WaveBound: Dynamically Bounding Error for Stable Time Series Forecasting

Abstract

Time series forecasting becomes a critical task due to its high practicality in real-world applications such as traffic, energy consumption, economics and finance, and disease analysis. Recent deep-learning-based approaches have shown remarkable success in time series forecasting. Nonetheless, due to the dynamics of time series data, deep networks still suffer from unstable training and overfitting. Inconsistent patterns appearing in real-world data lead the model to be biased to a particular pattern, thus limiting the generalization. In this work, we introduce the dynamic error bounds on training loss to address the overfitting issue in time series forecasting. Consequently, we propose a regularization method called *WaveBound* which estimates the adequate error bounds of training loss for each time step and feature at each iteration. By allowing the model to focus less on unpredictable data, WaveBound stabilizes the training process, hence significantly improving generalization. With the extensive experiments, we show that *WaveBound* consistently improves the existing models in large margins, including the state-of-the-art model.

1 Introduction

Time series forecasting gains a lot of attention due to its high practicality in real-world applications such as traffic [1], energy consumption [2], economics and finance [3], and disease analysis [4]. Recent deep-learning-based approaches, particularly Transformer-based methods [5, 6, 7, 8, 9], have shown remarkable success in time series forecasting. Nevertheless, inconsistent patterns and unpredictable behaviors in real data enforce the models to fit in patterns even for the cases of *unpredictable* incident and induce the unstable training. In unpredictable cases, the model does not neglect them in training, but rather receives a huge penalty (*i.e.*, training loss). Ideally, small magnitudes of training loss should be presented for unpredictable patterns. This implies the need for proper regularization of the forecasting models in time series forecasting.

Recently, Ishida *et al.* [10] claimed that zero training loss introduces a high bias in training, hence leading to an overconfident model and a decrease in generalization. To remedy this issue, they proposed a simple regularization called *flooding* and explicitly prevented the training loss from decreasing below the small constant threshold called *flood level*. In this work, we also focus on the drawbacks of *zero training loss* in time series forecasting. In time series forecasting, this enforces the model to fit to an inevitably appearing unpredictable pattern which mostly generates a tremendous error. However, the original flooding is not applicable to time series forecasting due to the following two main reasons: (i) Unlike image classification, time series forecasting requires the vector output of the size of the prediction length times the number of features. In that case, the original flooding

	Average		

(a) Flooding (original)   (b) Flooding (modified)   **(c) WaveBound (ours)**

Figure 1: The conceptual examples for different methods. (a) The original flooding provides the lower bound of the average loss, rather than considering each time step and feature individually. (b) Even if the lower bounds of training loss are provided for each time step and feature, the bound of constant value cannot reflect the nature of time series forecasting. (c) Our proposed WaveBound provides the lower bound of the training loss for each time step and feature. This lower bound is *dynamically adjusted* to give a tighter error bound during the training process.

considers the average training loss without dealing with each time step and feature individually. (ii) In time series data, error bounds should be dynamically changed for different patterns. Intuitively, a higher error should be tolerated for unpredictable patterns.

To properly address the overfitting issue in time series forecasting the difficulty of prediction, *i.e.*, how unpredictable the current label is, should be measured in the training procedure. To this end, we introduce the *target network* updated with an exponential moving average of the original network, *i.e.*, *source network*. At each iteration, the target network can guide the reasonable level of training loss to the source network — the larger the error of the target network, the more unpredictable the pattern is. In recent, a slow-moving average target network is commonly used to produce stable targets in the self-supervised setting [11, 12]. By using the training loss of the target network for our lower bound, we derive a novel regularization method called WaveBound which faithfully estimates the error bounds for each time step and feature. By dynamically adjusting the error bounds, our regularization prevents the model from overly fitting to a certain pattern and further improves the generalization. Figure 1 shows the conceptual difference between the original flooding and our WaveBound. The originally proposed flooding determines the direction of the update step for all points by comparing the average loss and its flood level. In contrast, our WaveBound individually decides the direction of the update step for each point by using dynamic error bound of the training loss. The difference between these methods will be more discussed in Section 3. Our main contributions are threefold:

- We propose a simple yet effective regularization that dynamically provides the error bound of training loss in time series forecasting.
- We show that our WaveBound consistently improves the existing state-of-the-art time series forecasting model on six real-world benchmarks.
- With the extensive experiments, we verify the significance of adjusting error bounds for each time step, feature, and pattern, thus addressing the overfitting issue in time series forecasting.

2 Preliminary

2.1 Time Series Forecasting

We consider the rolling forecasting setting with a fixed window size [7, 5, 6]. The aim of time-series forecasting is to learn a forecaster $g : \mathbb{R}^{L \times K} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{M \times K}$ which predicts the future series $y^t = \{z_{t+1}, z_{t+2}, ..., z_{t+M} : z_i \in \mathbb{R}^K\}$ given the past series $x^t = \{z_{t-L+1}, z_{t-L+1}, ..., z_t : z_i \in \mathbb{R}^K\}$ at time t where K is the feature dimension, L and M are the input length and output length, respectively. We mainly address the error bounding in the multivariate regression problem where the input series x and output series y jointly come from the underlying density $p(x, y)$. For given a loss function ℓ, the risk of g is $R(g) := \mathbb{E}_{(x,y) \sim p(x,y)} [\ell(g(x), y)]$. Since we cannot directly access the distribution p, we instead minimize its empirical version $\hat{R}(g) := \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \ell(g(x_i), y_i)$ using training data $\mathcal{X} := \{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^{N}$. In the analysis, we mainly consider to use mean square error (MSE) loss,

which is widely used as an objective function in recent time-series forecasting models. Then, the risk can be rewritten as the sum of the risk at each prediction step and feature:

$$R(g) = \mathbb{E}_{(u,v)\sim p(u,v)}\left[\frac{1}{MK}||g(u) - v||^2\right] = \frac{1}{MK}\sum_{j,k} R_{jk}(g),$$

$$\hat{R}(g) = \frac{1}{NMK}\sum_{i=1}^{N}||g(x_i) - y_i||^2 = \frac{1}{MK}\sum_{j,k} \hat{R}_{jk}(g),$$

(1)

where $R_{jk}(g) := \mathbb{E}_{(u,v)\sim p(u,v)}\left[||g_{jk}(u) - v_{jk}||^2\right]$ and $\hat{R}_{jk}(g) := \frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}||g_{jk}(x_i) - (y_i)_{jk}||^2$.

2.2 Flooding

To address the overfitting problem, Ishida *et al.* [10] suggested *flooding*, which restricts the training loss to stay above a certain constant. Given the empirical risk $\hat{R}$ and the manually searched lower bound b, called *flood level*, we instead minimize the flooded empirical risk, which is defined as

$$\hat{R}^{fl}(g) = |\hat{R}(g) - b| + b.^1$$

(2)

That is, the gradient update of flooded empirical risk with respect to the model parameters is performed as that of the empirical risk if $\hat{R}(g) > b$ and is performed in the opposite direction otherwise. The flooded empirical risk estimator is known to provide a better approximation of the risk than the empirical risk estimator in terms of MSE unless the risk is greater than b.

For the mini-batched optimization problem, this perform gradient update of the flooded empirical risk with respect to the mini-batch. Let $\hat{R}_t(g)$ denote the empirical risk with respect to t-th mini-batch for $t \in \{1, 2, ..., T\}$. Then, by the Jensen's inequality,

$$\hat{R}^{fl}(g) \leq \frac{1}{T}\sum_{t=1}^{T}(|\hat{R}_t(g) - b| + b).$$

(3)

Therefore, the mini-batched optimization minimizes the upper bound of the flooded empirical risk.

3 Method

In this section, we propose a novel regularization called WaveBound which is specially-designed for time series forecasting. We first deal with the drawbacks of applying original flooding to time series forecasting and then introduce more desirable form of regularization.

3.1 Flooding in Time Series Forecasting

We first discuss that the original flooding may not effectively work for the time series forecasting problem. We start with rewriting Equation (2) using the risks at each prediction step and feature:

$$\hat{R}^{fl}(g) = \left|\hat{R}(g) - b\right| + b = \left|\left(\frac{1}{MK}\sum_{j,k} \hat{R}_{jk}(g)\right) - b\right| + b.$$

(4)

That is, flooded empirical risk constraints the lower bound of the average of the empirical risk for all prediction steps and features by a constant value of b. However, for the multivariate regression model, this regularization does not independently bound each $\hat{R}_{jk}(g)$. As a result, the regularization effect is concentrated on output variables where $\hat{R}_{jk}(g)$ greatly varies in training.

In this circumstance, the modified version of flooding can be explored by considering the individual training loss for each time step and feature. This can be done by subtracting the flood level b for each

---

[1] The constant b outside of absolute value brackets does not affect the gradient update, but make sure $\tilde{R}^{fl}(g) = \hat{R}(g)$ if $\hat{R}(g) > b$. This property is especially useful in the analysis of estimation error.

Figure 2: Our proposed WaveBound provides the dynamic error bounds of the training loss for each time step and feature using the target network. The target network g_τ is updated with exponential moving average (EMA) of the source network g_θ. At j-th time step and k-th feature, the training loss is bounded by our estimated error bound $\hat{R}_{jk}(g_\tau) - \epsilon$, $i.e.$, the gradient ascent is performed instead of the gradient descent when the training loss is below the error bound.

time step and feature as follows:

$$\hat{R}^{const}(g) = \frac{1}{MK} \sum_{j,k} \left(|\hat{R}_{jk}(g) - b| + b \right). \tag{5}$$

In the rest of the paper, we denote this modified version of flooding method as *constant flooding*. Compared to the original flooding that considers the average of the whole training loss, constant flooding individually constraints the lower bound of training loss at each time step and feature by the value of b.

Nonetheless, it still fails to consider different difficulties of predictions for different mini-batches. For constant flooding, it is challenging to properly minimize the variants of empirical risk in the batch-wise training process. As in Equation 3, the mini-batched optimization minimizes the upper bound of flooded empirical risk. The problem is that the inequality becomes less tight as each flooded risk term $\hat{R}_t(g) - b$ for $t \in \{1, 2, ..., T\}$ are largely different. Since the time series data typically contains lots of unpredictable and noisy events, this happens frequently as the loss of each batch highly varies. To ensure the tightness of the inequality, bound for $\hat{R}_t(g)$ should be adaptively chosen for each batch.

3.2 WaveBound

As mentioned earlier, to properly bound the empirical risk in time series forecasting, the regularization method should be considered with the following conditions: (i) The regularization should consider the empirical risk for each time step and feature individually. (ii) For different patterns, $i.e.$, mini-batches, different error bounds should be searched in the batch-wise training process. To handle this, we search the error bound for each time step and feature and dynamically adjust it at each iteration. Since manually searching different bounds for each time step and feature at every iteration is impractical, we estimate the error bounds for different predictions using the slow-moving average model [13].

Concretely, we employ two networks throughout the training phase: source network g_θ and target network g_τ which have the same architecture, but have different weights θ and τ. The target network estimates the proper lower bounds of errors for the predictions of the source network, and its weights are updated with exponential moving average of the weights of the source network:

$$\tau \leftarrow \alpha\tau + (1-\alpha)\theta, \tag{6}$$

where $\alpha \in [0, 1]$ is a target decay rate. On the other hands, the source network updates their weights θ using the gradient descent update in the direction of the gradient of *wave empirical risk* $\hat{R}^{wb}(g_\theta)$ which is defined as

$$\hat{R}^{wb}(g_\theta) = \frac{1}{MK} \sum_{j,k} \hat{R}^{wb}_{jk}(g_\theta),$$

$$\hat{R}^{wb}_{jk}(g_\theta) = \left| \hat{R}_{jk}(g_\theta) - (\hat{R}_{jk}(g_\tau) - \epsilon) \right| + (\hat{R}_{jk}(g_\tau) - \epsilon), \tag{7}$$

where ϵ is a hyperparameter indicating how far the error bound of the source network can be from the error of the target network. Intuitively, the target network guides the lower bound of the training loss for each time step and feature so that prevents the source network from training towards a loss lower than that bound, *i.e.*, overfitting to a certain pattern. As the slow-moving average model is known to have the effect of ensembling the source networks and memorizing training data visible in earlier iterations [13], the target network can robustly estimate the error bound of the source network against the instability mostly caused by noisy input data. Figure 2 shows how the source network and the target network perform in our WaveBound.

Mini-batched optimization. For $t \in \{1, 2, ..., T\}$, let $(\hat{R}_t^{wb})_{jk}(g)$ and $(\hat{R}_t)_{jk}(g)$ denote the wave empirical risk and the empirical risk at j-th step and k-th feature with respect to t-th mini-batch, respectively. Given the target network g^*, by the Jensen's inequality,

$$\hat{R}_{jk}^{wb}(g) \leq \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \left(\left| (\hat{R}_t)_{jk}(g) - (\hat{R}_t)_{jk}(g^*) + \epsilon \right| + (\hat{R}_t)_{jk}(g^*) - \epsilon \right) = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} (\hat{R}_t^{wb})_{jk}(g). \quad (8)$$

Therefore, the mini-batch optimization minimizes the upper bound of wave empirical risk. Note that the values of $(\hat{R}_t)_{jk}(g) - (\hat{R}_t)_{jk}(g^*) + \epsilon$ are similar across mini-batches as long as g is similar to g^*. This property provides a tight upper bound for the wave empirical risk in the optimization.

MSE reduction. We show that the mean squared error (MSE) of our suggested wave empirical risk estimator is smaller than that of the empirical risk estimator if the error bound $\hat{R}_{ij}(g^*) - \epsilon$ is smaller than the risk $R_{ij}(g)$.

Theorem 1. *Fix measurable functions g and g^*. Let $I := \{(i, j) : i = 1, 2, ..., M, j = 1, 2, ..., K\}$, and let $J(\mathcal{X}) := \{(i, j) \in I : \hat{R}_{ij}(g) < \hat{R}_{ij}(g^*) - \epsilon\}$. If the following two conditions hold:*

(a) $\forall (i, j), (k, l) \in I$ such that $(i, j) \neq (k, l)$, $\hat{R}_{ij}(g) - \hat{R}_{ij}(g^*) \perp \hat{R}_{kl}(g)$

(b) $\hat{R}_{ij}(g^*) < R_{ij}(g) + \epsilon$ for all $(i, j) \in J(\mathcal{X})$ almost surely.

, then $MSE(\hat{R}(g)) \geq MSE(\hat{R}^{wb}(g))$. Given the condition (a), if we have $0 < \alpha$ such that $\alpha < R_{ij}(g) - \hat{R}_{ij}(g^*) + \epsilon$ for all $(i, j) \in J(\mathcal{X})$ almost surely, then

$$MSE(\hat{R}(g)) - MSE(\hat{R}^{wb}(g)) \geq 4\alpha^2 \sum_{(i,j) \in I} \Pr[\alpha < \hat{R}_{ij}(g^*) - \hat{R}_{ij}(g) - \epsilon]. \quad (9)$$

Proof. Please see Appendix. $\square$

4 Experiments

4.1 WaveBound with Forecasting Models

In this section, we evaluate our WaveBound on real-world benchmarks using various time series forecasting models, including the state-of-the-art models.

Baselines. Since our method can be easily applied to deep-learning-based forecasting models, we evaluate our regularization adopted by several baselines including the state-of-the-art method. For the multivariate setting, we select Autoformer [5], Pyraformer [6], Informer [7], LSTNet [14], and TCN [16]. For the univariate setting, we additionally include N-BEATS [15] for the baseline.

Datasets. We examine the performance of forecasting models in six real-world benchmarks. (1) ETT (Electricity Transformer Temperature) [7] dataset is widely used as a benchmark dataset in time series forecasting. It contains two years of data from two separate counties in China with intervals of 1-hour level (ETTh1, ETTh2) and 15 minutes level (ETTm1, ETTm2) collected from electricity transformers. Each time step contains an oil temperature and other 6 additional features. (2) Electricity [2] dataset comprises 2 years of hourly electricity consumption of 321 clients. (3)

---

[2]https://archive.ics.uci.edu/ml/datasets/ElectricityLoadDiagrams20112014

Table 1: The results of WaveBound in the multivariate setting. All results are averaged over 3 trials. ETT* denotes ETTm2. See Appendix for additional results.

Models		Autoformer [5] Origin		w/ Ours		Pyraformer [6] Origin		w/ Ours		Informer [7] Origin		w/ Ours		LSTNet [14] Origin		w/ Ours	
Metric		MSE	MAE	MSE	MAE	MSE	MAE	MSE	MAE	MSE	MAE	MSE	MAE	MSE	MAE	MSE	MAE
ETT*	96	0.262	0.326	**0.204**	**0.285**	0.363	0.451	**0.281**	**0.386**	0.376	0.477	**0.334**	**0.429**	0.455	0.511	**0.268**	**0.368**
	192	0.284	0.342	**0.265**	**0.322**	0.708	0.648	**0.624**	**0.599**	0.751	0.672	**0.698**	**0.631**	0.706	0.660	**0.464**	**0.508**
	336	0.338	0.374	**0.320**	**0.356**	1.130	0.846	**1.072**	**0.829**	1.440	0.917	**1.087**	**0.845**	1.161	0.868	**0.781**	**0.695**
	720	0.446	0.435	**0.413**	**0.408**	2.995	1.386	**1.917**	**1.119**	3.897	1.498	**2.984**	**1.411**	3.288	1.494	**2.312**	**1.239**
Electricity	96	0.202	0.317	**0.176**	**0.288**	0.256	0.360	**0.241**	**0.345**	0.335	0.417	**0.289**	**0.378**	0.268	0.366	**0.185**	**0.291**
	192	0.235	0.340	**0.205**	**0.317**	0.272	0.378	**0.256**	**0.360**	0.341	0.426	**0.298**	**0.388**	0.277	0.375	**0.197**	**0.304**
	336	0.247	0.351	**0.217**	**0.327**	0.278	0.383	**0.269**	**0.371**	0.369	0.448	**0.305**	**0.394**	0.284	0.382	**0.217**	**0.326**
	720	0.270	0.371	**0.260**	**0.359**	0.291	0.385	**0.283**	**0.377**	0.396	0.457	**0.311**	**0.398**	0.316	0.404	**0.250**	**0.350**
Exchange	96	0.153	0.285	**0.146**	**0.274**	**0.604**	**0.624**	0.615	0.627	0.979	0.791	**0.878**	**0.765**	0.483	0.518	**0.357**	**0.432**
	192	0.297	0.397	**0.262**	**0.373**	0.982	0.806	**0.953**	**0.797**	1.147	**0.854**	**1.136**	0.859	0.706	0.646	**0.621**	**0.593**
	336	0.438	0.490	**0.425**	**0.483**	1.264	**0.934**	**1.263**	0.944	1.592	1.014	**1.461**	**0.992**	1.055	0.800	**0.837**	**0.691**
	720	1.207	0.860	**1.088**	**0.810**	1.663	1.051	**1.562**	**1.016**	2.540	1.306	**2.496**	**1.294**	2.198	1.127	**1.374**	**0.894**
Traffic	96	0.645	0.399	**0.596**	**0.352**	0.635	0.364	**0.622**	**0.341**	0.731	0.412	**0.671**	**0.364**	0.735	0.446	**0.587**	**0.356**
	192	0.644	0.407	**0.607**	**0.370**	0.658	0.376	**0.646**	**0.355**	0.751	0.422	**0.666**	**0.360**	0.750	0.446	**0.595**	**0.365**
	336	0.625	0.390	**0.603**	**0.361**	0.668	0.377	**0.653**	**0.355**	0.822	0.465	**0.709**	**0.387**	0.778	0.455	**0.623**	**0.378**
	720	0.650	0.398	**0.642**	**0.383**	0.698	0.390	**0.672**	**0.364**	0.957	0.539	**0.764**	**0.421**	0.815	0.470	**0.648**	**0.383**
Weather	96	0.294	0.355	**0.227**	**0.296**	0.235	0.321	**0.193**	**0.272**	0.378	0.428	**0.355**	**0.415**	0.237	0.310	**0.202**	**0.275**
	192	0.308	0.368	**0.283**	**0.340**	0.340	0.415	**0.306**	**0.372**	0.462	0.467	**0.424**	**0.448**	0.277	0.343	**0.254**	**0.316**
	336	0.364	0.396	**0.335**	**0.370**	0.453	0.484	**0.403**	**0.441**	0.575	0.535	**0.506**	**0.484**	0.326	0.378	**0.309**	**0.358**
	720	0.426	0.433	**0.401**	**0.411**	0.599	0.563	**0.535**	**0.519**	1.024	0.751	**0.972**	**0.712**	0.412	0.431	**0.398**	**0.415**
ILI	24	3.468	1.299	**3.118**	**1.200**	4.822	1.489	**4.679**	**1.459**	5.356	1.590	**4.947**	**1.494**	7.934	2.091	**6.331**	**1.816**
	36	3.441	1.273	**3.310**	**1.240**	4.831	**1.479**	**4.763**	1.483	5.131	1.569	**5.027**	**1.537**	8.793	2.214	**6.560**	**1.848**
	48	3.086	1.184	**2.927**	**1.128**	4.789	1.465	**4.524**	**1.439**	5.150	1.564	**4.920**	**1.514**	7.968	2.068	**6.154**	**1.779**
	60	2.843	1.136	**2.785**	**1.116**	4.876	1.495	**4.573**	**1.465**	5.407	1.604	**5.013**	**1.528**	7.387	1.984	**6.119**	**1.758**

Table 2: The results of WaveBound in the univariate setting. All results are averaged over 3 trials. See Appendix for additional results.

Models		Autoformer [5] Origin		w/ Ours		Pyraformer [6] Origin		w/ Ours		Informer [7] Origin		w/ Ours		N-BEATS [15] Origin		w/ Ours	
Metric		MSE	MAE	MSE	MAE	MSE	MAE	MSE	MAE	MSE	MAE	MSE	MAE	MSE	MAE	MSE	MAE
ETT	96	0.098	0.239	**0.085**	**0.221**	0.078	0.209	**0.070**	**0.197**	0.085	0.224	**0.081**	**0.218**	0.073	0.198	**0.067**	**0.188**
	192	0.130	0.277	**0.116**	**0.262**	0.114	0.257	**0.110**	**0.256**	0.122	0.273	**0.118**	**0.270**	0.107	0.246	**0.103**	**0.241**
	336	0.162	0.311	**0.143**	**0.293**	0.178	0.325	**0.153**	**0.306**	0.153	**0.304**	**0.148**	0.305	0.163	0.310	**0.135**	**0.284**
	720	0.194	0.344	**0.188**	**0.338**	0.198	0.351	**0.169**	**0.329**	0.196	0.351	**0.189**	**0.349**	0.263	0.402	**0.188**	**0.340**
ECL	96	0.462	0.502	**0.447**	**0.496**	0.240	0.351	**0.229**	**0.347**	0.266	0.371	**0.261**	**0.369**	0.304	0.382	**0.298**	**0.378**
	192	0.557	0.565	**0.515**	**0.538**	0.262	0.367	**0.253**	**0.365**	0.283	0.385	**0.281**	**0.383**	0.323	0.396	**0.322**	**0.395**
	336	0.613	0.593	**0.531**	**0.543**	0.285	**0.386**	**0.283**	0.386	0.338	0.428	**0.332**	**0.426**	0.385	0.430	**0.369**	**0.422**
	720	0.691	0.632	**0.604**	**0.591**	0.309	**0.411**	**0.307**	0.415	0.631	0.612	**0.378**	**0.463**	0.462	0.487	**0.433**	**0.473**

Exchange [14] dataset provides the collection of eight distinct countries on a daily basis. (4) Traffic [3] dataset contains hourly statistics of various sensors in San Francisco Bay provided by the California Department of Transportation. Road occupancy rate is expressed as a real number between 0 and 1. The values are recorded for each hour with a total collection of 48 months (2015-2016). (5) Weather [4] records 4 years of data (2010-2013) of 21 meteorological indicators collected at around 1,600 landmarks in the United States. (6) ILI [5] contains data from the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention's weekly reported influenza-like illness patients from 2002 to 2021, which describes the ratio of patients seen with ILI to the overall number of patients. As in Autoformer [5], we set $L = 36$ and $M \in \{24, 36, 48, 60\}$ for ILI dataset, and set $L = 96$ and $M \in \{96, 192, 336, 720\}$ for other datasets. We split each dataset into train/validation/test as follows: 6:2:2 ratio for the ETT dataset and 7:1:2 ratio for the rest.

---

[3] http://pems.dot.ca
[4] https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/data/local-climatological-data/
[5] https://gis.cdc.gov/grasp/fluview/fluportaldashboard.html

(a) Autoformer   (b) Informer

Figure 3: The training curves of models with and without WaveBound on ETTm2. Without Wave-Bound, the training loss of both models are decreasing, but the test loss is increasing (See black lines), which indicates that both models tend to ovefit at training data. In contrast, the test loss of models with our WaveBound continue to decrease after learning for even more epochs.

(a) Autoformer   (b) Pyraformer   (c) Informer   (d) LSTNet

Figure 4: The test error of models trained with different regularization methods on ECL dataset. Compared with original flooding and constant flooding, our WaveBound consistently shows the lower the test error at all time steps, which indicates that our method successfully improve the generalization regardless of the range of predictions.

Multivariate Results. The results of our method in the multivariate setting are shown in Table 1. We can observe that our method consistently shows the improvements for various forecasting models including the state-of-the-art method. Notably, our WaveBound improves both MAE and MSE of Autoformer on ETTm1 dataset by **22.13%** $(0.262 \rightarrow 0.204)$ in MSE and **12.57%** $(0.326 \rightarrow 0.285)$ in MAE when $M = 96$. In addition, our method consistently shows improvements in various configurations. For long-term ETTm1 forecasting settings $(M = 720)$, WaveBound improves the performance of Autoformer by **7.39%** $(0.446 \rightarrow 0.413)$ in MSE and **6.20%** $(0.435 \rightarrow 0.408)$ in MAE. Our method shows the highest improvement in LSTNet on ETTm1 with $M = 96$. WaveBound improves the performance of LSTNet by **41.10%** $(0.455 \rightarrow 0.268)$ in MSE and **27.98%** $(0.511 \rightarrow 0.368)$ in MAE. For other datasets, especially weather dataset with Pyraformer, WaveBound shows **17.87%** improvement $(0.235 \rightarrow 0.193)$ in MSE and **15.26%** improvement $(0.321 \rightarrow 0.272)$ in MAE when $M = 96$. The results of full baselines and benchmarks for multivariate settings are reported in Appendix.

Univariate Results. WaveBound also shows the superior results in the univariate setting as reported in Table 2. In particular, for N-BEATS, which is designed especially for univariate time series forecasting, our method improves the performance of N-BEATS by **8.22%** $(0.073 \rightarrow 0.067)$ in MSE and **5.05%** $(0.198 \rightarrow 0.188)$ in MAE, when $M = 96$ with ETTm1 dataset. For ECL dataset when $M = 720$, Informer with WaveBound shows improvements of **40.10%** $(0.631 \rightarrow 0.378)$ in MSE and **24.35%** $(0.612 \rightarrow 0.463)$ in MAE. The results of full baselines and benchmarks for univariate settings are reported in Appendix.

Generalization Gaps. To identify overfitting, the generalization gap which is the difference between the training loss and the test loss can be examined. To verify that our regularization truly prevents overfitting, we depict both the training loss and test loss for models with and without WaveBound in Figure 3. Without WaveBound, the test loss starts to increase abruptly, showing a high generalization gap. In contrast, when using WaveBound, we can observe that the test loss continued to decrease, which indicates that WaveBound successfully addresses overfitting in time series forecasting.

Table 3: The results of variants of flooding regularization on ECL dataset. All results are average over 3 trials and the constant value b is faithfully searched in $\{0.00, 0.02, 0.04, ...0.40\}$.

Method	Estimated risk (w/o constant)		Autoformer 96	Autoformer 336	Pyraformer 96	Pyraformer 336	Informer 96	Informer 336	LSTNet 96	LSTNet 336
Base model	$\frac{1}{MK}\sum_{j,k}\hat{R}_{jk}(g)$	MSE	0.202	0.247	0.256	0.278	0.335	0.369	0.268	0.284
		MAE	0.317	0.351	0.360	0.383	0.417	0.448	0.366	0.382
Original flooding [10]	$|(\frac{1}{MK}\sum_{j,k}\hat{R}_{jk}(g))-b|$	MSE	0.194	0.247	0.257	0.277	0.335	0.368	0.268	0.284
		MAE	0.309	0.351	0.360	0.382	0.416	0.447	0.366	0.381
Constant flooding	$\frac{1}{MK}\sum_{j,k}|\hat{R}_{jk}(g)-b|$	MSE	0.198	0.247	0.257	0.277	0.333	0.369	0.268	0.284
		MAE	0.314	0.351	0.360	0.382	0.415	0.448	0.366	0.382
WaveBound (**Ours**)	$\frac{1}{MK}\sum_{j,k}|\hat{R}_{jk}(g)-\hat{R}_{jk}(g^*)+\epsilon|$	MSE	**0.176**	**0.217**	**0.241**	**0.269**	**0.289**	**0.305**	**0.185**	**0.217**
		MAE	**0.288**	**0.327**	**0.345**	**0.371**	**0.378**	**0.394**	**0.291**	**0.326**

Figure 5: The loss landscapes of Autoformer and Informer with and without our WaveBound. Wave-Bound flattens the loss landscapes for both Autoformer and Informer, improving the generalization of models.

4.2 Significance of Dynamically Adjusting Error Bounds

In WaveBound, the error bound is dynamically adjusted at each iteration for each time step and feature. To validate the significance of such dynamics, we compare our WaveBound with the original flooding and constant flooding which use the constant values for flood levels as introduced in Section 3.

In Table 3, the training objective, *i.e.*, the empirical risk to minimize in the training process, for each method is declared without the constant term. Note that the original flooding considers the total value of risk for each batch while constant flooding and WaveBound consider each feature and time step independently. We searched the flood level b for the regularization methods with constant value b in space of $\{0.00, 0.02, 0.04, ...0.40\}$. As we expected, we cannot achieve the improvements when using a fixed constant value. The test error of different methods for each time step is depicted in Figure 4. For all time steps, our WaveBound shows a better generalization compared to original flooding and constant flooding. Consequently, the results highlight the significance of adjusting error bounds in time series forecasting.

4.3 Flatness of Loss Landscapes

The visualization of loss landscapes [17] is introduced to evaluate how the model generalizes well. It is known that the flatter the loss landscapes of the model implies the better the robustness and generalization [18, 19]. In this section, we depict the loss landscapes of models trained with and without WaveBound. Figure 5 shows the loss landscapes of Autoformer with and without our regularization. We visualize the loss landscapes using filter normalization [17] and evaluate mean-squared error (MSE) for every model for a fair comparison. We can observe that the model with WaveBound shows smoother loss landscapes compared to that of the original model. That is, our WaveBound flattens the loss landscapes of time series forecasting models and stabilizes the training.

5 Related Work

Time series forecasting. The approaches for time series forecasting can be grouped by two categories: statistical approaches and deep-learning-based approaches. Statistical approaches can provide the interpretability as well as the theoretical guarantee. Autoregressive integrated moving average (ARIMA) [20] and Prophet [21] are the most representative methods for statistical approaches. However, due to its superior results in long-range forecasting, deep-learning-based approaches are mainly considered as the prominent solution for time series forecasting. To model the temporal dependencies in time series data, recurrent neural networks (RNN) [22, 23, 24, 1] and convolutional neural networks (CNN) [14, 25] are introduced in time series forecasting. Temporal convolutional networks (TCN) [26, 16, 27] are also considered for modeling temporal causality.

Recently, Transformer-based models are introduced in time series forecasting due to its ability to capture the long-range dependencies. However, applying self-attention mechanism increases the complexity of sequence length L from $O(L)$ to $O(L^2)$. To alleviate the computation burden, several attempts such as LogTrans [8], Reformer [9], and Informer [7] re-design the self-attention mechanism to a sparse version and reduce the complexity of Transformer. Haixu *et al.* [5] proposed the decomposition architecture with Auto-Correlation mechanism called Autoformer to provide the series-wise connections. To model the temporal dependencies of different ranges, the pyramidal attention module is proposed in Pyraformer [6]. However, we observe that these models still fail to generalize due to the training strategy that enforces models to fit to all inconsistent patterns appearing in real data. In this work, we mainly focus on providing the adequate error bounds to prevent models from being overfitted to a certain pattern in the training procedure.

Regularization methods. Overfitting is one of the critical concerns for the over-parameterized deep networks. This can be identified by the generalization gaps, which is the gap between the training loss and the test loss. To prevent overfitting and improve generalization, several regularization methods are proposed. Decaying weight parameters [28], early stopping [29], and Dropout [30] which are the most representative regularization methods have been commonly applied to avoid the high bias of deep networks. In addition to these methods, the regularization methods specially designed for time series forecasting are also proposed [31, 32].

Recently, the flooding [10] is introduced to explicitly prevent *zero training loss*, thus preventing model from *training too much*. By providing the lower bound of training loss called *flood level*, the flooding allows model not to completely fit to the training data, thus improving generalization capacity of the model. In this work, we also attempt to tackle the zero training loss in time series forecasting. However, we find that bounding the average loss in time series forecasting does not perform well as expected. In time series forecasting, an appropriate error bound for each feature and time step should be carefully chosen. In addition, a constant flood level may not suitable to time series forecasting where the difficulty of prediction changes for every iteration in the mini-batch training process. To handle such issues, we suggest a novel regularization which fully considers the nature of time series forecasting.

6 Conclusion

In this work, we propose a simple yet effective regularization method called *WaveBound* for time series forecasting. WaveBound provides dynamic error bounds for each time step and feature using the slow-moving average model. With the extensive experiments on real-world benchmarks, we show that our regularization scheme consistently improves the existing models including the state-of-the-art model, addressing overfitting in time series forecasting. We also examine the generalization gaps and loss landscapes to discuss the effect of WaveBound in the training of over-parameterized networks. We believe that the significant performance improvements of our method indicate that regularization should be designed specifically for time series forecasting. We believe that our work will provide a meaningful insight to future research.

References

[1] Yaguang Li, Rose Yu, Cyrus Shahabi, and Yan Liu. Diffusion convolutional recurrent neural network: Data-driven traffic forecasting. In *Proc. the International Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR)*, 2018.

[2] Yue Pang, Bo Yao, Xiangdong Zhou, Yong Zhang, Yiming Xu, and Zijing Tan. Hierarchical electricity time series forecasting for integrating consumption patterns analysis and aggregation consistency. In *Proc. the International Joint Conference on Artificial Intelligence (IJCAI)*, 2018.

[3] Xiao Ding, Yue Zhang, Ting Liu, and Junwen Duan. Deep learning for event-driven stock prediction. In *Proc. the International Joint Conference on Artificial Intelligence (IJCAI)*, 2015.

[4] Yasuko Matsubara, Yasushi Sakurai, Willem G. van Panhuis, and Christos Faloutsos. FUNNEL: automatic mining of spatially coevolving epidemics. In *Proc. the ACM SIGKDD International Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining (KDD)*, 2014.

[5] Haixu Wu, Jiehui Xu, Jianmin Wang, and Mingsheng Long. Autoformer: Decomposition transformers with auto-correlation for long-term series forecasting. In *Proc. the Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems (NeurIPS)*.

[6] Shizhan Liu, Hang Yu, Cong Liao, Jianguo Li, Weiyao Lin, Alex X. Liu, and Schahram Dustdar. Pyraformer: Low-complexity pyramidal attention for long-range time series modeling and forecasting. In *Proc. the International Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR)*, 2022.

[7] Haoyi Zhou, Shanghang Zhang, Jieqi Peng, Shuai Zhang, Jianxin Li, Hui Xiong, and Wancai Zhang. Informer: Beyond efficient transformer for long sequence time-series forecasting. In *Proc. the AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence (AAAI)*, 2021.

[8] Shiyang Li, Xiaoyong Jin, Yao Xuan, Xiyou Zhou, Wenhu Chen, Yu-Xiang Wang, and Xifeng Yan. Enhancing the locality and breaking the memory bottleneck of transformer on time series forecasting. In *Proc. the Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems (NeurIPS)*, 2019.

[9] Nikita Kitaev, Lukasz Kaiser, and Anselm Levskaya. Reformer: The efficient transformer. In *Proc. the International Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR)*, 2020.

[10] Takashi Ishida, Ikko Yamane, Tomoya Sakai, Gang Niu, and Masashi Sugiyama. Do we need zero training loss after achieving zero training error? In *Proc. the International Conference on Machine Learning (ICML)*, 2020.

[11] Jean-Bastien Grill, Florian Strub, Florent Altché, Corentin Tallec, Pierre H. Richemond, Elena Buchatskaya, Carl Doersch, Bernardo Ávila Pires, Zhaohan Guo, Mohammad Gheshlaghi Azar, Bilal Piot, Koray Kavukcuoglu, Rémi Munos, and Michal Valko. Bootstrap your own latent - A new approach to self-supervised learning. In *Proc. the Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems (NeurIPS)*, 2020.

[12] Kaiming He, Haoqi Fan, Yuxin Wu, Saining Xie, and Ross B. Girshick. Momentum contrast for unsupervised visual representation learning. In *Proc. of the IEEE conference on computer vision and pattern recognition (CVPR)*, 2020.

[13] Antti Tarvainen and Harri Valpola. Mean teachers are better role models: Weight-averaged consistency targets improve semi-supervised deep learning results. In *Proc. the Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems (NeurIPS)*, 2017.

[14] Guokun Lai, Wei-Cheng Chang, Yiming Yang, and Hanxiao Liu. Modeling long- and short-term temporal patterns with deep neural networks. In *SIGIR*, 2018.

[15] Boris N. Oreshkin, Dmitri Carpov, Nicolas Chapados, and Yoshua Bengio. N-BEATS: neural basis expansion analysis for interpretable time series forecasting. In *Proc. the International Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR)*, 2020.

[16] Shaojie Bai, J. Zico Kolter, and Vladlen Koltun. An empirical evaluation of generic convolutional and recurrent networks for sequence modeling. *CoRR*, abs/1803.01271, 2018.

[17] Hao Li, Zheng Xu, Gavin Taylor, Christoph Studer, and Tom Goldstein. Visualizing the loss landscape of neural nets. In *Proc. the Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems (NeurIPS)*, 2018.

[18] Namuk Park and Songkuk Kim. How do vision transformers work? In *Proc. the International Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR)*, 2022.

[19] Xiangning Chen, Cho-Jui Hsieh, and Boqing Gong. When vision transformers outperform resnets without pretraining or strong data augmentations. In *Proc. the International Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR)*, 2022.

[20] George EP Box, Gwilym M Jenkins, and John F MacGregor. Some recent advances in forecasting and control. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society: Series C (Applied Statistics)*, 1974.

[21] Sean J Taylor and Benjamin Letham. Forecasting at scale. *The American Statistician*, 72(1):37–45, 2018.

[22] Yao Qin, Dongjin Song, Haifeng Chen, Wei Cheng, Guofei Jiang, and Garrison W. Cottrell. A dual-stage attention-based recurrent neural network for time series prediction. In Carles Sierra, editor, *Proc. the International Joint Conference on Artificial Intelligence (IJCAI)*, 2017.

[23] Ruofeng Wen, Kari Torkkola, Balakrishnan Narayanaswamy, and Dhruv Madeka. A multi-horizon quantile recurrent forecaster. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1711.11053*, 2017.

[24] Huan Song, Deepta Rajan, Jayaraman J. Thiagarajan, and Andreas Spanias. Attend and diagnose: Clinical time series analysis using attention models. In *Proc. the AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence (AAAI)*, 2018.

[25] Daniel Stoller, Mi Tian, Sebastian Ewert, and Simon Dixon. Seq-u-net: A one-dimensional causal u-net for efficient sequence modelling. In *Proc. the International Joint Conference on Artificial Intelligence (IJCAI)*, 2020.

[26] Aäron van den Oord, Sander Dieleman, Heiga Zen, Karen Simonyan, Oriol Vinyals, Alex Graves, Nal Kalchbrenner, Andrew W. Senior, and Koray Kavukcuoglu. Wavenet: A generative model for raw audio. ISCA, 2016.

[27] Rajat Sen, Hsiang-Fu Yu, and Inderjit S. Dhillon. Think globally, act locally: A deep neural network approach to high-dimensional time series forecasting. In *Proc. the Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems (NeurIPS)*, 2019.

[28] Stephen Jose Hanson and Lorien Y. Pratt. Comparing biases for minimal network construction with back-propagation. In *Proc. the Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems (NeurIPS)*, 1988.

[29] Nelson Morgan and Hervé Bourlard. Generalization and parameter estimation in feedforward netws: Some experiments. In *Proc. the Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems (NeurIPS)*, 1989.

[30] Nitish Srivastava, Geoffrey E. Hinton, Alex Krizhevsky, Ilya Sutskever, and Ruslan Salakhutdinov. Dropout: a simple way to prevent neural networks from overfitting. *Journal of Machine Learning Research*, 15:1929–1958, 2014.

[31] Mahdy Shirdel, Reza Asadi, Duc Do, and Michael Hintlian. Deep learning with kernel flow regularization for time series forecasting. *CoRR*, abs/2109.11649, 2021.

[32] Souhaib Ben Taieb, Jiafan Yu, Mateus Neves Barreto, and Ram Rajagopal. Regularization in hierarchical time series forecasting with application to electricity smart meter data. In *Proc. the AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence (AAAI)*, 2017.