

Perturbation Guiding Contrastive Representation Learning for Time Series Anomaly Detection

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Abstract

Time series anomaly detection is a critical task with applications in various domains. Due to annotation challenges, self-supervised methods have become the mainstream approach for time series anomaly detection in recent years. However, current contrastive methods categorize data perturbations into binary classes, normal or anomaly, which lack clarity on the specific impact of different perturbation methods. Inspired by the hypothesis that “the higher the probability of misclassifying perturbation types, the higher the probability of anomalies”, we propose PCRTA, our approach firstly devises a perturbation classifier to learn the pseudo-labels of data perturbations. Furthermore, for addressing “class collapse issue” in contrastive learning, we propose a perturbation guiding positive and negative samples selection strategy by introducing learnable perturbation classification networks. Extensive experiments on six realworld datasets demonstrate the significant superiority of our model over thirteen state-of-the-art competitors, and obtains average 5.14%, 8.24% improvement in F1 score and AUC-PR, respectively.

1 Introduction

Time series anomaly detection holds substantial research significance in real-world scenarios. It finds extensive application across domains like industrial processes, healthcare systems, and aerospace operations [Baireddy *et al.*, 2021], thereby assuming a pivotal role in upholding the integrity and functionality of Cyber-Physical Systems. The continued progress and refinement of this technology are imperative to ensure the dependability, reliability, and security of complex interconnected systems. Consider a spacecraft with multiple sensors tracking its components through multivariate time series data. Ensuring the proper operation of the spacecraft is vital, thereby making anomaly detection a crucial aspect. This is particularly relevant in the multivariate time series domain, where detecting anomalies and diagnosing their root

causes has become a key topic in data science [Aggarwal and Aggarwal, 2017; Schmidl *et al.*, 2022] in the recent years.

Time series data in real-world applications have characteristics such as high dimensionality, being unstructured and complex with unique properties, which pose challenges to data modeling [Yang and Wu, 2006]. While traditional statistically based anomaly detection approaches [Chandola *et al.*, 2009; Siffer *et al.*, 2017] have been demonstrated to be effective. However, they do not give good results on complicated multivariate time series due to their heavy reliance on a prior knowledge. Therefore, machine learning-based anomaly detection methods [Pang *et al.*, 2021] that are more suitable for complex data have received much attention. The traditional machine learning methods contain two categories, supervised methods [Liu *et al.*, 2015] and unsupervised methods [Malhotra *et al.*, 2016; Li *et al.*, 2019]. Since labeling time series data in real-world applications is much more difficult than labeling images and language if there are no human recognizable patterns [Eldele *et al.*, 2021], the anomaly detection problem is generally regarded as an unsupervised learning problem.

In recent years, there have been significant advancements in applying deep learning methods for time series anomaly detection. For instance, Autoencoder (AE) [Aggarwal and Aggarwal, 2017] method utilizes reconstruction error as an anomaly score. More recently, many advanced structures have been designed to enhance model ability. Such as using variational Autoencoders [Li *et al.*, 2021; Su *et al.*, 2019], Generative Adversarial Networks [Li *et al.*, 2019], Graph Neural Networks [Deng and Hooi, 2021], and Transformer [Tuli *et al.*, 2022; Ahmed *et al.*, 2023]. Due to the challenges posed by time series data standards, self-supervised methods have been gaining ground in the detection of anomalies in time series over the last few years. One prominent example of this trend is contrastive learning [Xu *et al.*, 2024; Eldele *et al.*, 2021; Sana Tonekaboni and Goldenberg, 2021]. This is due to the prevalence of mainstream unsupervised time series anomaly detection methods that primarily rely on generative models for one-class learning with input data [Audibert *et al.*, 2020]. For time series data augmentation, the common practice is to introduce perturbations to the original sequences. Given the unique sequential and periodic traits of time series, various augmentation techniques are explored. However, existing methods often prioritize distinguishing between normal and abnormal instances [Xu *et*

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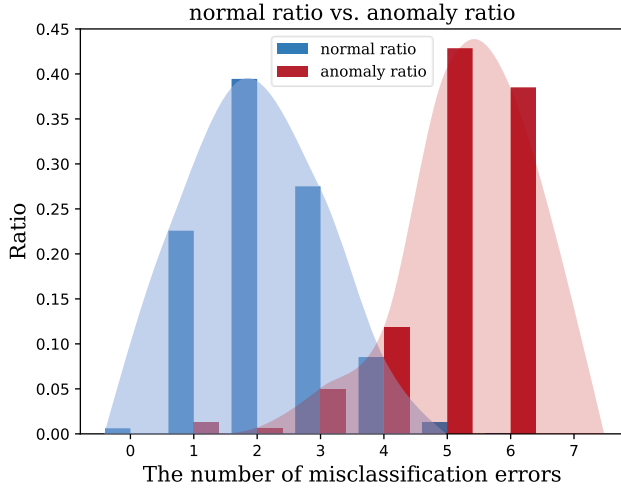


Figure 1: Statistical results of the ratio of normal to abnormal values as the number of classifier misclassifications increases.

et al., 2024], which leads to a coarse classification that may result in the problem that the model is overly sensitive to the choice of perturbation, requires a lot of experimentation to try out the appropriate perturbation.

Inspired by approaches in image anomaly detection [Golan and El-Yaniv, 2018], we formulate a hypothesis that *the higher the probability of misclassifying perturbation types, the higher the probability of anomalies*. In other words, by incorporating an augmentation type recognizer, samples with lower recognition rates are more likely to be anomalies. We proved the correctness of this assumption by designing a classifier to recognize anomalous augmented classes. As shown in Figure 1, we observed that as the number of anomaly detection errors by the classifier increases, the proportion of normal samples decreases while the proportion of anomalous samples increases. In other words, the classifier finds it more difficult to classify perturbed anomalies. On the other hand, existing contrastive learning methods adjust distances to positive and negative samples but neglect class information when selecting negative samples. This can cause samples from the same class to drift apart, causing class collapse [Chuang *et al.*, 2020] and poor representations. To counter this, we integrate class labels into our contrastive learning loss, yielding enhanced model representations and improved performance.

In this paper, we propose a novel Perturbation Guiding Contrastive Representation Learning for Time Series Anomaly Detection method. The approach addresses the issue of class information loss in traditional time series contrastive learning. By introducing the concept of augmentation classification, originally applied in image contrastive learning, to time series data, we have validated its feasibility in aiding anomaly detection. Moreover, we have designed a novel loss function to prevent class collapse, a common problem in contrastive learning. This combination of innovations has resulted in a significant improvement in the performance of anomaly detection for time series data. In a word, our contributions of this paper can be summarized as follow:

- We propose a novel Perturbation Guiding Contrastive Representation Learning for Time Series Anomaly Detection (PCRTA) model. Our model leverages various types of perturbations to train a classification network for generating pseudo-labels. These pseudo-labels are utilized in the selection of positive and negative samples in the contrastive learning network. This approach enhances the discriminative nature of the learned representations, resulting in more robust performance.
- To address the sensitivity and low robustness of contrastive learning to specific perturbation functions, we introduce a variety of data perturbation techniques. Moreover, we integrate a classifier to learn perturbation-based classification and generate pseudo-labels. This augmentation of the learning process enhances the model’s ability to adapt to different types of anomalies, improving its overall robustness.
- To tackle the class collapse issue, we leverage the pseudo-labels generated by the classifier. By incorporating key insights from anomaly detection, we refine the selection strategy in contrastive learning and devise a novel contrastive loss function. The perturbation guiding contrastive learning results in the model producing representations that are more distinct and discriminative, enhancing its ability to differentiate between different classes.

2 Related Work

In the section, we briefly review the commonly used methods for anomaly detection on time series data and the application of contrastive learning in time series.

2.1 Anomaly Detection

Anomaly detection is a critical task in various domains to identify rare and abnormal instances in the data. Traditional anomaly detection methods include density-based approaches such as Local Outliers Factor (LOF) [Breunig *et al.*, 2000], distance-based approaches like K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN) [Hautamaki *et al.*, 2004], and linear model-based methods like Principal Component Analysis (PCA) [Pachta and Park, 2007]. A survey [Gupta *et al.*, 2013] summarizes traditional methods for time series anomaly detection. More recently, deep learning has become the mainstream approach for time series anomaly detection. Deep learning models utilize single-class generative models to encode input data, make predictions for future data, and perform contrastive or feature extraction-based processing to identify anomalies. The core idea of these methods lies in implicitly modeling normal patterns and behaviors through the principles of restoration or prediction. By designing various advanced network architectures and novel reconstruction/prediction learning objectives, researchers have successfully improved the performance of time series anomaly detection models. Many studies have focused on capturing more comprehensive dependencies by utilizing variational Autoencoders [Li *et al.*, 2021; Su *et al.*, 2019], graph neural networks [Deng and Hooi, 2021], and Transformer [Tuli *et al.*, 2022; Jiehui Xu and Long, 2022]. However, our goal is to leverage the idea of

contrastive learning to process time series features and extract embeddings that can better capture temporal patterns and distinguish anomalies.

2.2 Contrastive Learning

In recent years, contrastive learning has been extensively used in both supervised and unsupervised representation learning. The core idea of contrastive learning is to minimize the contrastive loss [Hadsell *et al.*, 2006], which involves bringing positive sample pairs closer and pushing negative sample pairs further apart, in order to obtain the discriminative space. In supervised learning, contrastive learning is commonly used for deep metric learning [Schroff *et al.*, 2015]. Recently, self-supervised contrastive learning has achieved state-of-the-art performance on downstream visual recognition tasks. Classic pretext tasks such as data augmentations used in SimCLR [Chen *et al.*, 2020] and MoCo [He *et al.*, 2020]. In recent years, there has been a growing interest in applying contrastive learning to time series data [Oord *et al.*, 2018; Eldele *et al.*, 2021; Sana Tonekaboni and Goldenberg, 2021]. Time series contrastive learning trains a feature extractor using multinomial logistic regression to distinguish between different segments in time series data [Hyvarinen and Morioka, 2016]. However one challenge in contrastive learning is the selection of positive and negative samples, which can lead to cases where samples from the same class are mistakenly treated as negative samples, resulting in class collapse and ineffective feature representations. The proposed method introduces a new loss function that incorporates class information, mitigating class collapse and improving the efficiency of the model.

3 Proposed Framework

In this section, we will elaborate the proposed PCRTA model, the network architecture of which is presented in Figure 2.

3.1 Notations and Problem Definition

In this paper, our time series dataset observed from D sensors during time N as $X = \langle x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N \rangle, x_t \in \mathbb{R}^D$. When $D > 1$, the dataset X is referred to as a multivariate time series, and the dataset is simplified to a univariate time series if $D = 1$. Our unsupervised time series anomaly detection f can extract informative embeddings from samples without relying on any pre-existing label information and compute anomaly scores using LOF method [Breunig *et al.*, 2000], i.e., $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Higher anomaly scores indicate a higher likelihood of being anomalies.

For modeling time series, we adopt a common practice found in most deep time series anomaly detection methods [Campos *et al.*, 2021; Su *et al.*, 2019; Tuli *et al.*, 2022], which involves considering the local contextual window for each observation to model their temporal dependencies. Specifically, we employ a sliding window of length l and stride r to transform the training set into a collection of subsequences denoted as $S = \{s_1, s_{1+r}, \dots\}$, where $s_t = \langle x_t, x_{t+1}, \dots, x_{t+l-1} \rangle$. This approach captures the temporal patterns within each subsequence and forms the foundation for our time series modeling. During the inference phase,

the test dataset is also divided into subsequences using the same window length l , with a sliding step of 1. The anomaly detection model assesses the anomaly level for each subsequence and assigns an anomaly score to the last timestamp of each subsequence. To obtain the final list of anomaly scores, we pad the initial $l - 1$ timestamps with zeros. This process ensures that each subsequence is evaluated and assigned an anomaly score, facilitating the identification of anomalies in the time series data.

3.2 Overall Framework

The overall framework PCRTA is shown in Figure 2. We employ a temporal modeling network ϕ to capture temporal correlations and interactions among intrinsic variables. After comparing various feature extraction methods [Zeng *et al.*, 2023], we opt for Temporal Convolutional Networks (TCN) [Bai *et al.*, 2018] as the temporal modeling module for PCRTA. In contrast to conventional RNN-based architectures, TCN utilizes distinctive convolutional kernels that can more swiftly and efficiently extract time-correlated information, resulting in a more effective representation of temporal dependencies within the data, whole representation process can be denoted as $\phi(\cdot)$. We devised a multi-classification network to learn the sample augmentation strategies. Given that the labels for these augmentation strategies are known, our classification network achieves favorable outcomes guided by the cross-entropy loss $\mathcal{L}_{mul}$. Consequently, we derive pseudo-labels to guide the contrastive learning network, thereby enhancing the quality of learned representations. Subsequently, we formulated a contrastive learning network. Leveraging the pseudo-labels derived from the multi-classification network, we selected positive and negative samples. Guided by our newly designed contrastive learning loss $\mathcal{L}_{con}$, we aimed to bring the features extracted from TCN closer for positive samples and farther for negative samples. This process yielded representations endowed with enhanced discriminative capability. The final computation of the loss function is as follows:

$$\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_{mul} + \alpha \mathcal{L}_{con}, \quad (1)$$

where α is a parameter used to adjust the weights of the contrastive learning network.

3.3 Perturbation Classification Network

PCRTA aims to leverage various perturbation techniques using the concept of learning pseudo-labels to enhance its robustness. Simultaneously, we draw inspiration from viewpoints in image anomaly detection [Golan and El-Yaniv, 2018]: augmentations applied to anomaly data should make it harder for a multi-classifier to discern the augmented category. To achieve this, we define data perturbation δ as specific operations that modify the input time series subsequence s based on the definitions and characteristics of the three fundamental types of time series anomalies (i.e., point anomalies, contextual anomalies, and collective anomalies). This results in a new subsequence s' , which incorporates the genuine anomalous behaviors of the time series and s and s' maintain the same shape.

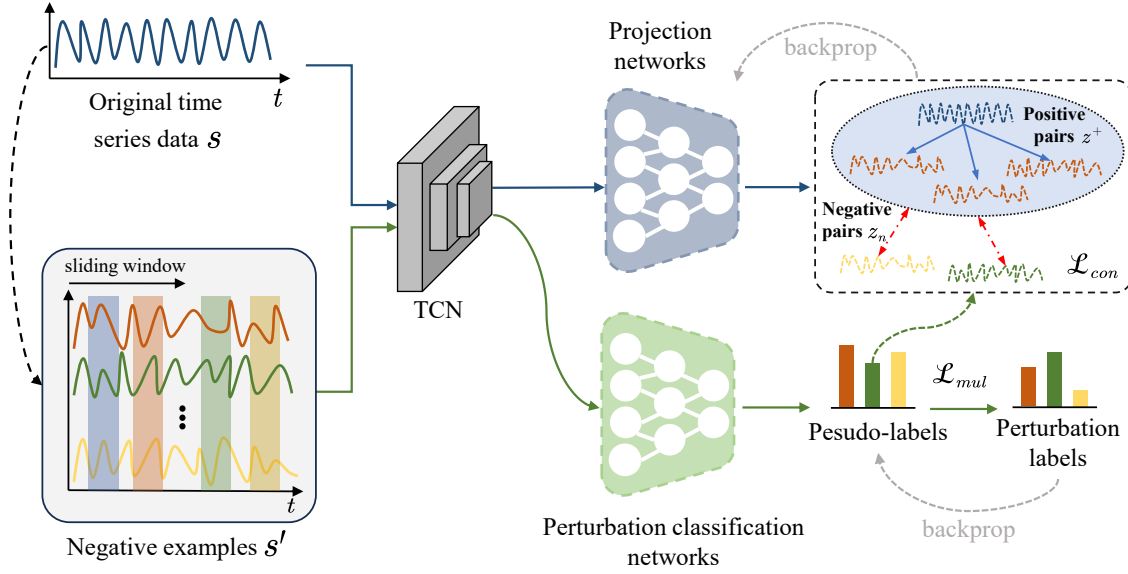


Figure 2: The framework of PCRTA. The solid and dotted arrows respectively denote the training and testing process in our model, and the proposed perturbation guiding contrastive learning module is boxed in blue dashed line.

- $\delta_{(I,\gamma)}(s)$: Data augmentation is applied to the last observation of input subsequence s by randomly replacing selected data values with a global extremum value γ , generating a new subsequence with point anomalies.
- $\delta_{(II,\gamma)}(s)$: We augment data by replacing dimensions in the final observation of input subsequence s with an offset γ based on the average of the preceding k values, generating contextual anomalies with a default k of 10.
- $\delta_{(III,\gamma)}(s)$: We augment data by randomly selecting dimensions within a segment of the input subsequence s and replacing the chosen values with the outlier value γ . This creates collective anomalies.

In practice, each of the aforementioned operations employs two γ values to simulate two extreme anomalies. Due to the preprocessing step where time series data is normalized to the range $[0, 1]$, we use $\gamma = +2, -2$ in δ_I , $\gamma = +0.5, -0.5$ in δ_{II} , $\gamma = 1.0$ in δ_{III} . Pool Ω is defined which contains six data augmentations functions and function without augmentation δ_0 , i.e.,

$$\Omega(s) = \{\delta_0(s), \delta_{(I,+2)}(s), \delta_{(I,-2)}(s), \delta_{(II,+0.5)}(s), \delta_{(II,-0.5)}(s), \delta_{(III,0)}(s), \delta_{(III,1)}(s)\}. \quad (2)$$

These six perturbation functions effectively emulate genuine anomalies present in time series data. After augmentation, the augmented data is assigned labels ranging from the first class to the sixth class, representing the augmentation types, while the original non-augmented data is assigned the label of class 0. To make multi-classification network learn pseudo-labels, we utilize the cross-entropy loss function to train the classification network:

$$\mathcal{L}_{mul} = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^C y_{i,j} \log(p_{i,j}), \quad (3)$$

where N is the number of augmentations $N_{aug} + 1$ since the non-augmented original data corresponds to the first class.

After learning pseudo-labels through the perturbation classification network, we feed this class information Π into the contrastive learning network. It serves as the basis for selecting positive and negative samples within the contrastive learning framework.

3.4 Perturbation Guiding Contrastive Network

The high dimensionality of the data significantly affects its distribution, resulting in a hyper-ellipsoidal shape rather than a hyper-spherical one. Proposition 1 provides evidence of this. Choosing positive and negative samples under non-normal data distribution is inaccurate. Therefore, we designed a projection network to project high-dimensional data into a low-dimensional space. We perform positive and negative sample selection on the compacted features.

Proposition 1. Let U be a χ^2 statistic with D dimension, for any positive σ , the following inequality holds:

$$\mathbb{P}[U \leq D - 2\sqrt{\sigma * D}] \leq \exp(-\sigma). \quad (4)$$

The proof of Proposition 1 can be found in the appendix. According to Proposition 1, the probability of having a compact distribution decreases as the dimensionality of the vector increases. Since the embeddings produced by TCN have high dimensions, to address this issue, we developed a projection network Ψ to reduce the embedding dimensions and improve the representation capability.

$$Z = \{z_1, z_2, \dots\} = \Psi(\phi(\Omega(S))). \quad (5)$$

Subsequently, we selected positive and negative samples based on the class information Π provided by the classification network. We computed the normalized dot product between pairs of vectors z_i and z_j within the same class π_c .

Then, we select the top k normalized dot products in Eq. 7, g^k denotes the indices of top- k values among its input. We use Z_i^+ to denote the positive sample set of z_i .

$$d_{ji} = \frac{z_i^T z_j}{\|z_i\| \cdot \|z_j\|} \quad z_i, z_j \in \pi_c, \quad (6)$$

$$Z_i^+ = Z \{j \in g^k(d_{ji})\}. \quad (7)$$

Lastly, for vector $z_i \in \pi_c$, all vectors from different classes $z_n \notin \pi_c$ are treated as negative samples. This leads to the construction of the following contrastive learning loss function:

$$\mathcal{L}_{con} = -\frac{1}{C} \sum_{c=1}^C \sum_{z_i, z_n} \log \frac{\sum_{z_i^+ \in Z^+} e^{\frac{z_i^+ T z_i}{\tau}}}{\sum_{z_i^+ \in Z^+} e^{\frac{z_i^+ T z_i}{\tau}} + \sum_{z_n} e^{\frac{z_i^+ T z_n}{\tau}}}, \quad (8)$$

where C is the total number of classes, $\exp(z_a^T z_b / \tau)$ is the function which measures the similarity of z_a and z_b , and the temperature parameter τ controls the distribution of similarity scores.

In the perturbation guiding contrastive learning network, we employ pseudo-labels obtained from the classification network rather than using the true labels that were originally known. This approach is driven by our core concept that augmenting anomalies is more prone to misclassification compared to normal data. Consequently, when the accuracy of the classifier reaches a higher level, selecting positive samples within the same class and negative samples from different classes becomes more accurate. Due to the tendency for anomalous samples to be assigned to different classes as the model converges, the perturbation guiding contrastive learning network drives a greater separation between normal and anomaly instances. This leads to the extraction of more discriminative representations that effectively capture the distinctions between normal and anomalous patterns.

4 Experimental Results

In this section, we will first present the experimental setup. Subsequently, we will proceed with a series of experiments to assess the effectiveness of the model, its generalization capabilities, robustness, and ablation studies.

4.1 Preliminary

Datasets and Compared Methods. Six real datasets showed in Table 1 for time series anomaly detection are adopted, including WaQ, DSADS, Epilepsy, ASD, SMD¹, and SWaT [Zhang *et al.*, 2022; Xu *et al.*, 2024]. D means the dimension, #anmo(ratio) is the size of the anomaly and ratio in the testing set, and #seqs is the number of time series sequences in each dataset. We compare PCRTA to the 13 traditional and deep learning anomaly detection methods, including OCSVM [Manevitz and Yousef, 2001], GOAD [Bergman and Hoshen, 2020], ECOD [Li *et al.*, 2022], LSTM-ED [Mal-

¹As analysed in the research [Wu and Keogh, 2021], the data quality of some entities in SMD may be flawed. Therefore, we removed these defective entities and retained three entities (machine 3-1, machine 3-9 and machine 3-11)

Datasets	Training size	Testing size	D	#anom(ratio)	#seqs
WaQ	138,521	115,086	11	2,329(0.9%)	1
DSADS	85,500	57,000	47	9000(6.3%)	8
Epilepsy	33,784	22,866	5	5,768(10.2%)	1
ASD	8,528	4,320	19	199(1.5%)	12
SMD	28,703	28,703	38	270(0.5%)	3
SWaT	475,200	449,919	51	54,584(5.9%)	1

Table 1: Datasets description.

hotra *et al.*, 2016], Tcn-ED [Garg *et al.*, 2021], DSVDD [Ruff *et al.*, 2018], MSCRED [Zhang *et al.*, 2019], Omni [Su *et al.*, 2019], USAD [Audibert *et al.*, 2020], GDN [Deng and Hooi, 2021], NeuTraL [Qiu *et al.*, 2021], TranAD [Tuli *et al.*, 2022], and COUTA [Xu *et al.*, 2024]. As a result, the aforementioned list of competitors effectively represents the state-of-the-art performance in the field of time series anomaly detection research.

Evaluation Metrics. Following prior work [Audibert *et al.*, 2020; Campos *et al.*, 2021; Su *et al.*, 2019; Tuli *et al.*, 2022; Xu *et al.*, 2024], we use the best F1-Score and the Area Under the Precision-Recall Curve (AUC-PR). $F1 = 2 * \frac{Prec * Rec}{Prec + Rec}$, where $Prec = \frac{TP}{TP + FP}$ and $Rec = \frac{TP}{TP + FN}$, and TP, TN, FP, FN are denote the numbers of true positives, true negatives, false positives, and false negatives. These metrics are suitable for imbalanced data, where the optimal F1 score represents the best-case scenario, and AUC-PR represents the average case in less ideal conditions. We enumerate all possible thresholds (i.e., scores for each timestamp) and compute corresponding precision and recall scores. The optimal F1 can then be obtained, and AUC-PR is calculated using the average precision score. The range of these performance evaluation metrics is from 0 to 1, with higher values indicating better performance.

Experimental Setup. The WaQ, Epilepsy, DSADS, ASD, SMD, and SWaT datasets have been widely used as benchmark datasets in previous literature [Lai *et al.*, 2021; Xu *et al.*, 2024; Campos *et al.*, 2021; Deng and Hooi, 2021; Li *et al.*, 2021; Su *et al.*, 2019; Tuli *et al.*, 2022]. We use a stride of 1 for ASD and SMD, and 100 and 5 for the larger datasets SWaT and WaQ, respectively. For Epilepsy and DSADS, their original data formats are collections of partitioned time series, hence no sliding window is needed. In PCRTA, the TCN ϕ employs a kernel size of 2 and a single hidden layer with the default setting of 16 neural units. We train models for up to 100 epochs, and the weight factor α of the contrastive network is set to 0.2 by default. We choose $k = 5$ as the parameter for selecting positive samples using nearest neighbors. All the experiments are executed at a workstation with the Intel(R) Xeon(R) Gold 6248R 3.00GHz CPU and NVIDIA TITAN Xp GPU with 10GB RAM, running on the Ubuntu 20.04 operating system.

4.2 Anomaly Detection

We apply the LOF algorithm to compute anomaly scores for the representations obtained from the well-trained perturbation guiding contrastive learning network. For each sample

Method	WaQ		DSADS		Epilepsy	
	F1	AUC-PR	F1	AUC-PR	F1	AUC-PR
OCSVM	0.732±0.000	0.666±0.000	0.807±0.000	0.753±0.000	0.781±0.000	0.708±0.000
GOAD	0.739±0.052	0.685±0.034	0.723±0.014	0.676±0.015	0.554±0.147	0.530±0.128
ECOD	0.676±0.000	0.716±0.000	0.923±0.000	0.941±0.000	0.785±0.000	0.763±0.000
LSTM-ED	0.759±0.006	0.714±0.018	0.865±0.011	0.902±0.005	0.802±0.012	0.784±0.012
Tcn-ED	0.707±0.082	0.658±0.090	0.850±0.021	0.868±0.023	0.758±0.011	0.763±0.008
DSVDD	0.519±0.038	0.410±0.043	0.751±0.057	0.690±0.078	0.686±0.040	0.555±0.069
MSCRED	0.717±0.007	0.644±0.016	0.657±0.029	0.659±0.062	0.640±0.017	0.604±0.023
Omni	0.738±0.018	0.714±0.023	0.867±0.018	0.914±0.015	0.811±0.027	0.780±0.054
USAD	0.666±0.049	0.611±0.044	0.733±0.041	0.713±0.065	0.663±0.009	0.541±0.038
GDN	0.640±0.052	0.659±0.043	0.795±0.022	0.728±0.024	0.783±0.010	0.789±0.010
NeuTraL	0.681±0.085	0.616±0.111	0.534±0.035	0.490±0.045	0.739±0.075	0.729±0.111
TranAD	0.755±0.010	0.729±0.017	0.730±0.114	0.690±0.158	0.776±0.008	0.734±0.012
COUTA	0.781±0.013	0.714±0.006	0.926±0.029	0.942±0.020	0.830±0.053	0.823±0.086
PCRTA	0.784±0.007	0.794±0.002	0.943±0.017	0.960±0.019	0.934±0.015	0.964±0.006

Method	ASD		SMD		SWaT	
	F1	AUC-PR	F1	AUC-PR	F1	AUC-PR
OCSVM	0.625±0.000	0.540±0.000	0.761±0.000	0.664±0.000	0.839±0.000	0.804±0.000
GOAD	0.827±0.025	0.834±0.023	0.975±0.019	0.981±0.013	0.831±0.003	0.799±0.005
ECOD	0.589±0.000	0.527±0.000	0.755±0.000	0.724±0.000	0.849±0.000	0.899±0.000
LSTM-ED	0.807±0.013	0.767±0.016	0.960±0.000	0.955±0.009	0.847±0.007	0.848±0.005
Tcn-ED	0.853±0.015	0.862±0.019	0.848±0.050	0.881±0.036	0.843±0.011	0.846±0.003
DSVDD	0.691±0.014	0.671±0.017	0.682±0.012	0.621±0.033	0.829±0.002	0.811±0.003
MSCRED	0.766±0.036	0.756±0.050	0.628±0.031	0.536±0.049	OOM	OOM
Omni	0.810±0.044	0.789±0.063	0.954±0.006	0.928±0.011	0.845±0.012	0.841±0.008
USAD	0.595±0.033	0.510±0.035	0.744±0.006	0.658±0.006	0.835±0.000	0.808±0.000
GDN	0.801±0.034	0.779±0.042	0.939±0.015	0.959±0.016	0.846±0.025	0.885±0.036
NeuTraL	0.627±0.047	0.592±0.045	0.770±0.050	0.746±0.067	0.862±0.023	0.850±0.026
TranAD	0.899±0.020	0.915±0.018	0.761±0.001	0.662±0.003	0.831±0.009	0.810±0.007
COUTA	0.942±0.031	0.955±0.030	0.980±0.018	0.984±0.015	0.886±0.022	0.900±0.017
PCRTA	0.927±0.080	0.933±0.094	0.987±0.002	0.988±0.001	0.978±0.004	0.996±0.001

Table 2: F_1 score $\pm$ standard deviation and AUC-PR $\pm$ standard deviation of PCRTA and its competitive methods on six real-world datasets. MSCRED runs out of memory(OOM) on SWaT.

s_i , we calculate the average score from the 7 representations generated by the 6 augmentation strategies and the original representation.

$$Scores(s_i) = \frac{1}{C} \sum LOF(z_{aug}), \quad (9)$$

where z_{aug} is embeddings of the augmentations $\Omega(s_i)$, this culminates in the ultimate anomaly score for the sample, offering a comprehensive evaluation of its anomalousness.

As shown in Table 2, PCRTA consistently outperforms or matches other methods in time series anomaly detection. PCRTA achieves top results on five datasets and second-best on one, with remarkable gains on the Epilepsy dataset: a 13% increase in F_1 score and a 17% rise in AUC-PR. TranAD, GDN, and COUTA demonstrate strong detection. TranAD utilizes a Transformer and diverse training, GDN employs graph neural networks, and COUTA introduces novel goals and data perturbation. However, TranAD’s complexity may lead to overfitting on simpler datasets. Basic architectures like LSTM-ED and Tcn-ED perform well. For SWaT, favoring one-class models due to its normal training and anomaly test data. In contrast, COUTA excels on noisy datasets using introduced anomaly information. PCRTA surpasses by incorporating perturbation type class info and harder-to-detect anomaly concepts via augmentation.

4.3 Visualisation Experiment

In this section, we use t-distributed stochastic neighbor embedding (t-SNE) [Van der Maaten and Hinton, 2008] to visualize whether the representations learned by our model on the Epilepsy dataset are discriminative. Epilepsy seizure dataset

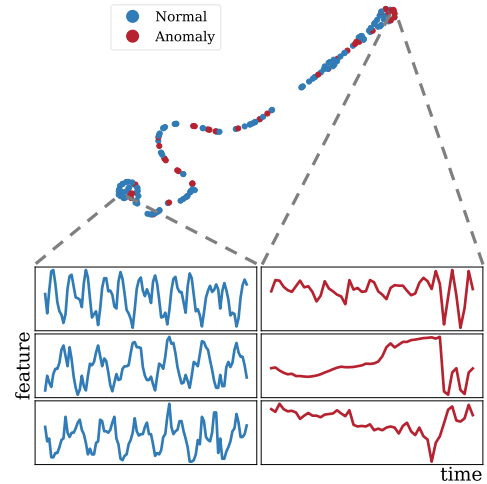


Figure 3: t-SNE of the input windows of the Epilepsy dataset and visualization of corresponding signals. Blue color denotes normal while red indicates anomaly.

(Epilepsy) is collected from a triaxial accelerometer placed on the dominant wrist. Participants were instructed to perform four different activities, with epileptic seizures defined as the abnormal category and the other three activities, walking, running, and sawing, as normal data. In Figure 3, blue and red colors represent normal and abnormal samples, respectively. While there are some anomalies that are close to normal samples, a distinct cluster of most abnormal samples is formed in the upper right corner, far from the cluster formed by normal samples in the lower left corner.

4.4 Generalization Ability

Due to the model’s ability to learn from various perturbation methods, we show improved robustness when dealing with different types of anomalies coexisting within a single dataset. Following a fine-grained categorization of time series anomalies [Lai *et al.*, 2021], we constructed a synthetic dataset containing multiple types of anomalies and conducted a comparison with single-class generative models.

In Figure 4, the top section represents the synthetic dataset, while the bottom section displays the anomaly scores obtained by different models when tested on the synthetic dataset. The performance of OCSVM degrades over time, accumulating errors in the time series data and leading to increasing anomaly scores. COUTA, although incorporating anomaly information, lacks robustness by failing to discriminate between different perturbation effects, and therefore there is a small increase in the anomaly scores. These one-class learning models excel at detecting different anomalies, but some methods show fluctuating scores, making analysis difficult. In contrast, PCRTA excels at effectively handling perturbation classes, yielding high, stable anomaly scores for anomalies and normal instances.

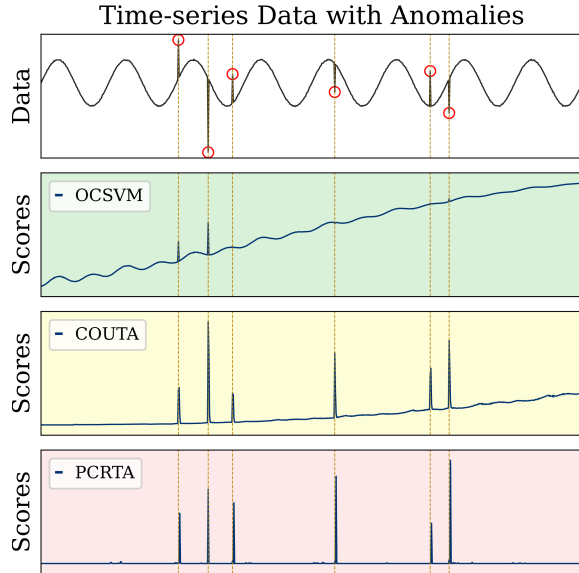


Figure 4: Performance of detecting different types of time series anomalies in synthetic time series datasets.

4.5 Ablation Study

We perform ablation experiments on the two main components of our model. We employ three ablation variants: replacing pseudo-labels from the classification network with ground truth, freezing the parameters of the classification network, and freezing the parameters of the contrastive network. These variants correspond to removing pseudo-labels, classification learning loss as Eq. 3, and contrastive learning loss as

Method	WaQ		DSADS		Epilepsy	
	F1	AUC	F1	AUC	F1	AUC
ground truth	0.73	0.75	0.93	0.94	0.89	0.91
w/o $\mathcal{L}_{mul}(3)$	0.67	0.68	0.61	0.55	0.92	0.94
w/o $\mathcal{L}_{con}(8)$	0.74	0.74	0.90	0.88	0.87	0.91
PCRTA	0.78↑	0.79↑	0.94↑	0.96↑	0.93↑	0.96↑

Table 3: Ablation study performances of proposed method and its degradation models, AUC means AUC-PR.

Eq. 8 from the model. The comparative analysis of PCRTA and its variants reveals that the superiority of PCRTA on the majority of the 26 sequences from six real-world datasets can be attributed to the innovative concept of utilizing the classification network, the contrastive network, and the classification network-guided contrastive network.

From Table 3, we can observe the results of the ablation experiments. The performance of the contrastive network guided by ground truth is inferior to PCRTA. Pseudo-labels offers several advantages: 1. In our selection strategy for positive and negative samples, samples with a high number of perturbation type misclassifications are considered anomalies. Pseudo-labels prevent the representations of anomalies from being selected, which would not be achievable with true labels. 2. For model training, using ground truth at the beginning of the training process would lead to minimal variation in positive and negative samples within the contrastive network, making the model susceptible to early convergence to local optima and hindering further training. 3. One of the core ideas of PCRTA is based on the assumption of low perturbation recognition rates in anomalies. Thus, a perturbation classification network is needed for anomaly selection.

5 Conclusion

In this paper, we propose our Perturbation Guiding Contrastive Representation Learning for Time Series Anomaly Detection (PCRTA), which combines the power of contrastive learning and classification-guided augmentation to enhance the performance of time series anomaly detection. Through extensive experiments on six real-world datasets, PCRTA consistently outperformed a range of state-of-the-art competitors, demonstrating its effectiveness and robustness. In the future, we can consider additional architectures to enhance the performance and practicality of the model.

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