

# Data Driven Structural Similarity

## *A Distance Measure for Adaptive Linear Approximations of Time Series*

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**Abstract:** Much effort has been invested in recent years in the problem of detecting similarity in time series. Most work focuses on the identification of exact matches through point-by-point comparisons, although in many real-world problems recurring patterns match each other only approximately. We introduce a new approach for identifying patterns in time series, which evaluates the similarity by comparing the overall structure of candidate sequences instead of focusing on the local shapes of the sequence and propose a new distance measure ABC (Area Between Curves) that is used to achieve this goal. The approach is based on a data-driven linear approximation method that is intuitive, offers a high compression ratio and adapts to the overall shape of the sequence. The similarity of candidate sequences is quantified by means of the novel distance measure, applied directly to the linear approximation of the time series. Our evaluations performed on multiple data sets show that our proposed technique outperforms similarity search approaches based on the commonly referenced Euclidean Distance in the majority of cases. The most significant improvements are obtained when applying our method to domains and data sets where matching sequences are indeed primarily determined based on the similarity of their higher-level structures.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

Due to its applicability in a wide range of real-world problems from various domains, there has been an increased interest in mining time series data over the last two decades. Ever since the seminal paper (Agrawal, et al., 1993), many contributions have been brought to the body of knowledge, aiming to solve problems such as identification of recurring patterns, anomaly detection and querying for similar sequences. (Fu, 2011) (Lin, et al., 2012)

When tackling the problem of similarity search in time series, a large portion of the proposed approaches operate under the assumption that matching sequences will be identical. Such approaches will commonly use similarity measures that evaluate the local (or point-by-point) differences among candidate sequences, and accumulate them in order to obtain the global picture of whether the sequences are a match or not.

While such approaches work well in ideal situations in which matches are indeed exact, for many real-world scenarios this is not the case, and approximate similarity search techniques are necessary (Shatkay and Zdonik, 1996). In fact, it has

been shown (Lin, et al., 2012) that similarity search through point-by-point comparison produces poor results when applied to longer time series having imperfect matches. This is mostly due to local divergences between the candidate sequences, e.g. temporary shifting or scaling on any axis (time or amplitude), that cannot be corrected through a global pre-processing step and which cause the similarity search to produce erroneous results. As a consequence, these challenges would need to be tackled by the search algorithm whenever an approximate similarity search in longer time series is performed.

Despite these issues, there has been considerably less work targeted at identifying “structural” similarity, i.e. similarity on a higher-level, in time series. Due to this fact, in the current paper we propose one such approach, based on the use of a data driven approximate time series representation format.

We propose a similarity search technique based on a piecewise linear approximation of data obtained through data-adaptive segmentation, and a corresponding similarity measure to be used with this representation format. We illustrate through

experiments performed on commonly referenced data sets that, when it comes to the detection of higher level structural similarity, our approach outperforms the most common distance measures that are used to evaluate local similarity in time series. In addition, we highlight the benefits of using the data adaptive segmentation, in contrast to a typical fixed-width piecewise linear approximation.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In section 2 we discuss related work. Our proposed approach is presented in section 3. The experiments we have performed are detailed in section 4. Section 5 contains our conclusions and a discussion of future work.

## 2 RELATED WORK

Time series are sequences of data points, having a fixed temporal order, which represent the variation in time of some quantifiable measure. Time series can originate from a large spectrum of fields. Due to their nature, in many fields time series often exhibit recurring formations, or patterns, making the field of similarity search interesting to study from a knowledge discovery perspective.

In order to quantify the similarity of two time series sequences a multitude of distance measures have been proposed. Most commonly these are also used in conjunction with an alternate representation format for time series: PAA (Keogh, et al., 2001), APCA (Keogh, et al., 2001), PLA (Pazzani and Keogh, 1998), SAX/iSAX (Shieh & Keogh, 2008), which is introduced primarily with the aim of reducing the dimensionality of time series. An overview and empirical evaluation of the most common representation formats and corresponding distance measures is provided in (Wang, et al., 2013).

### 2.1 Approximate Similarity Search

While most existing work has focused on methods for exact similarity search, in many situations it is necessary to identify approximate matches between time series sequences (Shatkay and Zdonik, 1996). E.g. the Euclidean Distance (Faloutsos, et al., 1994), which is by far the most commonly referenced distance measure, operates by calculating the difference between candidate sequences on a point-by-point basis. Due to this fact it is also very sensitive to shifts on the time axis, which can lead to poor results even in the case of minor local misalignments: in (Lin, et al., 2012), the use of

Euclidean Distance has been shown to produce poor results when applied to longer sequences, where local divergences should be of smaller significance.

One proposed solution for such issues has been the use of elastic distance measures such as Dynamic Time Warping (Ratanamahatana & Keogh, 2005). Alternative approaches have also been proposed, such as (Keogh, 2003), which uses a probabilistic technique for the discovery of motifs, in which small subsections of the time series are allowed to vary between the candidate sequences (e.g. in order to cancel out temporary noise).

However, when it comes to identification of similarity in sequences of larger dimensions, approaches that search for higher level (“structural”) similarity have been shown to produce promising results. These have mostly been based on extracting certain features from the original sequences, and evaluating the similarity based on this information. We will highlight such approaches in the following section.

### 2.2 Structural Similarity

Inspired by the bag-of-words technique commonly used in text mining, (Lin, et al., 2012) represents sequences by a histogram of the shapes occurring within that sequence (i.e. “bag of patterns”). Once obtained, the similarity among two candidate sequences can be determined by applying a distance measure directly on this bag of patterns.

An approximation of time series by using a set of predefined parameterizable primitive shapes is proposed in (Olszewski, 2001). However the approach does not come with a corresponding distance measure for evaluation of structural similarity based on this representation method.

(Fu, et al., 2005) proposes the representation of time series by means of their perceptually most important points. The sequences represented using this compressed format are then indexed with the aim of obtaining improved retrieval times due to the reduced dimensionality.

### 2.3 Linear-Approximation-based Approaches

While the representation of time series through piecewise linear approximations (PLA) (Pazzani & Keogh, 1998) is a well-known approach, in the context of similarity search we have found that methods based on other representation methods have been favoured, despite the fact that PLA-based approaches are intuitive and easy to compute, while

at the same time producing competitive results (Wang, et al., 2013).

In (Chen, et al., 2007) iPLA, an indexable extension of PLA, is proposed, for which a lower bound distance can be defined assuring *no false dismissals* during the similarity search.

In the same context of linear-approximation-based techniques, a series of approaches have been proposed that operate on the derivative (or slope) of the identified segments:

In (Toshniwal and Joshi, 2005) an approach for performing similarity search is introduced, based on the intuition that similar sequences will have similar variations in their slopes. The approach operates by accumulating the (weighted) slope difference between corresponding strips of the candidate sequences.

(Keogh and Pazzani, 2001) proposes an extension of the Dynamic Time Warping distance measure, that takes into account the local derivative of the time series segments.

In the next section we evaluate an approach to identifying similarity in time series by means of a distance measure that focuses on structural similarity by employing a linear-approximation-based representation of data.

### 3 DATA DRIVEN STRUCTURAL SIMILARITY SEARCH

We argue that the use of linear-approximation-based search techniques can provide good results for the problem of detecting structural similarity in time series. As a consequence in this paper we propose a variation to the classical PLA representation of time series and define a distance measure that can be used in conjunction with this representation format.

#### 3.1 Data Adaptive Representation Format

While most approaches that are based on a PLA representation of data perform the segmentation of the original sequence using a fixed-width predefined segment size (Pazzani & Keogh, 1998), (Chen, et al., 2007), we have chosen to use a data-adaptive segmentation approach instead. The reasons behind avoiding the use of a fixed-width segmentation are twofold:

On one hand the result of fixed-width segmentation approaches is always dependant on the starting point of the segmentation, since this choice

automatically determines the location of all subsequent segmentation (or “cutting”) points. As a consequence the selection of the segmentation starting point is a challenging task, since a poor choice can lead to incorrect results.

On the other hand, by using a fixed-width segmentation an additional variable is added to the similarity search problem: the segment width, i.e. the number of data points in the original sequence that correspond to a single segment in the linear approximation. The choice for the segment width that shall be used represents another challenge, since this choice is always dependent on the nature of the problem and on the characteristics of the analysed data set, which means that additional effort is necessary to determine the optimum width.

It is important to note that there is also a downside to the use of a data adaptive segmentation. Since the endpoints for each segment cannot be calculated automatically, it is required to store (at least) 2 pieces of information per segment:

- The slope of the segment
- The length, endpoint or any equivalent measure that can be used to determine the run length of the segment

This information can be derived and stored for each segment during the pre-processing phase when the linear approximation of the sequence is computed. Furthermore in our approach we store every segment in the form of an independent linear function ( $ax + b$ ), in order to ease the calculation of our proposed distance measure, as will become clear in the following sections.

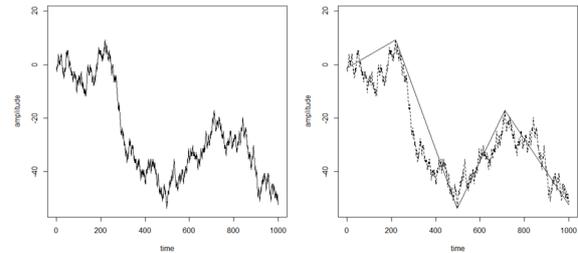


Figure 1: Sample time series sequence (left) and its corresponding data-adaptive linear approximation (right).

#### 3.2 Segmentation

To obtain the individual linear approximation segments from the raw data, a bottom-up segmentation is applied, which has been shown to produce the representations with the smallest errors (Keogh, et al., 2001).

Bottom-up segmentation operates by iteratively merging the adjacent segments that produce the

smallest error, until some stopping criteria is met. This means that a sequence can be represented by any number  $N$  of segments, with  $1 \leq N \leq l-1$ ,  $l$  being the number of data points of the initial sequence. Starting from this observation, we introduce a new metric  $G_l$ , representing the granularity of the linear approximation for a sequence of initial size  $l$ :

$$G_l(N) = \frac{N-1}{l-2} * 100 \quad (1)$$

The granularity function is 0 when the sequence is approximated through a single linear segment, and 100 when the initial sequence is represented by  $l-1$  segments. One of the objectives of this paper is to study the change in pattern identification performance with varying granularities of the linear approximation. This aspect is described in more detail in the fourth section.

### 3.3 Distance Measure

When using a data adaptive representation format, the benefit of having low representation errors comes at a cost: the “cutting points” determined during the segmentation process are not aligned across the sequences that are being compared. As a consequence it is necessary to define a more flexible distance measure in order to determine the similarity of two sequences that are stored using this data adaptive format.

Thus, we have introduced a new Area-Between-Curves distance measure (ABC), to quantify the similarity of two such sequences.

The algorithm for calculation of the ABC distance is described below, where  $A$  and  $B$  are two sequences of equal length for which the ABC-distance should be calculated, and  $N$  represents the number of segments by which the segments should be approximated before the calculation. The distance measure is defined in such a way that it is applicable to different segmentation techniques:

```

ABC(A, B, segType, N)
{
  A = zNormalize(A);
  B = zNormalize(B);
  sA = segment(A, segType, N);
  sB = segment(B, segType, N);
  i = 0;
  do
  {
    j = nextCuttingPoint(sA, sB, i);
    result += SectDif(sA, sB, i, j);
    i = j;
  }
  while ( j < N );

```

```

    return result;
}

```

The first step of the algorithm is represented by the pre-processing phase, in which sequences  $A$  and  $B$  are z-normalized. This assures that any global scaling or offset of the sequences' amplitudes is eliminated. Afterwards the sequences are transformed into their piecewise linear approximation. This is done through a call of the `segment(*, segType, N)` function, where:

- $N$  represents the number of segments used to approximate the sequence, being the parameter through which the segmentation granularity can be controlled
- `segType` is a control parameter, determining the segmentation approach to be used (in our case fixed-width and data-adaptive). In case of the data-adaptive approach, a bottom-up segmentation is performed iteratively, until both sequences are represented through  $N$  segments

The algorithm then sequentially traverses both segmentations in parallel from one "cutting point" to the next. For this, the `nextCuttingPoint()` function returns the next-nearest segment endpoint, originating either from sequence  $A$  or from sequence  $B$ . At each iteration, the area between the linear sections of  $A$  and  $B$ , located in the range  $[i, j]$ , is calculated by the `SectDif()` function, which in analytical terms can be defined as:

$$SectDif(A, B, i, j) = \int_i^j (A - B) \quad (2)$$

(2) enables the distance calculation for a section in constant time, but is only applicable if the individual segments have indeed been stored in the form of linear functions. This can be achieved by means of an additional pre-processing step during the linear approximation phase, as mentioned before.

Figure 2 provides the graphical intuition behind the ABC distance metric, with the shaded area representing the distance between the two sequences:

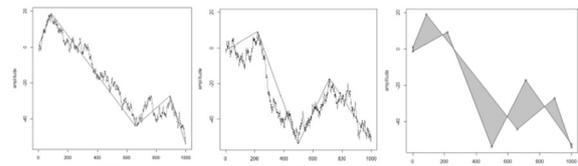


Figure 2: Data-adaptive linear approximation of two sequences (left and middle plots), and their corresponding ABC distance (shaded area in the right plot).

## 4 EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

### 4.1 Evaluation Methodology

In order to assess the efficiency of the proposed data-adaptive representation method and its corresponding ABC distance metric, we have chosen an approach commonly used in literature. 1-NN classification is performed on a labelled set of test data: every test set is composed of clusters of time series sequences, the label of each sequence identifying the cluster (or *class*) to which the sequence belongs to. The classification is performed by using the Area-Between-Curves as the underlying distance measure in order to determine the pairwise similarity between sequences.

#### 4.1.1 Accuracy

To quantify the similarity search performance obtainable through use of our ABC distance metric the error rate of the previously described 1-NN classification has been used. This is justified by the fact that the error rate reflects the effectiveness of the similarity measure.

For every test set, the error rates obtained by using 3 distinct similarity measures have been compared:

- *Euclidean Distance*, calculated on the original (without any dimensionality reduction), z-normalized data set
- *ABC(data-adaptive)*, our proposed similarity measure, calculated on the data-adaptive linear approximation of the initial sequence
- *ABC(fixed-width)*, the same distance measure calculated for a fixed-width representation of the initial sequence

The reasons behind this choice are revealed next.

In (Wang, et al., 2013) authors have shown that despite its simplicity, the Euclidean Distance (ED) performs very well in comparison to other more complex distance measures. In fact, the same work has shown that while elastic distance measures such as Dynamic Time Warping (DTW) might outperform the Euclidean Distance for small data sets (at the cost of lower speeds), the difference between DTW and ED in terms of both accuracy and amortized speed becomes statistically insignificant with increasingly larger data sets.

As a consequence the error rates obtained by means of the intuitive and easy-to-compute Euclidean Distance are a good starting point that can

be used as base reference when interpreting the results obtained with our *ABC* similarity measure.

In addition to this, the ED-based approach also operates in a fundamentally different way than our proposed similarity measure: while the ED is a lock-step measure that is sensitive to noise and shifts on the time axis, our approach is aimed at identifying similarity on a broader scope, with local divergences having less influence on the outcome of the similarity search. Thus, we aim to determine whether a certain similarity measure is better suited for particular data types from the various evaluated sources.

#### 4.1.2 Speed of Convergence

In addition to the actual similarity search performance, one other aspect of the similarity search that has been evaluated is the variation in classification accuracy for approximations of increasingly larger granularity. In other words, what is the change in the accuracy of the similarity search, when using  $N$  and  $N+1$  segments to approximate the time series respectively, and how fast does the error rate converge towards its minimum value?

## 4.2 Data Sets

In the interest of reproducible research, the experiments have been conducted on the UCR Time Series Classification data sets (Keogh, et al., 2011), which have been gathered from diverse sources and referenced extensively in more than 100 recent works (Aghabozorgi & Teh, 2014), (Batista, et al., 2014), (Lines & Bagnall, 2014), (Fulcher & Jones, 2014).

## 4.3 Results

Figure 3 highlights the 1-NN error rates (vertical axis) obtained for the *synthetic\_control* data set by means of the 3 distance measures (*ED*, *ABC(data-adaptive)*, *ABC(fixed-width)*).

While the ED error rate is 0.12 (horizontal line), the error rate for the ABC-based classification depends on the granularity of the piecewise linear approximation, i.e. the number of segments used to approximate the sequence (horizontal axis). In this case, given the original time series length of 60 points, a granularity  $G = 100\%$  corresponds to a linear approximation composed of 59 segments.

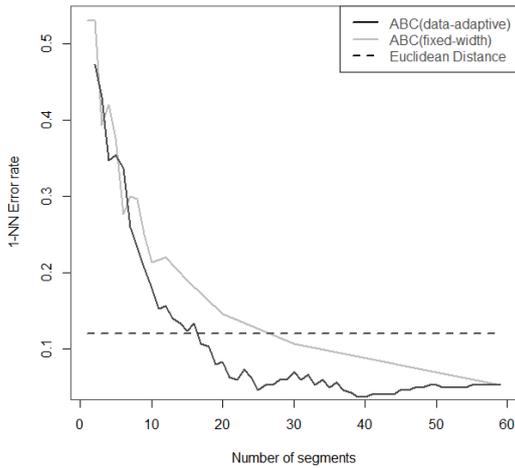


Figure 3: Error rate plot for *synthetic\_control* data set.

Several conclusions can be drawn from this first error rate plot, which have also been confirmed by subsequent evaluations on further data sets (as can be seen also in the additional error rate plots in Figure 4):

### 4.3.1 Accuracy

At its minimum level (0.036), the error rate for the data-adaptive linear approximation is considerably lower than that of the Euclidean distance. While this result does not hold true across all of the evaluated data sets, the linear approximations have in many cases (7 out of 11) outperformed or at least matched the performance of the point-by-point Euclidean Distance similarity measure.

Table 1: Error rates obtained by using the ED and ABC(data-adaptive) distance measures for distinct data sets, and the relative change between the two approaches.

Data Set	Error rate for ED	Min. error rate for ABC(data-adaptive)	$\Delta_{relative} \left( \frac{ABC - ED}{ED} \right)$
CBF	0.147	0.124	-15.65%
FaceAll	0.286	0.207	-27.62%
Lightning7	0.424	0.301	-29.01%
Synthetic_control	0.120	0.036	-70.00%
GunPoint	0.088	0.080	-9.09%
Adiac	0.388	0.396	+2.06%
Fish	0.217	0.228	+5.07%
ItalyPowerDemand	0.044	0.048	+9.09%
Wafer	0.004	0.004	0.00%
Swedish Leaf	0.211	0.198	-6.16%
Two Patterns	0.093	0.111	+19.3%
<b>average</b>	<b>0.184</b>	<b>0.158</b>	<b>-11.09%</b>

Table 1 displays the minimum error rates for the *ED* and *ABC(data-adaptive)* similarity measures, calculated for different data sets of the UCR suite. While some results might be regarded as statistically insignificant (with variations of  $\pm 5\%$  between the two similarity measures), there are also data sets (e.g. *FaceAll*, *Lightning7*) for which a considerable improvement is visible when using the ABC-based similarity. The different outcome from one data set to the other might be justified by the varying nature of the data sets: e.g. the separation into distinct classes of patterns in case of the *Adiac* and *Fish* data sets is based on differences of finer granularity, while for the other data sets the higher level structure determines the class of the data. However on average, as can be seen in Table 1, the ABC-based classification has achieved error rates 11.09% lower than the ED-based approach.

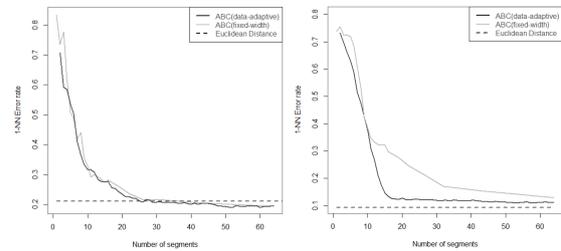


Figure 4: Additional error rate plots for the SwedishLeaf(left) and TwoPatterns(right) data sets.

### 4.3.2 Speed of Convergence

One other important observation noticeable in Figure 3 and 4 is that with increasing segmentation granularity (number of segments used for the linear approximation, i.e. X-axis), the error rate drops rapidly towards its minimum level. In order to quantitatively evaluate this aspect, we consider it relevant to introduce an additional metric. (3)

The accuracy threshold,  $T(x)$ , represents the level at which  $x\%$  of the lowest achievable error rate has been reached:

$$T(x) = Max\ error - \left( (Max\ error - Min\ error) * \frac{x}{100} \right) \quad (3)$$

e.g. the error rates for the *synthetic\_control* data set range from 0.52 to 0.036 (see Figure 3). In this case, the 90% accuracy threshold,  $T(90)$  is represented by an error rate of 0.085.

The experimental results summarized in Table 2 have shown that, for most data sets, the 90% accuracy threshold can be reached with a segmentation granularity  $G < 15\%$ . In fact, for individual data sets such as *Fish* the 90% threshold

is reachable with a granularity below 5%. The first two columns of Table 2 provide an overview of these experimental results for several data sets.

Table 2: Speed of convergence test (minimum required approximation granularity to reach 90% accuracy threshold) for data-adaptive and fixed-width linear approximation respectively.

Data Set	Min. segmentation granularity	
	Data-adaptive	Fixed-width
Fish	4.3%	4.7%
wafer	4.9%	8.6%
adiac	13.1%	14.2%
swedish leaf	14.9%	16.5%
CBF	14.9%	29.1%
Lightning7	15%	78%
FaceAll	20%	30.7%
synthetic control	31.6%	75%
<i>average</i>	<i>14.8%</i>	<i>32.6%</i>

The conclusion to be drawn from this experiment is that using data-adaptive linear approximations allows a high compression of the initial data set without degrading the performance of similarity identification. The fact that the minimum necessary segmentation granularity varies significantly from one data set to the other can easily be justified by visually analysing the data sets (Figure 5). While simpler, “smooth” sequences (e.g. *Fish* data set) can be approximated accurately with very few segments, more segments are needed in the case of sequences that have a higher variation/complexity (e.g. *FaceAll*)

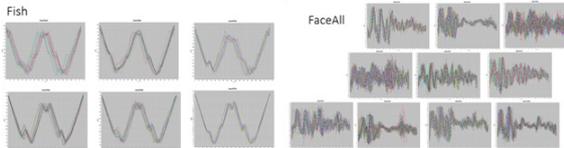


Figure 5: Plot of *Fish* and *FaceAll* data sets.

Finally, we have compared these results with the same “speed of convergence” obtainable through use of a fixed-width segmentation. As can be seen in Figures 3 and 4, although both approaches ultimately converge towards the same error rate, the rate drops faster in the case of the data-adaptive segmentation.

As a result the same error rate can be achieved with a lower approximation granularity when data-adaptive segmentation is employed, enabling a better dimensionality reduction, which ultimately also saves up processing time during similarity search. Our conclusion is also backed by the experimental results conducted on the data sets, as can be seen in

the last column of Table 2, with error rates associated to the data-adaptive segmentation consistently outperforming fixed-width segmentation.

## 5 CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORK

While much effort has been invested in previous work in the field of similarity search in time series, only a fraction of this work addresses the problem of approximate matching between sequences. As a consequence, in the current paper we have proposed a similarity search approach aimed at covering this gap. The approach uses a novel Area-Between-Curves distance measure, which operates on a data-adaptive linear approximation of the original data sets.

We have shown that the 1-NN classification performed by means of our proposed similarity measure has managed to outperform the ED-based approach, having on average a 11.09% lower error rate for the evaluated data sets.

While the similarity identification performance of the ABC measure has been better or equal for many (7 out of 11) of the analysed data sets, in some cases better results have been obtained by using the ED-based approach. In a future work we plan to analyse if, based on certain data set meta-data, rules can be inferred for an automatic identification of data sets that are suitable for the ABC distance measure.

By comparing the ABC-measure performance for data-adaptive and fixed-width approximations of the original data sets, we have also shown that the use of a data-adaptive representation method enables a significantly better compression of the data, without any loss in classification accuracy.

The results lead us to the conclusion that the proposed approach provides a competitive solution to the problem of similarity search in time series, with significant performance improvements in particular for domains in which the matching criteria for time series is the high-level/structural similarity of the sequences.

In future work we intend to further build upon the advantage of high compressibility, by using indexing techniques to store the reduced time series representation, thus enabling lower lookup times during the similarity search.

Furthermore, the time series representation format used in this paper poses an additional

opportunity: the data-adaptive linear approximation is relatively easy to scale in length and amplitude, which could make our ABC-based approach a good candidate for identifying similarity even among time series of varying lengths. We intend to evaluate this aspect in future work.

Finally, the problem of similarity search in time series is often used in combination with streaming sets of data. For such scenarios however the entire similarity search approach needs to be designed in consideration of this incremental nature of the data sets.

As a consequence, in future work we plan to analyse the applicability of the ABC distance measure in combination with an index structure in the context of online similarity search, where sequences are represented by continuously flowing streams of data.

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