

Time Series Forecasting using Neural Networks: Are Recurrent Connections Necessary?

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Abstract Artificial neural networks (NNs) are widely used in modeling and forecasting time series. Since most practical time series are non-stationary, NN forecasters are often implemented using recurrent/delayed connections to handle the temporal component of the time varying sequence. These recurrent/delayed connections increase the number of weights required to be optimized during training of the NN. Particle swarm optimization (PSO) is now an established method for training NNs, and was shown in several studies to outperform the classical backpropagation training algorithm. The original PSO was, however, designed for static environments. In dealing with non-stationary data, modified versions of PSOs for optimization in dynamic environments are used. These dynamic PSOs have been successfully used to train NNs on classification problems under non-stationary environments. This paper formulates training of a NN forecaster as dynamic optimization problem to investigate if recurrent/delayed connections are necessary in a NN time series forecaster when a dynamic PSO is used as the training algorithm. Experiments were carried out on eight forecasting problems. For each problem, a feedforward NN (FNN) is trained with a dynamic PSO algorithm and the performance is compared to that obtained from four different types of recurrent NNs (RNN) each trained using gradient descent, a standard PSO for static environments and the dynamic PSO algorithm. The RNNs employed were an Elman NN, a Jordan NN, a multirecurrent NN (MRNN) and a time delay NN (TDNN). The

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performance of these forecasting models were evaluated under three different dynamic environmental scenarios. The results show that the FNNs trained with the dynamic PSO significantly outperformed all the RNNs trained using any of the other algorithms considered. These findings highlight that recurrent/delayed connections are not necessary in NNs used for time series forecasting (for the time series considered in this study) as long as a dynamic PSO algorithm is used as the training method.

Keywords Time series forecasting · Neural networks · Recurrent neural networks · Resilient propagation · Particle swarm optimization · Cooperative quantum particle swarm optimization

1 Introduction

Time series forecasting is a very important research area because of its practical application in many fields. Interest in using neural networks (NNs) to model and forecast time series has been growing. While feedforward NNs (FNNs) are the type dominantly used, recent trends indicate that recurrent NNs (RNNs) are now the widely used architecture because of their ability to model dynamic systems implicitly. The recurrent/delayed connections in RNNs, however, increase the number of weights that are required to be optimized during training of the NN.

To build a NN forecaster using RNNs, one has to choose among the different special cases of RNNs (such as Elman NN, Jordan NN, Multirecurrent NN or Time delay NN). It is, however, very difficult to single out a particular special case of the RNNs that is better in modeling different types of time series [1]. Thus, selecting which RNN to use becomes a problem. Another issue that needs to be resolved is how to decide on the number of context layers if an Elman NN is used, or the number of state layers if a Jordan NN is used, or how to decide on the number of previous values to remember if a time delay NN is used.

Particle swarm optimization (PSO), which is a population based search algorithm, has been used with success to training NNs for a number of problems [9], [19], [21]. PSO has also been applied in training NNs for time series prediction [30], [33], [34]. Even though several studies have applied PSO to the task of training NN forecasters, producing favorable results, these studies have assumed static environments, making them unsuitable for many real-world time series which are generated by varying processes. For example, the performance of PSO as a training algorithm for FNNs in forecasting non-stationary time series was evaluated in [3], where the authors considered the problem as a static optimization problem. The results showed that PSO performed better than the backpropagation algorithm (BP), but concluded that the result of PSO could significantly be improved by using a suitable NN structure (that can handle dynamic data). Jar *et al* [23] compared the performance of PSO and BP in training FNNs for time series forecasting. The results indicate su-

periority of the PSO over BP, but Jar *et al* concluded that the PSO trained FNNs were unable to track non-stationary data.

A number of PSO variants have been developed to solve optimization problems in dynamic environments [13]. Some of these algorithms have been applied to NN training on classification problems, in order to cope with concept drift [36], [37]. The studies showed that dynamic PSO is indeed applicable to NN training in dynamic environments, and has produced significantly better or similar performance compared to the classic NN training algorithm.

This study tests a hypothesis that recurrent/delayed connections are not necessary in a NN trained for non-stationary time series forecasting if a dynamic PSO is used as the training algorithm. If this hypothesis holds true, then the problems of using a RNN to model non-stationary time series are resolved. To test the hypothesis, a set of experiments using eight forecasting problems were carried out. For each problem, a pairwise performance comparison between a FNN trained with a dynamic PSO algorithm is carried out with four different RNNs each trained differently with a classical gradient descent algorithm, a standard PSO algorithm and a dynamic PSO algorithm. The RNNs employed were Elman NNs, Jordan NNs, MRNNs, and TDNNs. All performances were evaluated under three different dynamic environmental scenarios.

In the reminder of this paper, section 2 presents background on the algorithms used in this study. Section 3 describes the experimental procedure employed. Results are presented and discussed in section 4. Section 5 concludes the paper.

2 Background

This section provides the background information necessary for this study. Section 2.1 presents a short overview on NNs, and Section 2.2 discusses NN training algorithms.

2.1 Neural Networks

A brief overview on the five different NN structures used in this study is provided in this section.

2.1.1 Feedforward Neural Network

A FNN has a network of artificial neurons usually organized in three layers (input, hidden, and output) as shown in Figure 1a. In FNNs, information flows in only one direction, from the input layer, through the hidden layer to the output layer.

For any given input pattern \mathbf{x} , the output from a FNN is calculated as,

$$o_k = f_{o_k} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{J+1} w_{kj} f_{y_j} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{I+1} v_{ji} x_i \right) \right) \quad (1)$$

where $x_i, i = 1 \dots I$, and $y_j, j = 1, \dots J$ are the nodes in the input and hidden layers respectively; the $(I+1)^{th}$ input and $(J+1)^{th}$ hidden units are bias units for nodes in the next level; w_{kj} is the weight between output unit o_k and hidden unit y_j ; v_{ji} is the weight between hidden unit y_j and input unit x_i ; f_{o_k} and f_{y_j} are the activation functions of output unit o_k and hidden unit y_j respectively.

2.1.2 Elman Neural Network

The Elman recurrent NN [16] structure is similar to a standard three layer FNN structure with feedback connections from the hidden layer to a context layer, as shown in Figure 1b. The context layer serves as an extension to the input layer. Thus, the input vector becomes

$$\mathbf{x} = \underbrace{x_1, \dots, x_{I+1}}_{\text{input}}, \underbrace{x_{I+2}, \dots, x_{I+1+J}}_{\text{context}} \quad (2)$$

and the output of each node in the output layer is calculated as

$$o_k = f_{o_k} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{J+1} w_{kj} f_{y_j} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{I+1+J} v_{ji} x_i \right) \right) \quad (3)$$

where $(x_{I+2}, \dots, x_{I+1+J}) = (y_1(t-1), \dots, y_J(t-1))$.

Since a single context layer is limited in representing past information to only one step (i.e. one window), more context layers are required to deal with a long history in the data. This introduced the issue of how to decide the number of context layers to used.

2.1.3 Jordan Neural Network

The Jordan recurrent NN [24] structure is very similar to the Elman recurrent NN structure, except that the state layer stores a copy of the output layer instead of the hidden layer, as shown in Figure 1c. The state layer of a Jordan recurrent NN extends the input layer to

$$\mathbf{x} = \underbrace{x_1, \dots, x_{I+1}}_{\text{input}}, \underbrace{x_{I+2}, \dots, x_{I+1+K}}_{\text{state}} \quad (4)$$

and the output of each output node is calculated as

$$o_k = f_{o_k} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{J+1} w_{kj} f_{y_j} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{I+1+K} v_{ji} x_i \right) \right) \quad (5)$$

where $(x_{1+2}, \dots, x_{I+1+J}) = (o_1(t-1), \dots, o_K(t-1))$.

To capture long term dependency, as for the Elman recurrent NN, one has to deal with the problem of deciding on the number of state layers to use.

2.1.4 Multirecurrent Neural Network

A Multirecurrent NN (MRNN) [12] is obtained by combining an Elman NN and a Jordan NN. It has feedback connections from both the hidden and the output layers connecting to the context layer and the state layer as shown in Figure 1d. The output layer is extended to

$$\mathbf{x} = \underbrace{x_1, \dots, x_{I+1}}_{\text{input}}, \underbrace{x_{I+2}, \dots, x_{I+1+J}}_{\text{context}}, \underbrace{x_{I+2}, \dots, x_{I+1+K}}_{\text{state}} \quad (6)$$

and the output from the network is calculated as

$$o_k = f_{o_k} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{J+1} w_{kj} f_{y_j} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{I+1+J+K} v_{ji} x_i \right) \right) \quad (7)$$

where $(x_1, \dots, x_{I+1}, x_{I+2}, \dots, x_{I+1+J}, x_{I+2}, \dots, x_{I+1+K}) = (y_1(t-1), \dots, y_j(t-1), o_1(t-1), \dots, o_J(t-1))$.

An MRNN has a larger number of weights compared to the Elman and Jordan RNNs. Also, the context/state layer is only one time step (i.e. a time window of 1). To remember more time steps, more context layers are needed.

2.1.5 Time Delay Neural Networks

TDNNs [46] are a special case of FNNs designed with extra time delay connections (which is a form of memory mechanism) for effective handling of temporal data. Input patterns to the network are delayed to arrive at hidden units at different points in time. A special type of neurons with n_t delayed patterns, illustrated in Figure 1e are used in the input layer of a TDNN.

The output of a TDNN is calculated as

$$o_k = f_{o_k} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{J+1} w_{k,j} f_{y_j} \left(\sum_{i=1}^I \sum_{t=0}^{n_t} v_{j,i} x_i(t) + x_{I+1} v_{I+1} \right) \right) \quad (8)$$

The TDNN is identical to a time window and can also be viewed as an autoregressive model. The major disadvantage of the TDNN is that the time period processed is strictly limited by the number and arrangement of the time delays.

2.2 Training Algorithms

This section briefly discusses the resilient propagation algorithm (Rprop), the original PSO and the cooperative quantum PSO (CQSO) used.

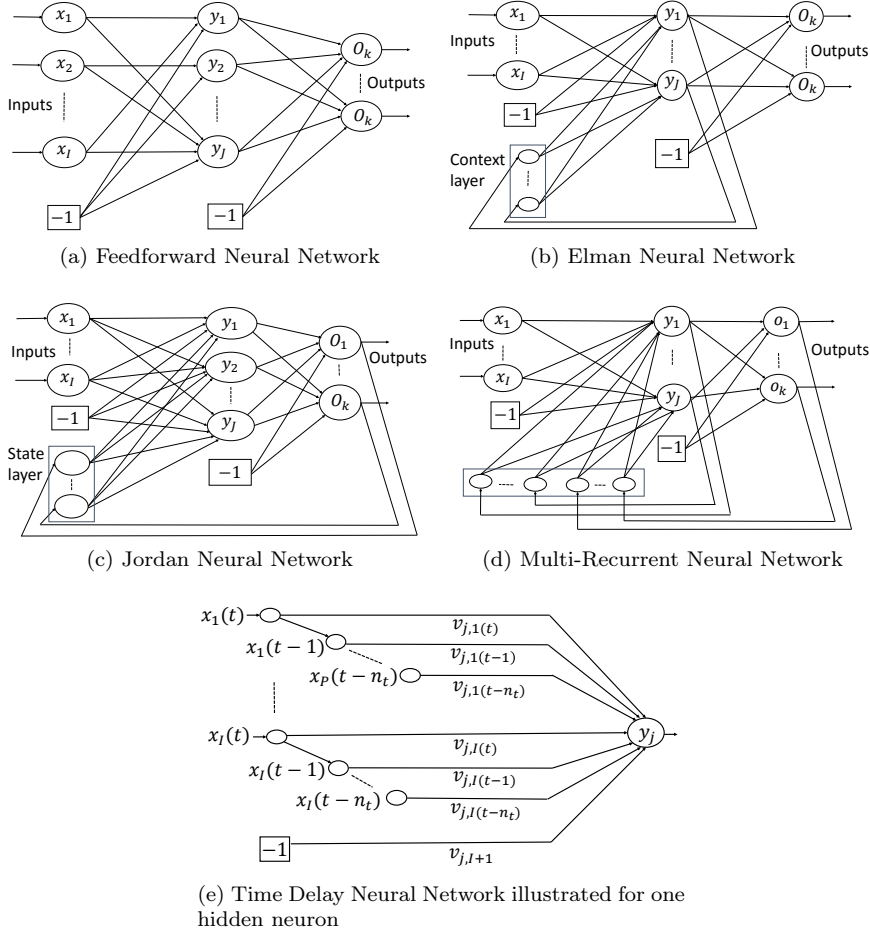


Fig. 1: Neural Network Structures

2.2.1 Resilient propagation

Rprop is an efficient supervised batch learning scheme that performs a direct adaption of weights based on local gradient information. During each iteration, if the derivative $\partial E / \partial w_{ij}$ changes sign, weight update value, $\delta_{ij}(t)$, is decreased by the factor, η^- (to reduce the effect of previous large update) while on the contrary, if the derivative retains its sign, the update value is increased by η^+ (to promote convergence) before weight adjustment. Riedmiller [40] suggested that $\eta^+ = 1.2$ and $\eta^- = 0.5$. For most problems, Rprop does not require optimizing parameters to obtain optimal or at least near optimal convergence times, which is one of its key strengths [41].

2.2.2 Particle Swarm Optimizers

PSO is a meta-heuristic search algorithm inspired by the social behaviour of birds in a flock [14]. A PSO algorithm manipulates a swarm of particles, where each particle is a potential solution to an optimization problem. The swarm traverses a search space searching for an optimum solution. As the particles move around, each particle is attracted to both the best position it has found so far, as well as the overall best position found within its neighborhood. Due to these dynamics, a swarm that was uniformly distributed in the search space converges on a small area around the optimum position [45], [10]. Refer to [14], [17] for a detailed description of PSO.

To train a NN using PSO, each particle in the swarm represents a weight vector of the NN. The dimension of each weight vector is set to be equal to the total number of weights (and biases) of the NN [31]. The quality of each particle is computed using the sum square error (SSE) over the training set. The objective of the PSO is to minimize the SSE.

2.2.3 Particle Swarm Optimizers for Dynamic Environments

PSO was designed for solving optimization problems in a static environment. When PSO is applied in a dynamic environment, the algorithm faces two main challenges:

- Outdated memory: Once there is a change in the environment, the personal and neighborhood best positions of the PSO are no longer representative of the new environment [17]. Thus, the personal and neighborhood best positions should not continue to be used as attractors.
- Loss of swarm diversity: As the swarm starts to converge, all particles are concentrated around one point in the search space. Any environmental change that causes the optimum to move outside of this region can not be tracked due to lack in swarm diversity.

Several modifications of PSO have been developed to track optima in dynamic environments. These dynamic PSO algorithms include charged PSO [6], quantum PSO (QSO) [7], cooperative charged PSO (CCPSO) [35], and cooperative quantum PSO (CQSO) [44]. Refer to [13], [39] for an in-depth review of dynamic PSO algorithms. CQSO is used in this study because it was shown to have superiority over a number of other dynamic PSO algorithms over a wide range of different dynamic environment types [44].

2.2.4 Cooperative Quantum Particle Swarm Optimizers

The CQSO partitions the search space dimension-wise into k disjoint groups where each group is assigned to an individual subswarm to optimize. The algorithm maintains a complete solution (or context) vector that individual subswarms uses to evaluate the quality of its particles. Quality is evaluated for each particle in a subswarm by substituting values of the dimensions the

subswarm is accountable for into the context vector, while keeping constant the remaining values in the vector (which are the best values from other subswarms). The particle that, when substituted into the context vector, had the best quality is returned as the best solution in the subswarm. When all subswarms evaluate their particles' quality, the context vector contains the optimal solution discovered so far.

The subswarms in CQSO uses the QSO algorithm. QSO is inspired by the quantum model of an atom. In QSO, a portion of the particles implement the standard PSO velocity and position updates. The rest of the particles, referred to as quantum particles, have their positions sampled from a probability distribution centered on the global best position. Positions of the quantum particles are calculated as

$$\mathbf{x}_i \sim d(\hat{\mathbf{y}}, r_{cloud}) \quad (9)$$

where d is the probability distribution and r_{cloud} is the quantum radius. The control parameter, r_{cloud} is problem and environment dependent [13], [8].

Recently, Harrison *et al* [20] proposed using a parent centric crossover (PCX) operator [11] to generate the positions of quantum particles instead of using the radius and probability distribution parameters used in the standard QSO. In an empirical study using single-peak dynamic environment types, the new variant (i.e. QSO-PCX) was shown to be superior to QSO on progressive and chaotic environments, while no superior approach on quasi-static and abrupt environments was found [20]. The performance of the QSO-PCX algorithm was, however, not evaluated on real-world and multi-peak environments.

3 Experimental Procedure

This study investigates the necessity of recurrent/delayed connections in NN forecasters when a dynamic PSO algorithm is used as the training method. For this purpose, a set of experiments under three different dynamic environmental scenarios, given in Table 4, were carried out on the ten forecasting problems described in Section 3.1. Each experiment involves training a FNN using a dynamic PSO algorithm and the results are compared to the results obtained from four different types of RNNs (i.e. Elman NN, Jordan NN, Multi-Recurrent NN and Time Delay NN) trained separately using Rprop, standard PSO and a dynamic PSO algorithm. For sound performance evaluation, 30 independent runs for each experiment was carried out and the average over these 30 runs was computed. All algorithms used were implemented in the Computational Intelligence library (CILib) version 0.9. CILib is available at <https://github.com/cirg-up/cilib>.

The remainder of this section discusses the control parameters of all the algorithms, the problems used in the experiments carried out, and also describes the performance metrics used in evaluating the models investigated.

3.1 Datasets

Eight time series with different complexities were used in the experiments. Six are real world time series obtained on-line from the Time Series Data Library [22]. The other two, Mackey glass and the Logistic map were artificially generated and can be obtained at <https://tinyurl.com/yybxk3rj>. Table 1 summarizes the statistics of the datasets used.

All datasets were scaled to the range $[-1, 1]$ and standardized such that the mean of each input variable over the training set is close to zero as suggested in [27].

Each dataset was serially divided into two independent subsets. The first 80% of the dataset was used for training and the remaining 20% for testing. For control parameter optimization purposes only, the training subset was split further in 70:30 ratio for training and validation respectively.

3.2 Neural Networks Setup

For each problem, the architectures for all the NN models were selected as follows: 10 and 12 input nodes were chosen for problems with annually collected data (each representing a year in the decade) and monthly collected data (each representing a month of the year) respectively. For problems with data collected quarterly, four input nodes were used (each representing a quarter of the year), while 30 and 24 input nodes were used for problems with data collected daily (each representing a day of the month) and hourly (each representing an hour in the day) respectively. This intuitive method was used by a number of researchers such as [26], [18], [43] and has been effective in constructing optimal NN architectures. For the Mackey glass and Logistic map (which are synthetic problems), the number of input nodes were as used in [2].

A single hidden layer was used for all the NN models, and the optimal number of hidden nodes were selected iteratively for each training set from the discrete range $[2, 50]$. For every value within the range, 30 independent runs were conducted and the number of hidden units that yielded the minimum average training and validation errors was chosen as optimal. The number of time steps (or delayed patterns) in TDNNs were optimized in a similar way.

Table 1: Statistic of the Time Series Data under Study

Dataset	Observations	Minimum	Mean	Maximum	St. Deviation	Variance	Skew
International Airline Passengers (AIP)	144	104.00	280.30	622.00	119.97	14391.92	0.58
Australian Wine Sales (AWS)	187	1954.00	3262.61	5725.00	728.36	530504.45	0.73
US Accidental Death (USD)	72	6892.00	8787.74	11317.00	958.34	918411.75	0.35
Sunspot Annual Measure (SAM)	289	0.00	48.90	190.20	39.58	1566.47	1.00
Hourly Internet Traffic (HIT)	1657	13321.26	46397.15	125058.79	22136.72	490034325.27	0.84
Daily Minimum Temperature (DMT)	3650	0.00	11.19	26.30	4.06	16.50	0.18
Mackey Glass (MG)	480	0.00	0.57	1.00	0.25	0.06	-0.40
Logistic Map (LM)	150	0.00	0.64	1.33	0.48	0.23	0.12

Table 2: Neural network parameters for each dataset

Problem	Input nodes	Delays for TDNN	Hidden nodes					Output nodes
			FNN	Elman NN	Jordan NN	MRNN	TDNN	
MG	4	1	11	3	6	2	4	1
LM	3	4	6	13	6	10	4	1
HIT	12	2	3	3	8	3	2	1
AWS	12	2	13	4	6	3	2	1
USD	12	1	2	2	7	2	2	1
SAM	10	1	4	3	11	5	2	1
HIT	24	1	2	3	3	2	2	1
DMT	30	6	3	3	3	3	3	1

The same approach was used in optimizing all parameters for all algorithms used in the study.

A single output node was used for all the NN models (one step ahead forecasting was considered). For each problem, parameters selected for the NNs are listed in Table 2.

Due to the saturation problem caused by bounded activation functions when PSO is used to train FNNs [48], [38], linear activation functions were used in the hidden units of the FNNs. However, modified hyperbolic tangent functions [27] were used in the hidden layer nodes of the RNNs and in the output nodes of all the NN models. The modified hyperbolic tangent function is defined as,

$$f(net) = 1.7159 \tanh\left(\frac{2}{3}net\right) \quad (10)$$

Bounded activation functions were used in the RNNs in order to avoid passing blown-up activations (i.e. large outputs) from the unbounded functions to the context/state layer, since large context/layer inputs may dominate the real NN inputs (which their mean is close to zero).

All NN weights were initialized randomly in the range $[-\frac{1}{\sqrt{fanin}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{fanin}}]$, where $fanin$ is the number incoming connections to a node. This range was shown to be good for weight initialization [47].

3.3 Resilient Propagation Algorithm

Default Rprop parameters were used in this study, since Rprop does not require optimizing parameters to obtain optimal convergence times on most problems [41].

3.4 PSO Setup

For all the experiments, a linearly decreasing inertia weight was used, with an initial value of 0.9 and a final value of 0.5. Acceleration coefficients values were fixed at $c_1 = c_2 = 1.49$, based on [15], where it was shown that such

parameter settings give convergent behaviour. Velocity was not constrained and the Von Neumann topology was used since it facilitates diversity [28], [25], which is good for dynamic problems. For each experiment, the swarm size was determined as equal to the total number of particles used in the CQSO in order to facilitate fair comparison.

3.5 Cooperative Quantum Particle Swarm Optimization

In addition to the PSO parameter setup given in Section 3.4, the radius of the quantum cloud and the percentage of quantum particles per swarm were iteratively selected from the ranges given in Table 3 as suggested in [7].

Table 3: PSO parameter ranges considered

Parameter	Range
Quantum radius, r	[0.2, 0.5, 0.8, 1, 2]
% of quantum particles	[10, 20, 30, 40, 50]
Number of dimensions per group	[4, 6, 8, 10, 12]

For each dataset, the number of subswarms, k , in the CQSO was determined as the ratio $[N_w/d]$, where N_w is the total number of weights and biases in the NN and d is the number of weights grouped together. The value of parameter d was iteratively optimized from the range of values given in Table 3. The size of each subswarm was set to 10 particles based on [4], [5].

3.6 Simulating Dynamic Environment

For each dataset, performance was investigated under nine different dynamic environmental scenarios. The scenarios were simulated using a sliding time window technique. This involves choosing a window of size w and a step value s for sliding the window over the dataset. The window is used to train the NNs for f number of iterations (i.e change frequency) before the window slides over the dataset. The sliding process involves throwing away the s values at the beginning of the window and adding the next s values in the data series to the end of the window. The training and sliding process is repeated until all of the datasets are used. An example to illustrate this process with $w = 6$ and $s = 4$ is given in Figure 2. When the window slides, four values, $\{x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4\}$, are discarded and new values, $\{x_7, x_8, x_9, x_{10}\}$, are added, while x_5 and x_6 remain in the window.

The step size determines the spatial severity of the change. A small value for s implies a slight change, while a large value implies a drastic change. An algorithm runs on a window for f iterations before the window slides, controlling the temporal severity. Table 4 presents the parameter setup used

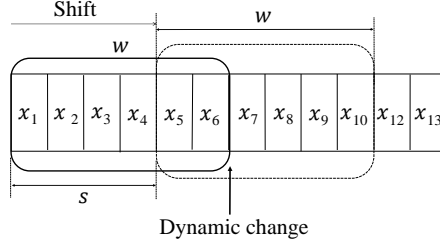


Fig. 2: Sliding Time Window

Table 4: Dynamic scenarios settings for each dataset

Dataset	Scenario I			Scenario II			Scenario III		
	w	s	f	w	s	f	w	s	f
MG	84	30	50	84	60	100	84	84	200
LM	31	10	50	31	25	100	31	31	150
IAP	32	10	50	32	25	100	32	32	150
AWS	42	20	50	42	35	100	42	42	150
USD	20	8	50	20	16	100	20	20	150
SAM	60	20	50	60	40	100	60	60	150
HIT	584	250	50	584	500	100	584	584	150
DMT	510	200	10	510	400	50	510	510	100

to simulate the nine different dynamic scenarios for all the problems. As shown in the table, the combination of s and f differs under different scenarios, and therefore requires different numbers of iterations to traverse the entire dataset, calculated as

$$T = f * \frac{N - w}{s} + f \quad (11)$$

3.7 Performance Measurement

The collective mean fitness (CMF) [32] was employed as the performance measure for all the experiments. The CMF is given as

$$F_{mean}(t) = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^T F(t)}{T} \quad (12)$$

where $F(t)$ is a measure of the quality of the NN and T is the total number of iterations. CMF is commonly used when dynamic environments are considered, because it reflects algorithm performance across the entire range of the landscape dynamics. The mean square error (MSE) calculated over the data set during each iteration was adopted as the quality of the NN.

The generalization factor, ρ , was used to quantify the overfitting behavior of the forecasting models. The generalization factor was proposed in [42] and

is defined as G_E/T_E , where T_E and G_E are the training and generalization errors respectively. Overfitting is a phenomenon where a NN performs well on training data but poorly on generalization data. A $\rho < 1$ is an indication of good generalization performance while $\rho > 1$ is an indication of overfitting. Since dynamic problems are considered, ρ was calculated using Equation (12), but with $F(t)$ replaced with $\rho(t)$. Thus, all reported values of ρ reflect the generalization factor across the entire algorithm run.

A two tailed Mann Whitney U test [29] was used to check whether the difference in performance of two models was statistically significant. The null hypothesis, $H_0 : \mu_1 = \mu_2$, where μ_1 and μ_2 are the means of the two samples being compared, was evaluated at a significance level of 0.95. The alternative hypothesis is defined as $H_1 : \mu_1 \neq \mu_2$. Thus, any p-value less than 0.05 corresponds to rejection of the null hypothesis that there is no statistically significant difference between the sample means. For the sake of convenience, all p-values were bounded below by 0.0001.

4 Experimental Results and Discussion

Tables 5 to 12 summarize the CMF T_E and G_E values with their corresponding confidence intervals (in parenthesis) obtained from the experiments. Minimum error values are printed in bold. Also reported in the tables is the generalization factor, ρ . To visualize the results obtained, graphs which are considered as representative or interesting are shown. For convenience, the naming convention Y-X was employed, where Y refers to either Elman, Jordan, MRNN, or TDNN, and X refers to either RPROP, PSO, or CQSO.

As shown in Tables 5 and 6, the results obtained for the MG and HIT problems indicate that the FNN-CQSO model yielded the lowest CMF T_E and G_E values compared to the remaining models for all three dynamic scenarios. For both the MG and HIT problems, all p-values for the pairwise comparison between the FNN-CQSO and the other models were below the 0.05 threshold. This indicates that the difference in performance between the FNN-CQSO and each of the other RNN models were significant for all three scenarios. All the NN models indicate no or slight overfitting.

Figure 3 illustrates the performance progression over time for the FNN-CQSO and the three top performing models, one from each of the RPROP, the PSO and the CQSO trained models for scenario I in predicting the MG time series. Figure 3 shows that all the models had a stable performance progression throughout the experiments, with a slight drop in training errors and a minor increase in the peak of the generalization errors after environmental changes. The figure also shows that the FNN-CQSO model outperformed the other models right from the first epoch to the end.

Tables 7 to 10 show that the FNN-CQSO model produced the lowest training errors in predicting the DMT, SAM, LM and AWS time series for all three dynamic scenarios. The FNN-CQSO also yielded the lowest generalization errors in predicting these problems in at least two out of the three scenarios.

Table 5: Results of predicting the MG time series

Model	Scenario I			Scenario II			Scenario III		
	T_E	G_E	ρ	T_E	G_E	ρ	T_E	G_E	ρ
FF-CQSO	5.69E-06 (4.29E-07)	3.50E-06 (2.33E-07)	0.62 (0.02)	5.29E-06 (5.17E-07)	3.84E-06 (3.51E-07)	0.73 (0.02)	4.34E-06 (3.51E-07)	4.42E-06 (1.77E-07)	1.05 (0.06)
Elman-Rprop	5.82E-04 (4.42E-04)	6.86E-04 (5.14E-04)	1.15 (0.10)	7.78E-04 (4.55E-04)	8.62E-04 (5.19E-04)	1.03 (0.04)	1.52E-04 (7.57E-05)	1.48E-04 (7.88E-05)	0.93 (0.04)
Elman-PSO	7.71E-05 (6.92E-06)	4.66E-05 (6.07E-06)	0.61 (0.10)	6.95E-05 (6.95E-06)	4.33E-05 (5.86E-06)	0.62 (0.04)	5.26E-05 (9.79E-06)	2.66E-05 (3.71E-06)	0.53 (0.04)
Elman-CQSO	3.69E-05 (5.28E-06)	3.55E-05 (6.37E-06)	0.97 (0.11)	4.05E-05 (1.80E-05)	2.72E-05 (3.34E-06)	0.84 (0.07)	1.96E-05 (2.24E-06)	1.48E-05 (1.59E-06)	0.76 (0.04)
Jordan-Rprop	1.99E-01 (1.86E-01)	2.02E-01 (1.89E-01)	1.06 (0.06)	9.91E-02 (1.32E-01)	9.35E-02 (1.25E-01)	1.04 (0.04)	2.71E-01 (2.17E-01)	2.77E-01 (2.20E-01)	1.03 (0.05)
Jordan-PSO	7.59E-05 (5.75E-06)	4.21E-05 (4.03E-06)	0.55 (0.03)	5.74E-05 (4.36E-06)	3.11E-05 (3.92E-06)	0.55 (0.06)	4.30E-05 (7.24E-06)	2.03E-05 (2.50E-06)	0.50 (0.05)
Jordan-CQSO	1.36E-05 (1.41E-06)	1.31E-05 (2.22E-06)	0.94 (0.11)	1.37E-05 (1.88E-06)	1.19E-05 (2.05E-06)	0.85 (0.06)	8.83E-06 (8.92E-07)	6.85E-06 (4.77E-07)	0.80 (0.03)
MRNN-Rprop	9.64E-03 (2.84E-03)	9.90E-03 (2.86E-03)	1.03 (0.02)	1.53E-02 (6.85E-03)	1.61E-02 (7.02E-03)	1.07 (0.04)	9.58E-03 (5.22E-03)	1.01E-02 (5.40E-03)	1.13 (0.21)
MRNN-PSO	7.60E-05 (5.99E-06)	4.81E-05 (5.11E-06)	0.63 (0.04)	6.60E-05 (1.21E-05)	3.84E-05 (4.51E-06)	0.62 (0.06)	4.41E-05 (6.33E-06)	2.18E-05 (3.05E-06)	0.51 (0.05)
MRNN-CQSO	9.15E-05 (1.13E-05)	5.45E-05 (6.06E-06)	0.61 (0.05)	6.89E-05 (6.26E-06)	4.93E-05 (5.22E-06)	0.73 (0.06)	4.91E-05 (5.14E-06)	3.23E-05 (2.62E-06)	0.69 (0.06)
TDNN-Rprop	1.33E-04 (2.50E-05)	1.70E-04 (3.12E-05)	1.29 (0.07)	1.22E-04 (2.40E-05)	1.28E-04 (2.54E-05)	1.05 (0.02)	9.37E-05 (1.99E-05)	8.84E-05 (2.00E-05)	0.93 (0.02)
TDNN-PSO	6.83E-05 (6.71E-06)	4.46E-05 (6.34E-06)	0.64 (0.05)	5.65E-05 (4.29E-06)	3.05E-05 (3.07E-06)	0.54 (0.03)	3.42E-05 (2.76E-06)	1.79E-05 (1.37E-06)	0.53 (0.02)
TDNN-CQSO	1.81E-05 (2.97E-06)	1.61E-05 (2.48E-06)	0.91 (0.04)	1.43E-05 (1.26E-06)	1.21E-05 (9.63E-07)	0.86 (0.04)	1.00E-05 (7.41E-07)	8.42E-06 (5.85E-07)	0.85 (0.04)

All the NNs models trained using CQSO obtained lower errors compared to the NNs trained using either PSO and Rprop. For these four problems, all p-values for the pairwise comparison between the FNN-CQSO and the other models were below the threshold of 0.05 (which indicates that the difference in performance was significant statistically) except for a few cases.

For the DMT problem, the exceptions are the FNN-CQSO vs Elman-CQSO comparisons in terms of G_E for scenarios I and III, FNN-CQSO vs Jordan-CQSO comparisons for scenarios I and II, and FNN-CQSO vs TDNN-CQSO comparisons for scenario I. For the SAM problem, the exceptions are the FNN-

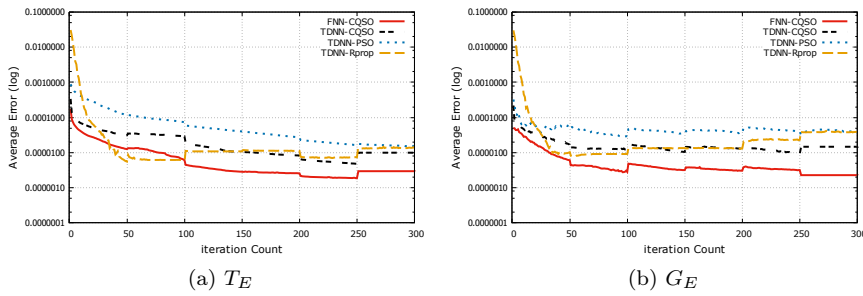


Fig. 3: Training and generalization error results for MG time series, scenario I

Table 6: Results of predicting the HIT time series

Model	Scenario I			Scenario II			Scenario III		
	T_E	G_E	ρ	T_E	G_E	ρ	T_E	G_E	ρ
FF-CQSO	5.55E-06 (3.69E-07)	5.17E-06 (3.21E-07)	0.93 (0.01)	6.14E-06 (3.87E-07)	6.36E-06 (3.83E-07)	1.04 (0.01)	6.18E-06 (3.93E-07)	5.65E-06 (3.40E-07)	0.92 (0.01)
Elman-Rprop	4.73E-04 (1.09E-04)	4.77E-04 (1.10E-04)	1.01 (0.01)	3.68E-04 (9.45E-05)	3.66E-04 (9.37E-05)	1.00 (0.01)	3.87E-04 (1.04E-04)	3.88E-04 (1.05E-04)	1.00 (0.01)
Elman-PSO	8.26E-05 (1.04E-05)	8.37E-05 (1.14E-05)	1.01 (0.01)	7.42E-05 (1.02E-05)	6.25E-05 (9.03E-06)	0.84 (0.01)	7.02E-05 (1.02E-05)	6.55E-05 (1.20E-05)	0.92 (0.01)
Elman-CQSO	1.21E-05 (8.75E-07)	1.09E-05 (7.35E-07)	0.91 (0.01)	1.19E-05 (7.57E-07)	1.16E-05 (6.27E-07)	0.98 (0.02)	1.25E-05 (1.02E-06)	1.15E-05 (8.95E-07)	0.92 (0.01)
Jordan-Rprop	9.57E-03 (5.05E-03)	9.85E-03 (5.59E-03)	0.99 (0.01)	5.62E-03 (2.36E-03)	5.59E-03 (2.35E-03)	1.00 (0.01)	1.07E-02 (4.15E-03)	1.06E-02 (4.06E-03)	0.99 (0.00)
Jordan-PSO	8.23E-05 (1.57E-05)	8.07E-05 (1.63E-05)	0.97 (0.03)	7.20E-05 (1.01E-05)	6.41E-05 (1.09E-05)	0.87 (0.03)	8.50E-05 (2.53E-05)	8.02E-05 (2.66E-05)	0.92 (0.03)
Jordan-CQSO	8.28E-06 (4.84E-07)	7.77E-06 (4.26E-07)	0.94 (0.01)	8.27E-06 (4.39E-07)	8.50E-06 (4.41E-07)	1.03 (0.01)	8.21E-06 (4.50E-07)	7.85E-06 (4.09E-07)	0.96 (0.01)
MRNN-Rprop	1.09E-02 (4.14E-03)	1.08E-02 (4.07E-03)	0.99 (0.00)	8.72E-03 (3.26E-03)	8.64E-03 (3.22E-03)	1.00 (0.01)	5.17E-03 (1.98E-03)	5.15E-03 (1.97E-03)	1.00 (0.01)
MRNN-PSO	5.46E-05 (7.59E-06)	5.09E-05 (7.06E-06)	0.93 (0.02)	5.23E-05 (9.93E-06)	4.66E-05 (1.06E-05)	0.87 (0.03)	5.07E-05 (1.27E-05)	4.46E-05 (1.18E-05)	0.87 (0.02)
MRNN-CQSO	1.01E-05 (1.04E-06)	9.35E-06 (8.81E-07)	0.93 (0.01)	5.23E-05 (9.93E-06)	4.66E-05 (1.06E-05)	0.87 (0.03)	1.12E-05 (2.39E-06)	1.07E-05 (2.10E-06)	0.96 (0.01)
TDNN-Rprop	5.57E-04 (1.50E-04)	5.54E-04 (1.48E-04)	1.00 (0.01)	6.56E-04 (1.99E-04)	6.46E-04 (1.95E-04)	0.99 (0.01)	4.50E-04 (1.37E-04)	4.33E-04 (1.32E-04)	0.98 (0.02)
TDNN-PSO	1.20E-04 (3.23E-05)	1.16E-04 (2.90E-05)	0.99 (0.04)	1.33E-04 (4.93E-05)	1.16E-04 (4.47E-05)	0.86 (0.03)	9.87E-05 (2.53E-05)	9.65E-05 (3.00E-05)	0.93 (0.04)
TDNN-CQSO	3.10E-05 (3.76E-05)	2.99E-05 (3.70E-05)	0.95 (0.02)	1.41E-05 (5.62E-06)	1.37E-05 (3.95E-06)	1.03 (0.02)	1.59E-05 (7.42E-06)	1.49E-05 (6.77E-06)	0.95 (0.01)

CQSO vs Jordan-CQSO comparisons for all three scenarios. For the LM problem, the exceptions are the FNN-CQSO vs Jordan-CQSO comparisons in terms of G_E for the three scenarios, and for scenario III in terms of T_E . The other exceptions are when FNN-CQSO is compared to Elman-CQSO, Elman-PSO, Jordan-PSO, MRNN-PSO, TDNN-Rprop, and TDNN-CQSO in terms of G_E for scenario I. For the AWS problem, the exceptions are when FNN-CQSO is compared to Elman-Rprop, Elman-CQSO, Elman-PSO, Jordan-PSO, MRNN-PSO, MRNN-CQSO, TDNN-PSO and TDNN-CQSO in terms of G_E for scenarios II and III. In terms of T_E comparisons, the exceptions are FNN-CQSO vs Elman-Rprop, FNN-CQSO vs Elman-CQSO, and FNN-CQSO vs TDNN-CQSO for scenario III.

The ρ values for the DMT problem show that all the NN models had slight or no sign of overfitting. For the SAM problem, the NN models trained using CQSO did not overfit for all scenarios, while the models trained using either PSO or Rprop showed slight signs of overfitting. For the LM problem, all the models overfitted for the slightly changing scenario I. The models, however, showed only slight overfitting behaviour for scenario II. For scenario III, where changes are abrupt, the models trained using CQSO and PSO showed no sign of overfitting, while the models trained using Rprop slightly overfitted. For the AWS problem, all the models overfitted.

Figure 4 shows the performance progression over time for the four models that achieved the best results in predicting the AWS time series for scenario III. As visualized in the figure, while the Elman-RPROP model fluctuated a lot, the

Table 7: Results of predicting the DMT time series

Model	Scenario I			Scenario II			Scenario III		
	T_E	G_E	ρ	T_E	G_E	ρ	T_E	G_E	ρ
FF-CQSO	1.19E-05 (2.43E-07)	1.24E-05 (2.75E-07)	1.04 (0.00)	1.09E-05 (1.30E-07)	1.30E-05 (1.59E-07)	1.20 (0.00)	1.08E-05 (2.97E-07)	1.17E-05 (2.90E-07)	1.09 (0.00)
Elman-Rprop	7.29E-04 (2.35E-04)	7.29E-04 (2.36E-04)	1.00 (0.01)	3.42E-04 (1.04E-04)	3.44E-04 (1.03E-04)	1.01 (0.01)	1.88E-04 (4.75E-05)	1.88E-04 (4.72E-05)	1.00 (0.01)
Elman-PSO	4.42E-05 (1.31E-05)	4.58E-05 (1.38E-05)	1.04 (0.01)	2.54E-05 (6.05E-06)	2.81E-05 (5.87E-06)	1.14 (0.01)	1.91E-05 (2.78E-06)	1.97E-05 (2.81E-06)	1.04 (0.01)
Elman-CQSO	1.35E-05 (2.05E-06)	1.38E-05 (1.94E-06)	1.02 (0.01)	1.13E-05 (1.39E-07)	1.34E-05 (1.74E-07)	1.19 (0.01)	1.09E-05 (1.33E-07)	1.17E-05 (1.81E-07)	1.07 (0.01)
Jordan-Rprop	1.47E-02 (5.10E-03)	1.48E-02 (5.16E-03)	1.00 (0.00)	5.11E-03 (1.91E-03)	4.96E-03 (1.81E-03)	0.99 (0.02)	3.79E-03 (9.82E-04)	3.78E-03 (9.83E-04)	1.00 (0.01)
Jordan-PSO	2.91E-05 (5.71E-06)	3.02E-05 (5.80E-06)	1.05 (0.03)	2.10E-05 (3.21E-06)	2.44E-05 (3.44E-06)	1.18 (0.03)	1.73E-05 (2.05E-06)	1.78E-05 (2.03E-06)	1.03 (0.02)
Jordan-CQSO	1.23E-05 (4.29E-07)	1.27E-05 (3.91E-07)	1.03 (0.01)	1.10E-05 (1.56E-07)	1.31E-05 (1.87E-07)	1.18 (0.01)	1.10E-05 (3.71E-07)	1.19E-05 (4.09E-07)	1.08 (0.01)
MRNN-Rprop	1.62E-02 (4.71E-03)	1.63E-02 (4.72E-03)	1.01 (0.00)	4.47E-03 (1.14E-03)	4.44E-03 (1.14E-03)	0.99 (0.01)	3.13E-03 (1.20E-03)	3.13E-03 (1.21E-03)	1.00 (0.01)
MRNN-PSO	3.18E-05 (7.96E-06)	3.19E-05 (7.33E-06)	1.02 (0.03)	2.27E-05 (5.45E-06)	2.60E-05 (5.10E-06)	1.17 (0.03)	1.54E-05 (8.06E-07)	1.62E-05 (8.61E-07)	1.05 (0.02)
MRNN-CQSO	1.28E-05 (5.76E-07)	1.31E-05 (5.28E-07)	1.03 (0.01)	1.20E-05 (8.11E-07)	1.40E-05 (7.08E-07)	1.18 (0.01)	1.11E-05 (1.10E-07)	1.19E-05 (1.65E-07)	1.08 (0.01)
TDNN-Rprop	7.99E-04 (2.40E-04)	7.81E-04 (2.33E-04)	0.98 (0.04)	4.85E-04 (2.14E-04)	4.48E-04 (1.87E-04)	0.97 (0.02)	2.97E-04 (9.35E-05)	2.90E-04 (9.15E-05)	0.99 (0.01)
TDNN-PSO	4.90E-04 (2.44E-04)	4.91E-04 (2.42E-04)	1.04 (0.02)	4.32E-04 (2.65E-04)	4.46E-04 (2.77E-04)	1.06 (0.05)	3.41E-04 (1.45E-04)	3.39E-04 (1.45E-04)	0.98 (0.01)
TDNN-CQSO	1.19E-05 (2.59E-07)	1.25E-05 (2.71E-07)	1.05 (0.01)	1.30E-05 (2.31E-06)	1.51E-05 (2.31E-06)	1.18 (0.01)	1.17E-05 (8.94E-07)	1.27E-05 (8.28E-07)	1.09 (0.01)

other three models had a more stable error progression. Figure 4a shows that the FNN-CQSO had the best T_E progression throughout the search. The G_E progression of the models shown in Figure 4b indicates that the FNN-CQSO had similar or better performance compared to the other models, adapting well to the changes until the last environmental change, where the FNN-CQSO produced slightly the worst error.

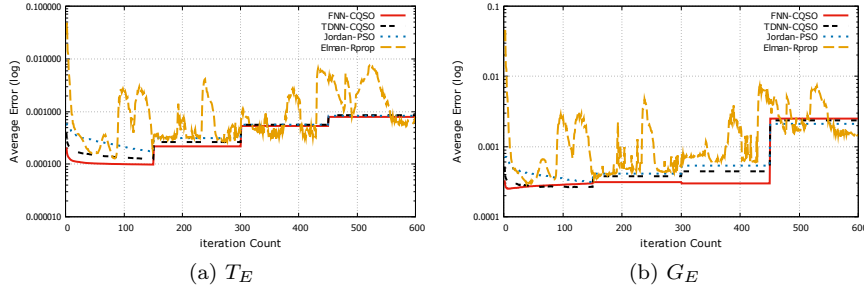


Fig. 4: Training and generalization error results for AWS time series, scenario III

Table 8: Results of predicting the SAM time series

Model	Scenario I			Scenario II			Scenario III		
	T_E	G_E	ρ	T_E	G_E	ρ	T_E	G_E	ρ
FF-CQSO	1.45E-04 (2.95E-06)	1.27E-04 (2.36E-06)	0.88 (0.01)	1.49E-04 (2.99E-06)	8.13E-05 (1.03E-06)	0.55 (0.01)	1.24E-04 (1.90E-06)	8.93E-05 (1.57E-06)	0.72 (0.00)
Elman-Rprop	3.77E-04 (7.47E-05)	4.18E-04 (7.37E-05)	1.14 (0.04)	3.14E-04 (4.94E-05)	3.62E-04 (5.31E-05)	1.17 (0.06)	5.02E-04 (2.02E-04)	5.13E-04 (2.01E-04)	1.04 (0.02)
Elman-PSO	2.96E-04 (1.30E-05)	3.81E-04 (2.78E-05)	1.29 (0.04)	3.52E-04 (1.83E-05)	1.88E-04 (1.69E-05)	0.53 (0.06)	2.71E-04 (2.31E-05)	2.16E-04 (1.75E-05)	0.80 (0.02)
Elman-CQSO	2.41E-04 (1.27E-05)	2.49E-04 (3.17E-05)	1.02 (0.10)	2.63E-04 (1.29E-05)	1.37E-04 (1.14E-05)	0.53 (0.06)	2.13E-04 (9.74E-06)	2.04E-04 (9.73E-06)	0.96 (0.03)
Jordan-Rprop	1.89E-02 (3.41E-02)	1.88E-02 (3.36E-02)	1.12 (0.05)	4.32E-03 (3.94E-03)	4.52E-03 (3.99E-03)	1.09 (0.03)	2.89E-03 (1.45E-03)	3.08E-03 (1.55E-03)	1.09 (0.05)
Jordan-PSO	4.90E-04 (3.79E-05)	6.40E-04 (8.48E-05)	1.31 (0.11)	6.59E-04 (8.29E-05)	4.78E-04 (7.48E-05)	0.71 (0.05)	6.53E-04 (1.47E-04)	6.75E-04 (1.51E-04)	1.06 (0.05)
Jordan-CQSO	1.45E-04 (5.40E-06)	1.31E-04 (5.19E-06)	0.91 (0.04)	1.54E-04 (3.87E-06)	7.91E-05 (2.59E-06)	0.51 (0.01)	1.25E-04 (3.56E-06)	9.01E-05 (2.89E-06)	0.72 (0.00)
MRNN-Rprop	5.36E-02 (8.63E-02)	5.60E-02 (8.94E-02)	1.11 (0.08)	7.45E-03 (4.11E-03)	7.61E-03 (4.42E-03)	1.02 (0.03)	4.65E-03 (2.10E-03)	5.30E-03 (2.42E-03)	1.17 (0.09)
MRNN-PSO	3.91E-04 (2.32E-05)	4.97E-04 (4.12E-05)	1.28 (0.09)	5.03E-04 (3.84E-05)	3.15E-04 (1.99E-05)	0.64 (0.04)	4.00E-04 (2.69E-05)	3.61E-04 (2.21E-05)	0.91 (0.05)
MRNN-CQSO	2.20E-04 (1.00E-05)	1.89E-04 (1.88E-05)	0.86 (0.06)	2.38E-04 (1.28E-05)	1.10E-04 (8.67E-06)	0.46 (0.02)	1.85E-04 (1.06E-05)	1.52E-04 (8.78E-06)	0.83 (0.04)
TDNN-Rprop	4.03E-04 (7.96E-05)	4.36E-04 (7.95E-05)	1.11 (0.03)	4.07E-04 (9.01E-05)	4.67E-04 (8.75E-05)	1.21 (0.05)	3.65E-04 (8.38E-05)	3.72E-04 (7.81E-05)	1.05 (0.03)
TDNN-PSO	3.16E-04 (1.54E-05)	3.89E-04 (2.47E-05)	1.24 (0.07)	3.38E-04 (1.63E-05)	1.76E-04 (1.62E-05)	0.52 (0.03)	2.55E-04 (9.63E-06)	2.07E-04 (1.08E-05)	0.81 (0.03)
TDNN-CQSO	2.55E-04 (1.19E-05)	2.31E-04 (2.08E-05)	0.90 (0.05)	2.59E-04 (9.16E-06)	1.25E-04 (7.63E-06)	0.48 (0.02)	2.14E-04 (5.85E-06)	1.70E-04 (9.03E-06)	0.80 (0.04)

Table 11 show that the FNN-CQSO model yielded the lowest CMF T_E and G_E values for scenarios II and III in forecasting the IAP problem. For scenario I, the Elman-Rprop model had the lowest T_E , while the Jordan-CQSO model produced the lowest G_E . All the p-values for pairwise comparison between the FNN-CQSO and the other models were below the 0.05 threshold, except for the FNN-CQSO vs Jordan-CQSO comparisons, where the two models produced statistically similar performance for all scenarios. All the NN models studied showed some sign of overfitting.

For the USD problem, Table 12 shows that FNN-CQSO produced the lowest G_E for all three scenarios and the lowest T_E for scenario II. The Jordan-CQSO, however, obtained the lowest T_E for scenarios I and II. The ρ values in Table 12 show that all the models exhibited overfitting behaviour. All the p-values for the pairwise comparisons between the FNN-CQSO and the other models were below the 0.05 threshold (which indicate that the difference in performance was statistically significant), except when compared to:

- Jordan-CQSO (in terms of T_E) and Elman-Rprop for scenario I
- Elman-CQSO (in terms of T_E) and Jordan-CQSO for scenario II
- Elman-Rprop, TDNN-Rprop and TDNN-CQSO in terms of T_E for scenario III,

Table 9: Results of predicting the LM time series

Model	Scenario I			Scenario II			Scenario III		
	T_E	G_E	ρ	T_E	G_E	ρ	T_E	G_E	ρ
FF-CQSO	2.29E-03	3.67E-03	1.61	2.38E-03	2.55E-03	1.07	2.42E-03	2.26E-03	0.93
	(7.76E-05)	(7.04E-05)	(0.06)	(7.10E-07)	(3.54E-06)	(0.00)	(7.85E-06)	(1.67E-05)	(0.01)
Elman-Rprop	5.10E-03	6.54E-03	1.47	5.32E-03	5.73E-03	1.12	8.76E-03	9.10E-03	1.01
	(1.29E-03)	(1.19E-03)	(0.15)	(1.36E-03)	(1.32E-03)	(0.05)	(2.87E-03)	(3.25E-03)	(0.04)
Elman-PSO	3.27E-03	3.73E-03	1.17	3.78E-03	2.88E-03	0.78	3.51E-03	2.45E-03	0.72
	(2.21E-04)	(2.57E-04)	(0.15)	(2.50E-04)	(1.44E-04)	(0.05)	(2.41E-04)	(1.14E-04)	(0.04)
Elman-CQSO	2.48E-03	3.78E-03	1.55	2.67E-03	2.69E-03	1.01	2.86E-03	2.37E-03	0.84
	(1.26E-04)	(8.31E-05)	(0.07)	(1.01E-04)	(7.21E-05)	(0.02)	(1.31E-04)	(5.75E-05)	(0.03)
Jordan-Rprop	4.96E-03	6.38E-03	1.40	7.65E-02	8.15E-02	1.09	4.32E-03	4.39E-03	1.02
	(1.62E-03)	(1.62E-03)	(0.08)	(1.35E-01)	(1.44E-01)	(0.02)	(6.13E-04)	(5.91E-04)	(0.02)
Jordan-PSO	2.62E-03	3.63E-03	1.41	2.54E-03	2.59E-03	1.02	2.47E-03	2.30E-03	0.93
	(1.28E-04)	(8.90E-05)	(0.07)	(6.58E-05)	(5.00E-05)	(0.02)	(5.24E-05)	(3.56E-05)	(0.02)
Jordan-CQSO	2.54E-03	3.76E-03	1.51	2.44E-03	2.58E-03	1.06	2.42E-03	2.28E-03	0.94
	(1.51E-04)	(9.30E-05)	(0.08)	(2.45E-05)	(3.52E-05)	(0.01)	(1.81E-05)	(3.50E-05)	(0.01)
MRNN-Rprop	6.52E-03	7.65E-03	1.22	5.99E-03	6.38E-03	1.07	4.94E-03	5.04E-03	1.02
	(1.33E-03)	(1.29E-03)	(0.05)	(9.01E-04)	(9.13E-04)	(0.02)	(7.75E-04)	(7.92E-04)	(0.02)
MRNN-PSO	3.55E-03	4.06E-03	1.20	3.67E-03	2.80E-03	0.78	3.99E-03	2.64E-03	0.70
	(3.85E-04)	(4.17E-04)	(0.10)	(2.80E-04)	(1.49E-04)	(0.05)	(4.39E-04)	(2.50E-04)	(0.07)
MRNN-CQSO	2.38E-03	3.77E-03	1.59	2.64E-03	2.71E-03	1.03	2.67E-03	2.32E-03	0.87
	(6.72E-05)	(6.46E-05)	(0.05)	(5.24E-05)	(4.89E-05)	(0.01)	(8.17E-05)	(5.60E-05)	(0.02)
TDNN-Rprop	2.41E-03	3.91E-03	1.63	2.68E-03	3.48E-03	1.30	3.16E-03	3.40E-03	1.06
	(2.47E-04)	(3.61E-04)	(0.03)	(2.41E-04)	(3.38E-04)	(0.04)	(5.18E-04)	(6.99E-04)	(0.04)
TDNN-PSO	2.57E-03	3.55E-03	1.40	2.95E-03	3.09E-03	1.06	2.74E-03	2.61E-03	0.95
	(1.64E-04)	(1.98E-04)	(0.07)	(2.63E-04)	(2.14E-04)	(0.04)	(1.53E-04)	(1.76E-04)	(0.03)
TDNN-CQSO	2.77E-03	3.80E-03	1.38	2.60E-03	2.83E-03	1.09	2.69E-03	2.28E-03	0.85
	(1.08E-04)	(9.71E-05)	(0.06)	(4.85E-05)	(4.90E-05)	(0.03)	(2.91E-05)	(2.63E-05)	(0.01)

Table 10: Results of predicting the AWS time series

Model	Scenario I			Scenario II			Scenario III		
	T_E	G_E	ρ	T_E	G_E	ρ	T_E	G_E	ρ
FF-CQSO	3.92E-04	6.71E-04	1.70	3.59E-04	6.06E-04	1.68	4.11E-04	8.51E-04	2.07
	(2.29E-05)	(5.27E-05)	(0.04)	(1.45E-05)	(3.42E-05)	(0.04)	(1.43E-05)	3.34E-05)	(0.02)
Elman-Rprop	5.71E-04	7.27E-04	1.33	9.53E-04	1.32E-03	1.7	1.53E-03	1.80E-03	1.71
	(1.10E-04)	(1.07E-04)	(0.07)	(6.51E-04)	(6.27E-04)	(0.13)	(9.33E-04)	(7.71E-04)	(0.19)
Elman-PSO	5.98E-04	9.71E-04	1.63	5.97E-04	6.42E-04	1.08	5.54E-04	9.37E-04	1.68
	(2.78E-05)	(5.66E-05)	(0.07)	(2.66E-05)	(2.92E-05)	(0.13)	(3.46E-05)	(8.28E-05)	(0.19)
Elman-CQSO	4.31E-04	7.38E-04	1.70	4.52E-04	6.28E-04	1.38	4.69E-04	9.29E-04	1.96
	(2.37E-05)	(6.53E-05)	(0.08)	(2.76E-05)	(6.59E-05)	(0.09)	(3.77E-05)	(9.39E-05)	(0.05)
Jordan-Rprop	5.61E-03	6.08E-03	1.15	6.22E-02	5.72E-02	1.42	5.47E-02	5.74E-02	1.27
	(2.29E-03)	(2.49E-03)	(0.05)	(1.16E-01)	(1.05E-01)	(0.17)	(9.59E-02)	(1.00E-01)	(0.12)
Jordan-PSO	5.40E-04	9.03E-04	1.67	5.83E-04	6.23E-04	1.07	4.92E-04	8.65E-04	1.75
	(1.78E-05)	(5.65E-05)	(0.07)	(2.82E-05)	(3.48E-05)	(0.04)	(2.06E-05)	(5.52E-05)	(0.06)
Jordan-CQSO	4.42E-04	7.71E-04	1.72	4.36E-04	6.49E-04	1.48	4.93E-04	9.96E-04	1.99
	(2.74E-05)	(7.33E-05)	(0.07)	(2.29E-05)	(5.57E-05)	(0.07)	(3.64E-05)	(1.01E-04)	(0.06)
MRNN-Rprop	1.01E-02	1.04E-02	1.12	1.32E-02	1.40E-02	1.24	7.19E-03	8.38E-03	1.28
	(6.75E-03)	(6.59E-03)	(0.05)	(5.08E-03)	(5.27E-03)	(0.13)	(3.48E-03)	(3.70E-03)	(0.16)
MRNN-PSO	5.70E-04	9.58E-04	1.69	5.81E-04	6.34E-04	1.09	5.04E-04	8.66E-04	1.71
	(2.99E-05)	(5.09E-05)	(0.06)	(2.81E-05)	(4.07E-05)	(0.05)	(2.12E-05)	(4.99E-05)	(0.05)
MRNN-CQSO	4.87E-04	8.70E-04	1.78	4.64E-04	5.91E-04	1.27	5.10E-04	9.95E-04	1.92
	(2.82E-05)	(7.97E-05)	(0.10)	(1.91E-05)	(4.38E-05)	(0.07)	(4.12E-05)	(1.17E-04)	(0.08)
TDNN-Rprop	4.11E-03	5.91E-03	1.43	4.83E-03	5.71E-03	1.16	2.12E-03	2.68E-03	1.48
	(1.32E-03)	(1.78E-03)	(0.12)	(2.90E-03)	(3.22E-03)	(0.07)	(6.95E-04)	(7.22E-04)	(0.10)
TDNN-PSO	5.15E-04	9.09E-04	1.75	5.82E-04	6.34E-04	1.09	4.81E-04	8.87E-04	1.83
	(2.43E-05)	(6.87E-05)	(0.07)	(2.17E-05)	(3.52E-05)	(0.04)	(2.67E-05)	(7.45E-05)	(0.06)
TDNN-CQSO	4.96E-04	9.13E-04	1.80	5.28E-04	6.51E-04	1.19	4.56E-04	8.68E-04	1.85
	(3.58E-05)	(1.09E-04)	(0.12)	(4.50E-05)	(1.05E-04)	(0.09)	(4.23E-05)	(1.23E-04)	(0.10)

Table 11: Results of predicting the AIP time series

Model	Scenario I			Scenario II			Scenario III		
	T_E	G_E	ρ	T_E	G_E	ρ	T_E	G_E	ρ
FF-CQSO	3.10E-04 (2.00E-04)	3.60E-04 (2.40E-04)	1.21 (0.06)	1.30E-04 (4.91E-05)	1.70E-04 (5.01E-05)	1.54 (0.13)	1.00E-04 (2.43E-05)	1.28E-04 (3.02E-05)	1.33 (0.16)
Elman-Rprop	2.30E-04 (4.00E-05)	3.10E-04 (5.00E-05)	1.46 (0.11)	2.07E-04 (4.75E-05)	3.18E-04 (5.71E-05)	1.71 (0.15)	2.41E-04 (6.30E-05)	4.04E-04 (8.08E-05)	1.97 (0.29)
Elman-PSO	2.15E-03 (2.30E-04)	2.32E-03 (2.60E-04)	1.07 (0.11)	2.03E-03 (2.34E-04)	2.97E-03 (3.41E-04)	1.47 (0.15)	1.90E-03 (1.74E-04)	2.98E-03 (2.95E-04)	1.56 (0.29)
Elman-CQSO	1.75E-03 (2.30E-04)	2.15E-03 (2.80E-04)	1.23 (0.03)	2.28E-03 (3.37E-04)	1.94E-03 (3.32E-04)	0.83 (0.04)	1.81E-03 (1.88E-04)	2.90E-03 (3.10E-04)	1.60 (0.01)
Jordan-Rprop	1.45E-01 (1.24E-01)	1.47E-01 (1.25E-01)	1.05 (0.02)	1.09E-02 (1.00E-02)	1.09E-02 (1.00E-02)	1.23 (0.09)	2.07E-02 (2.72E-02)	1.98E-02 (2.49E-02)	1.09 (0.06)
Jordan-PSO	2.60E-03 (5.90E-04)	2.82E-03 (6.40E-04)	1.08 (0.03)	2.72E-03 (5.75E-04)	3.97E-03 (7.77E-04)	1.51 (0.08)	1.89E-03 (3.40E-04)	3.70E-03 (5.87E-04)	2.03 (0.06)
Jordan-CQSO	2.40E-04 (7.00E-05)	2.70E-04 (8.00E-05)	1.10 (0.05)	1.65E-04 (6.76E-05)	2.16E-04 (6.55E-05)	1.60 (0.16)	1.51E-04 (6.37E-05)	2.56E-04 (1.32E-04)	1.57 (0.21)
MRNN-Rprop	1.47E-02 (1.11E-02)	1.58E-02 (1.14E-02)	1.13 (0.06)	1.17E-02 (5.62E-03)	1.42E-02 (7.57E-03)	1.26 (0.13)	1.56E-02 (1.63E-02)	1.72E-02 (1.78E-02)	1.36 (0.19)
MRNN-PSO	2.09E-03 (2.20E-04)	2.27E-03 (2.50E-04)	1.08 (0.01)	1.83E-03 (1.93E-04)	2.70E-03 (2.72E-04)	1.49 (0.05)	1.55E-03 (2.34E-04)	3.04E-03 (4.23E-04)	1.99 (0.03)
MRNN-CQSO	1.36E-03 (3.50E-04)	1.49E-03 (3.90E-04)	1.09 (0.02)	8.74E-04 (2.64E-04)	1.17E-03 (3.58E-04)	1.38 (0.10)	6.99E-04 (2.61E-04)	1.42E-03 (4.83E-04)	2.11 (0.04)
TDNN-Rprop	4.30E-04 (1.10E-04)	8.60E-04 (3.10E-04)	1.93 (0.20)	6.53E-04 (2.57E-04)	1.28E-03 (6.92E-04)	1.88 (0.16)	4.50E-04 (9.44E-05)	8.71E-04 (2.42E-04)	2.00 (0.26)
TDNN-PSO	2.37E-03 (3.80E-04)	2.58E-03 (4.10E-04)	1.09 (0.01)	2.16E-03 (2.29E-04)	3.09E-03 (3.01E-04)	1.45 (0.04)	1.69E-03 (2.87E-04)	3.27E-03 (5.12E-04)	1.98 (0.04)
TDNN-CQSO	3.58E-03 (1.65E-03)	4.01E-03 (1.83E-03)	1.21 (0.07)	2.33E-03 (1.30E-03)	2.84E-03 (1.48E-03)	1.57 (0.19)	2.38E-03 (1.45E-03)	4.21E-03 (2.50E-03)	1.77 (0.13)

Table 12: Results of predicting the USD time series

Model	Scenario I			Scenario II			Scenario III		
	T_E	G_E	ρ	T_E	G_E	ρ	T_E	G_E	ρ
FF-CQSO	4.90E-04 (2.37E-05)	1.01E-03 (5.77E-05)	2.11 (0.16)	3.96E-04 (1.77E-05)	6.28E-04 (2.46E-05)	1.59 (0.04)	4.53E-04 (2.22E-05)	1.02E-03 (2.39E-05)	2.28 (0.08)
Elman-Rprop	1.02E-03 (5.95E-04)	2.06E-03 (6.74E-04)	2.91 (0.42)	1.11E-03 (5.78E-04)	1.55E-03 (6.40E-04)	1.69 (0.15)	1.65E-03 (1.18E-03)	2.18E-03 (1.16E-03)	2.28 (0.33)
Elman-PSO	6.74E-04 (3.94E-05)	1.52E-03 (1.05E-04)	2.29 (0.42)	5.95E-04 (3.06E-05)	9.75E-04 (5.28E-05)	1.65 (0.15)	5.91E-04 (2.95E-05)	1.33E-03 (6.18E-05)	2.27 (0.33)
Elman-CQSO	5.44E-04 (2.98E-05)	1.30E-03 (1.25E-04)	2.39 (0.17)	4.10E-04 (1.94E-05)	7.15E-04 (3.28E-05)	1.75 (0.07)	4.91E-04 (2.23E-05)	1.20E-03 (4.97E-05)	2.46 (0.12)
Jordan-Rprop	2.75E-03 (1.39E-03)	3.64E-03 (1.59E-03)	2.03 (0.31)	1.74E-03 (1.03E-03)	2.30E-03 (1.12E-03)	1.81 (0.16)	3.59E-03 (1.48E-03)	4.29E-03 (1.62E-03)	1.45 (0.21)
Jordan-PSO	7.48E-04 (3.78E-05)	1.73E-03 (1.07E-04)	2.33 (0.12)	6.99E-04 (3.52E-05)	1.16E-03 (6.90E-05)	1.67 (0.07)	6.80E-04 (2.67E-05)	1.31E-03 (5.98E-05)	1.94 (0.08)
Jordan-CQSO	4.45E-04 (1.81E-05)	1.04E-03 (9.22E-05)	2.34 (0.18)	4.38E-04 (2.04E-05)	6.96E-04 (2.29E-05)	1.61 (0.08)	3.76E-04 (1.02E-05)	1.28E-03 (3.65E-05)	3.41 (0.10)
MRNN-Rprop	8.52E-03 (3.17E-03)	9.43E-03 (3.22E-03)	1.77 (0.39)	8.76E-03 (3.92E-03)	9.49E-03 (3.84E-03)	1.43 (0.18)	9.84E-03 (4.17E-03)	1.03E-02 (4.08E-03)	1.15 (0.11)
MRNN-PSO	6.97E-04 (4.93E-05)	1.75E-03 (1.45E-04)	2.54 (0.17)	6.11E-04 (4.36E-05)	1.01E-03 (5.55E-05)	1.67 (0.07)	5.94E-04 (2.33E-05)	1.47E-03 (7.34E-05)	2.48 (0.12)
MRNN-CQSO	6.67E-04 (4.54E-05)	1.72E-03 (1.29E-04)	2.59 (0.13)	4.68E-04 (1.62E-05)	7.95E-04 (3.13E-05)	1.71 (0.07)	5.97E-04 (3.00E-05)	1.25E-03 (6.23E-05)	2.12 (0.11)
TDNN-Rprop	8.46E-04 (1.42E-04)	2.54E-03 (2.08E-04)	3.34 (0.33)	7.39E-04 (1.47E-04)	1.22E-03 (1.10E-04)	1.88 (0.19)	5.27E-04 (8.36E-05)	1.47E-03 (1.57E-04)	3.12 (0.38)
TDNN-PSO	7.46E-04 (3.18E-05)	2.36E-03 (1.24E-04)	3.20 (0.20)	6.20E-04 (3.04E-05)	1.11E-03 (4.11E-05)	1.80 (0.07)	5.86E-04 (2.55E-05)	1.42E-03 (6.24E-05)	2.46 (0.15)
TDNN-CQSO	6.76E-04 (3.25E-05)	1.73E-03 (1.53E-04)	2.54 (0.16)	4.91E-04 (3.31E-05)	7.65E-04 (3.18E-05)	1.58 (0.06)	4.22E-04 (1.18E-05)	1.34E-03 (4.54E-05)	3.18 (0.10)

5 Conclusion

The aim of the study was to investigate if using recurrent connections or time delays are unnecessary in neural networks (NNs) used in time series forecasting when a particle swarm optimization (PSO) algorithm designed for dynamic environments is used as the training algorithm. A set of experiments using eight forecasting problems were carried out to test this hypothesis. Feedforward NNs (FNNs) were trained using cooperative quantum particle swarm optimization (CQSO) to forecast each of the problems under three different dynamic scenarios, and the results were compared to those obtained from four different recurrent NNs (RNNs) (i.e. Elman NN, Jordan NN, Multirecurrent NN and Time delay NN), each trained differently with resilient propagation (Rprop), PSO and dynamic PSO algorithms. Mann Whitney U tests were used to check the statistical significance of the difference in performance between the results obtained from the FNN trained with CQSO and each of the remaining NN models.

Analysis of the results showed that the FNN trained with CQSO produced significantly better results compared to each of the RNN models for the eight problems. It was observed that, in general, training the RNNs with CQSO improved performance over training with Rprop or PSO.

The results supported the hypothesis that FNNs trained with a dynamic PSO algorithm is sufficient for time series forecasting in non-stationary environments and the model is able to handle temporal relationships without necessarily introducing recurrent connections.

Further studies will include a detailed study of more variants of the dynamic PSO applied to different forms of RNNs, such as Hopfield and echo state networks. Other properties of training algorithms not explored in this paper, such as recovery speed after a change, time complexity and CPU time will be looked into.

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