SELF-SUPERVISED TIME SERIES REPRESENTATION LEARNING BY INTER-INTRA RELATIONAL REASONING

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ABSTRACT

Self-supervised learning achieves superior performance in many domains by extracting useful representations from the unlabeled data. However, most of traditional self-supervised methods mainly focus on exploring the inter-sample structure while less efforts have been concentrated on the underlying intra-temporal structure, which is important for time series data. In this paper, we present **Self**-**Time**: a general **Self**-supervised **Time** series representation learning framework, by exploring the inter-sample relation and intra-temporal relation of time series to learn the underlying structure feature on the unlabeled time series. Specifically, we first generate the inter-sample relation by sampling positive and negative samples of a given anchor sample, and intra-temporal relation by sampling time pieces from this anchor. Then, based on the sampled relation, a shared feature extraction backbone combined with two separate relation reasoning heads are employed to quantify the relationships of the sample pairs for inter-sample relation reasoning, and the relationships of the time piece pairs for intra-temporal relation reasoning, respectively. Finally, the useful representations of time series are extracted from the backbone under the supervision of relation reasoning heads. Experimental results on multiple real-world time series datasets for time series classification task demonstrate the effectiveness of the proposed method. Code and data are publicly available at: https://haoyfan.github.io.

1 Introduction

Time series data is ubiquitous and there has been significant progress for time series analysis (Das, 1994) in machine learning, signal processing, and other related areas, with many real-world applications such as healthcare (Stevner et al., 2019), industrial diagnosis (Kang et al., 2015), and financial forecasting (Sen et al., 2019).

Deep learning models have emerged as successful models for time series analysis (Hochreiter & Schmidhuber, 1997; Graves et al., 2013; Shukla & Marlin, 2019; Fortuin et al., 2019; Oreshkin et al., 2020). Despite their fire share of success, the existing deep supervised models are not suitable for high-dimensional time series data with limited amount training samples as those data-driven approaches rely on finding ground truth for supervision, where data labeling is a labor-intensive and time-consuming process, and sometimes impossible for time series data. One solution is to learn useful representations from unlabeled data, which can substantially reduce dependence on costly manual annotation.

Self-supervised learning aims to capture the most informative properties from the underlying structure of unlabeled data through the self-generated supervisory signal to learn generalized representations. Recently, self-supervised learning has attracted more and more attention in computer vision for image data such as solving jigsaw puzzles (Noroozi & Favaro, 2016), inpainting (Pathak et al., 2016), rotation prediction(Gidaris et al., 2018), and contrastive learning of visual representations(Chen et al., 2020). Or for video data such as object tracking (Wang & Gupta, 2015), frame

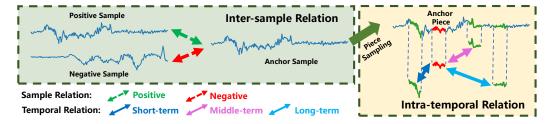


Figure 1: Exploring inter-sample relation, and multi-scale intra-temporal relation of time series. Here, an example of 3-scale temporal relations including short-term, middle-term and long-term temporal relation is given for illustration.

order validation (Misra et al., 2016; Wei et al., 2018), and pace prediction (Wang et al., 2020). Although some video-based approaches attempt to capture temporal information in the designed pretext task, time series data is far different from such visual data, because there is not enough feature at each time point compared with the plentiful visually semantic feature at each video clip. Therefore, how to design an efficient pretext task in a self-supervised manner for time series representation learning is still an open problem.

(1) In this work, we present SelfTime: a general Self-supervised Time series representation learning framework. Inspired by relational discovery during self-supervised human learning, which attempts to discover new knowledge by reasoning the relation among entities (Goldwater et al., 2018; Patacchiola & Storkey, 2020), (2) we explore the inter-sample relation reasoning and intra-temporal relation reasoning of time series to capture the underlying structure pattern of the unlabeled time series data. Specifically, as shown in Figure 1, for inter-sample relation reasoning, given an anchor sample, we generate from its transformation counterpart and another individual sample as the positive and negative samples respectively. For intra-temporal relation reasoning, we firstly generate an anchor piece, then, several reference pieces are sampled to construct different scales of temporal relation between the anchor piece and the reference piece, where relation scales are determined based on the temporal distance. Note that in Figure 1, we only show an example of 3-scale temporal relations including short-term, middle-term, and long-term relation for an illustration, whereas in different scenarios, there could be different temporal relation scale candidates. Based on the sampled relation, a shared feature extraction backbone combined with two separate relation reasoning heads are employed to quantify the relationships between the sample pairs or the time piece pairs for inter-sample relation reasoning or intra-temporal relation reasoning, respectively. Finally, the useful representations of time series are extracted from the backbone under the supervision of relation reasoning heads on the unlabeled data. Overall, SelfTime is simple yet effective by conducting the designed pretext tasks directly on the original input signals. (3) In the experiment, we achieve new state-of-the-art results, and outperforms existing methods by a significant margin on multiple real-world time series datasets for classification task.

2 RELATED WORK

Time Series Modeling. In the last decades, time series modeling has been paid close attention with numerous efficient methods, including distance-based methods, feature-based methods, ensemble-based methods, and deep learning based methods. Distance-based methods (Berndt & Clifford, 1994; Górecki & Łuczak, 2014) try to measure the similarity between time series using Euclidean distance or Dynamic Time Warping distance, and then conduct classification based on 1-NN classifiers. Feature-based methods aim to extract useful feature for time series representation. Two typical types including bag-of-feature based methods (Baydogan et al., 2013; Schäfer, 2015) and shapelet based methods (Ye & Keogh, 2009; Hills et al., 2014). Ensemble-based methods (Lines & Bagnall, 2015; Bagnall et al., 2015) aims at combining multiple classifiers for higher classification performance. More recently, deep learning based methods (Karim et al., 2017; Ma et al., 2019; Cheng et al., 2020) conduct classification by cascading the feature extractor and classifier based on MLP, RNN, and CNN in an end-to-end manner. Our approach focuses instead on self-supervised representation learning of time series on unlabeled data, exploiting inter-sample relation and intra-temporal relation of time series to guide the generation of useful feature.

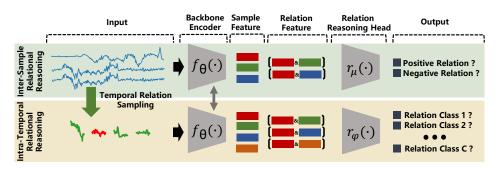


Figure 2: Architecture of SelfTime.

Relational Reasoning. Reasoning the relations between entities and their properties makes significant sense to generally intelligent behavior (Kemp & Tenenbaum, 2008). In the past decades, there has been an extensive researches about relational reasoning and its applications including knowledge base (Socher et al., 2013), question answering (Johnson et al., 2017; Santoro et al., 2017), reinforcement learning (Zambaldi et al., 2019), and graph representation (Scarselli et al., 2008; Battaglia et al., 2018), which perform relational reasoning directly on the constructed sets or graphs that explicitly represent the target entities and their relations. Different from those previous works that attempt to learn a relation reasoning head for a special task, inter-sample relation reasoning based on unlabeled image data is employed in (Patacchiola & Storkey, 2020) to learn useful visual representation in the underlying backbone. Inspired by this, in our work, we focus on time series data and exploring both inter-sample relation and intra-temporal relation for time series representation in a self-supervised scenario.

Self-supervised Learning. Self-supervised learning has attracted lots of attention recently in computer vision including image data and video data. For image data, the self-supervised pretext tasks including solving jigsaw puzzles (Noroozi & Favaro, 2016), inpainting (Pathak et al., 2016), rotation prediction (Gidaris et al., 2018), and contrastive learning of visual representations (Chen et al., 2020). Different from image, additional temporal dimension provides more signal for video-based pretext tasks such as frame order validation (Misra et al., 2016; Wei et al., 2018), temporal statistics (Wang et al., 2019), and pace prediction (Wang et al., 2020). Different from video signal that includes plenty of raw feature in both spatial and temporal dimension, for time series, there is not enough feature at each time point compared with a rich array of visually semantic feature at each video clip. Therefore, how to design an efficient self-supervised pretext task to capture the underlying structure of time series is still an open problem.

3 Method

Given an unlabeled time series set $\mathcal{T}=\{t_n\}_{n=1}^N$, where each time series $t_n=(t_{n,1},...t_{n,T})^{\mathrm{T}}$ contains T ordered real values. An L-length piece $p_{n,s}$ of t_n starting at time step s is a contiguous subsequence denoted as $p_{n,s}=(t_{n,s},t_{n,s+1},...,t_{n,s+L-1})^{\mathrm{T}}$. We aim to learn a useful representation $z_n=f_{\theta}(t_n)$ from the backbone encoder $f_{\theta}(\cdot)$ where θ is the learnable weights of the neural networks. The architecture of the proposed SelfTime is shown in Figure 2, which consists of a inter-sample relational reasoning branch and a intra-temporal relational reasoning branch. Firstly, takes the original time series signals and their sampled time pieces as the inputs, a shared backbone encoder extracts time series feature and time piece feature to aggregate the inter-sample relation feature and intra-temporal relation feature respectively, and then feeds them to two separate relation reasoning heads to reason the final relation score of inter-sample relation and intra-temporal relation.

3.1 INTER-SAMPLE RELATION REASONING

Formally, given a time series example t_n , we randomly generate two sets of K augmentations $\mathcal{A}(t_n) = \{t_n^{(i)}\}_{i=1}^K$ and $\mathcal{A}(t_{\backslash n}) = \{t_{\backslash n}^{(i)}\}_{i=1}^K$, where $t_n^{(i)}$ is the i-th augmentation of t_n and $t_{\backslash n}$ is a random example from $\mathcal{T} \setminus \{t_n\}$. Then, we construct two types of relation pairs: positive relations

tion pairs and negative relation pairs. A positive relation pair is $(t_n^{(i)}, t_n^{(j)})$ sampled from the same augmentation set $\mathcal{A}(t_n)$, while a negative relation pair is $(t_n^{(i)}, t_{\setminus n}^{(j)})$ sampled from different augmentation sets $A(t_n)$ and $A(t_n)$. Based on the sampled relation pairs, we use the backbone encoder f_{θ} to extract representation vectors $\mathbf{z}_n^{(i)} = f_{\theta}(\mathbf{t}_n^{(i)}), \mathbf{z}_n^{(j)} = f_{\theta}(\mathbf{t}_n^{(j)}), \text{ and } \mathbf{z}_{\setminus n}^{(j)} = f_{\theta}(\mathbf{t}_{\setminus n}^{(j)}).$ Next, we construct the positive relation representation as $(z_n^{(i)} \frown z_n^{(j)})$ whose relation label is $y_{2n-1}^{(i,j)} = 1$, and construct the negative relation representation as $(\mathbf{z}_n^{(i)} \frown \mathbf{z}_{\backslash n}^{(j)})$ whose relation label is $y_{2n}^{(i,j)} = 0$, here \frown denotes the concatenation operation. Then, the inter-sample relation reasoning head $r_u(\bullet)$ takes the generated relation representation as input to reason the final relation score denoted as $h_{2n-1}^{(i,j)} = r_{\mu}(\boldsymbol{z}_{n}^{(i)} \frown \boldsymbol{z}_{n}^{(j)})$ for positive relation and $h_{2n}^{(i,j)} = r_{\mu}(\boldsymbol{z}_{n}^{(i)} \frown \boldsymbol{z}_{n}^{(j)})$ for negative relation, respectively. Finally, the inter-sample relation reasoning task is formulated as a binary classification task and the model is trained with binary cross-entropy loss \mathcal{L}_{inter} as follows:

$$\mathcal{L}_{inter} = \sum_{m=1}^{2N} \sum_{i=1}^{K} \sum_{j=1}^{K} (y_m^{(i,j)} \cdot \log(h_m^{(i,j)}) + (1 - y_m^{(i,j)}) \cdot \log(1 - h_m^{(i,j)}))$$
 (1)

3.2 Intra-temporal Relation Reasoning

To capture the underlying temporal structure along time dimension, we try to explore the intra-temporal relation among time pieces and ask the model to predict the different types of temporal relation. Formally, given an example t_n , we randomly sample two L-length pieces $p_{n,u}$, $p_{n,v}$ of t_n starting at time step uand time step v respectively. Then, the temporal relation between $p_{n,u}$ and $p_{n,v}$ is assigned based their temporal distance $d_{u,v}=|u-v|$ as demonstrated in Algorithm 1. To sample C types of relation classes, for simplicity, we uniformly split C time intervals where each interval takes D = |T/C| time steps, and the relation class is determined based on the temporal distance by measuring how many intervals the two pieces cross over. Based on the sampled time pieces, we use the shared backbone encoder f_{θ} to extract representation vectors $z_{n,u} = f_{\theta}(p_{n,u})$ and $z_{n,v} = f_{\theta}(p_{n,v})$, and construct the temporal relation representation as $(\boldsymbol{z}_{n,u} \frown \boldsymbol{z}_{n,v})$. Next, the intra-temporal relation reasoning head $r_{\varphi}(\bullet)$ takes the generated relation representation as input to reason

Algorithm 1: Temporal Relation Sampling.

Require:

 t_n : A T-length time series. $p_{n,u}, p_{n,v}$: two L-length pieces of t_n . C: Number of relation classes.

Ensure: $y_n^{(u,v)} \in \{1,2,...,C\} \text{: The label of the tembersupen } \pmb{n}_{n,v} \text{ and } \pmb{p}_{n,v}.$

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1: d_{u,v} = |u-v|, D = \lfloor T/C \rfloor
2: if d_{u,v} \leq D then
            y_n^{(u,v)} = 1
  4: else if d_{u,v} \leq 2 * D then
             y_n^{(u,v)} = 2
  5:
 7: else if d_{u,v} \leq (C-1)*D then
8: y_n^{(u,v)} = C-1
9: else
10: y_n^{(u,v)} = C
  6:
11: end if 12: return y_n^{(u,v)}
```

the final relation score $h_n^{(u,v)}$. Finally, the intra-temporal relation reasoning task is formulated as a classification problem and the model is trained with cross-entropy loss \mathcal{L}_{intra} as follows:

$$\mathcal{L}_{intra} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \sum_{c=1}^{C} I(y_n^{(u,v)} = c) \cdot \log \frac{\exp(h_n^{(u,v)})}{\sum_{c=1}^{C} \exp(h_n^{(u,v)})}$$
(2)

where $I(\bullet)$ is the indicator function and $h_n^{(u,v)} = r_{\varphi}(z_{n,u} \frown z_{n,v})$.

By jointly optimizing the inter-sample relation reasoning objective (Eq. 1) and intra-temporal relation reasoning objective (Eq. 2), the final training loss is defined as follows:

$$\mathcal{L} = \lambda_{inter} \mathcal{L}_{inter} + \lambda_{intra} \mathcal{L}_{intra} \tag{3}$$

where λ_{inter} , λ_{intra} are the parameters that control the trade off between inter-sample reasoning and intra-temporal reasoning. In the experiment, we empirically set $\lambda_{inter} = \lambda_{intra} = 1$.

An overview for training SelfTime is given in Algorithm 2 in Appendix C.

4 EXPERIMENTS

4.1 EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

Datasets. To evaluate the effectiveness of the proposed method, in the experiment, we use three categories time series including four public datasets CricketX, UWaveGestureLibraryAll, DodgerLoopDay, and InsectWingbeatSound from the *UCR Time Series Archive*¹ (Dau et al., 2018), along with two real-world bearing datasets XJTU² and

Category	Dataset	Sample	Length	Class
Motion	CricketX	780	300	12
Monon	UWaveGestureLibraryAll	4478	945	8
Sensor	DodgerLoopDay	158	288	7
Selisoi	InsectWingbeatSound	2200	256	11
Device	MFPT	2574	1024	15
Device	XJTU	1920	1024	15

Table 1: Statistics of Datasets.

MFPT³ (Zhao et al., 2020). All six datasets consist of various numbers of instances, signal lengths, and number of classes. The statistics of the datasets are shown in Table 1.

Baselines. We compare SelfTime against several state-of-the-art methods of self-supervised representation learning:

- Supervised consists of a backbone encoder as the same with SelfTime and a linear classifier, which conducts fully supervised training over the whole networks.
- *Random Weights* is the same as *Supervised* in the architecture, but freezing the backbone's weights during the training and optimizing only the linear classifier.
- *Deep InfoMax* (Hjelm et al., 2018) is a framework of unsupervised representation learning by maximizing mutual information between the input and output of a feature encoder from the local and global perspectives.
- Forecast (Jawed et al., 2020) is a semi-supervised time series classification model that leverages features learned from the self-supervised forecasting task on unlabeled data. In the experiment, we throw away the supervised classification branch and use only the forecasting branch to learn the representations of time series.
- SimCLR (Chen et al., 2020) is a simple but effective framework for self-supervised representation learning by maximizing agreement between different views of augmentation from the same sample via a contrastive loss in the latent space.
- *Relation* (Patacchiola & Storkey, 2020) is relational reasoning based self-supervised representation learning model by reasoning the relations between views of the sample objects as positive, and reasoning the relations between different objects as negative.

Evaluation. As a common evaluation protocol, linear evaluation is used in the experiment by training a linear classifier on top of the representations learnt from different self-supervised models to evaluate the quality of the learnt embeddings. For data splitting, we set the training/validation/test split as 50%/25%/25%. During the pretraining stage, we randomly split the data 5 times with different seed, and train the backbone on them. During the linear evaluation, we train the linear classifier 10 times on each split data, and the best model on the validation dataset was used for testing. Finally, we report the classification accuracy as mean with the standard deviation across all trials.

Implementation. All experiments were performed using PyTorch (v1.4.0) (Paszke et al., 2019). A simple 4-layer 1D convolutional neural network with ReLU activation and batch normalization (Ioffe & Szegedy, 2015) were used as the backbone encoder f_{θ} for SelfTime and all other baselines, and use two separated 2-layer fully-connected networks with 256 hidden-dimensions as the inter-sample relation reasoning head r_{μ} and intra-temporal relation reasoning head r_{φ} respectively (see Table 4 in Appendix D for details). Adam optimizer (Kingma & Ba, 2015) was used with a learning rate of 0.01 for pretraining and 0.5 for linear evaluation. The batch size is set as 128 for all models. For fair comparison, we generate K=16 augmentations for each sample although more augmentation results in better performance (Chen et al., 2020; Patacchiola & Storkey, 2020).

https://www.cs.ucr.edu/~eamonn/time_series_data_2018/

²https://biaowang.tech/xjtu-sy-bearing-datasets/

³https://www.mfpt.org/fault-data-sets/

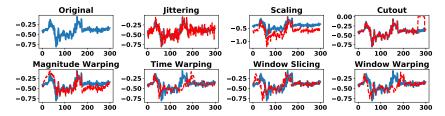


Figure 3: Data augmentations examples from CricketX dataset. The **blue** solid line is the original signal and the **red** dotted lines are the transformations.

Time Series Augmentation The data augmentations for time series are generally based on random transformation in two domains (Iwana & Uchida, 2020): magnitude domain and time domain. In the magnitude domain, transformations are performed on the values of time series where the values at each time step are modified but the time steps are constant. The common magnitude domain based augmentations include jittering, scaling, magnitude warping (Um et al., 2017), and cutout (DeVries & Taylor, 2017). In the time domain, transformations are performed along the time axis that the elements of the time series are displaced to different time steps than the original sequence. The common time domain based augmentations include time warping (Um et al., 2017), window slicing, and window warping (Le Guennec et al., 2016). More visualization details of different augmentations are shown in Figure 3.

4.2 ABLATION STUDIES

In this section, we firstly investigate the impact of different temporal relation sampling settings on intra-temporal relation reasoning. Then, we explore the effectiveness of inter-sample relation reasoning and intra-temporal relation reasoning under different time series augmentation strategies. Experimental results show that both two kinds of relation reasoning achieve remarkable performance, which helps the network to learn more discriminating features of time series.

Temporal Relation Sampling. To investigate the different settings of temporal relation sampling strategy on the impact of linear evaluation performance, in the experiment, we set different numbers of temporal relation class C and time piece length L. Specifically, to investigate the impact of class num-

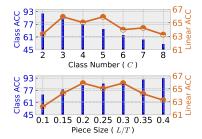


Figure 4: Impact of different temporal relation class numbers and piece sizes on CricketX dataset.

ber, we firstly set the piece length L = 0.2 * T as 20% of the original time series length, then, we vary C from 2 to 8 during the temporal relation sampling. As shown in Figure 4, where blue bar indicates class reasoning accuracy on training data (Class ACC) and brown line indicates the linear evaluation accuracy on test data (Linear ACC). With the increase of class number, the Linear ACC keeps increase until C=5, and we find that a small value C=2 and a big value C=8 will drop the evaluation performance. One possible reason behind this is that the increase of class number drops the Class ACC and makes the relation reasoning task too difficult for the network to learn useful representation. Similarly, when set the class number C=3 and vary the piece length L from 0.1*Tto 0.4 * T, we find that the Linear ACC grows up with the increase of piece size until L = 0.3 * T, and also, either small value or big value of L will drop the evaluation performance, which makes the relation reasoning task too simple (with high Class ACC) or too difficult (with low Class ACC) and prevents the network from learning useful semantic representation. Therefore, as consistent with the observations of self-supervised studies in other domains (Pascual et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2020), an appropriate pretext task designing is crucial for the self-supervised time series representation learning. In the experiment, to select a moderately difficult pretext task for different datasets, we set {class number (C), piece size (L/T)} as $\{3, 0.2\}$ for CricketX, $\{4, 0.2\}$ for UWaveGestureLibraryAll, {5, 0.35} for DodgerLoopDay, {6, 0.4} for InsectWingbeatSound, {4, 0.2} for MFPT, and $\{4, 0.2\}$ for XJTU.

Impact of Different Data Augmentations. To explore the effectiveness of inter-sample relation reasoning and intra-temporal relation reasoning under different time series augmentation strategies,

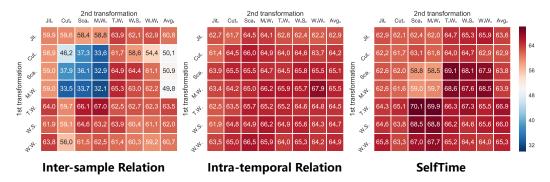


Figure 5: Linear evaluation on CricketX under individual or composition of data augmentations. For all columns but the last, diagonal entries correspond to single transformation, and off-diagonals correspond to composition of two transformations (applied sequentially). The last column reflects the average over the row.

Method	Dataset					
Withou	CricketX	UGLA	DLD	IWS	MFPT	XJTU
Supervised	62.44±1.53	87.83±0.32	37.05±1.61	66.23±0.45	80.29±0.8	95.9±0.42
Random Weights	36.9 ± 0.92	70.01 ± 1.68	32.95±2.57	52.85±1.36	46.68±2.35	52.58±4.67
Deep InfoMax (Hjelm et al., 2018)	49.16±3.03	73.88 ± 2.37	38.95±2.47	55.99±1.31	58.99±2.72	76.27±1.83
Forecast (Jawed et al., 2020)	44.59±1.09	75.7 ± 0.9	38.74 ± 3.05	54.89±1.99	52.6±1.65	62.28 ± 2.55
SimCLR (Chen et al., 2020)	59.0±3.19	74.9 ± 0.92	37.74 ± 3.8	56.19±0.98	71.81 ± 1.21	88.84 ± 0.63
Relation (Patacchiola & Storkey, 2020)	65.3 ± 0.43	80.87 ± 0.78	42.84±3.23	62.0±1.49	73.53 ± 0.65	95.14 ± 0.72
SelfTime (ours)	68.6±0.66	84.97 ± 0.83	49.1±2.93	66.87±0.71	78.48±0.94	96.73±0.76

Table 2: Linear evaluation of representations learnt by different models on different datasets.

in the experiment, we systematically investigate the different data augmentations on the impact of linear evaluation. Here, we consider several common augmentations including magnitude domain transformations such as jittering (Jit.), cutout (Cut.), scaling (Sca.), magnitude warping (M.W.), and time domain transformations such as time warping (T.W.), window slicing (W.S.), window warping (W.W.). Figure 5 shows linear evaluation results on CricketX dataset under individual and composition of transformations for inter-sample relation reasoning, intra-temporal relation reasoning, and their combination. Firstly, we observe that the composition of different data augmentations is crucial for learning useful representations. Secondly, we find that inter-sample relation reasoning is more sensitive to the manner of augmentation, which impacts slightly on intra-temporal relation reasoning. Moreover, by combining both the inter-sample and intra-temporal relation reasoning, the proposed SelfTime achieves better performance, which demonstrates the effectiveness of the proposed method. Lastly, we find that the composition from a magnitude-based transformation (e.g. scaling, magnitude warping) and a time-based transformation (e.g. time warping, window slicing) facilitates the model to learn more useful representations. Therefore, in this paper, we select the composition of magnitude warping and time warping augmentations for all experiments.

4.3 TIME SERIES CLASSIFICATION

In this section, we evaluate the proposed method by comparing with other state-of-the-arts on time series classification task. Firstly, we conduct linear evaluation to assess the quality of the learnt representations. Then, we evaluate the performance of all methods in transfer learning by training on the unlabeled source dataset and conduct linear evaluation on the labeled target dataset. Finally, we qualitatively evaluate and verify the semantic consistency of the learnt representations.

Linear Evaluation. Following the previous studies (Chen et al., 2020; Patacchiola & Storkey, 2020), we train the backbone encoder for 400 epochs on the unlabeled training set, and then train a linear classifier for 400 epochs on top of the backbone features (the backbone weights are frozen without back-propagation). As shown in Table 2, our proposed SelfTime consistently outperforms all baselines across all datasets. SelfTime improves the accuracy over the best baseline (Relation) by 5.05% (CricketX), 5.06% (UGLA), 14.61% (DLD), 7.85% (IWS), 6.73% (MFPT), and 1.67% (XJTU) respectively. Among those baselines, either global features (Deep InfoMax, SimCLR, Re-

Method	$Source {\rightarrow} Target$			
Wiethod	UGLA→CricketX	$IWS \rightarrow DLD$	XJTU→MFPT	
Supervised	31.31±2.76	22.9±2.55	63.15±2.08	
Random Weights	36.9 ± 0.92	32.95 ± 2.57	46.68±2.35	
Deep InfoMax (Hjelm et al., 2018)	45.92±2.3	37.42±1.99	56.75±0.77	
Forecast (Jawed et al., 2020)	32.67 ± 0.86	25.47 ± 2.93	53.08±2.75	
SimCLR (Chen et al., 2020)	45.48±3.46	36.21 ± 1.02	63.11±2.0	
Relation (Patacchiola & Storkey, 2020)	52.55±2.67	36.0±1.52	70.27±1.14	
SelfTime (ours)	55.04±2.58	45.0±1.48	75.06±1.84	

Table 3: Domain transfer evaluation by training with self-supervision on the unlabeled source data and linear evaluation on the labeled target data (e.g. source—target: UGLA—CricketX).

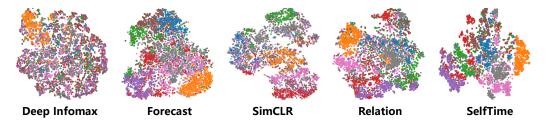


Figure 6: t-SNE visualization of the learnt feature. Different colors indicate different labels.

lation) or local features (Deep InfoMax, Forecast) are considered during representation learning, they neglect the essential temporal information of time series except Forecast. However, by simply forecasting future time pieces, Forecast cannot capture useful temporal structure effectively, which results in low-quality representations. Different from them, SelfTime not only extracts global and local features by taking the whole time series and its time pieces as inputs during feature extraction, but also captures the implicit temporal structure by reasoning intra-temporal relation among time pieces.

Domain Transfer. To evaluate the transferability of the learnt representations, we conduct experiments in transfer learning by training on the unlabeled source dataset and conduct linear evaluation on the labeled target dataset. As shown in Table 3, experimental results show that our SelfTime outperforms all the other baselines under different conditions, and achieves an improvement over the best baseline by 4.73% (Relation), 20.2% (Deep InfoMax), and 6.81% (Relation) respectively, which demonstrates the good transferability of the proposed method.

Visualization. To qualitatively evaluate the learnt representations, we use the trained backbone to extract the features and visualize them in 2D space using t-SNE (Maaten & Hinton, 2008) to verify the semantic consistency of the learnt representations. Figure 6 shows the visualization results of features from the baselines and the proposed SelfTime on UGLA dataset. It is obvious that by capturing global sample structure and local temporal structure, SelfTime learns more semantic representations and results in better clustering ability for time series data, where more semantic consistency is preserved in the learnt representations by our proposed method.

5 CONCLUSION

We presented a self-supervised approach for time series representation learning, which aims to extract useful feature from the unlabeled time series. By exploring the inter-sample relation and intratemporal relation, SelfTime is able to capture the underlying useful structure of time series. Our main finding is that designing appropriate pretext tasks from both the global-sample structure and local-temporal structure perspectives is crucial for time series representation learning, and this finding motivates further thinking of how to better leverage the underlying structure of time series. Our experiments on multiple real-world datasets show that our proposed method consistently outperforms the state-of-the-art self-supervised representation learning models, and establishes a new state-of-the-art in self-supervised time series classification. Future directions of research include exploring more effective intra-temporal structure (i.e. reasoning temporal relation under the time point level), and extending the SelfTime to multivariate time series by considering the causal relationship among variables.

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A DATA AUGMENTATION

In this section, we list the configuration details of augmentation used in the experiment:

Jittering: We add the gaussian noise to the original time series, where noise is sampled from a Gaussian distribution $\mathcal{N}(0,0.2)$.

Scaling: We multiply the original time series with a random scalar sampled from a Gaussian distribution $\mathcal{N}(0,0.4)$.

Cutout: We replace a random 10% part of the original time series with zeros and remain the other parts unchanged.

Magnitude Warping: We multiply a warping amount determined by a cubic spline line with 4 knots on the original time series at random locations and magnitudes. The peaks or valleys of the knots are set as $\mu = 1$ and $\sigma = 0.3$ (Um et al., 2017).

Time Warping: We set the warping path according to a smooth cubic spline-based curve with 8 knots, where the random magnitudes is $\mu = 1$ and a $\sigma = 0.2$ for each knot (Um et al., 2017).

Window Slicing: We randomly crop 80% of the original time series and interpolate the cropped time series back to the original length (Le Guennec et al., 2016).

Window Warping: We randomly select a time window that is 30% of the original time series length, and then warp the time dimension by 0.5 times or 2 times (Le Guennec et al., 2016).

B BASELINES

Deep InfoMax⁴ (Hjelm et al., 2018) We download the authors' official source code and set the parameter $\alpha=0.5, \beta=1.0, \gamma=0.1$ through grid search. We use Adam optimizer with learning rate 0.0001 according grid search and batch size 128 as same with SelfTime.

Forecast⁵ (Jawed et al., 2020) Different from the original multi-task model proposed by authors, we throw away the supervised classification branch and use only the proposed forecasting branch to learn the representation in a fully self-supervised manner. We use Adam optimizer with learning rate 0.01 according grid search and batch size 128 as same with SelfTime.

SimCLR⁶ (Chen et al., 2020) We download the authors' official source code by using the same backbone and two-layer projection head as same with SelfTime. We use Adam optimizer with learning rate 0.5 according grid search and batch size 128 as same with SelfTime.

Relation⁷ (Patacchiola & Storkey, 2020) We download the authors' official source code by using the same backbone and relation module as same with SelfTime. For augmentation, we set K=16, and use Adam optimizer with learning rate 0.5 according grid search and batch size 128 as same with SelfTime.

C PSEUDO-CODE OF SELFTIME

The overview of training process for SelfTime is summarized in Algorithm 2.

D ARCHITECTURE DIAGRAM

SelfTime consists of a backbone encoder, a inter-sample relation reasoning head, and a intratemporal relation reasoning head. The detail architectural diagrams of SelfTime are shown in Table 4.

⁴https://github.com/rdevon/DIM

⁵https://github.com/super-shayan/semi-super-ts-clf

⁶https://github.com/google-research/simclr

⁷https://github.com/mpatacchiola/self-supervised-relational-reasoning

Algorithm 2: SelfTime

```
Require:
```

```
Time series set \mathcal{T} = \{ \boldsymbol{t}_n \}_{n=1}^N.
```

 f_{θ} : Encoder backbone.

 r_{μ} : Inter-sample relation reasoning head.

 r_{φ} : Intra-temporal relation reasoning head.

Ensure:

 f_{θ} : An updated encoder backbone.

- 1: for $t_n \in \mathcal{T}$ do
- Generate two augmentation sets $\mathcal{A}(t_n)$ and $\mathcal{A}(t_{\setminus n})$
- Sample positive relation pair $(t_n^{(i)}, t_n^{(j)})$ and negative 3: relation pair $(t_n^{(i)}, t_{\setminus n}^{(j)})$ from $\mathcal{A}(t_n)$ and $\mathcal{A}(t_{\setminus n})$
- $\begin{aligned} \boldsymbol{z}_n^{(i)} &= f_{\theta}(\boldsymbol{t}_n^{(i)}) \\ \boldsymbol{z}_n^{(j)} &= f_{\theta}(\boldsymbol{t}_n^{(j)}) \\ \boldsymbol{z}_{\backslash n}^{(j)} &= f_{\theta}(\boldsymbol{t}_{\backslash n}^{(j)}) \end{aligned}$ 5: > Sample representation
- 6: 7: ▶ Reasoning score of positive relation
- $h_{2n-1}^{(i,j)} = r_{\mu}(\boldsymbol{z}_{n}^{(i)} \frown \boldsymbol{z}_{n}^{(j)}), y_{2n-1}^{(i,j)} = 1$ $h_{2n}^{(i,j)} = r_{\mu}(\boldsymbol{z}_{n}^{(i)} \frown \boldsymbol{z}_{\backslash n}^{(j)}), y_{2n}^{(i,j)} = 0$ 8: ▶ Reasoning score of negative relation
- Sample time piece relation pair $(p_{n,u}, p_{n,v})$ 9: by Algorithm 1
- 10: $\boldsymbol{z}_{n,u} = f_{\theta}(\boldsymbol{p}_{n,u})$
- 11:
- $\begin{aligned} & \boldsymbol{z}_{n,v} = f_{\theta}(\boldsymbol{p}_{n,v}) \\ & h_n^{(u,v)} = r_{\varphi}(\boldsymbol{z}_{n,u} \frown \boldsymbol{z}_{n,v}), y_n^{(u,v)} = c \end{aligned}$ 12: ▶ Reasoning score of intra-temporal relation
- 13: **end for** 13: **end for**14: $\mathcal{L}_{inter} = \sum_{m=1}^{2N} \sum_{i=1}^{K} \sum_{j=1}^{K} (y_m^{(i,j)} \cdot \log(h_m^{(i,j)}))$
- 14: $\mathcal{L}_{inter} = \sum_{m=1}^{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} (y_m \cdot \log(h_n) + (1 y_m^{(i,j)}) \cdot \log(1 h_m^{(i,j)}))$ 15: $\mathcal{L}_{intra} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \sum_{i=c}^{C} I(y_n^{(u,v)} = c) \cdot \log \frac{\exp(h_n^{(u,v)})}{\sum_{c=1}^{C} \exp(h_n^{(u,v)})}$ 16: Update f_{θ}, r_{μ} , and r_{φ} by minimizing $\mathcal{L} = \lambda_{inter} \mathcal{L}_{inter} + \lambda_{intra} \mathcal{L}_{intra}$ 17: **return** encoder backbone f_{θ} throw away r

▶ Intra-temporal relation reasoning loss

- 17: **return** encoder backbone f_{θ} , throw away r_{μ} , and r_{φ}

	Layer Description	Output Tensor Dim.			
#0	Input time series (or time piece)	$1 \times T \text{ (or } 1 \times L)$			
	Backbone Encoder				
#1	Conv1D(1, 8, 4, 2, 1)+BatchNorm+ReLU	$8 \times T/2$ (or $8 \times L/2$)			
#2	Conv1D(8, 16, 4, 2, 1)+BatchNorm+ReLU	$16 \times T/4$ (or $16 \times L/4$)			
#3	Conv1D(16, 32, 4, 2, 1)+BatchNorm+ReLU	$32 \times T/8 \text{ (or } 32 \times L/8)$			
#4	Conv1D(32, 64, 4, 2, 1)+BatchNorm+ReLU	64			
	+AvgPool1D+Flatten+Normalize	04			
Inter-Sample Relation Reasoning Head					
#1	Linear+BatchNorm+LeakyReLU	256			
#2	Linear+Sigmoid	1			
Intra-Temporal Relation Reasoning Head					
#1	Linear+BatchNorm+LeakyReLU	256			
#2	Linear+Softmax	C			
#4	Linear+Solullax	C			

Table 4: Implementation detail of SelfTime. Here, we denote 1D convolutional layer as Conv1D(in_channels, out_channels, kernel_size, stride, padding).