Taller

Coding Deep Neural Networks for PDEs Session I: Introduction

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Motivation: Partial Differential Equations

• Partial Differential Equations (PDEs) model multiple phenomena.

• For example:

• Steady-state heat distribution in heterogeneous media via diffusion equation:

$$-\nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{\sigma} \nabla \boldsymbol{u} = f.$$

• Electromagnetic fields via Maxwell's equations (in the frequency domain):

$$\begin{cases} \nabla \times \mathbf{E} = -j\omega \mu \mathbf{H} - \mathbf{M}, & \text{Faraday's Law.} \\ \nabla \times \mathbf{H} = (\sigma + j\omega \varepsilon) \mathbf{E} + \mathbf{J}, & \text{Amperè's Law.} \\ \nabla \cdot (\varepsilon \mathbf{E}) = \rho_f, & \text{Gauss' Law of Electricity.} \\ \nabla \cdot (\mu \mathbf{H}) = 0, & \text{Gauss' Law of Magnetism.} \end{cases}$$

Parameters, Solution, Equation structure and source terms.

Motivation: Methods for solving linear PDEs

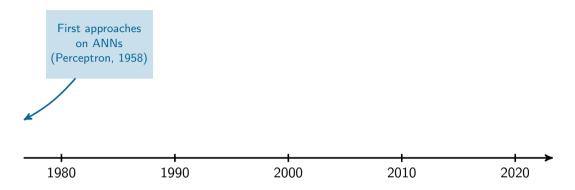
Numerical methods

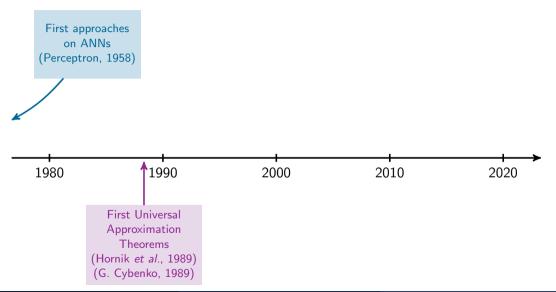
- Finite Difference Method (FDM)
- Finite Element Method (FEM)
- Spectral Methods (e.g., Fourier)

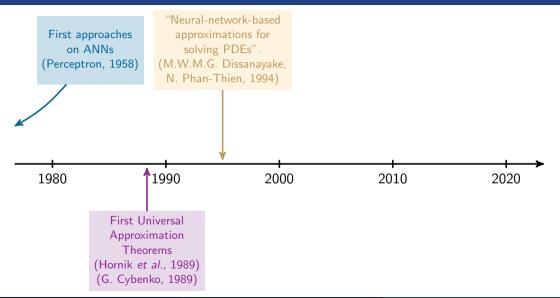
- Feed-Forward Neural Networks
- Convolutional Neural Networks
- Recurrent Neural Networks

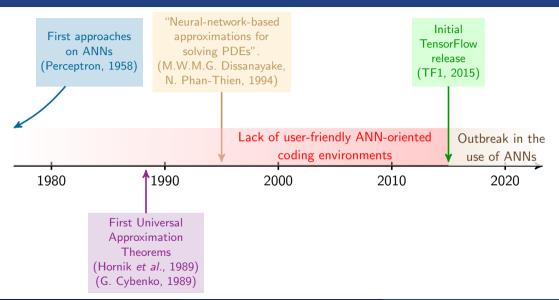
Advantages and limitations

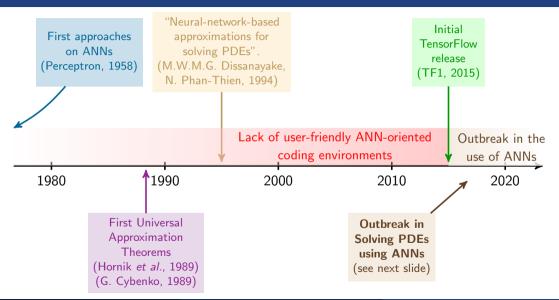
- ✓ Converts the PDE into a system of linear equations (for a chosen finite basis)
- ! Basis choice is critical
- Curse of dimensionality
- Universal approximation property
- ✓ Overcome the curse of dimensionality
- X Non-convex optimization
- Integration is challenging











Literature review

- Yu, B. (2018). The Deep Ritz method: A deep learning-based numerical algorithm for solving variational problems. *Communications in Mathematics and Statistics*, 6(1), 1-12.
- Raissi, M., Perdikaris, P., & Karniadakis, G. E. (2019). Physics-informed neural networks: A deep learning framework for solving forward and inverse problems involving nonlinear partial differential equations. *Journal of Computational Physics*, 378, 686-707.
- Kharazmi, E., Zhang, Z., & Karniadakis, G. E. (2021). hp-VPINNs: Variational physics-informed neural networks with domain decomposition. *Computer Methods in Applied Mechanics and Engineering*, 374, 113547.

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Minimization problem

• Assume that our problem of interest reformulates as

$$u^* := \arg\min_{u \in \mathbb{I}} \mathcal{L}(u), \qquad \mathcal{L} :$$
 loss/objective function, $\mathbb{U} :$ space of functions.

E.g., To find u^* solving $Au^* = f$, we might consider $\mathcal{L}(u) = ||Au - f||$.

- To approximate $u^* \in \mathbb{U}$, we proceed as follows:
 - **1.** Consider a **discretization** θ for \mathbb{U} , denoted $\theta \longmapsto u(\theta) \in \mathbb{U}$.
 - 2. "Seek" θ^* such that $\mathcal{L}(u(\theta^*)) = \inf_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(u(\theta))$. For simplicity, we will write:

$$\theta^* = \arg\inf_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(u(\theta)),$$

where "arg inf" should be read loosely.

By abuse of notation, θ denotes both the discretization mapping and the set of variables.

Discretization

Linear (Traditional) Approach

$$\theta \longmapsto u(\theta)(x) := \sum_{j=1}^n \theta_j \ \psi_j(x),$$

$$\theta = (\theta_1, \theta_2, \cdots, \theta_n)$$

where $\psi_j \in \mathbb{U}$ and $\theta_j \in \Theta = \mathbb{R}^n$.

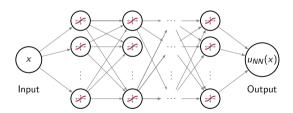
Typically:

- ψ_j is easy to implement (e.g., a polynomial).
- $\{\psi_j\}_{j=1}^n$ is linearly indep.

Artificial Neural Networks (ANNs)

$$\theta \longmapsto u(\theta)(x) := u_{NN}(x),$$

 $\theta = \{\mathbf{W}_j, \mathbf{b}_j\}_{j=1}^k \cup \{\mathbf{W}\} \in \Theta = \mathbb{R}^n.$

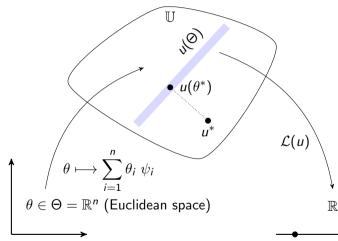


$$\mathbf{y}_0(x) := x \in \mathbb{R}^{n_0},$$

 $\mathbf{y}_j(x) := \varphi(\mathbf{W}_j \mathbf{y}_{j-1} + \mathbf{b}_j) \in \mathbb{R}^{n_j}, \quad 1 \le j \le k,$
 $u_{NN}(x) := \mathbf{W} \mathbf{y}_k \in \mathbb{R}^{n_{k+1}},$

Topology

Linear-combination approach



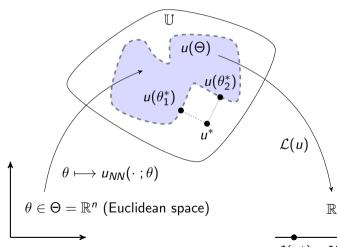
- ✓ $u(\Theta)$ is a finite subspace of \mathbb{U} .
- ✓ Typically, $u(\theta^*)$ is well-defined.
- ✓ If \mathcal{L} convex $\Longrightarrow \mathcal{L} \circ \theta$ convex.
- ! Approximation capacity is sensitive to the choice of $\{\psi_i\}_{i=1}^n$.

 $\mathcal{L}(u(\Theta))$

 $\mathcal{L}(u^*)$ $\mathcal{L}(u(\theta^*))$

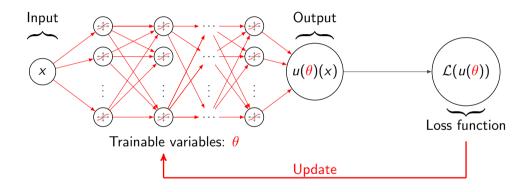
Topology

ANN approach



- $! u(\Theta)$ is a "manifold".
- $u(\theta^*)$ might be ill-defined (non-existence or -uniqueness).
- $\mathcal{L} \circ \theta$ is generally non-convex although \mathcal{L} is convex.
- Great approximation capacity (Universal approximation Thm).

 $\mathcal{L}(u(\Theta))$



- Tipically performed in the form of a first-order gradient-descent-based methods.
- ✓ **Automatic differentiation** computes $\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(u(\theta))$ with a cost similar to evaluating $\mathcal{L}(u(\theta))$.
- Second-order methods (e.g., Newton methods) involve $\mathcal{H}_{\theta}(\mathcal{L}) := \nabla_{\theta}^2 \mathcal{L}(u(\theta))$. Computing $\mathcal{H}_{\theta}(\mathcal{L})$ employing automatic differentiation is $\#\theta$ times more expensive than computing $\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(u(\theta))$. In ANN approaches, $\#\theta$ is huge!
- Continuum-level descriptions of gradient-descent and Newton optimization schemes,

$$heta_t' = - \overbrace{\mathcal{H}_{ heta}(\mathcal{L})^{-1} \underbrace{\nabla_{ heta} \mathcal{L}(u(heta_t))}_{ ext{Gradient Desc}}, \qquad \begin{cases} heta_t = heta(t), \\ heta_0 = heta(0). \end{cases}$$

Iterative gradient-descent optimization:

$$\begin{cases} \theta_t' \approx \frac{\theta_{t+1} - \theta_t}{\eta} \\ \theta_t' = -\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(u(\theta_t)) \end{cases} \implies \theta_{t+1} = \theta_t - \eta \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(u(\theta_t))$$

- Adding momentum:
 - At the continuum level:

$$\theta_t'' + \gamma \theta_t' = -\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(u(\theta_t)) \iff \begin{cases} \theta_t' &= v_t, \\ v_t' + \gamma v_t &= -\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(u(\theta_t)), \end{cases}$$

• At the iterative level:

$$\begin{cases} v_{t+1} = \beta v_{t-1} - \eta \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(u(\theta_t)), \\ \theta_{t+1} = \theta_t + v_{t+1}, \end{cases} \quad 0 < \beta := 1 - \gamma \eta < 1.$$

 There exist multiple gradient-descent variants of this: with Nesterov acceleration, Adagrad, Adadelta, RMSprop, Adam/AdaMax, Nadam, etc.

Let
$$\theta = (\theta_1, \theta_2)$$
,

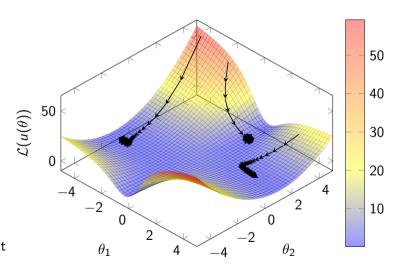
•
$$u(\theta)(x) = \theta_2 \tanh(\theta_1 x)$$
,

$$\bullet \ u^*(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & x > 0, \\ 0, & x = 0, \\ -1, & x < 0, \end{cases}$$

•
$$\mathcal{L}(u) = ||u - u^*||_{L^2(-1,1)}^2$$
.

Infimizer: $(\theta_1^*, \theta_2^*) = (\pm \infty, \pm 1)$.

We perform 200 gradient-descent iterations with $\eta = 0.05$.



Integration: General Comments

- Exact integration is typically unavailable due to the nonlinearity of activation functions.
- When our loss function has an integral form, we employ numerical integration:

$$\mathcal{L}(u(\theta)) = \int_{\Omega} \mathcal{I}_{u(\theta)}(x) dx \approx \sum_{k=1}^{K} \omega_k \mathcal{I}_{u(\theta)}(x_k).$$

- To avoid overfitting, **stochastic** quadrature is a must! (e.g., Monte Carlo integration)
- Unbiasedness of the chosen stochastic quadrature is another must! (e.g., MC is unbiased)

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{k=1}^K \omega_k I(u(\theta))(X_k)\right] = \mathcal{L}(u(\theta)).$$

• Big variance entails big integration errors! (in MC, variance is of order $\mathcal{O}\left(\frac{1}{N}\right)$).