## Numerics of Machine Learning LECTURE 06 <br> Solving Ordinary Differential Equations

Nathanael Bosch \& Jonathan Schmidt

24 November 2022

## EBERHARD KARLS <br> UNIVERSITAT TUBINGEN



Faculty of Science<br>Department of Computer Science<br>Chair for the methods of Machine Learning

Where are we in the course?

- Last week: State-space models and extended Kalman filters/smoothers ("How to estimate the state of a dynamical system from observations")
- This week: Ordinary differential equations and how to solve them ("How to simulate, approximately, the evolution of a deterministic dynamical system")


## Today:

- What is an ordinary differential equation (ODE) and why should we care?
- How to numerically solve an ODE: From Euler (forward and backward) to Runge-Kutta
- Parameter inference in ODEs (and neural ODEs)

Ordinary differential equation:

$$
\dot{x}(t)=f(x(t), t), \quad t \in \mathbb{T} \subset \mathbb{R},
$$

where
$\rightarrow x: \mathbb{T} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{d}$ is the unknown function
$\rightarrow f: \mathbb{R}^{d} \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{d}$ is the vector field

- $\mathbb{T}$ is the time domain; typically $\mathbb{T}=[0, T]$
- Diffusion Models

ODEs and SDEs for generative modeling

https://developer.nvidia.com/blog/
improving-diffusion-models-as-an-alternative-to-gans-part-1/

- Diffusion Models ODEs and SDEs for generative modeling
- Normalizing Flows ODEs as bijectors to model distributions

https://docs.pymc.io/en/v3/pymc-examples/ examples/variational_inference/normalizing
- Diffusion Models

ODEs and SDEs for generative modeling

- Normalizing Flows

ODEs as bijectors to model distributions

- Neural ODEs

ResNets as discretized ODEs


Chen et al, "Neural Ordinary Differential Equations", NeurIPS 2018

- Diffusion Models

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ODEs as bijectors to model distributions

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ResNets as discretized ODEs

- Optimization Theory

Gradient descent follows ODE dynamics


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Gradient descent follows ODE dynamics

- Parameter Inference (later this lecture!) ODEs as inductive bias


Tronarp, Bosch, Hennig, "Fenrir: Physics-Enhanced Regression for Initial Value Problems", ICML 2022

- Diffusion Models

ODEs and SDEs for generative modeling

- Normalizing Flows

ODEs as bijectors to model distributions

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ResNets as discretized ODEs

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Gradient descent follows ODE dynamics

- Parameter Inference (later this lecture!) ODEs as inductive bias

https:
//raw.githubusercontent.com/nathanaelbosch/ ProbNumDiffEq.jl/main/examples/banner.svg
- Probabilistic Numerics (next lecture!) ODE solving as learning


## Ordinary differential equation :

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Solution (fundamental theorem of calculus):

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x(t)=x(0)+\int_{0}^{t} f(x(\tau), \tau) \mathrm{d} \tau
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$\Rightarrow$ Solutions depend on the initial value $x(0)$

Ordinary differential equation initial value problem:

$$
\dot{x}(t)=f(x(t), t), \quad t \in \mathbb{T} \subset \mathbb{R}, \quad x(0)=x_{0},
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- $x_{0}$ is the initial value

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A simple example: Modeling population growth

- Logistic ODE:

$$
\dot{P}(t)=r P(t)\left(1-\frac{P(t)}{K}\right)
$$

where $P$ is the population size, $r$ is the growth rate, and $K$ is the carrying capacity (bottleneck).

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$$
P(t)=\frac{K}{1+\frac{K-P(0)}{P(0)} e^{-r t}} .
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(You can verify for yourself by taking its derivative!)


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## Next: How can we solve ODEs in general?

## How to numerically solve ODEs - the general case

Recall: The initial value problem

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has the solution

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Numerical solvers extrapolate step by step: If we know $x(t)$, then $x(t+h)$ is given by

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$\Rightarrow$ At each step, we need to approximate $\int_{t}^{t+h} f(x(\tau), \tau) \mathrm{d} \tau$.

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How?

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## Definition (Taylor Series Expansion)

Let $g: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a function. Then the Taylor series expansion of $g$ at $t_{0}$ is given by

$$
g(\tau)=g\left(t_{0}\right)+g^{(1)}\left(t_{0}\right)\left(\tau-t_{0}\right)+\frac{1}{2} g^{(2)}\left(t_{0}\right)\left(\tau-t_{0}\right)^{2}+\cdots=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{g^{(n)}\left(t_{0}\right)}{n!}\left(\tau-t_{0}\right)^{n}
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(Implicit) Backward Euler: $\hat{x}(t+h)=\hat{x}(t)+h \cdot f(\hat{x}(t+h), t+h)$.

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h = 1 // 10
x, out = x0, [x0]
for t in tspan[1]:h:(tspan[2]-h)
x = x + h * f(x, t)
push!(out, x)
end
13 plot(tspan[1]:h:tspan[2], out, marker=:o)

```

\section*{using Plots}
```

```
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```

using Plots
12

```
using Plots, Roots
```

f(x, t) = x * (1 - x)
x0, tspan = 0.1, (0, 5)
h = 1 // 10
x, out = x0, [x0]
for t in (tspan[1]+h):h:tspan[2]
x = find_zero(y -> y - (x + h*f(y, t)), x)
push!(out, x)
end
plot(tspan[1]:h:tspan[2], out, marker=:o)

```


Consider the following scalar ODE (test equation)
\[
\dot{x}(t)=\lambda x(t) .
\]

How small do we have to make the steps, depending on \(\lambda\) ? (here \(\lambda=-21\) ).


\section*{Stability: The difference between forward and backward Euler}

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How small do we have to make the steps, depending on \(\lambda\) ? (here \(\lambda=-21\) ).
- Forward Euler: \(\hat{x}(t+h)=\hat{x}(t)+h \cdot \lambda \hat{x}(t)\)
\(\Rightarrow \hat{x}(t+h)=(1+h \lambda) \cdot \hat{x}(t)\)
\(\Rightarrow\) For \(\hat{x}(t)\) to remain bounded, we need \(|1+h \lambda| \leq 1\).


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\(\Rightarrow\) Different algorithms have different stability properties!

\section*{Next: Runge-Kutta solvers}

\section*{How to numerically solve ODEs - continued}
\[
\text { Recall: } \quad x(t+h)=x(t)+\int_{t}^{t+h} f(x(\tau), \tau) \mathrm{d} \tau
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\section*{Numerical Quadrature}

Let \(g: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{d}\) be a function. Then numerical quadrature (or numerical integration) approximates
\[
\int_{l}^{r} g(\tau) \mathrm{d} \tau \approx \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_{i} g\left(t_{i}\right)
\]
where \(t_{i}\) are the quadrature nodes and \(w_{i}\) are the quadrature weights.
\[
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where \(t_{i}\) are the quadrature nodes and \(w_{i}\) are the quadrature weights.
- This motivates (explicit) Runge-Kutta:
\[
\int_{t}^{t+h} f(x(\tau), \tau) \mathrm{d} \tau \approx h \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{s} w_{i} f\left(\hat{x}\left(\tau_{i}\right), \tau_{i}\right)
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Next: How to choose weights \(w_{i}\) and nodes \(\tau_{i}\) ? And how to construct \(\hat{x}\left(\tau_{i}\right)\) ?

\section*{Definition ((Explicit) Runge-Kutta method)}

An explicit Runge-Kutta method is given by
\[
\hat{x}(t+h)=\hat{x}(t)+h \sum_{i=1}^{s} b_{i} k_{i},
\]
where
\[
\begin{aligned}
& k_{1}=f(\hat{x}(t), t), \\
& k_{2}=f\left(\hat{x}(t)+h\left(a_{21} k_{1}\right), t+h c_{2}\right), \\
& k_{3}=f\left(\hat{x}(t)+h\left(a_{31} k_{1}+a_{32} k_{2}\right), t+h c_{3}\right), \\
& \vdots \\
& k_{s}=f\left(\hat{x}(t)+h \sum_{j=1}^{s-1} a_{s j} k_{j}, t+h c_{s}\right) .
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\end{aligned}
\]
\[
k_{s}=f\left(\hat{x}(t)+h \sum_{j=1}^{s-1} a_{s j} k_{j}, t+h c_{s}\right) .
\]
"Butcher tableau": A compact representation of a specific Runge-Kutta method

Runge-Kutta in general:
\[
\hat{x}(t+h)=\hat{x}(t)+h \sum_{i=1}^{s} b_{i} k_{i}, \quad \text { with } \quad k_{i}=f\left(\hat{x}(t)+h \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} a_{j j} k_{j}, t+h c_{i}\right) .
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k_{1} & =f(\hat{x}(t+0 h), t+0 h), \\
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Butcher tableau:


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Turns out backward Euler is actually a (implicit) Runge-Kutta method:
\[
\begin{aligned}
k_{1} & =f(\hat{x}(t+1 h), t+1 h), \\
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Butcher tableau:

(the 1 makes it implicit!)

The explicit midpoint rule aims to improve the accuracy of the forward Euler method by selecting
\[
\hat{x}(t+h)=\hat{x}(t)+h f\left(\hat{x}\left(t+\frac{h}{2}\right), t+\frac{h}{2}\right) .
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This leads to the scheme:

\[
\begin{aligned}
k_{1} & =f(\hat{x}(t), t+0 h), \\
k_{2} & =f\left(\hat{x}(t)+h \cdot \frac{1}{2} k_{1}, t+\frac{1}{2} h\right), \\
\hat{x}(t+h) & =\hat{x}(t)+h\left(0 k_{1}+1 k_{2}\right) .
\end{aligned}
\]

The classic fourth-order Runge-Kutta method selects
\[
\begin{aligned}
& k_{1}=f(\hat{x}(t), t+0 h) \\
& k_{2}=f\left(\hat{x}(t)+h \cdot \frac{1}{2} k_{1}, t+\frac{1}{2} h\right), \\
& k_{3}=f\left(\hat{x}(t)+h \cdot \frac{1}{2} k_{2}, t+\frac{1}{2} h\right), \\
& k_{4}=f\left(\hat{x}(t)+h \cdot 1 k_{3}, t+1 h\right),
\end{aligned}
\]
and then

\[
\hat{x}(t+h)=\hat{x}(t)+h\left(\frac{1}{6} k_{1}+\frac{1}{3} k_{2}+\frac{1}{3} k_{3}+\frac{1}{6} k_{4}\right) .
\]
(Further reading: "Solving Ordinary Differential Equations I" by Hairer, Norsett and Wanner, Chapter II.1; includes derivations for the coefficients!)

\section*{The Dormand-Prince method}

\section*{DOPRI5 has a much more complicated Butcher tableau:}
\begin{tabular}{c|ccccccc}
0 & & & & & & & \\
\(\frac{1}{5}\) & \(\frac{1}{5}\) & & & & & & \\
\(\frac{3}{10}\) & \(\frac{3}{40}\) & \(\frac{9}{40}\) & & & & & \\
\(\frac{4}{5}\) & \(\frac{44}{45}\) & \(-\frac{56}{15}\) & \(\frac{32}{9}\) & & & & \\
\(\frac{8}{9}\) & \(\frac{19372}{6561}\) & \(-\frac{25360}{2187}\) & \(\frac{64448}{6561}\) & \(-\frac{212}{729}\) & & & \\
1 & \(\frac{9017}{3168}\) & \(-\frac{355}{33}\) & \(\frac{46732}{5247}\) & \(\frac{49}{176}\) & \(-\frac{5103}{18656}\) & & \\
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This is the reason for the SciPy code:

https://github.com/scipy/scipy/blob/main/
scipy/integrate/dop/dopri5.f

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(the two bottom lines are there because of "error estimation" which is not covered in this lecture; if interested, check out Chapter II. 4 in "Solving Ordinary Differential Equations I" by Hairer et al.)

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Next block: What if we don't know \(f\) but instead have to estimate it from data?


Tronarp, Bosch, Hennig, "Fenrir: Physics-Enhanced Regression for Initial Value Problems", ICML 2022


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- Typical goal: "Fit the data".
- Parameter inference: Learn the parameters of a Mechanistic model, e.g. here the SEIR model
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Learning unknown dynamics from data.
Setup: Consider an initial value problem
\[
\dot{x}(t)=f(x(t), t, \theta), \quad x(0)=x_{0}(\theta), \quad t \in[0, T],
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where the parameters \(\theta \in \mathbb{R}^{d}\) are unknown.

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Assume noisy observations \(\mathcal{D}=\left\{\left(y_{i}, t_{i}\right)\right\}_{i=1}^{n}\), where
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y_{i}=H \cdot x\left(t_{i}\right)+\epsilon_{i}, \quad \epsilon_{i} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \Sigma) .
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Cheaper goal: Compute the maximum-likelihood estimate
\[
\hat{\theta}_{\mathrm{ML}}=\underset{\theta}{\arg \max } p(\mathcal{D} \mid \theta) .
\]

Assuming i.i.d. data, the likelihood is given by
\[
p(\mathcal{D} \mid \theta)=\prod_{i=1}^{n} \mathcal{N}\left(y_{i} ; H x_{\theta}\left(t_{i}\right), \Sigma\right) .
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Maximizing the likelihood is equivalent to minimizing the negative log-likelihood:
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L(\theta)=\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(H \hat{x}_{\theta}\left(t_{i}\right)-y_{i}\right)^{\top} \Sigma^{-1}\left(H \hat{x}_{\theta}\left(t_{i}\right)-y_{i}\right) .
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\section*{Parameter Inference with numerical ODE solvers}
- Dynamics: (simplified) SIRD model
\[
\dot{S}=-\beta S I \quad \dot{I}=\beta S I-\gamma I-\eta I \quad \dot{R}=\gamma I \quad \dot{D}=\eta I
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for \(t \in[0,100]\), with \(\operatorname{SIRD}(0)=[1-10,10,0,0]\) and four unknown parameters \(I 0, \beta, \gamma, \eta \in \mathbb{R}\).


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We can learn system parameters from data via (local) optimization!

ODE dynamics as before, but this time with time-varying contact rate \(\beta(t)\) :
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\dot{S}=-\beta(t) S I / N, \quad \dot{I}=\beta(t) S I / N-\gamma I-\eta I, \quad \dot{R}=\gamma I, \quad \dot{D}=\eta I .
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Data are the real COVID counts from Germany.

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Disclaimer: I only had limited time and it might very well be possible to do this much better!

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Next week: \(\beta(t) \sim \mathcal{G P}\) !


\section*{Summary}
- ODEs play an important role in machine learning.
- In general, solving an ODE requires a numerical solver, e.g. Euler or Runge-Kutta

Please cite this course, as
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Next week: Probabilistic numerical ODE solvers! Combining ODEs and Bayesian state estimation.```

