# GETS: Grammatical Evolution based Optimization of Smoothing Parameters in Univariate Time Series Forecasting

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Abstract: Time series forecasting is a technique that predicts future values using time as one of the dimensions. The learning process is strongly controlled by fine-tuning of various hyperparameters which is often resource extensive and requires domain knowledge. This research work focuses on automatically evolving suitable hyperparameters of time series for level, trend and seasonality components using Grammatical Evolution. The proposed Grammatical Evolution Time Series framework can accept datasets from various domains and select the appropriate parameter values based on the nature of dataset. The forecasted results are compared with a traditional grid search algorithm on the basis of error metric, efficiency and scalability.

# **1 INTRODUCTION**

## 1.1 Time Series

Time Series is a series of data points recorded at equal intervals of time. In the context of healthcare (Penfold, 2013), waste management (Nagori, 2019), econometrics (Lütkepohl, 2004) etc. (Shumway, 2017), the primary aim of data analysis is time series forecasting. Time Series forecasting is used to forecast future information by constructing a model that fits well on previous observations (Brockwell, 2016).

Time series data is typically decomposed into four components level (L), trend (T), seasonality (S) and residue (R). Level is the average value of observations defined over a period. Trend is defined as change in behaviour over time in observations which is generally a constant movement in data. A series of patterns which is repeated many times over a short-term is known as seasonality, while undesirable noise present in data is the residue. These components are merged together as shown in equation 1 in order to obtain actual time series forecast at time *t*.

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$$A(t) = L(t) + T(t) + S(t) + R(t)$$
(1)

However, time series models are often challenging and resource extensive to comprehend and execute on real world datasets, often requiring much hyper parameter tuning for even implementing the naivest forecasting model (Gardner, 1985).

#### 1.2 Related Work

In traditional approaches to time series modelling, the lag needs to be explicitly defined and tuned to minimise the forecast error. In any parameter estimation problem the challenge of tuning parameters to optimal values usually require large number of experimental trials and even if convergence is guaranteed, it still becomes difficult to choose among the solutions generated (Schmidt, 2006).

Grid Search (GS) is a traditional technique in machine learning which is used to calculate the appropriate parameters to use for any given model. Its approach is to build the model by making all possible combinations of the parameters. And hence, it suffers from two fold drawback of being

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computationally expensive as well as taking large amount of time before getting the optimal configurations.

(De Silva, 2013) produced an evolutionary algorithm for predicting the load of electricity by defining the grammar which generates better features to incorporate in forecasting. (Cortez, 2001) also provided an evolutionary technique for time series forecasting, but was required to explicitly define the time lag window. Inspired by racing algorithms (Birattari, 2010) designed F-Race algorithm, which evolves parameters among a given set of candidate instances through statistical But the approach becomes evidence. computationally expensive as soon as the initial configurations increases which is generally the case in time series, as forecast results vary by a minuscule change in parameters.

#### **1.3** Structure of Paper

Section two of this paper provides an introduction to how programs are evolved using Grammatical Evolution. Section three presents the Grammatical Evolution Time Series (GETS) framework with subsections 3.1 and 3.2 defining grammar for Average Smoothing and Exponential Smoothing Forecasting where as fitness function is described in subsection 3.3. Section four analyses the achieved results and provides a comparison between GS and GETS models followed by an extensive discussion on Hourly Number of Riders, Hourly Mean Temperature, Daily Waste Generation and Monthly Car Sales datasets. Section five validates and justifies the reasoning behind selection of models and parameters through statistical test. Lastly, conclusions and future work are outlined in section six.

# **2** GRAMMATICAL EVOLUTION

Grammatical Evolution (GE) is a biologically inspired state-of-the-art algorithm that uses evolutionary computing techniques to automatically generate computer programs (Ryan, 1998). GE generates programs using a desired fitness function, which either needs to minimised or maximised, depending on the application (O'Neill, 2001). Programs are represented using a genome, a variable length string of codons (eight bits) and a grammar is used to perform genotype to phenotype mapping from the genome. GE uses Backus Normal Form (BNF) (McCracken, 2003) which can be described using a tuple {N, T, P, S}, with P being a set of production rules which are used to map terminals (T), that is, items which can appear in the final program, from non-terminals (N), intermediate symbols to facilitate the derivation, from the starting symbol (S). The framework for the production rules can be given as:

$$\langle expression \rangle ::= \langle definition \rangle$$
 (2)

Where expression is a non-terminal mapped to definition consisting of both terminal and nonterminal. For example, consider the following production rule for generating numbers 0 to 9:

$$< var > ::= 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 ... | 9$$
 (3)

GE uses its eight bit codons (positive integers) to select from available definitions by taking modulus with number of definitions possible. For example, if we are expanding <var>, we need to take modulo of codon value with 10, since the number of possible rule definitions is 10. Whenever a choice is to be made during an expansion of rules, a different codon is to be used from chromosome. This process is repeated until the expression has been derived and no non-terminals remain. Each individual is evaluated on its ability to produce correct output, known as the fitness of an individual and fitness of the function is defined as fitness obtained from the generated optimal solution (Diosan, 2006).

# **3 GETS**

Although generally used for evolving programs, GE can also be used to evolve parameters for a program. This is extremely beneficial especially in time series forecasting where selection of parameters can vary by as little as 0.00001. With a range of parameters to be tuned such as smoothing coefficient for level, trend and seasonality, period of seasonality and step to make forecast ahead of times, selection of these parameters without strong conceptual and domain knowledge, is often a difficult job. Fortunately, GE provides a powerful yet easy to implement model to generate optimal parameters for various time series forecasting models which results in more precise prediction.

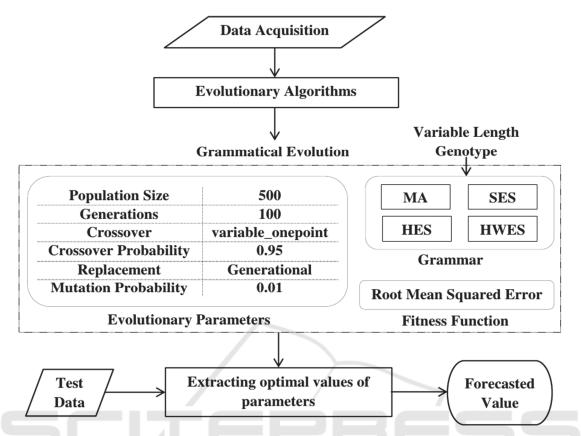


Figure 1: Methodology Diagram for GETS framework (MA: Moving Average, SES, HES, HWES: {Simple, Holts', Holts' Winter} Exponential Smoothing). The population size of 500 is randomly initialized and is evolved till 100 generations for each model of forecasting.

The GETS framework as illustrated in Figure 1 is designed to address these challenges by employing concepts of evolutionary computation and evolving optimal values for the hyper parameters through grammatical evolution. The framework helps in choosing the best values for these hyper parameters to minimize the mean squared error. The efficiency of the framework is compared with state-of-the-art algorithms in terms of error metric, efficiency and scalability. Promising results are shown for parameter estimation and lower error values for the metric root mean squared error.

#### 3.1 Average Smoothing Method

Moving Average (MA) takes the mean of several historical observations to predict future values (Hansun, 2013). The forecaster uses data from the current period to previous N observation depending on the window width. The varying pattern in the time series data affects the width of the window and

the amount of smoothing required to make predictions.

$$forecast_{t+k} = (W_{t-1} + W_{t-2} + \dots + W_{t-n}) / N$$
(4)

When computing future time series values using MA, the model has to assume that there is no seasonality, trend and forecast will be identical to previous data. The width of the window in Moving Average is parameter that needs to be tuned manually to minimise the forecast error and therefore, selecting appropriate window width is essential in moving average model.

The grammar for Moving Average is shown in Figure 2 where **<window\_var>** generates the width of window and **<lag\_var>** generates the lag in time series which is implemented using the **shift** function provided in Python's *Pandas* library to forecast by substituting parameters in equation 4. The **GE\_RANGE:** N is replaced by N production rules consisting of integer constants starting from 0.

S = { start } N = { start, for, for\_code, window\_var, lag\_var} T = { 0, 1, 2, 3, . . . , 28, 29 }

**Production Rules:** 

<start></start>	::= window = <window_var>+1,</window_var>					
	$lag = \langle lag_var \rangle$ , $y = 0$ ,					
	<for $>$ , y = y/window,					
	y = y.shift(lag)					
<for></for>	::= for i in range(1,window+1):					
	{: <for_code>:}</for_code>					
<for_code></for_code>	::= y += x.shift(i)					
<window_var> ::= GE_RANGE:29</window_var>						
<lag_var></lag_var>	::= GE_RANGE:29					

Figure 2: MA Grammar.

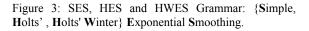
#### 3.2 Exponential Smoothing Methods

Exponential Smoothing Methods produces forecast using weighted averages of past observations, where the importance of each observation reduces exponentially as the observation gets older. There are three types of Exponential Smoothing Methods Simple Exponential Smoothing (SES), Holts' Exponential Smoothing (HES) and Holts' Winter Exponential Smoothing (HWES).

$$S = \{$$
 start  $\}$ 

Production Rules:

::= alpha = < alpha\_var >, < start >beta = < beta\_var >, gamma = < gamma\_var >, period = < period\_var >+2, step = < step\_var >+1 < alpha\_var > ::= 0.< c >< beta\_var > ::= 0. < c > $< gamma_var > ::= 0. < c >$ < c >::= GE\_RANGE:9  $\mid$  < c >< c > < period\_var > ::= GE\_RANGE:29 < step\_var >::= GE\_RANGE:29



The grammar for the same is shown in Figure 3 where **<alpha\_var>**, **<beta\_var>** and **<gamma\_var>** generates the value of alpha, beta and gamma ranging between 0 to 1 which are smoothing coefficients of level, trend and seasonality respectively. **<step>** generates a value which is essential in making multi step ahead forecast while **<period\_var>** is used to generate period of seasonality which can be 24 for hourly, 30 for daily and 12 for monthly forecast.

The expression tree generated from the random genome sequence [6216, 507, 7160, 2794, 4065, 5442, 2794, 4067, 5444, 2794, 6830, 2915, 691, 8845, 685] for HWES on Daily Waste Generation dataset is given in Figure 4. The internal nodes represent the non-terminal symbol generated during evolution of program while leaf nodes represent the terminal symbols of the grammar. The edges depict the procedure of mapping genome to production rules (phenotype) using modulo function of randomly generated codon value with number of predicted rules.

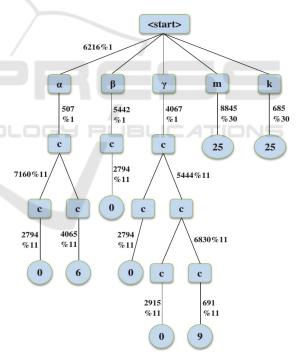


Figure 4: Example tree generated through random genome sequence for HWES where { $\alpha$ :alpha,  $\beta$ :beta,  $\gamma$ :gamma, m:period of seasonality, k:step}.

#### 3.2.1 Simple Exponential Smoothing

Simple Exponential Smoothing (SES) applies a weighted average to historical observations to forecast

values in future while assuming there is no trend and seasonality in time series (Hunter, 1986).

$$level_{i} = level_{i+1} + (alpha) * (observed_{i+1} - level_{i}$$

$$_{i}) forecast_{i+k} = level_{i}$$
(5)

SES is more adaptable compared to MA since assigned weights in SES are decreasing in exponential manner giving higher importance to recent observations. The smoothing of level in a series is controlled by parameter *alpha*, which needs to be tuned to minimise the forecast error. The value of alpha and lag are substituted in equation 5 to forecast using SES. In SES, value of beta and gamma is substituted as zero, since it assumes there is no trend and seasonality.

#### 3.2.2 Holts' Exponential Smoothing

Holts' Exponential Smoothing (HES) extends the concept of SES to capture trend along with level in the time series data to predict future values assuming there is no seasonality component in series (Holt, 2004).

The level is the forecast of the value in the series, which is controlled by the parameter *alpha*. While the trend is expected growth in the series, is controlled by another parameter *beta*, the smoothing constant for trend. The trend can be additive or multiplicative and hence the naive approach of time series forecasting requires not only determining appropriate values of alpha and beta but at the same time requires to know underlying variation in patterns to know the trend (Kalekar, 2004).

$$level_{t} = level_{t+1} + trend_{t+1} + (alpha) * (observed_{t+1} - level_{t+1} - trend_{t+1})$$
$$trend_{t} = trend_{t+1} + beta * (level_{t} - level_{t+1} - trend_{t+1})$$
(6)

 $forecast_{t+k} = level_t + trend_t$ 

The generated optimal parameters for alpha, beta and step are then substituted in equation 6 for forecasting using HES. In HES, value of gamma is substituted as zero, since it assumes there is no seasonality.

#### 3.2.3 Holts' Winter Exponential Smoothing

Holts' Winter Exponential Smoothing (HWES) is a more robust equation allowing the model to capture level and trend along with seasonality component. Hence, the forecasting equation is a combination of estimates determined using level, trend and seasonal components. As discussed in HES alpha and beta controls the smoothing of level and trend respectively while *gamma* is the smoothing factor for seasonality over a period of time. This requires evolving five parameters, mainly 'alpha', 'beta', 'gamma', 'period of seasonality' and 'step' which are substituted in equation 7 to make forecast using HWES.

$$level_{t} = level_{t+1} + trend_{t+1} + (alpha) * (observed_{t+1} - level_{t+1} - trend_{t+1} - season_{t+m})$$

$$trend_{t} = trend_{t+1} + beta * (level_{t} - level_{t+1} - trend_{t+1})$$

$$season_{t} = season_{t+m} + gamma* (observed_{t+1} - level_{t+1} - season_{t+m})$$

$$forecast_{t+k} = level_{t} + trend_{t} + season_{t+k+m}$$

$$(7)$$

## 3.3 Fitness Function

Each time series forecasting models, is evolved using root mean squared error (RMSE), described in equation 8 as fitness function. This is commonly used when forecasting numeric values and, as it is a quadratic metric which also assess the mean extent of errors.

$$\sqrt{\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}(observed - predicted)^{2}}$$
(8)

As it is a negatively aligned metric, the framework is built to minimise the fitness function. Lower the RMSE, better the value of objective function.

# **4 RESULTS**

#### 4.1 Analysis of Forecasting Methods

The essential parameters which were experimented with are defined in Figure 1. The convergence value i.e. RMSE of each model is shown in '*GE Train Best Fitness*' column of Table 1. We can see that RMSE values of *GE Best Fitness* and *GE Average Fitness* are competitive, indicating the performance of framework is consistent and not an exceptional case. The GETS has better performance on generalising the forecasting models compared to GS which is overfitting to training data in most of the cases.

From average fitness values given in Table 1, it can be observed that the fitness values of SES, HES and HWES on Hourly Mean Temperature are almost identical indicating there is no trend and seasonality. The dataset of Hourly Number of Riders contains level and seasonality, as average fitness of HWES is low compared to both SES and HES. But it does not contain trend, as SES and HES have similar fitness values. The dataset of Daily Waste Generation does not contain trend as well as seasonality which are justified by nearly equal fitness values of SES, HES and HWES. On the other hand, the Monthly Car Sales dataset contains both the components trend and seasonality and therefore the fitness values of SES, HES, HWES are in the decreasing order.

The GE based time series modelling has outperformed traditional GS algorithm in terms of accuracy on both training as well as testing. A comparison of the time required in seconds to make forecasts using both GETS and GS is also shown in Table 1. When dealing with small data sets the time required by each is similar, but GETS is significantly faster on the larger and more complex ones. When the number of parameters to determine increases, for example, with HES and HWES, GETS outperforms GS by a large margin.

GE HWES forecast as shown in Figure 5 has taken all the three components into consideration. The period of seasonality obtained through GE HWES is 24, which is analogous to the number of hours in a day, so it is not surprising that it has the smallest forecast error at around 27 as shown in *GE Train Best Fitness* in Table 1. The smoothing coefficients obtained are 0.6, 0.01 and 0.01 for alpha, beta and gamma respectively to make one step ahead forecast.

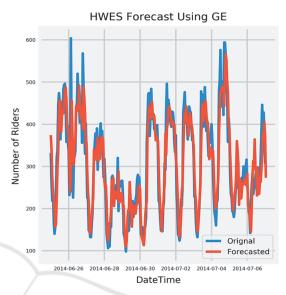


Figure 5: GE HWES test forecast on Hourly Number of Riders dataset.

Dataset (Instances / Unit)	Method	GE Train Average Fitness	GE Train Best Fitness	GE Test Fitness	GS Train Fitness	GS Test Fitness	GETS Time	GS Time
Hourly Mean Temperature (29,734 / Degree Celsius)	SES	0.174	0.17	4.92	0.15	4.9	161	1370
	HES	0.072	0.072	0.052	0.06	47.90	463	8174
	HWES	0.071	0.068	0.050	0.10	20.09	675	14512
	MA	0.1572	0.15	5.68	2.61	4.1	103	146
Hourly Number of Riders (20,290 / Number of Persons)	SES	54.71	31.31	186.39	31.27	186.37	137	27
	HES	165.27	31.31	81.77	31.27	183.91	387	1011
	HWES	58.67	26.72	62.26	21.56	152.65	540	9664
	MA	56.12	31.37	189.87	67.25	235.85	109	113
Daily Waste Generation (1,186 / Kilograms)	SES	4798	4364	2633	4369.31	2633.47	19	10
	HES	4620	4368	2633	4369.31	2633.47	41	68
	HWES	4676	4314	2656	4665	3258	44	1300
	MA	4503	4402	2581	4505.32	2568.89	59	10
Monthly Car Sales (136 / Number of Cars)	SES	4534.19	3290	3677	3239.65	3790.72	8	10
	HES	4397	3289.8372	3856	3243.81	4461.61	13	54
	HWES	1987	1451	2816	1425	2633	14	529
	MA	3988.2549	3140.52	3815	3272.28	5681.35	35	10

Table 1: Comparison of GETS and GS approach on various datasets using RMSE as a fitness function.

#### 4.2 Exploration vs Exploitation

The effect of changes in Mutation (Exploration) and Crossover (Exploitation) probabilities on evolution is shown in Figure 6-7.

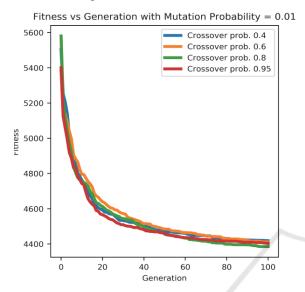


Figure 6: Fitness of Daily Waste Generation Dataset on varying crossover probability.

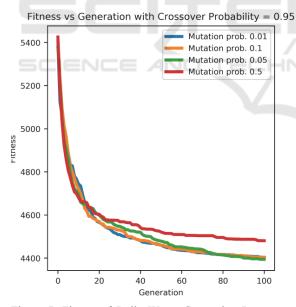


Figure 7: Fitness of Daily Waste Generation Dataset on varying mutation probability.

The mutation used is one int flap codon (O'neill, 2003) which works by replacing the integer value of codon with new random integer with a probability of 0.01, 0.05, 0.1 and 0.5 were taken for experimentation. Single point crossover with a

varying probability of 0.40, 0.60, 0.80 and 0.95 in which, the production of two offspring takes place by randomly selecting the crossover point and swapping the tail of two parents. It can be seen that with an increase in crossover probability, the population evolves faster for all values of mutation probability except for 0.5. The most promising results were obtained at mutation probability equal to 0.05 and cross over probability equal to 0.95, with the population converging to more than 95% in less than 40 generations. Most of the configurations evolved to similar fitness after 100 generations, except the individuals with mutation and crossover probabilities as (0.50, 0.95) respectively which has produced relatively high error.

# 5 DISCUSSION

Table 2 presents a summary of the statistical test performed on configurations with and without trend and then, with and without seasonality component at a significance level of 5%. The null hypothesis for the above test is formulated as:

*Null Hypothesis H<sub>i</sub>: Difference Between mean of two sample size is not statistically different.* 

Table 2: Statistical t-test for forecast with trend, and with seasonality at a significance level of 5%, where L, T, S denotes Level, Trend and Seasonality component respectively and provides justification for selection of forecasting model highlighted in Table 1.

Dataset	L + T	L + S	Selected Model
Hourly Mean Temperature	No	No	SES
Hourly Number of Riders	No	Yes	HWES
Daily Waste Generation	No	No	SES
Monthly Car Sales	Yes	Yes	HWES

As seen from Table 2, there is no significant difference with forecast including trend and seasonality on dataset of Hourly Number of Riders as well as Daily Waste Generation, which is justified by selection of SES model in Table 2. On the contrary, for Hourly Number of Riders dataset, there is significant difference between forecast with and without including seasonality component, justifying the selection of HWES model. While for Monthly Car Sales, we can observe significant difference by including both trend as well as seasonality, validated by decreasing error in HES as well as in HWES.

# 6 CONCLUSIONS

In this work, we describe a grammatical evolution based approach to time series modelling. The study covers various Averaging and Smoothing time series approaches for univariate forecasting. An important feature of our framework concerns the optimisation of the smoothing parameters for level, trend and seasonality components which can increase the accuracy of the forecast without explicitly defining them. The individual solutions obtained through large number of trials are validated using statistical t-test.

The results indicate that the aggregated forecast error calculated using root mean squared error and time required for computation was marginally less or similar to traditional machine learning approach for smaller datasets, but significant difference was observed for big datasets, making it scalable. Moreover, grammar-based time series modelling does not require the fine tuning of parameters as required with Grid Search.

This approach can be extended to incorporate other time series models like AutoRegression (AR) and Autoregressive Integrated Moving Average (ARIMA). This work was only tested for Univariate time series analysis and research for multivariate time series forecasting is being carried out by the authors and is in its testing phase.

SCIENCE AND

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