# Adjoint-aided inference of Gaussian process driven differential equations

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## Project team

Paterne Engineer Mike Mauricio Richard

















Funders:











#### Outline

- Motivating example: Air pollution in Kampala
- Inference for linear systems:

$$\mathcal{L}u = f$$

Given noisy measurements of u can we infer f?

Adjoints

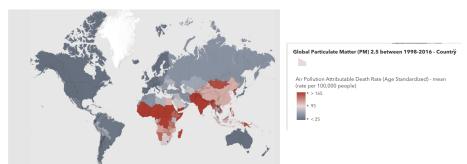
$$\mathcal{L}^*v$$
 such that  $\langle \mathcal{L}u,v \rangle = \langle u,\mathcal{L}^*v \rangle$ 

Examples



## Air pollution

7 million people die every year from exposure to air pollution, the majority in LMICs.



The UK government estimates the annual mortality of human-made air pollution to be 28,000 to 36,000 deaths, and costs UK  $\sim \pounds 10^{10}$ 

## Kampala and AirQo

Smith et al. to appear JRSS C



- · AirQo, a portable air quality monitor
- Measures particulate matter
- Solar powered or other available power sources
- Cellular data transmission
- Weather proof for unique African settings

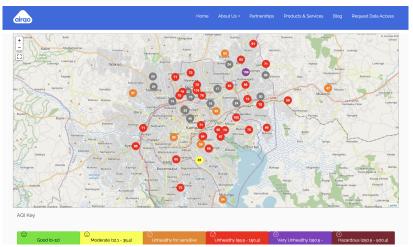


Accurate gravimetric sensors costs \$10,000s.

AirQo have developed cheap (but less accurate) sensors that cost < \$100 and have deployed them around Kampala.

The sensors measure PM2.5 and PM10.

## Kampala: PM2.5 snapshot from 2023 (midday)



London (2022 average): 9.6  $\mu g/m^3$  20 year average for UK: 11  $\mu g/m^3$ 

WHO guideline:  $5\mu g/m^3$ 

Model pollution concentration u(x,t) at location x time t. We want to

- infer air pollution (and predict future pollution levels)
- infer pollution sources

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$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = \nabla . (\mathbf{p}_1 u) + \nabla . (\mathbf{p}_2 \nabla u) - \mathbf{p}_3 u + \sum_i f_i$$

- $f_i(x, t)$  are different pollution sources,
- we may choose to model different pollution types (PM2.5, PM10 etc)

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**Hypothesis:** The inclusion of mechanistic behaviour will allow us to infer sources, plan interventions, and predict better.

**NB:** can also extend the model with a GP to capture missing physics

## Computational challenge

Given noisy measurements of pollution levels  $z_i = h_i(u) + e_i$ . Can we infer

- the concentration field u(x, t)?
- the unknown source terms  $f_i(x, t)$ ?
- the diffusion, advection and reaction parameters? Hyperparameters etc?

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- the concentration field u(x, t)?
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Use Gaussian process priors for  $f_i(x,t)$ 

$$f_i \sim GP(m_i(\cdot), k_i(\cdot, \cdot))$$

where we carefully choose each prior mean and covariance function:

- Industrial regions
- Major roads and power stations
- Varying affluence levels between regions (related to paving of roads, burning of garbage, cooking on solid fuel stoves etc).



## General linear systems

 $\mathcal{L}u = f$ 

## Linear systems with unknown parameters

#### Consider

$$\mathcal{L}_{p}u = f$$

#### where

- $\mathcal{L}_p$  = linear operator with non-linear dependence upon parameters p.
- f =forcing function.
- *u* is the quantity being modelled, e.g. pollution concentration.

Finding u given p and f is the **forward problem**.

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Finding u given p and f is the **forward problem**.

**Inverse problem**: infer u, f, p given noisy observations of u

$$z = h(u) + N(0, \Sigma).$$

**Note:** MCMC likely to be prohibitively expensive: each iteration requires a solution of the forward problem.

## Linear systems with unknown parameters

Least squares/maximum-likelihood estimation:

$$\min_{p,f} \quad (z-h(u))^\top (z-h(u))$$
 subject to  $\mathcal{L}_p u = f$ .

Bayes: find

$$\pi(p, f, u|z)$$
.

#### What do we need?

We have a problem and a framework, what do we need to achieve our goal of inferring  $\boldsymbol{u}$  and  $\boldsymbol{f}$ 

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- A method to perform efficient inference
- A way to model f

## The adjoint operator

See Estep 2004

Let  $\mathcal{L}: \mathcal{U} \to \mathcal{V}$  be our linear operator where  $\mathcal{U}$  and  $\mathcal{V}$  are Hilbert spaces

• i.e. vector spaces with an inner product  $\langle u, u' \rangle$ ,

then the adjoint of  $\mathcal{L}$ ,  $\mathcal{L}^*: \mathcal{V} \to \mathcal{U}$  satisfies

$$\langle \mathcal{L}u, v \rangle = v^*(\mathcal{L}(u)) = \mathcal{L}^*v^*(u)$$
  
=  $\langle u, \mathcal{L}^*v \rangle$ ,

known as the bilinear identity.

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NB: This formulation extends more generally to any Banach space, but for our purposes today, Hilbert spaces are enough.

## Benefits of the adjoint

See Estep 2004

#### Adjoints have the additional properties of

- allowing us to easily calculate the derivative of some cost function between our inference and the observations
- can be used to easily compute the least squares estimate

## Example 0

In the finite dimensional case,  $\mathcal{U}=\mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $\mathcal{V}=\mathbb{R}^m$ , then  $\langle u_1,u_2\rangle=u_1^\top u_2$  etc and

 $\mathcal{L}u = Au$  for some m x n matrix A.

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Then

$$\mathcal{L}^* v = A^\top v$$

That is

$$\langle Au, v \rangle = \langle u, A^{\top}v \rangle$$

#### Efficient inference

$$\mathcal{L}u = f, \qquad z_i = h_i(u) + e$$

If the observation operator is linear

$$h_i(u) = \langle h_i, u \rangle$$

we can consider the n adjoint systems

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Then

$$h_i(u) = \langle h_i, u \rangle = \langle \mathcal{L}^* v_i, u \rangle = \langle v_i, \mathcal{L}u \rangle$$
  
=  $\langle v_i, f \rangle$ ,

by the bilinear identity.

$$z_i = h_i(u) + e_i = \langle v_i, f \rangle + e_i$$
  
where  $\mathcal{L}^* v_i = h_i$ 

Suppose f is a parametric model with a linear dependence upon some unknown parameters q:

$$f(\cdot) = \sum_{m=1}^{M} q_m \phi_m(\cdot) \tag{1}$$

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then 
$$h_i(u) = \langle v_i, \sum_{m=1}^M q_m \phi_m \rangle = \sum_{m=1}^M q_m \langle v_i, \phi_m \rangle.$$

A linear model!

The complete observation vector z can then be written as

$$z = \begin{pmatrix} \langle v_1, \phi_1 \rangle & \dots & \langle v_1, \phi_M \rangle \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \langle v_n, \phi_1 \rangle & \dots & \langle v_n, \phi_M \rangle \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} q_1 \\ q_M \end{pmatrix} + e$$

$$= \Phi q + e$$
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Thus

$$\min_f \quad S(f) = (z - h(u))^{ op} (z - h(u))$$
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The solution is

$$\hat{q} = (\Phi^{\top}\Phi)^{-1}\Phi^{\top}z$$

with  $\mathbb{V}\operatorname{ar}(\hat{q}) = \sigma^2(\Phi^{\top}\Phi)^{-1}$  when  $e_i$  are uncorrelated and homoscedastic with variance  $\sigma^2$ .



In a Bayesian setting, if we assume a priori that  $q \sim \mathcal{N}_M(\mu_0, \Sigma_0)$ , then the posterior for q given z (and other parameters) is

$$q \mid z \sim \mathcal{N}_{M}(\mu_{n}, \Sigma_{n}) \tag{3}$$

where

$$\mu_n = \Sigma_n (\frac{1}{\sigma^2} \Phi^\top z + \Sigma_0^{-1} \mu_0), \ \Sigma_n = \left(\frac{1}{\sigma^2} \Phi^\top \Phi + \Sigma_0^{-1}\right)^{-1}.$$
 (4)

### Quick intro to Gaussian Processes

Suppose we model unknown function  $f = \{f(x) : x \in \mathcal{X}\}$  as a Gaussian process (GP)

• i.e. joint distribution of  $f(x_1), \ldots, f(x_n)$  is Gaussian.

#### Quick intro to Gaussian Processes

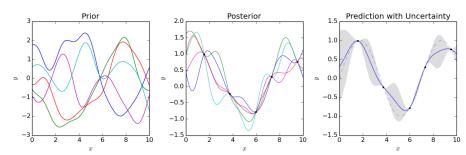
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• i.e. joint distribution of  $f(x_1), \ldots, f(x_n)$  is Gaussian.

All we need to do is specify the prior mean and covariance functions

$$\mathbb{E}f(x) = m(x), \quad \mathbb{C}ov(f(x), f(x')) = k(x, x')$$

Write  $f \sim GP(m, k)$ .



## Why use GPs?

- Mathematically attractive family
  - Closed under addition

$$\mathit{f}_{1},\mathit{f}_{2}\sim\mathit{GP}$$
 then  $\mathit{f}_{1}+\mathit{f}_{2}\sim\mathit{GP}$ 

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▶ Closed under any linear operator. If  $f \sim GP(m(\cdot), k(\cdot, \cdot))$ , then  $\mathcal{L}$  is a linear operator

$$\mathcal{L} \circ f \sim GP(\mathcal{L} \circ m, \mathcal{L}^2 \circ k)$$

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- Natural Best linear unbiased predictors etc
- Relate to other methods such as kernel regression



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- Consider  $\{\phi_1(x), \phi_2(x), \ldots\}$  an orthonormal basis for  $\mathcal{F}$ .

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We can then approximate f using a truncated basis expansion

$$f(x) pprox f_q(x) = \sum_{j=1}^M q_i \phi_i(x)$$
 where a priori  $q_i \sim N(0, \lambda_i^2)$   
=  $\Phi \mathbf{q} + e$ 

We've approximated the GP by a linear model.

Choice of basis in 
$$f_q(\cdot) = \sum_{i=1}^{M} q_i \lambda_i \phi_i(\cdot)$$

• Mercer basis:  $\phi_i(x) = \lambda_i \psi(x)$  where  $\lambda_i, \phi_i(\cdot)$  are eigenpairs of

$$T_k(f)(\cdot) = \int_{\mathcal{X}} k(x, \cdot) f(x) dx.$$

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• Random Fourier features: If k stationary, Bochner's theorem:

$$k(x-x') = \int \exp(iw^{\top}(x-x'))p(w)dw = \mathbb{E}_{w\sim p}\exp(iw^{\top}(x-x'))$$

Thus we can use  $\phi_i(x) = \cos(w_i^\top x + b_i)$  where  $w_i \sim p(\cdot)$  and  $b_i \sim U[0, 2\pi]$ 

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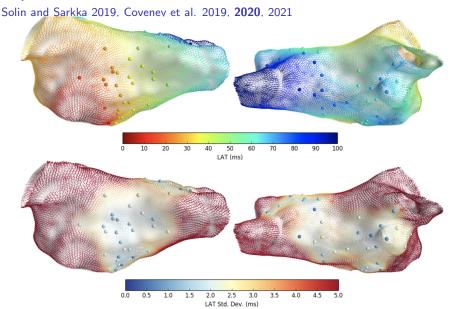
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### Laplacian basis: useful for non-Euclidean domains



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- Compute the posterior distribution for q

$$q \mid z \sim \mathcal{N}_M(\mu_n, \Sigma_n) \tag{5}$$

where

$$\mu_n = \Sigma_n \left(\frac{1}{\sigma^2} \Phi^\top z + \Sigma_0^{-1} \mu_0\right), \quad \Sigma_n = \left(\frac{1}{\sigma^2} \Phi^\top \Phi + \Sigma_0^{-1}\right)^{-1}. \tag{6}$$



#### Example 1: PDE

Advection-diffusion-reaction is a linear operator:

$$\mathcal{L}u = \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} - \nabla \cdot (\mathbf{p}_1 u) - \nabla \cdot (p_2 \nabla u) + p_3 u$$

Forward problem: solve (for some initial and boundary conditions)

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and estimate f given  $z_i = \langle h_i, u \rangle + N(0, \sigma)$ .

 $h_i$  are sensor functions that average the pollution at a specific location over a short window

$$\langle h_i, u \rangle = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{T}_i|} \int_{\mathcal{T}_i} u(x_i, t) dt$$

The adjoint system is derived by integrating by parts twice:

$$\mathcal{L}^* v = -\frac{\partial v}{\partial t} - \mathbf{p}_1 \cdot \nabla v - \nabla \cdot (p_2 \nabla v) + p_3 u.$$

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For n observations we need n adjoint equations!

$$\mathcal{L}^* v_i = h_i \text{ in } \mathcal{X} \times [0, T] \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, n.$$

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If we use initial and boundary conditions

$$u(x,0) = 0$$
 for  $x \in \mathcal{X}$  and  $\nabla_n u = 0$  for  $x \in \partial \mathcal{X}$ 

then the final and boundary conditions on the adjoint system are

$$v_i(x,T)=0$$
 for  $x\in\mathcal{X}$   $\mathbf{p}_1v_i(x,t)+p_2
abla v_i(x,t)=0$  for  $x\in\partial\Omega$  and  $t\in[0,T].$ 

The adjoint system is derived by integrating by parts twice:

$$\mathcal{L}^* v = -\frac{\partial v}{\partial t} - \mathbf{p}_1 \cdot \nabla v - \nabla \cdot (p_2 \nabla v) + p_3 u.$$

For n observations we need n adjoint equations!

$$\mathcal{L}^* v_i = h_i \text{ in } \mathcal{X} \times [0, T] \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, n.$$

If we use initial and boundary conditions

$$u(x,0) = 0$$
 for  $x \in \mathcal{X}$  and  $\nabla_n u = 0$  for  $x \in \partial \mathcal{X}$ 

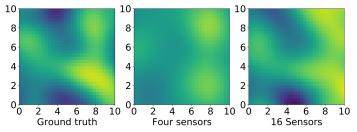
then the final and boundary conditions on the adjoint system are

$$v_i(x,T)=0 ext{ for } x\in \mathcal{X}$$
  
 $\mathbf{p}_1v_i(x,t)+p_2\nabla v_i(x,t)=0 ext{ for } x\in\partial\Omega ext{ and } t\in[0,T].$ 

- May find numerical issues: depends on the discretization, the sensor functions  $h_i$ , diffusion rate etc
- The cost of solving the adjoint is the same as solving the forward problem.

# Results: n = 20 (4 sensors) and n = 80 (16), noise =10%

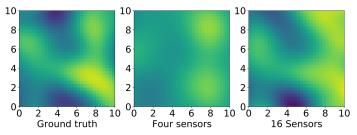
Posterior mean of time slice u(x,5) - more sensors, improved estimates!



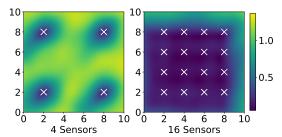
Variance of u(x,5): Wind from the south west.

# Results: n = 20 (4 sensors) and n = 80 (16), noise =10%

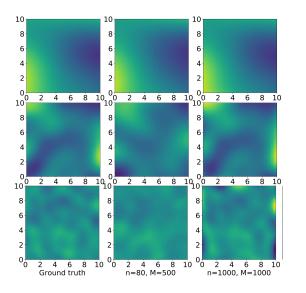
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Variance of u(x,5): Wind from the south west.



### Effect of length scale, $\lambda = 5, 2, 1$

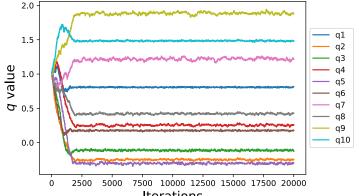


MSE 0.008 and 0.004

MSE 0.68 and 0.07

MSE 1.85 and 2.55

MCMC is fine as long as you have a small number of features. But even with only 10 features, we need  $\sim 1000s$  of ODE solves vs 10 ODE solves for the adjoint method.



Iterations MCMC takes longer to converge when we use more features.

#### Example 1: Results

Mean square error vs number of features and sensors

#### Median MSE as a function of number of sensors and basis vectors.

| Sensors | # basis vectors   |                   |                  |                  |                  |            |
|---------|-------------------|-------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------|
|         | 10                | 50                | 100              | 200              | 300              | 500        |
| 1       | 3.42 (2.82,4.39)  | 3.27 (3.13,3.38)  | 3.24 (3.10,3.37) | 3.27 (3.17,3.44) | 3.24 (3.12,3.36) | 3.27 (3.17 |
| 4       | 7.12 (1.57,28.81) | 2.39 (2.06,2.62)  | 2.41 (2.13,2.60) | 2.45 (2.32,2.57) | 2.50 (2.41,2.69) | 2.53 (2.32 |
| 9       | 2.38 (1.41,4.40)  | 2.12 (1.48,3.98)  | 1.70 (1.49,2.07) | 1.48 (1.40,1.72) | 1.47 (1.32,1.61) | 1.45 (1.40 |
| 16      | 1.73 (1.23,3.28)  | 3.99 (2.32,10.90) | 2.18 (1.72,3.54) | 1.3 (1.02,1.68)  | 1.12 (0.98,1.37) | 1.12 (1.02 |
| 25      | 1.35 (1.19,3.09)  | 8.93 (4.92,39.86) | 4.36 (2.53,8.20) | 1.86 (1.43,2.75) | 1.35 (1.07,1.81) | 1.05 (0.89 |
| 25 (MH) | 3.27 (1.73,6.12)  | -                 | -                | -                | -                | -          |

MH algorithm did not converge after 20,000 iterations for 50 or more RFFs.

### Example 2: Round Hill II Experiment

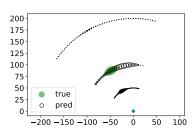
- We tested the approach using the Round Hill II advection-diffusion experiment (see Cramer & Record, 1957) using the advection-diffusion model.
- A constant source of sulphur dioxide was released over a ten minute period.
- 183 sensors were deployed in three partial concentric rings.

#### Example 3: Roundhill Results

#### Adjoint method inferred concentration

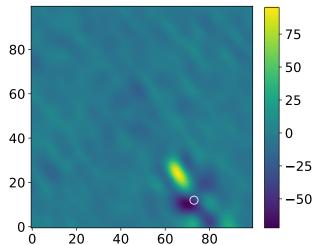
#### 200 175 150 125 100 75 50 25 pred -200 -150 -100 -50 0 50 100

#### GP inferred concentration



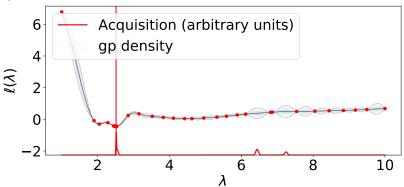
## Example 2: Roundhill Results

#### Adjoint method source inference



#### Parameter estimation

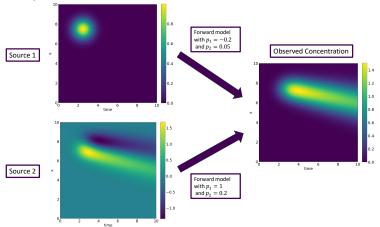
A naive way to estimate the non-linear parameters is via Bayesian optimization



- use the adjoint sensitivity to estimate derivative information
- estimate posterior using a variational approach

## Parameter estimation: Identifiability

If we allow both the system parameters, p and the forcing function f to vary with no constraints, we have too many degrees of freedom and have non-unique solutions.



# Parameter estimation: Identifiability

#### Possible solutions:

- Constrain our parameter posterior distribution
- Assume some parameters known
- Constrain our source posterior distribution

#### Sequential data

$$z = \begin{pmatrix} \langle v_1, \phi_1 \rangle & \dots & \langle v_1, \phi_M \rangle \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \langle v_n, \phi_1 \rangle & \dots & \langle v_n, \phi_M \rangle \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} q_1 \\ q_M \end{pmatrix} + e$$
$$= \Phi \mathbf{q} + e$$

Adding features, or incorporating new data is easy

- New features/basis vectors require new columns in  $\Phi$  no new simulation is required
- New data adds rows to  $\Phi$  each new data point necessitates one additional simulation.

#### Costs

#### Adjoint method:

- require *n* solves of the adjoint system to infer *f* .
- (essentially) insensitive to the number of basis functions used.
- The non-linear parameters (GP hyperparameters, PDE parameters) can be inferred in an outer-loop

#### MCMC:

- All parameters inferred together.
- Hard to say how many iterations will be required, but likely to grow with the number of parameters (and hence number of GP features).
- Number of iterations required largely independent of *n*.
- Derivative information generally helps, but may be unavailable (autodiff often unstable for PDE solvers)

#### Conclusions

- Developed a method to infer forcing functions of linear systems given noisy observations
- requires n adjoint solves to infer the posterior
  - essentially insensitive to the number of basis functions used
- Adjoint gives numerically stable derivatives of the cost function with respect to other parameters,  $\frac{dS}{dp}$  etc.
- Opportunities for additional efficiencies...
  - Efficient use of adjoint simulations
  - Gradient based optimization
  - Sequential data

Ref: Gahungu et al. NeurIPS 2022, Smith et al. 2024, (forthcoming pre-prints).

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Thank you for listening!