Lecture 5: Neural Operators 1, Background

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Some papers/books to look at

- Courant and Hilbert Methods of mathematical physics Volumes 1,2
- Stuart et. al. Fourier Neural Operator for PDEs
- Kovachi et. al. Operator learning: algorithms and analysis

Motivation: Solution Operators

Have studied using PINNS to solve PDE problems of the form

$$u_t = F(\mathbf{x}, u, \nabla u, \nabla^2 u)$$
 with BC, $u(0, x) = u_0(x)$

At time T we have the solution $u_T(x) \equiv u(x, T)$.

Solution u(x, t) for all x and t is obtained by minimising a function directly associated with the PDE eg. residual.

Neural Operator methods take a different approach

- Consider u_T as a function F of u_0 . $u_T = F(u_0)$
- F is an operator mapping one infinite dimensional function space to another $F: A \to B$. eg. $A, B = H^1(\Omega)$
- Train a Neural Operator NN to approximate this operator note infinite dimensions
- ullet Train it by generating a (large) set of solution pairs (u_0^i,u_T^i)

Can generate solution pairs using a (conventional) numerical method eg. Finite Element, Pseudo-Spectral, Symplectic.

eg. ERA5 data for 24 hour weather forecasts.

Example 1: A linear ODE system

Consider the linear ODE

$$\frac{d\mathbf{u}}{dt} = A \mathbf{u}, \quad \mathbf{u}(0) = \mathbf{u}_0, \quad \mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

Solution

$$\mathbf{u}(T) = e^{A T} \mathbf{u}_0 \equiv B \mathbf{u}_0$$

$$B \equiv e^{AT} = I + AT + \frac{A^2T^2}{2!} + \frac{A^3T^3}{3!} + \dots$$

Properties of the solution operator

- Operator is linear
- Operator is continuous over any subset of R^n
- Can easily learn the matrix B from data pairs if we assume that the operator is linear in advance!
- If we learn B from a subset of the data pairs then we can extrapolate this to ALL data pairs
- This is NOT true if don't make the linearity assumption. Many NN
 methods will locally approximate the operator to be linear, but will
 not give this as a global approximation.

tanh and linear picture

Latent space description of the operator

Let A have eigenvectors ϕ_i so that

$$A \phi_i = \lambda_i \phi_i$$

Set $\mathbf{u} = \sum a_i(t) \phi_i$ then

$$\frac{d\mathbf{u}}{dt} = \sum \frac{d\mathbf{a}_i}{dt} \phi_i = \sum A\mathbf{u} = \sum \lambda_i \mathbf{a}_i \phi_i$$

so that

$$\frac{da_i}{dt} = \lambda_i a_i \implies a_i = a_i(0)e^{\lambda_i t}$$

Assume A is colorblue symmetric. Then can set

$$\phi_i^T \phi_j = \delta_{ij}$$

Hence

$$\mathbf{u}(T) = \sum \phi_i^T \mathbf{u}(0) e^{\lambda_i T} \phi_i.$$

Takes the form of

- Encoder: $\phi_i^T \mathbf{u}_0$.
- Latent space evolution: $e^{\lambda_i T}$
- **Decoder** Multiply by ϕ_i

We will mimic this structure in the design of Neural Operators eg. **Deep-O-Net**

Example 2: Parabolic PDEs

Consider the parabolic PDE [picture]

$$u_t = u_{xx} + f(x), \quad x \in [0, 2\pi], \quad u(0, x) = u_0(x), \quad \textit{periodicBC}$$

We can express u(x, t) in terms of convolutional integral operators:

$$u(x,t) = G * u_0 + H * f \equiv \int_0^{2\pi} G(x-y,t) u_0(y) \ dy + \int_0^{2\pi} H(x-y,t) f(y) \ dy$$

These operators act on the infinite dimensional space $L^2[0, 2\pi]$.

Can find G(z,t) and H(z,t) explicitly using a Fourier series.

This construction will motivate the construction, and use,of the FNO (Fourier Neural Operator) in the next Lecture

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Fourier Series

As u and f are 2π periodic we can set:

$$u(x,t) = \sum_{j} c_j(t)e^{ijx}, \quad f(x) = \sum_{j} f_j e^{ijx},$$

Substituting into the PDE we have

$$\frac{du_j}{dt}=-j^2u_j(0)+f_j,$$

with

Hence

$$c_j(T) = e^{-j^2T} \left(c_j(0) - \frac{f_j}{j^2} \right) + \frac{f_j}{j^2}, \quad c_0(T) = c_0(0) + f_0T$$

with

$$c_j(0) = rac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} e^{-ijy} u_0(y) \ dy, \quad f_j = rac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} e^{-ijy} f(y) \ dy.$$

Hence

$$u(x,T) = \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{1}{2\pi} \sum_j e^{ij(x-y)} e^{-j^2 T} u_0(y) dy$$
$$+ \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{1}{2\pi} \sum_j e^{ij(x-y)} j^{-2} f(y) dy + \dots$$

So we can see that this has the correct integral form with

$$G(z,T) = \sum_{j} \frac{1}{2\pi} e^{-j^2 T} e^{ijz}, \quad H(z,t) = \sum_{j} \frac{1}{2\pi} j^{-2} e^{ijz} + \dots$$

Trivially G(z, T) has Fourier Coefficents

$$G_j = \frac{1}{2\pi} e^{-j^2 T}.$$

Learning G and H

- Suppose for a fixed f(x) we have lots of solution pairs $(u_0^k(x), u_T^k(x))$ (k = 1..N random set)
- ullet Use FFT to find the Fourier coefficients $u_0^k o u_0^{k,j}, u_T^k o u_T^{k,j}, f o f_j$
- For each j find the FCs of G and H by solving the minimisation problem

$$(G_j, H_j) = \operatorname{argmin}_k ||G_j u_0^{k,j} + H_j f_j - u_T^{k,j}||$$

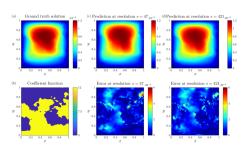
This motivates the construction of the Fourier Neural Operator (FNO) in the next lecture.

Example 3: Darcy Problem

The Darcy problem relates a permeability a(x) to a velocity field u(x)

$$-\nabla \cdot (a(x)\nabla u) = f(x)$$
 $x \in \Omega$, $u = 0$ $x \in \partial \Omega$.

This induces a (nonlinear) map $N: a \to u$, $N: L^2(\Omega) \to H^1_0(\Omega)$



We can approximate this map using the Finite Element Method

$$u(x) \approx U(x) = \sum U_i \, \phi_i(x).$$

$$-\nabla \cdot (a(x)\nabla u) = f \implies \int a(x)\nabla u(x) \cdot \nabla \phi_i(x) \ dx = \int f(x)\phi_i(x) \ dx \equiv f_i$$

Giving the linear system

$$A\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{f}, \quad \mathbf{U}_i = U_i, \quad \mathbf{f}_i = f_i, \quad A_{ij} = \int a(x) \, \nabla \phi_i \cdot \nabla \phi_j \, dx.$$

Hence we can approximate the nonlinear map via:

$$U = A^{-1} f$$

And ...

We can LEARN this map by

- Doing lots of finite element calculations to find solution pairs (a(x), u(x))
- Learn the operator between these pairs (see next lecture).

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Pictures

In image processing a picture is often thought of as a high dimensional vector $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

Can also think of it as a function f(x,y) $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$. Image processing is then an operation on an infinite dimensional function space.

Example 1: Blurring

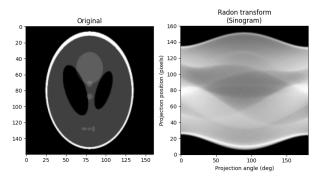
$$f \rightarrow G * f(x,y) = \int \int G(x-x',y-y') f(x',y') dx'dy'$$





Example 2: Radon Transform in Tomography

$$f(x,y) \to Rf(\theta,d) = \int f((z\sin(\theta) + d\cos(\theta)), (-z\cos(\theta) + d\sin(\theta)) dz$$



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Methods such as FNO work as much as possible in the infinite-dimensional function space.

They Construct and train Neural Operators which are approximations to the true operator (or its inverse) which are independent of the resolution of the underlying function/image

Nonlinear problems and a warning

Consider now the nonlinear parabolic PDE

$$u_t = u_{xx} + f(x, u), \quad u(0) = u(1) \quad u(0, x) = u_0(x)$$

This does not always induce a continuous map from $u(0,x) \to u(1,x)$.

- If f(x, u) is Globally Lipshitz in x and u then all is OK
- If not then we may have problems
- See Case Study One!

Example

Let

$$f(x, u) = u^2, \quad u_0(x) = \gamma > 0$$

Then

$$u(1,x)=\frac{\gamma}{1-\gamma}.$$

Map is only continuous on the interval $\gamma \in [0,1)$

If we train only on data with $\gamma<1$ we will get a false result if we try to extend to $\gamma>1.$

Case Study: Learning the Green's function of a linear elliptic operator

[Boullé + Townsend: https://arxiv.org/pdf/2102.00491]

If we have an elliptic PDE

$$-\Delta u = f(\mathbf{x}), \quad \mathbf{x} \in \Omega, \quad u = 0 \quad \mathbf{x} \in \partial \Omega$$

then there exists a Green's function $G(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ so that

$$u(\mathbf{x}) = G * f \equiv \int_{\Omega} G(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) f(\mathbf{y}) d\mathbf{y}.$$

$$G: C^{\alpha} \to C^{2,\alpha}$$
 Hölder Spaces