures, ten experiments were performed with different initial network weights, using the Levenberg-Marquardt method as training algorithm; the best solution in each case was considered as the representative neural approximate model. For instance, Figure 2(a) shows the errors obtained for predicting  $x$  variable with the best six hidden neurons NN obtained:

$$\hat{x}_{n+1} = -3768.18 - \frac{0.34}{1 + e^{9.31+0.53x_n-0.68y_n-0.21z_n}} + \frac{0.92}{1 + e^{7.64-0.121x_n-0.149y_n-0.13z_n}} - \frac{2.75}{1 + e^{6.19+0.15x_n+0.0451y_n-0.09z_n}} - \frac{2.04}{1 + e^{1.13+0.06x_n+0.0119y_n-0.06z_n}} + \frac{7164.31}{1 + e^{-0.12+0.00021x_n-0.0002y_n+0.000021z_n}} - \frac{63.52}{1 + e^{-0.24+0.08x_n-0.016y_n+0.0049z_n}}, \quad (2)$$

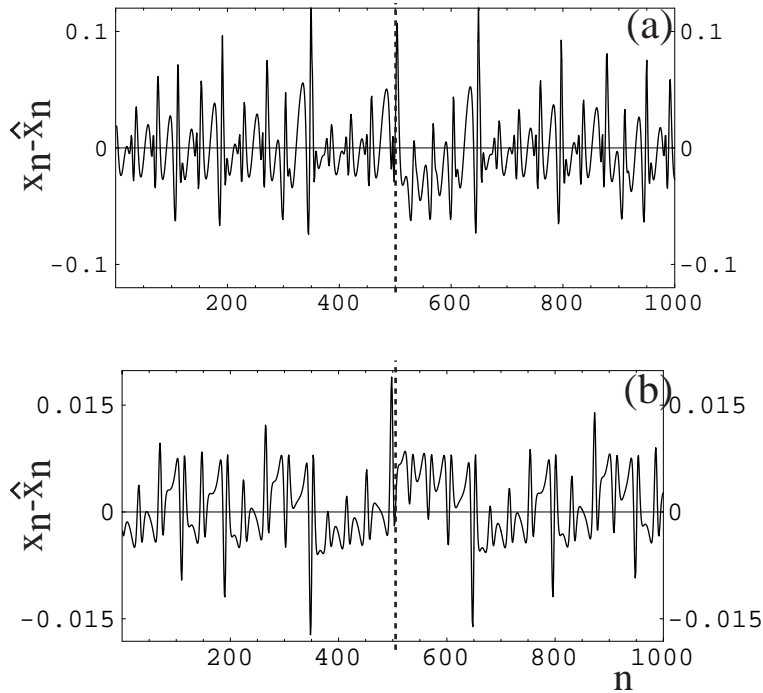


Figure 2: Residuals  $x_n - \hat{x}_n$  for two neural models with (a) six and (b) fifteen hidden units. The neural nets are trained with the first 500 points and a cross validation is performed with the last 500 points. No overfitting can be appreciated in the models.

which gives a Root Mean Square Error (RMSE) 0.133 for the training process, that is less than 0.5% the range of the corresponding variable, and 0.149 for the test data. These results clearly indicate a good performance of the neural model, since no overfitting is detected.

However, although the above analysis indicates a good accuracy in one-step ahead prediction using a six neuron NN, it is not clear that the obtained neural model can reproduce the dynamics of the Lorenz system. Figure 3 illustrates this fact by showing the evolution of two different NNs; in the first case, the neural system converges to a periodic trajectory (Fig. 3(a)), whereas in the second case it converges to a fixed point (Fig. 3(b)), neither of them resembling the chaotic behavior of the Lorenz model. As we have seen in this example, an interesting result obtained when training NNs with a low number of parameters is that the resulting orbits may not behave as the original chaotic system, but resemble some unstable periodic orbits embedded in the chaotic system. This fact may be caused by the simpler dynamics associated with unstable periodic orbits, and will be the scope of a future paper (see [16] for an introduction to unstable periodic orbits and their role in the topology of chaotic attractors).

When increasing the number of hidden neurons above ten, we found that the error decreases and the dynamical behavior of the obtained neural models resemble the original chaotic system. For instance, Figure 2(b) shows the training and test errors associated with a 15-neuron NN (note that this error is an order of magnitude lower than the one associated with the 6-neuron model shown in plate (a)). The training and test RMSE were 0.0221 and

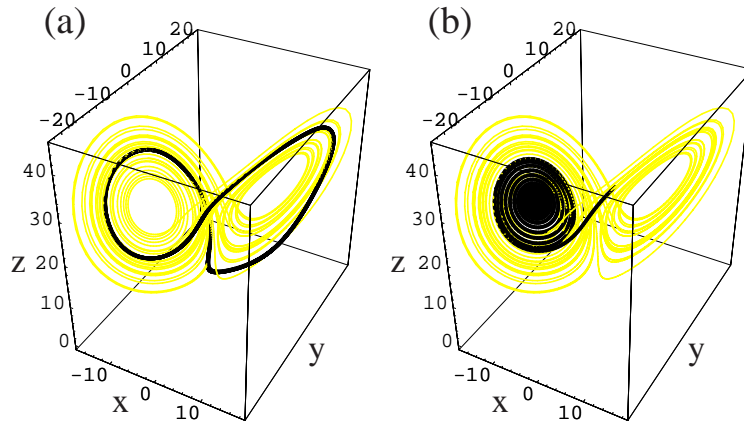


Figure 3: Phase space of two different 3 : 6 : 3 neural models trained with the same method, but starting from different initial weight configurations. The shadow in the background corresponds to the original chaotic orbit and is shown for illustrative purposes.

0.0237, respectively, which indicates that no overfitting occurs. Figure 4 shows the evolutions of the original and neural systems, starting at the same initial condition. The point where both systems start splitting away ( $\approx t = 3$ ) is approximately the threshold value imposed by the chaotic behavior in the numerical precision of the performed computations; therefore, it can be qualitatively stated that both systems behave similarly.

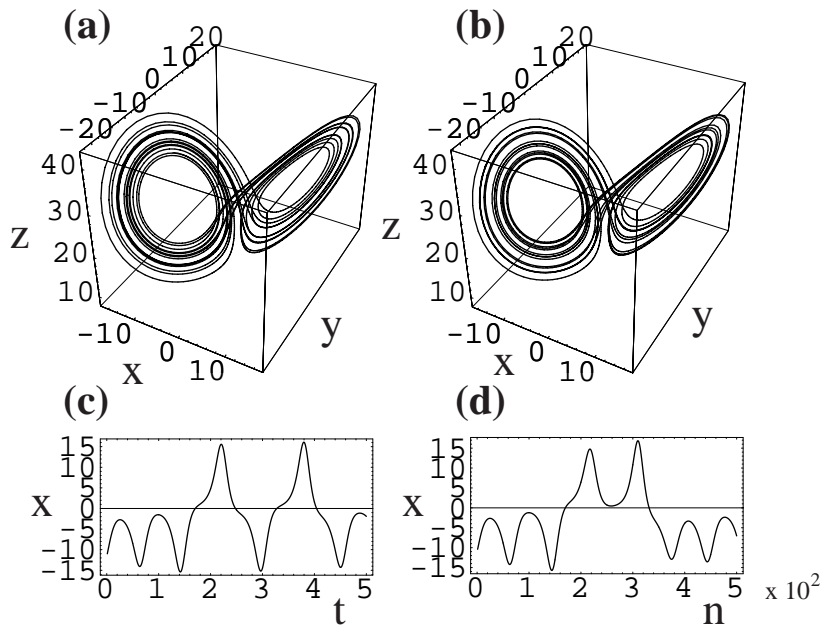


Figure 4: Phase and evolution spaces of (a) the Lorenz model and (b) an approximate neural model with 15 hidden neurons.

Finally, if we increase the number of hidden neurons above twenty, the training error continues decreasing but the neural models start overfitting the data. As a consequence, the behavior of these models present significant differences with the original system (we

have seen that most of the times the neural models asymptotically diverge to infinity). As a conclusion, a commitment between error minimization and dynamical reconstruction leads to optimal neural models ranging from 10 to 20 hidden neurons.

From the above experiments we have seen that the residual training or test errors do not provide a general criterion for determining a similar dynamical behavior between a given dynamical system and a neural approximate model. In the following sections we shall give such a criterion based on chaos synchronization; in this case we do not compare the prediction error, but the synchronization error between the systems.

### 3 Chaos Synchronization

In their seminal contribution Pecora and Carroll [17] showed that chaotic systems can be synchronized by linking them with common signals. At first sight, this is not an obvious result, since these systems are very sensitive to small perturbations on the initial conditions and, therefore, close orbits of the system quickly become uncorrelated. They consider the situation of unidirectional driving in which one has a couple of master-slave systems, and synchronization is achieved by injecting a signal from the master system into the slave.

Given a couple of identical autonomous chaotic systems,  $\mathbf{u}_1 = f(\mathbf{u}_1)$  and  $\mathbf{u}_2 = f(\mathbf{u}_2)$ , the basic idea of the Pecora-Carroll scheme is decomposing the first system (the master) into two subsystems,

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \dot{\mathbf{v}}_1 &= g(\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{w}_1) \\ \dot{\mathbf{w}}_1 &= h(\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{w}_1) \end{aligned} \right\} \text{master}, \quad (3)$$

where  $\mathbf{u} = (\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w})$ , and considering one of the decomposed subsystems as master signal, say  $v_1$ , to be injected into the slave system. This reduces the dimensionality of the slave becoming

$$\dot{\mathbf{w}}_2 = h(\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{w}_2) \} \text{response}, \quad (4)$$

where  $\mathbf{v}_1$  is the set of connecting variables. Note that the system (3) is independent of the response system, whereas (4) is driven by  $\mathbf{v}_1(\mathbf{t})$  (unidirectional driving). Then, the question is whether or not the subsystems  $\mathbf{u}_1$  and  $\mathbf{u}_2$  will synchronize, i.e., whether  $\|\mathbf{u}_1(t) - \mathbf{u}_2(t)\| \rightarrow 0$ , as  $t \rightarrow \infty$ . The answer to this question is given by the Lyapunov exponents of the difference system,  $\delta \dot{\mathbf{w}} = h(\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{w}_1) - h(\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{w}_2)$ , since they indicate if small displacements of trajectories are along stable or unstable directions. In the case of the Lorenz system these exponents are all negative when using  $x$  or  $y$  variables as driving signals, indicating that synchronization occurs.

This method is illustrated in Figure 5(a), which shows the evolution of the  $x$  variable for a couple of identical master and slave systems (1). They start at different initial points and evolve independently the first 500 iterations; afterwards both systems are connected by using  $y$  variable as driving signal and they quickly become synchronized, as indicated by the zero value difference shown in Figure 5(b).

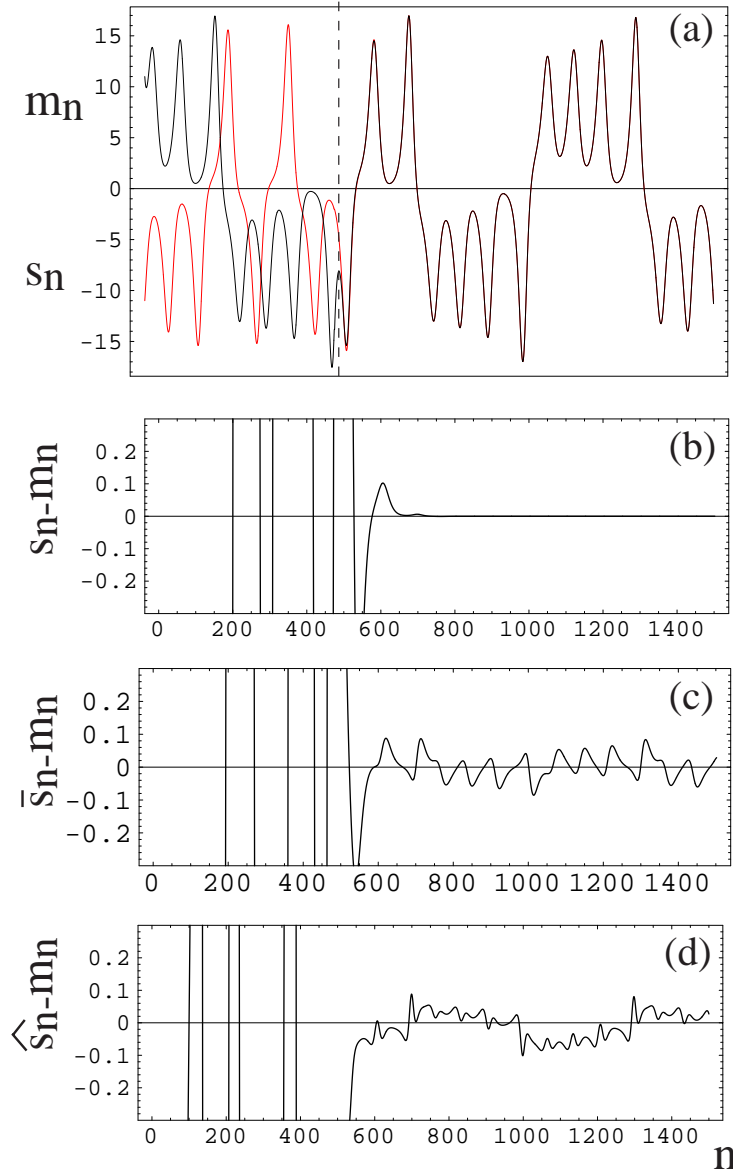


Figure 5: (a) Evolution of  $x$  variable for master  $m_n$  and slave  $s_n$  systems before and after synchronization; (b) synchronization error with two identical systems; (c) synchronization error with a perturbed slave system  $\bar{s}_n$ ; and (d) synchronization error with a neural approximate slave model  $\hat{s}_n$ .



Pecora and Carroll also showed that synchronization is robust to small perturbations on the system parameters (this situation is usually referred to as inhomogeneous driving); in this case the trajectories do not exactly match each other, but there is a residual error associated with the differences between the systems' parameters. For instance, Figure 5(c) shows the synchronization error resulting when considering a slave which is a slightly perturbed copy of the master system (the slave parameters have been randomly perturbed a 5% of their magnitude). From this figure we can see that the synchronization error is two orders of magnitude lower than the range of the corresponding  $x$  variable.

Finally, Figure 5(d) shows the synchronization error when considering as slave system the 15-neuron NN described in the previous section, obtained for approximating the dynamical behavior of the master system (1). The synchronization error is similar to the obtained in the previous case, when synchronizing the 5% perturbed slave system. Therefore, if we consider the residual synchronization error as a quantitative dynamic-similarity measure, we may argue that both the neural and perturbed systems are similar dynamical approximations of the original driving system.

## 4 Dealing with Experimental Time Series

The above ideas can be applied in a great variety of domains where nonlinear time series associated with problems of interest are available. However, a common problem with many of these time series is that they only represent a single scalar measurement of the system. For instance, Figure 6 shows a time series corresponding to a single scalar measurement (the intensity) of a  $NH_3$  infrared laser (this time series was used in the Santa Fe time series prediction competition [20]).

When the time series is obtained by sampling a single coordinate, say  $x$ , one can still obtain a faithful phase-state representation of the dynamics by considering, for example, the delay reconstruction space method [7] and taking as new coordinates the values  $x_i, x_{i-\tau}, x_{i-2\tau}, \dots, x_{i-d\tau}$ , where the parameters  $\tau$  (the delay factor) and  $d$  (the dimension of the delay embedding space) can be obtained from the time series. Using the mutual information of the time series we obtained a value  $\tau = 10$  and applying the method of false neighbors we obtained a value  $d = 6$ . Therefore, we considered a NN with 6 input neurons,  $(x_{n-10}, x_{n-20}, \dots, x_{n-60})$ , and a single output neuron  $x_n$  for approximating the dynamical system underlying the time series. Figure 6 shows the training errors obtained with a 6 : 5 : 5 : 1 neural network.

In order to check the similarity of the obtained neural model with the original dynamical system associated with the evolution of the time series, we consider the synchronization criterion given in the previous section. Since a single variable is available, we consider a modified synchronization algorithm [21] which injects a convex combination  $\epsilon v_1 + (1 - \epsilon)v_2$  of the master and slave systems as driving signal, thus keeping the dimensionality of the slave system (this method reduces to Pecora-Carroll when  $\epsilon = 0$ ).

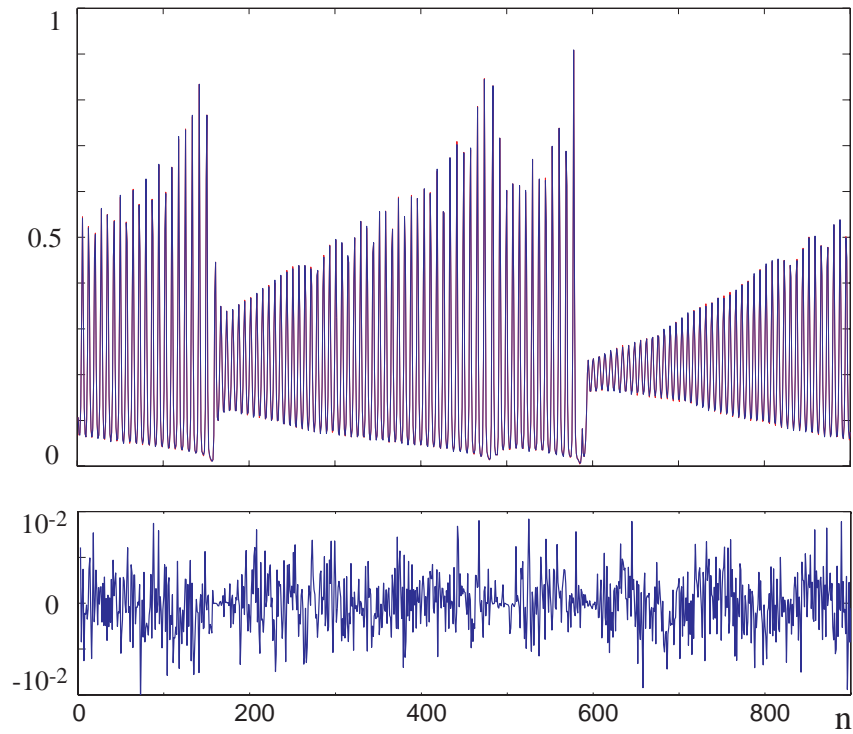


Figure 6: Time series corresponding to the intensity of a  $NH_3$  infrared laser (above); training errors for a 6 : 5 : 5 : 1 neural network (below).

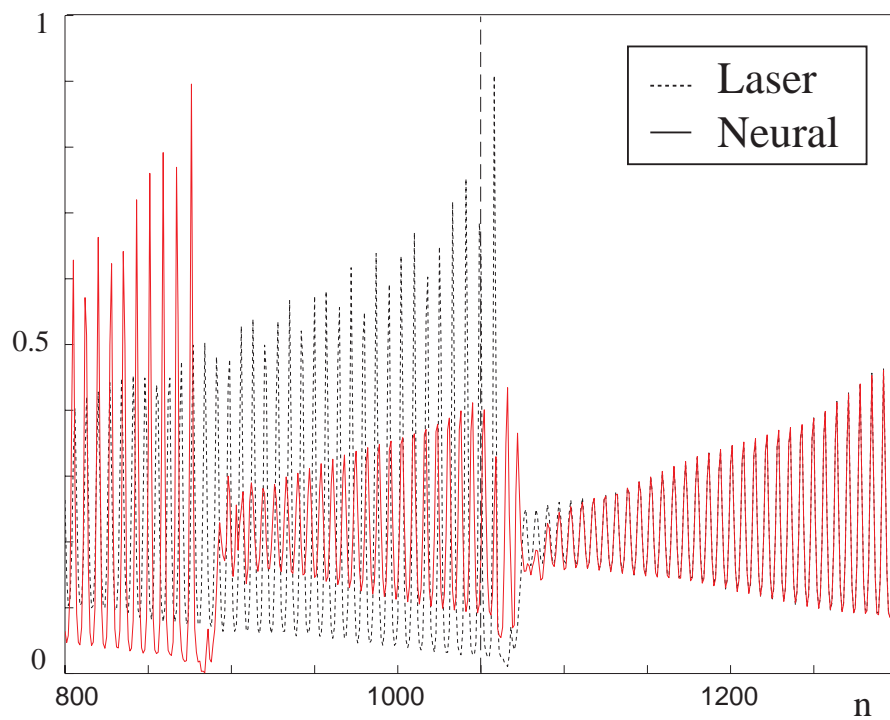


Figure 7: Synchronization of the laser time series and the neural model; the dashed line indicates the point where the synchronization algorithm is switched on.

Figure 7 shows the result obtained when applying the above algorithm using the laser time series as master system and the neural model as slave. This figure clearly shows that synchronization is quickly achieved, indicating that the neural model is a good approximation of the dynamical system underlying the data.

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