## Inference in Stochastic Processes Reading Group

Javier Antoran, Matt Ashman, Stratis Markou

24<sup>th</sup> February 2021



#### In the end we only care about functions



# Gaussian processes (GPs) as a motivating example



#### A Visual Exploration of Gaussian Processes

How to turn a collection of small building blocks into a versatile tool for solving regression problems.

distill.pub/2019/visual-exploration-gaussian-processes/



# NO!

Functional inference refers to performing probabilistic reasoning about functions f directly, as opposed to model parameters  $\theta$ .

$$p(\theta|\mathcal{D}) = \frac{p(\mathcal{D}|\theta)p(\theta)}{p(\mathcal{D})}$$



$$p(\mathbf{f}|\mathcal{D}) = \frac{p(\mathcal{D}|\mathbf{f})p(\mathbf{f})}{p(\mathcal{D})}$$

 ${\bf f}$  could be the output of a parametric model.

#### Contents

- 1 Constructing (non-Gaussian) stochastic processes with linear combinations of basis functions
- 2 Functional inference in neural networks
- **3** Stochastic differential equations (SDE)



#### Relevant topics that will not be covered

- Rigorous measure theoretic background
- Approximate inference in Gaussian processes
- Infinite width limits of neural networks NTK

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{m=1}^{M} w_m \phi_m(\mathbf{x}) = \phi(\mathbf{x})^T \mathbf{w}$$

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{m=1}^{M} w_m \phi_m(\mathbf{x}) = \phi(\mathbf{x})^T \mathbf{w}$$

• Basis function  $\phi(\mathbf{x}) : \mathbb{R}^D \to \mathbb{R}^M$ .

e.g. 
$$\phi(x) = [1, x, x^2, x^3, ..., x^{M-1}]^T$$

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{m=1}^{M} w_m \phi_m(\mathbf{x}) = \phi(\mathbf{x})^T \mathbf{w}$$

• Basis function  $\phi(\mathbf{x}) : \mathbb{R}^D \to \mathbb{R}^M$ .

e.g. 
$$\phi(x) = [1, x, x^2, x^3, ..., x^{M-1}]^T$$

• Prior over  $\mathbf{w} \implies$  prior over  $f(\cdot)$ .

$$p(f(\mathbf{X})) = \int \underbrace{\delta\left[f(\mathbf{X}) - \Phi(\mathbf{X})\mathbf{w}\right]}_{p(f(\mathbf{X})|\mathbf{w})} p(\mathbf{w}) d\mathbf{w}$$

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{m=1}^{M} w_m \phi_m(\mathbf{x}) = \phi(\mathbf{x})^T \mathbf{w}$$



**Left**:  $\{\phi_m(\mathbf{x})\}_{m=1}^5$ . **Right**:  $f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{m=1}^M w_m \phi_m(\mathbf{x})$ .

#### Weight space view of Gaussian processes

$$p(\mathbf{w}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{w}; \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})$$

#### Weight space view of Gaussian processes

$$p(\mathbf{w}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{w}; \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})$$

• Function-space prior:

$$p(f(\mathbf{X})) = \int \delta \left[ f(\mathbf{X}) - \Phi(\mathbf{X}) \mathbf{w} \right] p(\mathbf{w}) d\mathbf{w} = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{f}; \boldsymbol{\mu}, \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{ff}})$$
$$\boldsymbol{\mu} = \Phi(\mathbf{X}) \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{w}] = \mathbf{0} \quad \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{ff}} = \Phi(\mathbf{X}) \Phi(\mathbf{X})^{T}$$

#### Weight space view of Gaussian processes

$$p(\mathbf{w}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{w}; \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})$$

• Function-space prior:

$$p(f(\mathbf{X})) = \int \delta \left[ f(\mathbf{X}) - \Phi(\mathbf{X}) \mathbf{w} \right] p(\mathbf{w}) d\mathbf{w} = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{f}; \boldsymbol{\mu}, \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{ff}})$$
$$\boldsymbol{\mu} = \Phi(\mathbf{X}) \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{w}] = \mathbf{0} \quad \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{ff}} = \Phi(\mathbf{X}) \Phi(\mathbf{X})^{T}$$

• Equivalent to GP prior with kernel

$$k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = \left[\Phi(\mathbf{X})\Phi(\mathbf{X})^T\right]_{ij} = \phi(\mathbf{x}_i)^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_j) = \sum_{m=1}^M \phi_m(\mathbf{x}_i)\phi_m(\mathbf{x}_j)$$

#### **Non-Gaussian priors?**

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \phi(\mathbf{x})^T \mathbf{w}$$

 $p(\mathbf{w})$  non-Gaussian?  $\implies$  non-Gaussian process  $p(f(\cdot))$ .

#### **Non-Gaussian priors?**

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \phi(\mathbf{x})^T \mathbf{w}$$

 $p(\mathbf{w})$  non-Gaussian?  $\implies$  non-Gaussian process  $p(f(\cdot))$ .

Method for constructing non-Gaussian prior  $p(\mathbf{w})$ :

$$p_{\theta}(\mathbf{w}) = \int p_{\theta}(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{z}) p(\mathbf{z}) d\mathbf{z}$$

- $p(\mathbf{z})$  simple, i.e.  $p(\mathbf{z}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{z}; \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})$
- $p(\mathbf{w})$  arbitrarily complex.

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \phi(\mathbf{x})^T \mathbf{w}$$

 $p(\mathbf{w})$  non-Gaussian?  $\implies$  non-Gaussian process  $p(f(\cdot))$ .

Method for constructing non-Gaussian prior  $p(\mathbf{w})$ :

$$p_{\theta}(\mathbf{w}) = \int p_{\theta}(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{z}) p(\mathbf{z}) d\mathbf{z}$$

- $p(\mathbf{z})$  simple, i.e.  $p(\mathbf{z}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{z}; \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})$
- $p(\mathbf{w})$  arbitrarily complex.

How to learn  $p_{\theta}(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{z})$ ? From data (functions).

Given K samples from N functions:

$$\left\{\underbrace{\{\mathbf{x}_{i}^{n}, y_{i}^{n}\}_{i=1}^{K}}_{\text{samples from } f_{n}(\cdot)}\right\}_{n=1}^{N}$$

Given K samples from N functions:

$$\left\{\underbrace{\{\mathbf{x}_{i}^{n}, y_{i}^{n}\}_{i=1}^{K}}_{\text{samples from } f_{n}(\cdot)}\right\}_{n=1}^{N}$$

Model as

$$y_i^n = \phi(\mathbf{x}_i^n)^T \mathbf{w}^n + \epsilon_i^n$$

Given K samples from N functions:

$$\left\{\underbrace{\{\mathbf{x}_{i}^{n}, y_{i}^{n}\}_{i=1}^{K}}_{\text{samples from } f_{n}(\cdot)}\right\}_{n=1}^{N}$$

Model as

$$y_i^n = \phi(\mathbf{x}_i^n)^T \mathbf{w}^n + \epsilon_i^n$$

• ML learning of 
$$\{\mathbf{w}^n\}_{n=1}^N$$
 and  $\phi$ :

$$\underset{\mathbf{w},\phi}{\operatorname{arg\,max}} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \log p(\mathbf{y}^{n} | \Phi(\mathbf{X}^{n}), \mathbf{w}^{n})$$

Given 
$$K$$
 samples from  $N$  functions:

$$\left\{\underbrace{\{\mathbf{x}_{i}^{n}, y_{i}^{n}\}_{i=1}^{K}}_{\text{samples from } f_{n}(\cdot)}\right\}_{n=1}^{N}$$

Model as

$$y_i^n = \phi(\mathbf{x}_i^n)^T \mathbf{w}^n + \epsilon_i^n$$

• ML learning of 
$$\{\mathbf{w}^n\}_{n=1}^N$$
 and  $\phi$ :

$$\underset{\mathbf{w},\phi}{\operatorname{arg\,max}} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \log p(\mathbf{y}^{n} | \Phi(\mathbf{X}^{n}), \mathbf{w}^{n})$$

• Train generative model on  $\{\mathbf{w}^n\}_{n=1}^N$  to learn  $p_{\theta}(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{z})$ , i.e. VAE:

$$\underset{\theta,\eta_e}{\operatorname{arg\,max}} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \mathbb{E}_{q_{\eta_e}(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{w}^n)} \left[ \log p_{\theta}(\mathbf{w}^n | \mathbf{z}) \right] - \operatorname{KL} \left[ q_{\eta_e}(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{w}^n) || p(\mathbf{z}) \right]$$

## **Efficient posterior inference**

Given  $\phi$  and  $p_{\theta}(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{z}) = \delta \left[ d_{\theta}(\mathbf{z}) - \mathbf{w} \right]$ 

## Efficient posterior inference

Given 
$$\phi$$
 and  $p_{\theta}(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{z}) = \delta \left[ d_{\theta}(\mathbf{z}) - \mathbf{w} \right]$ 

• Sampling functions from prior:

$$\mathbf{z}^{(s)} \sim p(\mathbf{z}) \quad \mathbf{w}^{(s)} = d_{\theta}(\mathbf{z}^{(s)})$$
$$\implies f^{(s)}(\mathbf{x}) = \phi(\mathbf{x})^T \mathbf{w}^{(s)}$$

#### **Efficient posterior inference**

Given 
$$\phi$$
 and  $p_{\theta}(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{z}) = \delta \left[ d_{\theta}(\mathbf{z}) - \mathbf{w} \right]$ 

• Sampling functions from prior:

$$\mathbf{z}^{(s)} \sim p(\mathbf{z}) \quad \mathbf{w}^{(s)} = d_{\theta}(\mathbf{z}^{(s)})$$
$$\implies f^{(s)}(\mathbf{x}) = \phi(\mathbf{x})^T \mathbf{w}^{(s)}$$

• Sampling functions from posterior? Perform MCMC in latent space:

$$p(\mathbf{z}|\mathcal{D}_*, \phi) \propto p(\mathbf{y}_*|\Phi(\mathbf{X}_*), \mathbf{z})p(\mathbf{z})$$
$$\mathbf{z}^{(s)}|\mathcal{D} \sim p(\mathbf{z}|\mathcal{D}_*, \phi) \quad \mathbf{w}^{(s)} = d_{\theta}(\mathbf{z}^{(s)})$$
$$\implies f^{(s)}(\mathbf{x}) \mid \mathcal{D}_* = \phi(\mathbf{x})^T \mathbf{w}^{(s)}$$

## $\pi$ VAE: end-to-end training (Mishra et al. 2020)

$$\mathcal{L} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \log p(\mathbf{y}^n | \Phi(\mathbf{X}^n), \mathbf{w}^n) + \mathbb{E}_{q_{\eta_e}(\mathbf{z} | \mathbf{w}^n) p_{\theta}(\hat{\mathbf{w}}^n | \mathbf{z})} \left[ \log p(\mathbf{y}^n | \Phi(\mathbf{X}^n), \hat{\mathbf{w}}^n) \right] - \mathrm{KL} \left[ q_{\eta_e}(\mathbf{z} | \mathbf{w}^n) || p(\mathbf{z}) \right]$$

- $\log p(\mathbf{y}|\Phi(\mathbf{X}), \mathbf{w}) \implies \phi$  and  $\mathbf{w}$  explain the data.
- $\mathbb{E}_{q_{\eta_e}(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{w})} \left[ \mathbb{E}_{p_{\theta}(\hat{\mathbf{w}}|\mathbf{z})} \left[ \log p(\mathbf{y}|\Phi(\mathbf{X}), \hat{\mathbf{w}}] \right] \implies \phi \text{ and reconstructed } \mathbf{w} \text{ explain the data.}$
- $\operatorname{KL}[q_{\eta_e}(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{w})||p(\mathbf{z})] \implies q_{\eta_e}(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{w})$  close to the prior  $p(\mathbf{z})$ .

## $\pi$ VAE: learning a GP prior (Mishra et al. 2020)

 $\pi$ VAE trained on Gaussian process samples



Left: prior samples. Right: posterior predictive distribution.

## $\pi$ VAE: posterior inference (Mishra et al. 2020)



Left:  $\pi$ VAE, samples from cubic functions. Middle:  $\pi$ VAE, samples from RBF kernel. Right: GP with RBF kernel

# Stochastic process generator (Ma et al.)

Approximate stochastic process posterior

$$p(f|\mathcal{D}) = \frac{p(f)p(\mathcal{D}|f)}{p(\mathcal{D})} \approx q_{\mathsf{SPG}}(f)$$

## Stochastic process generator (Ma et al.)

Approximate stochastic process posterior

$$p(f|\mathcal{D}) = \frac{p(f)p(\mathcal{D}|f)}{p(\mathcal{D})} \approx q_{\mathsf{SPG}}(f)$$

'Stochastic process generator' (SPG) family:

$$f_{\mathsf{SPG}}(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{m=1} w_m \phi_m(\mathbf{x}), \quad q(\mathbf{w}) = \int p_\theta(\mathbf{w} | \mathbf{z}) q(\mathbf{z}) d\mathbf{z}$$

- Non-Gaussian  $q(\mathbf{w}) \implies$  non-Gaussian process  $q_{\mathsf{SPG}}(f)$ .
- $\phi_m$  are a set of trainable basis functions.

Function space ELBO:



Function space ELBO:



KL between stochastic processes? Sun et al. (2019):

 $\mathrm{KL}\left[q(f)||p(f)\right] = \sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}, \mathbf{X} \in \mathcal{X}^n} \mathrm{KL}\left[q(f(\mathbf{X}))||p(f(\mathbf{X}))\right]$ 

Function space ELBO:



KL between stochastic processes? Sun et al. (2019):

 $\mathrm{KL}\left[q(f)||p(f)\right] = \sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}, \mathbf{X} \in \mathcal{X}^n} \mathrm{KL}\left[q(f(\mathbf{X}))||p(f(\mathbf{X}))\right]$ 

Can't compute supremum!  $\implies$  approximate with  $\operatorname{KL}[q(f)||p(f)] \ge \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{X}_O \sim c} \left[\operatorname{KL}[q(f(\mathbf{X}_O))||p(f(\mathbf{X}_O))]\right]$ 

(However, true KL may not be finite...)



$$f_{\mathsf{SPG}}(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{m=1} w_m \phi_m(\mathbf{x}), \quad q(\mathbf{w}) = \int p_\theta(\mathbf{w} | \mathbf{z}) q(\mathbf{z}) d\mathbf{z}$$

$$f_{\mathsf{SPG}}(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{m=1} w_m \phi_m(\mathbf{x}), \quad q(\mathbf{w}) = \int p_\theta(\mathbf{w} | \mathbf{z}) q(\mathbf{z}) d\mathbf{z}$$

- Approximate prior  $p(f) \approx \tilde{p}_{SPG}(f)$ .
  - $\implies$  Learns  $\{\phi_m\}_{m=1}^M$ ,  $p_{\theta}(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{z})$  and  $\tilde{q}(\mathbf{z}|f(\mathbf{X}_O)) \approx \tilde{p}_{\mathsf{SPG}}(\mathbf{z}|f(\mathbf{X}_O))$  through VAE-like ELBO.

$$f_{\mathsf{SPG}}(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{m=1} w_m \phi_m(\mathbf{x}), \quad q(\mathbf{w}) = \int p_\theta(\mathbf{w} | \mathbf{z}) q(\mathbf{z}) d\mathbf{z}$$

- Approximate prior  $p(f) \approx \tilde{p}_{SPG}(f)$ .  $\implies$  Learns  $\{\phi_m\}_{m=1}^M$ ,  $p_{\theta}(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{z})$  and  $\tilde{q}(\mathbf{z}|f(\mathbf{X}_O)) \approx \tilde{p}_{SPG}(\mathbf{z}|f(\mathbf{X}_O))$  through VAE-like ELBO.
- Share  $\{\phi_m\}_{m=1}^M$  and  $p_{\theta}(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{z})$  between  $p_{\mathsf{SPG}}(f)$  and  $q_{\mathsf{SPG}}(f)$ .  $\implies$  Simplifies KL divergence:

$$\begin{split} & \operatorname{KL}\left[q_{\mathsf{SPG}}(f(\mathbf{X}_O))||p_{\mathsf{SPG}}(f(\mathbf{X}_O))\right] \\ & \approx \mathbb{E}_{p_{\mathsf{SPG}}(f(\mathbf{X}_O))}\left[\int \tilde{q}(\mathbf{z}|f(\mathbf{X}_O))\frac{q(\mathbf{z})}{p_0(\mathbf{z})}\right] d\mathbf{z} \end{split}$$


#### **Neural Networks as Stochastic Processes**

Functions sampled from NN prior:



 $p(\theta) = \mathcal{N}(\theta; 0, I)$ 



### Can NNs be viewed as linear basis function models?

If we take a first order Taylor expansion of network outputs with respect to their weights we obtain a basis function linear model:

If we take a first order Taylor expansion of network outputs with respect to their weights we obtain a basis function linear model:

• Lets define some NN  $f_{\theta}(\cdot)$  and some weight setting  $\theta^*$ :

$$f_{\theta}(x) \approx f_{\theta}^{\mathsf{lin}}(x) = f_{\theta^*}(x) + \left(\frac{\partial f_{\theta^*}(x)}{\partial \theta^*}\right)^{\mathsf{T}} (\theta - \theta^*)$$

•  $f_{\theta}^{\text{lin}}(x)$  is a linear model in  $\theta$  with basis functions  $\phi(x) = \frac{\partial f_{\theta^*}(x)}{\partial \theta^*}$  [7].

• This corresponds to a GP with 
$$k(x_1, x_2) = \left(\frac{\partial f_{\theta^*}(x_1)}{\partial \theta^*}\right)^{\mathsf{T}} \left(\frac{\partial f_{\theta^*}(x_2)}{\partial \theta^*}\right)!$$

If we take a first order Taylor expansion of network outputs with respect to their weights we obtain a basis function linear model:

• Lets define some NN  $f_{\theta}(\cdot)$  and some weight setting  $\theta^*$ :

$$f_{\theta}(x) \approx f_{\theta}^{\mathsf{lin}}(x) = f_{\theta^*}(x) + \left(\frac{\partial f_{\theta^*}(x)}{\partial \theta^*}\right)^{\mathsf{T}} (\theta - \theta^*)$$

•  $f_{\theta}^{\text{lin}}(x)$  is a linear model in  $\theta$  with basis functions  $\phi(x) = \frac{\partial f_{\theta^*}(x)}{\partial \theta^*}$  [7].

• This corresponds to a GP with 
$$k(x_1, x_2) = \left(\frac{\partial f_{\theta^*}(x_1)}{\partial \theta^*}\right)^{\mathsf{T}} \left(\frac{\partial f_{\theta^*}(x_2)}{\partial \theta^*}\right)!$$

Could also make an argument about infinite width limits...

## A Linearised NN-GP in action (Daxberger et. al.)



### Inference in finite, non-Linearised NNs

• They are not GPs.

• Probabilistic inference over their weight space is intractable.





[Li et. al.]

$$p(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathcal{D}) \geq \mathsf{ELBO}_{q(\boldsymbol{\theta})} = E_{q(\boldsymbol{\theta})}[\log p(\mathcal{D}|\boldsymbol{\theta})] - KL(q(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \,|| \, p(\boldsymbol{\theta}))$$





## **Empirical Underperformance**



We know Mean Field distributions are flexible enough to do better [5]. It looks like the problem is the inference!

#### We resort to functional variational inference!

The functional posterior is intractable for NNs so we again resort to **functional** VI [12].

$$p(\theta|\mathcal{D}) \ge \mathsf{ELBO}_{q(f)} = E_{q(f)}[\log p(\mathcal{D}|f)] - KL(q || p);$$

$$KL(q \mid\mid p) = \underset{n \in \mathbb{N}, X \in \mathcal{X}^n}{\sup} D_{\mathsf{KL}}(q(f(X)) \mid\mid p(f(X)))$$

#### We resort to functional variational inference!

The functional posterior is intractable for NNs so we again resort to **functional** VI [12].

$$p(\theta|\mathcal{D}) \ge \mathsf{ELBO}_{q(f)} = E_{q(f)}[\log p(\mathcal{D}|f)] - KL(q || p);$$

$$KL(q \mid\mid p) = \sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}, X \in \mathcal{X}^n} D_{\mathsf{KL}}(q(f(X)) \mid\mid p(f(X)))$$

By the information processing inequality, this should yield a tighter ELBO than weight space VI [2].

$$\log p(\mathcal{D}) \ge \mathsf{ELBO}_{q(f)} \ge \mathsf{ELBO}_{q(\theta)} \tag{1}$$

Intuition: Different parameter settings induce different functions which explain the data.

$$\theta \to f \to y; \quad I(y:f) \ge I(y:\theta)$$
 (2)

### The functional KL, again



- Supremum over all input sets is intractable to compute!
- Functional KL between GP and parametric models or between different parametric models may not even be finite [2].

#### Approximations used by Sun et. al.

• Supremum formulation of functional KL suggests an **adversarial learning scheme**: One player chooses approximate process q and the other chooses the measurement set X.

$$\max_{q} \min_{X \in \mathcal{X}^{n}} E_{q(f)}[\log p(\mathcal{D}|f)] - D_{\mathsf{KL}}(q(f(X)) || p(f(X)))$$

Sun et. al. find this to not work well in practise.

#### Approximations used by Sun et. al.

• Supremum formulation of functional KL suggests an **adversarial learning scheme**: One player chooses approximate process q and the other chooses the measurement set X.

$$\max_{q} \min_{X \in \mathcal{X}^{n}} E_{q(f)}[\log p(\mathcal{D}|f)] - D_{\mathsf{KL}}(q(f(X)) || p(f(X)))$$

Sun et. al. find this to not work well in practise.

• **Sampling-based measurement sets**: Define a sampling distribution *c* from which to draw *X*.

$$\max_{q} E_{q(f)}[\log p(\mathcal{D}|f)] - \mathbb{E}_{X \sim c}[D_{\mathsf{KL}}(q(f(X)) || p(f(X)))]$$

A remaining issue might be estimating q(f(X))...

## **Choosing measurement points**

Sun et. al. show that the resulting objective is still a lower bound on  $\log p(D)$  as long as  $X_D \subset X$ .

Burt et. al. compare approaches on linear models:

- Randomly sample X once and leave it fixed.
- Resample X ~ c in every iteration (random.)





# Results: BNNs with Random sampling (Sun et. al.)



- Approximate functional VI is more flexible than weight space VI.
- In agreement with [5], at least 2 hidden layers are needed to capture in between uncertainty with mean field weight parametrisation.
- Is functional VI a practical approach?

Appropriate when the data generating process is 1 In continuous time

- 1 In continuous time
- 2 Causal

- 1 In continuous time
- 2 Causal
- 3 Partly driven by noise

- 1 In continuous time
- 2 Causal
- 3 Partly driven by noise



Appropriate when the data generating process is

- In continuous time
- 2 Causal
- 3 Partly driven by noise



Applications satisfying these criteria:

Appropriate when the data generating process is

- In continuous time
- 2 Causal
- 3 Partly driven by noise



Applications satisfying these criteria:

1 Tracking and location

Appropriate when the data generating process is

- In continuous time
- 2 Causal
- 3 Partly driven by noise



Applications satisfying these criteria:

- 1 Tracking and location
- 2 Medical

Appropriate when the data generating process is

- In continuous time
- 2 Causal
- 3 Partly driven by noise



Applications satisfying these criteria:

- 1 Tracking and location
- 2 Medical
- 3 Physical models, e.g. weather and climate





• SDE governs dynamics of latent  $x_t$ .



- SDE governs dynamics of latent  $x_t$ .
- Observation model  $p(y_t|x_t)$  generates observed  $y_t$ .



- SDE governs dynamics of latent  $x_t$ .
- Observation model  $p(y_t|x_t)$  generates observed  $y_t$ .

What do we gain?



- SDE governs dynamics of latent  $x_t$ .
- Observation model  $p(y_t|x_t)$  generates observed  $y_t$ .

What do we gain?

• Better inductive biases.



- SDE governs dynamics of latent  $x_t$ .
- Observation model  $p(y_t|x_t)$  generates observed  $y_t$ .

What do we gain?

- Better inductive biases.
- Bake prior beliefs into the model.



- SDE governs dynamics of latent  $x_t$ .
- Observation model  $p(y_t|x_t)$  generates observed  $y_t$ .

What do we gain?

- Better inductive biases.
- Bake prior beliefs into the model.
- Principled handling of irregularly spaced data.

#### An introduction to SDEs

#### An introduction to SDEs

We call  $x_t$  the solution to an SDE with drift f and diffusion g if

$$x_t = x_0 + \int_{t_0}^{t_1} f(x_{\tau}, \tau) d\tau + \int_{t_0}^{t_1} g(x_{\tau}, \tau) d\beta_{\tau}$$

where  $\beta_t$  is a standard Brownian motion

#### An introduction to SDEs

We call  $x_t$  the solution to an SDE with drift f and diffusion g if

$$x_t = x_0 + \int_{t_0}^{t_1} f(x_{\tau}, \tau) d\tau + \int_{t_0}^{t_1} g(x_{\tau}, \tau) d\beta_{\tau}$$

where  $\beta_t$  is a standard Brownian motion, with the properties
We call  $x_t$  the solution to an SDE with drift f and diffusion g if

$$x_t = x_0 + \int_{t_0}^{t_1} f(x_{\tau}, \tau) d\tau + \int_{t_0}^{t_1} g(x_{\tau}, \tau) d\beta_{\tau}$$

where  $\beta_t$  is a standard Brownian motion, with the properties

• Initialisation:  $\beta_0 = 0$ .

We call  $x_t$  the solution to an SDE with drift f and diffusion g if

$$x_{t} = x_{0} + \int_{t_{0}}^{t_{1}} f(x_{\tau}, \tau) d\tau + \int_{t_{0}}^{t_{1}} g(x_{\tau}, \tau) d\beta_{\tau}$$

where  $\beta_t$  is a standard Brownian motion, with the properties

- Initialisation:  $\beta_0 = 0$ .
- Rate of change:  $\beta_{t_2} \beta_{t_1} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, t_2 t_1)$  where  $t_1 < t_2$ .

We call  $x_t$  the solution to an SDE with drift f and diffusion g if

$$x_{t} = x_{0} + \int_{t_{0}}^{t_{1}} f(x_{\tau}, \tau) d\tau + \int_{t_{0}}^{t_{1}} g(x_{\tau}, \tau) d\beta_{\tau}$$

where  $\beta_t$  is a standard Brownian motion, with the properties

- Initialisation:  $\beta_0 = 0$ .
- Rate of change:  $\beta_{t_2} \beta_{t_1} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, t_2 t_1)$  where  $t_1 < t_2$ .
- Independence:  $\beta_{t_3} \perp \beta_{t_1} | \beta_{t_2}$  whenever  $t_1 < t_2 < t_3$ .

We call  $x_t$  the solution to an SDE with drift f and diffusion g if

$$x_t = x_0 + \int_{t_0}^{t_1} f(x_{\tau}, \tau) d\tau + \int_{t_0}^{t_1} g(x_{\tau}, \tau) d\beta_{\tau}$$

where  $\beta_t$  is a standard Brownian motion, with the properties

- Initialisation:  $\beta_0 = 0$ .
- Rate of change:  $\beta_{t_2} \beta_{t_1} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, t_2 t_1)$  where  $t_1 < t_2$ .
- Independence:  $\beta_{t_3} \perp \beta_{t_1} | \beta_{t_2}$  whenever  $t_1 < t_2 < t_3$ .

For the moment, think the integrals as left-endpoint Riemann integrals

$$\int_{a}^{b} g(x_{\tau},\tau) d\beta_{\tau} = \lim_{|\Delta| \to 0} \sum_{n=1}^{N} g(x_{\tau_{k}},\tau) (\beta_{\tau_{k+1}} - \beta_{\tau_{k}})$$

where  $a = \tau_1 < ... < \tau_N = b, \Delta = \max\{\tau_{k+1} - \tau_k\}.$ 

We call  $x_t$  the solution to an SDE with drift f and diffusion g if

$$x_t = x_0 + \int_{t_0}^{t_1} f(x_{\tau}, \tau) d\tau + \int_{t_0}^{t_1} g(x_{\tau}, \tau) d\beta_{\tau}$$

where  $\beta_t$  is a standard Brownian motion, with the properties

- Initialisation:  $\beta_0 = 0$ .
- Rate of change:  $\beta_{t_2} \beta_{t_1} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, t_2 t_1)$  where  $t_1 < t_2$ .
- Independence:  $\beta_{t_3} \perp \beta_{t_1} | \beta_{t_2}$  whenever  $t_1 < t_2 < t_3$ .

For the moment, think the integrals as left-endpoint Riemann integrals

$$\int_{a}^{b} g(x_{\tau},\tau) d\beta_{\tau} = \lim_{|\Delta| \to 0} \sum_{n=1}^{N} g(x_{\tau_{k}},\tau) (\beta_{\tau_{k+1}} - \beta_{\tau_{k}})$$

where  $a = \tau_1 < ... < \tau_N = b, \Delta = \max\{\tau_{k+1} - \tau_k\}$ . Alternatively written  $dx_t = f(x_t, t)dt + g(x_t, t)d\beta_t.$ 

When the SDE is linear

$$dx_t = F(t)x_t dt + G(t)d\beta_t,$$

 $x_t$  is a **GP**, which is also Markovian.

When the SDE is linear

$$dx_t = F(t)x_t dt + G(t)d\beta_t,$$

 $x_t$  is a GP, which is also Markovian. It is sometimes possible to convert a GP kernel to an equivalent SDE – reduces complexity from  $\mathcal{O}(T)$ . [6]

When the SDE is linear

$$dx_t = F(t)x_t dt + G(t)d\beta_t,$$

 $x_t$  is a GP, which is also Markovian. It is sometimes possible to convert a GP kernel to an equivalent SDE – reduces complexity from  $\mathcal{O}(T)$ . [6]

**Solution:** 
$$x_t = \Psi(t, t_0)x_0 + \int_{t_0}^t \underbrace{\Psi(t, \tau)}_{\text{Impulse response fn.}} G(\tau)d\beta_{\tau}.$$

When F(t) = F, impulse response is  $\Psi(t, t') = \exp[(t - t')F]$ .

When the SDE is linear

$$dx_t = F(t)x_t dt + G(t)d\beta_t,$$

 $x_t$  is a GP, which is also Markovian. It is sometimes possible to convert a GP kernel to an equivalent SDE – reduces complexity from  $\mathcal{O}(T)$ . [6]

**Solution:** 
$$x_t = \Psi(t, t_0)x_0 + \int_{t_0}^t \underbrace{\Psi(t, \tau)}_{\text{Impulse response fn.}} G(\tau)d\beta_{\tau}.$$

When F(t) = F, impulse response is  $\Psi(t, t') = \exp[(t - t')F]$ . Given a factorising Gaussian observation model  $p(y|x) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} p(y_n|x_n)$ 

When the SDE is linear

$$dx_t = F(t)x_t dt + G(t)d\beta_t,$$

 $x_t$  is a GP, which is also Markovian. It is sometimes possible to convert a GP kernel to an equivalent SDE – reduces complexity from  $\mathcal{O}(T)$ . [6]

**Solution:** 
$$x_t = \Psi(t, t_0)x_0 + \int_{t_0}^t \underbrace{\Psi(t, \tau)}_{\text{Impulse response fn.}} G(\tau)d\beta_{\tau}.$$

When F(t) = F, impulse response is  $\Psi(t, t') = \exp[(t - t')F]$ . Given a factorising Gaussian observation model  $p(y|x) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} p(y_n|x_n)$ 



When the SDE is linear

$$dx_t = F(t)x_t dt + G(t)d\beta_t,$$

 $x_t$  is a GP, which is also Markovian. It is sometimes possible to convert a GP kernel to an equivalent SDE – reduces complexity from  $\mathcal{O}(T)$ . [6]

**Solution:** 
$$x_t = \Psi(t, t_0)x_0 + \int_{t_0}^t \underbrace{\Psi(t, \tau)}_{\text{Impulse response fn.}} G(\tau)d\beta_{\tau}.$$

When F(t) = F, impulse response is  $\Psi(t, t') = \exp[(t - t')F]$ . Given a factorising Gaussian observation model  $p(y|x) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} p(y_n|x_n)$ 



Compute posterior in  $\mathcal{O}(T)$  time. (Kalman filtering/smoothing) [3, 10]

Assume the GP convolution model (GPCM) of the form

$$x_t = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(\tau) d\beta_{\tau}$$
, where  $h \sim \mathcal{GP}(0, k_h)$ .

Assume the GP convolution model (GPCM) of the form

$$x_t = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(\tau) d\beta_{\tau}$$
, where  $h \sim \mathcal{GP}(0, k_h)$ .

Conditioned on h(t),  $x_t$  is a GP, with kernel

$$k_{f|h}(t_1, t_2) = h(t) * h(-t)$$
, where  $t = |t_2 - t_1|$ .

Assume the GP convolution model (GPCM) of the form

$$x_t = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(\tau) d\beta_{\tau}$$
, where  $h \sim \mathcal{GP}(0, k_h)$ .

Conditioned on h(t),  $x_t$  is a GP, with kernel

$$k_{f|h}(t_1, t_2) = h(t) * h(-t)$$
, where  $t = |t_2 - t_1|$ .

Three challenges:

1  $x_t$  depends on convolution between infinite-dimensional h and  $\beta_t$ .

Assume the GP convolution model (GPCM) of the form

$$x_t = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(\tau) d\beta_{\tau}$$
, where  $h \sim \mathcal{GP}(0, k_h)$ .

Conditioned on h(t),  $x_t$  is a GP, with kernel

$$k_{f|h}(t_1, t_2) = h(t) * h(-t)$$
, where  $t = |t_2 - t_1|$ .

Three challenges:

- **1**  $x_t$  depends on convolution between infinite-dimensional h and  $\beta_t$ .
- **2** The noise increments  $d\beta_t$  must be treated carefully.

Assume the GP convolution model (GPCM) of the form

$$x_t = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(\tau) d\beta_{\tau}$$
, where  $h \sim \mathcal{GP}(0, k_h)$ .

Conditioned on h(t),  $x_t$  is a GP, with kernel

$$k_{f|h}(t_1, t_2) = h(t) * h(-t)$$
, where  $t = |t_2 - t_1|$ .

Three challenges:

- **1**  $x_t$  depends on convolution between infinite-dimensional h and  $\beta_t$ .
- **2** The noise increments  $d\beta_t$  must be treated carefully.
- **3**  $x_t$  is nonlinear in  $h, \beta_t$  marginal likelihood is intractable.

Assume the GP convolution model (GPCM) of the form

$$x_t = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(\tau) d\beta_{\tau}$$
, where  $h \sim \mathcal{GP}(0, k_h)$ .

Conditioned on h(t),  $x_t$  is a GP, with kernel

$$k_{f|h}(t_1, t_2) = h(t) * h(-t)$$
, where  $t = |t_2 - t_1|$ .

Three challenges:

- **1**  $x_t$  depends on convolution between infinite-dimensional h and  $\beta_t$ .
- **2** The noise increments  $d\beta_t$  must be treated carefully.
- **3**  $x_t$  is nonlinear in  $h, \beta_t$  marginal likelihood is intractable.

Solution: 1 use sparse GP inducing points [13],

Assume the GP convolution model (GPCM) of the form

$$x_t = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(\tau) d\beta_{\tau}$$
, where  $h \sim \mathcal{GP}(0, k_h)$ .

Conditioned on h(t),  $x_t$  is a GP, with kernel

$$k_{f|h}(t_1, t_2) = h(t) * h(-t)$$
, where  $t = |t_2 - t_1|$ .

Three challenges:

- **1**  $x_t$  depends on convolution between infinite-dimensional h and  $\beta_t$ .
- **2** The noise increments  $d\beta_t$  must be treated carefully.
- **3**  $x_t$  is nonlinear in  $h, \beta_t$  marginal likelihood is intractable.

Solution: 1) use sparse GP inducing points [13], 2) to infer h and a smoothed version of  $\beta_t$ ,

Assume the GP convolution model (GPCM) of the form

$$x_t = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(\tau) d\beta_{\tau}$$
, where  $h \sim \mathcal{GP}(0, k_h)$ .

Conditioned on h(t),  $x_t$  is a GP, with kernel

$$k_{f|h}(t_1, t_2) = h(t) * h(-t)$$
, where  $t = |t_2 - t_1|$ .

Three challenges:

- **1**  $x_t$  depends on convolution between infinite-dimensional h and  $\beta_t$ .
- **2** The noise increments  $d\beta_t$  must be treated carefully.
- **3**  $x_t$  is nonlinear in  $h, \beta_t$  marginal likelihood is intractable.

Solution: 1) use sparse GP inducing points [13], 2) to infer h and a smoothed version of  $\beta_t$ , 3) via the Evidence Lower Bound.



Figure 1: Posterior inference in GPCM from [14] (edited).

Given an SDE and observation model

$$\begin{aligned} dx_t &= f(x_t, t)dt + \Sigma^{1/2}d\beta_t & \text{(prior SDE, p)} \\ y_n &= Hx_n + \sigma_n \epsilon, \text{ where } \epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1). & \text{(observation model)} \end{aligned}$$

Given an SDE and observation model

$$\begin{aligned} dx_t &= f(x_t, t)dt + \Sigma^{1/2}d\beta_t & \text{(prior SDE, p)} \\ y_n &= Hx_n + \sigma_n \epsilon, \text{ where } \epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1). & \text{(observation model)} \end{aligned}$$

Approximate its posterior using the linear SDE

$$dx_t = \underbrace{(-A(t)x_t + b(t))}_{g(x_t,t)} dt + \Sigma^{1/2} d\beta, \qquad \text{(approximating SDE, q)}$$

Given an SDE and observation model

$$\begin{aligned} dx_t &= f(x_t, t)dt + \Sigma^{1/2}d\beta_t & \text{(prior SDE, p)} \\ y_n &= Hx_n + \sigma_n \epsilon, \text{ where } \epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1). & \text{(observation model)} \end{aligned}$$

Approximate its posterior using the linear SDE

$$dx_t = \underbrace{(-A(t)x_t + b(t))}_{g(x_t,t)} dt + \Sigma^{1/2} d\beta, \qquad \text{(approximating SDE, q)}$$

write  $q(x_t)$  for its marginal distribution. KL between the exact SDE prior and the approximating SDE [1] is

$$KL[q||p] = KL[q(x_0)||p(x_0)] + \frac{1}{2} \int_{t_0}^{t_1} \int (f(x,\tau) - g(x,\tau))^\top \Sigma^{-1} (f(x,\tau) - g(x,\tau))q(x_n)dx_nd\tau.$$











Suppose we want to compute the integral

$$\int_a^b \Phi(x_\tau,\tau) d\beta_\tau.$$

Suppose we want to compute the integral

$$\int_{a}^{b} \Phi(x_{\tau},\tau) d\beta_{\tau}.$$

Ito definition (one we saw earlier)

Suppose we want to compute the integral

$$\int_a^b \Phi(x_\tau,\tau) d\beta_\tau.$$

Ito definition (one we saw earlier)

$$\int \Phi(x_{\tau},\tau)d\beta_{\tau} = \lim_{|\Delta| \to 0} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \Phi(x_{\tau_{k}},\tau)(\beta_{\tau_{k+1}} - \beta_{\tau_{k}})$$

Suppose we want to compute the integral

$$\int_a^b \Phi(x_\tau,\tau) d\beta_\tau.$$

Ito definition (one we saw earlier)

$$\int \Phi(x_{\tau},\tau)d\beta_{\tau} = \lim_{|\Delta| \to 0} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \Phi(x_{\tau_{k}},\tau)(\beta_{\tau_{k+1}} - \beta_{\tau_{k}})$$

Stratonovich definition
Suppose we want to compute the integral

$$\int_a^b \Phi(x_\tau,\tau) d\beta_\tau.$$

Ito definition (one we saw earlier)

$$\int \Phi(x_{\tau},\tau)d\beta_{\tau} = \lim_{|\Delta| \to 0} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \Phi(x_{\tau_{k}},\tau)(\beta_{\tau_{k+1}} - \beta_{\tau_{k}})$$

Stratonovich definition

$$\int \Phi(x_{\tau},\tau) \circ d\beta_{\tau} = \lim_{|\Delta| \to 0} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \Phi\left(\frac{x_{\tau_{k+1}} + x_{\tau_k}}{2}, t\right) \left(\beta_{\tau_{k+1}} - \beta_{\tau_k}\right)$$

Suppose we want to compute the integral

$$\int_a^b \Phi(x_\tau,\tau) d\beta_\tau.$$

Ito definition (one we saw earlier)

$$\int \Phi(x_{\tau},\tau)d\beta_{\tau} = \lim_{|\Delta| \to 0} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \Phi(x_{\tau_{k}},\tau)(\beta_{\tau_{k+1}} - \beta_{\tau_{k}})$$

Stratonovich definition

$$\int \Phi(x_{\tau},\tau) \circ d\beta_{\tau} = \lim_{|\Delta| \to 0} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \Phi\left(\frac{x_{\tau_{k+1}} + x_{\tau_k}}{2}, t\right) \left(\beta_{\tau_{k+1}} - \beta_{\tau_k}\right)$$

In regular calculus, these are equivalent. In stochastic calculus they are not – they give different answers!

In particular, the chain rule is different under Ito and Stratonovich.

In particular, the chain rule is different under Ito and Stratonovich.

Ito calculus [9]

$$d\Phi(x,t) = \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial t} dt + \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial x} dx + \frac{1}{2} \mathrm{Tr} \left[ \frac{\partial^2 \Phi}{\partial x^2} g(x,t) g(x,t)^\top \right] dt$$

In particular, the chain rule is different under Ito and Stratonovich.

Ito calculus [9]

$$d\Phi(x,t) = \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial t} dt + \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial x} dx + \frac{1}{2} \mathsf{Tr} \left[ \frac{\partial^2 \Phi}{\partial x^2} g(x,t) g(x,t)^\top \right] dt$$

Stratonovich calculus [11]

$$\circ d\Phi(x,t) = \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial t} dt + \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial x} dx$$

Uses KL between SDEs [1] and Stratonovich calculus [11] to train SDEs.

Uses KL between SDEs [1] and Stratonovich calculus [11] to train SDEs. Consider prior and approximating SDEs sharing the same noise model

$$dx_t = f_{\theta}(x_t, t)dt + g(x_t, t)d\beta_t$$
 (prior SDE. p)  
$$dx_t = f_{\phi}(x_t, t)dt + g(x_t, t)d\beta_t$$
 (approximating SDE, q)

Uses KL between SDEs [1] and Stratonovich calculus [11] to train SDEs. Consider prior and approximating SDEs sharing the same noise model

$$dx_t = f_{\theta}(x_t, t)dt + g(x_t, t)d\beta_t$$
 (prior SDE. p)  

$$dx_t = f_{\phi}(x_t, t)dt + g(x_t, t)d\beta_t$$
 (approximating SDE, q)

Train by optimising the ELBO

$$p(y_1, ..., y_n | \theta, \phi) \ge \mathbb{E}_q \left[ \sum_{n=1}^N p(y_n | x_{t_n}) - \frac{1}{2} \int_0^T \left| \frac{f_\theta(x_\tau, \tau) - f_\phi(x_\tau, \tau)}{g(x_\tau, \tau)} \right|^2 d\tau \right],$$

where  $\mathbb{E}_q$  is w.r.t. the approximating SDE.

Uses KL between SDEs [1] and Stratonovich calculus [11] to train SDEs. Consider prior and approximating SDEs sharing the same noise model

$$dx_t = f_{\theta}(x_t, t)dt + g(x_t, t)d\beta_t$$
 (prior SDE. p)  

$$dx_t = f_{\phi}(x_t, t)dt + g(x_t, t)d\beta_t$$
 (approximating SDE, q)

Train by optimising the ELBO

$$p(y_1, ..., y_n | \theta, \phi) \ge \mathbb{E}_q \left[ \sum_{n=1}^N p(y_n | x_{t_n}) - \frac{1}{2} \int_0^T \left| \frac{f_\theta(x_\tau, \tau) - f_\phi(x_\tau, \tau)}{g(x_\tau, \tau)} \right|^2 d\tau \right],$$

where  $\mathbb{E}_q$  is w.r.t. the approximating SDE.

**1** Forward: Solve approximating SDE numerically forwards.

Uses KL between SDEs [1] and Stratonovich calculus [11] to train SDEs. Consider prior and approximating SDEs sharing the same noise model

$$dx_t = f_{\theta}(x_t, t)dt + g(x_t, t)d\beta_t$$
 (prior SDE. p)  

$$dx_t = f_{\phi}(x_t, t)dt + g(x_t, t)d\beta_t$$
 (approximating SDE, q)

Train by optimising the ELBO

$$p(y_1, ..., y_n | \theta, \phi) \ge \mathbb{E}_q \left[ \sum_{n=1}^N p(y_n | x_{t_n}) - \frac{1}{2} \int_0^T \left| \frac{f_\theta(x_\tau, \tau) - f_\phi(x_\tau, \tau)}{g(x_\tau, \tau)} \right|^2 d\tau \right],$$

where  $\mathbb{E}_q$  is w.r.t. the approximating SDE.

- **1** Forward: Solve approximating SDE numerically forwards.
- 2 Backward: Solve an augmented SDE backwards, keeping track of derivatives of objective w.r.t. θ, φ.

Uses KL between SDEs [1] and Stratonovich calculus [11] to train SDEs. Consider prior and approximating SDEs sharing the same noise model

$$dx_t = f_{\theta}(x_t, t)dt + g(x_t, t)d\beta_t$$
 (prior SDE. p)  

$$dx_t = f_{\phi}(x_t, t)dt + g(x_t, t)d\beta_t$$
 (approximating SDE, q)

Train by optimising the ELBO

$$p(y_1, ..., y_n | \theta, \phi) \ge \mathbb{E}_q \left[ \sum_{n=1}^N p(y_n | x_{t_n}) - \frac{1}{2} \int_0^T \left| \frac{f_\theta(x_\tau, \tau) - f_\phi(x_\tau, \tau)}{g(x_\tau, \tau)} \right|^2 d\tau \right],$$

where  $\mathbb{E}_q$  is w.r.t. the approximating SDE.

- **1** Forward: Solve approximating SDE numerically forwards.
- 2 Backward: Solve an augmented SDE backwards, keeping track of derivatives of objective w.r.t. θ, φ.

Stratonovich yields simplified equations for the dynamics of adjoint SDE.



Figure 2: Training data, approximate q, learned p and latent dynamics. [8]

Thank you for your attention!

#### **References** I

- [1] C. Archambeau, M. Opper, Y. Shen, D. Cornford, and J. Shawe-Taylor. Variational inference for diffusion processes. 2008.
- [2] D. R. Burt, S. W. Ober, A. Garriga-Alonso, and M. van der Wilk. Understanding variational inference in function-space.
- [3] M. Y. Byron, K. V. Shenoy, and M. Sahani. Derivation of kalman filtering and smoothing equations. In *Technical report*. Stanford University, 2004.
- [4] E. Daxberger, E. Nalisnick, J. U. Allingham, J. Antorán, and J. M. Hernández-Lobato. Bayesian deep learning via subnetwork inference, 2021.
- [5] A. Y. Foong, D. R. Burt, Y. Li, and R. E. Turner. On the expressiveness of approximate inference in bayesian neural networks. arXiv preprint arXiv:1909.00719, 2019.

### **References II**

- [6] J. Hartikainen and S. Särkkä. Kalman filtering and smoothing solutions to temporal gaussian process regression models. In 2010 IEEE international workshop on machine learning for signal processing, pages 379–384. IEEE, 2010.
- [7] A. Immer, M. Korzepa, and M. Bauer. Improving predictions of bayesian neural networks via local linearization, 2020.
- [8] X. Li, T.-K. L. Wong, R. T. Chen, and D. Duvenaud. Scalable gradients for stochastic differential equations. In *International Conference on Artificial Intelligence and Statistics*, pages 3870–3882. PMLR, 2020.
- [9] B. Oksendal. *Stochastic differential equations: an introduction with applications*. Springer Science & Business Media, 2013.
- [10] S. Särkkä. Bayesian filtering and smoothing. Number 3. Cambridge University Press, 2013.

### **References III**

- [11] R. Stratonovich. A new representation for stochastic integrals and equations. *SIAM Journal on Control*, 4(2):362–371, 1966.
- [12] S. Sun, G. Zhang, J. Shi, and R. Grosse. Functional variational bayesian neural networks, 2019.
- [13] M. Titsias. Variational learning of inducing variables in sparse gaussian processes. In *Artificial intelligence and statistics*, pages 567–574. PMLR, 2009.
- [14] F. Tobar, T. D. Bui, and R. E. Turner. Learning stationary time series using gaussian processes with nonparametric kernels. In C. Cortes, N. Lawrence, D. Lee, M. Sugiyama, and R. Garnett, editors, *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, volume 28. Curran Associates, Inc., 2015.