A Comparison of Advanced Machine Learning Models for Food Import Forecasting

Corrado Mio^{^{Da}} and Siddhartha Shakya^{^b}

EBTIC, Khalifa University of Science and Technology, Abu DHabi, U.A.E.

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Abstract: Food security is responsible for food availability, access and price stability. Food import is used to ensure availability when local production is inadequate and diversity when local production is not possible. Food import prediction is one of the tools used to ensure food security. In this case study, we analyze Neural Network Forecasting models applied to a food import dataset to understand whether these models, when applied to small time series, perform better than statistical or regression models. And if it is better to use short or long forecast horizons.

1 INTRODUCTION

In 1996 the World Food Summit (Shaw, 1996), defined *food security* as the condition in which all individuals have access to food in a simple and economical way. There are four important aspects to consider, as defined by the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) (FAO, 2006):

- *Availability*. Food availability depends on local production, import, distribution, and market.
- *Stability*. Stability in food security is about the access and can depend on political or economical conditions.
- Access. Access to food is physical (it is physically available near where the consumer lives) and economical (it is not expensive).
- *Utilization*. Food utilization is related to nutritional ability, preparation, and healthcare.

Food imports are used to help insufficient local production, to ensure stable prices, and to increase the diversity of food availability.

To ensure food security and to assist economic planning, the main tool is forecasting, a mix of art (because to select the model to use is based on expert's experience) and science based on historical data, used to predict future requirements. Unfortunately, there is no *best* prediction model, due to the infinite behaviors of history. In practice, different models are tested to find the one with the best performance for each time series, using some measurement that evaluates the quality of the prediction.

In our research, we analyze complex datasets that contain several time series that cover production, export, and import of different products from different countries. Regularities are rare, forcing the necessity to use an approach in which multiple models are tested to identify the best one for each time series. In this work, only Neural Network models are analyzed, with the aim of improving our forecasting system and enhancing the prediction accuracy.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 a literature review is presented where Machine Learning algorithms are used for food import predictions. Section 3 presents the main concepts used in the article. Section 4 describes the dataset used in the experiments. Section 5 describes the algorithms used, with a short description of each of them. The results of the experiments are described in Section 6. Section 7 concludes this work.

2 RELATED WORKS

Forecasting can be obtained using one of several models available for analysis, from simple linear models (Mahalakshmi et al., 2016) to ones based on neural networks (Mahmoud and Mohammed, 2021). One of the most used models is ARIMA (Auto-regressive Integrated Moving Average), studied in (Sharma et al.,

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^a https://orcid.org/0000-0002-1087-4866

^b https://orcid.org/0000-0002-9924-9222

2018; Fattah et al., 2018; Mahajan et al., 2020). ARIMA is just a member of a rich set of models comprising SARIMAX (ARIMA for Seasonal series with eXogenous variables) (Choiriyah et al., 2020). Because ARIMA is a linear model, it is not able to detect non-linear behaviors. In this case, it is possible to use other models as Even Gray Forecasting model (EGF) (Song et al., 2020) or Recursive Dynamic model (Sheng and Song, 2019), but several others are available. A rich class of non-linear models is based on neural networks, such as models based on Recurrent Neural Network (RNN) (Alkaabi and Shakya, 2022; Khargharia et al., 2022) and Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) (Rathod et al., 2018). In recent years, an alternative to the RNN has emerged: the Transformer, based on the Attention Mechanism (Vaswani et al., 2017). This model is more efficient and scales better than classical RNN, and, given its properties, it has been used also in time series models (Wen et al., 2022).

In the article (Mio et al., 2023) they compare 33 models, discovering that the SARIMAX and KNNbased models are competitive against more complex strategies. In theory, the main problem of complex models is the high number of parameters to train, which, together with the small size of time series, does not allow one to obtain sufficiently robust models. However, this hypothesis needs to be verified.

In this work we investigate Neural Network models specific to time series (Table 3) as Transformer (Liu et al., 2023), N-BEATS (Neural basis expansion analysis for interpretable time series) (Oreshkin et al., 2019), N-HiTS (Neural hierarchical interpolation for time series) (Challu et al., 2023), DLinear (Dense Linear Neural Network) (Zeng et al., 2023), NLinear (Reversible normalization for accurate timeseries) (Kim et al., 2021) TCN (Temporal convolutional Neural Network) (Hewage et al., 2020), TFT (Temporal fusion transformers) (Lim et al., 2021), TiDE (Time-series dense encoder) (Das et al., 2023), TSMixer (Lightweight MLP-Mixer model for multivariate Time Series) (Ekambaram, 2023)

3 BACKGROUND

In a time series (TS) there exists a *temporal order* between its values, that is, the value in the time slot t_k depends on what happened in previous ones \dots, t_{k-2}, t_{k-1} .

In a time series (TS) there exists a *temporal order* between its values. For any integer *i*, the value *i* in t_{k-i} indicates the past time slot from the reference t_k , and is named *lags*.

A TS is univariate (for each time slot there is a single value) or multivariate. It can contain *exogenous variables* (*input features*) that can be used to improve prediction. In turn, the exogenous variables can be classified into two categories: 1) variables whose values are known only in the past (for example the daily temperature), 2) variables whose values are known also in the future (for example the day of week).

In this work, we are interested only in univariate TS with exogenous variables of the first category.

Let *X* be the input features, *y* the target, y_i the current target value to predict, and $L \subset \mathbb{N}^+$ the set of past lags (for example $L = \{1, 2\}$) from the current time slot t = 0, *F* the forecasting model used for the predictions and *H* (for example $H = \{0\}$) the *forecasting horizon* (FH), that is the list of future lags where the target must be predicted.

The models can be classified according to how they use the past to predict the current target and how they use the predicted values to fill the FH (Mio et al., 2023; Alzaidi et al., 2022):

$$\forall t, u: t \in L \subset \mathbb{N}^+, u \in L_X \subset \mathbb{N}$$
1) $y_i = F(y_{i-t})$
2) $y_i = F(y_{i-t}, X_{i-t})$
3) $y_i = F(y_{i-t}, X_{i-u})$

- 1. the prediction depends only on the past lags t specified in $L(L_X = \emptyset)$
- 2. as 1) where input features are used, at the same past lags $(L_X = L)$
- 3. as 2) where lags for the target (*t*) and input features (*u*) are selected separately $(L_X \neq L)$

Case 1) is used when the model is not able to use input features (for example ARIMA or some models based on RNN). Case 2) is used often with neural network models because they require in input a tensor where the data dimension containing the target and, when available, the correspondent input features. Case 3) is used with tabular models (for example, Linear Regression, KNN) because the columns of the matrix can be selected in arbitrary way. In this work only case 1) and case 2) models were used.

To predict the target for the complete FH $H = \{0, 1, 2...\}$ there are different strategies. The first is to use the current prediction y_i to predict the next one y_{i+1} , then, to use y_{i+1} to predict y_{i+2} and so on, in the *recursive* way ("recursive" column in Table 1). The second approach is to use different instances of the same algorithm F for each time slot ("models" column of Table 1) and the third is to predict the complete horizon in a single step ("horizon" column of

Table 1: Prediction of the forecasting horizon using multiple steps or multiple models.

recursive	models
$y_{i+0} = F(y_{i-t}, X_{i-t})$	$y_{i+0} = F_0(y_{i-t}, X_{i-t})$
$y_{i+1} = F(y_{i-t+1}, X_{i-t+1})$	$y_{i+1} = F_1(y_{i-t}, X_{i-t})$
$y_{i+h} = F(y_{i-t+h}, X_{i-t+h})$	$y_{i+h} = F_h(y_{i-t}, X_{i-t})$
$t \in L \subset \mathbb{N}^+$	$h \in H \subset \mathbb{N}$

Table 2: Prediction of the forecasting horizon in a single step using a single model.

horizon
$\{y_{i+h}\} = F(y_{i-t}, X_{i-t})$
$t\in L\subset \mathbb{N}^+, h\in H\subset \mathbb{N}$

Table 2). This method can be used only when the algorithm is capable of processing multivariate TS: in this case, the multiple target values are the predictions in FH. In theory this reduces error propagation, but it doesn't use recent information. An intermediate approach (*direct+recursive*) is to predict a small window of consecutive time slots, than to move the window to cover the horizon. This approach is reasonable when the forecasting window is not predefined. Having multiple instances of the same algorithm to predict different (not) overlapped windows seems not to be very useful.

4 THE DATASET

4.1 General Structure

The dataset analyzed contains monthly imports for 51 different products from 54 countries over a period of 7 years ($7 \times 12 = 84$ months). It includes 352 TS, arranged in 29568 (= 352×84) rows and 12 columns. The columns can be classified into 5 categories:

- 1. the column specifying which product is imported from which country (string). It is used as time series identifier
- 2. the import date (datetime)
- 3. the quantity of imported product (float), the TS *target*
- 4. 5 columns containing *financial* information (the first set of *input features*, floats)
- 5. 4 columns containing *weather* information (the second set of *input features*, floats)

We used a seasonality of 12 months because this is the most common among all TS.



Figure 1: Correlations between imported products and weather/financial features. From top to bottom: a) dataset as single time series, b) based on product, c) based on country, d) based on product/country (3 rows).

Analyzing the correlation between the target and the financial and weather features, using the Pearson correlation index, we found that:

- 1. considering the dataset as a single TS, there is not an evident correlation between the target and the other features: in Figure 1 (a), all cells are dark (very low correlation) except the first one (the correlation of the target with itself)
- 2. considering the TS based only on products, there are light correlations with the *weather* features: in Figure 1 (b), the weather rows contain more light cells than the financial rows
 - 3. considering the TS based only on countries, there are light correlations with the *financial* features: in Figure 1 (c), the financial rows contain more light cells than the weather rows
 - 4. analyzing each TS separately, there are correlations with both feature sets: in Figure 1 (d), the light cells are distributed in all rows¹

The existence of (light) correlations between target and input features suggests that the prediction could be improved if they are included in the training.

4.2 Time Series

A visual inspection of the TS "time vs target" plots highlights some patterns:

1. evident seasonality (Figure 2 (a))

¹to visualize all 352 TS in the image, they are organized in 3 rows each one with 117 columns



Figure 2: Some examples of time series patterns: a) with seasonality, b) trend without seasonality, c) with spikes, d) noisy, e) heteroscedastic.

- 2. trend but without an evident seasonality (Figure 2 (b))
- 3. occasional import spikes (Figure 2 (c))
- 4. noisy behavior (Figure 2 (d))
- 5. heteroscedastic behavior (Figure 2 (e))

The Augmented Dickey-Fuller test is used to analyze the TS stationarity: we found 211 TS (69.9%) already stationary, 100 (28.4%) stationary after the first differencing, 29 (8.2%) after the second one and 13 (3.7%) at the third one.

The Autocorrelation Function is used to understand if the series behaves as a random walk, it contains trend or seasonality. There are 157 TS (44.6%) with a random walk-like behavior, 64 (18.2%) with a trend, 60 (17.0%) with seasonality, 18 (5.1%) with trend and seasonality. The remaining 53 TS (15.0%) have unclassifiable behavior.

The *Partial Autocorrelation Function* is used to identify the *auto-regressive* behavior, that is, if the TS behavior depends on the past. There are 128 (36.4%) TS without an evident dependency on the past, 221 (62.8%) with a dependency only with the previous time slot (lag=1) and 3 (0.9%) with a dependency with time slots with lag equals to 2.

The *Breusch-Pagan test* is used to understand if the series is heteroscedastic, that is, if mean and standard deviation change over time. We found 137 TS (38.9%) having this behavior.

These results suggest there is no single algorithm able to forecast accurately all TS. For each series multiple schemes must be tested in order to select the best candidate.

5 ALGORITHMS AND METHODOLOGY

5.1 Algorithms

In a previous article, we used statistical/regression models. In this set of experiments, we have used the algorithms in Table 3: the statistical models are used for the comparisons, while the rest are based on neural networks:

- 1. tabular models Linear and KNN, used as reference
- 2. statistical models SARIMAX and GARCH, used as reference
- 3. simple NN model composed by one or two dense layers
- 4. Recurrent Neural Networks, followed by a simple dense layer (RNN, GRU, LSTM)
- 5. models based on CNN (CNN, TCN)
- 6. Transformer architectures (Transformer, TFT)
- models that extract temporal correlations at different time resolutions (N-HiTS, N-BEATS)
- encoder/decoder architectures with simple linear blocks (TiDE, TSMixer)

All algorithms are part of, or integrated into, the Python library sktime (Löning et al., 2019). We have included SARIMAX and GARCH strategies (in 2 variants) from sktime, 10 NN models implemented in-house (simple NN based on RNN, GRU, LSTM, CNN layers followed by a dense layer, a linear model with a single layer and another one with 2 dense layers), and 12 NN from Darts library (Herzen et al., 2022). All NN are implemented with PyTorch (Paszke et al., 2023). The tabular schemes (Linear and KNN) are part of scikit-learn (Pedregosa et al., 2011) library and wrapped in such a way that they can be used with TS. In total, there are 25 different models.

• Linear regression, KNN regression are two classical algorithms used to approximate the function Y = F(X). They can be used as TS model transforming the TS data in tabular format following one of the strategies described in Section 3

name	algo	article
Linear regression	lin	
KNN regression	knn	(Bentley, 1975)
SARIMAX	arima	(Hyndman et al., 2008)
GARCH	garch	(Bollerslev, 1986)
One Linear Layer	Innlin	(in-house)
Two Linear Layers	lnnlin2	(in-house)
DLinear	dlinear	(Zeng et al., 2023)
NLinear	nlinear	(Kim et al., 2021)
GRU	gru	(Chung et al., 2014)
LSTM	lstm	(Chung et al., 2014)
RNN	rnn	(Chung et al., 2014)
CNN	cnn	(Liu et al., 2019)
TCN	tcn	(Hewage et al., 2020)
Transformer	transf.	(Ahmed et al., 2023)
N-BEATS	nbeats	(Oreshkin et al., 2019)
N-HITS	nhits	(Challu et al., 2023)
TFT	tft	(Lim et al., 2021)
TiDE	tide	(Das et al., 2023)
TSMixer	tsmixer	(Ekambaram, 2023)

Table 3: List of models specific for time series, used in experiments.

- **SARIMAX** (Seasonal ARIMA with eXogenous variables) is a linear model considering the time series composed by two major components (the seasonal component and the stationary component) and each major component composed by 3 parts: a Moving Average part, an Autoregressive part and an Integrated differencing step, used to convert a polynomial behavior in a stationary one
- **GARCH** (Generalized Autoregressive Conditional Heteroscedasticity) is another linear model, similar to ARIMA, but it is used when mean and variance of a TS changes (in a autoregressive way) with the time
- One Linear Layer, Two Linear Layers, DLinear are simple NN models composed by 1 or 2 dense layers. In the article (Zeng et al., 2023) it was observed that if a simple dense layer works well, more complex models do not necessarily work better
- NLinear can be considered the NN version of GARCH: to handle the *distribution shift*, a simple linear model is integrated a learnable (and reversible) module with the responsibility to remove, and to re-add, the TS heteroscedasticity
- **RNN**, **GRU**, **LSTM** are Recurrent Neural Networks, used in Natural Language Processing area, applied to TS analysis for the correspondence between a sentence (a *sequence* of words) and a TS (a *sequence* of values). The have some limits: the model is able to handle only values in the range [0, 1], for each element in the sequence, it considers only the previous one, and the sequence must

be processed sequentially

- **CNN** (Convolutional Neural Network 1dimensional) is a classical NN used in signal processing. The main difference from a RNN is that, for each element in the *channel* (the equivalent of the sequence), it is considered just a small number of elements before and after the current one
- **TCN** (Temporal Convolutional Neural Network) is a model composed by multiple CNN layers where in each layer, for each element in the channel, it is considered some elements before and after the current one, but at distance $k2^l$ where *l* is the index layer. This approach permits to consider long-range temporal effects
- **Transformer** is the current replacement for all RNN models: it permits to process the sequence in parallel, and it learns the best correlation between all elements in the sequence against themselves
- **N-BEATS** is a model organized into 3 levels. The first one, the *basic block*, with the responsibility to receive in input the past data or the *backcast* from the previous block, and to emit the *backcast* and the *forecast*. The second level, the *stack block*, put in sequence multiple basic blocks, connected using the backcast and adding, between the block's input and backcast's output, a *residual link*. The stack block has two outputs: the residual output from the last basic block, and the *stack forecast* (sum of forecasts output from internal basic blocks). The third level put in sequence multiple stack blocks and emits the prediction as sum of internal stack forecasts
- **N-HiTS** it is an improvements of N-BEATS. It extends the previous *basic block* adding a *sampling layer*. In this way, each block in the *stack block*, analyzes the data at a different frequency
- **TFT** (Temporal Fusion Transformer) is a complex architecture, composed by a RNN layer, with output enriched by a residual links, a *Multi-head Attention* layer, with the responsibility to identify the more relevant information, and a final set of normalization and dense layers, used to generate the predictions
- **TiDE** has an *encoder-decoder* architecture where encoders and decoders are composed by a stack of simple building blocks. Each building block comprises: 2 dense layers, separated by a ReLU, a Dropout layer and a final normalization layer. As in previous models, the output of the Dropout layer is enriched with a residual link. The out-

put of the decoder is the output of a *Temporal Decoder*, a simple residual block with the responsibility to convert the bi-dimensional tensor emitted by the decoder in the uni-dimensional predicted target

• **TSMixer** is another model based on simple dense layers, but using a *patch*-based strategy to enrich the input. A *patch*-strategy consists of covering each target's value at time slot *t* into a small vector composed by the values at time slots $t, t + 1, \ldots, t_p$ (the *patch*).

Except for SARIMAX and GARCH, Linear and KNN models and those based on NN require specifying the number of past lags to use and how many future lags to predict. In the experiments, we used 24 months for the past and 12 months as FH. The prediction can be performed with a window of 1,3,6,12 months. Cases with windows shorter than one year use the recursive method to cover the entire horizon. In total, we have 97 experiments for each TS, for a total of 34144 (= 97×352) experiments.

5.2 Methodology

Many NN models coming from the Natural Language Processing world (RNN, GRU, LSTM, Transformer), cannot handle values outside the range [0, 1]. To obtain a comparable behavior between all models, all TS are *normalized* using the following rules: all target values that exceed 4^2 standard deviations above or below the mean, are replaced with the *median value* and all values are scaled in the range [0, 1].

We have used algorithms with minimal tuning because they work well with the default parameters.

For all NN models, we have used a maximum of 100 training epochs, integrated with an early stopping mechanism: this reduces the training time if the model reaches a configuration with a stable loss. The loss metric used is the *mean square error*.

5.3 Prediction Quality

To evaluate the quality of the prediction, we have used the WAPE score, defined as:

$$\mathsf{WAPE} = \frac{\sum_i |y_i - \hat{y}_i|}{\sum_i |y_i|}$$

where *i* is the forecasting time slot, y_i the actual value and \hat{y}_i the predicted one.

When applied to the entire data set D, y_i and \hat{y}_i are computed as

	Table 4: For	recasting he	orizon le	ength in	the best	predictions.
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pos	fh length	freq
1	1	116
2	3	85
3	12	81
4	6	70
D -		_
$y_i^{\rm D} = \sum_{\rm t}$	$\hat{y}_i^{\text{ts}} \hat{y}_i^{\text{D}}$	$=\sum_{\mathrm{ts}}\hat{y}_{i}$

that is, the dataset is considered as a single TS where the monthly import (y_i^D) is the sum of the imports in the same month from all TS (y_i^{ts}) . The same rule is applied to the predicted values $(\hat{y}_i^D, \hat{y}_i^{ts})$.

The global score, the *prediction quality*, is defined as:

$$PQ = 1 - WAPE^{D}$$

6 EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

The questions are: is it true that by predicting the complete FH we get better predictions? Are NN models really better than statistical or regression ones?

Table 4 shows that it is not always necessary to use a FH longer than a single time slot. In fact, in 116 of 352 cases (33.0%) we obtain the best prediction using only a single future time slot. Longer horizons work well for the remaining cases, but there is no second better choice.

Table 5 shows that the LSTM model delivers the best prediction for the highest number of cases (56 times, 15.9%), followed by the Transformer (48 times, 13.6%). In third position we found a simple NN model based on two dense layers (Innlin2, 36 times, 10.2%). The most advanced NN models (nbeats, tft, etc) trail the simple CNN model. The worst results come from Linear Regression, KNN, SARIMAX and GARCH, with the last two never delivering the best result.

If we consider the algorithms and the FH length (Table 6), we find Transformer architectures 3 times in the first 10 positions. We also find lnnlin2 (linear NN model with 2 layers), lstm and cnn, simple models, based on the LSTM and CNN layers, in the top ten. In the last 3 positions, we find linear (flatten) (the only case where we obtain the best prediction from a dedicated model for each time step), KNN and N-HITS with 12 months. The other 3 variants of N-HITS (1,3,6 months) perform better but do not reach the top positions.

Compared to the work (Mio et al., 2023), where the statistical and regression models achieved a pre-

²This is the standard value used in our system

pos	algo	freq	pos	algo	freq
1	lstm	56	2	transformer	48
3	lnnlin2	36	4	rnn	32
	gru	32	5	cnn	21
6	nbeats	20		tsmixer	20
	tft	20	7	tcn	18
8	tide	10		nlinear	10
9	nhits	8	10	lnnlin	7
11	knn	6	12	dlinear	5
13	lin	3	14	arima	0
	garch	0			

Table 5: Algorithms yielding the best predictions.

Table 6: Algorithms and forecasting horizon giving the best predictions.

pos	algo	fh length	freq
1	transformer	1	19
2	transformer	3	14
3	lnnlin2	1	11
4	txmixer	1	10
5	lstm	3	10
6	lnnlin2	12	10
7	transformer	12	9
8	cnnlin	1	9
9	tcn	1	9
10	nbeats	1	9
75	linear (flatten)	12	6
76	knn	12	3
77	nhits	12	3

diction quality of 88.6%, using for each TS the best model (selected between the models used in this work) this value reached 96.5%.

7 CONCLUSIONS

The objective is to create a framework that can automate the forecasting of expected imports for our partner organizations. This system analyzes the received TSs using a set of models, identifies the best model for each TS, then uses these models for predictions. To this end, we continue to improve our infrastructure and analyze the quality of the models proposed in the literature on a controlled set of real data.

In this new set of experiments, we have found that: 1) 1-step ahead forecasting is much closer to modeling than to prediction, 2) models based on Transformers work well, 3) simple NN models, based on LSTM and CNN, perform better than more complex ones, and 4) NN schemes can deliver better predictions than statistical/regression ones.

Future lines of improvement include autotuning,

based on some advanced tuning strategy (for example using the *Bayesian Optimization*) and investigating the *Fundation Time Series Models*, NN models pretrained on thousands of TS, which may be able to generate good predictions without additional training.

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