Confronting Domain Shift in Trained Neural Networks

Carianne Martinez CMARTI5@SANDIA.GOV

Sandia National Laboratories Arizona State University

David A. Najera-Flores DANAJER@SANDIA.GOV

ATA Engineering, Inc.

Adam R. Brink Arbrink@sandia.gov

Sandia National Laboratories

D. Dane Quinn QUINN@UAKRON.EDU

University of Akron

Eleni Chatzi Cha

ETH Zürich

Stephanie Forrest STEPH@ASU.EDU

Arizona State University Santa Fe Institute

Abstract

Neural networks (NNs) are known as universal function approximators and can interpolate nonlinear functions between observed data points. However, when the target domain for deployment shifts from the training domain and NNs must extrapolate, the results are notoriously poor. Prior work Martinez et al. (2019) has shown that NN uncertainty estimates can be used to correct binary predictions in shifted domains without retraining the model. We hypothesize that this approach can be extended to correct real-valued time series predictions. As an exemplar, we consider two mechanical systems with nonlinear dynamics. The first system consists of a spring-mass system where the stiffness changes abruptly, and the second is a real experimental system with a frictional joint that is an open challenge for structural dynamicists to model efficiently. Our experiments will test whether 1) NN uncertainty estimates can identify when the input domain has shifted from the training domain and 2) whether the information used to calculate uncertainty estimates can be used to correct the NN's time series predictions. While the method as proposed did not significantly improve predictions, our results did show potential for modifications that could improve models' predictions and play a role in structural health monitoring systems that directly impact public safety.

Keywords: Pre-registration, Machine Learning, Reduced Order Model, Uncertainty Quantification, Domain shift

1. Introduction

NNs have seen great success in accurately modeling nonlinear functions by learning directly from observed data. Techniques such as Transformers Vaswani et al. (2017) and Long Short Term Memory (LSTM) Hochreiter and Schmidhuber (1997) models have been applied to

sequential data and have demonstrated impressive capabilities in the field of natural language processing (NLP) Otter et al. (2020), excelling at tasks such as language translation Vaswani et al. (2017) and answering text based questions Devlin et al. (2018). These models have been extended to scientific domains where physical laws govern the dynamics of a system Najera-Flores and Brink (2018); Simpson et al. (2020); however, while the performance of a NN may be acceptable when the target domain is closely aligned with the training domain, its performance may degrade when the target domain deviates significantly from the training set. This limitation prevents them from use in high consequence environments such as those monitored by structural health monitoring (SHM) systems, where system failure directly implies that the dominant physics of the system shifts, and indications of this failure must be identified and mitigated to ensure public safety.

Techniques to improve deep learning (DL) model performance on targets that have shifted from the training domain have been proposed in the literature and will be discussed in Section 2. These methods often augment the training data set to more closely match the target deployment domain. They require expensive retraining of models and are not feasible when rapid approximations of system dynamics are necessary. Our approach removes the need for additional data or training by leveraging information that already exists in the weights of the trained model, realized in the form of uncertainty estimation. The exemplars set forth herein require efficient approximations of future system states and are critical for understanding the risks associated with deploying systems for industries like aviation Najera-Flores and Brink (2018). Prior work Martinez et al. (2019) introduced a technique to avoid the need for retraining DL models while extending their applicability to shifted target domains. Results from this work indicated that when the most uncertain predictions were flipped, segmentations were significantly improved. An example of a result from this technique is shown in Figure 1, where a NN trained on a particular image domain is extended for use in a shifted domain with improved predictive capability.

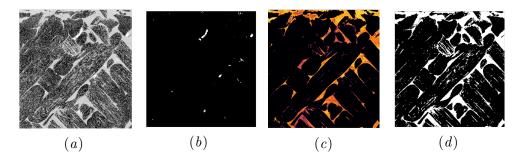


Figure 1: Results from Martinez et al. (2019) showing that uncertainty maps can be used directly to improved trained NN predictions. (a) Slices of CT scan to be segmented. (b) Predicted binary label for the CT slice from the trained NN without UQ correction. (c) Uncertainty map (brighter colors indicate higher uncertainty). (d) Resulting binary labels after UQ informed improvement.

We hypothesize that this technique can be extended from binary classification to timedependent regression, where patterns in the sequential input to the DL model can be used to 1) identify that domain shift is occurring and 2) improve the DL model's prediction without retraining. The anticipated contributions of this work are:

- A practical method for applying DL models to time series data in shifted domains
- New publicly available datasets from the structural dynamics field of well-defined physical systems
- Open source code implementation that allows replication and extension of our experimental results

2. Related work

The overfitting of DL models to a specific training domain is a known weakness of NNs, and current research efforts seek to overcome this shortfall. Here we review work on domain shift, DL uncertainty quantification, and the structural dynamics involved in our training domain.

2.1. DL model domain shift mitigation and uncertainty quantification

The problem of domain shift from a training domain to a target domain is an open and active area of DL research. Much of this work focuses on computer vision applications Venkateswara and Panchanathan (2020); for example, Stacke et al. (2019) studied the problem in the context of convolutional NNs and proposed a metric for identifying domain shift in images that leverages information about the NN weights. Other existing works focus on data augmentation, retraining models to better generalize, and training additional models. Sun and Saenko (2016) adds a CORAL loss function that works to effectively transform the features in the network itself to be relevant to a shifted domain. This approach requires unlabeled examples of the shifted domain to learn transformations in the feature space that will reduce the CORAL loss. Li et al. (2018) uses a generative model to Zhou and Li (2005) augment the data necessary to perform well in a shifted deployment domain. CyCADA Hoffman et al. (2017) also employs a generative model to align the shifted domain with the training domain using both pixel-level and feature-level transformations. In Ren et al. (2019), a likelihood ratio is introduced to overcome background statistics that are shown to drive overconfidence in generative model predictions. This method requires training of an additional background-specific model. Domain adaptation techniques Zhu et al. (2017); Sener et al. (2016) can also mitigate shifts in data by training separate models to preprocess the shifted inputs to more closely match the training domain. All of these approaches require additional resources, but in contrast, our proposed method actively uses uncertainty estimates to correct DL model predictions without retraining. Surveys of modern techniques for anomaly detection Wang et al. (2020); Braei and Wagner (2020) are also relevant as these approaches could be applied to detecting domain shift.

Several methods have been proposed to quantify uncertainty in DL model predictions. These include ensemble methods Lakshminarayanan et al. (2017), Bayesian NNs Neal

(2012), and dropout networks Gal and Ghahramani (2016). We implement dropout networks in this work to quantify the uncertainty in DL model predictions due to their ease of implementation and their effectiveness with only a single model to be trained.

2.2. Structural dynamics modeling and structural health monitoring (SHM)

We obtain our exemplar datasets from the field of structural dynamics, where applications such as reduced order modeling of complex systems control and SHM of complex systems require real-time detection of anomalous system behavior. In addition to a mechanical example where the system stiffness shifts dramatically, we will utilize experimental data from a jointed structural system. Frictional joints are well-studied Bickford (1926); Vlachas et al. (2020), but current reduced order models (ROMs) cannot practically capture the full extent of the underlying nonlinear physics. To mitigate error accumulation, autoregressive models, a form of NNs Saxén (1997), and k-step ahead prediction Favier and Dubois (1990) are typically used. The proposed corrective mechanism would advance modeling capabilities.

SHM is defined as a four-level hierarchy Rytter (1993); Farrar and Lieven (2007) aiming to detect, localize, quantify, and finally predict damage on the basis of data extracted from operating engineered systems. In doing so, a large body of recent literature explores utilization of ML and DL methods for damage prognosis. Many existing works focus on outlier classification for damage detection Bull et al. (2019). Generative modeling approaches attempt to reproduce joint probabilistic distributions from monitoring data in order to recognize distinct condition regimes Mylonas et al. (2020). For achieving the higher steps in the SHM hierarchy, physics-informed learning incorporates domain knowledge into the learning process Yuan et al. (2020). In this work, we treat this problem as adaptation to shifted domains.

3. Methodology

When a NN is trained to mimic time series data, it learns a mapping from patterns observed in previous time steps to the next data point in the time series. When time series deviates from the expected patterns, the NN could fail to make accurate predictions. If successful, our method will extend the applicability of trained NNs to mitigate domain shift by 1) recognizing that the input domain has shifted and 2) using uncertainty quantification to drive the predictions toward a corrective path.

Our method assumes that a NN with dropout layers used to quantify the uncertainty in its predictions is trained to approximate a real-valued function f(x,t). Input to the model is a sequence of values of f over a series of previous time steps along with the value of x at time t, and output is the value of f over a sequence of subsequent time steps. When the model's uncertainty exceeds a threshold value, instead of returning the model's nominal prediction for f at time t, our method updates the prediction to incorporate information from the calculated uncertainty to improve accuracy. Using the dropout technique set forth in Gal and Ghahramani (2016), we infer several predictions for f at time t with different subsets of neuron outputs dropped from the calculation, resulting in a distribution of predicted output values at each time step. Rather than leaving the uncertainty estimation as a simple indication of the model's confidence at time t, our method actively uses statistical properties of the distribution to serve as a corrective factor for the prediction of f at time t.

We will explore two corrective methods in this work: 1) We replace the nominal prediction with the mean of the prediction distribution and 2) We add the standard deviation of the prediction distribution to the nominal prediction in the direction of the distribution skew.

4. Experimental protocol

We will use two structural dynamics datasets to test our hypotheses and report results from two DL models. For both datasets, our intent is to answer the following questions:

- RQ1: Does the uncertainty value correctly detect a significant change in the model's accuracy?
- RQ2: Does the corrective factor informed by the uncertainty improve the accuracy of the prediction?

4.1. Datasets

We will first investigate our method's performance on a toy problem consisting of data drawn from simulations of a mass-spring system with one mass element and a fixed stiffness with varying initial conditions, and loaded under a known force. We will also generate simulated data where the stiffness of the spring abruptly changes during the simulation. The data will consist of a time series of the force on the mass as well as the displacement of the mass, and initial system conditions.

A more challenging dataset will be derived from experimental measurements of a frictional jointed structure subject to a known force. A schematic of the system is shown in Figure 2. This dataset will include the initial conditions, the load on the structure, and accelerometer and displacement measurements from various positions in the structure. We will also develop a reduced order model (ROM) of the system that will predict the displacement over time of structural mass elements. The ability of ROMs for jointed structures to match experimental data is known to degrade as the structural loading on the joint increases and the nonlinear dynamics induced by the joint become more significant.

Each dataset will consist of approximately 100,000 time steps per example, and the simulations will use on the order of 100 different initial conditions.

4.2. Model training

We will implement both a WaveNet with a stack of dilations of size [1,2,4,8] and a receptive field of length 128 as in Oord et al. (2016) and a Transformer with the base model architecture as presented in Vaswani et al. (2017), each of which have seen success in predicting sequential data. For WaveNet, we will apply dropout to all convolutional layers. For Transformer, we will apply dropout only to the decoder portion of the network, since we have observed that dropout in encoding layers removes input information necessary for useful encodings. Each model will be evaluated on both datasets.

For the mass-spring system, our DL models will be given the system's initial conditions, the force on the mass elements at each time step as well as the displacement of the mass elements over a series of previous time steps, and will be used to predict the displacements at the next time step. After training on several examples from this system, we will introduce

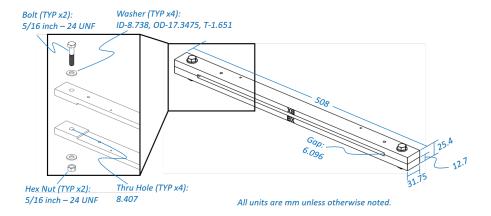


Figure 2: Schematic of jointed structural system from Brink et al. (2020) used to obtain displacement dataset.

an input series to the trained model that simulates an abrupt change to the spring's stiffness and apply our corrective factor to improve the predictions of the mass displacement.

For the jointed structure, our DL models will be trained to learn the system dynamics solely from the ROM data and will learn to predict the displacement of each discretized mass element modeled by the ROM. We will then apply our trained DL model on the experimental structure data, where the output with the corrective factor will be used to predict the next time step of the displacements in the real structure. The key idea here is that our ROM will be unable to capture all of the physics necessary to predict the true system dynamics, and that our DL model will identify that the real inputs have shifted from the training domain, and compensate for the missing physics.

One of the primary challenges of employing neural network for predictions in the time domain is the accumulation of error that arises from recursion. To mitigate this challenge, we will enforce physical constraints through the loss function. Terms that require conservation of energy and momentum will encourage the network to learn not only the target output, but its derivatives and the relationship between them. A byproduct of this constraint is that the problem is bounded to produce high-quality predictions in the physical domain in which it was trained. When presented with data from outside its domain, the prediction uncertainty will increase as the physical constraints are harder to enforce.

4.3. Evaluation and significance

We are interested in the impact of our method on the accuracy of sequential predictions, and first must establish baseline behavior of each DL model. We will use the Adam optimizer Kingma and Ba (2015) with learning rate 0.001, $\beta_1 = 0.9$, $\beta_2 = 0.999$, and $\epsilon = 1\text{e-8}$ (the default Keras Chollet et al. (2015) settings) with dropout rate of 0.1 for both training and inference to calculate uncertainty. We will exhaustively evaluate each baseline DL model over input sequences of 32, 64, and 128 time steps and output sequence lengths of 1,2,3, and 4. We have proposed these specific hyperparameter settings for concreteness, but we intend to explore other settings such as the dropout rate and the uncertainty threshold

value as appropriate to establish baseline performance of the models. We will use the most accurate WaveNet and Transformer model to evaluate the efficacy of our corrective method by calculating the mean squared error with respect to the ground truth sequences with and without our method's corrective factor. From the output of the two competing models, we will estimate the distributions of residuals to quantify the statistical significance of our model improvements using a dependent two-sample t-test or the Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney U-test as applicable.

When employing our method, we will make 48 predictions for each time step and use the distribution of predictions to correct the prediction if the standard deviation of the distribution of predictions exceeds 10% of the value of the nominal prediction for the next time step. We will explore two corrective factors: 1) the mean of the predictions and 2) the addition of the standard deviation in the direction of the skew of the prediction distribution.

While DL remains a powerful tool for modeling complex systems, its inability to overcome domain shift severely limits its successful deployment. If we achieve a positive result from these experiments, we will unlock the potential of repurposing unused latent features for improved DL generalization.

5. Documented Modifications

This section describes the modifications we made to the experimental protocols described above.

- Frictional jointed structure dataset: We developed a ROM for the frictional jointed structure, based on the experimental data. However, the experimental dataset was insufficient to map accelerometer measurements directly to the simulated structure locations in the ROM. Therefore, instead of comparing the ROM output to the experimental data directly, we trained our DL models on the displacement time series output from the ROM at a point 40% along the beam with fixed initial conditions. Our ROM incorporated a cubic stiffness coefficient k to account for the nonlinearity introduced by the presence of the frictional joint. During DL training we set $k = 1 \times 10^7$, which is representative of the response observed in the experimental system for nominal excitation levels. We then used the ROM to generate three displacement time series with the same initial conditions as the training set, but with $k \in \{2 \times 10^8, 4 \times 10^8, 1 \times 10^9\}$ to simulate a domain shift similar to what we expected to observe in experimental data.
- **DL Models:** We modified open source PyTorch versions of the Transformer Guhr et al. (2020) and WaveNet Hermann et al. (2018) architectures to add dropout layers for uncertainty quantification. Physics constraints were not required to achieve high accuracy in each training domain, so we did not incorporate physics into the models. Instead, the models rely on the system response (displacement) at the previous timesteps to make their predictions.
- Uncertainty threshold criterion: We originally proposed to consider any prediction with uncertainty greater than ten percent of the predicted value to be indicative of domain shift and requiring corrective action. However, when running experiments

we observed that even in the training domain, several predictions had an estimated uncertainty greater than 10% of the predicted value. We report these, but we also experimented with an alternative uncertainty threshold criterion. The alternative uses the maximum uncertainty observed over an inference run of the training data as a baseline and considers any prediction with estimated uncertainty greater than the maximum value to indicate a domain shift.

• **Abstract:** The abstract was modified to reflect our findings.

6. Results

This section reports experimental results from two datasets: the mass-spring and the jointed structure.

6.1. Dataset details

For the mass-spring dataset, we developed a MATLAB simulator for a single degree-of-freedom mechanical oscillator system with linear and nonlinear stiffness. In particular, the stiffness coefficient k of the cubic nonlinearity can be varied, introducing the domain shift in the system response while the remaining system parameters are held constant. That is, the underlying linear system doesn't change, and the domain shift is simulated with an abrupt change to the nonlinearity. We simulated displacement outputs for k=8, 16, 32, and 64, and for each k, we used 245 different sets of initial conditions representing different the initial modal displacements.

Each time series consists of 2,097,151 steps, which we downsampled by a factor of 400 for training and inference. We chose k=32 for training, and for each set of initial conditions, we trained a model using the first 3000 time steps, the next 1242 steps for validation, and held out the last 1000 time steps for testing. To simulate a sudden stiffness change and generate datasets with shifted domains, we concatenated part of the time series from the training domain (k=32) with part of the time series from a shifted domain $k \in \{8, 16, 64\}$, each with the same initial conditions. This process generated three datasets, each with a different level of domain shift.

The jointed structure dataset consists of four displacement time series generated by our ROM, described in Section 5. We downsampled these data by a factor of 100 and used the data with $k = 1 \times 10^7$ for training.

6.2. Model selection

We used the mass-spring dataset with cubic stiffness coefficient k=32 to select the best performing versions of each model architecture. We found that an input window of 128 and an output window of 4 gave the best average mean squared error over the 245 test examples for the Transformer, and the WaveNet performed best with an input window of 64 and output window 1. We tested each model version over 128 total inference steps. All experiments were conducted with these best architecture versions. We trained separate models for each of the 245 initial conditions for the mass-spring dataset and one model for the jointed structure's training domain.

6.3. Domain shift metrics

For domain shift detection, we calculated the percentage of experiments in which the uncertainty of a prediction exceeded the preselected threshold.

We also report false positive detection rates: i.e., the percentage of experiments in which the uncertainty exceeded the threshold prior to the domain shift event. Results for both the originally proposed 10% threshold and the maximum training uncertainty threshold are shown in Table 1.

(a)				(b)			
k	Model	Detection	\mathbf{FP}	k	Model	Detection	
8	WaveNet	0.984	0.980	8	WaveNet	0.412	0
16	WaveNet	0.984	0.980	16	WaveNet	0.416	0
64	WaveNet	1.0	0.980	64	WaveNet	0.608	0
8	Transformer	0.996	0.808	8	Transformer	0.796	0
16	Transformer	0.996	0.808	16	Transformer	0.776	0
64	Transforer	0.996	0.808	64	Transformer	0.914	0

Table 1: Domain shift detection rate (Detection) and false positive rate (FP) for mass-spring datasets with (a) 10% uncertainty threshold and (b) training set maximum uncertainty threshold.

6.4. Prediction correction metrics

Table 2 shows results for each of the mass-spring datasets with different values of k. Since the cubic stiffness (k) is driving the domain shift, the data with k=16 is qualitatively the closest to that of the training set with k=32. We evaluate performance by calculating the mean squared error over 128 inference steps with respect to the ground truth data for both the Transformer and WaveNet models: (1) with no corrective action; (2) when uncertain predictions are replaced by the mean over Monte Carlo (MC) prediction samples for the timestep, denoted as "Mean correction"; and (3) with uncertain predictions replaced by the prediction plus the standard deviation over MC predictions for timesteps when the majority of MC prediction minus the standard deviation over MC predictions for timesteps when the majority of MC predictions is less than the unaltered prediction, denoted as "Skew correction". Table 3 reports results for each of the frictional jointed structure datasets, evaluated over 800 timesteps.

7. Findings

We next present our conclusions based on the results and outline directions for future work. To answer RQ1, we review the domain shift detection metrics shown in Table 1. Our results show that the originally proposed 10% uncertainty threshold is exceeded by the vast

/		١
1	α	

k	Model	No correction	Mean correction	Skew correction
8	WaveNet	0.00148 +/- 0.00181	0.00159 + / - 0.00187	0.00450 + / - 0.00558
16	WaveNet	0.00126 + / - 0.00161	0.00136 + / - 0.00168	0.00413 + / - 0.00531
64	WaveNet	0.00236 +/- 0.00326	0.00237 + / - 0.00321	0.00511 + / - 0.00892
8	Transformer	0.07379 + / - 0.07971	0.07349 + / - 0.07991	0.07252 + / - 0.07898
16	Transformer	0.04435 + / - 0.04856	0.04408 + / - 0.04814	$0.04354 + / -\ 0.04756$
64	Transformer	0.07689 + / - 0.08116	0.07632 + / - 0.08129	0.07627 + / - 0.08077
			(b)	
			()	
\overline{k}	Model	No correction	Mean correction	Skew correction
$\frac{k}{8}$	Model WaveNet	No correction 0.00148 +/- 0.00181		Skew correction 0.00159 +/- 0.00187
			Mean correction	
8	WaveNet	0.00148 +/- 0.00181	Mean correction 0.00149 +/- 0.00181	0.00159 +/- 0.00187 0.00135 +/- 0.00164
8 16	WaveNet WaveNet	0.00148 +/- 0.00181 0.00126 +/- 0.00161	Mean correction 0.00149 +/- 0.00181 0.00126 +/- 0.00160	0.00159 +/- 0.00187 0.00135 +/- 0.00164
8 16 64	WaveNet WaveNet WaveNet	0.00148 +/- 0.00181 0.00126 +/- 0.00161 0.00236 +/- 0.00326	Mean correction 0.00149 +/- 0.00181 0.00126 +/- 0.00160 0.00234 +/- 0.0032	0.00159 +/- 0.00187 0.00135 +/- 0.00164 0.00248 +/- 0.00325

Table 2: Average mean squared error of model predictions over mass-spring datasets with cubic stiffness k with and without uncertainty-driven correction with a threshold of (a) 10% and (b) the training set max uncertainty. The best result for each model type on each dataset is shown in boldface. Corrections often fail to improve the WaveNet's predictions while the Transformer using the Skew correction strategy achieves the lowest average error, but not with statistically significant improvements to predictions.

$\overline{}$	Model	Threshold	No correction	Mean correction	Skew correction
1×10^{9}	Transformer	10%	6.27×10^{-6}	$5.91 imes10^{-6}$	6.36×10^{-6}
2×10^8	Transformer	10%	8.93×10^{-6}	8.21×10^{-6}	$6.64 imes10^{-6}$
4×10^{8}	Transformer	10%	8.89×10^{-6}	8.18×10^{-6}	6.69×10^{-6}
1×10^9	Transformer	train max	6.27×10^{-6}	6.26×10^{-6}	6.04×10^{-6}
2×10^8	Transformer	train max	8.93×10^{-6}	8.93×10^{-6}	$8.89 imes10^{-6}$
4×10^8	Transformer	train max	8.89×10^{-6}	8.89×10^{-6}	8.85×10^{-6}
1×10^{9}	WaveNet	10%	$\boldsymbol{2.37\times10^{-7}}$	2.68×10^{-7}	9.29×10^{-7}
2×10^8	WaveNet	10%	2.11×10^{-7}	$1.53 imes10^{-7}$	6.25×10^{-7}
4×10^8	WaveNet	10%	2.09×10^{-7}	1.54×10^{-7}	6.36×10^{-7}
1×10^{9}	WaveNet	train max	$2.37 imes10^{-7}$	2.37×10^{-7}	2.39×10^{-7}
2×10^8	WaveNet	train max	$2.11 imes10^{-7}$	2.11×10^{-7}	2.11×10^{-7}
4×10^8	WaveNet	train max	$\boldsymbol{2.09 \times 10^{-7}}$	2.09×10^{-7}	2.09×10^{-7}

Table 3: Average mean squared error of model predictions for the frictional jointed structure datasets with cubic stiffness k, with and without an uncertainty-driven correction. The best result for each model type on each dataset is shown in bold. The models corrected by our method achieve the lowest prediction error on average, although the improvements are not statistically significant.

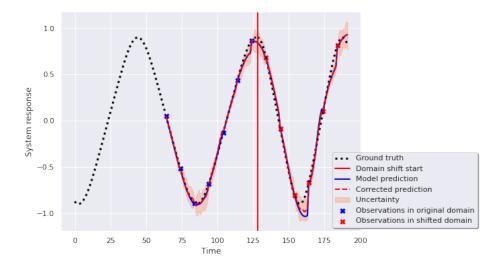


Figure 3: WaveNet results for the mass-spring dataset with k=64. The domain shift is indicated by the vertical red line, i.e., the frequency of the ground truth data increases. The original WaveNet prediction with no corrective action is indicated by the solid blue line, and the corrected prediction using the mean corrective strategy is indicated by the dashed red line. When uncertainty is high after the domain shift between time 150 and 175, the corrective strategy is triggered, and the model's prediction is improved.

majority of test examples, but the false positive rate is unacceptably high for the proposed use case of detecting domain shift. We calculated the alternative threshold based on the maximum uncertainty of a model's predictions on examples within its training domain. The detection rate decreases significantly for both the WaveNet and Transformer models, but the Transformer's false positive rate drops to below 10%. These results suggest that the Transformer is a superior detector for this application with an F1 score of 0.87 compared to that of the WaveNet at 0.52. This result points to the importance of selecting appropriate criteria for identifying a domain shift. Although varying the threshold was not within the original scope of this study, our additional experiment showed that the method's performance can be improved by using a more reliable criterion.

For RQ2, we review the results in Table 2 and Table 3. For the mass-spring data, the Transformer with the skew correction method achieved the best performance relative to the uncorrected model predictions on average. The WaveNet model performed better on only the mass-spring dataset with k=64 and the training set maximum uncertainty threshold. For the frictional jointed structure data, the Transformer again achieved a lower mean squared error on average, but here the correction methods performed differently depending on the dataset. For the data with the most extreme shift from the training domain, the mean correction method performed the best using the 10% threshold. The skew correction method was on average better for all other data. For all datasets as a whole, the improvements were not statistically significant; however, ss shown in the tables, there is significant variance in

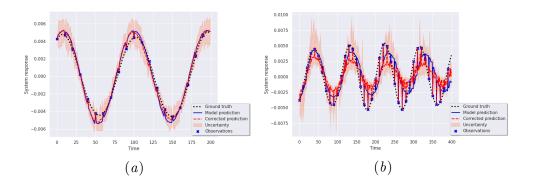


Figure 4: Frictional jointed structure dataset when the entire time series has shifted from the training domain. Original model predictions with no corrective action are indicated by the solid blue line, and corrected predictions are shown by the dashed red line. (a) WaveNet results with $k=4\times10^8$ using the mean corrective strategy. (b) Transformer results with $k=4\times10^8$ using the skew correction strategy. The WaveNet models handle domain shift well in many cases and require little correction. The Transformer models generally accumulated more error and produced noisier predictions. Corrective actions in each case made small improvements to predictions.

the results. For some individual time series in the mass-spring dataset, our method improves the accuracy of displacement predictions significantly when considering the distribution of error over the timesteps for the single example. The mass-spring dataset with k=64 shows the largest average margin of improvement over the baseline; however, in 40.8% of the test examples, the mean squared error of the model's predictions was lower without the corrective methods (compared with 49.8% where the skew correction was best). Further investigation is warranted to investigate the reasons for this discrepancy.

Although our observed improvements are modest, Figure 3 and Figure 4(a) show examples from the mass-spring and the frictional jointed structure datasets, respectively, where the mean corrective strategy improves the WaveNet's prediction. The small improvement between timesteps 150 and 175 in Figure 3 and at the lower extremes of the system response in Figure 4(a) typify the experiments in which our methods reduced the model error.

We leave the investigation of the discrepancy between our results with the WaveNet and Transformer architectures for future work, but we hypothesize that the generalization ability of each model is a significant factor. To summarize, the WaveNet predicted better overall in the shifted domains and required less correction.

Figure 4(b) shows an example of the error accumulation and noisy Transformer prediction in the shifted domain of the frictional jointed structure data. Again, our method makes minor improvements to the prediction.

8. Conclusion

In this paper, we proposed a set of experiments to test the hypothesis that neural network uncertainty can be used to detect domain shift and actively correct time series predictions without retraining. We could often detect domain shift using this approach, but we also saw relatively high false-positive rates. False positives were reduced significantly when we changed the threshold from a constant percentage to one based on the uncertainty of the model's predictions within its training domain. The topic of threshold selection thus presents opportunities for further exploration. Although the false-positive predictions do not indicate a true domain shift, uncertainty apparently increases over time as error accumulates and the quality of the model's predictions deteriorate. We speculate that our approach might therefore prove useful for the structural dynamics domain as a general indicator of model error rather than a method for identifying a specific domain shift. This is an interesting direction for future work.

Although the corrective factors we tested did not achieve statistically significant improvements to model prediction, our choice of corrective factor was made a priori. More aggressive corrections may improve results, although additional experiments are needed to determine the best path forward. For example, we intend to explore data assimilation techniques to improve our results in future work. The code and data used to generate our results are publicly available at: https://github.com/sandialabs.

Acknowledgments

We thank Matthew D. Smith, Veronica Jones, Justin Jacobs, Benjamin Edwards, Drew Levin, Kevin Potter, and Demitri Maestas for their insightful comments and suggestions.

This paper describes objective technical results and analysis. Any subjective views or opinions that might be expressed in the paper do not necessarily represent the views of the U.S. Department of Energy or the United States Government. Sandia National Laboratories is a multimission laboratory managed and operated by National Technology and Engineering Solutions of Sandia, LLC., a wholly owned subsidiary of Honeywell International, Inc., for the U.S. Department of Energy's National Nuclear Security Administration under contract DE-NA-0003525. This manuscript has been authored by National Technology & Engineering Solutions of Sandia, LLC. under Contract No. DE-NA0003525 with the U.S. Department of Energy/National Nuclear Security Administration. The United States Government retains and the publisher, by accepting the article for publication, acknowledges that the United States Government retains a non-exclusive, paid-up, irrevocable, world-wide license to publish or reproduce the published form of this manuscript, or allow others to do so, for United States Government purposes. SAND2021-7636 J

References

J.H. Bickford. *Introduction to the Design and Behavior of Bolted Joints*, volume 4th Edition. CRC Press, 1926.

Mohammad Braei and Sebastian Wagner. Anomaly detection in univariate time-series: A survey on the state-of-the-art. arXiv preprint arXiv:2004.00433, 2020.

- Adam R Brink, Robert J Kuether, Matthew D Fronk, Bryan L Witt, and Brendan L Nation. Contact stress and linearized modal predictions of as-built preloaded assembly. *Journal of Vibration and Acoustics*, 142(5), 2020.
- LA Bull, TJ Rogers, C Wickramarachchi, EJ Cross, K Worden, and N Dervilis. Probabilistic active learning: An online framework for structural health monitoring. *Mechanical Systems and Signal Processing*, 134:106294, 2019.
- François Chollet et al. Keras. https://keras.io, 2015.
- Jacob Devlin, Ming-Wei Chang, Kenton Lee, and Kristina Toutanova. Bert: Pretraining of deep bidirectional transformers for language understanding. arXiv preprint arXiv:1810.04805, 2018.
- Charles R Farrar and Nick AJ Lieven. Damage prognosis: the future of structural health monitoring. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society A: Mathematical, Physical and Engineering Sciences*, 365(1851):623–632, 2007.
- Gérard Favier and D Dubois. A review of k-step-ahead predictors. *Automatica*, 26(1):75–84, 1990.
- Yarin Gal and Zoubin Ghahramani. Dropout as a bayesian approximation: Representing model uncertainty in deep learning. In *Proceedings of the 33rd International Conference on Machine Learning*, 2016.
- Oliver Guhr et al. Transformer time series prediction. https://github.com/oliverguhr/transformer-time-series-prediction, 2020.
- Vincent Hermann et al. Pytorch-wavenet. https://github.com/vincentherrmann/pytorch-wavenet, 2018.
- Sepp Hochreiter and Jürgen Schmidhuber. Long short-term memory. *Neural computation*, 9(8):1735–1780, 1997.
- Judy Hoffman, Eric Tzeng, Taesung Park, Jun-Yan Zhu, Phillip Isola, Kate Saenko, Alexei A Efros, and Trevor Darrell. Cycada: Cycle-consistent adversarial domain adaptation. arXiv preprint arXiv:1711.03213, 2017.
- Diederik P. Kingma and Jimmy Lei Ba. Adam: A method for stochastic optimization. In *Proceedings of the 3rd International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2015.
- Balaji Lakshminarayanan, Alexander Pritzel, and Charles Blundell. Simple and scalable predictive uncertainty estimation using deep ensembles. In *Proceedings of the 30th Conference on Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 2017.
- Xiang Li, Wei Zhang, and Qian Ding. Cross-domain fault diagnosis of rolling element bearings using deep generative neural networks. *IEEE Transactions on Industrial Electronics*, 66(7):5525–5534, 2018.

- Carianne Martinez, Kevin M Potter, Matthew D Smith, Emily A Donahue, Lincoln Collins, John P Korbin, and Scott A Roberts. Segmentation certainty through uncertainty: Uncertainty-refined binary volumetric segmentation under multifactor domain shift. In Proceedings of the IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition Workshops, 2019.
- Charilaos Mylonas, Imad Abdallah, and EN Chatzi. Deep unsupervised learning for condition monitoring and prediction of high dimensional data with application on windfarm scada data. In *Model Validation and Uncertainty Quantification*, *Volume 3*, pages 189–196. Springer, 2020.
- David Aaron Najera-Flores and Adam Ray Brink. Efficient random vibration analysis of nonlinear systems with long short-term memory networks for uncertainty quantification. In Proceedings of ISMA 2018 International Conference on Noise and Vibration Engineering and USD2018 International Conference on Uncertainty in Structural Dynamics, 2018.
- Radford M Neal. Bayesian learning for neural networks, volume 118. Springer Science & Business Media, 2012.
- Aaron van den Oord, Sander Dieleman, Heiga Zen, Karen Simonyan, Oriol Vinyals, Alex Graves, Nal Kalchbrenner, Andrew Senior, and Koray Kavukcuoglu. Wavenet: A generative model for raw audio. arXiv preprint arXiv:1609.03499, 2016.
- Daniel W Otter, Julian R Medina, and Jugal K Kalita. A survey of the usages of deep learning for natural language processing. *IEEE Transactions on Neural Networks and Learning Systems*, 2020.
- Jie Ren, Peter J Liu, Emily Fertig, Jasper Snoek, Ryan Poplin, Mark Depristo, Joshua Dillon, and Balaji Lakshminarayanan. Likelihood ratios for out-of-distribution detection. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, pages 14707–14718, 2019.
- Anders Rytter. Vibrational based inspection of civil engineering structures. PhD thesis, Dept. of Building Technology and Structural Engineering, Aalborg University, 1993.
- Henrik Saxén. On the equivalence between arma models and simple recurrent neural networks. In *Applications of Computer Aided Time Series Modeling*, pages 281–289. Springer, 1997.
- Ozan Sener, Hyun Oh Song, Ashutosh Saxena, and Silvio Savarese. Learning transferrable representations for unsupervised domain adaptation. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, pages 2110–2118, 2016.
- Thomas Simpson, Nikolaos Dervilis, and Eleni Chatzi. On the use of nonlinear normal modes for nonlinear reduced order modelling. arXiv preprint arXiv:2007.00466, 2020.
- Karin Stacke, Gabriel Eilertsen, Jonas Unger, and Claes Lundström. A closer look at domain shift for deep learning in histopathology. arXiv preprint arXiv:1909.11575, 2019.

- Baochen Sun and Kate Saenko. Deep coral: Correlation alignment for deep domain adaptation. In *European Conference on Computer Vision*, pages 443–450. Springer, 2016.
- Ashish Vaswani, Noam Shazeer, Niki Parmar, Jakob Uszkoreit, Llion Jones, Aidan N Gomez, Łukasz Kaiser, and Illia Polosukhin. Attention is all you need. In Advances in neural information processing systems, pages 5998–6008, 2017.
- Hemanth Venkateswara and Sethuraman Panchanathan. Domain adaptation in computer vision with deep learning, 2020.
- Konstantinos Vlachas, Konstantinos Tatsis, Konstantinos Agathos, Adam R Brink, and Eleni Chatzi. A local basis approximation approach for nonlinear parametric model order reduction. arXiv preprint arXiv:2003.07716, 2020.
- Ruoying Wang, Kexin Nie, Tie Wang, Yang Yang, and Bo Long. Deep learning for anomaly detection. In *Proceedings of the 13th International Conference on Web Search and Data Mining*, pages 894–896, 2020.
- Fuh-Gwo Yuan, Sakib Ashraf Zargar, Qiuyi Chen, and Shaohan Wang. Machine learning for structural health monitoring: challenges and opportunities. In Sensors and Smart Structures Technologies for Civil, Mechanical, and Aerospace Systems 2020, volume 11379, page 1137903. International Society for Optics and Photonics, 2020.
- Zhi-Hua Zhou and Ming Li. Tri-training: Exploiting unlabeled data using three classifiers. *IEEE Transactions on Knowledge & Data Engineering*, (11):1529–1541, 2005.
- Jun-Yan Zhu, Taesung Park, Phillip Isola, and Alexei A Efros. Unpaired image-to-image translation using cycle-consistent adversarial networks. In *Proceedings of the IEEE international conference on computer vision*, pages 2223–2232, 2017.