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FFORMA: Feature-based Forecast Model Averaging

Abstract

We propose an automated method for obtaining weighted forecast combinations using time series features. The proposed approach involves two phases. First, we use a collection of time series to train a meta-model to assign weights to various possible forecasting methods with the goal of minimizing the average forecasting loss obtained from a weighted forecast combination. The inputs to the meta-model are features extracted from each series. In the second phase, we forecast new series using a weighted forecast combination where the weights are obtained from our previously trained meta-model. Our method outperforms a simple forecast combination, and outperforms all of the most popular individual methods in the time series forecasting literature. The approach achieved second position in the M4 competition.

Keywords: Time series features, Forecast combination, XGBoost, M4 competition, Metalearning

1 Introduction

There are essentially two general approaches to forecasting a time series: (i) generating forecasts from a single model; and (ii) combining forecasts from many models (forecast model averaging). There has been a vast literature on the latter motivated by the seminal work of Bates & Granger (1969) and followed by a plethora of empirical applications showing that combination forecasts are often superior to their individual counterparts (see, Clemen 1989; Timmermann 2006, for example). Combining forecasts using a weighted average is considered a successful way of hedging against the risk of selecting a misspecified model. A major challenge is in selecting an appropriate set of weights, and many attempts to do this have been worse than simply using equal weights — something that has become known as the "forecast combination puzzle" (see for example, Smith & Wallis 2009). We address the problem of selecting the weights by using a meta-learning algorithm based on time series features.

There have been several previous attempts to use time series features combined with metalearning for forecasting, both for model selection and combination (see for example Prudêncio & Ludermir 2004; Lemke & Gabrys 2010; Kück, Crone & Freitag 2016; and Kang, Hyndman & Smith-Miles 2017). Recently, Talagala, Hyndman & Athanasopoulos (2018) proposed the FFORMS (Feature-based FORecast Model Selection) framework that uses time series features combined with meta-learning for forecast-model selection. That is, features are used to select a single forecasting model. In this paper, we build on this framework by using meta-learning to select the weights for a weighted forecast combination. All candidate forecasting methods are applied, and the weights to be used in combining them are chosen based on the features of each time series. We call this framework FFORMA (Feature-based FORecast Model Averaging).

FFORMA resulted in the second most accurate point forecasts and prediction intervals amongst all competitors in the M4 competition.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In Section 2 we describe the FFORMA framework in a general sense. Section 3 gives the details of our implementation of FFORMA in the M4 competition for generating both point and interval forecasts. This includes the required preprocessing steps, the set of features and forecast methods, as well as the specific implementation of the meta-learning model. We show empirical evidence on the performance of the approach in Section 4 by quantifying the difference between our proposed learning model and a traditional classifier approach. Section 4 also provides some final remarks and conclusions.

2 Methodology

2.1 Intuition and overview of FFORMA

The objective of our meta-learning approach is to derive a set of weights to combine forecasts generated from a *pool of methods* (e.g., naïve, exponential smoothing, ARIMA, etc.). The FFORMA framework requires a set of time series we refer to as the *reference set*. Each time series in the reference set is divided into a training period and a test period. From the training period a set of *time series features* are calculated (e.g., length of time series, strength of trend, autocorrelations, etc.). These form the inputs to the meta-learning model. Each method in the pool is fitted to the training period, forecasts are generated over the test period, and *forecast errors* (the difference between actual and forecast values) are computed. From these, a summary forecast loss measure from a weighted combination forecast can be computed for any given set of weights.

The meta-learning model learns to produce weights for all methods in the pool, as a function of the features of the series to be forecasted, by minimizing this summary forecast loss measure. Once the model is trained, weights can be produced for a new series for which forecasts are required. It is assumed that the new series comes from a *generating process* that is similar to some of those that form the reference set.

A common meta-learning approach is to select the best method in the pool of methods for each series; i.e., the method that produces the smallest forecast loss. This approach transforms the problem into a traditional classification problem by setting the individual forecasting methods as the classes and the best method as the target class for each time series. However, there may be other methods that produce similar forecast errors to the best method, so the specific class chosen is less important than the forecast error resulting from each method. Further, some time series are more difficult to forecast than others, and hence have more impact on the total forecast error. This information is lost if the problem is treated as classification.

Consequently, we do not train our meta-learning algorithm using a classification approach. Instead, we pose the problem as finding a function that assigns *weights* to each forecasting method, with the objective of minimizing the expected loss that would have been produced if the methods were picked at random using these weights as probabilities. These are the weights in our weighted forecast combination. This approach is more general than classification, and can be thought of as classification with *per class weights* that vary per instance, combined with *per instance weights* that assign more importance to some series.

A flowchart of the FFORMA forecasting process can be seen in Figure 1.

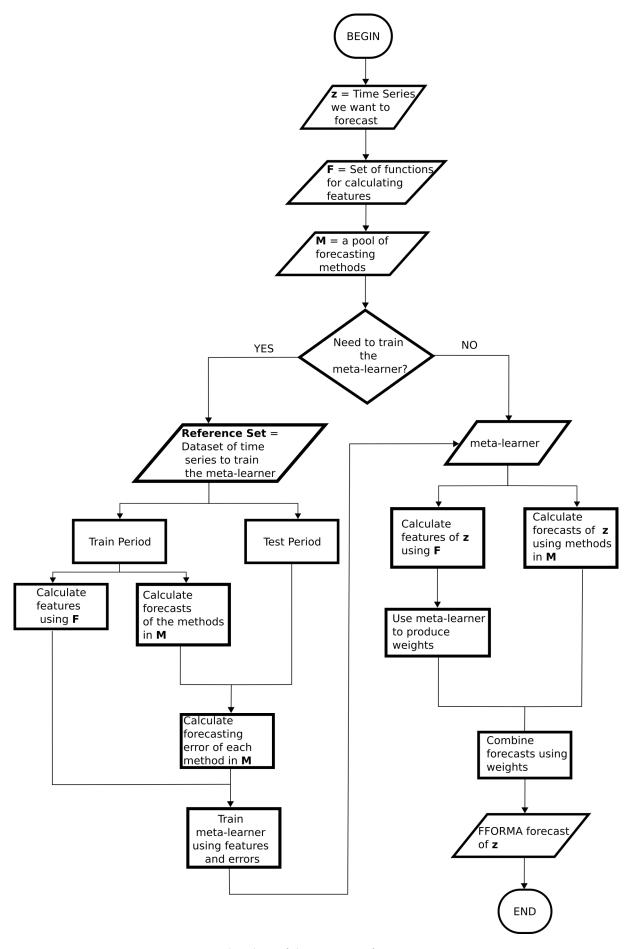


Figure 1: Flowchart of the FFORMA forecasting process

2.2 Algorithmic description

The operation of the FFORMA framework comprises two phases: (1) the offline phase in which we train a meta-learner; and (2) the online phase in which we use the pre-trained meta-learner to identify forecast combination weights for a new series. Algorithm 1 presents the pseudo-code of the proposed framework.

Algorithm 1 The FFORMA framework: Forecast combination based on meta-learning

OFFLINE PHASE: TRAIN THE LEARNING MODEL

Inputs:

 $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N\}$: *N* observed time series forming the reference set.

F: a set of functions for calculating time series features.

M: a set of forecasting methods in the pool, e.g., naïve, ETS, ARIMA, etc.

Output:

FFORMA meta-learner: A function from the extracted features to a set of *M* weights, one for each forecasting method.

Prepare the meta-data

- 1: **for** n = 1 to N: **do**
- 2: Split x_n into a training period and test period.
- 3: Calculate the set of features $f_n \in F$ over the training period.
- 4: Fit each forecasting method $m \in M$ over the training period and generate forecasts over the test period.
- 5: Calculate forecast losses L_{nm} over the test period.
- 6: end for

Train the meta-learner, w

7: Train a learning model based on the meta-data and errors, by minimizing:

$$\underset{w}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \sum_{m=1}^{M} w(f_n)_m L_{nm}.$$

ONLINE PHASE: FORECAST A NEW TIME SERIES

Input:

FFORMA meta-learner from offline phase.

Output:

Forecast the new time series x_{new} .

- 8: **for** each x_{new} : **do**
- 9: Calculate features f_{new} by applying F.
- 10: Use the meta-learner to produce $w(f_{new})$ an M-vector of weights.
- 11: Compute the individual forecasts of the *M* forecasting methods in the pool.
- 12: Combine individual forecasts using *w* to generate final forecasts.
- 13: end for

3 Implementation and application to the M4 competition

3.1 Reference set

The M4 dataset includes 100,000 time series of yearly, quarterly, monthly, weekly, daily and hourly data. All 100,000 series form the reference set. Each series is split into a training period and a test period. The length of the test period for each time series was set to be equal to the

forecast horizon set by the competition. Series with training periods comprising fewer than two observations, or series that were constant over the training period, were eliminated from the reference set.

3.2 Time series features

Table 1 provides a brief description of the features used in this experiment, F in Algorithm 1. The functions to calculate these are implemented in the tsfeatures R package by Hyndman et al. (2018b). Most of the features (or variations of these) have been previously used in a forecasting context by Hyndman, Wang & Laptev (2015) and Talagala, Hyndman & Athanasopoulos (2018), and are described in more detail there. The ARCH.LM statistic was calculated based on the Lagrange Multiplier test of Engle (1982) for autoregressive conditional heteroscedasticity (ARCH). The heterogeneity features 39–42 are based on two computed time series: the original time series is pre-whitened using an AR model resulting in z; a GARCH(1,1) model is then fitted to z to obtain the residual series, r.

Features corresponding only to seasonal time series are set to zero for non-seasonal time series. For the sake of generality, we have not used any of the domain-specific features such as macro, micro, finance, etc., even though this information was available in the M4 data set.

3.3 Pool of forecasting methods

We considered nine methods implemented in the forecast package in R (Hyndman et al. 2018a) for the pool of methods, *P* in Algorithm 1:

- 1. naïve (naive);
- 2. random walk with drift (rwf with drift=TRUE);
- 3. seasonal naïve (snaive).
- 4. theta method (thetaf);
- 5. automated ARIMA algorithm (auto.arima);
- 6. automated exponential smoothing algorithm (ets);
- 7. TBATS model (tbats);
- 8. STLM-AR Seasonal and Trend decomposition using Loess with AR modeling of the seasonally adjusted series (stlm with model function ar);
- 9. neural network time series forecasts (nnetar).

The R functions are given in parentheses. In all cases, the default settings were used. If any function returned an error when fitting the series (e.g. a series is constant), the snaive forecast method was used instead.

3.4 Forecast loss measure

The forecasting loss, *L* in Algorithm 1, was adapted from the Overall Weighted Average (OWA) error described in the M4 competitor's guide *M4 Competitor's Guide* (2018), which combines the Mean Absolute Scaled Error and the symmetric Mean Absolute Percentage Error. For each series and method, the Mean Absolute Scaled Error and the symmetric Mean Absolute Percentage Error were divided by the respective error of the Naive 2 method *over all series in the dataset* (i.e., MASE by the average MASE of Naive 2), and then added.

3.5 Meta-learning model implementation

We used the gradient tree boosting model of xgboost as the underlying implementation of the learning model (Chen & Guestrin 2016). This is a state-of-the-art model that is computationally

 Table 1: Features used in FFORMA framework.

Fe	ature	Description	Non-seasonal	Seasonal
1	T	length of time series	✓	√
2	trend	strength of trend	\checkmark	\checkmark
3	seasonality	strength of seasonality	-	\checkmark
4	linearity	linearity	\checkmark	\checkmark
5	curvature	curvature	\checkmark	\checkmark
6	spikiness	spikiness	\checkmark	\checkmark
7	e_acf1	first ACF value of remainder series	\checkmark	\checkmark
8	e_acf10	sum of squares of first 10 ACF values of remainder series	\checkmark	\checkmark
9	stability	stability	\checkmark	\checkmark
10	lumpiness	lumpiness	\checkmark	\checkmark
11	entropy	spectral entropy	\checkmark	\checkmark
12	hurst	Hurst exponent	\checkmark	\checkmark
13	nonlinearity	nonlinearity	\checkmark	\checkmark
13	alpha	ETS(A,A,N) $\hat{\alpha}$	\checkmark	\checkmark
14	beta	ETS(A,A,N) $\hat{\beta}$	\checkmark	\checkmark
15	hwalpha	$ETS(A,A,A) \hat{\alpha}$	-	\checkmark
16	hwbeta	ETS(A,A,A) $\hat{\beta}$	-	\checkmark
17	hwgamma	ETS(A,A,A) $\hat{\gamma}$	-	\checkmark
18	ur_pp	test statistic based on Phillips-Perron test	\checkmark	\checkmark
19	ur_kpss	test statistic based on KPSS test	\checkmark	\checkmark
20	y_acf1	first ACF value of the original series	\checkmark	\checkmark
21	diff1y_acf1	first ACF value of the differenced series	\checkmark	\checkmark
22	diff2y_acf1	first ACF value of the twice-differenced series	\checkmark	\checkmark
23	y_acf10	sum of squares of first 10 ACF values of original series	\checkmark	\checkmark
24	diff1y_acf10	sum of squares of first 10 ACF values of differenced series	\checkmark	\checkmark
25	diff2y_acf10	sum of squares of first 10 ACF values of twice-differenced series	\checkmark	\checkmark
26	seas_acf1	autocorrelation coefficient at first seasonal lag	-	\checkmark
	sediff_acf1	first ACF value of seasonally differenced series	-	\checkmark
	y_pacf5	sum of squares of first 5 PACF values of original series	\checkmark	\checkmark
	diff1y_pacf5	sum of squares of first 5 PACF values of differenced series	\checkmark	\checkmark
	diff2y_pacf5	sum of squares of first 5 PACF values of twice-differenced series	\checkmark	✓
31	seas_pacf	partial autocorrelation coefficient at first seasonal lag	\checkmark	\checkmark
	crossing_point	number of times the time series crosses the median	\checkmark	\checkmark
	flat_spots	number of flat spots, calculated by discretizing the series into 10 equal sized intervals and counting the maximum	\checkmark	\checkmark
		run length within any single interval		
	nperiods	number of seasonal periods in the series	-	✓.
	-	length of seasonal period	-	✓.
	peak	strength of peak	√	✓.
	trough	strength of trough	√	✓.
	ARCH.LM	ARCH LM statistic	√	✓.
	arch_acf	sum of squares of the first 12 autocorrelations of z^2	√	✓.
	garch_acf	sum of squares of the first 12 autocorrelations of r^2	√	✓
	arch_r2	R^2 value of an AR model applied to z^2	√	✓
42	garch_r2	R^2 value of an AR model applied to r^2	√	✓

efficient and has shown good performance in other problems. The great advantage of its application here is that we are able to customize the model with our specific objective function.

The basic xgboost algorithm produces numeric values from the features, one for each forecasting method in our pool. We applied the softmax transform to these values prior to computing the objective function. This was implemented as a custom objective function in the xgboost framework.

xgboost requires a gradient and hessian of the objective function to fit the model. The *correct* hessian is prone to numerical problems that need to be addressed for the boosting to converge. This is a relatively common problem and one simple fix is to use an upper bound of the hessian by clamping its small values to a larger one. We computed a different upper bound of the hessian by removing some terms from the correct hessian. Although both alternatives converged, the latter worked faster, requiring less boosting steps to converge. This not only increased the computational efficiency, it also generalized better due to a less complex set of trees produced in the final solution.

The general parameters of the meta-learning in Algorithm 1 were set as follows.

- $p(f_n)_m$ is the output of the xgboost algorithm corresponding to forecasting method m, based on the features extracted from series x_n .
- $w(f_n)_m = \frac{\exp(p(f_n)_m)}{\sum_m \exp(p(f_n)_m)}$ is the transformation to weights of the xgboost output by applying the softmax transform.
- L_{nm} is the contribution to the OWA error measure of method m for the series n.
- \$\bar{L}_n = \sum_{m=1}^M w(f_n)_m L_{nm}\$ is the weighted average loss function.
 \$G_{nm} = \frac{\frac{\partial \bar{L}_n}{\partial p(f_n)_m}}{\partial p(f_n)_m} = w_{nm}(L_{nm} \bar{L}_n)\$ is the gradient of the loss function.
- The hessian H_{nm} was approximated by our upper bound \hat{H}_{nm} :

$$H_{nm} = \frac{\partial G_n}{\partial p(f_n)_m} \approx \hat{H}_n = w_n(L_n(1-w_n) - G_n)$$

The functions G and \hat{H} were passed to xgboost to minimize the objective function \bar{L} .

The results of xgboost are particularly dependent on its hyper-parameters such as learning rate, number of boosting steps, maximum complexity allowed for the trees or subsampling sizes. We limited the hyper-parameter search space based on some initial results and rules-of-thumb and explored it using Bayesian optimization (implemented in the R package rBayesianOptimization, Yan 2016) measuring performance on a 10% holdout version of the reference set. We picked the simplest hyper-parameter set from the top solutions of the exploration.

3.6 Prediction intervals

For each series x_{new} , we used as the center of the interval the point forecast produced by our meta-learner. Then the 95% bounds of the interval were generated by a linear combination of the bounds of three forecasting methods: naïve, theta and seasonal naïve. These methods were chosen from the initial pool purely for saving computational time. The whole pool of methods should be used if computational time is not a constraint. The coefficients for the linear combination were calculated in a data-driven way over the M4 database. The complete procedure was as follows:

- 1. We divided the M4 dataset into two parts: A and B. We trained the FFORMA learner using the training periods of the series in part A and produced point forecasts over the test periods of the series of part B, and vice versa. This partitioning prevents overfitting caused from having point forecasts that are extremely accurate if the same dataset was used for both center and the interval bounds.
- 2. We computed the 95% *prediction interval radius* for the naïve, theta, and seasonal naïve methods. This is the difference between the 95% upper or lower bound and the point forecast for each forecast horizon, as we assume the intervals to be symmetric around the point forecast.
- 3. For each forecast horizon we found the coefficients that minimized the MSIS of the interval, as defined in the M4 Competitor's guide (M4 Competitor's Guide 2018), with the FFORMA point forecast as the center and a linear combination of the radii of naïve, theta, seasonal naïve forecasts as the interval. The minimization was done by gradient descent over the test period of the series.

This method produced a set of three coefficients for each prediction horizon in the M4 dataset and these coefficients were the same independently of the series we want to forecast. Unlike the point forecasts, these coefficients were not restricted to be probabilities.

4 Discussion and conclusions

We have presented an algorithm for forecasting using weighted averaging of a set of models. The objective function of the learning model assigns weights to forecasting methods in order to minimize the forecasting error that would be produced if we picked the methods at random using these weights as probabilities. This contrasts with how the final forecasts are produced, which is a weighted average, not a selection.

These weights can however be used as part of a model selection algorithm, if one picks the method receiving the largest weight. This can be useful for interpretability or computational reasons, at the cost of forecasting performance.

In order to evaluate the impact of our contribution, we compared the average forecast error produced by FFORMA with a model selection approach. All implementation details were kept the same as in FFORMA; specifically we used the same set of features, the same pool of forecasting methods, the same underlying implementation (xgboost) but with a standard cross-entropy loss, and the same hyper-parameter search. This enabled us to measure the impact of the FFORMA loss function against a model selection approach, all other things being equal. We applied both FFORMA and the model selection approach to the M4 dataset and compared their overall point forecast errors. The average OWA error of the model selection approach was 10% larger than FFORMA. This improvement is entirely due to the proposed model averaging rather than model selection. On the other hand, FFORMA deviates significantly from simple averaging. The latter produces a 14% increase in error for the same pool of methods. A simple cluster analysis of the weights shows that roughly 40% of the time series receive a weight profile similar to equal weights (a simple average) while for the remaining 60% of the series, one of the methods in the pool is clearly dominant.

FFORMA is also robust against changes in the pool of forecasting methods. The maximum increase in error when removing a single method from the original pool of nine methods is

1%. This maximum occurs when removing the Random Walk with Drift, which receives an average of 15% weight across all series in the M4. Also, the removal of any method results in an increased error compared to the original pool. Hence, there are no methods in the pool that impact the error negatively, even though individually some methods perform much worse than others when averaged over all the series. This suggests that the FFORMA algorithm is able to assign correct weights to the forecasting methods that are specialized for a specific type of series.

Therefore, we believe that the good performance of the FFORMA can be attributed to three factors. First, the specific set of features and learning model ('xgboost') have been selected to give good forecasting results. Second, the weights allocated by FFORMA, which can range from a simple averaging (equal weights), to a profile that assigns most of the importance to only a single method. This allows FFORMA to outperform both simple averaging and method selection alternatives. Third, FFORMA adapts to the methods in the pool, making the specific pool of methods less critical than in other combination approaches.

One advantage of our approach is that its form is independent of the forecasting loss measure. Forecast errors enter the model as additional pre-calculated values. This allows FFORMA to adapt to arbitrary loss functions when models that directly minimize them would be restricted. For example, our approach can be applied to non-differentiable errors.

The source code for FFORMA is available at github.com/robjhyndman/M4metalearning.

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