

# 10 Methodological Overview

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website



book



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# 10 Methodological Overview

- **Simulation substitution**

- Data-driven modelling
- Physics-informed learning

- **Simulation enhancement**

- **Discretizations as neural networks**

- **Generative approaches**

- **Deep reinforcement learning**

*Deep learning in computational mechanics: a review, Herrmann et al. 2024*

Simulation with [graph neural networks](#); DMD; [Transfer learning](#)  
[Hamiltonian/Lagrangian neural networks](#); [SINDy](#); ([PINNs](#))

[Input-convex neural networks](#) for material modeling;  
EUCLID; [Neural networks as ansatz function of inverse quantities](#); Superresolution; [Differentiable physics](#)

Hardware acceleration with GPUs; ([HiDeNN](#))

Generative design; Realistic [data generation](#); [Anomaly detection](#); Transformers for natural language processing

Control engineering tasks: autonomous flight; robots;  
Alternative gradient-free optimizer

## 10.1.1 Data-Driven Modeling

The aim of data-driven modeling is to learn a model in a **supervised** manner relying on **labeled** data

$$\{\tilde{x}_i, \tilde{y}_i\}_{i=1}^{m_{\mathcal{D}}}$$

Neural network as approximation of function  $y = f(x)$  relating the data

$$\hat{y} = f_{NN}(x; \Theta)$$

The quality of prediction is defined in terms of a data misfit function, e.g., the **MSE**

$$\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{D}} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{m_{\mathcal{D}}} \|\hat{y}(\tilde{x}_i; \Theta) - \tilde{y}_i\|^2$$

Covered in depth in Chapter 3

## 10.1.1 Data-Driven Modeling

Covered in depth in Chapter 3

Consider the PDE

$$\mathcal{N}[u; \lambda] = 0$$

Goal is the approximation of a **forward operator**

$$\hat{u}(x) = F_{NN}(\lambda; x, t; \Theta)$$

Or an **inverse operator**

$$\hat{\lambda}(x, t) = I_{NN}(u; x, t; \Theta) \text{ or } \hat{\mathcal{N}}[u; \lambda] = O_{NN}(u; \lambda; \Theta)$$

For simplicity, we limit ourselves to the forward operator

- With a **dataset**  $\{(\tilde{\lambda}_i; \tilde{x}_i, \tilde{t}_i), (\tilde{u}_i)\}_{i=1}^{m_{\mathcal{D}}}$ , the forward operator is learned
- The quality of prediction is defined in terms of a data misfit function, e.g., the **MSE**

$$\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{D}} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{m_{\mathcal{D}}} ||\hat{u}(\tilde{\lambda}_i; \tilde{x}_i, \tilde{t}_i; \Theta) - \tilde{u}_i||^2$$

# 10.1.1 Data-Driven Modeling

## 10.1.1.1 Space-Time Approaches

- Time can simply be treated in the same way, as any other spatial dimensions
- In the following, time  $t$  is no longer mentioned explicitly, but included in the coordinates  $x$

## 10.1.1.2 Time-Stepping Procedures

- Time is treated in a discrete manner using relying on a time-stepping procedure

# 10.1.1 Data-Driven Modeling

Covered in depth in Chapters 3 & 6

## Fully-Connected Neural Networks

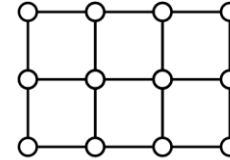
$$\hat{u}(x) = F_{FNN}(\lambda; x; \Theta)$$

### Image-to-Image Mapping

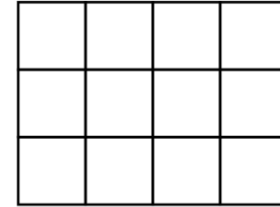
$$\hat{u}_i = F_{CNN}(\lambda_i; \Theta) \text{ or } \hat{u}_i = F_{GNN}(\lambda_i; \Theta)$$

- where  $\hat{u}_i$  and  $\lambda_i$  are evaluations of  $u(x)$  and  $\lambda(x)$ 
  - on a uniform grid for **convolutional neural networks**
  - on arbitrary grids for **graph neural networks**

finite element mesh



nodes as pixels



### Model Order Reduction Encoding

- Forward operator is learned on a **reduced space**  $\lambda^{\mathcal{R}} = \phi(\lambda)$  with inverse mapping  $u = \phi^{-1}(u^{\mathcal{R}})$

$$\hat{u} = \phi^{-1}(\hat{u}^{\mathcal{R}}) = \phi^{-1}(F_{NN}(\lambda^{\mathcal{R}}; \Theta)) = \phi^{-1}(F_{NN}(\phi(\lambda); \Theta))$$

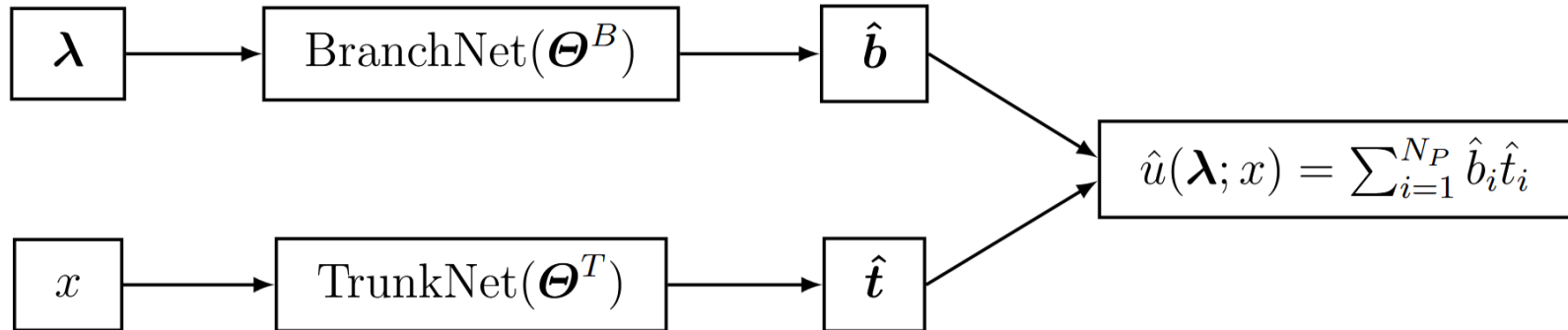
- Dimensional reduction can be performed with principal components analysis, singular value decomposition, autoencoders
- Misfit to data can be formulated on **reduced space**  $u^{\mathcal{R}}$  or **full space**  $u$

## 10.1.1.1.4 Neural Operators

### DeepONet

- Operator prediction is split up into two tasks
  - Prediction of **basis functions**  $\hat{\mathbf{t}}_i = F_{FNN}^T(x_i; \Theta^T)$
  - Prediction of **coefficients**  $\hat{\mathbf{b}}_j = F_{FNN}^B(\lambda_j; \Theta^B)$
  - Prediction of solution  $\hat{u}_{ij}$  at  $x_i$  with coefficients  $\lambda_j$  with the scalar product

$$\hat{u}_{ij} = \hat{\mathbf{b}}_j \cdot \hat{\mathbf{t}}_i$$





## 10.1.1.1.4 Neural Operators

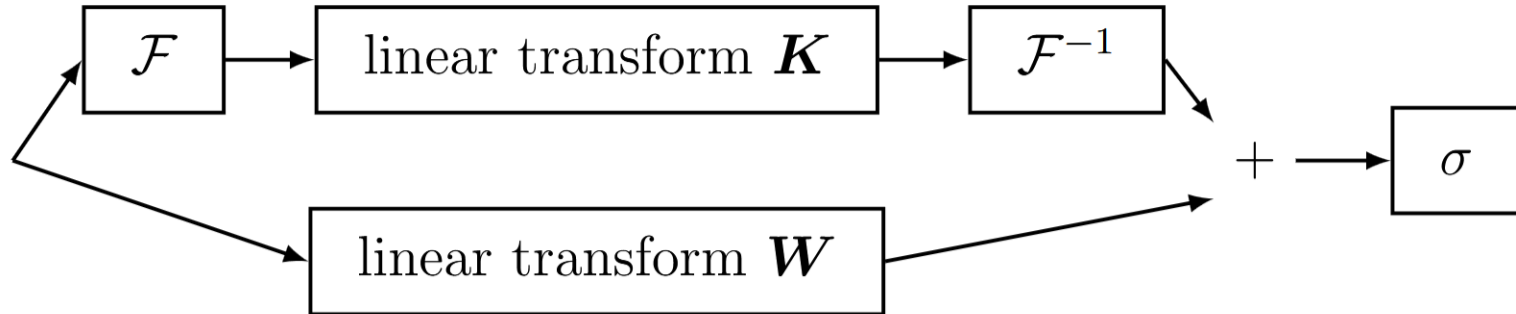
### Fourier Neural Operators

- Mapping of coefficients  $\lambda$  to solution  $\mathbf{u}$  is learned on a **uniform grid**

$$\hat{\mathbf{u}}(\lambda) = \mathbf{F}_{\text{FNO}}(\lambda; \Theta)$$

- Fourier Neural Operator (FNO) consists of **Fourier Layers** that operator in **Fourier Space** (over  $\mathbf{x}$ )

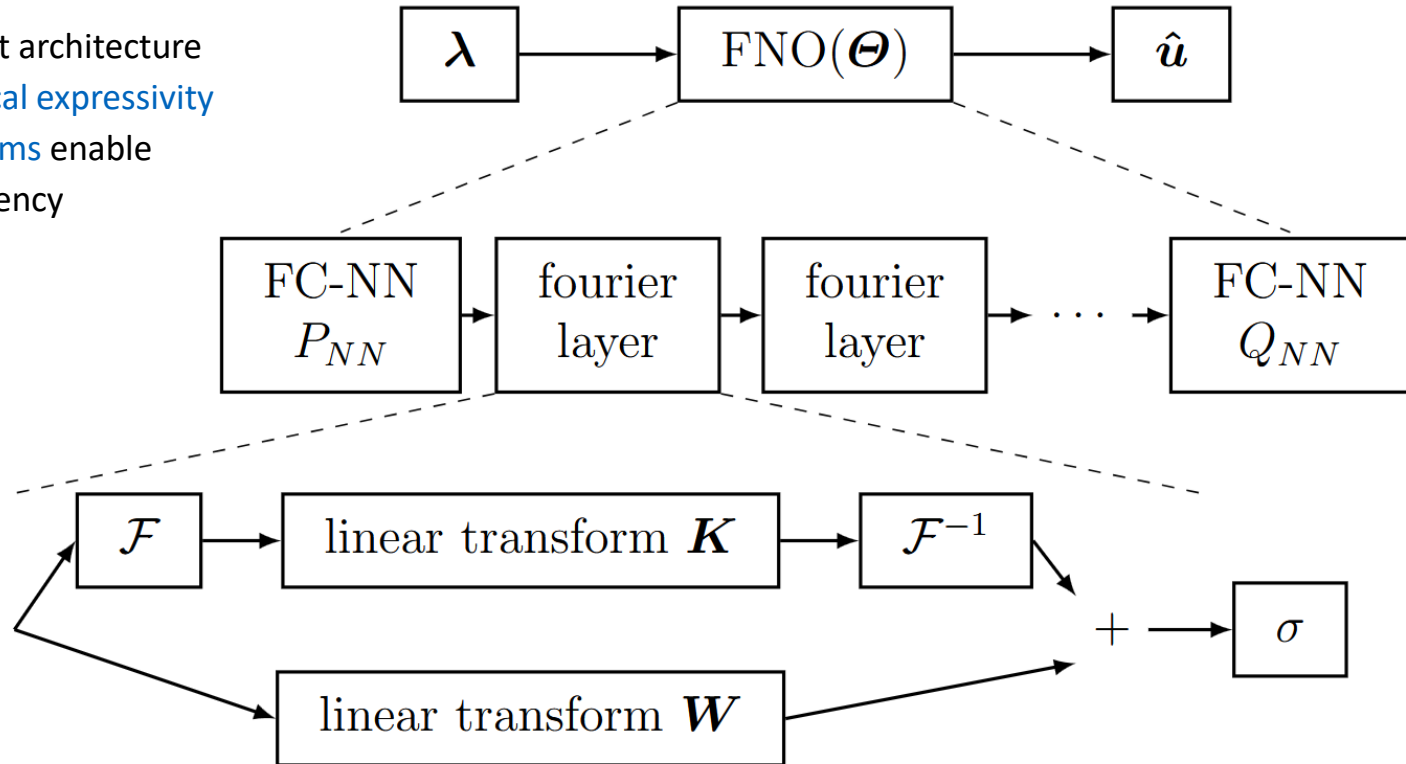
$$\mathbf{a}^{(j+1)}(\mathbf{x}) = \sigma(\mathbf{W}\mathbf{a}^{(j)}(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{b} + (\mathcal{F}^{-1}[\mathbf{K}\mathcal{F}(\mathbf{a}^{(j)}(\mathbf{x}))])$$



# 10.1.1.1.4 Neural Operators

## Fourier Neural Operators

- Expressive and efficient architecture
  - Enhance the **non-local expressivity**
  - **Fast Fourier transforms** enable computational efficiency



## 10.1.1.2 Time-Stepping Procedures

### Time-Stepping Procedures

- Problem is discretized in time with  $t_{i+1} = t_i + \Delta t$
- Prediction of time-history with fully-connected neural network

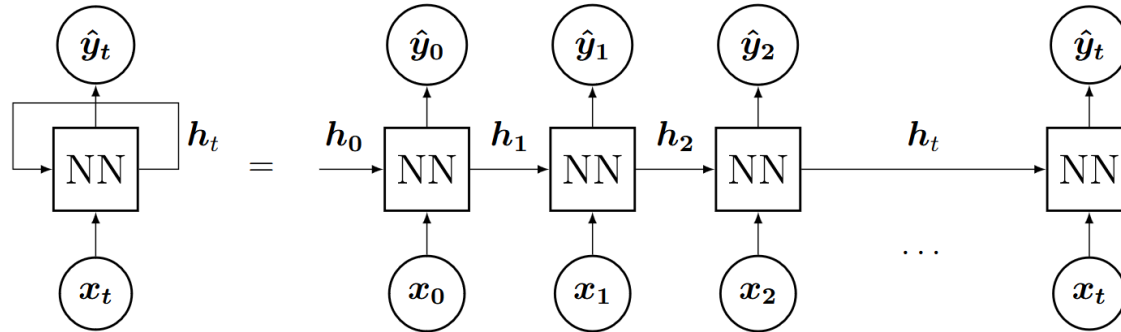
$$\hat{u}(x, t_{i+1}) = F_{FNN}(x, t_i; \Theta)$$

- Prediction of time-history with recurrent neural network

$$\{\hat{u}_2, \hat{u}_3, \dots, \hat{u}_N\} = F_{RNN}(x; u_1; \Theta)$$

- or variations, such as LSTM, GRU, transformers

Difference to fully-connected neural network is a hidden/latent state that propagates information from prior steps



## 10.1.1.2 Time-Stepping Procedures

### Dynamic Mode Decomposition

- Consider two successive **snapshot matrices**  $\mathbf{X} = [\mathbf{x}(t_0), \mathbf{x}(t_1), \dots, \mathbf{x}(t_n)]^T$ ,  $\mathbf{X}' = [\mathbf{x}(t_1), \mathbf{x}(t_2), \dots, \mathbf{x}(t_{n+1})]^T$
- Goal is to identify **linear operator**  $\mathbf{A}$  that captures the dynamics

$$\mathbf{X}' \approx \mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}$$

- Solved as a regression using the **Moore-Penrose pseudoinverse**  $\mathbf{U}^\dagger$

$$\mathbf{A} = \arg \min_{\mathbf{A}} \|\mathbf{X}' - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}\|_F = \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}^\dagger$$

- Dynamical predictions with linear operator  $\mathbf{A}$

$$\mathbf{x}(t_{i+1}) \approx \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}(t_i)$$

- Only valid for linear dynamics
- Koopman operator theory** states, that it is possible to represent any nonlinear system as a linear one by using an infinite-dimensional **Koopman operator**  $\mathcal{K}$  that acts on a transformed state  $g(\mathbf{x}(t_i))$

$$g(\mathbf{x}(t_{i+1})) = \mathcal{K}[g(\mathbf{x}(t_i))]$$

- In practice, **finite dimensional approximation**, i.e., also for  $g(\mathbf{x}(t_i))$
- Constructed with a **dictionary of orthonormal basis functions**  $\boldsymbol{\psi}(\mathbf{x})$

## 10.1.1.2 Time-Stepping Procedures

### Dynamic Mode Decomposition with neural networks

- Learn **dictionary** with a neural network

$$\hat{\psi}(x) = \psi_{NN}(x; \Theta^{\psi})$$

- Training on mismatch between predicted state and the true state in the dictionary space

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^N \|\hat{\psi}(x(t_{i+1})) - A\hat{\psi}(x(t_i))\|_2^2$$

- Reconstruction using **Koopman mode decomposition**
- Learn augmented state  $\mathbf{h}(x)$  with **autoencoder** (learns both encoding and decoding)

$$\mathbf{h}(x) = E_{NN}(x; \Theta^E), x(\mathbf{h}) = D_{NN}(\mathbf{h}; \Theta^D)$$

- Loss can be formulated in terms of autoencoder reconstruction, linear dynamics, future state prediction

$$\begin{aligned} & \|\mathbf{x} - D_{NN}(E_{NN}(\mathbf{x}; \Theta^E); \Theta^D)\|_2^2 \\ & \|E_{NN}(\mathbf{x}(t_{i+1}); \Theta^E) - AE_{NN}(\mathbf{x}(t_i); \Theta^E)\|_2^2 \\ & \|\mathbf{x}(t_{i+1}) - D_{NN}(AE_{NN}(\mathbf{x}(t_i); \Theta^E); \Theta^D)\|_2^2 \end{aligned}$$

$A$  is obtained with  
conventional DMD

## 10.1.2 Physics-Informed Learning

Incorporation of **physical constraints**

- via **penalty terms**, which acts as **regularization**

$$\tilde{\mathcal{L}} = \mathcal{L} + \lambda || \cdot ||^2$$

- For example physics-informed neural networks as seen in Chapters 4 & 5
- **by construction**, which **reduces** the learnable space

$$\tilde{u} = f(\hat{u})$$

- For example physics augmented neural networks for material modeling as seen in Chapter 7

## 10.1.2 Physics-Informed Learning

Again, we consider **Space-Time Approaches** first

- In general, we consider a PDE with boundary & initial conditions

$$\mathcal{N}[u; \lambda] = 0$$

- And focus on the forward operator  $u = F(x)$
- To illustrate the upcoming methods, consider the **differential equation** of a static elastic bar

$$\frac{d}{dx} \left( EA \frac{du}{dx} \right) + p = 0$$

- with **Dirichlet boundary conditions** on  $\Gamma_D$

$$u(x) = g(x)$$

- and/or **Neumann boundary conditions** on  $\Gamma_N$

$$EA(x) \frac{du(x)}{dx} = f(x)$$

# 10.1.1.2.1 Differential Equation Solving

Covered in depth in Chapter 4

## Physics-Informed Neural Networks

- Solution to one differential equation is approximated with neural network

$$\hat{u}(x) = F_{FNN}^u(x; \Theta^u)$$

- Cost function is expressed as **residual** of the differential equation

$$\mathcal{L}_R = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{m_R} |\mathcal{N}[\hat{u}(x_i); \lambda(x_i)]|^2 = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{m_R} \left( \frac{d}{dx} \left( EA(x_i) \frac{du(x_i)}{dx} \right) + p(x_i) \right)^2$$

- residual of boundary conditions (and initial conditions)

$$\mathcal{L}_B = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{m_{B_D}} (u(x_i) - g)^2 + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{m_{B_N}} \left( EA(x_i) \frac{du(x_i)}{dx} - f(x_i) \right)^2$$

- and a data-driven cost

$$\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_N + \mathcal{L}_B + \mathcal{L}_D$$



# 10.1.1.2.1 Differential Equation Solving

Covered in depth in Chapter 5

## Deep Least-Squares Method/Deep Galerkin Method

- Considers the  $L^2$  norm of the residual over the entire domain (instead of individual collocation points)

$$\mathcal{L}_R = \frac{1}{2} \int_{\Omega} |\mathcal{N}[u(x); \lambda]|^2 d\Omega$$

## Variational Physics-Informed Neural Networks

- Residual of the **weak form** instead of the residual of the strong form

$$\mathcal{L}_V = \int_{\Omega} \frac{dw(x)}{dx} EA(x) \frac{du(x)}{dx} d\Omega - \int_{\Gamma_N} w(x) EA(x) \frac{du(x)}{dx} d\Gamma_N - \int_{\Omega} w(x) p(x) d\Omega = 0, \forall w(x)$$

- Test functions**  $w(x)$  are chosen by the user, e.g., trigonometric or polynomial

## Weak Adversarial Networks

- Test functions** are modeled with a second neural network

$$\hat{w}(x) = F_{FNN}^w(x; \Theta^w)$$

- Minimax optimization** (competition between **trial** and **test** functions)

$$\min_{\Theta^u} \max_{\Theta^w} \mathcal{L} \text{ with } \mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_V + \mathcal{L}_D + \mathcal{L}_B$$

## 10.1.1.2.1 Differential Equation Solving

Covered in depth in Chapter 5

### Deep Energy Method/Deep Ritz Method

- Minimization of the **potential energy**  $\Pi_{\text{tot}} = \Pi_i + \Pi_e$

$$\mathcal{L}_{\varepsilon} = \Pi_i + \Pi_e = \frac{1}{2} \int_{\Omega} EA(x) \left( \frac{du(x)}{dx} \right)^2 d\Omega - \int_{\Gamma} u(x) EA(x) \frac{du(x)}{dx} d\Gamma - \int_{\Omega} u(x) p(x) d\Omega$$

- Only applicable to **conservative systems**, i.e., systems that conserve energy
- Not generally applicable to inverse problems
  - $EA(x)$  going towards  $-\infty$  in  $\Omega$  and towards  $\infty$  on  $d\Gamma$  minimizes  $\mathcal{L}_{\varepsilon}$  to an arbitrary level

# 10.1.1.2.1 Differential Equation Solving

## Extensions: Boundary Conditions

- Enforcement of boundary conditions with **penalty term**, leads to **unbalanced** optimization:  $\mathcal{L}_N, \mathcal{L}_B, \mathcal{L}_D$
- Strong enforcement** of boundary conditions: a priori satisfaction

$$\hat{u} = G(x) + D(x)F_{FNN}^u(x; \Theta^u)$$

- $G(x)$  is a **smooth interpolation** of boundary conditions
- $D(x)$  is a **signed distance function** (zero at boundary)
- For Neumann boundary conditions, prediction of  $u$  and derivative  $\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}$  with separate neural networks
- For complex domains: learn  $G(x), D(x)$  in a supervised manner
- Weighting terms for each loss term  $\lambda = \{\lambda_R, \lambda_B, \lambda_D\}$ 
  - Treated as hyperparameters, or learned with **minimax optimization**

$$\min_{\theta^u} \max_{\lambda} \mathcal{L}$$

- The residual at each collocation point is treated as an **equality constraint** (augmented Lagrangian)

$$\mathcal{L}_R = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N_R} \lambda_{R,i} |\mathcal{N}[u(x_i); \lambda(x_i)]|^2$$

## 10.1.1.2.1 Differential Equation Solving

### Extensions: Ansatz

- Use **convolutional neural networks** instead of fully connected neural networks
  - Irregular geometries: **binary encodings**, **signed distance functions**, **coordinate transformations**
    - **Numerical differentiation** instead of automatic differentiation necessary
    - Or **interpolation** with, e.g., splines
- Use **graph neural networks** instead of fully connected neural networks
- **Classical basis**, such as FE or IGA: Approximate coefficients with neural network
  - Construct discretization in the classical sense and use **discretized residual** as loss

$$\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{F}} = ||\mathbf{K}(\mathbf{u}^h)\mathbf{u}^h - \mathbf{F}||_2^2$$

- Forward problem: learn  $\mathbf{u}^h$ , inverse problem: learn  $\mathbf{K}$
- Also interpreted as **mapping** a neural network to a finite element space (or interpolation)
  - When coefficients are predicted using coordinates
- **Parametrization** of ansatz with  $\lambda$  to learn multiple solutions

## 10.1.1.2.1 Differential Equation Solving

### Extensions: Domain Decomposition

- **Split** complex problem in **multiple simple problems**
- hp-vPINNs decompose domain into **patches**
  - Piece-wise polynomial test functions on each patch & global solution  $u$ : **separation of integration**
- Conservative PINNs utilize **one neural network per patch**
  - **Interface constraints** enforce the conservation laws across patches, e.g., flux
  - Allows **parallelization** and **adaptivity** (shallow network for smooth, deep network for complex solutions)
- **Generalization** for any PDE presented as extended PINNs
  - **Interface constraint** formulated in terms of difference in solution and difference in residual

## 10.1.1.2.1 Differential Equation Solving

### Extensions: Acceleration Methods

- Transfer learning from base task
- Improved sampling strategies
  - Importance sampling (collocation density proportional to residual)
  - Adaptivity: collocation points are added if residual is large
- Derivative of loss should be zero at minimum: include in loss
- Improved formulations of the loss: quality of solution does not necessarily correspond to loss
  - One improvement relies on the  $H^{-1}$  norm
- Numerical differentiation instead of automatic differentiation In particular for higher order derivatives, as seen in Chapter 5
- Extreme machine learning: all layers except the last one are frozen. The last layer is linear and learned through a least-squares regression
- Adaptive activation functions
- Spiking neural networks Specialized hardware to improve efficiency of training neural networks

## 10.1.2.1.2 Inverse Problems

### Discovery of Governing Equations

- **AI-Feynman** is an automated framework for **symbolic regression**
- Performs **dimensional analysis**, **polynomial regression** and **brute force search algorithms** sequentially
- If an interpretable equation is not recovered
  - **Neural networks as interpolation** of the data
  - Test for **symmetry**, e.g., if  $f(x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots) = f(x_1 + a, x_2 + a, x_3, \dots)$  then introduce variable  $x'_1 = x_2 - x_1$
  - Test for **separability**, i.e.,  $f(x_1, x_2) = g(x_1)h(x_2)$ , to split equation in simpler parts

## 10.1.2.2 Time-Stepping Procedures

### Time-Stepping Procedures

- For simplicity, we assume a differential equation of the form

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = \mathcal{N}[u]$$

- For systems, we assume the following form

$$\frac{d\mathbf{x}(t)}{dt} = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}(t))$$

### Parareal PINNs

- Temporal domain is [split in subdomains](#).
- Simplified PDE is solved from timestep  $t_0$ . PINN [corrects](#) solution in all subdomains
- Simplified PDE is solved from timestep  $t_1$ . PINN [corrects](#) solution in all subdomains
- ...



## 10.1.2.2 Time-Stepping Procedures

### PINN: Discrete Time Model

- Relies on the [Runge-Kutta](#) method with  $q$  stages

$$u^{n+c_i} = u^n + \Delta t \sum_{j=1}^q a_{ij} \mathcal{N}[u^{n+c_j}], \quad i = 1, \dots, q$$

$$u^{n+1} = u^n + \Delta t \sum_{j=1}^q b_j \mathcal{N}[u^{n+c_j}]$$

- where  $u^{n+c_j}(x) = u(t^n + c_j \Delta x, x)$ , which is to be approximated with a neural network  
 $\hat{\mathbf{u}} = [\hat{u}^{n+c_1}(x), \dots, \hat{u}^{n+c_q}(x), \hat{u}^{n+1}(x)] = F_{NN}(x; \boldsymbol{\Theta})$
- Loss is computed by rearranging the [Runge-Kutta equations](#) using the initial condition  $u^n$

$$\hat{u}^n = \hat{u}_i^n = \hat{u}^{n+c_i} - \Delta t \sum_{j=1}^q a_{ij} \mathcal{N}[\hat{u}^{n+c_j}], \quad i = 1, \dots, q$$

$$\hat{u}^n = \hat{u}_{q+1}^n = \hat{u}^{n+1} - \Delta t \sum_{j=1}^q b_j \mathcal{N}[\hat{u}^{n+c_j}]$$

## 10.1.2.2.2 Inverse Problems

### Discovery of Governing Equations

- Learn **right hand-side** with neural network  $\hat{\mathcal{N}}[\mathbf{u}] = \mathcal{N}_{NN}(\mathbf{u}; \Theta^{\mathcal{N}})$ 
  - Minimization of residual of differential equation (PINN)
  - Use with any **time-stepping scheme**
- Interpolation of observed  $\mathbf{u}^{\mathcal{M}}$  with neural network  $\hat{\mathbf{u}}(x, t) = u_{NN}(x, t; \Theta^u)$  in a **supervised** manner
  - Assume a linear network for right hand side with inputs for right hand side

$$\hat{\mathcal{N}}[\mathbf{u}] = \mathcal{N}_{NN}(\mathbf{u}, \frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial x_i}, \frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial x_j}, \dots, \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{u}}{\partial x_i^2}, \dots; \Theta^{\mathcal{N}})$$

- $L^1$  regularization to enforce **sparsity**
- Due to linearity, the model is **interpretable**

## 10.1.2.2.2 Inverse Problems

### Discovery of Governing Equations

- **PDE-Net**: Learns right hand side with **specialized convolutional neural network**

$$\hat{\mathcal{N}}[\mathbf{u}] = \mathcal{N}_{CNN}(\mathbf{u}, \frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial x_i}, \frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial x_j}, \dots, \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{u}}{\partial x_i^2}, \dots; \Theta^{\mathcal{N}})$$

- Each convolution is designed to represent one **spatial derivative** term
- Achieved with special constraints, such that the neural network is only able to adjust order of approximation
- **Forward Euler** method

$$\mathbf{u}(t_{n+1}) \approx \mathbf{u}(t_n) + \Delta t \hat{\mathcal{N}}[\mathbf{u}]$$

- Comparison to measurements  $\mathbf{u}^{\mathcal{M}}$
- Both coefficients to derivative terms and order of approximation of derivatives are learned
- Identification of system and equation-specific approximations of the derivatives

## 10.1.2.2.2 Inverse Problems

Covered in depth in Chapter 6

### Discovery of Governing Equations

- Sparse Identification of Nonlinear Dynamic Systems (SINDy)
- **Snapshot matrices** of state  $\mathbf{X} = [\mathbf{x}(t_0), \mathbf{x}(t_1), \dots, \mathbf{x}(t_n)]^T$  and its time derivative  $\dot{\mathbf{X}} = \left[ \frac{d\mathbf{x}(t_0)}{dt}, \frac{d\mathbf{x}(t_1)}{dt}, \dots, \frac{d\mathbf{x}(t_n)}{dt} \right]^T$
- Formulation as **sparse regression** problem solved with **sequential thresholded least squares/LASSO**
$$\dot{\mathbf{X}} = \mathbf{\Theta}(\mathbf{X})\mathbf{\Xi}$$
- Expressivity can be increased by **coordinate transformations** enabling simpler dynamics
  - Similar to DMD, an **autoencoder** can be used to learn both encoding and decoding
  - Both autoencoder parameters and  $\mathbf{\Xi}$  are learned by gradient descent
    - $L^1$  regularization to enforce sparsity
    - Limited **interpretability**
  - Classical time-stepping scheme can be applied in **reduced space**

## 10.1.2.2.2 Inverse Problems

### Discovery of Governing Equations

- Consider multistep methods (similar to the [PINN discrete time model](#))

$$\sum_{m=0}^M [\alpha_m \mathbf{x}_{n-m} + \Delta t \beta_m \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_{n-m})] = 0$$

- With  $M, \alpha_0, \beta_0, \beta_1$  defining the scheme
- [Right-hand side](#) is approximated by a neural network

$$\hat{\mathbf{f}}(\mathbf{x}) = f_{NN}(\mathbf{x}; \Theta)$$

- Loss is expressed in terms of [multistep scheme](#)

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{N - M + 1} \sum_{n=M}^N |\hat{\mathbf{y}}_n|^2$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}}_n = \sum_{m=0}^M [\alpha_m \mathbf{x}_{n-m} + \Delta t \beta_m \hat{\mathbf{f}}(\mathbf{x}_{n-m})]$$

## 10.2 Simulation Enhancement

### Simulation Chain

- Pre-Processing
- Physical Modeling
- Numerical Methods
- Post-Processing

### General Procedure

- Replace a function  $y = f(x)$  in the simulation chain by a neural network

$$\hat{y} = f_{NN}(x; \Theta)$$

- The remaining simulation chain remains unchanged

## 10.2.1 Pre-processing

### Pre-Processing

- Geometry extraction
  - Segmentation, e.g., visual crack detection in images
- Mesh generation
  - Prediction of mesh density
- Data preparation
  - Denoising of measurement data
  - Low-frequency extrapolation in seismic data
- Preconditioning
  - Prediction of initial solution for classical solver
  - Transfer learning for neural networks

## 10.2.1 Physical Modeling

### Physical Modeling

- **Model Substitution**

- Neural network as surrogate (not interpretable)
- Incorporation in simulation

Covered in depth for material modeling in Chapter 7

- **Identification of Model Parameters**

- Under assumption of model structure, neural network identifies the model
- Neural network is not incorporated in simulation

- **Model Identification**

- Neural network discovers model
- Neural network is not incorporated in simulation

- Consider the example of constitutive models: Identify the stress-strain relation

$$\sigma = f(\varepsilon)$$

- Directly usable in a finite element framework



## 10.2.1 Physical Modeling

### Model Substitution

- Neural network as replacement of stress-strain relation trained in a **supervised** manner

$$\hat{\sigma} = f_{NN}(\varepsilon; \Theta)$$

- No guarantee, that **physical principles** are upheld, such as the **second law of thermodynamics**, **material objectivity/frame invariance**, **material symmetry/isotropy**, **polyconvexity**
- Specialized network architectures to guarantee physical principles by construction
  - Prediction of strain energy from **invariants**
  - **Input-convex neural networks** or **neural ordinary differential equations** for poly-convexity
- Training in a **supervised** manner with stress-strain data
- Training in an **unsupervised** manner via incorporation in finite element solver in combination with measurements of simulation using, e.g., modified constitutive relation error

## 10.2.1 Physical Modeling

### Identification of Model Parameters

- Assumption of material model, e.g., linear elasticity  $\sigma = \mathcal{C}\varepsilon$ 
  - Prediction of **model parameters**  $\mathcal{C}$  from spatially varying Young's modulus  $\mathbf{E}$

$$\hat{\mathcal{C}} = f_{NN}(\mathbf{E}; \Theta)$$

- Can for example be used for homogenization

## 10.2.1 Physical Modeling

### Model Identification

- Efficient unsupervised constitutive law identification and discovery (EUCLID)
  - Posed as regression problem (inspired by SINDy)
  - Strain energy density  $\psi$  expressed in terms of candidate functions  $Q(I)$  with invariants  $I$

$$\psi(I) = Q(I)\Theta$$

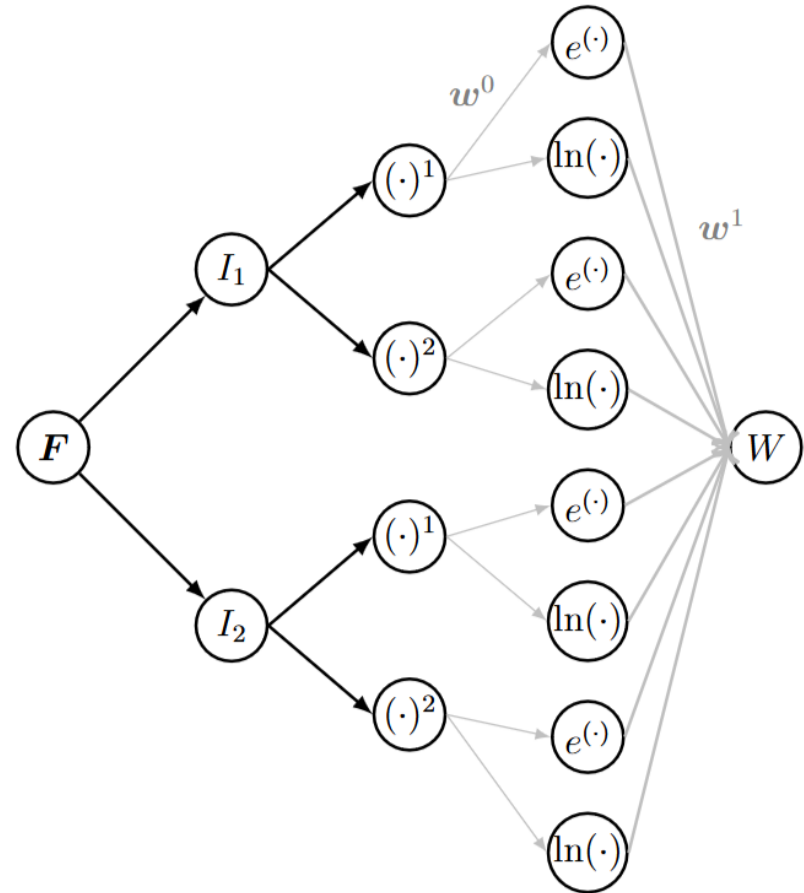
- Stresses are obtained by deriving  $\sigma = \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \varepsilon}$
- Residual is formulated in weak form of the momentum balance and solved with fixed-point iteration
- Extension with neural networks, where  $\psi(I)$  is learned by ensemble of neural networks instead of candidate functions (interpretability is lost)

## 10.2.1 Physical Modeling

### Model Identification

- Automated discovery through interpretable neural networks
- Strain energy density of example

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\psi} = & w_0^1 e^{w_0^0 I_1} + w_1^1 \ln(w_1^0 I_1) + w_2^1 e^{w_2^0 I_1^2} + w_3^1 \ln(w_3^0 I_1^2) \\ & + w_4^1 e^{w_4^0 I_2} + w_5^1 \ln(w_5^0 I_2) + w_6^1 e^{w_6^0 I_2^2} + w_7^1 \ln(w_7^0 I_2^2)\end{aligned}$$



## 10.2.3 Numerical Methods

### Numerical Methods

- **Numerical Quadrature**, find optimal positions  $\Delta \xi_g$  and weights  $\Delta w_g$

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{g=1}^{N_g} \|f(\xi_g^0 + \Delta \xi_g, w_g^0 + \Delta w_g) - K_{\text{exact}}^e\|_2^2$$

- Particle Swarm optimization to find optimal  $\Delta \xi_g, \Delta w_g$ : train neural network in a supervised manner
- **Correction** of **strain-displacement matrix** for distorted elements
- Learn **optimal test functions**
- Learn **optimal timestep** based on time-history

## 10.2.3 Numerical Methods

### Numerical Methods

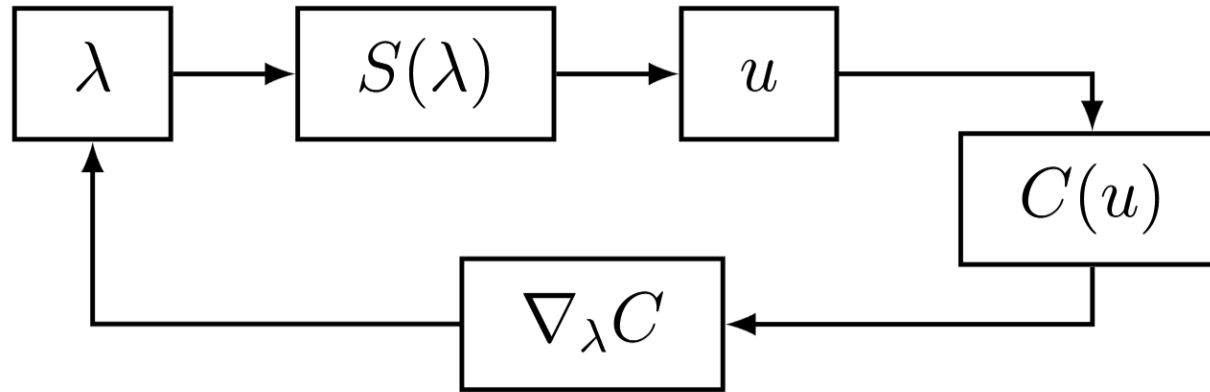
- Multiscale methods
  - Element substructuring
    - Network predicts displacements and stresses from boundary conditions in meta-element
    - Equilibrium is computed through assembly and iterative solution procedure
  - Zooming methods
    - Network predicts global system response
    - Boundary conditions are extracted and used for local analysis
- **Active Learning**
  - Neural network is trained during employment
  - Neural network is always used and an error estimator assesses the quality of the prediction
  - If prediction is bad, classical method computes solution
  - Every  $n$  bad predictions, the neural network is retrained

## 10.2.3 Numerical Methods

Covered in depth in Chapter 9

### Numerical Methods

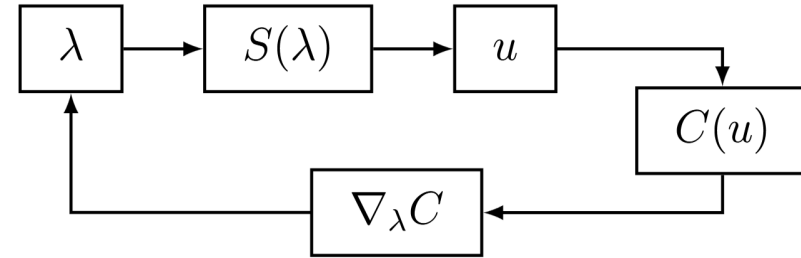
- Optimization
  - Gradient-based optimization
    - Prediction of state  $u$  from parameters  $\lambda$  with forward operator  $S(\lambda)$
    - Quality of prediction determined by cost function  $C(u)$
    - Gradient of cost function  $\nabla_{\lambda} C$  is used to update parameters  $\lambda$



## 10.2.3 Numerical Methods

### Numerical Methods

- Injecting deep learning in the optimization
  - Replacement of **forward operator**  $S$  with **surrogate model**
    - Faster forward prediction
    - Simplified and possibly **faster gradient** computation
  - Replacement of **sensitivity computation**  $\nabla_{\lambda} C$  with **surrogate model**
    - Learned in a supervised manner
    - Learn indirectly by maximizing the improvement of the cost function
      - Possibility for active learning
    - Partial replacement by solving **coarse** sensitivity problem and **refinement** with neural networks
- **Direct prediction** of update from current state (skip the entire loop by going from  $\lambda_i$  to  $\lambda_{i+1}$ )
  - Prediction of final state or intermediate states
- **Neural network as ansatz** of  $\lambda$ 
  - Neural network acts as **regularizer**/discovery of **better local optima**





## 10.2.4 Post-Processing

### Post-Processing

- **Modification** of results to ensure manufacturability
- **Feature extraction**
  - Subsequent shape optimization
- Solution enhancement: **Coarse to fine** to reduce numerical errors
  - Solve problem on coarse and fine grid, train neural network in a supervised manner
    - Forward problems
    - Inverse problems, e.g., increasing resolution of identified designs
    - Sensitivity computation, i.e., solving adjoint problem on coarse grid

## 10.2.4 Post-Processing

**Coarse to fine:** tight integration with the solver

- PDE is solved on **coarse grid**
- **Right-hand side** is approximated by NNs using gradients as input

$$\hat{\mathcal{N}}[\mathbf{u}] = \mathcal{N}_{NN}(\mathbf{u}, \frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial x_i}, \frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial x_j}, \dots, \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{u}}{\partial x_i^2}, \dots; \boldsymbol{\theta}^N)$$

- Gradients are expressed as

$$\frac{\partial^n u}{\partial x^n} \approx \sum_{i=1}^M \alpha_i^n u_i$$

- where  $\alpha_i$  are predicted by neural network (with constraints)
- Right-hand side is used **with time-stepping scheme** to predict  $u^c(t_{i+1})$  from  $u^c(t_i)$
- Loss is defined in terms of coarsened fine scale solution  $u^f$
- Training on fine scale solutions on small domains
- **Equation specific discretization** of gradients to enable stable time-stepping procedures on coarse grids

## 10.2.4 Post-Processing

### Coarse to fine

- PDE is to be solved on **coarse grid**
- At each timestep coarse solution  $\tilde{\mathbf{u}}^c$  is corrected by **corrector network**
$$\hat{\mathbf{u}}^c = C_{NN}(\tilde{\mathbf{u}}^c; \theta)$$
- Network is corrected using coarsened fine solution  $\mathbf{u}^f$
- Important detail: during training corrector network is applied after each timestep in the solver.
  - **Adjoint state method** to obtain gradients through the solver
  - This way, the network is trained the way it later will be employed
  - Outperforms purely **supervised** approach
  - Methodology is called **differentiable physics**

## 10.3 Discretizations as Neural Networks

### Finite Element Method

- Finite element neural networks

- Consider the system of equations from a finite element discretization

$$\sum_{j=1}^N K_{ij} u_j - b_i = 0, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, N$$

- Assuming **constant material** properties along an element and uniform elements: **pre-integration**

$$K_{ij} = \sum_{e=1}^M \alpha^e W_{ij}^e \text{ with } W_{ij}^e = \begin{cases} w_{ij}^e & \text{if } i, j \in e \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

- Inserting **assembly** into system of equations

$$\sum_{j=1}^N \left( \sum_{e=1}^M \alpha^e W_{ij}^e \right) u_j - b_i, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, N$$

# 10.3 Discretizations as Neural Networks

- System of equations

$$\sum_{j=1}^N \left( \sum_{e=1}^M \alpha^e W_{ij}^e \right) u_j - b_i, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, N$$

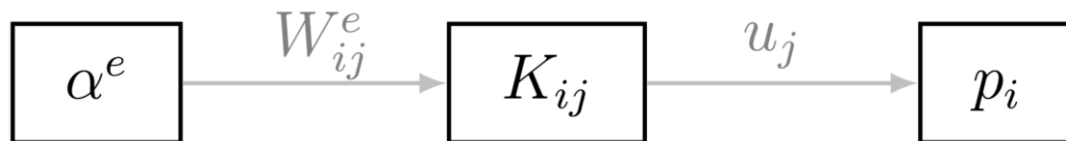
- Comparison to structure of a **FNN**  $a_i^{(l)} = \sigma \left( z_i^{(l)} \right) = \sigma \left( \sum_{j=1}^{N^{(l)}} a_j^{(l-1)} + b_i^{(l)} \right)$

$$a_i^{(2)} = \sum_{j=1}^{N^{(2)}} W_{ij}^{(1)} a_j^{(1)} = \sum_{j=1}^{N^{(2)}} W_{ij}^{(1)} \left( \sum_{k=1}^{N^{(1)}} W_{jk}^{(0)} a_k^{(0)} \right)$$

- Two layer FNN** without activation and bias
- Prediction of forces  $\hat{b}_i$  to establish a **loss**

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^N |\hat{b}_i - b_i|^2$$

- In forward setting  $u_j$  is learnable
- In inverse setting  $\alpha^e$  is learnable



# 10.3 Discretizations as Neural Networks

Covered in depth in Chapter 5

## Finite Element Method

- Hierarchical deep-learning neural networks (**HiDeNNs**)
- Shape functions are treated as neural networks constructed from basic building blocks
- Consider **one-dimensional linear shape functions**

$$N_1(x) = \frac{x - x_2^e}{x_1^e - x_2^e}$$

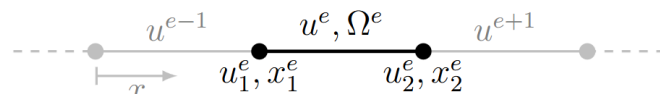
$$N_2(x) = \frac{x - x_1^e}{x_2^e - x_1^e}$$

- Elemental displacement from nodal displacements  
 $u_1^e, u_2^e$  treated as **shared neural network weights**

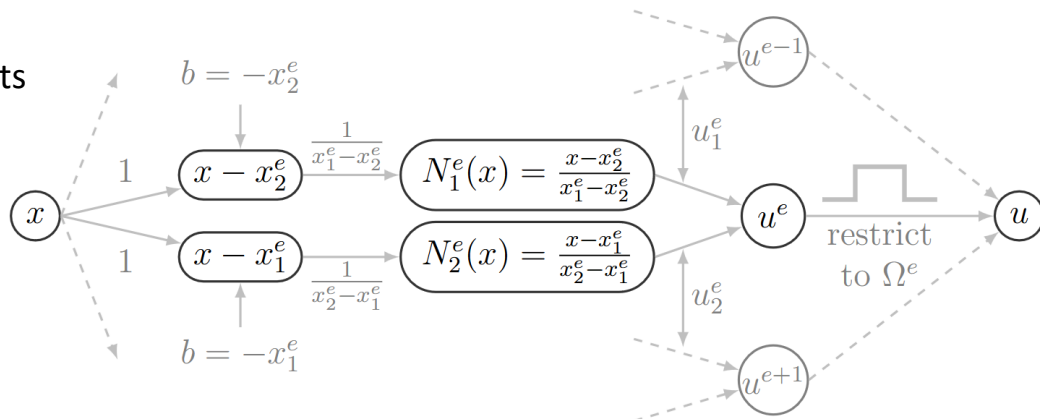
$$u^e = N_1^e(x)u_1^e + N_2^e(x)u_2^e$$

- **nodal positions**  $x_1^e, x_2^e$  and **nodal displacements**  $u_1^e, u_2^e$  are learnable weights

Moving nodal positions during solving is equivalent to *r*-refinement in the finite element method



One-dimensional finite elements



One-dimensional finite elements as NN

## 10.3 Discretizations as Neural Networks

### Finite Difference Method

- Finite difference stencils can be considered as **convolutional kernels**
- Consider 1D scalar wave equation

$$\rho \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t^2} - \rho c^2 \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} = f$$

- With a finite difference discretization

$$u_i^{n+1} = 2u_i^n - u_i^{n-1} + \left(\frac{c\Delta t}{\Delta x}\right)^2 (u_{i+1}^n - 2u_i^n + u_{i-1}^n) + \frac{\Delta t^2 f_i^n}{\rho}$$

- Can be written in terms of convolutional kernels

$$\mathbf{u}^{n+1} = 2\mathbf{u}^n - \mathbf{u}^{n-1} + \mathbf{u}^n * \mathbf{K}^u + \frac{\Delta t^2 \mathbf{f}^n}{\rho}$$

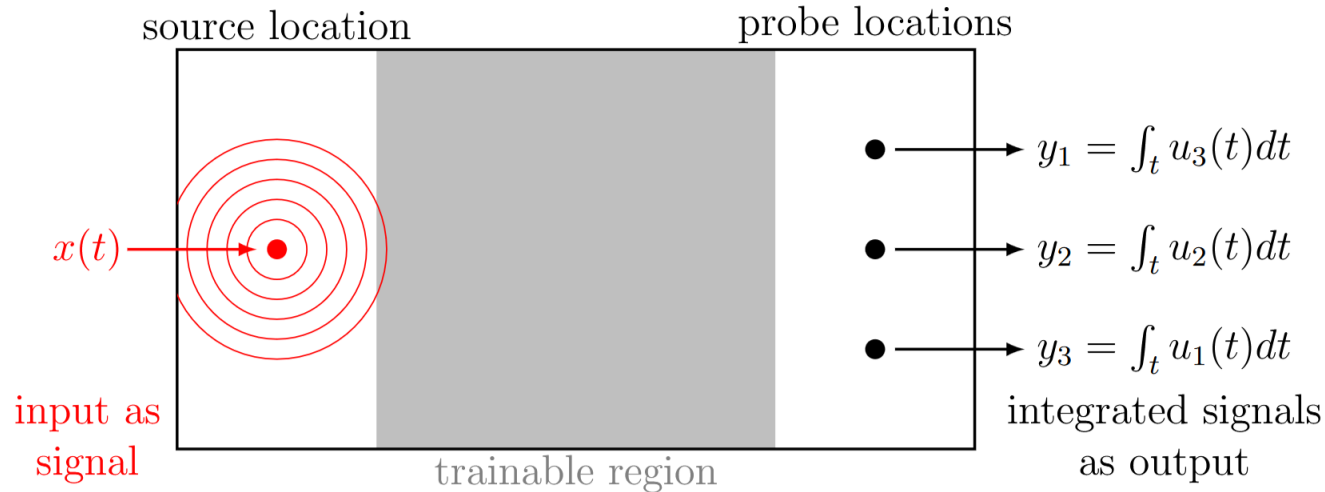
$$\mathbf{K}^u = [1, -2, 1]$$

- Iterative application through time results in a **recurrent neural network**
- Inverse problem can be posed with these RNNs by solving forward problem and learning input parameters, e.g.,  $\rho, c^2$  or  $f$

This is not truly a recurrent neural network due to the lack of a hidden state

## 10.3 Discretizations as Neural Networks

- The discretized wave equation as [analog recurrent neural networks](#)
- Input  $x$  encoded as signal  $x(t)$
- Output  $y_i$  measured  $y_i(t)$  and integrated at probing locations



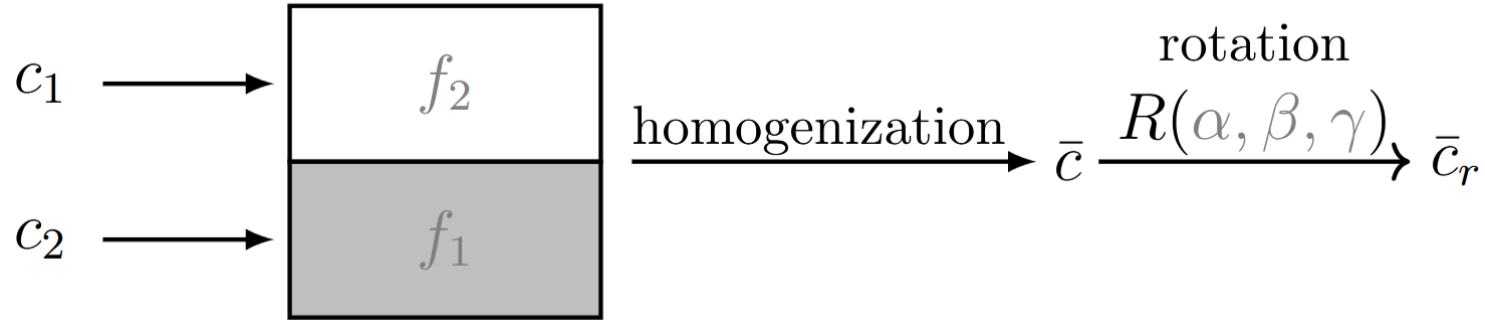
- For example for [classification of sounds](#)
- Trainable region could be [3D-printed](#) as an analog neural network for classification



# 10.3 Discretizations as Neural Networks

## Material Discretizations

- **Deep material networks** construct neural networks from material distributions
  - Basic building blocks from analytical **homogenization** techniques



- Output material tensor  $\bar{C}_r$  is obtained by two input material tensors  $C_1, C_2$ , which are **homogenized** and **rotated**
- Learnable parameters are the **volume fractions**  $f_1, f_2$  and the rotations  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$
- Application: from stress-strain data from multiple microstructure samples
  - Extraction of **material properties of the phases**, **anisotropic characteristics**, or **volume fractions**

## 10.3 Discretizations as Neural Networks

### Neural Differential Equations

- Evaluation of **one recurrent unit** in a recurrent neural network

$$\mathbf{a}_{t+1} = \mathbf{a}_t + f(\mathbf{a}; \boldsymbol{\theta})$$

- Can be viewed as an **Euler discretization** of the following ODE

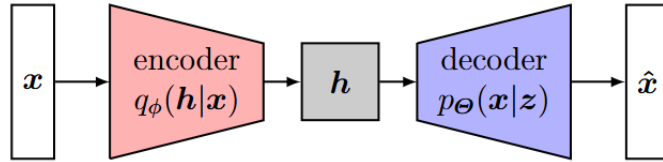
$$\frac{d\mathbf{a}(t)}{dt} = f(\mathbf{a}(t), t; \boldsymbol{\theta})$$

- Instead of using the recurrent evaluations of an RNN, the **ODE** is considered **as a network**
  - Input is the initial condition  $\mathbf{a}(0)$
  - Output is the solution  $\mathbf{a}(T)$  at time  $T$
  - Gradients are obtained through the adjoint state method in an ODE solver
- Extension to **partial differential equations**, where **convolutional neural networks** act as spatial gradients

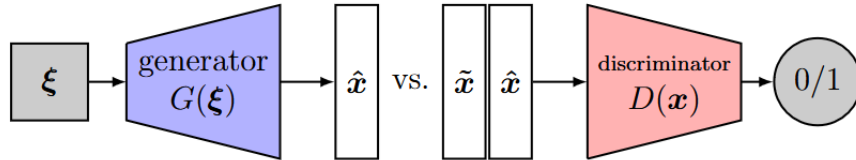
# 10.4 Generative Approaches

Covered in depth in Chapter 8

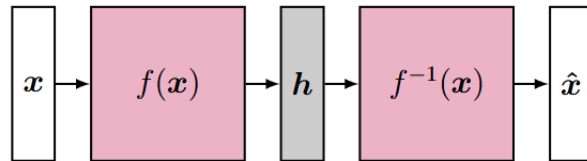
Variational autoencoder



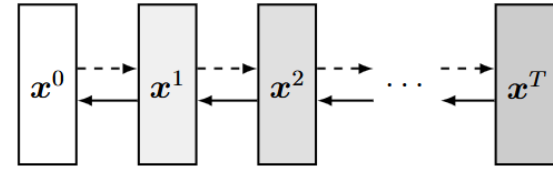
Generative adversarial network



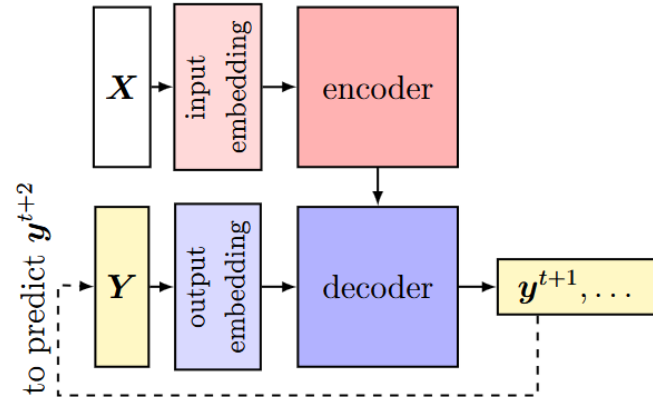
Flow-based model



Diffusion model



Transformer



# 10.4 Generative Approaches

Covered in depth in Chapter 8

## Applications

- **Data Generation**
  - Microstructures (specialized architectures relying on RNNs/transformers to go from 2D to 3D)
  - Designs
- **Optimization**
  - **Parametrization** of design space with subsequent shape optimization
  - Variational autoencoder GANs are popular, due to well-behaving gradients
  - Incorporating **vague constraints**
    - Design diversity by increasing novelty/creativity
    - Similarity to old designs, due to aesthetics or manufacturability
      - Pixel-wise  $L^1$  distance to previous designs
      - Style transfer loss
  - Inverse problems
    - Generator predicts material distribution
    - Discriminator says, if it is correct based on a forward simulation

# Generative Approaches

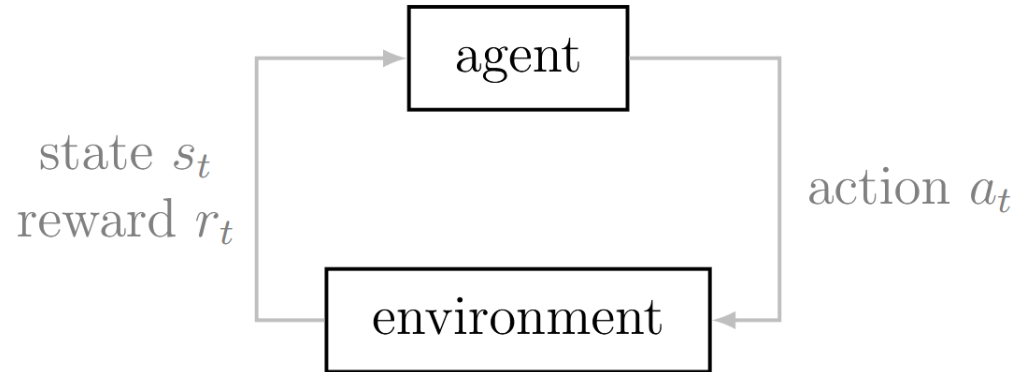
Covered in depth in Chapter 8

## Applications

- **Conditional Generation**
  - Rendered cars from sketches
  - Hierarchical shape generation (child shape considers its parent shape)
  - Topology optimization from initial fields defined by boundary conditions
  - Generation from physical properties
    - Design with specific compliance
    - Material distribution resulting in a specific seismogram
  - Super-resolution GANs for coarse simulation data (tempoGAN)
  - cycleGANs for invertible functions without need for paired data
- **Anomaly Detection**
  - Generative approach learns a distribution of structures
    - If the generative method is unable to reconstruct a structure, it must be an anomaly
    - In the case of GAN, a larger discriminator loss indicates an anomaly
    - In the case of an autoencoder, the latent space may also be considered

# 10.5 Deep Reinforcement Learning

- Learning from interaction with **environment**
  - **Agent** performs **actions**  $A_t$
  - Based on actions, environment returns **state**  $S_t$  and **reward**  $R_t$
- **Deep reinforcement learning** uses a neural network for the agent
- **Value-based methods**
  - Estimates value function
  - Take action that maximizes value function
- **Policy-based methods**
  - Maps states to actions directly
- **Actor-critic methods**
  - Combine value-based and policy-based methods
  - Actor chooses policy
  - Critic evaluates chosen action (the actor adjusts action according to the evaluations of the critic)



# Contents

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- 10.1 Simulation Substitution
  - 10.1.1 Data-Driven Modeling
  - 10.1.2 Physics-Informed Learning
- 10.2 Simulation Enhancement
  - 10.2.1 Pre-processing
  - 10.2.2 Physical Modeling
  - 10.2.3 Numerical Methods
  - 10.2.4 Post-Processing
- 10.3 Discretizations as Neural Networks
- 10.4 Generative Approaches
- 10.5 Deep Reinforcement Learning
- 11 The Future of Deep Learning in Computational Mechanics

# 10 Methodological Overview

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*Deep Learning in Computational Mechanics – an introductory course,  
Herrmann et al. 2025*



website



book

