

21 **Supplementary Material A**

22 The lower bound of $\log p(y)$ can be formulated as follows:

$$23 \quad \log p(y) \geq \int q(u, v) \log p(y|u, v) du dv - \sum_{j=1}^Q KL[q(u_j||p(u_j))] - \sum_{h=1}^H KL[q(v_h||p(v_h))]$$

$$24 \quad (\text{A.1})$$

25 which is derived using Jensen's inequality and the fact that both of $q(u_j)$, $q(v_h)$,

26 $p(u_j)$, $p(v_h)$ are all multivariate Gaussian distribution. The KL divergence terms are

27 analytically trackable. To compute the expected likelihood term,

$$28 \quad \log p(y|u, v) \geq \langle \log p(y|g, t) \rangle_{p(g, t|u, v)} = \sum_{h=1}^H \sum_{i=1}^N \langle \log p(y_{hi}|g_i, t_{hi}) \rangle_{p(g|u)p(t_h|v_h)}$$

$$29 \quad (\text{A.2})$$

30 where $g_i = \{g_{ji} = (g_j)_i\}_{j=1}^Q$. After calculation of $\langle \log p(y_{hi}|g_i, t_{hi}) \rangle$, the resulting

31 lower bound can be derived by substituting into eq. (A.1) as follows:

$$32 \quad \begin{aligned} L = & \sum_{h,i} \left(\log N(y_{hi}; \tilde{\mu}_{hi}, \beta^{h-1}) - \frac{1}{2} \beta^h \sum_{j=1}^Q w_{hj}^2 \tilde{k}_{jii} \right. \\ & \left. - \frac{1}{2} \beta^h \tilde{k}_{hii}^t - \frac{1}{2} \beta^h \sum_{j=1}^Q \text{tr} w_{hj}^2 s_j \Lambda_{ji} - \frac{1}{2} \beta^h \text{tr} s_h^t \Lambda_{hi} \right) \\ & - \sum_{j=1}^Q \left(\frac{1}{2} \log |K_{jzz} s_j^{-1}| + \frac{1}{2} \text{tr} K_{jzz}^{-1} (\mu_j \mu_j^T + S_j) \right) \\ & - \sum_{h=1}^H \left(\frac{1}{2} \log |K_{hzz} (s_h^t)^{-1}| + \frac{1}{2} \text{tr} K_{hzz}^{-1} (\mu_h^t (\mu_h^t)^T + s_h^t) \right) \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A.3})$$

33 where $K_{jzz} = k(Z_j, Z_j)$, $K_{hzz} = k(Z_h^t, Z_h^t)$, and

$$34 \quad \tilde{\mu}_{hi} = \sum_{j=1}^Q w_{hj} A(i, :) m_j + A_h^h(i, :) m_h^t \quad (\text{A.4})$$

35
$$\Lambda_{ji} = A_j(i, :)^T A_j(i, :) \quad (\text{A.5})$$

36
$$\Lambda_{hi} = A_h^t(i, :)^T A_h^t(i, :) \quad (\text{A.6})$$

37 with $\tilde{k}_{jii} = (\tilde{K}_j)_{ii}$; $\tilde{k}_{hii} = (\tilde{K}_h)_{ii}$; $\mu_{ji} = (\mu_j)_i$; $\mu_{hi}^t = (\mu_h^t)_i$; $A_j = k(X, Z_j)K_{jzz}^{-1}$.

38 $A_h^t = k(X, Z_h^t)K_{hzz}^{-1}$ and $A_j(i, :)$ is used to denote the i -th row vector of A_j . All

39 parameters l can be derived by calculation of $\frac{\partial L}{\partial \mu_j} = 0$, $\frac{\partial L}{\partial s_j} = 0$, $\frac{\partial L}{\partial \mu_h^t} = 0$, $\frac{\partial L}{\partial s_h^t} = 0$,

40 $\frac{\partial L}{\partial Z} = 0$, $\frac{\partial L}{\partial Z^t} = 0$, $\frac{\partial L}{\partial \beta^h} = 0$.

41

42 **Supplementary Material B: HA definition**

43 An automaton is a formal model for a dynamic system with discrete and continuous

44 components. A hybrid automaton is a tuple $H = (X, Q, Inv, Flow, E, Jump, Reset,$

45 $Event, Init)$ where:

46 • X is a finite set of n real-valued variables that model the continuous dynamics;

47 • Q is a finite set of control locations (mode);

48 • Inv is a mapping, which assigns an invariant condition to each location $q \in Q$.

49 $Inv(q)$ is a predicate over the variables in X . The control of a hybrid automaton

50 remains at a location $q \in Q$, as long as $Inv(q)$ holds;

51 • $Flow$ is a mapping, which assigns a flow condition to each control location $q \in Q$.

52 The flow condition $Flow(q)$ is a predicate over X that defines how the variables in

53 X evolve over the time t at location q ;

54 • $E \subseteq Q \times Q$ is the discrete transition relation over the control locations;

55 • $Jump$ is a mapping, which assigns a jump condition (guard) to each transition

56 $e \in E$. The jump condition $jump(e)$ is a predicate over X that must hold to fire e .

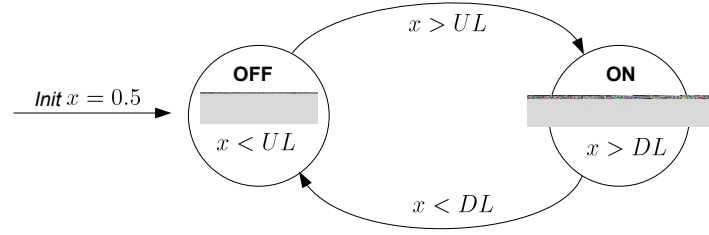
57 Omitting a jump condition on a transition means that the jump condition is
58 always true and it can be taken at any point of time. Conventionally, writing
59 $Jump(e)[v]$ means that the jump condition on a transition e holds, if the variations
60 of variables on the transition v ;

- 61 • $Reset(e)$ is a predicate over X that defines how the variables are reset;
- 62 • $Event$ is a finite set Σ of events, and an edge labelling function $event : E \rightarrow \Sigma$
63 that assigns to each control switch an event;
- 64 • $Init$ is the initial state of the automaton. It defines the initial location together with
65 the initial values of the variables X .

66

67 **Supplementary Material C: An example for hybrid automata model building**

68 To further illustrate hybrid automata, a pump station model based on autonomous
69 hybrid automata is shown as follows. The hybrid automaton of Figure S1 models a
70 pump station, which turns on and off according to the sensed water level. The variable
71 x represents the water level. In control mode OFF, the pump station is off, and the
72 water level rises according to the flow condition ($Flow$) $\dot{x} = \frac{inflow(t)}{S}$, where S is
73 pump station wet well area, t is the time, and $inflow$ is incoming flow into pump
74 station. In control mode ON, the pump station is on, and the water level falls or rises
75 according to the Flow condition $\dot{x} = \frac{inflow(t)-outflow}{S}$, where outflow is constant due to
76 constant pump speed operation. In this example, initially, the pump station is off and
77 the initialized water level is 0.5. According to the jump condition $x > UL$ (water level
78 upper limit), the pump station may go ON as soon as the water level reaches UL .



79

80

Figure S1. Pump station autonomous hybrid automaton

81 According to the invariant condition (*Inv*) $x < UL$ in the OFF circle, the pump station
 82 will stay OFF when the water level is lower than UL . Similar behaviour will occur
 83 once water level is lower than DL (water level down limit) in the ON circle, if pump
 84 station is ON.

85

86 **Supplementary Material D: Multivariate linear regression**

87 Multivariate regression is usually performed to predict several response variables
 88 simultaneously. The usual description of MLR is multivariate linear regression and is
 89 formulated as follows:

90

$$y^h = \beta^h x + \varepsilon^h \quad (\text{D.1})$$

91 where y^h , β^h and ε^h represent noisy output, parameters and noises with respect to the
 92 h th response, $h = 1, \dots, H$ and N is the number of observations, the dimension of input
 93 variables x is M . To identify the parameters $\theta = \{(\beta^h, D^h)\}_{h=1}^H$, covariance-weighted
 94 least squares estimation is used, which is formulated in the Matlab Toolbox³³. To
 95 compute the predictive distribution of y^h at a new testing input x^* , the mean values
 96 and variances are given as follows:

97

$$\mu_*^h = \beta^h x^* \quad (\text{D.2})$$

98

$$s_*^h = D^h \quad (\text{D.3})$$

99 where $D^h = \text{diag}\{(\sigma_1^h)^2, \dots, (\sigma_M^h)^2\}$, σ_M represents the variance with respect to the M th
100 input variable.

101

102 **Supplementary Material E: Radial basis function networks**

103 A radial basis function network is an artificial neural network that uses radial basis
104 functions as activation. The output of the network is a linear combination of radial
105 basis functions of the inputs and neuron parameters. Radial basis function (RBF)
106 networks typically have three layers: an input layer, a hidden layer with a non-linear
107 RBF activation function and a linear output layer. The input can be modeled as a
108 vector of real numbers $x \in R^n$. The output of the network is then a scalar function of
109 the input vector and is given by

$$110 \quad y = \sum_{i=1}^N a_i \varphi(x_i) \quad (\text{E.1})$$

111 where $\varphi(x) = \exp[-\beta \|x - c_i\|^2]$, N is the number of neurons in the hidden layer, c_i is
112 the center vector for the i th neuron, and a_i is the weight of neuron i in the linear
113 output neuron. Functions that depend only on the distance from a center vector are
114 radially symmetric about that vector, hence the name radial basis function. In the
115 basic form all inputs are connected to each hidden neuron. The norm is typically taken
116 to be the Euclidean distance (although the Mahalanobis distance appears to perform
117 better in general) and the radial basis function is commonly taken to be Gaussian.
118 Parameters of one neuron has only a small effect for input values that are far away
119 from the center of that neuron. Given certain mild conditions on the shape of the
120 activation function, an RBF network with enough hidden neurons can approximate
121 any continuous function with arbitrary precision. The parameters a_i, c_i, β_i are

122 determined in a manner that optimizes the fit between $\varphi(x)$ and the data.

123

124

125 **Supplementary Material F: Kernel selection**

126 A kernel (also called a covariance function) is a positive-definite function of two

127 inputs x_i, x_j , and is defined as $k(x_i, x_j)$ to represent the similarity between two

128 objects. The most few basic kernels are shown in Fig. S2, suggesting that each

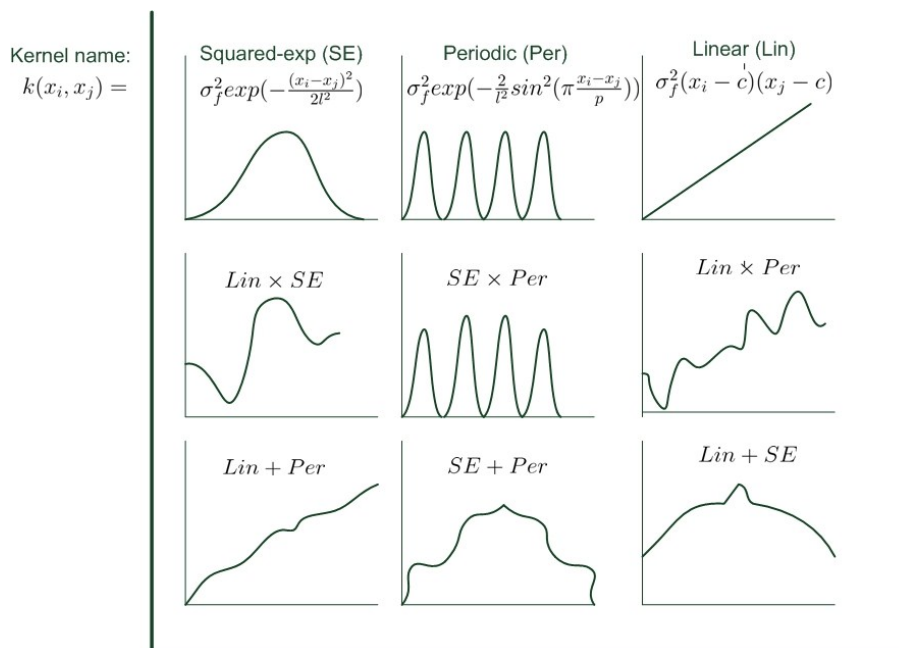
129 covariance function is able to make a different set of assumptions about the function

130 we wish to model. Even if the kind of structure is not expressed by any known kernel,

131 kernels can be combined to create new ones with different properties (Fig.1 Line 2

132 and Line 3)³⁴.

133



134

135 **Fig. S2.** Kernel functions for the GPR model

136

137 Different from the general covariance function, we also can use a new proposed

138 additive covariance function together with Squared-Exp (SE) as a base covariance

139 function shown as follows:

$$140 \quad k_{add}(x_i, x_j) = \sigma_f^2 \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{q=1}^d \frac{(x_{iq} - x_{jq})^2}{2l_q^2}\right\} \quad (F.1)$$

141 where k_{ij} is the base kernel Squared-Exp (SE), d is the column number of training
 142 samples. This model, in fact, is a sum of functions of all possible combinations of
 143 input variables. This model can be specified by a weighted sum of all possible
 144 products of one-dimensional kernels. In our model, the only design choice necessary
 145 to specify an additive kernel is the selection of a one-dimensional base kernel for each
 146 input dimension. Parameters of the base kernels (such as length-scales (l_1, l_1, \dots, l_d)) can
 147 be learned as per usual by maximizing the marginal likelihood of the training data.

148

149 Table S1. Empirical reliability with different confidence levels

| | | Corrosion initiation time (months) | | Corrosion rate (mm/y) | |
|--------------------|-----------|---------------------------------------|----------------|-----------------------|-----------------|
| | | GPR-ex, GP | GPR-ex, PS | GPR-ex, GP | GPR-ex, PS |
| 95% reliability | Empirical | 20/90 (78%) | 10/94 (90%) | 8/110 (92.7%) | 15/127 (88%) |

150 Notes: x/y ($z\%$), x and y represent the number of samples out of 90% confident control limit and
 151 the total number of samples, respectively. z is the actual percentage of samples which failed to be
 152 predicted.

153

154

155