

Review

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Review

A Survey on Data Generation for Time Series: Taxonomy, Review and Prospects

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Abstract

Time series generation (TSG) plays a fundamental role in data engineering and knowledge discovery, serving as a key enabler for data augmentation, representation learning, privacy preservation, and scenario simulation analysis in temporal data mining. By synthesizing realistic and controllable time series, TSG directly benefits downstream tasks such as forecasting, anomaly detection, and classification by data augmentation and improving model generalization. This survey presents a comprehensive and systematic review of TSG methodologies, spanning traditional non-deep learning approaches, such as rule-based, statistical, and simulation-based methods, and modern deep generative models, including variational autoencoders, generative adversarial networks, diffusion models, normalizing flows, and large language models. To organize the rapidly growing literature, we introduce a unified multi-level taxonomy to organize the technical landscape of TSG and clarify the relationships among diverse approaches. The taxonomy emphasizes underlying modeling principles rather than individual representative models. Specifically, it categorizes TSG methods according to modeling backbones, generation settings (conditional versus unconditional), sampling regularity, and modality characteristics. Building on this taxonomy, we systematically review advanced methods within each category and discuss how they address key challenges such as irregular sampling, long-sequence modeling, multivariate dependencies, and controllable generation, and how they are applied in real-world scenarios. Furthermore, we present a holistic evaluation framework encompassing five core dimensions, including fidelity, diversity, controllability, downstream performance, and privacy protection. Finally, we identify critical open challenges and outline promising research directions from data characteristics, application scenarios, and modeling paradigm perspectives. This survey aims to serve as a structured reference and roadmap for researchers and practitioners in this rapidly evolving field.

Keywords: time series generation; synthetic data; data augmentation; temporal data mining; deep learning

1. Introduction

Time series generation (TSG) concerns the synthesis of realistic and diverse time series data that preserve essential temporal dynamics. As a fundamental component of modern data management and knowledge discovery systems, TSG serves as a core data engineering primitive for constructing,

enriching, and maintaining temporal datasets. Time series data are ubiquitous in real-world applications, ranging from industrial monitoring [1], healthcare [2], finance [3,4], and web services [5,6]. In the data mining communities, TSG is increasingly recognized as a critical enabler for downstream analytics, particularly in three key scenarios: (i) data augmentation [7], where synthetic sequences alleviate data scarcity and class imbalance; (ii) conditional generation [8], which enables controllable synthesis for scenario analysis and what-if simulations; and (iii) privacy-preserving data sharing [9], where generated time series reduce the risk of sensitive information leakage while retaining utility. Reflecting its growing importance, academic interest in this field has steadily increased, as shown in Figure 1.

Although both time series generation and forecasting are concerned with producing temporal sequences, they are fundamentally different. Forecasting aims to estimate future values conditioned on historical observations. In contrast, TSG seeks to model the full joint distribution of temporal processes. **By learning the underlying generative distribution of observed data, TSG enables the synthesis of realistic and diverse sequences that reflect complex temporal dynamics, including uncertainty, variability, and rare events.** This distinction is crucial: while forecasting is often concerned with producing one or a limited number of future trajectories, TSG provides a principled way to explore the space of plausible temporal behaviors, thereby supporting applications such as data augmentation, stress testing, and scenario simulation.

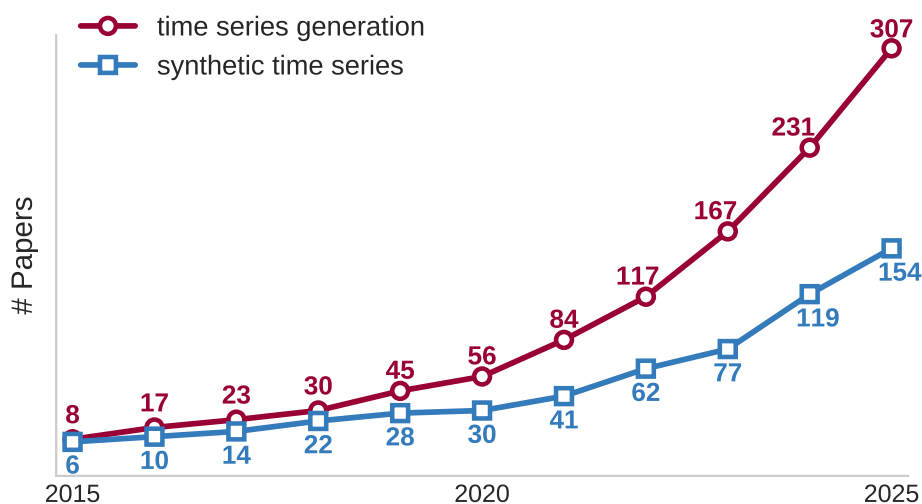


Figure 1. Trends in the cumulative number of studies on TSG in recent years. The numbers are retrieved from DBLP respectively using “time series generation” and “synthetic time series” as keywords.

Over the past few decades, TSG methods have evolved along several methodological paradigms, including rule-based approaches [10–19], simulation-based methods [20,21], and deep learning-based techniques. Among these paradigms, deep learning approaches have become increasingly dominant, while rule-based, statistical, and simulation-based methods are comparatively less prevalent, as illustrated in Figure 2. These TSG methods have been widely applied to tasks such as time series data augmentation, representation learning, privacy-preserving, and scenario simulation analysis. Rule-based methods [22] synthesize new time series data by recombining predefined patterns [13]. Statistical approaches typically rely on stochastic processes, such as Markov models, to generate time series for scenario simulation. Software simulation based methods generate time series data by constructing virtual environments and specifying interaction rules [20]. In recent years, deep generative models have achieved breakthrough progress in fields such as image, speech, and text processing, and have gradually extended to time series modeling [23–30]. Unlike traditional statistical methods that rely on explicit distributional assumptions, deep generative models can directly learn complex temporal dynamics and underlying generative mechanisms through high-dimensional nonlinear network architectures.

Based on a systematic review of more than 150 representative papers selected from leading venues in artificial intelligence and data science, we weave together the fragmented strands of rule-based, statistical, simulation-based, and deep generative research. Beyond cataloging existing methods, our synthesis highlights emerging trends toward more general, multimodal, and controllable generation paradigms. The remainder of this survey is structured as follows. We first establish the theoretical foundations and a hierarchical taxonomy of TSG methods in Sections 2 and 3. We then examine practical applications across key industries in Section 4, followed by a systematic review of evaluation metrics in Section 5. Finally, Section 6 explores open challenges and future research directions

Overall, this survey provides a unified TSG perspective that integrates traditional methods with modern deep learning under a consistent taxonomy, serving as a structured reference and roadmap for future research, applications, and evaluation of multimodal, controllable, and diverse TSG systems.

2. Background

This section provides the theoretical background necessary to contextualize the diverse approaches covered in this survey. We first formalize the TSG problem and then review the core generative paradigms. Specifically, we focus on the mathematical formulation of TSG and the adaptation of representative frameworks, including Variational Autoencoder, Generative Adversarial Network, Diffusion Model, and Normalizing Flow to the temporal domain. Figure 3 illustrates these paradigms.

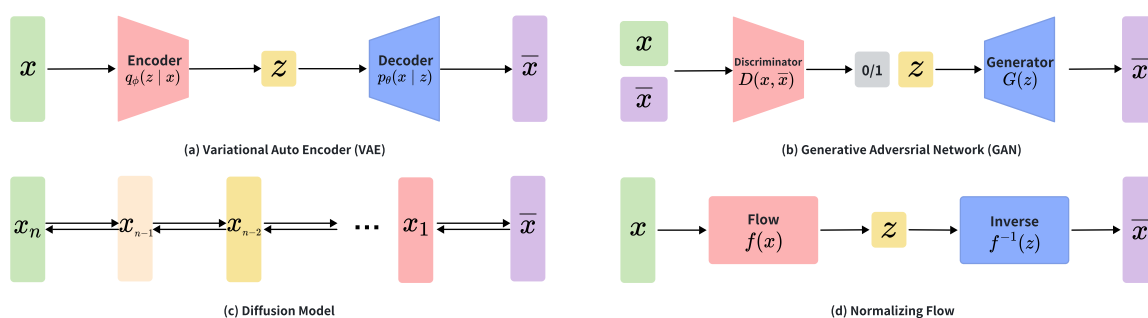


Figure 3. Overview of Representative Deep Generative Modeling Paradigms. (a) Variational Autoencoder (VAE): VAEs encode data into a latent distribution and generate samples by decoding latent variables drawn from a predefined prior. (b) Generative Adversarial Network (GAN): GANs learn data distributions implicitly through adversarial training between a generator and a discriminator. (c) Diffusion Models: Diffusion models transform data into noise via a forward process and generate samples by reversing this process through iterative denoising.

2.1. Time Series Generation

A TS is a sequence of observations $\mathbf{x}_{1:T} = (x_1, \dots, x_T)$, where $x_t \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is indexed by time t . The goal of TSG is to learn a generative model $p_\theta(\mathbf{x}_{1:T})$ that approximates the true underlying data distribution $p_{\text{data}}(\mathbf{x}_{1:T})$. This enables sampling synthetic trajectories $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{1:T} \sim p_\theta(\mathbf{x}_{1:T})$ that are statistically indistinguishable from real data, as illustrated in Figure 3.

Compare with TS forecasting, which typically focuses on minimizing the prediction error of future values given a fixed history (i.e., estimating the conditional expectation $\mathbb{E}[x_{t+1:T} | \mathbf{x}_{1:t}]$), TSG targets the *complete joint distribution* rather than deterministic extrapolation. This distinction brings two unique characteristics to TSG: **(1) Global Distribution Modeling:** Unlike forecasting, which prioritizes local trend accuracy, TSG must capture global semantic coherence and long-term dependencies (e.g., seasonality, non-stationarity) to ensure the generated samples possess realistic statistical properties across the entire horizon. **(2) Controllability and Diversity:** TSG extends beyond fitting historical patterns by enabling *conditional generation*, which allows control over specific attributes (e.g., class labels or textual descriptions) and supports the generation of diverse counterfactual scenarios rather than a single deterministic future.

Next, we categorize TSG tasks across three key dimensions: conditioning, domain, and modality.

2.1.1. Unconditional and Conditional TSG

Unconditional models approximate the marginal distribution $p_\theta(\mathbf{x}_{1:T})$, synthesizing sequences based solely on intrinsic dynamics. In contrast, conditional generation extends this to: $p_\theta(\mathbf{x}_{1:T} \mid \mathbf{c})$, where \mathbf{c} represents auxiliary controls (e.g., class labels, text descriptions). This formulation enables targeted simulation, which is essential for applications requiring semantically grounded generation.

2.1.2. Single- and Multi-Domain TSG

A domain defines a distributional context with consistent temporal patterns. In single-domain settings, training and generation occur within a homogeneous distribution. Multi-domain TSG involves heterogeneous datasets $\{\mathcal{D}_i\}$ where dynamics vary across sources. This setting requires models to disentangle shared temporal structures from domain-specific variations, enabling generalization across distinct data sources.

2.1.3. Single- and Multi-Modality TSG

Modality M refers to distinct signal types (e.g., ECG, text). Single-modality TSG focuses on synthesizing one signal source. Multi-modality TSG models the joint distribution across aligned signals:

$$p_\theta\left(x_{1:T}^{(1)}, \dots, x_{1:T}^{(M)}\right), \quad (1)$$

or generates one modality conditioned on another, capturing inter-modality correlations and synchronization essential for complex systems like physiological monitoring.

2.2. Classic Generative Models

As illustrated in Figure 3, we review representative paradigms adapted for TSG, ranging from explicit density estimators to implicit adversarial approaches.

2.2.1. Variational Autoencoders (VAEs)

It maps sequences to a probabilistic latent space to capture temporal dynamics[36]. Given a time series $\mathbf{x}_{1:T}$, VAEs approximate the intractable posterior with an encoder $q_\phi(\mathbf{z} \mid \mathbf{x}_{1:T})$ and generate synthetic trajectories via a decoder $p_\theta(\mathbf{x}_{1:T} \mid \mathbf{z})$. The model is optimized by maximizing the Evidence Lower Bound (ELBO):

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{ELBO}} = \mathbb{E}_{q_\phi}[\log p_\theta(\mathbf{x}_{1:T} \mid \mathbf{z})] - \text{KL}(q_\phi(\mathbf{z} \mid \mathbf{x}_{1:T}) \parallel p(\mathbf{z})). \quad (2)$$

In TSG, the latent variable \mathbf{z} typically encodes global temporal characteristics, ensuring that sampled trajectories $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{1:T} \sim p_\theta(\cdot \mid \mathbf{z})$ maintain consistent statistical properties across time steps.

2.2.2. Generative Adversarial Networks (GANs)

It bypasses explicit likelihood estimation by establishing a two-player game between a generator G_θ and a discriminator D_ψ [37]. The generator maps a latent noise vector \mathbf{z} to a synthetic sequence $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{1:T}$, while the discriminator attempts to distinguish real trajectories from generated ones. The training objective follows a minimax formulation:

$$\min_{\theta} \max_{\psi} \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x} \sim p_{\text{data}}}[\log D_\psi(\mathbf{x}_{1:T})] + \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{z} \sim p(\mathbf{z})}[\log(1 - D_\psi(G_\theta(\mathbf{z})))] \quad (3)$$

For time series, D_ψ often uses recurrent or convolutional structures to penalize temporal discontinuities, encouraging G_θ to learn the joint distribution of sequence steps.

2.2.3. Diffusion Models

It generates data via an iterative denoising process [38]. A forward process gradually corrupts clean data into Gaussian noise over diffusion timesteps, while a parameterized reverse process learns to remove the noise.

In TSG, let $\mathbf{x}_0 = \mathbf{x}_{0:1:T} \in \mathbb{R}^{T \times d}$ denote a clean trajectory of length T . The forward process perturbs the entire trajectory across diffusion steps $k \in \{1, \dots, K\}$, producing a noisy sample \mathbf{x}_k . Here, the temporal dimension $1:T$ is preserved within \mathbf{x}_k . Training minimizes the noise prediction objective:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{simple}} = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x}_0, k, \epsilon} \left[\|\epsilon - \epsilon_\theta(\mathbf{x}_k, k)\|^2 \right], \quad (4)$$

where ϵ_θ , typically implemented with a U-Net or Transformer, learns to denoise the full trajectory at each diffusion step, enabling the modeling of long-range temporal dependencies.

2.2.4. Normalizing Flows

It constructs complex temporal distributions by transforming a simple base distribution (e.g., Gaussian) through a sequence of invertible and differentiable mappings f_θ [39]. A synthetic trajectory is generated as $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{1:T} = f_\theta(\mathbf{z})$. Unlike GANs, flows allow for exact log-likelihood computation via the change-of-variables formula:

$$\log p_\theta(\mathbf{x}_{1:T}) = \log p_0(\mathbf{z}) + \sum_{k=1}^K \log \left| \det \frac{\partial f_k}{\partial \mathbf{h}_{k-1}} \right|. \quad (5)$$

where \mathbf{h}_{k-1} denotes the intermediate state input to the k -th layer. This invertibility makes flows particularly suitable for applications requiring both generation and precise density estimation of temporal patterns [40].

3. Taxonomy and Roadmap

3.1. Overview

To bring conceptual clarity to the diverse and rapidly evolving landscape of TSG, this chapter introduces a multi-level taxonomy aligned with the hierarchical framework shown in Figure 4. Rather than aiming for exhaustive coverage or enumerating individual methods, our taxonomy seeks to abstract the *personalized or shared modeling assumptions and control mechanisms* that underlie different TSG approaches. Specifically, we organize existing techniques by examining how they conceptualize the data generation process, what assumptions they impose on temporal dynamics and stochasticity, and how control or conditioning signals are incorporated into generation.

This taxonomy is structured to emphasize the *logical relationships* across hierarchical levels, ranging from high-level generative paradigms to key sub-categories and their defining technical properties. In doing so, it highlights how different methodological branches diverge and converge along critical dimensions such as generative assumptions, controllability, and conditioning flexibility.

By focusing on these fundamental design choices rather than individual implementations, we aim to provide a principled roadmap for understanding the technical space of TSG and its research directions. All related works are systematically summarized in Table 2.

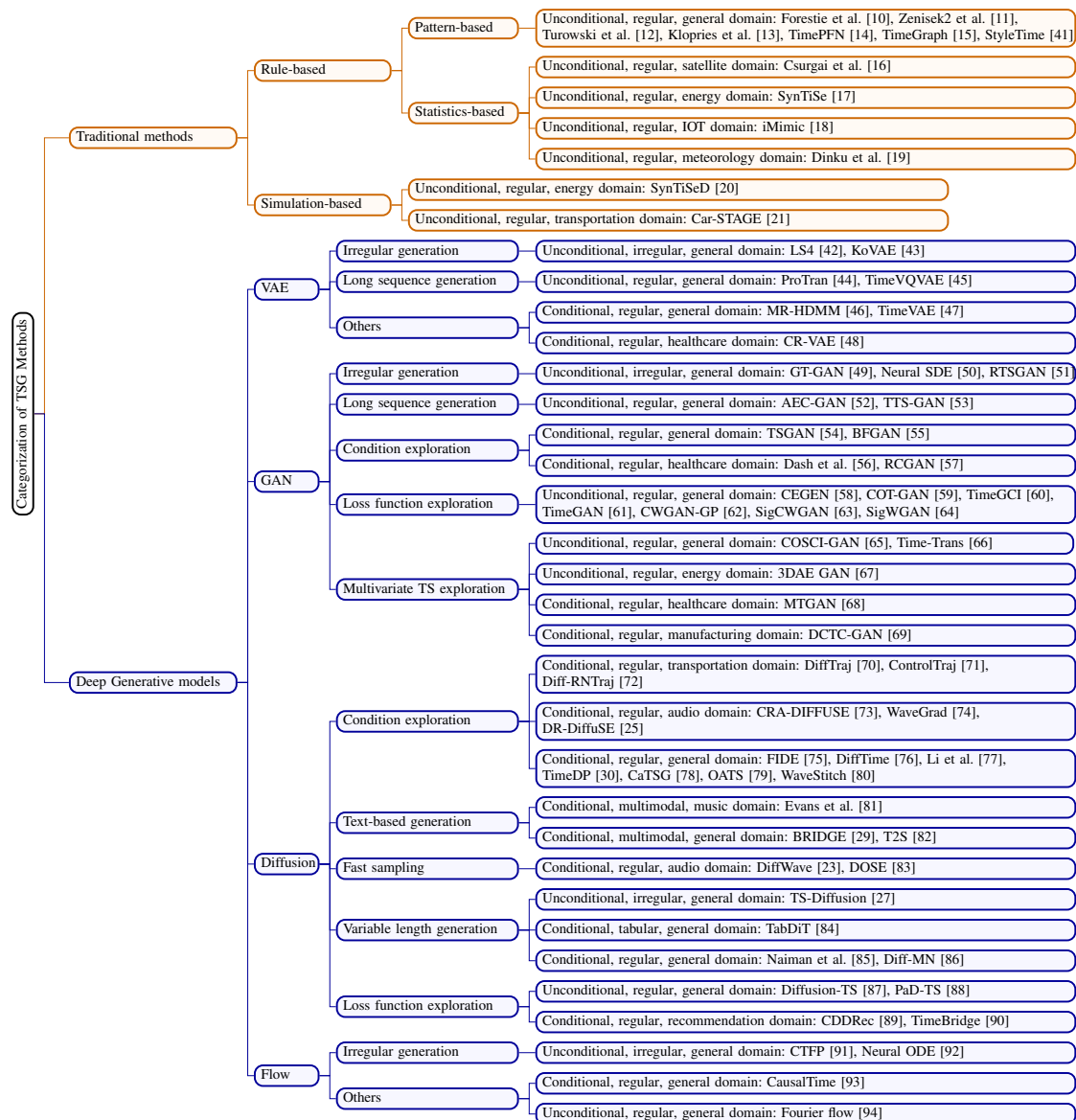


Figure 4. Research directions and core focuses of contemporary TSG methods.

3.2. Rule-Based Methods

3.2.1. Pattern-Based

To address data scarcity in TS applications, a line of *pure rule-based, pattern-driven* methods synthesizes data via explicit, human-designed rules rather than data-driven models. The synthetic data is used for pretraining TS models, aiming to augment training corpora with high-quality, controllable, and diverse synthetic data [22]. Existing synthesis methods used in this context can be broadly categorized into two classes.

The first class follows seasonal/trend/noise based generation, where synthetic series are constructed by composing interpretable components (e.g., trend, seasonality, noise, regime shifts) [41,42]. StyleTime [43] follows this paradigm by explicitly separating *trend* and *distributional style*, and transferring statistics such as autocorrelation, volatility, and power spectral density through analytical rules and gradient-based optimization, without deep learning. Forestier et al. [10] extend Dynamic Time Warping (DTW) barycenter averaging into a rule-based framework, where predefined weighting rules (Dirichlet averaging, nearest-neighbor selection, and distance-decayed weighting) control sequence fusion, alleviating overfitting in sparse datasets. Zenisek et al. [11] propose a configuration-driven generator that encodes explicit rules for stationarity (Gaussian processes), periodicity and

wear (sine/linear functions), historical replay, and noise injection, enabling controllable sensor-stream synthesis. Turowski et al. [12] formalize common smart-meter anomaly patterns into injection rules (e.g., zero windows or amplitude scaling), producing realistic anomalies that improve classical detectors. Klopries et al. [13] synthesize data via compositional rules over trend, seasonality, events, and noise, combined additively or multiplicatively for autoencoder pretraining. Similarly, Kegel et al. [44] generate scenario-specific time series by decomposing data into trend, seasonal, and residual components and modifying them according to predefined feature constraints. ChatTS [45] bridges time series and LLMs using attribute-level generation rules (e.g., trends, frequencies, noise, spikes) and rule-based instruction evolution.

The second class is based on kernel-driven synthesis, where time series are sampled from stochastic processes defined by kernel functions. Chronos [46] introduces KernelSynth, where kernel-composition rules (randomly combining basis kernels via addition or multiplication) generate synthetic temporal functions, and these functions are sampled from Gaussian processes to produce univariate time series. The synthetic data is used to pretrain the base model, enabling enhanced generalization for zero-shot forecasting. Further, TimePFN [14] introduces LMC-Synth, where kernel-composition rules generate latent temporal functions and linear coregionalization rules mix them into multivariate series, enabling strong zero- and few-shot generalization. CAUKER [47] presents a time series classification-focused synthetic framework, fusing Gaussian Process kernel composition with Structural Causal Models. It uses kernel-composition rules to form composite kernels and causal propagation rules to generate coherent, clustered series, enabling strong zero-shot generalization for the pretrained TS foundation model. Finally, TimeGraph [15] constructs rule-synthetic datasets for causal discovery by explicitly modeling dependencies, irregular sampling, missingness, and latent confounders, supporting systematic evaluation under controlled temporal complexity.

3.2.2. Statistics-Based TSG

Csurgai et al. [16] propose a Markov chain-based model for land mobile satellite links, combining a two-state fading process with a partitioned Fritchman Markov model to capture threshold-dependent fade durations, validated via Monte Carlo simulation. For wind power applications, Denaxas et al. [17] introduce SynTiSe, a multi-regime MCMC framework that preserves diurnal and seasonal patterns by fitting regime-specific models and matching key statistics such as PDF (Probability Density Function), ACF (Autocorrelation Function), and ramp characteristics. To address IoT data scarcity, Gkoulis et al. [18] develop iMimic, a modular statistics-driven library that combines trend, seasonality, and stochastic noise components, supporting both regular and irregular sampling with strong reproducibility guarantees. In climate modeling, Dinku et al. [19] generate historical rainfall time series by statistically fusing satellite estimates and rain gauge data, ensuring consistency in rainfall statistics across data-sparse regions. Focusing on **controllable generation**, GRATIS [48] synthesizes diverse time series using Gaussian mixture autoregressive models, with parameters tuned via genetic algorithms to meet user-specified targets.

Table 2. Summary and main papers about TSG. Blue indicates diffusion models, red is Generative Adversarial Network (GAN), green is Variational Autoencoder (VAE), yellow is normalizing flows and grey is others.

| Source | Data | Backbone | Task | Scenarios | Modality | Venue | Year |
|----------------------|--------------|-------------------|---------------|----------------|------------|----------------------|------|
| DiffWave [23] | Univariate | Diffusion | Conditional | Audio | Single | ICLR | 2021 |
| WaveGrad [49] | Univariate | Diffusion | Conditional | Audio | Single | ICLR | 2021 |
| SGMSE [24] | Univariate | Diffusion | Conditional | Audio | Single | Interspeech | 2022 |
| CDiffuSE [50] | Univariate | Diffusion | Conditional | General | Single | ICASSP | 2022 |
| DOSE [51] | Univariate | Diffusion | Conditional | Audio | Single | NeurIPS | 2023 |
| DR-DiffuSE [25] | Univariate | Diffusion | Unconditional | Audio | Single | AAAI | 2023 |
| CRA-DiffuSE [52] | Univariate | Diffusion | Conditional | Audio | Single | ICME | 2023 |
| DiffuASR [53] | Univariate | Diffusion | Conditional | Recommendation | Single | CIKM | 2023 |
| DreamRec [26] | Univariate | Diffusion | Conditional | Recommendation | Single | NeurIPS | 2023 |
| TimeDDPM [54] | Multivariate | Diffusion | Conditional | Industry | Single | IEEE Sensors Journal | 2023 |
| TS-Diffusion [27] | Multivariate | Diffusion | Conditional | General | Single | ArXiv | 2023 |
| DiffTraj [55] | Multivariate | Diffusion | Conditional | Transportation | Single | NeurIPS | 2023 |
| DiffCharge [56] | Multivariate | Diffusion | Conditional | Energy | Single | TSG | 2023 |
| CLDM [57] | Multivariate | Diffusion | Conditional | Energy | Single | TSTE | 2023 |
| Fu et al [58] | Multivariate | Diffusion | Conditional | Energy | Single | Energy and Buildings | 2024 |
| RF-Diffusion [28] | Multivariate | Diffusion | Conditional | Network | Single | MobiCom | 2024 |
| Klein et al. [59] | Multivariate | Diffusion | Conditional | Healthcare | Single | ArXiv | 2024 |
| FTS-Diffusion [60] | Multivariate | Diffusion | Conditional | General | Single | ICLR | 2024 |
| TIME WEAVER [8] | Multivariate | Diffusion | Conditional | General | Single | ICML | 2024 |
| FIDE [61] | Multivariate | Diffusion | Conditional | General | Single | NeurIPS | 2024 |
| Diffusion-TS [62] | Multivariate | Diffusion | Conditional | General | Single | ICLR | 2024 |
| Diff-RNTraj [63] | Multivariate | Diffusion | Conditional | Transportation | Single | TKDE | 2024 |
| ControlTraj [64] | Multivariate | Diffusion | Conditional | Transportation | Single | KDD | 2024 |
| PDRec [65] | Univariate | Diffusion | Conditional | Recommendation | Single | AAAI | 2024 |
| TSDM [66] | Univariate | Diffusion | Unconditional | Industry | Single | MSSP | 2024 |
| DiffsFormer [67] | Univariate | Diffusion | Conditional | Finance | Single | ArXiv | 2024 |
| CDDRec [68] | Univariate | Diffusion | Conditional | Recommendation | Single | PAKDD | 2024 |
| Wang et al. [69] | Univariate | Diffusion | Conditional | Energy | Single | TSG | 2024 |
| TarDiff [70] | Multivariate | Diffusion | Conditional | Healthcare | Single | KDD | 2025 |
| Li et al. [71] | Multivariate | Diffusion | Conditional | General | Single | ICLR | 2025 |
| PaD-TS [72] | Multivariate | Diffusion | Conditional | General | Single | ArXiv | 2025 |
| WaveStitch [73] | Multivariate | Diffusion | Conditional | General | Single | ArXiv | 2025 |
| BRIDGE [29] | Univariate | Diffusion | Conditional | General | Multimodal | ICML | 2025 |
| TimeDP [30] | Univariate | Diffusion | Conditional | General | Single | AAAI | 2025 |
| T2S [74] | Univariate | Diffusion | Conditional | General | Multimodal | IJCAI | 2025 |
| TSGDiff [74] | Multivariate | Diffusion | Unconditional | General | Single | AAAI | 2026 |
| CaTSG [75] | Multivariate | Diffusion | Conditional | General | Single | ArXiv | 2026 |
| OATS [76] | Multivariate | Diffusion | Conditional | General | Single | ArXiv | 2026 |
| Diff-MN [77] | Multivariate | Diffusion | Unconditional | General | Single | ArXiv | 2026 |
| C-RNN-GAN [78] | Multivariate | GAN | Unconditional | Music | Single | ArXiv | 2016 |
| RCGAN [79] | Multivariate | GAN | Conditional | Healthcare | Single | ArXiv | 2017 |
| Zhang et al. [7] | Multivariate | GAN | Conditional | Energy | Single | SmartGridComm | 2018 |
| CGAN [80] | Multivariate | GAN | Conditional | Finance | Single | ArXiv | 2019 |
| Dash et al. [81] | Multivariate | GAN | Conditional | Healthcare | Single | AIME | 2020 |
| COT-GAN [82] | Multivariate | GAN | Conditional | General | Single | NeurIPS | 2020 |
| Lin et al. [83] | Multivariate | GAN | Conditional | Network | Single | IMC | 2020 |
| TSGAN [84] | Multivariate | GAN | Conditional | General | Single | ArXiv | 2020 |
| CR-GAN [85] | Multivariate | GAN | Conditional | Manufacturing | Single | TII | 2020 |
| Pinceti et al. [86] | Multivariate | GAN | Conditional | Energy | Single | PESGM | 2021 |
| RTSGAN [87] | Multivariate | GAN | Unconditional | General | Single | ICDM | 2021 |
| Neural SDE [88] | Multivariate | GAN | Unconditional | General | Single | ICML | 2021 |
| Leznik et al. [89] | Multivariate | GAN | Unconditional | Network | Single | ICPE | 2021 |
| Sun et al. [90] | Univariate | GAN | Unconditional | Industry | Single | TII | 2022 |
| TsT-GAN [91] | Multivariate | GAN | Unconditional | General | Single | ArXiv | 2022 |
| PSA-GAN [92] | Multivariate | GAN | Unconditional | General | Single | ICLR | 2022 |
| COSCI-GAN [93] | Multivariate | GAN | Unconditional | General | Single | NeurIPS | 2022 |
| GT-GAN [94] | Multivariate | GAN | Unconditional | General | Single | NeurIPS | 2022 |
| CEGEN [95] | Multivariate | GAN | Unconditional | General | Single | AAAI | 2022 |
| BFGAN [96] | Multivariate | GAN | Conditional | General | Single | TKDE | 2022 |
| MTGAN [97] | Multivariate | GAN | Conditional | Healthcare | Single | TKDE | 2023 |
| AEC-GAN [98] | Multivariate | GAN | Unconditional | General | Single | AAAI | 2023 |
| ITF-GAN [99] | Multivariate | GAN | Unconditional | General | Single | KBS | 2024 |
| CWGAN-GP [100] | Multivariate | GAN | Conditional | Transportation | Single | ESWA | 2025 |
| 3DAE GAN [101] | Multivariate | GAN | Conditional | Energy | Single | TII | 2025 |
| DCTC-GAN [102] | Multivariate | GAN | Conditional | Manufacturing | Single | KBS | 2025 |
| MR-HDMM [103] | Multivariate | VAE | Conditional | General | Single | ICML | 2018 |
| ProTran [104] | Multivariate | VAE | Unconditional | General | Single | NeurIPS | 2021 |
| TimeVAE [105] | Multivariate | VAE | Conditional | General | Single | ArXiv | 2021 |
| LS4 [106] | Multivariate | VAE | Unconditional | General | Single | ICML | 2023 |
| TimeVQVAE [107] | Multivariate | VAE | Unconditional | General | Single | ICML | 2023 |
| CR-VAE [108] | Multivariate | VAE | Conditional | Healthcare | Single | AAAI | 2023 |
| KoVAE [109] | Multivariate | VAE | Conditional | General | Single | ICLR | 2024 |
| AVATAR [110] | Multivariate | VAE | Unconditional | General | Single | SDM | 2025 |
| NM-VQTS [111] | Univariate | VAE | Unconditional | General | Single | ArXiv | 2025 |
| Neural ODE [112] | Multivariate | VAE | Unconditional | General | Single | NeurIPS | 2018 |
| CTFP [113] | Multivariate | Normalizing flow | Unconditional | General | Single | NeurIPS | 2020 |
| Fourier flow [114] | Multivariate | Normalizing flow | Unconditional | General | Single | ICLR | 2021 |
| CausalTime [115] | Multivariate | Normalizing flow | Unconditional | General | Single | ICLR | 2023 |
| Csurgai et al. [16] | Univariate | Markov | Unconditional | Satellite | Single | MWCS | 2007 |
| Dinku et al. [19] | Univariate | Statistics | Unconditional | Meteorology | Single | IJC | 2016 |
| SynTfSe [17] | Multivariate | Markov | Unconditional | Energy | Single | SysCon | 2016 |
| Forestie et al. [10] | Univariate | Rule | Unconditional | General | Single | ICDM | 2017 |
| Zenisek et al. [11] | Multivariate | Rule | Unconditional | Industry | Single | IFAC-PapersOnLine | 2018 |
| Turovski et al. [12] | Univariate | Rule | Unconditional | Energy | Single | ACM e-Energy | 2022 |
| Kloppies et al. [13] | Univariate | Rule | Unconditional | General | Single | ETFA | 2022 |
| SynTfSeD [20] | Multivariate | Simulation | Unconditional | Energy | Single | MSCPES | 2023 |
| TimeGraph [15] | Univariate | Rule | Unconditional | General | Single | ArXiv | 2025 |
| iMimic [18] | Univariate | Statistics | Unconditional | General | Single | IOT | 2025 |
| Aloni et al. [116] | Univariate | Fourier transform | Unconditional | Environment | Single | EMS | 2025 |
| SBTS [117] | Multivariate | SDE | Unconditional | General | Single | ArXiv | 2025 |
| TimePFN [14] | Multivariate | Rule | Unconditional | General | Single | AAAI | 2025 |
| Car-STAGE [21] | Multivariate | Simulation | Unconditional | Transportation | Single | ArXiv | 2025 |
| CENTS [118] | Multivariate | General framework | Conditional | General | Single | ArXiv | 2025 |

3.3. Simulation-Based TSG

It produces data by explicitly simulating real-world system dynamics, rather than relying on purely statistical or neural models. SynTiSeD [20] follows this paradigm for smart-living energy data by extracting appliance power consumption patterns from real measurements and simulating resident behaviors through predefined action rules (e.g., appliance on/off events), enabling multi-household scalability, modeling of rare scenarios, and ground-truth generation via interactions among households, residents, and appliances. In autonomous driving, Car-STAGE [21] builds on the CARLA [119] simulator to generate high-dimensional sensor time series by simulating complete driving environments, producing RGB, LiDAR, and Inertial Measurement Unit (IMU) sequences together with actor-level ground truth through physics-based interaction simulation.

3.4. Deep Generative Models

3.4.1. Variational Autoencoders (VAEs)

Next, we review representative VAE-based approaches for TSG across several key research directions.

Irregular generation. Chen et al. [112] introduce Neural Ordinary Differential Equations (Neural ODEs) into VAEs, proposing Latent ODEs to model irregularly sampled time series in continuous time. By parameterizing latent dynamics with ODEs solved by black-box solvers, the model handles arbitrary time intervals with constant memory cost and supports generation via continuous normalizing flows. Building on this, Zhou et al. [106] propose LS4, which combines ODE-based latent dynamics with the convolutional efficiency of deep state space models (S4). LS4 injects stochasticity across the entire latent trajectory and replaces explicit hidden-state updates with Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) based convolutions, enabling efficient modeling of sharp transitions and achieving significantly faster training on long, irregular sequences. Further, Naiman et al. [109] propose KoVAE by incorporating Koopman theory into the VAE prior, modeling latent dynamics with linear Koopman operators. Coupled with an NCDE embedding to handle irregular sampling, this design improves stability and interpretability while delivering robust generation quality across regular and irregular time series.

Long sequence generation. For long-horizon synthesis, VAEs become particularly effective when combined with Transformers. ProTran [104] introduces a probabilistic Transformer that integrates state-space modeling with self-attention in the latent space, enabling non-Markovian, long-range dependency modeling. By using hierarchical stochastic latent layers, ProTran supports non-autoregressive long-sequence generation with uncertainty estimation, outperforming RNN- and SSM (State-Space Models)-based baselines. Leveraging vector quantization, TimeVQVAE [107] proposes a two-stage framework for long TSG. It first decomposes sequences in the time-frequency domain into low- and high-frequency components, encodes and quantizes them into discrete tokens, and then employs bidirectional Transformers to model global temporal structure. This design stabilizes training and enables both unconditional and conditional long-sequence generation. Further, SDformer [120] further leverages the VQ-VAE with similarity-driven vector quantization to learn high-quality discrete token representations of time series, and then employs discrete Transformer models to model token-level data distribution for generation. The discrete-token mechanism reduces the modeling complexity of long sequences, and when combined with the long-range modeling capability of Transformers, it enables SDFormer to perform effectively on long-sequence generation tasks.

Others. We briefly review VAE-based approaches that target multi-rate modeling, interpretability, and causal generation. Che et al. [103] propose the Multi-Rate Hierarchical Deep Markov Model (MR-HDMM) for multi-rate multivariate time series. It employs a hierarchical latent structure with learnable switches and auxiliary connections to directly model dependencies across different sampling rates, avoiding explicit up-/down-sampling, and supports generation, forecasting, and interpolation via variational inference. Desai et al. [105] introduce TimeVAE, which balances realism, interpretability, and efficiency. It includes a convolutional VAE for end-to-end generation and an interpretable variant whose decoder explicitly models level, trend, and seasonality, enabling structured generation while

benefiting from the denoising effect of the VAE bottleneck. Li et al. [108] propose the Causal Recurrent VAE, which embeds Granger causality into a recurrent VAE. By using a sparsity-regularized multi-head decoder to learn a causal adjacency matrix and an error-compensation module for noise, it enables causality-aware, high-fidelity TSG with causal graph discovery.

3.4.2. Generative Adversarial Networks (GANs)

Below, we review representative GAN-based methods, highlighting their innovations in irregular sampling, conditional control, loss design, and multivariate modeling.

Irregular generation. Bridging GANs and stochastic processes, Neural SDEs [88] formulate TSG in continuous time by using neural stochastic differential equations as generators within a Wasserstein GAN. Noise is injected via Brownian motion to produce stochastic trajectories, while a neural-controlled differential equation (NCDE) discriminator handles irregular sampling. This adversarial setup learns arbitrary drift and diffusion functions directly from data, outperforming latent ODEs and continuous normalizing flows in capturing irregularity and stochasticity. GT-GAN [94] unifies regular and irregular generation by combining GANs, autoencoders, and neural differential equations. An autoencoder maps sequences to fixed-dimensional latent vectors, which are adversarially generated and decoded into continuous-time paths, enabling flexible resampling under missing or sparse observations. RTSGAN [87] addresses variable-length and missing-value time series via an autoencoder–Wasserstein GAN framework with a length-invariant latent space. Its extended version explicitly models missingness patterns by first predicting observation masks and timestamps, then generating values, yielding superior realism on clinical datasets with severe irregularity. Finally, SparseGAN employs sparse self-attention with the 1.5-entmax transformation to model cross-time feature dependencies, selectively ignoring irrelevant or missing time steps and avoiding fixed-interval assumptions in irregular TSG.

Long sequence generation. AEC-GAN mitigates distribution shift and bias accumulation in autoregressive generation by introducing an error correction module that reconstructs original data from adversarially perturbed sequences, enabling dynamic correction of historical biases and stable generation of arbitrarily long sequences. In contrast, TTS-GAN avoids the limitations of RNN-based GANs by adopting a pure transformer encoder for both generator and discriminator. By representing time series as $1 \times W$ images, partitioning them into patches with positional encoding, and leveraging self-attention to capture global temporal dependencies, it efficiently generates realistic long multi-dimensional sequences without recurrence.

Condition exploration. TSGAN [84] adopts a two-stage WGAN [121] architecture for few-shot settings, where one WGAN generates spectrograms from noise and a conditional WGAN synthesizes time series conditioned on these frequency-domain representations, effectively exploiting spectral priors to alleviate data scarcity. To address class imbalance, BFGAN [96] introduces an *importance label* condition derived from kNN and local outlier probability scores, guiding generation toward class-boundary and sparse regions via a CatGAN-style [122] auxiliary classifier. For multi-label clinical EHR data, MTGAN [97] uses a smooth conditional matrix that propagates disease labels across visits, mitigating rare-disease imbalance. RCGAN [79] conditions recurrent GANs on auxiliary labels (e.g., patient states) to generate realistic multivariate sequences, while HealthGAN [81] conditions generation on both static covariates and time series summary statistics, enabling joint synthesis of longitudinal signals and covariate-dependent dynamics.

Loss function exploration. TimeGAN [123] augments adversarial training with a supervised autoregressive loss that aligns stepwise conditional distributions between real and generated data, improving temporal consistency and training stability. CEGEN [95] derives its loss from Euler-discretized stochastic differential equations, introducing a conditional Wasserstein loss that explicitly matches transition distributions to accurately estimate drift and volatility. COT-GAN [82] further refines optimal-transport-based losses by incorporating causal constraints and entropic regularization, ensuring non-anticipative temporal dependencies while enabling efficient Sinkhorn optimization [124]. Beyond adversarial losses, TimeGCI [125] combines moment matching with a contrastive energy-

based objective to stabilize long-horizon generation, and TsT-GAN [91] enhances Transformer-based GANs with masked modeling and moment-matching losses alongside LS-GAN loss [126]. In contrast, SigCWGAN [127] replaces adversarial training with a supervised Sig- W_1 [128] loss based on path signatures, replacing the trainable parametric discriminator with an analytic discriminant criterion and substantially improving training stability. Finally, CWGAN-GP [100] adapts conditional Wasserstein GANs with gradient penalty to data-scarce settings, where its balanced loss design helps better generate synthetic electric vehicle demand time series and directly improves the downstream forecasting task.

Multivariate TS exploration. COSCI-GAN [93] employs channel-wise generators driven by a shared latent noise and a central discriminator, preserving both per-channel fidelity and cross-channel correlations. 3DAE-GAN [101] combines autoencoders with 3D convolutions to reshape 1D MTS into 3D representations, enabling joint modeling of temporal and inter-feature dependencies without external conditions. Conditional MTS generation further incorporates side information to guide synthesis. MTGAN [97] conditions on disease labels using a GRU-based generator and a smooth conditional matrix to improve rare-disease generation under data imbalance. DCTC-GAN [102] leverages industrial labels and a dual-channel Transformer (temporal and spatial encoders) to jointly capture long-range temporal dynamics and sensor correlations. Time-Trans [129] integrates autoencoders and GANs, combining TCNs for local patterns and Transformers for global dependencies via parallel layers and bidirectional cross-attention. Finally, RCGAN [79] conditions on auxiliary labels and uses recurrent networks in both generator and discriminator, enabling controllable generation of real-valued multivariate time series.

3.4.3. Diffusion Models

Next, we begin by introducing diffusion models for TSG with condition exploration.

Condition exploration. DiffTraj [55] introduces a conditional diffusion framework for trajectory generation, using a Traj-UNet with residual blocks and multi-scale fusion to model spatio-temporal dynamics, while embedding attributes such as velocity and departure time via Wide & Deep networks to guide denoising. ControlTraj [64] extends this idea with topology-aware conditions, employing a Masked Road Autoencoder (RoadMAE) to encode road structure and a GeoUNet with geographic attention to fuse structural and trajectory attributes for structurally consistent generation. FIDE [61] focuses on extreme-value preservation, using block maxima (peak values within predefined time windows) as explicit conditions and incorporating the Generalized Extreme Value (GEV) distribution into the loss to align both tail behavior and overall distributions. DiffTime [130] enables flexible conditional control without retraining by imposing differentiable constraints (e.g., fixed values, trends, extrema, and multivariate relations) at inference time to steer a pretrained diffusion model. Li et al. [71] propose risk-sensitive diffusion, which conditions generation on auxiliary risk vectors encoding sample quality (e.g., imputation uncertainty or measurement error). These vectors parameterize a risk-sensitive SDE (stochastic differential equation) during denoising, enabling robust conditional generation under noisy and non-Gaussian time series. For multi-domain generation, TimeDP [30] introduces label-free domain prompts derived from prototype importance weights encoding basic temporal patterns, supporting adaptation to unseen domains. Similarly, OATS [76] leverages prototypes of high-value samples as conditioning signals to dynamically generate high-quality data during downstream model training, thereby enabling effective data augmentation. CaTSG [75] extends conditional TSG by incorporating Pearl's causal ladder to enable observational, interventional, and counterfactual generation, thereby mitigating spurious correlations induced by unobserved confounders. It leverages a diffusion framework with backdoor-adjusted guidance and a learnable environment bank. WaveStitch [73] conditions diffusion on temporal and geographic features, handles unseen conditions via constraint-signal interaction, and accelerates generation through parallel segment synthesis with stitching. DOSE [51] mitigates condition collapse via diffusion dropout, randomly discarding intermediate samples during training to strengthen reliance on conditioning signals.

Text-based generation. Evans et al. [131] compress raw audio time series into compact latent codes via an autoencoder, align text and audio semantics using a CLAP-based embedding model [132],

and employ a diffusion transformer (DiT) with block-wise attention and rotary positional encoding to support long-sequence generation. Similarly, Woo et al. [133] use a pre-trained BERT language model to parse unstructured text descriptions, and cross-attention mechanisms fuse text embeddings from BERT with feature maps of the temporal U-Net, enabling the diffusion model to align generation with text semantics. Recently, BRIDGE [29] addresses cross-domain and constrained generation by treating text as the control signal: it uses an LLM-based multi-agent framework to synthesize text-time series pairs and integrates semantic prototypes with textual descriptions in a hybrid diffusion model to enhance controllability. Further, VerbalTS [134] proposes a multi-focal text processor to extract structured multi-semantic representations (covering diffusion-stage, temporal, and spatial perspectives) via learnable anchors. These text features are then dynamically integrated into the diffusion process through a semantic alignment adapter. During denoising, a multi-view noise estimator models time series from temporal, spatial, and diffusion dimensions, using text-guided parameters to refine generation. Emphasizing domain-agnostic text-to-series generation, T2S [74] proposes a diffusion framework that unifies natural language and time series across domains, combining a length-adaptive VAE for variable-length encoding with flow matching and a DiT-based cross-modal alignment scheme [135], enabling arbitrary-length sequence generation.

Fast sampling. DiffWave [23] is a diffusion-based audio waveform generator that adopts a non-autoregressive bidirectional dilated convolution architecture, and accelerates sampling by collapsing hundreds of training diffusion steps into a small number of inference steps through a carefully designed variance schedule. Building on fast sampling, DOSE [51] further reduces inference cost via a model-agnostic two-step scheme: a *coarse estimation* + *fine correction* process replaces iterative denoising, and conditioning signals (e.g., noisy speech) are embedded once into an adaptive prior rather than injected at every step. as a model-agnostic method, DOSE can reuse standard diffusion backbones such as DiffWave without additional architectural complexity, achieving substantial sampling speedups.

Variable length generation. T2S [74] introduces a length-adaptive VAE (LA-VAE) that encodes variable-length time series into unified latent spaces via dynamic up/downsampling, combined with a latent consistency loss and interleaved multi-length training to avoid forgetting. A DiT denoiser with flow matching then enables arbitrary-length generation. To handle irregular and high-dimensional sequences, TS-Diffusion [27] implicitly supports variable lengths through a point-process formulation and neural ODE (Ordinary Differential Equation) encoder, learning continuous-time representations without fixed-length constraints, while its ODE decoder naturally regenerates sequences of varying durations. Extending diffusion to tabular time series, TabDiT [136] employs a non-holistic VAE to encode rows independently and a DiT to model temporal dependencies, explicitly predicting padding rows as end-of-sequence markers to allow flexible output lengths. Naiman et al. [137] map TS of arbitrary length into images via invertible transforms, apply visual diffusion models to variable-size images, and invert them back, unifying short to ultra-long sequence generation without modifying model architectures. Finally, Diff-MN [77] is a continuous TSG framework that enhances standard NCDE with a Mixture-of-Experts (MoE) dynamics function and a decoupled architecture for dynamics-focused training. It employs a diffusion model to parameterize NCDE temporal dynamics, jointly learning the distribution of TS data and MoE weights, enabling sample-specific MoE-NCDE for continuous generation of variable length and high-frequency TS with richer contextual information.

Loss function exploration. Diffusion-TS [62] improves interpretability by directly reconstructing clean time series at each diffusion step (instead of noise), using a Fourier-based loss that jointly preserves time- and frequency-domain characteristics, together with a Transformer encoder-decoder that disentangles trend, seasonality, and residual components. Addressing population-level distribution shifts overlooked by Diffusion-TS, PaD-TS [72] introduces a population-aware objective that augments reconstruction loss with Maximum Mean Discrepancy (MMD) regularization to better preserve value distributions and functional dependencies across datasets. For conditional sequential tasks, CDDRec [68] proposes a cross-divergence loss based on KL divergence to enforce ranking awareness, combined with contrastive (InfoNCE) objectives to mitigate collapse and over-smoothing

in diffusion-based recommendation. Finally, TimeBridge [138] replaces the fixed Gaussian prior with a diffusion bridge, enabling data- and time-dependent priors (e.g., Gaussian-process-based) and scale-preserving constraints for conditional generation. To support these flexible priors, it redesigns the loss with Fourier-term complements and adjusted weighting schedules for more effective optimization. TSGDiff [139] is a graph-based framework for multivariate TSG that models TS as dynamic graphs, leveraging a graph neural network encoder–decoder and a latent diffusion process. A hybrid loss combining reconstruction, KL divergence, denoising, and Fourier losses is employed to effectively capture structural distributions.

3.4.4. Normalizing Flows

Chen et al. [112] introduce Neural Ordinary Differential Equations (Neural ODEs) as continuous normalizing flows by replacing discrete network layers with ODE solvers, achieving constant-memory backpropagation via the adjoint method and tractable trace-based Jacobian computation. While this ensures continuity in latent dynamics, continuity across observed time points is not explicitly enforced. To address this, Deng et al. [113] propose the Continuous-Time Flow Process (CTFP), which deforms a Wiener process via a dynamic normalizing flow to model complex observable processes, also enabling efficient likelihood estimation, sampling, and interpolation for irregular time series. Beyond pure flow-based modeling, Cheng et al. [115] integrate normalizing flows into the CausalTime framework to generate realistic time series with explicit ground-truth causal graphs: a causally disentangled neural network models dynamics, flows capture noise distributions, and causal structures are extracted via DeepSHAP [140,141] or prior knowledge to decompose autoregressive dynamics into causal and residual components. Shifting to the frequency domain, Alaa et al. [114] propose Fourier Flows, which apply normalizing flows after transforming time series via the Discrete Fourier Transform. By learning spectral filters through affine coupling layers and bidirectional RNNs, this approach efficiently handles variable-length and irregularly sampled sequences, leveraging FFT for fast Jacobian computation while enabling expressive time-domain transformations.

4. Applications

TSG technology demonstrates significant practical value in alleviating data scarcity, enhancing model training, and supporting scenario simulation across diverse domains. This section reviews its typical applications in finance, healthcare, industry, and energy, including the core generative methods and their practical contributions in each field. The key information is summarized in Table 3.

Table 3. Summary of Generative Time Series Models Across Application Fields.

| Application Field | Source | Model | Core Summary | Application Task |
|------------------------------|--------------------------------|--|---|--|
| Finance | Fu et al. [80] | GAN | Risk analysis (VaR/ES estimation, CCAR scenario generation) | Risk analysis, time series forecasting |
| | Gao et al. [67] | Transformer + Diffusion | Stock factor augmentation, mitigate data collision | Stock prediction |
| | Huang et al. [60] | Diffusion | Generate irregular/scale-invariant financial time series | Stock prediction (data augmentation) |
| | Ericson et al. [142] | GAN | Comparative analysis for VaR estimation, yield curve modeling | VaR estimation, yield curve modeling |
| | Hamdouche et al. [143] | Schrödinger Bridge (Generative) | Deep hedging of options to enhance strategy robustness | Financial risk management |
| | MMD (Kernel-based) | MMD (Kernel-based) | Synthesize stylized financial time series | Reinforcement learning-based portfolio management |
| Healthcare | Dogariu et al. [145] | GAN | Synthesize US stock OHLC prices/log returns | Forecasting model training (data augmentation) |
| | Wiese et al. [146] | GAN | Generate S&P 500 series with realistic market dynamics | Trading strategy design, financial valuation |
| | Esteban et al. [79] | GAN | Generate realistic ICU medical time series (heart/respiratory rate) | Early warning system training, medical simulation |
| | Dash et al. [81] | GAN | Synthetic time series with static covariates (age/gender) | In-hospital mortality/decompensation prediction |
| | Lu et al. [147] | GAN | Address rare disease imbalance in EHRs | Heart failure/Parkinson's disease prediction |
| | Kuo et al. [148] | Diffusion | Generate mixed-type longitudinal EHRs | Clinical decision support (RL agent training) |
| Industry | Schürch et al. [149] | GAN | Personalized insulin therapy, glucose trajectory prediction | Diabetes treatment optimization |
| | Zhu et al. [150] | GAN | Personalized glucose time series for Type 1 Diabetes | Glucose prediction, pre-clinical trials |
| | Klein et al. [59] | Diffusion | Generate subject-specific EEG signals (ERP paradigms) | BCI research (alleviate data scarcity) |
| | Deng et al. [70] (TarDiff) | Diffusion | Task-oriented synthetic EHR time series | Mortality/ICU stay prediction, disease diagnosis |
| | Zhang et al. [85] | GAN | Remaining Useful Life (RUL) estimation | RUL estimation |
| | Zhang et al. [151] | Transformer + GAN | Multivariate TSG | RUL prediction |
| Energy | Zemisek et al. [11] | Rule-based Simulation | Stream synthetic time series for condition monitoring | Predictive maintenance (MQTT protocol) |
| | Sun et al. [90] | GAN | Small-sample online reliability assessment | Online reliability evaluation |
| | Dai et al. [54] (TimeDDPM) | Diffusion | Diffusion-based generation with spatiotemporal extraction | Industrial soft sensing (quality prediction) |
| | Yi et al. [66] (TSDM) | Generative Model | Vibration signal generation for rotating machinery | Small-sample fault diagnosis |
| | Ma et al. [152] | GAN + CNN-BiLSTM | Address EHA degradation data scarcity | EHA degradation prediction |
| | Shangguan et al. [153] | GAN + Gamma Process | Train wheel wear data generation | High-speed railway safety (wear prediction) |
| Energy | Denaxas et al. [154] (SynTiSe) | MCMC (Probabilistic) | High-resolution wind power data generation | Power system planning |
| | Zhang et al. [7] | GAN | Alleviate smart grid data scarcity/privacy issues | Smart grid downstream tasks (data augmentation) |
| | Pinceti et al. [86] | GAN | Transmission-level load data (hourly week-long profiles) | Power system simulation |
| | Meiser et al. [20] (SynTiSeD) | Multi-agent Simulation | Synthetic energy data generation | Scenario simulation, NILM algorithm enhancement |
| | Dong et al. [57] | Diffusion | Short-term wind power scenario generation (NWP integration) | Stochastic unit commitment (reduce dispatch cost) |
| | Li et al. [56] (DiffCharge) | Diffusion | EV charging scenario generation (battery/station-level) | Grid operation, day-ahead market bidding |
| | Fu et al. [58] | Diffusion | Long-term annual building energy data generation | Building energy data analysis |
| | Wang and Zhang [69] | Diffusion | Customized electricity load profile synthesis | Load forecasting, anomaly detection |
| | Zhang and Sikdar [101] | GAN + Autoencoder | Multivariate smart grid data (household/EV) | Smart grid analysis (privacy/anti-adversarial) |
| | Ye et al. [155] | Transformer + GAN | Day-ahead wind power scenario generation (error/seasonal) | Power system dispatching (temporal correlation) |
| | Li et al. [156] | GMM-HMM (Probabilistic) | Correlated wind farm power output time series | Power system planning (spatiotemporal correlation) |
| | Talbot et al. [157] | FVARMA (Time Series) | Correlated synthetic time series (solar/electricity demand) | Hybrid energy system uncertainty analysis |
| Brentan et al. [158] | Statistical Model | Water demand time series (trends/randomness/climate) | Water network modeling, demand forecasting | |
| Tabeshpour and Belvasi [159] | Fourier Series (Statistical) | Artificial ocean wave time series | WEC dynamic analysis, design optimization | |

4.1. Finance

Fu et al. [80] apply CGANs to financial risk analysis, enabling Value at Risk (VaR) and Expected Shortfall (ES) estimation, Comprehensive Capital Analysis and Review (CCAR) scenario generation, and economic time series forecasting. Gao et al. [67] propose DiffFormer for stock factor augmentation, improving forecasting performance on China Securities Index 300 (CSI300) and China Securities Index 800 (CSI800) while alleviating data collision issues. Huang et al. [60] develop FTS-Diffusion to generate irregular and scale-invariant financial time series, effectively reducing stock prediction errors via data augmentation. Ericson et al. [142] compare historical simulation, parametric models, and deep generative approaches (e.g., CGAN, CWGAN) for VaR estimation and yield curve modeling. Hamdouche et al. [143] introduce a Schrödinger bridge (SB)-based generative model that produces realistic synthetic time series and demonstrates strong utility in financial risk management, particularly for deep hedging of options, improving strategy robustness, and reducing replication error.

Lu and Sester [144] employ Maximum Mean Discrepancy (MMD) with a signature kernel to generate stylized financial time series, enabling downstream applications such as reinforcement-learning-based portfolio management. In a similar application-oriented way, Dogariu et al. [145] use GAN variants to synthesize U.S. stock market data (e.g., OHLC prices and log returns) to enhance forecasting model training, while Wiese et al. [146] propose Quant GANs to generate realistic Standard & Poor's 500 (S&P 500) financial series, supporting trading strategy design and financial valuation tasks.

4.2. Healthcare

Esteban et al. [79] apply Recurrent Conditional GANs (RCGAN) to synthesize real-valued ICU time series (e.g., heart rate, respiratory rate) for training early warning systems and medical simulators. Dash et al. [81] propose HealthGAN to jointly generate temporal signals and static covariates (e.g., age, gender), validating its utility on MIMIC-III clinical tasks such as mortality and decompensation prediction. To address disease imbalance in EHRs, Lu et al. [147] introduce MTGAN to generate multi-label patient diagnosis sequences from MIMIC-III/IV, improving predictions for diseases like heart failure and Parkinson's. Kuo et al. [148] leverage diffusion probabilistic models to generate mixed-type longitudinal EHRs (numeric, binary, categorical), supporting reinforcement-learning-based clinical decision making for hypotension, HIV therapy, and sepsis with reduced privacy risk.

In personalized treatment modeling, Schürch et al. [149] generate insulin strategies and glucose trajectories for hospitalized diabetes patients, while Zhu et al. [150] propose GluGAN to synthesize personalized glucose series for Type 1 Diabetes, aiding prediction models and pre-clinical evaluation. Beyond EHRs, Klein et al. [59] develop a conditional diffusion model to generate subject- and task-specific EEG signals for Brain-Computer Interfaces, and TarDiff [70] produces task-oriented synthetic healthcare time series for mortality, ICU stay prediction, and physiological signal-based diagnosis across multiple datasets, alleviating data scarcity and class imbalance.

4.3. Industry

Zhang et al. [85] apply a convolutional recurrent GAN to generate degradation time series for remaining useful life (RUL) estimation, validated on NASA aero-engine and lithium-ion battery datasets, while Zhang et al. [151] further propose a dual-channel Transformer conditional GAN for multivariate generation, improving RUL prediction on turbofan engines and FEMTO bearings. For industrial monitoring, Zenisek et al. [11] developed a configuration file-driven software tool to stream synthetic time series data, simulating condition monitoring of industrial production plants via the Message Queue Telemetry Transfer protocol for predictive maintenance. Sun et al. [90] presented a worm Wasserstein generative adversarial network for small-sample online reliability assessment, demonstrated through the online reliability evaluation of Lithium-ion battery cells with extremely limited time series data. TimeDDPM [54] leverages diffusion-based generation for industrial soft sensing, augmenting limited samples to improve quality-variable prediction in dynamic processes, while TSDM [66] targets vibration signal generation for rotating machinery, enhancing small-sample fault diagnosis across bearing datasets. Finally, TimeGAN-based solutions are applied to degradation prediction in practice: the CNN-BiLSTM-Attention model combined with TimeGAN [152] addresses data scarcity in electro-hydrostatic actuator degradation, and Shangguan et al. [153] propose an improved TimeGAN with a stationary gamma process to generate train wheel wear data for reliable degradation prediction and railway safety assurance.

4.4. Energy

SynTiSe [154] employs a modified multi-regime Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) method with percentile-based discretization to generate high-resolution wind power time series for power system planning. To address data scarcity and privacy in smart grids, Zhang et al. [7] and Pincet et al. [86] propose conditional GANs for distribution- and transmission-level load data, respectively, generating realistic customized load profiles for system simulation, while SynTiSeD [20] extends this line with a multi-agent framework for large-scale synthetic energy data generation, improving Nonintrusive Load Monitoring (NILM) performance. Diffusion models are increasingly adopted in energy applications: the Conditional Latent Diffusion Model (CLDM) [57] leverages Numerical Weather Prediction (NWP) data for short-term wind power scenario generation, reducing dispatch costs in stochastic unit commitment; DiffCharge [56] generates electric vehicle (EV) charging scenarios at battery and station levels for grid operation and market bidding; and Fu et al. [58] design a metadata-driven conditional diffusion model for long-term building energy data synthesis. Wang and Zhang [69] further propose an attention-based conditional diffusion approach for customized electricity load profile generation, supporting load forecasting and anomaly detection. Beyond diffusion, Zhang and Sikdar [101] introduce a 3D Autoencoder GAN (3DAE-GAN) to synthesize multivariate smart-grid data (household consumption and EV driving) with privacy protection, while Ye et al. [155] combine Informer [160] and TimeGAN [123] for day-ahead wind power scenarios with improved temporal correlation. Classical statistical models remain relevant: Li et al. [156] use a Gaussian Mixture Model–Hidden Markov Model (GMM-HMM) for correlated multi-wind-farm generation, Talbot et al. [157] propose Fourier vector autoregressive moving average models for energy system uncertainty analysis, Brentan et al. [158] generate urban water demand time series, and Tabeshpour and Belvasi [159] synthesize ocean wave time series for wave energy converter design and analysis.

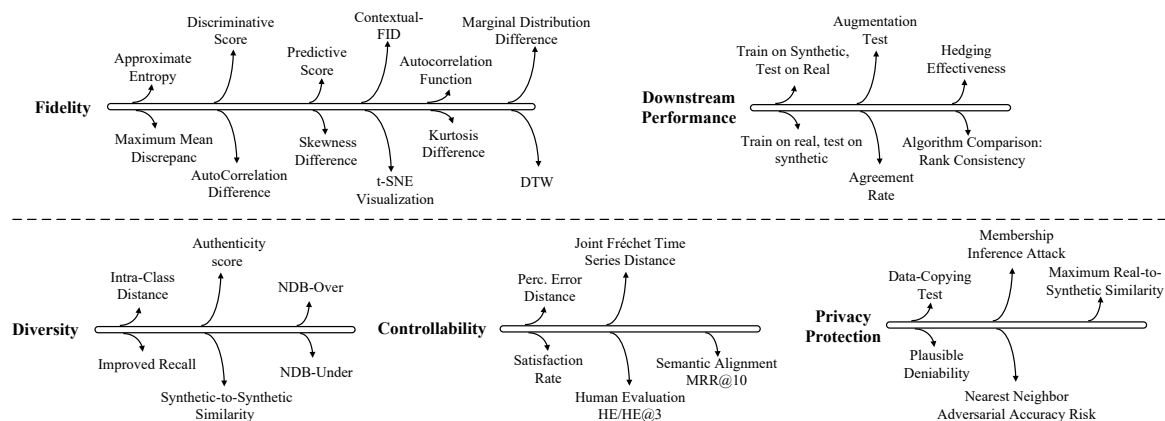


Figure 5. An overview of metrics for evaluating TSG quality across the dimensions of fidelity, diversity, controllability, downstream-task performance, and privacy protection.

5. Evaluation

Existing evaluations mainly focus on data quality and utility, with fidelity and downstream task performance as the primary dimensions [35,161,162]. By contrast, controllability, the ability to satisfy explicit generation conditions, is rarely considered as an independent evaluation dimension and is often absorbed into conditional generation or fidelity-based assessments.

In this review, we organize evaluation criteria into five core dimensions: *Fidelity*, *Diversity*, *Controllability*, *Downstream performance*, and *Privacy protection*. This categorization explicitly elevates controllability while maintaining a balanced focus on intrinsic quality, practical utility, and ethical considerations, providing a concise and application-oriented framework for comparing state-of-the-art TSG methods. A comprehensive overview of all metrics is shown in Figure 5.

5.1. Fidelity

Fidelity (also referred to as realism or authenticity) measures how closely synthetic time series resemble real data in terms of statistical properties, temporal dynamics, correlation structures, and overall distributional characteristics [163]. High fidelity is fundamental, as synthetic data that fails to capture real data characteristics is unlikely to be useful in downstream applications.

Approximate Entropy (ApEn) [164,165] measures the regularity and complexity of a time series by quantifying how often similar patterns persist over time. It is computed per channel for real and synthetic data, with squared differences used for comparison. Lower values indicate better preservation of temporal complexity. Discriminative Score (DS) [94,109] evaluates realism by training a GRU/LSTM-based classifier to distinguish real from synthetic series. Lower classification accuracy (or higher error) is better, as it implies synthetic data is indistinguishable from real data. Predictive Score (PS) [94,109,125] trains a forecasting model (e.g., GRU/LSTM) on synthetic data and evaluates it on real data using MAE or RMSE. Lower prediction error indicates better preservation of forecasting-relevant temporal dependencies. Contextual Fréchet Inception Distance (C-FID) [166] extends FID to time series by computing Fréchet distance between embeddings (e.g., from ts2vec) of real and synthetic data. Lower values reflect closer alignment of global and contextual features. Maximum Mean Discrepancy (MMD) [30,79,167,168] is a kernel-based distance in a reproducing kernel Hilbert space, measuring global distribution mismatch. Lower values indicate better distributional similarity. Marginal Distribution Difference (MDD) [35,128] computes average absolute differences between marginal histograms across dimensions and time steps. Lower values indicate better preservation of basic statistics such as scale and variance.

Auto-Correlation Difference (ACD) [35,169,170] compares autocorrelation coefficients of real and synthetic series to assess temporal dependency preservation; lower values are better. Skewness Difference (SD) and Kurtosis Difference (KD) [35,161] measure discrepancies in distribution asymmetry and tail behavior. Lower values indicate better preservation of higher-order statistics. Dynamic

Time Warping (DTW) and Multivariate DTW (DTW_D) [35,171,172] quantify similarity under flexible temporal alignment for univariate and multivariate series, respectively; lower values indicate closer temporal pattern alignment. Autocorrelation Function (ACF) [146,161] compares lag-dependent correlations (e.g., of raw or transformed signals) between real and synthetic data to capture dependence properties such as volatility clustering. Smaller discrepancies imply better fidelity. Finally, distribution visualization using t-SNE and distribution plots [94,109,173] provides qualitative assessment by visualizing embedding overlap and comparing statistical distributions, where greater overlap and similar shapes indicate higher fidelity.

5.2. Downstream Performance

Downstream performance evaluates whether synthetic data is useful for real tasks such as classification, forecasting, and decision-making.

Train on Synthetic, Test on Real (TSTR) and Train on Real, Test on Synthetic (TRTS) [79,93] are widely used utility metrics. TSTR evaluates whether synthetic data contains sufficient information for real-world tasks, while TRTS assesses whether it preserves key statistical structures of real data. Higher scores are preferred for classification, whereas lower errors indicate better forecasting performance. Augmentation Test [174] measures performance gains when synthetic data augments real data, with larger improvements indicating stronger complementarity. Agreement Rate [175] quantifies prediction consistency between models trained on real and synthetic data; higher values imply better preservation of decision boundaries. Hedging Effectiveness [176] is a finance-specific metric evaluating the usefulness of synthetic data for risk modeling and hedging, where higher values are better. Algorithm Comparison via Rank Consistency [177] examines whether algorithm performance rankings on synthetic data match those on real data, with higher Spearman correlation indicating stronger consistency.

5.3. Diversity

Diversity measures whether synthetic time series cover the full variability of real data, rather than collapsing to a small subset of modes [87]. High diversity ensures representativeness and robustness, especially for data augmentation and rare-pattern modeling.

Intra-Class Distance (ICD) [164] measures the average distance among synthetic samples within the same class. Higher values indicate greater intra-class variability and reduced mode collapse. Synthetic-to-Synthetic Similarity (STS) [178] computes intra-class cosine similarity among synthetic samples, where values not close to 1 are preferred to avoid conditional mode collapse. Improved Recall [179] evaluates how well synthetic data covers the full spectrum of real data patterns, with higher values indicating better diversity and reduced mode dropping. NDB-Over and NDB-Under [180] partition real data into k-means bins and identify over- or under-represented regions by the generator. Values closer to (0,0) indicate balanced generation. Finally, the Authenticity score [163] measures the proportion of novel (non-duplicated) synthetic samples, where values closer to 1 indicate stronger diversity and originality.

5.4. Controllability

Controllability refers to a generator's ability to produce time series that satisfy predefined conditions (e.g., text descriptions), which is essential for targeted data synthesis. Despite its importance, controllable generation remains underexplored in existing evaluation surveys. Below, we summarize representative controllability metrics.

T2S [74] evaluates controllability by measuring semantic and numerical alignment between generated time series and text captions at point-, fragment-, and instance-level granularity. It adopts Mean Squared Error (MSE) and Weighted Absolute Percentage Error (WAPE) to quantify numerical deviations (lower is better), reflecting how accurately text-described trends are translated into values. Mean Reciprocal Rank at 10 (MRR@10) evaluates semantic alignment via cosine similarity (higher is better), indicating how closely generated sequences match the textual intent.

BRIDGE [29] assesses controllability using both quantitative and human evaluation. Quantitatively, it employs Joint Fréchet Time Series Distance (J-FTSD), Mean Squared Error (MSE), and Mean Absolute Error (MAE), all lower-better metrics. J-FTSD jointly captures local shape and global distribution alignment, providing a more faithful measure of adherence to text-specified patterns. Human Evaluation (HE/HE@3) ranks outputs by text relevance and plausibility, where lower ranks indicate better perceptual alignment.

Coletta et al. [130] evaluate controllability by verifying compliance with predefined constraints (soft/hard, local/global). Percentage Error Distance (L2 distance to the target trend) measures adherence to soft trend constraints (lower is better), while Satisfaction Rate quantifies the proportion of samples meeting hard constraints such as fixed points or extrema (higher is better). Auxiliary metrics, including discriminative score, predictive score, and inference time, ensure that improved controllability does not compromise realism or efficiency.

5.5. Privacy Protection

Privacy protection evaluates whether synthetic data leaks sensitive information from training data. Membership Inference Attack (MIA) [181] quantifies membership inference risk using the F1 score. Lower values are better, indicating weaker traceability of synthetic samples to the training data. Nearest Neighbor Adversarial Accuracy Risk (NNAA) [9] measures re-identification risk by assessing how easily synthetic EHR time series can be distinguished from real data. Lower values are better, indicating reduced overfitting and privacy leakage. Plausible Deniability [175] ensures each synthetic sample could originate from multiple real samples. Higher values are better, reducing traceability. Data-Copying Test [182] detects overfitting on training samples by distance comparison. Values closer to 0 are better, indicating no memorization and preventing leakage of private information from the training set. Maximum Real-to-Synthetic Similarity (Max-RTS) [178] measures the highest similarity between real and synthetic samples. Lower is better, reducing re-identification risk.

6. Challenges and Opportunities

The field of TSG has made rapid progress, yet several open challenges continue to limit its applicability and reliability. These challenges arise from both the intrinsic complexity of time series data and the stringent demands of real-world applications, offering important directions for future research.

6.1. Perspective of Data Characteristics

First, **irregularly sampled and asynchronous multivariate data** pose persistent challenges. In domains such as healthcare and IoT, observations are event-driven and recorded at heterogeneous frequencies. Continuous-time models, including Neural ODEs [112], ODE-RNNs [183], and Neural Controlled Differential Equation (NCDE)-based methods [88,95,109], partially alleviate this issue but often incur high computational costs or struggle to capture complex cross-channel dependencies. Future work can explore more efficient continuous-time generative frameworks that natively model asynchronous dynamics without relying on lossy interpolation or imputation.

Second, **preserving long-range dependencies and global structure** remains non-trivial. Many models generate locally plausible sequences that violate long-term constraints such as physical laws, economic cycles, or seasonal patterns. While Transformers [91] and state-space models [104,106] improve long-context modeling, scaling them to ultra-long horizons with both fidelity and diversity remains open. **Future work can explore** hybrid architectures that combine global modeling (e.g., attention or state-space mechanisms) with local refinement via diffusion or autoregressive processes.

Third, **modeling extreme events and tail behavior is under-explored**. Since most objectives emphasize average-case fidelity, rare but critical events, such as financial crashes, equipment failures, or medical emergencies, are often underrepresented [147]. Methods that explicitly condition on extremes, such as block-maxima conditioning in FIDE [61], are promising but still limited in generality. **Future**

work can explore integrating extreme value theory, tail-aware loss functions, or importance-weighted objectives to better capture rare-event dynamics.

Fourth, **cross-domain generalization and multimodal generation** are emerging frontiers. Real-world data span multiple domains (e.g., hospitals, factories, climate regions) with distinct distributions, yet most models are trained within a single domain. Early cross-domain approaches such as TimeDP [30] remain preliminary. In parallel, multimodal generation, such as text to time series [29,74,131], raises challenges in aligning heterogeneous modalities (text, images, sensor signals). Future work can explore domain-agnostic and adaptive generative models via meta-learning, invariant representation learning, or causal modeling, alongside robust alignment mechanisms and evaluation protocols for cross-modal controllability.

Finally, **LLM-based TSG** is still nascent. SDForger [184] compresses periodic series into low-dimensional embeddings using Functional Principal Components (FPC) [185] or Fast Independent Component Analysis (FastICA) [186], converts them into text tokens for lightweight large language model (LLM) fine-tuning, and decodes them back into variable-length sequences for few-shot, text-conditioned generation. Meanwhile, emerging agentic systems point to new directions: GenG [187] separates high-level intent from low-level signal synthesis, retrieval-augmented multi-agent frameworks [188] adapt to domain drift, and LLM-diffusion hybrids [29] enable cross-domain, text-guided control. Future work can investigate temporal tokenization, scalability to irregular time series, and agent-based coordination that jointly optimizes context and stochastic generation without compounding errors.

6.2. Perspective of Application Scenarios

A key challenge is **fine-grained controllability and interpretability**. In safety-critical domains such as healthcare or industrial control, users often require precise, user-defined constraints (e.g., specific peak times or failure conditions). While conditional Generative Adversarial Networks (GANs) [79,81] and diffusion models [55,64,130] provide basic control, they typically lack the precision and flexibility needed for complex or counterfactual conditions. Moreover, their black-box nature limits interpretability, hindering trust and debugging. Future work can focus on unifying strong generative capacity with interpretable and human-understandable control mechanisms.

Another issue is the **absence of standardized, application-aligned evaluation protocols**. Current evaluations mainly rely on generic metrics such as fidelity and diversity, while the real value of synthetic data lies in downstream utility (e.g., improving rare-disease classification or reinforcement learning performance). There is a pressing need for task-specific evaluation frameworks that directly measure real-world impact rather than proxy scores [161].

Privacy preservation also remains insufficiently addressed. Although TSG is often positioned as a privacy-preserving solution, deep generative models may memorize and leak sensitive information. Formal guarantees such as Differential Privacy (DP) are rarely integrated. Future work can focus on developing TSG methods with quantifiable privacy guarantees while maintaining acceptable data utility, especially in regulated domains like healthcare and finance.

Finally, **scalability and computational efficiency** pose practical barriers. Many state-of-the-art models, including diffusion models [62] and large-scale VAE/Transformer-based approaches [104,107], are costly to train and sample. This limits deployment in resource-constrained or large-scale simulation settings. Future research into efficient architectures, faster sampling strategies (e.g., [23,51]), and model compression is crucial to bridge the gap between academic advances and industrial adoption.

6.3. Perspective on Modeling Paradigm

Beyond conventional deep generative models, **LLM-based agentic frameworks** have gained attention in areas such as data science automation, scientific discovery, and decision support, where Large Language Models (LLMs) act as reasoning-centric controllers that plan, invoke tools, and iteratively refine outputs. This paradigm introduces new opportunities for TSG. In particular, agentic LLMs can (i) reason over temporal patterns, trends, and event semantics to imagine time series; (ii)

generate sequences via explicit simulation of temporal or event-driven processes (e.g., regime shifts or causal chains); and (iii) orchestrate external time series models (e.g., diffusion or state-space models) through dynamic selection and conditioning.

Compared with traditional end-to-end TSG methods centered on distribution matching, agentic LLM-based systems offer notable advantages, including interpretable temporal reasoning, iterative self-refinement via feedback loops, and adaptive model integration through flexible tool orchestration. Together, these properties extend TSG toward more interpretable, controllable, and task-oriented time series synthesis.

7. Conclusions

In this survey, we organize existing TSG methods into a unified and comprehensive taxonomy spanning multiple paradigms, model architectures, research directions, and data characteristics. We review approaches from traditional non-deep learning techniques to modern deep generative frameworks. Our analysis reveals key trends: Deep learning now dominates TSG, diffusion models enable high-fidelity and controllable generation, and LLM-based approaches show promise for multimodal tasks such as text-to-time-series generation. Applications in finance, healthcare, industry, and energy demonstrate TSG's ability to mitigate data scarcity and enhance downstream tasks, including forecasting, anomaly detection, and decision-making. However, evaluation remains fragmented, highlighting the need for standardized, application-oriented protocols beyond generic fidelity metrics.

Despite rapid advances, challenges persist in handling irregular sampling, long-range dependencies, extreme events, cross-domain generalization, and privacy utility trade-offs. As temporal data grows in scale and complexity, TSG will play an increasingly important role in modeling dynamic systems, and this survey aims to guide future research and practical adoption across disciplines.

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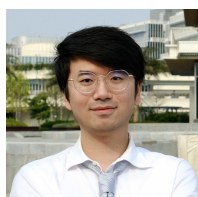
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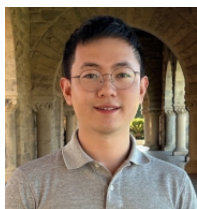
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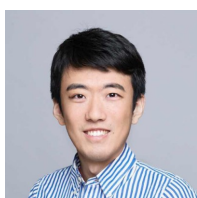
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