
Relational VAE: A Continuous Latent Variable Model for Graph Structured Data

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Abstract

1 Graph Networks (GNs) enable the fusion of prior knowledge and relational reason-
2 ing with flexible function approximations. In this work, a general GN-based model
3 is proposed which takes full advantage of the relational modeling capabilities of
4 GNs and extends these to probabilistic modeling with Variational Bayes (VB). To
5 that end, we combine complementary pre-existing approaches on VB for graph data
6 and propose an approach that relies on graph-structured latent and conditioning
7 variables. It is demonstrated that Neural Processes can also be viewed through the
8 lens of the proposed model. We show applications on the problem of structured
9 probability density modeling for simulated and real wind farm monitoring data, as
10 well as on the meta-learning of simulated Gaussian Process data. We release the
11 source code, along with the simulated datasets.

12 1 Introduction

13 Graph Neural Networks (GNNs) [1, 2] have been established as an effective tool for representation
14 learning on graph structured data. Graph structured data are routinely employed to represent entities
15 and relations among them. The present work focuses in representation of uncertainty and generative
16 modeling for attributed directed graph data with continuous attributes. The initiating motivation for
17 this work is the ubiquity of noisy structured data and systems with stochastic or partially observable
18 interactions of industrial relevance (e.g. wind farms and urban transportation networks).

19 In the context considered herein, modeled entities (*nodes*) and modeled relations (*edges*) may feature
20 a *state*, which may not be fully observed and/or stochastic. The same may also holds for global
21 (*graph*) attributes. At the same time, nodes and relations may possess a dynamic partially observed
22 state, which we may infer directly from data. Both the node states and edge states are not fully
23 observed and non-deterministic, which amply motivates probabilistic extensions of graph networks.
24 In essence, this work proposes a method that 1) exploits the relational structure of data and 2) allows
25 for learning flexible distributions over entity and relation attributes. Several partially overlapping
26 approaches for this problem exist. A short review of such prior approaches is offered in section 3.
27 Modeling entities and relations has been shown empirically to allow for stronger generalization
28 [3, 4, 5] in novel settings. The main contribution of this work is to propose an approach to transfer the
29 potent combinatorial generalization and modeling capabilities of GNNs to the problem of modeling
30 conditional distributions of structured data.

31 2 Methods

32 **Attributed graphs** Following [2], global attribute augmented graphs are denoted by $G =$
33 $(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, \mathbf{u})$ where $\mathcal{V} : \{\mathbf{v}_i\}_{i=1:N^v}$ with $\mathbf{v}_i \in \mathbb{R}^{d^v}$ denoting the nodes (vertices) of the graph,

34 $\mathcal{E} : \{(\mathbf{e}_k, s_k, r_k)\}_{k=1:N^e}$ designating the set of edges, with edge attributes $\mathbf{e}_k \in \mathbb{R}^{d^e}$, $s_k, r_k \in \mathbb{N}^1$
 35 denote the head (sender) and tail (receiver) nodes of the modeled relation, while $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^{d^u}$ is the
 36 global attribute.

37 **Graph Networks (GN)** (or GraphNets) are composite functions that receive and return attributed
 38 graphs. The full GN block consists of an edge update, a node update and a global update block. Each
 39 block contains a corresponding function ϕ^e, ϕ^v, ϕ^u . The edge update function uses edge, node and
 40 global data. The edge block is followed by an aggregation step $\rho^{e \rightarrow n}$, where edge messages are
 41 accumulated according to a permutation invariant function, e.g. a mean function. The node update
 42 uses (optionally) the global state, the aggregated edge state and the current node state. Finally, a global
 43 block aggregates with permutation invariant functions the edge and node properties ($\rho^{e \rightarrow u}, \rho^{v \rightarrow u}$),
 44 and optionally uses the global state for updating the global variable state. Different parts of the full
 45 GN computation may be omitted. Several Graph Neural Network architectures can be cast as special
 46 cases of GNs by omitting certain features or by special choices of the different functions involved
 47 [2]. In what follows, when referring to GNNs, the most general and expressive GN layer is implied
 48 except otherwise specified.

49 In the proposed model, entities (nodes), relations (edges) and global attributes contain both determin-
 50 istic and stochastic variables. These variables in turn, may be observable or not directly observable.
 51 Both observable and unobservable attributes may be deterministic or stochastic (static or evolving).
 52 In what follows, a part of the observable quantities is referred to as *conditioning* or *context*. The node,
 53 edge and global observable quantities are denoted as $\mathbf{v}^h, \mathbf{e}^h, \mathbf{u}^h$ where h signifies that a variable
 54 corresponds to conditioning. Conditioning variables may either correspond to conditioning with
 55 known dynamic quantities or static quantities. Common instantiations of such conditioning are
 56 positional encoding for vertices, relative position for edges between vertices and time of day as
 57 a global variable. The node, edge and global variables that correspond to the rest of the states
 58 (stochastic, evolving, unobserved) are denoted by $\mathbf{v}^d, \mathbf{e}^d, \mathbf{u}^d$. In essence, the conditioning attributes
 59 can be used to create a *conditioning graph variable* $G_h = (\mathcal{V}_h, \mathcal{E}_h, \mathbf{u}_h)$ and a *state graph variable*
 60 $G_x = (\mathcal{V}_x, \mathcal{E}_x, \mathbf{u}_x)$. The full graph state, is denoted by $G_d = (\mathcal{V}_x \cup \mathcal{V}_h, \mathcal{E}_x \cup \mathcal{E}_h, \mathbf{u}_x \cup \mathbf{u}_h)$ where
 61 \cup denotes set union. Since part of the node, edge and global attributes may be stochastic, a graph
 62 structured latent variable $G_z = (\mathcal{V}_z, \mathcal{E}_z, \mathbf{u}_z)$ is assumed. The graph structure may also be determined
 63 through the edge variables as in [6], but we restrict our model to a pre-determined graph structure
 64 in this work. The following model is proposed for the joint distribution of the graph structured
 65 observations

$$p(G_x; G_h) = \int p(G_x | G_z; G_h) p(G_z; G_h) dG_z \quad (1)$$

66 where $p(G_z; G_h) = p(\mathcal{V}_z; \mathcal{V}_h) p(\mathcal{E}_z; \mathcal{E}_h) p(\mathbf{u}_z; \mathbf{u}_h)$ is the distribution of the latent variables given G_h .
 67 A prior distribution conditioned on G_h is assumed for the latent variable, which is further factorized
 68 along each edge and node latent separately, i.e.,

$$p(G_z; G_h) = p^{(\mathcal{V})}(\mathcal{V}_z; \mathcal{V}_h) p^{(\mathcal{E})}(\mathcal{E}_z; \mathcal{E}_h) p^{(\mathbf{u})}(\mathbf{u}_z; \mathbf{u}_h) \quad (2)$$

$$= \prod_{i=1}^{N^v} p(\mathbf{v}_i^z; \mathbf{v}_i^h) \cdot \prod_{k=1}^{N^e} p(\mathbf{e}_k^z; \mathbf{e}_k^h) \cdot p(\mathbf{u}^z; \mathbf{u}^h). \quad (3)$$

69 An approximate posterior (i.e., *recognition model*) is assumed for G_z as $q_\phi(G_z | G_x; G_h)$ together
 70 with a generative model for G_x , $p_\theta(G_x | G_z; G_h)$. In correspondence with the Variational Autoen-
 71 coder (VAE) [7], we seek to learn the generative model parameters θ and inference model param-
 72 eters ϕ simultaneously. Assuming independent identically distributed (i.i.d.) graph observations
 73 $\{G_x^{(1)}, \dots, G_x^{(i)}, \dots, G_x^{(N)}\}$, the Evidence Lower Bound (ELBO) for the marginal log-likelihood reads

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}(\theta, \phi; G_x^{(i)}, G_h^{(i)}) = & \mathbb{E}_{q_\phi(G_z | G_x^{(i)}; G_h^{(i)})} [\log p_\theta(G_x^{(i)} | G_z; G_h^{(i)})] \\ & - D_{KL}(q_\phi(G_z | G_x^{(i)}; G_h^{(i)}) || p_\theta(G_z; G_h^{(i)})) \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

74 We seek to perform fast and scalable approximate inference over the G_z graph variable and at the
 75 same time take advantage of the *relational structure* in the data. A particularly convenient choice
 76 for parametrizing G^z is to assume a parametric distribution over edges, nodes and globals. A GN is

77 proposed for inferring the parameters. For a graph structured observation observation G_x , we write

$$\mathcal{V}_z \sim q_\phi^{(\mathcal{V})}(G_z|G_x; G_h) = \mathcal{N}(f_{q_\phi}^{\mu^{(\mathcal{V})}}(G_x; G_h), f_{q_\phi}^{\sigma^2^{(\mathcal{V})}}(G_x; G_h)) \quad (5)$$

$$\mathcal{E}_z \sim q_\phi^{(\mathcal{E})}(G_z|G_x; G_h) = \mathcal{N}(f_{q_\phi}^{\mu^{(\mathcal{E})}}(G_x; G_h), f_{q_\phi}^{\sigma^2^{(\mathcal{E})}}(G_x; G_h)) \quad (6)$$

$$\mathbf{u}_z \sim q_\phi^{(\mathbf{u})}(G_z|G_x; G_h) = \mathcal{N}(f_{q_\phi}^{\mu^{(\mathbf{u})}}(G_x; G_h), f_{q_\phi}^{\sigma^2^{(\mathbf{u})}}(G_x; G_h)). \quad (7)$$

78 The functions $f^{\mu^{(\cdot)}}$ and $f^{\sigma^2^{(\cdot)}}$ are implemented by a GN to allow for taking into account in a general
 79 manner relational information while inferring over \mathcal{V}_z , \mathcal{E}_z and \mathbf{u}_z . In practice a shared, single GN,
 80 $f_{q_\phi}(\cdot)$ is used. The parametrization for vertices, edges and global variables are the corresponding
 81 states of the GN at the final message passing step. In a similar manner, a GN generator network,
 82 $g_{p_\theta}(\cdot)$, is used for p_θ . Since the prior and posterior are factorized over nodes, edges and the global
 83 variable of each graph datapoint, the ELBO is split accordingly as

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}(\theta, \phi; G_x^{(i)}, G_h^{(i)}) = & \mathbb{E}_{q_\theta(G_z|G_x^{(i)}; G_h^{(i)})} [\log p_\theta(G_x^{(i)}|G_z; G_h^{(i)})] \\ & - \beta_{\mathcal{V}} D_{KL}(q_\phi^{(\mathcal{V})}(G_z|G_x^{(i)}; G_h^{(i)}) || p_\theta^{(\mathcal{V})}(G_z; G_h^{(i)})) \\ & - \beta_{\mathcal{E}} D_{KL}(q_\phi^{(\mathcal{E})}(G_z|G_x^{(i)}; G_h^{(i)}) || p_\theta^{(\mathcal{E})}(G_z; G_h^{(i)})) \\ & - \beta_{\mathbf{u}} D_{KL}(q_\phi^{(\mathbf{u})}(G_z|G_x^{(i)}; G_h^{(i)}) || p_\theta^{(\mathbf{u})}(G_z; G_h^{(i)})) \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

84 where $\beta_{\mathcal{V}}, \beta_{\mathcal{E}}, \beta_{\mathbf{u}}$ can be used for controlling disentanglement as in β -VAE [8] or the rate-distortion
 85 characteristics of the model [9] or for preventing posterior collapse and aiding training through
 86 *KL-annealing* [10, 11]. In a similar manner to VAEs, the approach to representing distributions over
 87 graph data with a distribution that factorizes over \mathcal{V} , \mathcal{E} and \mathbf{u} allows for defining alternative evidence
 88 lower bounds for variational Bayes. Note that the distribution does not need to be factorized along the
 89 elements of the latent vector. This allows straight-forward extensions using more flexible distributions
 90 [12]. A generative model based on normalizing flows that uses shift-scale transformations [13] has
 91 already been proposed in [14] for graph generation. The Relational VAE (RVAE) model proposed
 92 can be extended as a hierarchical VAE [15] yielding a model akin to Doubly Stochastic Variational
 93 Neural Process (DSNPV) [16], which uses global and node variables. Finally, Neural Processes
 94 [17, 18] (NP) and other graph encoder-decoder models [6, 19, 20, 21, 22] are closely related to the
 95 proposed model.

96 3 Related work

97 **GNN Encoder-decoder models** In Neural Relational Inference (NRI) [6] discrete edge latent vari-
 98 ables are inferred from node representations and a re-parametrized *Gumbel – Softmax* distribution
 99 is used [23, 24]. A coarse representation of the computational graphs of NRI, NPs and the RVAE
 100 is shown in Figure 1. In [19] graphs are modeled from global continuous latent variables, which
 101 are subsequently used for graph generation through an adjacency matrix. In GraphVAE [20] the
 102 global variable together with a graph-structured conditioning variable is used for generation. In
 103 *Graphite* [21] a latent variable for each node is inferred from the encoder, while the edge variables
 104 (i.e., symmetric adjacency matrix) is inferred through efficient iterated message passing. Similarly,
 105 the VariationalGAE [22] uses a separate latent variable for every node and a graph convolutional
 106 encoder. Several of the aforementioned works take advantage of recent advances in low-variance
 107 gradient estimates for distributions over latent variables, as in Variational Autoencoders (VAEs) via
 108 the reparametrization trick [7, 25]. The overlapping traits of the aforementioned are the treatment
 109 of edge, node and global variables. In Table 1 a summary of the relational modeling capabilities of
 110 various graph encoder-decoder models is offered. Note that the table highlights only the relevant
 111 parts to this work together with several important and influential design choices for graph representa-
 112 tion learning were not touched upon. For instance, the graph convolutional models of some of the
 113 aforementioned works offer the important advantage of scalability and small computation cost.

114 In this work, the above mentioned approaches, are generalized and unified in the proposed Relational
 115 Variational Autoencoder (RVAE) model. Note that it is not difficult to yield explicit graph connectivity
 116 in RVAE as in NRI [6] since the type and existence of a connection can be seen as a categorical
 117 variable. See also Figure 1 (b), where a sketch of NRI is offered. Inferring graph connectivity or

118 generating graphs, however, falls out of the scope of this work. In RVAE the focus is generative
 119 modeling of graph structured data with an a priori known connectivity, with attributed nodes and
 120 edges, which optionally may include a global attribute that influences both entities and relations.

Table 1: Features of different related Bayesian graph network encoder-decoder models (see also Figure 1). For the NP models that contain a latent variable, it is straightforward to combine a deterministic global encoder for the context inputs at test time [26]. The attributes with subscript z denote that the model performs optimization using an ELBO objective. The attributes with superscript h denote whether the models may facilitate deterministic conditioning for the corresponding graph attribute at test time.

Name	Latent			Conditioning			Architecture notes
	\mathcal{V}_z	\mathcal{E}_z	\mathbf{u}_z	\mathcal{V}_h	\mathcal{E}_h	\mathbf{u}_h	
CNP [17]	-	-	-	✓	-	✓	DeepSet encoder, GN node block
AttCNP [27]	-	-	-	✓	✓	(✓)	Attention encoder/decoder Decoder edge cond. through cross-attention
ConvCNP [28]	-	-	-	✓	✓	(✓)	SetConv encoder
NP [18]	-	-	✓	✓	-	(✓)	DeepSet encoder
GraphVAE [20]	-	-	✓	✓	✓	✓	Graph conv. encoder
VariationalGAE [22]	✓	-	-	-	-	-	Graph convolutions
Graphite [21]	✓	-	-	✓	-	-	Iterative decoder
NRI [6]	-	✓	-	✓	-	-	MP encoder/decoder
MPNP [29]	-	-	✓	✓	✓	(✓)	MP encoder/decoder
DSVNP [16]	✓	-	✓	✓	-	(✓)	$\mathcal{V}^z \sim p(\mathcal{V}^z \mathbf{u}^z, \mathcal{V}^*, \mathcal{V}^{h*})$
RVAE (this work)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	MP encoder/decoder

121 **Neural processes** In Neural Processes (NP)[17, 18], we consider a set of mappings $F : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$
 122 where $\mathcal{X} : \{x_i\}$, $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^{N_x}$, $\mathcal{Y} : \{y_i\}$, $y_i \in \mathbb{R}^{N_y}$. A particular draw of a function $f \sim F$, is modeled
 123 as $f(x_i) = g_\theta(x_i, z)$ where $z \sim p(z)$ is a high dimensional random vector (e.g. a standard normal)
 124 and g_θ is a neural network and θ denotes the parameters of g . Given a set of n_m input-output
 125 observations $\mathcal{D} : \{(x_{1:n_m}, y_{1:n_m})_{f_m}\}$ from m different realizations of f (potentially different in
 126 number), we want to learn a distribution over $z \sim p(z|\mathcal{D})$. Under the NP approximation, assuming
 127 observation noise $y_i \sim \mathcal{N}(g_\theta(x_i, z), \sigma^2)$, the distribution of y is defined as

$$p(z, y_{1:n} | x_{1:n}) = p(z) \prod_{j=1}^n \mathcal{N}(y_j | g(x_j, z), \sigma^2). \quad (9)$$

128 In practice, the input-output observation cases \mathcal{D} , are split as $\mathcal{D}^{C \cup T} = \mathcal{D}^C \cup \mathcal{D}^T$, where C denotes
 129 a set of points with observations in \mathcal{X} and \mathcal{Y} and T denotes a set of points where we only observe
 130 \mathcal{X} (i.e., the inputs). This can be cast as a conditional generative model for $p(y_T | x_T, x_C, y_C) =$
 131 $p_\theta(y_T | x_T, z) p(z | x_C, y_C)$, where the conditioning is the fully observed context pairs. The ELBO
 132 used for optimization is

$$\begin{aligned} \log p(y_T | x_T, x_C, y_C) &\geq \mathbb{E}_{q_\phi(z | \mathcal{D}^{C \cup T})} \left[\sum_{i \in T} \log p_\theta(y_i | z, x_i) + \log \frac{q(z | \mathcal{D}^C)}{q(z | \mathcal{D}^{C \cup T})} \right] \\ &\quad \mathbb{E}_{q_\phi(z | \mathcal{D}^{C \cup T})} \left[\sum_{i \in T} \log p_\theta(y_i | z, x_i) \right] - D_{KL}(q_\phi(z | \mathcal{D}^{C \cup T}) || q_\phi(z | \mathcal{D}^C)) \end{aligned} \quad (10)$$

133 Note that the above variational objective has an intuitive interpretation, as a reconstruction loss (first
 134 part) and a Kullback-Leibler divergence between the approximate posterior distributions predicted
 135 when using both $C \cup T$ and when using only C (the context set). In [30] a similar loss function was
 136 proposed with the motivation of training VAEs that can be used with arbitrary conditioning masks. By
 137 considering the set of observations as nodes in a disconnected graph, (i.e., $\mathcal{V} : \{\mathbf{v}_i | (x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1:N^v}$)
 138 and training while masking the context output nodes y_C , the same objective is retrieved. Therefore,
 139 following the nomenclature of [2], we can instantiate a NP from the proposed model, by using
 140 arbitrary conditioning as described in [30], a DeepSet [31] as an encoder and only a node-block as a
 141 decoder as shown in Figure 1.

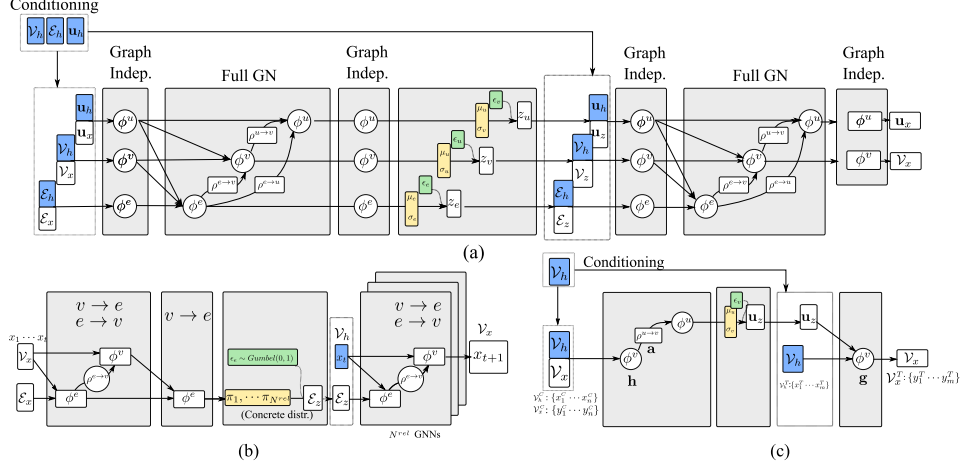


Figure 1: **(a)** Proposed architecture with a single message passing step in the encoder and decoder **(b)** the Neural Relational Inference model of [6]. **(c)** The Neural Process model [18]. For direct correspondence between the present work and [6] and [18] the notations of the other works are included in the figure (e.g. $\rho^{v \rightarrow u} = \mathbf{a}$ in the Neural Process model).

142 The NP framework has been extended to take advantage of special inductive biases, such as the
 143 *relation* of observation and target nodes in Attentive Conditional Neural Processes (AttNP) [27] or
 144 the translation equivariance in Convolutional Conditional Neural Processes (ConvCNP) [28]. More
 145 recently, relational inductive biases were employed in Message Passing Neural Processes (MPNP)
 146 [29]. The aforementioned models, feature a global latent variable \mathbf{u}_z which is inferred from the
 147 context points and parametrizes the distribution over functions. With the exception of MPMP, the
 148 aforementioned works target non-relational data. Nevertheless, MPMPs does not directly implement
 149 edge-bound uncertainty or edge-level conditioning, which is the most pronounced difference to RVAE.
 150 Similar to this work, in DSNPV [16] a NP that allows for both node and global latent variables
 151 was proposed, which in addition, employs a hierarchical VAE [15]. The motivation of DSNPV is
 152 to include node-context information, which in the conditional RVAE is also supported by design
 153 through \mathcal{V}_h . RVAE attempts to merge the complementary strengths of the aforementioned models
 154 in representation of uncertainty, with a focus towards modeling graph structured continuous data.
 155 Finally, in contrast to Functional Neural Processes [32] we do not deal with inferring a graph of
 156 dependencies among latent variables, yet hierarchical RVAE adaptations may also manage such tasks.

157 **Graph Gaussian processes** Sharing the motivation of this work, i.e., taking advantage of relational
 158 information and learning joint distributions of graph structured data, in [33] GPs were defined over
 159 graphs with undirected binary (positive or negative) edges and applied to semi-supervised learning
 160 problems. In [34] the authors applied GPs trained with variational approximations for semi-supervised
 161 learning on graphs that contain non-attributed edges. In [35] GP-based approaches are fused with
 162 deep learning for learning graph (e.g. network) structured signals.

163 4 Results

164 4.1 Wind farm operational data

165 A real-world industrial application, where relational structure is inherent in the observed data, is
 166 found in modeling of operational data of wind turbines positioned in a farm. The wind turbines
 167 (nodes) feature static variables, such as their power production characteristics and their position,
 168 as well as dynamic variables such as their current operational state. The actual operational state
 169 of a turbine is only known up to a certain precision from historical data, (i.e., Supervisory Control
 170 and Data Acquisition (SCADA) data), which is usually limited to 10 minute statistics. Due to
 171 the stochasticity of the wind excitation, compounded by incomplete information due to coarse
 172 measurements, there is *uncertainty* associated with the actual operational state of a wind turbine.
 173 Wind turbines arranged in a wind farm interact through the so-called *wakes*, which are travelling

174 vortices that affect the power production and vibrations of downstream turbines. The magnitude
 175 of wake effects is related to large scale turbulence (which is a global dynamic variable), to wind
 176 orientation (which is a global dynamic variable), to upwind turbine nacelle orientation (which is a
 177 node dynamic variable), the relative position between the two turbines (an edge static variable), the
 178 rotor diameter and the distance between the two turbines. The interaction is one-way directional but
 179 can change directionality depending on the wind orientation. The effect of wakes is stochastic due to
 180 turbulence. For robust wind power prediction, monitoring, control, and maintenance planning, we
 181 want to infer the distribution of operational characteristics of a wind farm conditioned on turbine
 182 characteristics and farm layout. Of crucial importance is the inclusion of stochastic variables in
 183 the interactions (i.e., edges) of the considered graph. Static graph edges, used as part of the graph
 184 conditioning, are constructed by considering the spatial proximity and relative position of pairs of
 185 turbines. The goal is to generalize directly to unseen farm configurations while learning directly on
 186 real condition monitoring data (zero-shot generalization) but at the same time to yield uncertainty
 187 estimates.

188 **Graph machine learning in wind farm modeling** In [36] a GNN was trained on simulated data
 189 for wind power prediction. Recently, in [37] GNNs were applied as a surrogate model to more
 190 accurate fluid dynamic simulations. With the architectural advancements proposed in this work, we
 191 extend the wind farm relational modeling literature by providing a solution for representation of
 192 uncertainty in wind turbine interactions. Moreover, we empirically show in real wind farm data that
 193 significant accuracy improvements are possible through the incorporation of the proposed relational
 194 modeling and variational Bayes approach.

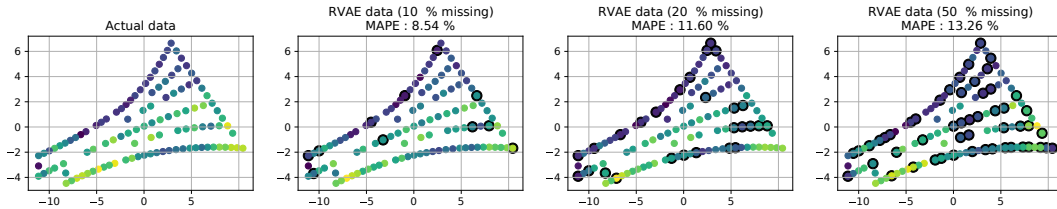


Figure 2: Imputation qualitative results for wind speed. The imputed points are marked with a dark circle on the background. The mean absolute percentage error is reported, which is computed as $1/N^T \sum_{i=1}^{N^T} (|\mathbf{v}_i^T - \hat{\mathbf{v}}_i^T|)/|\mathbf{v}_i^T|$ where \mathbf{v}_i^T is the actual value of node i , N^T the number of target turbines and $\hat{\mathbf{v}}_i$ is the CRVAE prediction.

195 4.2 Real wind farm SCADA dataset

196 Conditional RVAE models (CRVAE) were trained with with a 80/20 train/test split on a dataset that
 197 includes 6 months of 10-minute average SCADA data readings. Since the goal is to compare the
 198 fitting capability of the models and not model selection, no validation set was employed. Early
 199 stopping with patience of 2500 steps was used (test set evaluation every 500 steps). The larger RVAE
 200 models that also yield the best performance had not converged at the 10th epoch. The 20% of turbine
 201 data are randomly masked during training. A batch size of 16 was used for all models. In order
 202 to make a fair comparison no regularization or KL-annealing was used. A small learning rate of
 203 $5 \cdot 10^{-5}$ and the Adam optimizer [38] with default parameters was used for all the runs. The final
 204 ELBOs for all models are shown in Table 2. A *mean* aggregation function and composite aggregation
 205 function consisting of a concatenation of *mean*, *max* and *min* aggregators were used. Due to the
 206 concatenation operation, the composite aggregators result in slightly larger networks. Aligned with
 207 recent results on GN performance when using composite aggregation functions [39] we find that
 208 networks with the *mean - max - min* aggregator indeed yield better performance. The motivation,
 209 however, for using composite aggregators, is also due to the physics of the problem. By using
 210 such aggregators it is easier to discriminate the un-waked part of the farm and the waked turbines.
 211 More concretely, turbines at the upstream boundary of the farm have larger power production and
 212 this directional effect can easily be masked using the mean aggregation. The CRVAE models are
 213 compared to a two-layer MLP-based CVAE trained with the arbitrary conditioning objective [30] of
 214 varying sizes, with the largest CVAE model number of parameters corresponding to the number of
 215 parameters of the best performing RCVAE. The largest CVAE model was the worst-performing of
 216 the evaluated CVAE models.

217 The CVAE model with the smallest size has slightly better performance compared to the RVAE model
 218 that performs no message passing on the encoder part, and therefore ignores relational inductive
 219 biases when inferring G_z . All but one of the CRVAE models strongly outperform the CVAE models
 220 by a large margin which is attributed to the effective use of relational inductive biases. To further
 221 support this claim, in the supplemental material (section A.1) gradient sensitivities are plotted and it
 222 is observed that the imputation results for masked turbines depend on upstream turbines. Qualitative
 223 imputation results are shown in Figure 2.

Table 2: Test set ELBO on Anholt SCADA dataset after 10 epochs. Numbers in parentheses are the standard deviations of the ELBO estimates in the test set (higher is better). The same node, edge and global latent sizes were used (N^{G_z}). “(comp.)” stands for the composite mean-max-min aggregator. All MLPs are 3 layer ReLU MLPs. The \cdot^* superscript denotes results that were not derived from early stopping.

Model	mlp units	N^{G_z} size	MP Steps			# params	ELBO
			enc.	dec.	agg.		
CRVAE	64	32	0	1	mean	184,717	1.96, (0.30)
	64	32	1	1	mean	341,517	6.99(0.29)
	64	32	2	2	mean	498,317	7.48(0.61)*
	64	32	2	2	(comp.)	522,893	8.11(0.48)*
	64	32	3	3	(comp.)	679,693	7.70(0.53)*
CVAE	128	64	–	–	–	77,194	2.12(0.10)
	256	64	–	–	–	252,554	1.17(0.16)
	384	96	–	–	–	563,146	1.23(0.09)

224 **Effect of inferring edge latents \mathcal{E}_z** The introduction of
 225 continuous edge-related latent variables is overlooked in a
 226 large part of the literature. Wake effect modeling is an appli-
 227 cation that may benefit from edge latent variables. We test
 228 the effect of edge latent variables by setting $\beta_{\mathcal{E}} = 0$ while
 229 still using G_h . The results of this experiment are shown in
 230 Table 3. The inclusion of the KL term with respect to edge
 231 latent variables seems to improve the reconstruction error
 232 achieved by the model.

Table 3: Effect of edge latent variables. Results based on 3 runs for each case.

Case	$\log p(\hat{Y}_x G_z; G_h)$	Range
$\beta_{\mathcal{E}} = 1.$	4.16	± 0.43
$\beta_{\mathcal{E}} = 0.$	1.80	± 1.21

233 4.3 Wind farm simulation dataset

234 The steady-state wind farm wake simulator FLORIS [40] was used. A dataset of wake effect
 235 simulations and preprocessing tools for demonstrating the wind farm modeling approach adopted
 236 herein is released as part of this work. In what follows we test the generalization capabilities of a
 237 trained RVAE to novel geometric configurations. A single farm configuration is used for training
 238 and another one is used for testing. Both farms are simulated with random wind characteristics such
 239 as direction and average wind speed. An example output from the simulation can be found in the
 240 supplemental material. The train and test farm configurations can also be found in the supplemental
 241 material.

242 **Qualitative results** The RVAE model is able to capture the orientation-dependent wake deficit for
 243 each turbine separately on the test wind farm as shown in Figure 3. Furthermore, we use a single
 244 turbine as a probe and position it on a regular grid while keeping a turbine on a fixed position (0,0).
 245 By inspecting the wind speed predicted at the probe turbine, we can map the wake deficit in 2D
 246 behind the source turbine. This is shown in Figure 4. The spatial dependence of the wake deficit
 247 is also shown as computed from FLORIS and the error in RVAE estimation. For distances larger
 248 than 200m the wind deficit is accurately predicted. Note that this result is from a model trained on
 249 operational data from a *single* simulated windfarm. When the turbines are very close ($< 200m$) the
 250 wakes are not predicted correctly, but this is an expected effect since the RVAE never encounters
 251 turbines at these distances. Wake effects estimated with the RVAE are slightly lower than those
 252 derived from the simulation as shown in Figure 3. However, the RVAE seems to capture the intricate
 253 wind orientation-dependent effects which depend on the farm layout.

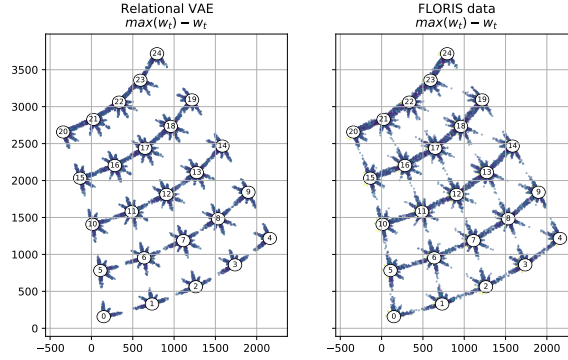


Figure 3: Wind deficits on the simulated test farm and estimates from the trained RVAE. Each point associated with a turbine is plotted in a 2D polar coordinate system centered on the turbine. Each point is plotted towards the orientation of the *incoming* wind. The distance from the origin is proportional to the wake deficit, estimated as $\max(w_i) - w_i$ where v is mean power and mean wind.

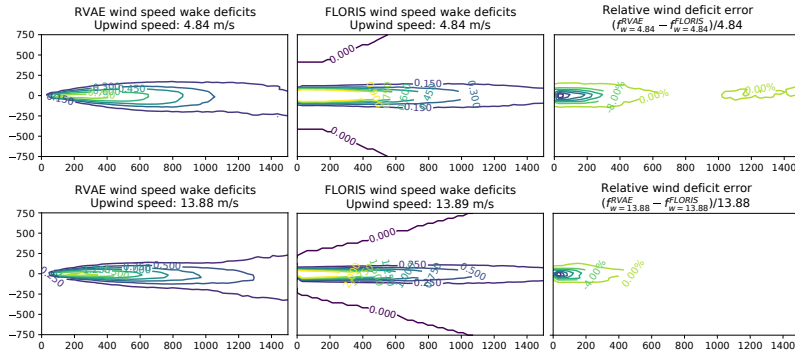


Figure 4: Learned spatial distribution of wake related wind speed deficit, evaluated as $w_{(0,0)} - w_{(x,y)}$ where $w_{(0,0)}$ is the the wind speed at the up-wind turbine and (x, y) denotes the wind speed for a *probe* turbine positioned at $w_{(x,y)}$.

254 4.4 1D regression

255 In order to further demonstrate the versatility of the RVAE in modeling structured data, and in
 256 order to make the connection to NPs [18] clearer, in what follows an RVAE adapted for node data
 257 imputation is presented [30]. The dataset consists of sets of points sampled from a zero-mean 1D
 258 Gaussian process with a squared exponential kernel. The pairs of input points $\{(x_{1:n_m}, y_{1:n_m})_m\}$
 259 are used as node features to construct a set of context and target graphs, where m corresponds to
 260 different GP realizations. Each graph contains a set of edges e_i which encode the relative position
 261 of the observation points. The edge features between observations at points x_i, x_j are defined as
 262 $f(x_i, x_j) = e^{-c \cdot |x_i - x_j|^2}$ where c is a function of the cutoff distance for edge creation. Note that
 263 the construction of such edge features endows the model with translation equivariance. In contrast
 264 to MPNPs, [29], the edges are the same in the context and target graphs. The loss function used
 265 is the same as in Equation 10. Both p_ϕ and q_θ are implemented as GNs. The outputs of the GNs
 266 parameterize a Gaussian, i.e.,

$$q_\phi(z|\mathcal{D}) = \mathcal{N}(\mu_\phi(\mathcal{D}), \sigma_\phi^2(\mathcal{D})), \quad p_\theta(y|\mathcal{D}) = \mathcal{N}(\mu_\theta(\mathcal{D}), \sigma_\theta^2(\mathcal{D})). \quad (11)$$

267 The y values of \mathcal{D}^T are replaced with 0 when fed through the encoder and an additional binary feature
 268 b for the node, which denotes masking, is appended to the node tuple. The b feature is zero for the
 269 unmasked nodes and 1 for the masked nodes. The masked input is denoted by $\mathcal{D}^{T \setminus b}$. The union of
 270 the masked target input with the context dataset is denoted by $\mathcal{D}^{T \setminus b \cup C}$. Instead of using two different
 271 functions for the prior of $p(z|\mathcal{D}^{T \setminus b \cup C})$ as in [30], and posterior network $q(z|\mathcal{D}^{T \cup C})$ and in order to

272 keep the conditional RVAE model closer to the NP formulation, the approximate posterior (i.e., the
 273 encoder of the RVAE) is used also for the learned prior. The decoder p_θ receives as node conditioning
 274 (and optionally edge conditioning) the x_T values and the global latent variable \mathbf{u}^z . Each realization
 275 of \mathbf{u}^z corresponds to a different context set which in turn corresponds to a different sampled GP .
 276 More information about the training setup can be found in the appendix.

277 The NP is implemented by defining a DeepSet encoder, a global latent variable of the same size
 278 as the NP MLP. The same latent variable size for nodes and edges was used for each experiment,
 279 which is the same as the core size. All aggregation functions are *mean* aggregations. Experiments
 280 were performed with different number of message passing steps, and inclusion of either the relative
 281 observation position as an edge feature or the absolute node position x_i for each feature. The models
 282 are tested in un-seen GP realizations and the negative log-likelihood of predictions are reported in
 283 Table 4. The RVAE models compute edge, node and global variables. The test datasets contain points
 284 with $x \in [0, 1]$ and $x \in [1, 2]$ ranges in order to test the generalization capability of the proposed
 285 model in translation. Since the edge-blocks only ever receive translation equivariant inputs from
 286 the dataset, the RVAE models generalize well in the $x \in [1, 2]$ range. This is presented only as an
 287 example of how special equivariant inductive biases may be implemented in RVAE. It is observed
 288 that the full RVAE model does not perform well when only the node features are available. As with
 289 NPs, it was empirically found that models yield better results with more training.

Table 4: Test set log likelihoods on 1D GP regression with Conditional RVAE. The results are based on a set of 5000 unseen GP samples, each with 50 context and 50 target points. The models were trained only on points with x in the $[0, 1]$ range. Values in parentheses are standard deviations of the mini-batches. RVAE denotes a model where all latent variables are used (edge node and global).

Model	size (mlp/z/MP Steps)	Only cond. on nodes $G_h = (\mathcal{V}_h, \cdot, \cdot)$		Cond. on edges and nodes $G_h = (\mathcal{V}_h, \mathcal{E}_h, \cdot)$	
		$x \in [0, 1]$	$x \in [1, 2]$	$x \in [0, 1]$	$x \in [1, 2]$
CRVAE	64/64/0	-17.94(3.11)	-24.59(4.10)	0.33(0.04)	-0.21(0.13)
	64/64/1	-12.55(2.51)	-9.79(2.51)	0.36(0.07)	0.08(0.06)
	64/64/2	-	-	0.98(0.09)	0.67(0.08)
NP	64/64/NA	-1.34(0.07)	-11.13(3.08)	NA	NA
	128/128/NA	-1.08(0.11)	-31.74(14.08)	NA	NA

290 Conclusions and broader impact

291 This work introduces an attributed graph approach to the probabilistic modeling of relations within
 292 entities and their properties. The approach is verified and validated on wake effect simulations and
 293 actual data from wind turbines placed within a wind farm; a characteristic example that may be
 294 modeled as a graph. We also find some connections to the NP literature which we demonstrate by
 295 adapting the proposed method to perform a typical NP benchmark which is 1D regression for GP
 296 data.

297 We introduce a method for data-driven wake effect modeling for wind farms that accounts for uncer-
 298 tainty. The proposed method fuses physical intuition, flexible function approximation through GNs,
 299 and variational Bayes through re-parametrized gradients. Better and more computationally efficient
 300 wake effect modeling can lead to improvements in terms of accuracy and computational efficiency in
 301 analysis for wind farm siting [41] farm layout optimization [42], wind farm control optimization [43]
 302 and ultimately power production improvements, as well as more robust to uncertainties maintenance
 303 planning. Ultimately, the aforementioned lead to wind energy being a more attractive clean energy
 304 solution.

305 Graph data are naturally used to model social, transportation and communication networks. Possible
 306 negative implications of any graph ML work relate to possible malicious uses of analysis in such
 307 networks, such as de-anonymization in social networks [44], and vulnerability exploitation on
 308 transportation networks.

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414 Checklist

- 415 1. For all authors...
- 416 (a) Do the main claims made in the abstract and introduction accurately reflect the paper’s contribu-
 417 tions and scope? [Yes]
- 418 (b) Did you describe the limitations of your work? [Yes] As noted in section 3 the main limitation
 419 of RVAE is that it cannot be used directly as a graph generation model.
- 420 (c) Did you discuss any potential negative societal impacts of your work? [Yes]
- 421 (d) Have you read the ethics review guidelines and ensured that your paper conforms to them? [Yes]
- 422 2. If you are including theoretical results...
- 423 (a) Did you state the full set of assumptions of all theoretical results? [N/A]
- 424 (b) Did you include complete proofs of all theoretical results? [N/A]
- 425 3. If you ran experiments...
- 426 (a) Did you include the code, data, and instructions needed to reproduce the main experimental
 427 results (either in the supplemental material or as a URL)? [TODO]The code and dataset will be
 428 shared within the deadline for providing supplemental materials.
- 429 (b) Did you specify all the training details (e.g., data splits, hyperparameters, how they were chosen)?
 430 [Yes] see subsection 4.4 and subsection 4.2
- 431 (c) Did you report error bars (e.g., with respect to the random seed after running experiments
 432 multiple times)? [N/A] For experiments in Table 1 and Table 2 the standard deviation of the
 433 batch statistics for a single run are reported since the differences of the models were pronounced.
 434 For the results in Table 3 the statistics reported are based on 3 independent runs.
- 435 (d) Did you include the total amount of compute and the type of resources used (e.g., type of GPUs,
 436 internal cluster, or cloud provider)? [Yes] All reported experiments were run on a personal
 437 desktop running Ubuntu 20.04, with an nVidia RTX2080 GPU and 16GB of RAM.
- 438 4. If you are using existing assets (e.g., code, data, models) or curating/releasing new assets...
- 439 (a) If your work uses existing assets, did you cite the creators? [Yes] Orsted energy, formerly known
 440 as Dong energy provided us with a proprietary SCADA dataset for the Anholt farm.
- 441 (b) Did you mention the license of the assets? [Yes] The Anholt SCADA dataset was made available
 442 to us under a non-disclosure agreement. The simulated wind farm dataset will be released under
 443 the CC-BY 4.0 license.
- 444 (c) Did you include any new assets either in the supplemental material or as a URL? [Yes]
- 445 (d) Did you discuss whether and how consent was obtained from people whose data you’re us-
 446 ing/curating? [N/A]
- 447 (e) Did you discuss whether the data you are using/curating contains personally identifiable informa-
 448 tion or offensive content? [N/A]
- 449 5. If you used crowdsourcing or conducted research with human subjects...
- 450 (a) Did you include the full text of instructions given to participants and screenshots, if applicable?
 451 [N/A]
- 452 (b) Did you describe any potential participant risks, with links to Institutional Review Board (IRB)
 453 approvals, if applicable? [N/A]
- 454 (c) Did you include the estimated hourly wage paid to participants and the total amount spent on
 455 participant compensation? [N/A]