

1 Article

# 2 Short-Term and Long-Term Forecasting for Changing 3 the Position of Points in the space by using Artificial 4 Neural Networks

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13 **Abstract:** Forecasting is one of the most growing areas in most sciences attracting the attention of  
14 many researchers for more extensive study. Therefore, the goal of this study is to develop an  
15 integrated forecasting methodology based on an Artificial Neural Network (ANN), which is a  
16 modern and attractive intelligent technique. The final result is to provide short-term and long-term  
17 forecasts for changing the position of points, i.e. the displacement or deformation of the surface  
18 they belong to. The motivation was the combination of two thoughts, the introduction of the  
19 concept of forecasting in most scientific disciplines (e.g. economics, medicine) and the desire to  
20 know the future behavior and location of a construction or an area of the natural earth surface. This  
21 methodology was designed to be accurate, stable and general in deferent kind of geodetic data. The  
22 basic procedures, which are involved, are the definition of the problem, the data pre-processing,  
23 the definition of the most suitable ANN, the evaluation using the proper criteria and the  
24 production and use of forecasts. The methodology gives great importance to the stages of the  
25 pre-processing and the evaluation. The forecasting intervals are also emphasized. Finally the most  
26 appropriate ANN is presented and evaluated also it is proved that the use of ANNs in order to  
27 make short-term and long-term forecasts gives more accurate forecasts compared to other  
28 conventional-statistical forecasting methods.

29 **Keywords:** Artificial Neural Networks; NAR; NARX; Geodesy; Position Changing; Short-Term  
30 Forecasting; Long-Term Forecasting; Data Mining.

31

## 32 1. Introduction

33 The introduction should briefly place the study in a broad context and highlight why it is  
34 important. It should define the purpose of the work and its significance. The current state of the  
35 research field should be reviewed carefully and key publications cited. Please highlight  
36 controversial and diverging hypotheses when necessary. Finally, briefly mention the main aim of the  
37 work and highlight the principal conclusions. As far as possible, please keep the introduction  
38 comprehensible to scientists outside your particular field of research. References should be  
39 numbered in order of appearance and indicated by a numeral or numerals in square brackets, e.g.,  
40 [1] or [2,3], or [4–6]. See the end of the document for further details on references.

41 In the 75 years since the introduction of ANNs basically in Neuroscience [1], their use has  
42 expanded to numerous fields, including Economics, Mathematics, Meteorology, Clinical Medicine,  
43 Environmental Area etc. Specifically in recent years, ANNs have found a number of applications in

44 the area of recognition and classification [2], water quality [3,4], meteorology [5], politics [6], medical  
45 diagnostics [7] etc. Therefore, it appears that the ANNs are used in applications for classification,  
46 clustering, association, regression, modeling and forecasting.

47 Moreover, ANNs have also been introduced to solve various problems in the scientific field of  
48 Geodesy. They have been used in the regional mapping of the Geoid [8], sea level prediction [9],  
49 coordinate transformation [10], UTC time correction [11, 12] etc.

50 In brief, an ANN is an artificial intelligence technique that mimics the human brain's biological  
51 neural network. It is defined as a system of simple processing elements called "artificial neurons",  
52 which are typically organized in layers, so that each ANN includes: an input layer, hidden layers  
53 (which can have n neurons linked in different ways to the other hidden layers or to the output layer)  
54 and an output layer. The main feature of ANNs is their inherent capacity to learn, a key component  
55 of their intelligence. Learning is achieved through training, a repetitive process of gradual  
56 adaptation of the network's parameters to the values required to solve a problem [13-19].

57 Before analyzing the proposed forecasting methodology it is essential to mention, the  
58 worldwide used forecasting techniques. The techniques, which are used in order to produce a  
59 forecast, can be separated in two main categories: the judgmental forecasting techniques and the  
60 statistical forecasting techniques [20]. However, there is another alternative way of separate these  
61 techniques in: the judgmental ones, the extrapolative, the econometric and finally the non-linear  
62 computer-intensive ones. Also the above mentioned techniques can further split in some other  
63 corresponding subcategories [21]:

64 Finally, they can also be distinguished, according to the method which is used in order to  
65 produce the forecast, in the following categories as the Quantitative forecasting (as Time series  
66 methods, Causal relationship or explanatory methods and Artificial intelligence methods),  
67 Qualitative or judgmental forecasting (as Individual methods and Committee methods) and  
68 Technological forecasting (as Exploratory methods and Normative methods).

69 After the necessary bibliographic research, it was found that in the scientific area of Geodesy  
70 the main interest of the Geodesists is focused on modeling and monitoring of such a phenomenon  
71 rather than on forecasting. Thus, it was emerged that there is no methodology, which could be used  
72 in order to forecast the position change of a point on an artificial structure or on the earth surface.  
73 The majority of the proposed techniques or models are focused on monitoring the point's position.

74 The aim of this paper is to present an automatic and integrated methodology in order to  
75 forecast the position of a point, which belongs to a construction or to the earth surface, in a future  
76 time. This forecast concerns both the long-term future as well as the short-term.

77 The use of the term "forecasting" is more accurate than the term "prediction", because the first  
78 one is more objective rather than the second, which is more subjective and intuitive. According to  
79 Lewis-Beck "forecasting can be seen as being a subset of prediction, with all forecasts being  
80 predictions, but not all predictions being forecasts" [22].

81 The proposed methodology is based on the combination of two disciplines: the Science of  
82 Knowledge Discovery in Databases (KDD) for Data Mining and the subset of the Artificial  
83 Intelligence Science, namely the ANNs.

84 Essentially, KDD is a science that emphasizes in the data analysis process, but it does not deal  
85 with the methods which will be used to perform this analysis [23- 25] and ANN is considered as one  
86 of the modern mathematical - computational methods which are used to solve a large number of  
87 different kinds of problems.

## 88 2. Description of the methodology

89 This section may be divided by subheadings. It should provide a concise and precise  
90 description of the experimental results, their interpretation as well as the experimental conclusions  
91 that can be drawn.

92 The methodology of this research uses an Artificial Intelligence method, namely an ANN, so it  
93 is a quantitative based methodology. It is based on a method which is modern but at the same time  
94 accurate, stable and general so that it could be used in different but similar problems.

95 The most important step is the definition of the examined forecasting problem. This means that  
96 the aim of the forecasting and the use of the results need to be clear. In addition, it is useful to define  
97 the timescale (one-step-ahead forecasting or multi-step-ahead forecasting, short-term or long term)  
98 of the desired forecasting.

99 The problem, which the methodology deals with, is the *forecasting of the position of a point in a*  
100 *future time*. It is important to mention that the desired forecasting depends on the available data. No  
101 change in the position of a point of the order of a few mm can be predicted if no such movement is  
102 recorded in the existing data, i.e. if the geodetic instruments and methods, which collect the data,  
103 cannot detect such a displacement.

104 The basic steps of the methodology are: Problem definition → finding the available data in time  
105 series form → data pre-processing → ANN definition → evaluation → production and use of  
106 forecasts.

### 107 2.1. Data pre-processing

108 This stage is of a great importance since it has a significance role in the accuracy of the results.  
109 Through this process the mechanism that produces the timeseries can be found.

110 The first test is to identify if **the timeseries follows a known distribution**. This test can be  
111 performed either by the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test [26] or its variation, the Anderson-Darling Gof  
112 (goodness of fit) test [27].

113 If the timeseries does not follow a known distribution, then it is possible to transform it. The  
114 transformation that can be used for this purpose is the Box-Cox [28, 29], so that the abnormal  
115 timeseries becomes almost normal. The Johnson transformation can also be used as an alternative  
116 method [30]. Additionally, the **statistical analysis** of the timeseries (statistics) is then used to find  
117 statistical measures.

118 The computational measures which are used are: the mean, the maximum and minimum  
119 values, the standard deviation, the covariance, the autocovariance, the correlation and the  
120 autocorrelation.

121 The next step is to find the **qualitative features** and the **timeseries analysis of the major**  
122 **components**. At this stage the existence of stationarity in the timeseries or any trend, seasonality,  
123 cyclicity or randomness is controlled. To convert the timeseries from non stationary to stationary,  
124 the diffusion method is used to calculate either the first or the second differences.

125 Finally, it is sometimes useful to **analyze the frequency** of the timeseries in order to find some  
126 information that is not immediately apparent in the original signal (timeseries). Then there is the  
127 possibility to use some mathematical transformations such as the Fourier Transformation, the  
128 Fourier Short - Time Transformation and the Wavelet Transformation, with the ultimate goal of  
129 retrieving some additional useful information.

130 It is then necessary to manage:

- 131 • the missing values presented in the timeseries,
- 132 • the possible zero values in the event that it is known that they should not exist,
- 133 • the duplicate recordings that may exist and
- 134 • any unusual observations (outliers) [31].

135 With regard to the missing values likely to be presented in the timeseries, if they involve long  
136 periods of incomplete data, an effort should be made to find these values from other sources. If there  
137 are individual cases (not continuous time) and when no seasonal behavior has been observed from  
138 the plot of the timeseries, this missing value (or an unexpected zero value) is defined as the mean of  
139 the previous and the next value. In the case of duplicate recordings, they must be detected and  
140 deleted.

141 The most complex case is the existence of outliers. The difficulty of this case lies in detecting  
 142 these values not in an optical way but in a mathematical way that can be automated. Once those  
 143 individual values are found, they are replaced by the method used in the previous cases, if that is  
 144 possible. A definition of the outliers is given as follows [32]:

145 "An outlier is a residual which, according to some test rule, is in contradiction to assumptions on the  
 146 stochastic properties of the residuals"

147 There are several methods for finding outliers such as the Z-score, modified z-score, tucked  
 148 method, boxedot, MADe method, Median rule, and generalized ESD test [33]. Each test should be  
 149 checked by the researcher for its suitability for the problem under consideration. A proposed  
 150 method is the following [34]:

- 151 • the first differences of the z data are calculated
- 152 • the upper ( $U_z$ ) and lower ( $L_z$ ) quartile of the series of differences is calculated
- 153 • a point is considered as an outlier if the following is valid:  
 154  $z < L_z - 1.5 \cdot (U_z - L_z)$  or  $z > U_z + 1.5 \cdot (U_z - L_z)$

155 Another way of identifying outliers in a timeseries is to determine the standard deviation (SD),  
 156  $\pm 3s$ , which includes 99% of the measurements, excluding only the values that can be considered as  
 157 outliers [35].

## 158 2.2. Prediction interval

159 When attempting to forecast a value of a phenomenon, the result always has an uncertainty and  
 160 an ambiguity [36], so it is necessary to define the forecasting interval.

161 Forecasting interval or prediction interval (PI) is defined as the interval within which the value  
 162 is expected to occur with a specific probability  $(1-\alpha)$  % [37]. It is very important to estimate this  
 163 interval, in order to finally find the most accurate forecasting method [38].

164 The interval consists of an upper predictive limit (UPL) and a lower predictive limit (LPL) that  
 165 defines the interval within the future value will appear with a particular probability [39]. In the  
 166 international literature, they are referred to either as forecast limits [40] or as prediction bounds [41].  
 167 There is a parametric and non-parametric approach for estimating the forecasting interval.

168 In the parametric approach, which was proposed by Box and Jenkins [42], it is considered that  
 169 forecasting errors  $e_t = D_t - P_t$ , meaning the series  $\{e_t\}$ , is independent and follows the normal  
 170 distribution with zero mean and variance  $\sigma_e^2$ . The forecasting error used concerns data that is not  
 171 used when creating the model or applying a method, and is often referred as an out-of-sample  
 172 forecast error. The PI, for a probability  $(1-\alpha)$ %, is calculated by the following equation [39, 43]:

$$\hat{x}_N(h) \pm z_{\alpha/2} \cdot \sqrt{\text{var}[e_N(h)]} \quad \text{or} \quad \hat{x}_N(h) \pm z_{\alpha/2} \cdot \sigma_e \quad (1)$$

173 Where the standard deviation of errors is calculated from the equation :

$$\sigma_e = \sqrt{\sigma_e^2} = \sqrt{\text{var}[e_N(h)]} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (e_i - \hat{e})^2}{N-1}} \quad (2)$$

174 and  $\hat{e} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N e_i}{N}$  (Bibliographically referred as bias).

175 Thus, the prediction limits are as follows :  $\text{UPL} = z_{\alpha/2} \cdot \sigma_e$  and  $\text{LPL} = -z_{\alpha/2} \cdot \sigma_e$ .

## 176 2.3. The design of the forecasting ANN

177 Since the problem relates to forecasting, so that the concept time information is used, the  
 178 appropriate ANN is a **Dynamic Neural Network**.

179 In this work, the dynamic network decided upon by an extensive bibliographic study is a  
 180 **recurrent or feedback dynamic network (RNN)**, because they can process data sequences, time  
 181 information in our case. They can simulate two kinds of memory elements, long-term and  
 182 short-term.

183 In every kind of ANN, the synaptic weights can be considered as long-term memories.  
 184 However, if the problem has a temporal dimension, some form of short-term memory must be  
 185 integrated into the neural network. The simplest way to do this is with time delays.

186 RNNs also allow non-linear relationships to be found, between the elements of a time series.  
 187 The most important is that these networks have the advantage of recognizing time patterns  
 188 regardless of their duration. More specifically; we chose to use non-linear **NAR** autoregressive  
 189 recurrent networks for forecasting a time step, and a **NARX** non-linear autoregressive with  
 190 exogenous inputs for multi-step forecasting.

191 In the case of NAR, the forecasting of the  $\ell(t)$  element of the timeseries is made, using only  $d$   
 192 past values of that timeseries, according to the equation:

$$\ell(t) = f(\ell(t-1), \dots, \ell(t-d)) \quad (3)$$

193 Similarly, in the case of NARX, the  $d$  past values of the same timeseries ( $\ell$ ) and also  $d$  of  
 194 another exogenous timeseries ( $q$ ) are used, according to the equation:

$$\ell(t) = f(\ell(t-1), \dots, \ell(t-d), q(t-1), \dots, q(t-d)) \quad (4)$$

195 The training of the ANN is done through supervised process based on prior knowledge of the  
 196 right outputs. For this reason, a percentage of the historical data is retained at the end for evaluation  
 197 and control of the results.

198 These networks produce a one-step-ahead forecasting only. In order to predict a  
 199 multi-step-ahead, a loop is added to the networks. That is, once the first forecast is made, it returns  
 200 to the network as an input to produce the next forecast, and so on. Therefore, the network based on  
 201 its own outputs (forecasted values), also predicts the following future values.

202 In order to select the most suitable final network, after its general architecture has been decided,  
 203 various tests of ANN's implementation are carried out, with the main objective of finding the one  
 204 that will achieve the best results for forecasting. The basic principle used is that of validation by  
 205 varying the hyper-parameters of the network: number of hidden layers, the number of neurons of  
 206 each hidden layer, the learning algorithm, the activation function of the hidden and exit neurons,  
 207 and the number of delays. This step also includes all the procedures that are necessary to select the  
 208 most appropriate ANN.

209 • Normalization of data.

210 For this methodology the Min-Max normalization is proposed, in order to normalize the values  
 211 between  $high=0.1$  and  $low=0.9$  using the following equation.

$$\widehat{\ell} = low + \frac{\ell - \ell_{\min}}{\ell_{\max} - \ell_{\min}} \cdot (high - low) \quad (5)$$

212 Where  $\ell_{\min}$  and  $\ell_{\max}$  are the min and the max value of the original timeseries

213 • Separation of training, testing and validation data sets.

214 The available historical data (timeseries) is proposed to be separated in chronological order by  
 215 using the following percentages: training set 70%, test set 15% and validation set 15%.

216 • Tests on the selection of the training algorithm, the transfer function, the number of hidden  
 217 neurons and the hidden levels.

218 The training algorithm, which is found to be appropriate, is the Bayesian regularization and the  
 219 training function is the logsig function. In this preliminary study we chose to use only one hidden  
 220 layer in order to keep complexity low and training times small.

## 2.4. Forecasting evaluation

Estimating the uncertainty of the forecasts is an integral part of the forecasting process. In order to evaluate a forecast, the results obtained must be compared with the actual values, which are already known, for the phenomenon under consideration. To do this, some statistical indicators or other evaluation criteria are used.

The appropriate evaluation criteria are the mean square error (**MSE**), the root of the mean square error (**RMSE**), the mean absolute error (**MAE**) and the coefficient of determination (**R<sup>2</sup>**) [44].

The **R<sup>2</sup>** is used because one of the usual evaluation methods is to perform a linear regression in order to check if the selected method has a good performance during the evaluation phase. This index is interpreted as the percentage of the variance of the values of the dependent variable (i.e. the predicted values) from the values of the independent variable (i.e. the actual-known values).

The **MAE** is a failure index of the forecast by its actual desired value. Absolute values are used, so the forecast direction is not taken into account.

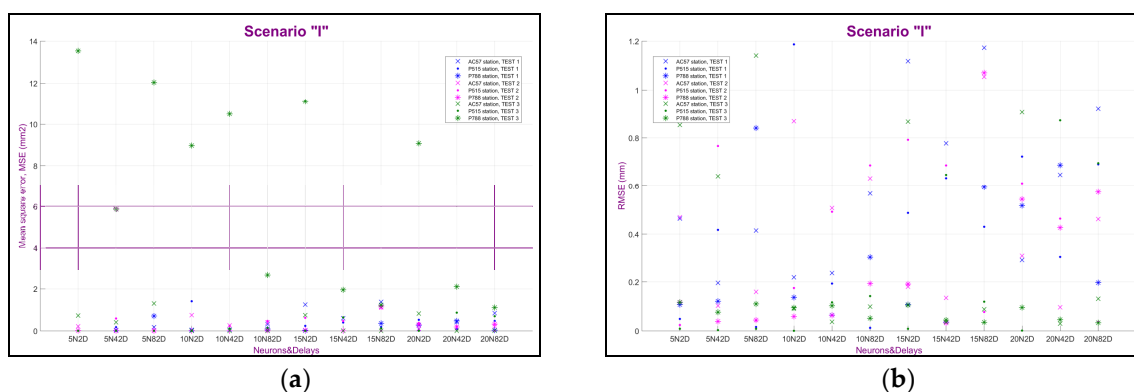
The **MSE** has the possibility to highlight possible extreme deviations. This is the most common index of error that shows the qualitative performance of the forecasting method. Obviously it does not have the same units as the actual values and the forecasts, so instead of this **RMSE** is used. The main difference between using the **MAE** or the **RMSE** is that the **MAE** assigns equal weight to all errors when calculating overall performance, while **RMSE** gives greater weight to errors with greater absolute value. Thus, the **RMSE** value is never lower than the **MAE** value for the same data set. When both metrics are calculated, the **RMSE** is by definition never smaller than the **MAE**.

In order to define the accuracy of the forecasting the mean position change must be calculated. Specifically, a forecast can be considered as accurate if the **MAE** is significantly smaller than the mean predicted position change.

The **R<sup>2</sup>** index measures the amount of variance in the target variable that can be explained by the model. In some cases, it is necessary to quantifying the error in the same measuring unit of the variable. This problem is solved by the use of the **RMSE**. The issue with the **RMSE**, and with the **MSE**, is that since they square the residuals they tend to be more affected by large residuals. To solve the problem with large residuals **MAE** can be used, as we average absolute value of the residuals is calculated. Taking the square root of the average squared errors has some interesting implications for **RMSE**.

Since the errors are squared before they are averaged, the **RMSE** gives a relatively high weight to large errors. This means the **RMSE** should be more useful when large errors are particularly undesirable. There are cases when the **MAE** may be steady but **RMSE** may increase as the variance associated with the frequency distribution of error also increases [45].

The following figures 1 and 2 present an example of the above mentioned criteria from a case study. The final hyper-parameters are chosen from the examination of those diagrams. Finally, the network, which has the smallest values (for the test set) in these criteria, is selected.

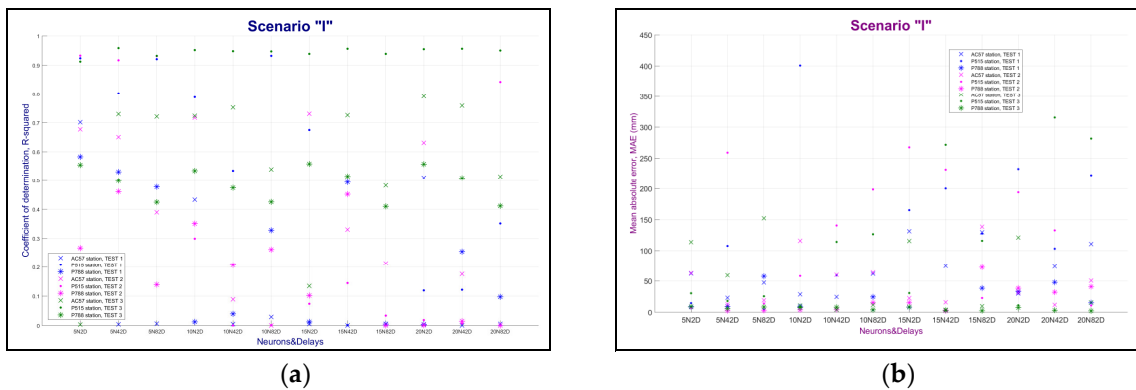


258  
259

260

**Figure 1.** (a) A combined MSE diagram; (b) A combined RMSE diagram

261



262  
263

264 **Figure 2.** (a) A combined R<sup>2</sup> diagram; (b) A combined MAE diagram

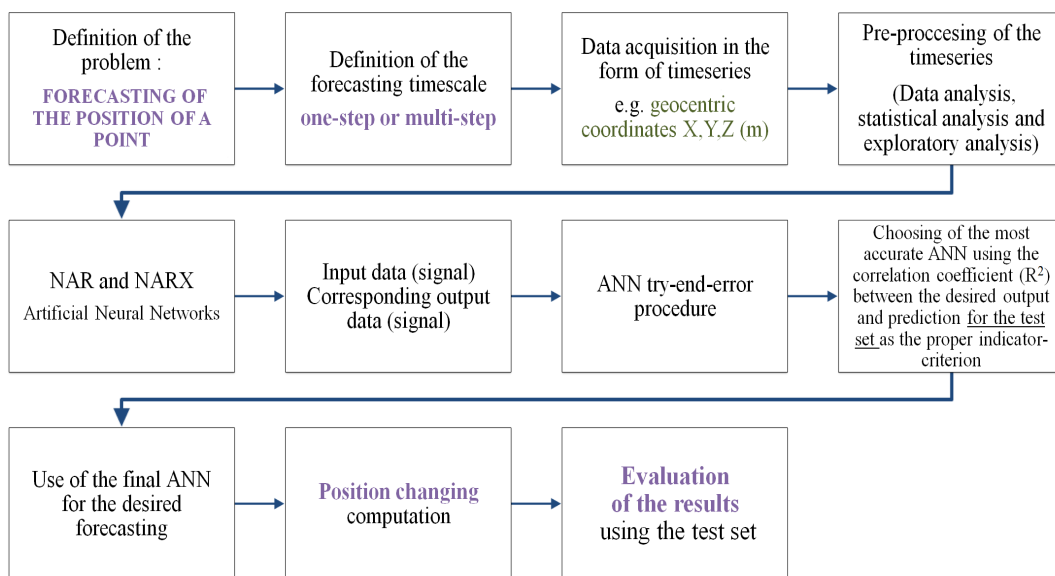
265 **3. Discussion**

266 The proposed methodology has been developed to solve the problem both for one-step-ahead  
267 and for multi-step-ahead forecasting and therefore expands on the steps which are presented in the  
268 figure 3.

269 To sum up, the ANN resulting as the best for forecasting the change of the points is a non-linear  
270 autoregressive NAR recurrent neural network and a NARX non-linear autoregressive with  
271 eXogenous inputs in the case of multi-step forecasting. Some preliminary tests on a sample dataset  
272 led to the following findings about the ANN design choices and training procedure:

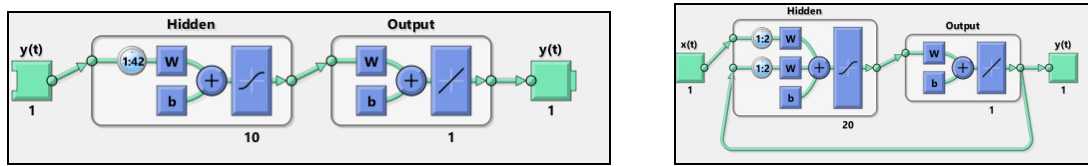
- 273 • It consists of one hidden layer and has "logsig" as an activation function of hidden and output  
274 neurons.
- 275 • Separation of the data is done in chronological order (70%, 15%, 15%) and their normalization in  
276 the interval [0.1,0.9]
- 277 • The learning algorithm is the Bayesian regularization.
- 278 • It is proposed the number of hidden neurons to be 10 and the number of delays 42 for one-step  
279 forecasts. While for multi-step forecasts 20 hidden neurons and 2 delays.
- 280 • Finally, in cases where time series of geocentric coordinates X, Y, Z (m) are used, it is proposed  
281 X Y Z to be used separately as inputs and outputs.

282  
283



**Figure 3.** Main steps of the proposed forecasting methodology

284 The best ANNs for one-step and for multi-step forecasting are presented accordingly in the  
 285 following figure 4.



286

287 **Figure 4.** The NAR for one-step and NARX for multi-step forecasting suggested networks for the  
 288 forecasting of points position changing

289 The number of available data to be used is a very important factor in their training. As the  
 290 number of data increases, the better the network will be "trained" and will therefore produce better  
 291 results.

292 Big data management is very complex and requires special treatment. In such cases it is  
 293 necessary to use automated techniques rather than optical means as in smaller volume and size data.  
 294 Despite the difficulties, finding and using large amounts of information is a major asset especially  
 295 when it comes to forecasting.

296 During training, special care must be taken to avoid the overfitting phenomenon. If the network  
 297 is trained for too many epochs and/or in the entire dataset, we could observe small training error but  
 298 lose the ability to generalize well, i.e. perform well on new, unseen data. Therefore, there is a  
 299 possibility that there is a limit beyond which, while the training error decreases, the validation error  
 300 increases. In this situation, the network may have memorized the correct results that arise from the  
 301 education phase, but has not learned to generalize properly on new data.

302 As already mentioned, the proposed methodology is based on ANNs. The main drawback of  
 303 their use is the large number of tests (try-and-error process) that must be carried out with all the  
 304 possible different combinations of the hyper-parameters.

305 Therefore, in cases where the data is so many, a representative sample should be selected by  
 306 which all the experiments will be carried out and, finally, the most suitable ANN will be proposed.  
 307 The sample could be simple random, systematic or else quasi-random and finally stratified random  
 308 depending on the available dataset.

309 Despite this disadvantage, the methodology gives more accurate forecasts compared to other  
 310 conventional-statistical forecasting methods (i.e. simple mean, simple moving average, simple  
 311 exponential smoothing, double moving average, Brown's method, Holt's method, ARMA/ARIMA  
 312 models) [46].

#### 313 4. Conclusions

314 ANNs have been introduced to the engineering sciences in general and Geodesy in particular.  
 315 In recent years, an attempt has been made to investigate their use. Several of the geodetic  
 316 applications in which the ANNs have been used to date have yielded very satisfactory results,  
 317 giving even better results compared to classical methods for solving these problems. Applications  
 318 mainly used are local geoid mapping, averaging of the sea level, coordinate conversion to reference  
 319 systems, mobile mapping models, and so on.

320 As far as ANNs are concerned, this is a modern and very attractive intelligent technique. For  
 321 this reason, implementing an ANN to solve any problem is an interesting and original alternative.  
 322 However, a try-and-error process must always be followed during the implementation process. The  
 323 more testing done, the more complete the work is to investigate the use of ANNs for any problem.  
 324 This means that it takes a lot of time and a lot of computational power until one gets the desired  
 325 result.

326 The documentation and suggestion of a particular ANN and all its over-parameters arises after  
 327 each application, which is another significant disadvantage. ANN are a data driven method, so the



328 architecture and hyper-parameters found to be optimal in a dataset, in the general case won't be  
329 optimal for another dataset.

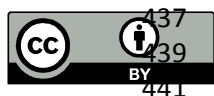
330 This methodology which is based on ANNs is accurate, stable and general and can be used in  
331 order to predict the changing of the position of points. It gives better, more accurate, results rather  
332 than the classical-conventional methods. It can give forecasts of position change of the order of  
333 2mm with MAE in the order of 0.5mm while the optimum convention method -ARMA model (4,3)-  
334 with MAE 1.8mm.

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