## **ODE Filters – Forward and Backward**

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You already heard a few talk on ODE filters (smoothers). The goal of this talk is to fill in a few thoughts on the following topics:

- + the underlying SSM,
- + forward convergence rates of ODE filters, and
- + their use in inverse problems.

Introduction

Solving ODEs by iterated first-order Taylo<u>r expansions</u>

**logistic ODE:**  $\dot{x}(t) = f(x(t)) = 5x(t)[1 - x(t)]$  on  $t \in [0, 1]$ , with  $x(0) = 0.1 \in \mathbb{R}^d$ .



+ **Explicit RK methods** (like many other classical solvers) generalize Euler's method. An *s*-stage RK method **chooses the coefficients** (*a*, *b*, *c*) in

$$\hat{x}(h) = x_0 + h \sum_{i=1}^{s} b_i y_i$$
, with  $y_i = f\left(x_0 + h \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} a_{ij} y_j\right)$ ,

to match the *p*-th order **Taylor** polynomial  $\sum_{i=1}^{p} \frac{x^{(i)}(0)}{i!} h^{i}$  for a maximal  $p \leq s$ .

- + E.g., the **standard RK4 solver** fits a p = 4-th order Taylor polynomial with s = 4 stages.
- + Hence, assuming x(t) = x̂(t), RK assumes to perform iterated Hermite interpolation with perfect data on x<sup>(i)</sup>(t), i ∈ {1, ..., 4}.

## Unaware of Uncertainty: RK falsely assumes perfect data

Since  $x(t) \neq \hat{x}(t)$  for t > 0, the **uncertainty-unaware** assumptions of RK are **too optimistic**.



## Part I: State Space Models and ODE Filters

## The development of the different formulations

1st phase: plain GP models

- + 1991: Skilling first proposes to model ODE solutions with plain GPs
- + 2014–2016: Hennig and Hauberg, Chkrebtii et al. and Schober et al. refine Skilling's proposition
- 2nd phase: Probabilistic SSM conditioning on the derivative
  - + 2016-2018: Schober et al. and Kersting and Hennig introduce path-dependent SSMs conditioning on y<sub>t</sub> = f(x̂)

3rd phase: Probabilistic SSM conditioning on the ODE:

 + 2019–2021: Tronarp et al. introduce path-independent SSMs conditioning on the ODE itself, leading to new algorithms **ODE:**  $\dot{x}(t) = f(x(t))$ 

#### prior:

$$\mathbf{x}(t) \sim \mathcal{GP}(\mathbf{m}(t), \mathbf{k}(t, t')) \tag{1}$$

#### *n*-th data-likelihood-pair (after *n* steps):

$$y_n := f(m(t_n)|_{y_{1:n-1}})$$
(2)

$$p(\mathbf{y}_n \mid \mathbf{x}_n) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y}_n; \mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{R}_n). \tag{3}$$

This SSM is "path-dependent" because likelihood and data depend via  $m_{y_{1:n-1}}(t_n)$  on  $y_{1:n-1}$ .

**ODE:**  $\dot{x}(t) = f(x(t))$ 

#### prior:

$$\mathbf{x}(t) \sim d\mathbf{X}(t) = F\mathbf{X}(t) dt + L d\omega_t, \tag{4}$$

#### *n*-th data-likelihood-pair (after *n* steps):

$$y_n := f(m(t_n)|_{y_{1:n-1}})$$
(5)

$$p(\mathbf{y}_n \mid \mathbf{x}_n) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y}_n; \dot{\mathbf{x}}_n, \mathbf{R}_n). \tag{6}$$

This SSM is "path-dependent" because likelihood and data depend via  $m_{y_{1:n-1}}(t_n)$  on  $y_{1:n-1}$ .

)

**ODE:**  $\dot{x}(t) = f(x(t))$ 

prior:		
	$x(t) \sim d\mathbf{X}(t)$ = F $\mathbf{X}(t) dt$ + L $d\omega_t$ ,	(7)
likelihood:		
	$p(z_n \mid x(t_n)) = \delta(\dot{x}(t_n) - f(x(t_n)))$	(8)
data:		
	$z_n := 0,$	(9)

This SSM is **"path-independent"** because likelihood and data are seperate and independent of previous computations.

## The path-dependent SSM allows for the use of all Bayesian filters...



## ...while in the path-dependent SSM only Gaussian filters are possible.



ocally the path-dependent SSM is a Gaussian approximation of path-independent SSM

Let's consider a local case, i.e. we have arrived at

$$\mathbf{x}(t_n) \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{m}_n^-, \boldsymbol{P}_n^-). \tag{10}$$

**Old logic:** 

$$y_n = \int f(\xi) \, d\mathcal{N}(\xi, \boldsymbol{m}_n^-, \boldsymbol{P}_n^-). \tag{11}$$

Use data  $y_n = f(m^-)$  to update the following likelihood

- +  $p(y_n | x_n) = \mathcal{N}(y_n; \dot{x}_n, 0)$  ("Kalman ODE filter")
- +  $p(y_n | x_n) = \mathcal{N}(y_n; Hx_n + J_f(m_n^-)[y_n x_n], R_n + J_f(m_n^-)P_n^-J_f(m_n^-)^{\mathsf{T}})$  ("extended Kalman ODE filter").

.ocally the path-dependent SSM is a Gaussian approximation of path-independent SSM

Let's consider a local case, i.e. we have arrived at

$$\mathbf{x}(t_n) \sim \mathcal{N}(m_n^-, P_n^-).$$
 (10)

**New logic:** Replace f by its Taylor expansion  $\hat{f}$  around  $m_n^-$  and update in the approximated model

$$p(z_n \mid x(t_n)) = \delta(\dot{x}(t_n) - \hat{f}(x(t_n)))$$
(11)

For an *m*-th order Taylor expansion the resulting ODE filters are called "EKFm".

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Let's consider a local case, i.e. we have arrived at

$$\mathbf{x}(t_n) \sim \mathcal{N}(m_n^-, P_n^-).$$
 (10)

	previous name	new name
n = 0	Kalman filter	EKF0
<i>n</i> = 1	extended Kalman filter	EKF1

## Part II: Convergence Rates

# An exposition of three different sets of convergence results

Local Convergence Rates

### Theorem (local convergence rates)

Let f be sufficiently regular, and R > 0 an arbitrary noise model. If

+  $oldsymbol{q} \in \mathbb{N}$ , and

+ the prior **X** is a **q**-times integrated Ornstein–Uhlenbeck process or integrated Brownian motion then we locally have:

+ optimal polynomial convergence:  $\|m(h) - x(h)\| \le Kh^{q+1}$ , and

+ asymptotically well-calibrated uncertainties:  $\sqrt{P(h)} \le Kh^{q+1/2}$ .

### Proof idea:

- (i) note that the predictive mean deviates from a  $q^{ ext{th}}$  Taylor expansion by  $\mathcal{O}(h^{q+1})$ ,
- (ii) apply Taylor's theorem to the predictive mean, and
- (iii) use multiple triangle and Lipschitz inequalities.

# Why is a global convergence proof more difficult?

Because we cannot assume the steady-state!

In every Kalman ODE filtering step  $nh \rightarrow (n + 1)h$ 

$$m_{n+1} = m_n + K_n \left[ f(m_{n+1}^{(0)-}) - m_{n+1}^{(1)-} \right],$$

the Kalman gain

$$K_n = P_n^- H_n^{\mathsf{T}} \left[ H P_n^- H^{\mathsf{T}} + R \right]^{-1}$$

**is adaptive** to num. uncertainty  $P_n^-$  and eval. noise R.

## Proposition (global bounds on Kalman gains)

For all constant  $R \ge 0$ , then the *limit steady-state* is

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} K_n^{(0)} = \frac{\sqrt{4R\sigma^2 h + \sigma^4 h^2}}{\sigma^2 h + \sqrt{4\sigma^2 R h + \sigma^4 h^2}} h, \qquad \qquad \lim_{n \to \infty} K_n^{(1)} = \frac{\sigma^2 h + \sqrt{4\sigma^2 R h + \sigma^4 h^2}}{\sigma^2 h + \sqrt{4\sigma^2 R h + \sigma^4 h^2} + 2R}.$$

If moreover the initial covariance  $P_0$  is small enough and  $R \equiv Kh^p$  with  $p \in [0, \infty]$ , then

(global bounds on gains) 
$$\max_{n \in \{1,\dots,N\}} \left\| K_n^{(0)} \right\| \le Kh, \qquad \max_{n \in \{1,\dots,N\}} \left\| 1 - K_n^{(1)} \right\| \le Kh^{(p-1)\vee 0}.$$

# Convergence Rates of Kalman ODE Filters

Global Convergence Rates

### Theorem (global convergence rates)

Let **f** be sufficiently regular, and  $R \equiv Kh^p$  for some  $p \ge 1$ . If

- + q = 1, and
- prior X is a q-times integrated Brownian motion.

then we globally have:

- + optimal polynomial convergence:  $||m(T) x(T)|| \le K(T)h^q$
- + asymptotically well-calibrated uncertainties:  $\sqrt{P(T)} \leq K(T)h^{q}$ .

**Proof idea:** Define  $\varepsilon(nh) := ||m(nh) - x(nh)||$ , find limit of Kalman gains, and *prove that* (difficult part)

$$\varepsilon((n+1)h) - \varepsilon(nh) \le Kh^{q+1} + Kh^q \sum_{l=0}^{n-1} \left[\varepsilon((l+1)h) - \varepsilon(lh)\right].$$
(11)

and apply a special version of the discrete Grönwall inequality from Clark (1987) to (11).

# Experiments: $\mathcal{O}(h^q)$ rates of Kalman ODE Filters

are confirmed and seem to extend to  $q \in \{2, 3, ...\}$ 

#### (Kersting et al., 2020, Section 8)



# New Experiments by Krämer and Hennig (2020)...

...extend the  $\mathcal{O}(h^q)$  rates to up to q = 11!!!

source: N. Krämer, P. Hennig "Stable Implementation of Probabilistic ODE Solvers", 2020



Even **rates of**  $\mathcal{O}(h^{q+1})$  are observed here (and in previous experiments).

# MAP estimate convergence rates

according to "Bayesian ODE Solvers: The Maximum A Posteriori Estimate" by Tronarp et al. (2021)

### Assumption

Let  $f \in C^{q+1}(\mathbb{R}^d; \mathbb{R}^d)$ .

Unlike the above convergence rates, Tronarp et al. (2021) considered the MAP

$$\vec{\mathbf{x}}^{*}(t_{0:N}) := \underset{\vec{\mathbf{x}}(t_{0:N})}{\arg\min} \left[ -\log\left(p\left(\vec{\mathbf{x}}(t_{0:N}) \mid z_{1:N} = \mathbf{0}\right)\right) \right].$$
(12)

#### Theorem

Under this Assumption and for any prior X(t) of smoothness q, there exists a constant C(T) > 0 such that

$$\max_{n=0,...,N} \|x^*(t_n) - x(t_n)\| \le C(T)h^q,$$
(13)

where  $\mathbf{x}^*(t_n) = H_0 \vec{\mathbf{x}}^*(t_n)$  is the MAP estimate of  $\mathbf{x}(t_n)$  given a discretisation  $\mathbf{0} = t_0 \leq t_1 \leq \cdots \leq t_N = T$ .

# Convergence Rates via Nordsieck Equivalences

according to "A probabilistic model for the numerical solution of initial value problems" by Schober et al. (2018)

Schober et al. (2018) observed the equivalence of the filtering mean with Nordsieck methods

$$\widehat{\vec{\mathbf{x}}}(t+h) = \left[I - I\overline{H}\right] \overline{A} \widehat{\vec{\mathbf{x}}}(t) + h I f(H_0 \overline{A} \widehat{\vec{\mathbf{x}}}(t)),$$
(14)

### Theorem

A Kalman ODE filter (EKF0) with 2-times integrated Wiener process prior coincides with the trapezoidal rule

$$\hat{x}_{n+1} = \hat{x}_n + \frac{h}{2} \left( f(\hat{x}_n) + f(\tilde{x}_{n+1}) \right), \tag{15}$$

with  $\tilde{x}_{n+1} := \hat{x}_n + hf(\hat{x}_n)$ . In particular, if initialized in this steady state, we have

$$||m(T) - x(T)|| \le C(T)h^3 = C(T)h^{q+1}.$$
 (16)

So, what is known about (extended) Kalman ODE filters with *q*-times integrated Wiener process prior?

## **Classical analysis**

- + local rates:  $\mathcal{O}(h^{q+1})$ , for all q
- + global rates:  $\mathcal{O}(h^q)$ , for q = 1
- + main restriction: q = 1
- way forward: Repeat the proof for higher *q*.

### **MAP estimate**

- + local rates: -
- + global rates:  $\mathcal{O}(h^q)$  of the MAP
- + main restriction: No known method converges to the MAP.
- way forward: Show that some method approximates the MAP.

## Nordsieck equivalence

- + local rates:  $\mathcal{O}(h^{q+2})$ , for q = 1, 2
- + global rates:  $\mathcal{O}(h^{q+1})$ , for q = 1, 2
- + main restriction: q = 1, 2 and only in the steady-state
- way forward: Find more Nordsieck equivalences.

## **Part III: Inverse Problems**

# A first uncertainty-aware computational chain

..are defined by their forward map F



+ The forward problem is **well-posed**. (Numerical Analysis)

- + The inverse problem is **ill-posed**. (Statistics, Machine Learning)
- + The mix of numerical and statistical estimation invites a treatment by probabilistic numerics.

Inverse problems are called likelihood-free if their forward map is too expensive to approximate exactly.









# Probabilistic numerics inserts a likelihood...

...into the 'likelihood-free' ODE inverse problem



- + Inverse problems are called likelihood-free if F is too expensive to approximate exactly.
- + ODE inverse problems are likelihood-free if numerical error is unaccounted.

# Probabilistic numerics inserts a likelihood...

...into the 'likelihood-free' ODE inverse problem



- + Inverse problems are called likelihood-free if F is too expensive to approximate exactly.
- + ODE inverse problems are likelihood-free if numerical error is unaccounted.

Likelihood-free

Probabilistic Numerics captures numerical error

Differentiable Likelihood

Gradient-free methods:

- Density estimation methods
- + ABC

### Gradient-based methods:

- Gradient descent
- + Hamiltonian/Langevin MCMC

# We propose the following likelihood.

Uncertainty-Aware Likelihood by Gaussian ODE Filtering

Assume that we observe **noisy data**  $\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{z}(t_{1:M})$  of the true  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}(t_{1:M})$ , i.e.

$$p(\mathbf{z} \mid \mathbf{x}) = \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{z}; \, \mathbf{x}, \sigma^2 I_M\right).$$
(17)

For any  $\theta$ , **Gaussian ODE Filtering**, a probabilistic numerical method, yields

$$p(\mathbf{z} \mid \theta) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{z}; \mathbf{x}_0 + J\theta, \underbrace{\mathbf{P} + \sigma^2 I_M}_{\text{numerical + statistical var.}})$$
(18)

where J is freely-availabe from the filtering output.

### Two advantages:

- + **P** accounts for then epistemic (numerical) uncertainty for non-zero step size h > 0, and
- +  $J = J(\hat{\theta})$  is an estimate of the Jacobian of  $\theta \mapsto \mathbf{x}_{\theta}$  at some support point  $\hat{\theta}$ , and implies gradient and Hessian estimators

$$\hat{\nabla}_{\theta} E(\mathbf{z}) \coloneqq -J^{\mathsf{T}} \left[ \mathbf{P} + \sigma^2 I_M \right]^{-1} \left[ \mathbf{z} - \mathbf{m}_{\theta} \right], \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{\nabla}_{\theta}^2 E(\mathbf{z}) \coloneqq J^{\mathsf{T}} \left[ \mathbf{P} + \sigma^2 I_M \right]^{-1} J. \quad (19)$$

# The likelihood account for the numerical/epistemic uncertainty!

- + The statistical (aleatoric) variance  $\sigma^2 I_M$  is accounted for in any case.
- + The numerical (epistemic) variance P makes the implicit forward model tractable.



Both the

- + gradient estimator, and
- + the Hessian-precionditioned (Newton) gradient estimator

are useful approximations.



#### These gradient-based methods are more sample-efficient.

### Sampling:

- Langevin MCMC
- Hamiltonian MCMC

## Optimization:

- Gradient descent
- Newton's Method



- + Likelihood-free random-walk Metropolis (RWM) gets lost in regions of low probability.
- + Gradient-based sampling quickly finds and covers regions of high probability.



# **Optimization Experiments**

- + Likelihood-free random-search hardly learns at all.
- + Gradient-based optimization quickly finds local maxima.



Thank you for listening!

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