

Learning Equations for Extrapolation and Control

→ Focus on learning mathematical expressions from data ≠ standard Black Box ML models

→ Instead of predicting outcomes, the goal is to identify **explicit** functional relationships - meaning the discovered model can be interpreted, extrapolated and used for control tasks

→ to achieve this proposition of the EQL: Equation learner with Division Model

(designed to)

- 1- identify underlying equations governing a system (physics-based equations)
 - 2- Generalize beyond training data (extrapolation)
 - 3- Be useful in real-world control tasks, like robotics
- EQL:

Why learn equations instead of just predicting? :

- Standard ML models like NN = Black Boxes + example of pendulum movement prediction & Newton's eqs of motion

⇒ Instead of training a model just to make predictions, we want to discover **the underlying mathematical equations** governing a system

Core problem: Learning Equations from Data :

problem framed as a regression task where the system follows an unknown analytical expression : $y = \phi(x) + \xi$

- x = input (system parameters)
- $\phi(x)$ is the core eq. governing the system
- y = observed output (e.g. system response)
- ξ = small noise in the measurements

Goal: learn an equation $\psi(x)$ that closely approximates $\phi(x)$, while remaining **interpretable** and **generalizable**

The EQL Model: NN for symbolic regression

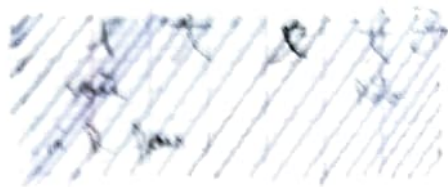
EQL: NN that learns equations

(hidden layers contains specific mathematical fcts like $\sin, \cos, \frac{1}{x}, +$)

⇒ Build complex equations by combining basic math operations

advantage: model naturally produces outputs in the form of interpretable equations
limitation: - could not handle division operations, which are crucial for many physical problems
- model selection process often picked overly complex or incorrect equations

ML technique used to find math. expressions that best describe relationships within data (structure and parameters of the eq. that fits the data)



Adding DIV units to the model

- 1- Adds Divisor Operation to the model
- 2- Stabilizes training (if an issue arises when denominator approaches zero)
- 3- Improves Model Selection by better building the true underlying equation

Adding DIV units is Challenging because:

- When den. approaches zero, the function becomes unstable
- Gradients in NN Training can become very large, making optimization difficult

SOLUTION: regularized divisor function: $R_{\text{DIV}}(D) = \frac{1}{D} + \frac{\lambda}{D^2}$

- a small threshold that ensures denominators never get too close to zero
- ↳ works because:
 - Prevents extreme values from destabilizing training
 - Encourages stable learning of division-based equations

Training with DIV

- ↳ Trained using gradient-based optimization (e.g. Adam optimizer) with
 - regularization (λ : $L = \sum (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 + \lambda \sum |w_i|$)
 - to encourage sparsity (most of the elements are 0 or = 0)

Loss function: The total loss consists of:

- 1- MSE (measures how well the predicted eq. matches data)
- 2- L_1 Regularization (encourages simpler equations by penalizing unnecessary terms)
- 3- Penalty for small denominators (ensures divisor remains stable)

- ↳ Key training strategy:
 - Initially, the model is highly regularized to encourage simple equations.
 - As training progresses, reg. is gradually reduced, allowing finer adjustments

- another application: $Y_2 = \frac{x_1 + 1}{3} \sin(\pi x_1) + x_2 x_3 x_4$, extrapolation, robotics: controlling a cart-pendulum system

EPFL AI Internship Preparation

Why do we need Neural Operators (NO)?

Traditional NN: - great at mapping inputs to outputs
- BUT they work with FINITE-DIMENSIONAL spaces a function

• When a NN learns a mapping $(x, t) \mapsto u(x, t)$, the problem is ORIGINALLY an infinite-dimensional one (sol. are functions not just finite-dimensional vectors)

↳ For example Partial Differential Equations (PDEs):

$$F(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_1}, \dots, \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_n}, \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2}, \dots) = 0$$

→ NO solve this by generalizing NN to learn mapping between function spaces, making them resolution-independent (= process inputs of different resolutions without requiring retraining or modifications) (= varying discretization (different grid sizes))

What are Neural Operators? :

Key Characteristics :

- Discretization Invariance: Do not depend on grid resolutions
- Map from one function to another: learns K between entire functions (not vectors or images)
- Use integral operators: Instead of Matrix multiplication, NO use integral transforms to compute their results
- Universal approximation: NO can approximate any nonlinear continuous operators

It matters because:

- Traditional ~~Deep~~ Deep learning Models work only on SPECIFIC GRID SIZES ⇒ need retraining for new resolutions
- NO allow training once and applying at any resolution
⇒ more efficient and scalable (eg. NO much faster than trad. PDE solvers)

↳ Zero-shot Super-Resolution: train on low-resolution data, apply to high-resolution problems without extra training

How do NO work?

- NO generalize standard NN by replacing their layers with integral operators layers.

Structure of a NO:

1. Lifting Layer: Expands input function space to a higher-dimensional representation \leftarrow allows the NO to learn richer patterns
2. Integral Operator Layers: Apply a sequence of [Integral Transformations] instead of matrix multiplication
3. Nonlinear Activation: Uses ^{at each x} pairwise nonlinearities (ReLU, sigmoid) for expressiveness
4. Projection Layer: Maps the high-dimensional function back to the output function space

Mathematical Formulation of a NO: $G(x) = A \circ \sigma \circ (K(x) + Wx + b) \circ P$

- $K(x)$ = integral operator (core part)
- $Wx + b$ = standard affine transformation
- σ = nonlinear activation function
- P and A = lifting and projection layers

$x \mapsto \int_{\Omega} K(x, y) a(y) dy$
integral kernel operator

Different types of NO proposed:

1. GNO (Graph NO): $O(N^2)$ \leftarrow nodes: p values at discrete pts
 - uses a graph-based structure to model interactions
 - suitable for unstructured grids (irregular meshes in engineering app)
 - Computationally expensive but flexible
 - requires a graph structure (\Rightarrow longer for 3D pts)
 - edges define local dependencies (ϕ_i depends on nearby points)
 - GNN to propagate info between nodes
 - $K(x)$ approx thanks to Nyström Method (computes integrals using a subset of sampled nodes)
2. LNO (Low-Rank NO): $O(N)$
 - approximates the integral operator using a low rank factorization $\leftarrow K(x, y) = \sum_{i=1}^r \phi_i(x) \psi_i(y)$
 - Faster but less expressive (+ memory-efficient too)
 - 2nd gen. for highly non-local interactions
 - ϕ_i, ψ_i = low rank basis functions
 - good for diffusion type eqns: $\epsilon x \cdot \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = K \nabla^2 u$
3. Multiple Graph NO (MGNO): $O(N \log(N))$
 - Inspired by Fast Multiple Methods (FMM)
 - uses a multi-level hierarchical approx. for efficiency
 - balances speed and accuracy (requires graph-based input more complex than LNO)
 - instead of FC Graphs = GNO, MGNO hierarchically group nodes based on their distance
 - Fast multiple expansion to approximate long range interactions

approx. high dimensional data into low dim space \rightarrow reduce no. of basis components

G = integral matrix partitioned into blocks, scales to rank k
 each block with global dependencies

4. Fourier NN (FNO): $O(N \log N)$

→ Best performing network, offering high accuracy and speed.

- uses the Fourier Transform to approximate the integral operator.

- Fastest and most accurate method for many PDE problems

- Works well for smooth functions (e.g. fluid dynamics) and periodic functions

2) instead of computing the integral $K(x)$ directly, FNO applies a Fourier Transform

$K(x)(y) = \mathcal{F}^{-1}(R \cdot \mathcal{F}(u))$, R a learnable weight matrix that operates in a Fourier space

- requires uniform grids (not as flexible as GNNs)

- not great for discontinuous solutions

$$\mathcal{F}(u)(\gamma) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} u(x) e^{-2\pi i \gamma x} dx$$

Challenges and Future Directions

- Handling Non-Smooth Solutions: NO struggle with discontinuous functions like shocks in hyperbolic PDEs

- Better Theoretical Understanding: more research is needed on error bounds and expressiveness

- Hybrid Approaches: Combining NN with traditional solvers could improve robustness

NOMTO: Neural Operator-Based Symbolic Model Approximation and Discovery

Why do we need NOMTO?

- same motivation as EQL and EQE: perkolium and Newton's law of motion
example \Rightarrow need of symbolic regression (SR)
- Problems with existing symbolic regression methods:
 - 1- Traditional SR (like genetic programming) searches for equations blindly, making it slow and inefficient
 - 2- DL-based SR models require large training datasets and often fails to generalize to unseen functions
 - 3- Models like EQL, while more flexible, struggle with complex operations (e.g. divisions, exponentials, derivatives)
not EQE

NOMTO is meant to solve this through this key idea:

NOMTO (Neural Operator-Based Symbolic Model Approximation and Discovery) combines the power of Neural Operators with SR to efficiently discover equations that include:

- Singularities (division, exponentials)
- Special Functions (Gamma function, Airy function)
- Differential operators (time derivative, Laplacians)

\rightarrow notably $\frac{dy}{dx^2} - xy = 0$

\Rightarrow provides interpretable equations thanks to NO specifically used and modified to learn PDEs directly from data

\uparrow slightly harder to train but far more generalizable

How does NOMTO work?

- 1- Trains NO to approximate fundamental operations (multiplication, sin, etc)
 - 2- Builds a computational graph where each node is an operation learned by NO
 - 3- Optimizes the graph to extract the simplest possible symbolic equation
- \Rightarrow unlike black box DL-models, NOMTO discovers equations explicitly, making them interpretable

In Detail: How does NOMTO work?:

1- Train Neural Operators to approximate basic operations:

- NOs (like FNOs and CNOs) learn basic mathematical operations.

- These operations form a library of symbolic functions:

Library = $\{+, -, \times, \div, \sin, \cos, \exp, \ln, \log, \dots\}$
1st - 12th

→ important step because traditional SR only handles simple algebraic functions, while NOMTO learns even differential operators and special functions

2- Construct the Computational Graph:

- After training NOs, the building blocks are combined into a graph-based representation of a symbolic equation.

- The edges in the graph represent learned relationships between operations

ex.: if the true eq. is $y = \sin(x) + \frac{x^2}{14x}$ → The NOMTO graph would dynamically discover that:

- y depends on x
- $\sin(x)$ and x^2 are important
- a division is necessary

3- Optimize the graph to minimize loss

- The system optimizes the structure of the graph to find the simplest possible equation that fits the data (+ gradient based optim.)

- Uses sparsity constraints to avoid overcomplicated expressions

→ advantage: traditional methods struggle to simplify equations, while NOMTO actively removes unnecessary terms

4- Extract the final Symbolic Expression

- The optimized computational graph is translated into an explicit symbolic equation.

- This equation is interpretable and generalizable beyond the training data

⇒ NOMTO significantly outperforms existing SR methods in discovering complex mathematical models.

• Revolutionizing Sci. PDF - Learning: accurately finds test equations, bypasses spurious and subtle correlations

RE-PRO

Differences:

NOMTO: given black box time t , predicts black box time $t+1$

NOMTO: given observation of black box, discovers the Moore's Law equation