
Abstain Mask Retain Core: Time Series Prediction by Adaptive Masking Loss with Representation Consistency

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Abstract

1 Time series forecasting plays a pivotal role in critical domains such as energy management
2 and financial markets. Although deep learning-based approaches (e.g.,
3 MLP, RNN, Transformer) have achieved remarkable progress, the prevailing "long-
4 sequence information gain hypothesis" exhibits inherent limitations. Through
5 systematic experimentation, this study reveals a counterintuitive phenomenon:
6 appropriately truncating historical data can paradoxically enhance prediction ac-
7 curacy, indicating that existing models learn substantial redundant features (e.g.,
8 noise or irrelevant fluctuations) during training, thereby compromising effective
9 signal extraction. Building upon information bottleneck theory, we propose an
10 innovative solution termed Adaptive Masking Loss with Representation Consis-
11 tency (AMRC), which features two core components: 1) Dynamic masking loss,
12 which adaptively identified highly discriminative temporal segments to guide gra-
13 dient descent during model training; 2) Representation consistency constraint,
14 which stabilized the mapping relationships among inputs, labels, and predictions.
15 Experimental results demonstrate that AMRC effectively suppresses redundant
16 feature learning while significantly improving model performance. This work
17 not only challenges conventional assumptions in temporal modeling but also pro-
18 vides novel theoretical insights and methodological breakthroughs for developing
19 efficient and robust forecasting models. We have made our code available at
20 <https://anonymous.4open.science/r/AMRC/>.

21

1 Introduction

22 Time series forecasting, as a pivotal technology in critical domains such as energy management
23 and financial markets, directly influences decision-making quality and economic efficiency [11,
24 18, 12, 19, 22]. Recent breakthroughs in deep learning have driven revolutionary advancements in
25 time series prediction. Contemporary frameworks including Multilayer Perceptron (MLP)-based
26 architectures [17, 30, 7, 27, 4, 28], Recurrent Neural Networks (RNNs) with their variants [13, 21, 9],
27 and attention mechanism-based models exemplified by the Transformer [20, 33, 32, 16, 34, 2, 6], have
28 achieved remarkable breakthroughs in modeling complex temporal patterns through the construction
29 of elaborate hierarchical temporal dependencies.

30 Current mainstream forecasting models predominantly adhere to the "long-sequence information gain
31 hypothesis," which posits that extending historical data length enhances the availability of temporal
32 dependencies [31, 15]. However, through systematic experimental analysis, this study challenges
33 this conventional assumption. As shown in Table 1, we observed a counterintuitive phenomenon
34 across multiple benchmark datasets and diverse model architectures: appropriately truncating early
35 segments of input sequences can significantly improve prediction accuracy. This finding reveals a

36 critical issue in modern predictive models: during training, models inadvertently capture a substantial
37 number of redundant features. These features not only fail to enhance performance but also interfere
38 with the learning process, thereby limiting the models' potential to achieve optimal results.

39 Through systematic analysis, we have identified two typical manifestations of redundant features and
40 their underlying mechanisms. First, input truncation optimization experiments (as shown in Figure
41 2b and Table 1) demonstrate that selectively masking partial historical data can significantly improve
42 model prediction performance. This phenomenon reveals the current model's inefficient utilization
43 of long historical windows. Second, representation similarity analysis (as illustrated in Figure 2a)
44 shows that both the model's prediction results and intermediate embeddings exhibit an abnormally
45 concentrated distribution, which significantly deviates from the natural dispersion characteristics
46 of the input and label. Collectively, these observations indicate that existing models exhibit low
47 efficiency when processing long historical windows, often encoding substantial noise or irrelevant
48 variables rather than truly predictive signals.

49 Building upon information bottleneck theory [24, 25, 23, 10], this study proposes an innovative
50 method called Adaptive Masking Loss with Representation Consistency (AMRC). The core method-
51 ology comprises: 1) An adaptive masking mechanism that dynamically identifies key segments with
52 high discriminative power in sequential data and leverages these informative segments to guide the
53 gradient optimization process (as illustrated in Fig 3) ; 2) A representation consistency constraint that
54 establishes stable mapping relationships among the input feature space, label space, and predicted
55 outputs, thereby effectively enhancing the model's generalization capability. Experimental results (as
56 shown in Table 2) demonstrate that the AMRC method significantly reduces the complexity of the
57 training solution space by suppressing the model's reliance on redundant features, fully exploits the
58 performance potential of the model architecture, and consequently improves prediction accuracy.

59 The primary contributions of this study include:

- 60 • **Theoretical Insight:** Through rigorous experimental validation, We demonstrate that existing time
61 series forecasting models are prone to learning redundant features, which in turn constrain their
62 performance. Building on the theory of information bottlenecks, we construct a novel theoretical
63 framework for time series modeling and propose an innovative optimization pathway, offering a
64 new theoretical perspective for advancing the field of time series forecasting.
- 65 • **Methodological Innovation:** We propose an optimization framework Adaptive Masking Loss with
66 Representation Consistency. By dynamically selecting discriminative temporal segments to guide
67 gradient descent (as illustrated in Figure 1) while enforcing input-label-prediction consistency,
68 our method effectively suppresses redundant feature learning. Extensive experiments demonstrate
69 consistent performance gains across diverse benchmarks and architectures.

70 Our work advances the understanding of temporal pattern learning mechanisms while offering a
71 practical pathway to enhance the efficiency and reliability of time series forecasting systems.

72 2 Analysis of Redundant Feature Learning

73 Given a multivariate time series $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{T \times D}$, where T is the number of timesteps and D is the
74 number of variables, the objective of time series forecasting is to learn a mapping function f_θ that
75 transforms historical observations $\mathbf{X}_{t-L:t} \in \mathbb{R}^{L \times D}$ (where L denotes the input length) into future
76 values $\mathbf{X}_{t+1:t+H} \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times D}$ (where H represents the forecasting horizon).

77 Conventional time series forecasting models follow the long-sequence information gain hypothesis[3,
78 33, 5, 29], which holds that increasing the input length L improves forecasting accuracy. However,
79 our experiments (Table 1) on multiple standard benchmarks reveal a counterintuitive result: truncating
80 the input—such as masking the first k timesteps—often improves forecasting performance, which is
81 measured by Mean Squared Error (MSE). We found that models tend to learn redundant features,
82 which degrade model performance even after convergence. This finding is supported by two key
83 observations:

84 2.1 Input Truncation Optimization

85 Based on the baseline model configuration (input length $L = 48$, forecasting horizon $H = 48$), we
86 design an input truncation comparative experiment by applying a masking operator $\mathcal{M}_k(\cdot)$ to the

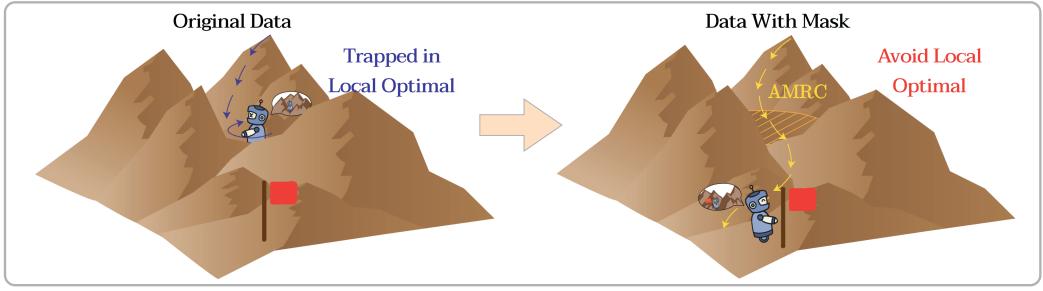


Figure 1: Illustration of the effect of AMRC method. Without regularization, the model tends to overfit redundant input features, leading to suboptimal convergence. By suppressing redundant input features, AMRC restructures the optimization landscape, promoting more efficient representation learning and facilitating better convergence.

87 input sequence. When we have an input sequence of length L at time step t , denoted as $\mathbf{X}_t^{(L)}$, the
88 masking operator $\mathcal{M}_k(\cdot)$ is mathematically defined as:

$$\mathcal{M}_k(\mathbf{X}_t^{(L)}) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } i \leq k \\ \mathbf{X}_t^{(L)} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

89 Here, $k \in \{1, \dots, L\}$ denotes the masking step size.

90 To probe redundant features, we employ an Optimal Masking strategy: Given an input sequence of
91 length L , we generate L masked variants $\{\mathcal{M}_k(\mathbf{X}_t^{(L)})\}_{k=1}^L$ (zero-padded to preserve dimensionality).
92 For instance, $k = 5$ yields $L' = 43$ (first 5 positions zeroed). The optimal mask length k^* is selected
93 as the configuration minimizing MSE, thereby defining the theoretical upper bound for redundancy
94 elimination:

$$k^* = \arg \min_{k \in \{1, 2, \dots, L\}} \mathbb{E} \left[\left\| f_\theta(\mathcal{M}_k(\mathbf{X}_t^{(L)})) - \mathbf{Y}_t^{(H)} \right\|^2 \right] \quad (2)$$

Table 1: Performance Gains via Optimal Masking Across Time Series Models. Ratio quantifies the percentage of training samples demonstrating prediction error reduction through Optimal Masking, calculated as *number of masked series/number of total series* $\times 100\%$

Model	Metric	ETTh1			ETTh2			Solar-Energy			Weather		
		MSE	MSE*	Ratio	MSE	MSE*	Ratio	MSE	MSE*	Ratio	MSE	MSE*	Ratio
SOFTS	Train Set	0.278	0.254	56.54%	0.318	0.259	61.65%	0.182	0.155	11.80%	0.421	0.400	45.10%
	Test Set	0.408	0.365	64.24%	0.326	0.303	28.73%	0.293	0.184	41.58%	0.205	0.185	54.93%
iTransformer	Train Set	0.298	0.270	57.87%	0.315	0.261	64.19%	0.410	0.281	61.97%	0.436	0.389	62.98%
	Test Set	0.413	0.289	60.07%	0.329	0.299	32.16%	0.395	0.271	68.43%	0.209	0.170	80.26%
PatchTST	Train Set	0.343	0.303	65.57%	0.329	0.269	69.35%	0.366	0.277	35.89%	0.227	0.180	45.55%
	Test Set	0.424	0.402	65.51%	0.327	0.298	42.46%	0.374	0.344	51.66%	0.215	0.180	42.43%
TSMixer	Train Set	0.372	0.342	55.79%	0.544	0.431	73.96%	0.233	0.195	26.30%	0.363	0.348	37.57%
	Test Set	0.402	0.372	59.19%	0.324	0.289	42.13%	0.288	0.250	40.12%	0.222	0.195	70.88%
TimeMixer	Train Set	0.290	0.262	57.96%	0.309	0.251	59.36%	0.142	0.112	13.58%	0.403	0.353	63.93%
	Test Set	0.393	0.366	58.04%	0.318	0.285	44.52%	0.288	0.253	36.25%	0.197	0.172	66.13%

95 As demonstrated in Table 1, the experimental results confirm that masked models consistently
96 achieve lower MSE, with more than 50% of samples exhibiting improved predictive performance
97 (Ratio $> 50\%$). Notably, the phenomenon of redundancy learning shows strong architecture-agnostic
98 characteristics. On the Weather dataset, both iTransformer (a Transformer-based model) and TSMixer
99 (an MLP-based model) demonstrate similar relative improvements: iTransformer achieves an MSE
100 reduction from **0.209** to **0.170** (-18.7%), while TSMixer improves from **0.222** to **0.195** (-12.2%).
101 These results indicate that the effectiveness of our masking strategy is not dependent on specific
102 model architectures.

103 **2.2 Representation Similarity Paradox**

104 To further investigate the redundant feature learning phenomenon, we apply t-SNE to project the
 105 SOFTS model's high-dimensional representations of the input, embedding, prediction, and label onto
 106 a 2D plane (Fig. 2a), after normalizing all features to the $[0, 1]$ range.

107 As illustrated in Fig.2a, Normalized input ($\mathbf{Z}_{\text{in}} \in \mathbb{R}^L$) and output ($\mathbf{Z}_{\text{out}} \in \mathbb{R}^H$) embeddings show
 108 a clear contrast: inputs remain dispersed, while embeddings and preds cluster tightly despite large
 109 differences in their corresponding labels. This suggests that the model encodes redundant, task-
 110 irrelevant features that misrepresent semantic relationships and distort the input-output mapping.

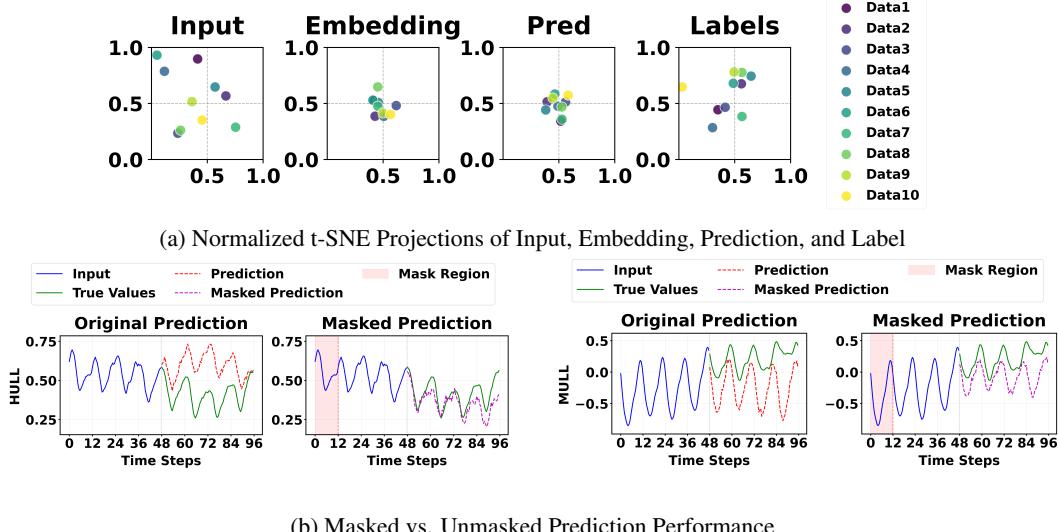


Figure 2: Embedding Distributions and Masking Effects of Our Method.

111 **2.3 Information Bottleneck Constraints on Redundancy**

112 According to the Information Bottleneck (IB) Theory [23], a neural network functions like a bottleneck
 113 that compresses input information during feature extraction. It discards irrelevant or noisy details and
 114 retains only the components most relevant to the overall task. For a time series forecasting model, let
 115 the input be denoted by X , the latent representation by Z , and the prediction target by Y . The model
 116 aims to learn a representation Z that maximally preserves information relevant to Y . This objective
 117 can be formally expressed as maximizing the mutual information between Z and Y :

$$I(Z, Y; \theta) = \int dx dy p(z, y | \theta) \log \frac{p(z, y | \theta)}{p(z | \theta)p(y | \theta)}. \quad (3)$$

118 Due to inherent limitations in the data and model capacity, the amount of information that can be
 119 extracted and transmitted during training is bounded. Consequently, the representation capacity is
 120 subject to an upper information constraint I_c . Based on this, the objective of the time series prediction
 121 model can be equivalently formulated as the following constrained optimization problem:

$$\max_{\theta} I(Z, Y; \theta) \quad \text{s.t.} \quad I(X, Z; \theta) \leq I_c. \quad (4)$$

122 This constrained optimization problem can be transformed into an unconstrained form using the
 123 method of Lagrange multipliers, leading to the maximization of the following objective[1]:

$$R_{\text{IB}}(\theta) = I(Z; Y; \theta) - \beta I(Z; X; \theta). \quad (5)$$

124 There are two implementation paths under this objective: one is to maximize the mutual information
 125 $I(Z; Y)$ between Z and Y ; the other is to minimize the mutual information $I(Z; X)$ between Z and X .
 126 Most current sequential prediction models focus on improving $I(Z; Y)$ through iterative training, but
 127 have not explicitly optimized performance by penalizing redundant features via minimizing $I(Z; X)$.
 128 Therefore, we propose an adaptive loss function that aims to minimize the mutual information
 129 between X and Z , offering a novel optimization path for improving the performance of sequential
 130 prediction models.

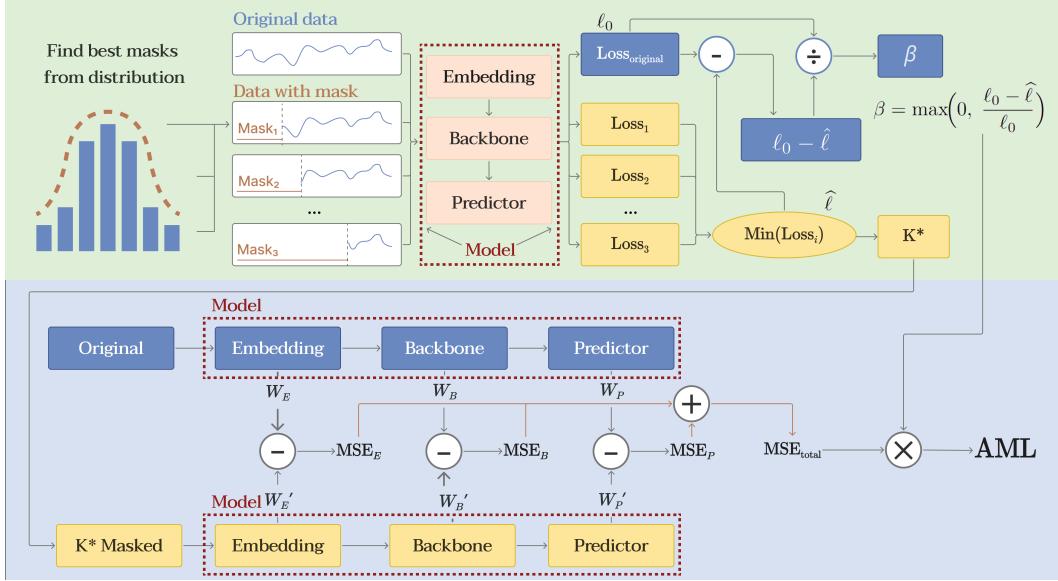


Figure 3: Overview of the Adaptive Masking Loss (AML) framework. The upper half illustrates how the optimal mask length K^* is selected by evaluating prediction losses over sampled masks. A weighting coefficient β is computed based on the gain over the unmasked loss. The lower half shows the AML loss, calculated as the sum of representation differences between the original input and the K^* masked input across embedding, backbone, and predictor layers.

3 Proposed Method

3.1 Adaptive Masking Loss (AML)

As discussed in Section 2.1, applying ideal masking to input data reduces the information $I(X)$ while improving prediction accuracy. This indicates that the representation Z_{k^*} , generated by encoder p_θ from masked features X_{t,k^*} , contains less redundancy and better approximates the minimal sufficient statistics (i.e., with smaller $I(X, Z_{k^*}; \theta)$). Based on this insight, we propose the **Adaptive Masking Loss (AML)** to explicitly reduce mutual information $I(X, Z; \theta)$ by guiding the encoder's output representation Z toward Z_{k^*} , thereby suppressing redundant feature learning and unleashing model potential. The overall framework of AML is illustrated in Figure 3.

3.1.1 Implementation

The exhaustive search for optimal mask k^* by enumerating all possible mask lengths $k \in \{1, \dots, L\}$ results in prohibitive $O(L)$ time complexity for long sequences. We therefore adopt an efficient stochastic approximation strategy:

- 1. Random Mask Generation:** Independently sample m mask indices $\{k_s\}_{s=1}^m$ from uniform distribution $d(k) = \text{Uniform}\{1, \dots, L\}$, each generating a masked variant:

$$\tilde{X}_{t,s}^{(L)} = \mathcal{M}_{k_s}(X_t^{(L)}) \quad (6)$$

- 2. Loss Evaluation:** Compute prediction losses for both masked and original data:

$$\ell_s = \mathcal{L}(f_\theta(\tilde{X}_{t,s}^{(L)}), Y_t^{(H)}) \quad (7)$$

$$\ell = \mathcal{L}(f_\theta(X_t^{(L)}), Y_t^{(H)}) \quad (8)$$

- 3. Optimal Representation Selection:** If $\exists \ell_s < \ell$, the corresponding representation $\tilde{Z}_s = p_\theta(\tilde{X}_{t,s}^{(L)})$ satisfies $I(X_t^{(L)}, \tilde{Z}_s) < I(X_t^{(L)}, Z)$, where $Z = p_\theta(X_t^{(L)})$ is the original representation. The optimal mask variant is selected by:

$$s^* = \arg \max_s (\ell - \ell_s) \quad (9)$$

150 **3.1.2 Loss Formulation**

151 To promote compact and informative representations, AML minimizes the distance between the
 152 original representation Z and the optimal masked variant \tilde{Z}_{s^*} :

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{AML}} = \beta \cdot \frac{1}{D_1 \times D_2} \|Z - \tilde{Z}_{s^*}\|^2 \quad (10)$$

153 where the adaptive weight $\beta = \max(0, (\ell - \ell_{s^*})/\ell)$ dynamically scales the optimization intensity,
 154 ensuring stronger influence from mask variants with greater loss reduction.

155 **3.2 Embedding Similarity Penalty (ESP)**

156 Time series forecasting models often encounter two issues: semantic inconsistency, where seman-
 157 tically similar inputs lead to substantially different predictions, and representation collapse, where
 158 dissimilar inputs result in nearly identical outputs. Both problems reduce the robustness and gener-
 159 alization ability of the model. To address these issues, we introduce a regularization strategy that
 160 compares, for each pair of samples within a mini-batch, the geometry of the embedding space with
 161 that of the output space.

162 **Pairwise distances.** For a batch $\mathcal{B} = \{(X_i, Y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$ we denote by $Z_i = f_{\text{enc}}(X_i) \in \mathbb{R}^{L \times D}$ the
 163 encoder output and keep the ground-truth $Y_i \in \mathbb{R}^{P \times D}$. The (normalised) squared Frobenius distances
 164 are

$$\Delta_{ij}^E = \frac{1}{L \times D} \|Z_i - Z_j\|_F^2, \quad \Delta_{ij}^O = \frac{1}{P \times D} \|Y_i - Y_j\|_F^2, \quad 1 \leq i, j \leq n. \quad (11)$$

165 **Consistency penalty.** Ideally Δ_{ij}^E and Δ_{ij}^O should match: semantically similar inputs ($\Delta_{ij}^E \approx 0$)
 166 ought to produce similar outputs ($\Delta_{ij}^O \approx 0$), and vice versa. Deviation is quantified element-wise
 167 through

$$P_{ij} = \text{ReLU}(\Delta_{ij}^E - \Delta_{ij}^O) + \text{ReLU}(\Delta_{ij}^O - \Delta_{ij}^E) = |\Delta_{ij}^E - \Delta_{ij}^O|_+, \quad (12)$$

168 where $\text{ReLU}(x) = \max(0, x)$ and $|\cdot|_+$ denotes the non-negative part. The **Embedding-Similarity**
 169 **Penalty** then reads

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{ESP}} = \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n P_{ij}. \quad (13)$$

170 Equation (13) back-propagates smooth, unbiased gradients that jointly reshape the encoder and the
 171 predictor so that input and output manifolds remain geometrically aligned. The detailed implemen-
 172 tation of the Embedding Similarity Penalty (ESP) is provided as pseudocode in Appendix D.

173 **3.3 Overall Training Objective**

174 Section 3.1 introduced the Adaptive Masking Loss \mathcal{L}_{AML} that discourages the learning of redundant
 175 temporal prefixes, while Section 3.2 proposed the Embedding-Similarity Penalty \mathcal{L}_{ESP} to enforce
 176 semantic-behavioural consistency. Combined with the standard prediction loss $\mathcal{L}_{\text{pred}}$ (e.g., MSE
 177 between the forecast \hat{Y} and the target Y), our final objective is

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{total}} = \mathcal{L}_{\text{pred}} + \lambda_{\text{AML}} \mathcal{L}_{\text{AML}} + \lambda_{\text{ESP}} \mathcal{L}_{\text{ESP}}, \quad (14)$$

178 where $\lambda_{\text{AML}}, \lambda_{\text{ESP}} > 0$ control the strength of each auxiliary term. Minimizing (14) jointly (i)
 179 identifies the informative prefix for every sequence, (ii) preserves the intrinsic topology of the data,
 180 and (iii) improves predictive accuracy and interpretability without adding inference-time overhead.

181 **4 Experiment**

182 **4.1 Experiment Setup**

183 **Datasets.** We evaluate our proposed method using seven widely recognized benchmark datasets for
 184 multivariate time series forecasting: **ETTh1**, **ETTh2**, **ETTm1**, **ETTm2**, **Solar-Energy**, **Electricity**,
 185 and **Weather**. These datasets encompass a variety of application scenarios with different temporal
 186 resolutions, seasonality patterns, and dynamic structures. Detailed descriptions of each dataset,
 187 including their specific characteristics and collection periods, are provided in the appendix F.

188 **Task formulation.** In our experimental setup, the forecasting task is formulated as a sequence-to-
 189 sequence regression problem, applicable to multivariate time series. Each model is trained to predict
 190 a future sequence $\mathbf{Y}_t^{(H)} \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times D}$ from a fixed-length historical input sequence $\mathbf{X}_t^{(48)} \in \mathbb{R}^{48 \times D}$,
 191 where H denotes the prediction length and D is the number of variables. We adopt multiple prediction
 192 horizons $H \in \{48, 72, 96, 120, 144, 168, 192\}$.

193 **Baselines.** Our method is compared against five diverse baseline models: **SOFTS** [8], **iTransformer**
 194 [14], **PatchTST** [16], **TSMixer** [7], and **TimeMixer** [26]. These baselines are implemented us-
 195 ing their official codebases and recommended hyperparameters to ensure a fair comparison under
 196 consistent experimental conditions.

197 **Implementation details.** All models are implemented in PyTorch and trained on a single NVIDIA
 198 A100 80GB GPU. To ensure a fair comparison and allow both baseline models and those augmented
 199 with our proposed modules to fully exploit their capacity, we train each model for up to 100 epochs
 200 using the Adam optimizer with an initial learning rate of 1×10^{-4} , a cosine annealing scheduler, and
 201 a batch size of 32. Early stopping is applied based on validation loss with a patience of 20 epochs.
 202 The best-performing checkpoint on the validation set is selected for final evaluation on the test set.

203 **Hyperparameter selection.** For the AML, the input sequence prefix length is configured as $L = 48$,
 204 with the mask sampling cardinality parameterized as $m = 12$. We fix both λ_{AML} and λ_{ESP} to 1 for
 205 all experiments. These settings follow standard benchmark configurations commonly used in time
 206 series forecasting.

207 4.2 Forecasting Results

208 We present the forecasting performance of our method—Adaptive Masking Loss with Representation
 209 Consistency (AMRC)—in comparison with five representative baseline models across seven widely
 210 used time series benchmark datasets. Table 2 reports the Mean Squared Error (MSE) and Mean
 211 Absolute Error (MAE) for each model, both with and without the incorporation of AMRC.

Table 2: Performance Comparison of Time Series Forecasting Models With and Without AMRC. In
 the experimental results, we highlighted in bold the parts where the AMRC model improved by more
 than 0.05 in MSE and MAE metrics compared to the baseline model. The detailed hyperparameter
 configurations for each model can be found in Appendix C. Full results are listed in Appendix E

Model	ETTh1		ETTh2		ETTm1		ETTm2		Solar-Energy		Electricity		Weather		
	Metric	MSE	MAE												
SOFTS	Original	0.408	0.414	0.326	0.359	0.484	0.434	0.210	0.285	0.293	0.314	0.169	0.255	0.205	0.234
	AMRC	0.389	0.393	0.311	0.362	0.475	0.423	0.198	0.265	0.290	0.309	0.162	0.244	0.196	0.220
iTransformer	Original	0.413	0.415	0.329	0.362	0.517	0.448	0.213	0.290	0.395	0.352	0.176	0.260	0.209	0.237
	AMRC	0.402	0.399	0.324	0.356	0.502	0.447	0.211	0.280	0.392	0.342	0.163	0.239	0.201	0.221
TimeMixer	Original	0.393	0.408	0.318	0.355	0.466	0.429	0.209	0.285	0.288	0.317	0.194	0.279	0.197	0.237
	AMRC	0.388	0.401	0.316	0.339	0.447	0.405	0.204	0.269	0.284	0.317	0.188	0.277	0.186	0.228
PatchTST	Original	0.424	0.424	0.327	0.358	0.461	0.422	0.211	0.287	0.374	0.382	0.211	0.283	0.215	0.280
	AMRC	0.411	0.415	0.319	0.356	0.456	0.413	0.196	0.271	0.361	0.376	0.207	0.285	0.210	0.264
TSMixer	Original	0.402	0.412	0.324	0.357	0.440	0.413	0.201	0.279	0.288	0.314	0.172	0.258	0.222	0.288
	AMRC	0.386	0.397	0.319	0.340	0.432	0.412	0.196	0.257	0.280	0.313	0.169	0.247	0.212	0.281

212 **Consistent Performance Gains.** Across all models and datasets, our method consistently yields
 213 performance improvements. For example, the MSE of the SOFTS model decreases from 0.408
 214 to 0.389 on the ETTh1 dataset. Similar trends are observed in iTransformer, where the MSE on
 215 Electricity drops from 0.176 to 0.163. The enhancements demonstrate that AMRC effectively
 216 mitigates redundant or noisy temporal segments, thereby improving prediction stability and accuracy.

217 **Architecture-Agnostic Effectiveness.** AMRC delivers significant performance gains not only on
 218 Transformer-based architectures such as iTransformer and PatchTST, but also on MLP-based models
 219 including TimeMixer, SOFTS, and TSMixer. For instance, on the ETTm2 dataset, the MSE of
 220 PatchTST model decreases from 0.211 to 0.196 (a reduction of approximately 7.11%), while the
 221 MSE of SOFTS model drops from 0.210 to 0.198 (approximately 5.71% reduction). These results
 222 demonstrate the strong architecture-agnostic generalization ability of AMRC, highlighting its broad
 223 applicability across a wide range of time series forecasting models.

Table 3: Ablation Study Results on Different Model Components

Model		ETTh1		ETTh2		Solar-Energy		Weather	
Metric		MSE	MAE	MSE	MAE	MSE	MAE	MSE	MAE
SOFTS	AML only	0.401	0.405	0.322	0.358	0.297	0.309	0.192	0.228
	ESP only	0.393	0.398	0.318	0.351	0.295	0.318	0.208	0.241
	AMRC	0.389	0.393	0.311	0.362	0.290	0.309	0.196	0.220
iTransformer	AML only	0.410	0.413	0.328	0.363	0.398	0.347	0.205	0.230
	ESP only	0.407	0.408	0.326	0.359	0.402	0.351	0.210	0.248
	AMRC	0.402	0.399	0.324	0.356	0.392	0.342	0.201	0.221
TimeMixer	AML only	0.395	0.412	0.319	0.351	0.287	0.319	0.189	0.232
	ESP only	0.391	0.406	0.317	0.347	0.293	0.325	0.202	0.248
	AMRC	0.388	0.401	0.316	0.339	0.284	0.317	0.186	0.228
PatchTST	AML only	0.419	0.420	0.325	0.361	0.369	0.379	0.214	0.274
	ESP only	0.417	0.418	0.323	0.357	0.375	0.384	0.217	0.281
	AMRC	0.411	0.415	0.319	0.356	0.361	0.376	0.210	0.264
TSMixer	AML only	0.396	0.404	0.324	0.356	0.285	0.317	0.216	0.283
	ESP only	0.390	0.399	0.322	0.352	0.291	0.323	0.224	0.292
	AMRC	0.386	0.397	0.319	0.340	0.280	0.313	0.212	0.281

224 **Generalization on Low-Channel Datasets.** On datasets with fewer input channels (ETTh1, ETTh2,
225 ETTm1, ETTm2), AMRC effectively enhances model performance. For instance, on ETTm1, the
226 MSE of iTransformer decreases from 0.517 to 0.502, and that of TSMixer drops from 0.440 to 0.432.
227 These results demonstrate AMRC’s ability to mitigate overfitting and improve prediction accuracy in
228 low-dimensional time series forecasting tasks.

229 **Robustness on High-Channel Datasets.** For high-dimensional datasets such as Weather (21 chan-
230 nels) and Solar-Energy (137 channels) see in Appendix F, AMRC consistently improves robustness
231 by reducing the impact of signal noise and inter-channel redundancy. On the Weather dataset,
232 TimeMixer’s MSE decreases from 0.197 to 0.186 and MAE from 0.237 to 0.228, while iTransformer
233 sees an MAE drop from 0.237 to 0.221. On Solar-Energy, PatchTST’s MSE drops from 0.374 to
234 0.361, and SOFTS sees a slight MAE reduction from 0.314 to 0.309. These enhancements highlight
235 AMRC’s effectiveness in managing complexity in multivariate time series with high channel counts.

236 **Generalizable Training Framework.** The consistent performance improvements observed across all
237 models validate the strong scalability and integrability of AMRC. As a constraint-based optimization
238 strategy, AMRC does not rely on any specific model architecture, making it highly generalizable. It
239 serves as a versatile training framework for enhancing both the efficiency and accuracy of time series
240 forecasting models.

241 4.3 Ablation Study

242 **Setup.** We evaluate ablation variants on four diverse datasets: ETTh1 and ETTh2, representing
243 hourly electricity load with varying degrees of seasonality; Solar-Energy, which exhibits weather-
244 driven variability and periodicity; and Weather, a multivariate meteorological dataset with complex
245 inter-variable dependencies. We adopt a fixed input horizon following standard benchmarks.

246 **Evaluation protocol.** For each dataset, we apply the ablation study to five baseline models SOFTS,
247 iTransformer, TimeMixer, PatchTST, and TSMixer under four configurations: 1) baseline + AML, 2)
248 baseline + ESP, and 3) baseline + both AML and ESP. This design allows us to assess the standalone
249 effectiveness of each module as well as their combined synergy.

250 **Findings.** We evaluate the individual and joint effects of the AML and ESP components using five
251 representative forecasting architectures across four datasets. As shown in Table 3, both components
252 contribute measurable performance gains in isolation, while their combination AMRC consistently
253 leads to the best forecasting accuracy in terms of MSE and MAE. AML provides stronger improve-
254 ments across most settings, supporting its role in suppressing redundant prefixes during training.
255 ESP, while often delivering smaller standalone gains, remains beneficial by promoting geometric
256 alignment between embedding and output spaces. Together, these findings demonstrate that each
257 component addresses a distinct source of generalization error.

258 **Component impact across architectures.** The benefits of AML and ESP are consistently ob-
259 served across all backbone models, regardless of architectural differences. For instance, models

260 with strong expressiveness, such as iTransformer and TimeMixer, benefit significantly from AML,
 261 achieving notable MSE reductions on datasets like Weather and ETTh2. Even architectures with
 262 out attention mechanisms, such as SOFTS and TSMixer, exhibit consistent gains, highlighting the
 263 broad applicability of adaptive prefix masking. In contrast, the improvements from ESP are often
 264 more dataset-dependent, being particularly effective on high-dimensional multivariate inputs where
 265 representation alignment plays a critical role. For example, ESP yields non-trivial reductions in MAE
 266 on Weather, where multiple variables evolve under shared dynamics. Notably, we observe relatively
 267 smaller improvements on the Solar-Energy dataset for transformer-based models such as PatchTST
 268 and iTransformer, which may be attributed to their reliance on longer input sequences for stable
 269 attention computation.

270 **Complementarity and synergy.** The AMRC configuration, which jointly applies AML and ESP,
 271 consistently outperforms its ablated variants across all benchmarks. The performance improvement
 272 from combining both components generally exceeds the stronger of the two individual effects,
 273 indicating synergistic interaction. This complementarity can be attributed to their distinct operational
 274 scopes: AML operates on the input level by learning to suppress non-informative temporal segments,
 275 while ESP regularizes the latent space to align representations across semantically related inputs.
 276 As a result, AMRC improves both the quality of features learned from the data and the consistency
 277 of their usage in prediction. The robust gains observed across datasets and architectures suggest
 278 that jointly addressing input redundancy and representation inconsistency is critical for improving
 generalization in time series forecasting.

Table 4: AMRC Effectiveness Across Datasets and Models. Ratio is the percentage of training samples with reduced MSE under prefix masking. Ratio* is the same metric after training with AMRC, reflecting improved robustness. Results are from the ablation setting with input length set to 48. Detailed results are provided in Appendix E.

Model	ETTh1		ETTh2		Solar-Energy		Weather		
	Metric	Ratio	Ratio*	Ratio	Ratio*	Ratio	Ratio*	Ratio	Ratio*
SOFTS		64%	57.33%	28.72%	20.28%	41.58%	33.49%	54.93%	47.12%
iTransformer		60.07%	49.95%	32.16%	23.28%	68.43%	63.21%	80.26%	70.29%
TimeMixer		58.04%	46.29%	44.52%	34.17%	36.25%	27.90%	66.13%	52.28%
PatchTST		65.51%	51.63%	42.46%	26.19%	51.66%	47.64%	42.43%	30.78%
TSMixer		59.19%	46.62%	42.13%	27.98%	40.12%	28.36%	70.88%	58.23%

279
 280 **Effectiveness of AMRC in Reducing Redundant Features** We evaluate the model’s robustness to
 281 redundant input by computing the proportion of training samples with improved MSE under prefix
 282 masking Ratio and compare it to the value after applying AMRC Ratio*. As shown in Table 4,
 283 AMRC consistently improves or maintains this ratio, indicating its effectiveness in suppressing the
 284 impact of redundant temporal information.

285 5 Conclusion

286 This study pioneers the investigation into the negative effects of redundant feature learning in time
 287 series forecasting and introduces AMRC, a plug-and-play solution that suppresses such learning
 288 without requiring architectural modifications. Unlike prior work focused on enhancing predictive
 289 features, AMRC improves accuracy by reducing reliance on redundant features while maintaining
 290 model flexibility. Its key advantages include: 1) seamless integration with existing models, 2) effective
 291 suppression of feature redundancy, and 3) strong generalization performance across benchmark tests.
 292 By addressing the long-overlooked issue of redundant learning, this research provides a novel and
 293 practical methodology for optimizing forecasting models.

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