

# An introduction to deep-learning-based methods for optimization and control of PDEs

**Francisco Periago**

Universidad Politécnica de Cartagena

<https://multisimo.com/fpe/>

<https://github.com/fperiago/>

**XXI Jacques-Louis Lions Hispano-French School on Numerical  
Simulation in Physics and Engineering**

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- **Part IV: Numerical implementation via DeepXDE.** A Python library for scientific machine learning and physics-informed learning

# Part I

## Machine Learning Basis

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The overall objective is to minimize the **generalization error**

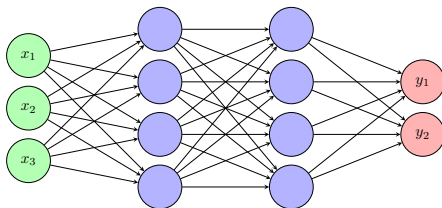
$$\mathcal{R}(f) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x} \sim \mathbb{P}} (f(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \mathbf{x}) - f^*(\mathbf{x}))^2, \quad f \in \mathcal{H}_m, \quad (2)$$

with  $\mathbb{P}$  the (unknown) distribution of  $\mathbf{x}$ .

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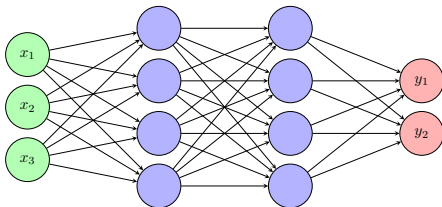
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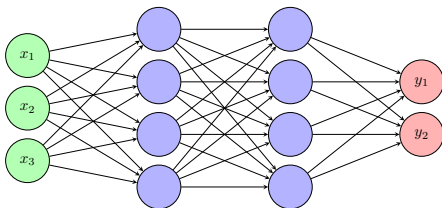
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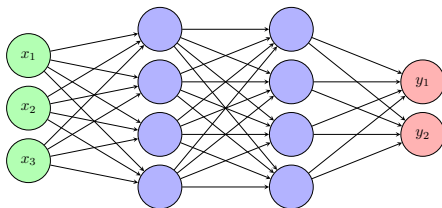
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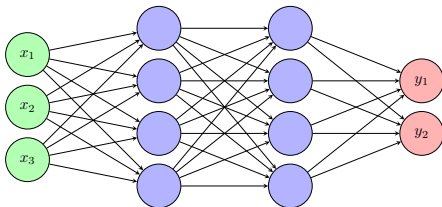
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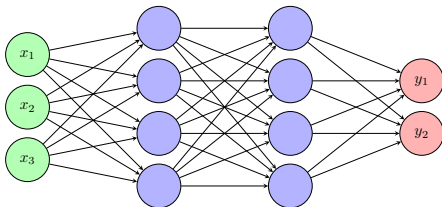
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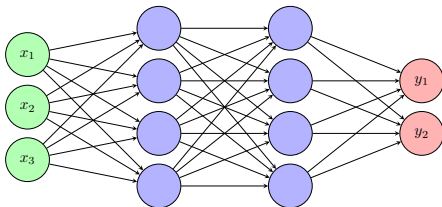
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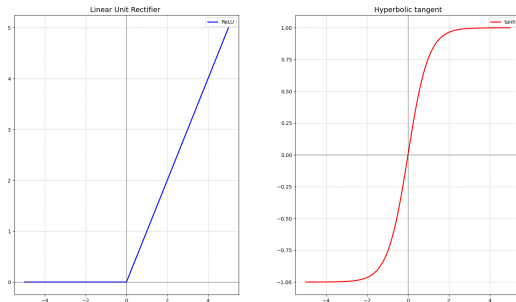
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Common choices include *rectifiers* such as ReLU:  $\sigma(s) = \max\{s, 0\}$ , and *sigmoids* such as  $\sigma(s) = \tanh(s)$ .



**Figure:** Linear Unit Rectifier (left) and hyperbolic tangent (right).

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- nonlinear Black- Scholes equation for pricing derivatives



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Machine learning is a promising tool to deal with **high-dimensional** problems

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- have very quick predictions on your models (maybe not so accurate)

## Part II

# Physics Informed Neural Networks (PINNs)

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## References



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Lu, L., Meng, X., Mao, Z. and Karniadakis, G.: *DeepXDE: A Deep Learning Library for Solving Differential Equations*, *SIAM Review*, **63** (1), 208-228, 2021.



García-Cervera, C.J.; Kessler, M.; Periago, F.: *Control of partial differential equations via physics-informed neural networks*. *J. Optim. Theory Appl.* **196** (2), 391-414, 2023.

## A toy model: null control of the wave equation

$$\begin{cases} y_{tt} - \Delta y = 0, & \text{in } Q_T \\ y(x, 0) = y^0(x), & \text{in } \Omega \\ y_t(x, 0) = y^1(x) & \text{in } \Omega \\ y(x, t) = 0, & \text{on } \Gamma_D \times (0, T) \\ y(x, t) = u(x, t) & \text{on } \Gamma_C \times (0, T) \end{cases}$$

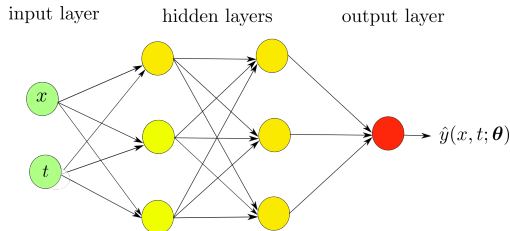
**Goal:** Compute  $u(x, t)$  such that

$$y(x, T) = y_t(x, T) = 0 \quad x \in \Omega.$$

# Numerical approximation using PINNs

## Step 1: Neural network

A surrogate  $\hat{y}(x, t; \theta)$  of the state variable  $y(x, t)$  is constructed as



$$\left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \text{input layer:} & \mathcal{N}^0(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x} = (x, t) \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1} \\ \text{hidden layers:} & \mathcal{N}^\ell(\mathbf{x}) = \sigma(\mathbf{W}^\ell \mathcal{N}^{\ell-1}(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{b}^\ell) \in \mathbb{R}^{N_\ell}, \quad \ell = 1, \dots, L-1 \\ \text{output layer:} & \hat{y}(\mathbf{x}; \theta) = \mathcal{N}^L(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{W}^L \mathcal{N}^{L-1}(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{b}^L \in \mathbb{R} \end{array} \right.$$

- $\mathcal{N}^\ell : \mathbb{R}^{d_{in}} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{d_{out}}$  is the  $\ell$  layer with  $N_\ell$  neurons,
- $\mathbf{W}^\ell \in \mathbb{R}^{N_\ell \times N_{\ell-1}}$  and  $\mathbf{b}^\ell \in \mathbb{R}^{N_\ell}$  are, respectively, the weights and biases so that  $\theta = \{\mathbf{W}^\ell, \mathbf{b}^\ell\}_{1 \leq \ell \leq L}$  are the parameters of the neural network, and
- $\sigma$  is an activation function, e.g.  $\sigma(s) = \tanh(s)$

# Numerical approximation using PINNs

## Step 2: Training dataset

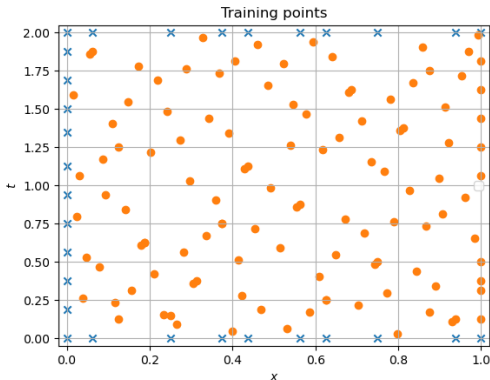


Figure: Illustration of a training dataset (based on Sobol points) in the domain  $Q_2 = (0, 1) \times (0, 2)$ . Interior points are marked with circles and boundary points in blue color.  $\mathbf{x}_j = (x_j, t_j)$  are the features.

# Numerical approximation using PINNs

## Step 3: Loss function. Labels equal zero

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{int}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \mathcal{T}_{\text{int}}) = \sum_{j=1}^{N_{\text{int}}} w_{j,\text{int}} |\hat{y}_{tt}(\mathbf{x}_j; \boldsymbol{\theta}) - \Delta \hat{y}(\mathbf{x}_j; \boldsymbol{\theta})|^2, \quad \mathbf{x}_j \in \mathcal{T}_{\text{int}}$$

$$\mathcal{L}_{\Gamma_D}(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \mathcal{T}_{\Gamma_D}) = \sum_{j=1}^{N_b} w_{j,b} |\hat{y}(\mathbf{x}_j; \boldsymbol{\theta})|^2, \quad \mathbf{x}_j \in \mathcal{T}_{\Gamma_D}$$

$$\mathcal{L}_{t=0}^{\text{pos}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \mathcal{T}_{t=0}) = \sum_{j=1}^{N_0} w_{j,0} |\hat{y}(\mathbf{x}_j; \boldsymbol{\theta}) - y^0(\mathbf{x}_j)|^2, \quad \mathbf{x}_j \in \mathcal{T}_{t=0}$$

$$\mathcal{L}_{t=0}^{\text{vel}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \mathcal{T}_{t=0}) = \sum_{j=1}^{N_0} w_{j,0} |\hat{y}_t(\mathbf{x}_j; \boldsymbol{\theta}) - y^1(\mathbf{x}_j)|^2, \quad \mathbf{x}_j \in \mathcal{T}_{t=0}$$

$$\mathcal{L}_{t=T}^{\text{pos}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \mathcal{T}_{t=T}) = \sum_{j=1}^{N_T} w_{j,T} |\hat{y}(\mathbf{x}_j; \boldsymbol{\theta})|^2, \quad \mathbf{x}_j \in \mathcal{T}_{t=T}$$

$$\mathcal{L}_{t=T}^{\text{vel}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \mathcal{T}_{t=T}) = \sum_{j=1}^{N_T} w_{j,T} |\hat{y}_t(\mathbf{x}_j; \boldsymbol{\theta})|^2, \quad \mathbf{x}_j \in \mathcal{T}_{t=T},$$

where  $w_{j,\text{int}}$ ,  $w_{j,b}$ ,  $w_{j,0}$  and  $w_{j,T}$  are the weights of suitable quadrature rules.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \mathcal{T}) &= \lambda_1 \mathcal{L}_{\text{int}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \mathcal{T}_{\text{int}}) \\ &\quad + \lambda_2 \mathcal{L}_{\Gamma_D}(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \mathcal{T}_{\Gamma_D}) \\ &\quad + \lambda_3 \mathcal{L}_{t=0}^{\text{pos}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \mathcal{T}_{t=0}) + \lambda_4 \mathcal{L}_{t=0}^{\text{vel}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \mathcal{T}_{t=0}) \\ &\quad + \lambda_5 \mathcal{L}_{t=T}^{\text{pos}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \mathcal{T}_{t=T}) + \lambda_6 \mathcal{L}_{t=T}^{\text{vel}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \mathcal{T}_{t=T}). \end{aligned}$$



# Numerical approximation using PINNs

## Step 4: Training process

$$\theta^* = \arg \min_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(\theta; \mathcal{T}).$$

The approximation  $\hat{u}(t; \theta^*)$  of the control  $u(x, t)$  is

$$\hat{u}(x, t; \theta^*) = \hat{y}(x, t; \theta^*), \quad x \in \Gamma_C, \quad 0 \leq t \leq T.$$

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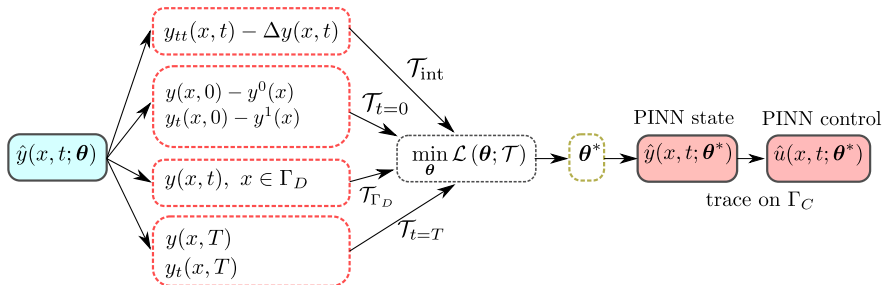
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To sum up:



Why MLP is a suitable prediction model ?

# Approximation theory and convergence analysis

## Why MLP is a suitable prediction model ?

Let us consider the hypothesis space of single-layer neural nets

$$\mathcal{H}_m := \left\{ y_m(\mathbf{x}) := \sum_{i=1}^m a_i \sigma(\boldsymbol{\omega}_i \mathbf{x} + b_i) : \mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\omega}_i \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}, a_i, b_i \in \mathbb{R} \right\}.$$

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### Theorem (Pinkus Universal Approximation Theorem )

*Let  $f \in C^k(\mathbb{R}^{d+1})$ . Assume that the activation function  $\sigma \in C^k(\mathbb{R})$  is not a polynomial. Then, for any compact set  $K \subset \mathbb{R}^{d+1}$  and any  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exists  $m \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $y_m \in \mathcal{H}_m$  such that*

$$\max_{\mathbf{x} \in K} |D^\ell f(\mathbf{x}) - D^\ell y_m(\mathbf{x})| \leq \varepsilon$$

*for all multiindex  $\ell \leq k$ . Moreover, each  $a_i = a_i(f)$  is a continuous linear functional defined on  $K$ .*



**Pinkus, A.:** *Approximation theory of the MLP model in neural networks*  
**Acta numer. 8, 143-195, 1999.**

# Approximation theory and convergence analysis

Why is so crucial that the activation function not to be a polynomial?

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If  $\sigma$  is a polynomial of degree  $m$ , then  $\sigma(\omega x + b)$  is a polynomial of total degree at most  $m$ . Thus,  $\mathcal{H}_m$  is the space of all polynomials of degree  $m$ , which is not dense in  $C(K)$ ,  $K \subset \mathbb{R}$  compact.

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Conversely, let  $\sigma \in C^\infty(\mathbb{R})$ . Consider the space

$$\mathcal{N}(\sigma; \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R}) = \text{span} \{ \sigma(wx + b), \quad w, b \in \mathbb{R} \}.$$



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A classical result in Calculus states that if  $\sigma \in C^\infty$  on any open interval and is not a polynomial thereon, then there exists a point  $b^*$  in that interval such that  $\sigma^{(k)}(b^*) \neq 0$  for all  $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ .

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$$\frac{\sigma((w+h)x + b^*) - \sigma(wx + b^*)}{h} \in \mathcal{N}(\sigma; \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R})$$

and so

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Since  $\sigma^{(k)}(b^*) \neq 0$  for all  $k$ , then  $\overline{\mathcal{N}(\sigma; \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R})}$  contains all polynomials. By Weierstrass theorem,  $\mathcal{N}(\sigma; \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R})$  is dense in  $C(K)$  for any compact set  $K \subset \mathbb{R}$ .

# Approximation theory and convergence analysis

Estimates on generalization error for the null control of the wave equation

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### Training error

$$\mathcal{E}_{\text{train}} := \mathcal{E}_{\text{train, int}} + \mathcal{E}_{\text{train, boundary}} + \mathcal{E}_{\text{train, initialpos}} + \mathcal{E}_{\text{train, initialvel}} \\ + \mathcal{E}_{\text{train, finalpos}} + \mathcal{E}_{\text{train, finalvel}},$$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \mathcal{E}_{\text{train, int}} &= (\mathcal{L}_{\text{int}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}^*; \mathcal{T}_{\text{int}}))^{1/2} \\ \mathcal{E}_{\text{train, boundary}} &= (\mathcal{L}_{\Gamma_D}(\boldsymbol{\theta}^*; \mathcal{T}_{\Gamma_D}))^{1/2} \\ \mathcal{E}_{\text{train, initialpos}} &= (\mathcal{L}_{t=0}^{\text{pos}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}^*; \mathcal{T}_{t=0}))^{1/2} \\ \mathcal{E}_{\text{train, initialvel}} &= (\mathcal{L}_{t=0}^{\text{vel}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}^*; \mathcal{T}_{t=0}))^{1/2} \\ \mathcal{E}_{\text{train, finalpos}} &= (\mathcal{L}_{t=T}^{\text{pos}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}^*; \mathcal{T}_{t=T}))^{1/2} \\ \mathcal{E}_{\text{train, finalvel}} &= (\mathcal{L}_{t=T}^{\text{vel}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}^*; \mathcal{T}_{t=T}))^{1/2}, \end{array} \right.$$

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### Generalization error for control and state

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \mathcal{E}_{\text{gener}}(u) := \|u - \hat{u}\|_{L^2(\Gamma_C; (0, T))} \\ \mathcal{E}_{\text{gener}}(y) := \|y - \hat{y}\|_{C(0, T; L^2(\Omega)) \cap C^1(0, T; H^{-1}(\Omega))} \end{array} \right.$$

## Theorem (Estimates on generalization error)

Assume that both  $y, \hat{y} \in C^2(\overline{Q_T})$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{E}_{gener}(u) \leq & C \left( \mathcal{E}_{train, int} + C_{q_{int}}^{1/2} N_{int}^{-\alpha_{int}/2} \right. \\ & + \mathcal{E}_{train, boundary} + C_{q_b}^{1/2} N_b^{-\alpha_b/2} \\ & + \mathcal{E}_{train, initialpos} + C_{q_{ip}}^{1/2} N_0^{-\alpha_{ip}/2} \\ & + \mathcal{E}_{train, initialvel} + C_{q_{iv}}^{1/2} N_0^{-\alpha_{iv}/2} \\ & + \mathcal{E}_{train, finalpos} + C_{q_{fp}}^{1/2} N_T^{-\alpha_{fp}/2} \\ & \left. + \mathcal{E}_{train, finalvel} + C_{q_{fv}}^{1/2} N_T^{-\alpha_{fv}/2} \right),\end{aligned}$$

where  $C = C(\Omega, T)$ , and consequently  $C = C(d)$  also depends on the spatial dimension  $d$ . A similar estimate holds for the state variable.

Moreover, training errors converge to zero as the size of the NN and the number of training points go to infinity.



García-Cervera, C., Kessler, M., Periago, F.: Control of Partial Differential Equations via Physics-Informed Neural Networks **J. Optim. Th. Appl.** **196**, 391–414, 2023.



## Recommendations

- **Data normalization.** It is important to ensure that the target output variables vary within a reasonable range. One way to achieve this is through non-dimensionalization of the PDE.

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$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \hat{\lambda}_{ic} = \frac{\|\nabla_{\theta}\mathcal{L}_{ic}(\theta)\| + \|\nabla_{\theta}\mathcal{L}_{bc}(\theta)\| + \|\nabla_{\theta}\mathcal{L}_r(\theta)\|}{\|\nabla_{\theta}\mathcal{L}_{ic}(\theta)\|} \\ \hat{\lambda}_{bc} = \frac{\|\nabla_{\theta}\mathcal{L}_{ic}(\theta)\| + \|\nabla_{\theta}\mathcal{L}_{bc}(\theta)\| + \|\nabla_{\theta}\mathcal{L}_r(\theta)\|}{\|\nabla_{\theta}\mathcal{L}_{bc}(\theta)\|} \\ \hat{\lambda}_r = \frac{\|\nabla_{\theta}\mathcal{L}_{ic}(\theta)\| + \|\nabla_{\theta}\mathcal{L}_{bc}(\theta)\| + \|\nabla_{\theta}\mathcal{L}_r(\theta)\|}{\|\nabla_{\theta}\mathcal{L}_r(\theta)\|} \end{array} \right. \quad (4)$$

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2 Update the weights  $\lambda = (\lambda_{ic}, \lambda_{bc}, \lambda_r)$  by using a moving average

$$\lambda_{\text{new}} = \alpha\lambda_{\text{old}} + (1 - \alpha)\hat{\lambda}_{\text{new}}$$

# Recommendations

- **Random weight factorization** may improve the performance of PINNs:

$$w^{(k,\ell)} = s^{(k,\ell)} v^{(k,\ell)},$$

with  $s^{(k,\ell)}$  is a trainable scale factor assigned to each individual neuron.



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S. Wang, et al.: *Random weight factorization improves the training of continuous neural representations*. [arXiv:2210.01274, 2022](#).

- **Optimization algorithm.** The Adaptive with Moment (Adam) algorithm is the most widely used to minimise the loss function. To speed up convergence near a local minimum, it is convenient to combine Adam (say, first 20000 iterations) with a quasi-Newton method like L-BFGS.

## Shortcomings

- PINN has difficulty in approximating functions that have **steep gradients**. A Residual-based Adaptive Refinement algorithm has been proposed which add more residual points in the locations where the PDE residual is large.



Lu, L., Meng, X., Mao, Z. and Karniadakis, G.: *DeepXDE: A Deep Learning Library for Solving Differential Equations*, **SIAM Review**, 63 (1), 208-228, 2021.



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- **MLPs are biased towards learning low frequencies functions.** This can be mitigated by using a random Fourier feature embedding like

$$\gamma(x) = (\cos(Bx), \sin(Bx)),$$


where  $B_{ij}$  are sampled from Gaussians. This maps input coordinates into high frequency signals before passing through the network.



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- **PINNs may violate temporal causality** when solving time-dependent PDEs. We should partition the temporal domain into  $M$  equal sequential segments and introduce  $\mathcal{L}_r^i(\theta)$  to denote the PDE residual loss within the  $i$ -th segment. The PDE residual becomes  $\mathcal{L}_r(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^M \lambda_i \mathcal{L}_r^i(\theta)$ .

 S Wang, S Sankaran, H Wang, P Perdikaris: *An expert's guide to training physics-informed neural networks*. **ArXiv:2308.08468**, 2023.

## Part III

# Deep Operator Network (DeepONet)

# Main objectives and references

## Goals

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- Given two function spaces  $X$  and  $Y$ , and an operator

$$\mathcal{G} : X \rightarrow Y$$

the main goal is to learn (approximate) the operator  $\mathcal{G}$  from a dataset.

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## References



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García-Cervera, C.J.; Kessler, M.; Pedregal, P.; Periago, F.: *Universal Approximation of Set-Valued Maps and Application to Control*. **Submitted**, 2025.

## Problem setup

For the sake of clarity, we focus on the control problem

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{ll} y_{tt} - y_{xx} = 0, & \text{in } (0, 1) \times (0, 2) \\ y(x, 0) = y^0(x), & \text{on } (0, 1) \\ y_t(x, 0) = y^1(x) & \text{on } (0, 1) \\ y(0, t) = 0, & \text{on } (0, 2) \\ y(1, t) = u(t) & \text{on } (0, 2) \\ y(x, 2) = y_t(x, 2) = 0, & \text{on } (0, 1). \end{array} \right.$$



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**Goal:** approximate the controllability mapping

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{G} : \quad L^2(0, 1) \times H^{-1}(0, 1) &\rightarrow L^2(0, 2) \\ (y^0, y^1) &\mapsto \mathcal{G}(y^0, y^1) := u \end{aligned}$$

where  $u$  is the **unique** control of minimal  $L^2$ -norm.

## Problem setup

For the sake of clarity, we focus on the control problem

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{ll} y_{tt} - y_{xx} = 0, & \text{in } (0, 1) \times (0, 2) \\ y(x, 0) = y^0(x), & \text{on } (0, 1) \\ y_t(x, 0) = y^1(x) & \text{on } (0, 1) \\ y(0, t) = 0, & \text{on } (0, 2) \\ y(1, t) = u(t) & \text{on } (0, 2) \\ y(x, 2) = y_t(x, 2) = 0, & \text{on } (0, 1). \end{array} \right.$$

**Goal:** approximate the controllability mapping

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{G} : \quad L^2(0, 1) \times H^{-1}(0, 1) &\rightarrow L^2(0, 2) \\ (y^0, y^1) &\mapsto \mathcal{G}(y^0, y^1) := u \end{aligned}$$

where  $u$  is the **unique** control of minimal  $L^2$ -norm.

The operator  $\mathcal{G}$  is well-defined (uniqueness of the control), linear and continuous. Continuity is a consequence of the observability inequality

$$\|u\|_{L^2(0,2)} \leq C \left( \|y^0\|_{L^2(0,1)} + \|y^1\|_{H^{-1}(0,1)} \right)$$

Thus,  $\mathcal{G}$  is Lipschitz continuous.

# Machine Learning setup

## ■ Dataset

We fix a set of **sensor points**  $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m\} \subset [0, 1]$ . The information of each selected continuous initial datum  $(y^0, y^1)$  is encoded in the vector

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$$\{(y_\ell^{\text{initial}}; t_\ell), \quad 1 \leq \ell \leq N\} \quad (5)$$

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## ■ Hypothesis space: the neural network

We will use the so-called **DeepONet**, which takes the form

$$\mathcal{N}(\theta; (y^{\text{initial}}(x_j); t)) := \sum_{k=1}^p \sum_{i=1}^n c_i^k \sigma \left( \sum_{j=1}^m \xi_{ij}^k y^{\text{initial}}(x_j) + \theta_i^k \right) \cdot \sigma(w_k \cdot t + \eta_k) \quad (7)$$

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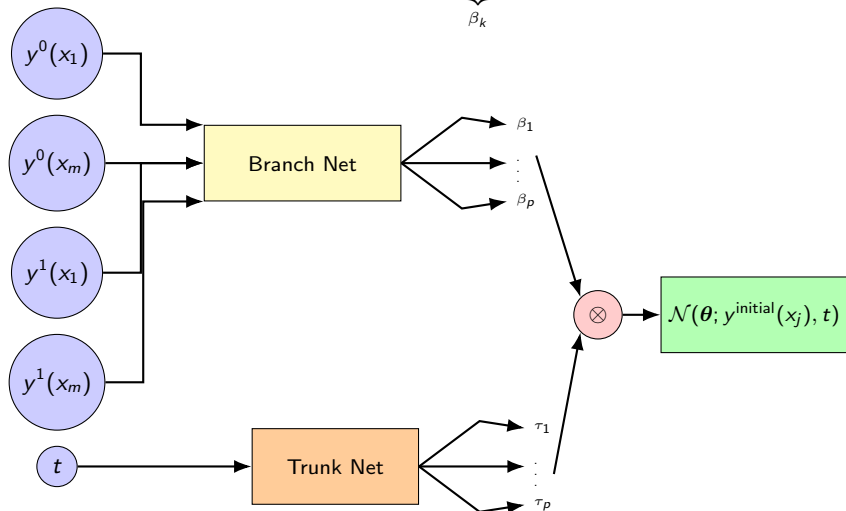
## ■ Loss function: Mean Squared Error (MSE)

$$\text{MSE}(\theta) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{\ell=1}^N |\mathcal{N}(\theta; (y_\ell^{\text{initial}}; t_\ell)) - u_\ell|^2 \quad (8)$$



# DeepONet's architecture

$$\mathcal{N}(\theta; (y^{\text{initial}}(x_j); t)) := \underbrace{\sum_{k=1}^p \sum_{i=1}^n c_i^k \sigma \left( \sum_{j=1}^m \xi_{ij}^k y^{\text{initial}}(x_j) + \theta_i^k \right)}_{\beta_k} \cdot \underbrace{\sigma(w_k \cdot t + \eta_k)}_{\tau_k}$$



## Where does this architecture come from ?

### Theorem (Universal Approximation Theorem for Functions)

*Suppose that  $K \in \mathbb{R}^d$  is compact,  $U \subset C(K)$  is compact, and  $\sigma \in$  is not a polynomial. Then, for any  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exist a positive integer  $n$ , real numbers  $\theta_i, \omega_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , independent of  $f \in U$ , and constants  $c_i = c_i(f)$  depending on  $f$ , such that*

$$|f(x) - \sum_{i=1}^n c_i \sigma(\omega_i \cdot x + \theta_i)| < \varepsilon$$

*holds for all  $x \in K$  and  $f \in U$ . Moreover, each  $c_i(f)$  is a continuous linear functional defined on  $U$ .*

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### Theorem (Universal Approximation Theorem for Functionals)

Suppose that  $\sigma$  is not a polynomial,  $X$  is a Banach space,  $K \subset X$  is a compact set,  $V$  is a compact set in  $C(K)$ , and  $f : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a continuous functional. Then for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there are a positive integer  $n, m$  sensor points  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m \in K$ , and real constants  $c_i, \theta_i, \xi_{ij}, 1 \leq i \leq n, 1 \leq j \leq m$ , such that

$$|f(y) - \sum_{i=1}^n c_i \sigma \left( \sum_{j=1}^m \xi_{ij} y(x_j) + \theta_i \right)| < \varepsilon, \quad \text{for all } u \in V.$$

## Where does this architecture come from ?

### Theorem (Universal Approximation Theorem for Operators)

Suppose that  $\sigma$  is not a polynomial,  $X$  is a Banach space,  $K_1 \subset X$ ,  $K_2 \subset \mathbb{R}^d$  are compact sets,  $V$  is a compact set in  $C(K_1)$ , and  $\mathcal{G} : V \rightarrow C(K_2)$  is a continuous operator. Then for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there are a positive integers  $n, p, m$  sensor points  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m \in K_1$ , and real constants  $c_i^k, \theta_i^k, \xi_{ij}^k, \eta_k$  such that

$$|\mathcal{G}(y)(t) - \sum_{k=1}^p \sum_{i=1}^n c_i^k \sigma \left( \sum_{j=1}^m \xi_{ij}^k y(x_j) + \theta_i^k \right) \sigma(\omega_k \cdot t + \zeta_k)| < \varepsilon, \quad \forall y \in V, t \in K_2$$



Chen, T., Chen, H.: Universal approximation to nonlinear operators by neural networks with arbitrary activation functions and its application to dynamical systems. **IEEE Transactions on Neural Networks** 6(4), 911-917, 1995.

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### Definition (Data for DeepONet approximation)

Assume that  $X \hookrightarrow L^2(D)$ , and  $Y \hookrightarrow L^2(U)$ , for some Banach spaces  $X, Y$ . The pair  $(\mu, \mathcal{G})$  is said to be **data for DeepONet approximation** provided  $\mu \in \mathcal{P}_2(X)$  is Borel measurable with finite second moments, there exists a Borel set  $A \subset X$ , composed of continuous functions,  $\mu(A) = 1$ , and  $\mathcal{G} : X \rightarrow Y$  is a Borel measurable mapping with  $\|\mathcal{G}\|_{L^2(\mu)} < \infty$ .

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We choose  $\mu \in \mathcal{P}(C(0, 1))$  a probability measure whose probability law is given by a Karhunen-Loève expansion

$$\mu \sim \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \sqrt{\lambda_j} \xi_j(\omega) \varphi_j(x) \quad (9)$$

We take  $\xi_j \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$  i.i.d. standard Gaussian variables, and  $(\lambda_j, \varphi_j)$  the eigenpairs associated with squared exponential covariance function

$$C(x, x') = \sigma^2 \exp\left(-\frac{(x - x')^2}{2\ell^2}\right). \quad (10)$$



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Thus, we truncate (9) and sample the Gaussian random variables. Remember that by Mercer's theorem  $\{\varphi_j\}$  is an orthonormal basis of  $L^2(0, 1)$ .

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Putting all together, the **training dataset** is

$$\{(y_{jk}^{\text{initial}}; u_j(t)), 1 \leq j \leq N, 1 \leq k \leq 2mm\},$$

evaluated at a finite selection of times  $t$ . Precisely,

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_{1,1}^{\text{initial}} & \cdots & y_{1,2m}^{\text{initial}} & u_1(t_1) \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\ y_{1,1}^{\text{initial}} & \cdots & y_{1,2m}^{\text{initial}} & u_1(t_\ell) \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\ y_{N,1}^{\text{initial}} & \cdots & y_{N,2m}^{\text{initial}} & u_N(t_1) \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\ y_{N,1}^{\text{initial}} & \cdots & y_{N,2m}^{\text{initial}} & u_N(t_\ell) \end{bmatrix} \quad (11)$$

# Error analysis and the curse of dimensionality

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- **Approximation error:** This is the distance between the Hypothesis space and the operator  $\mathcal{G}$  to be approximated, i.e., if  $\mathcal{F}$  is a fixed space of DeepONets, then

$$\mathcal{N}_{\mathcal{F}} = \arg \min_{\mathcal{N} \in \mathcal{F}} \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{N}) := \int_{L^2(D)} \int_U |\mathcal{G}(y)(t) - \mathcal{N}_{\mathcal{F}}(y)(t)|^2 dt d\mu(y),$$

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- **Generalization (or estimation) error:** We approximate  $\mathcal{N}_{\mathcal{F}}$  by using a specific (training) dataset  $\mathcal{T}$ , and a **empirical loss**. So, we get

$$\mathcal{N}_{\mathcal{T}} = \arg \min_{\mathcal{N} \in \mathcal{F}} \mathcal{L}_M(\mathcal{N}) := \frac{|U|}{M} \sum_{j=1}^M |\mathcal{G}(y_j)(t_j) - \mathcal{N}(y_j)(t_j)|^2$$

Thus,  $\mathcal{E}_{\text{gener}} := (\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{N}_{\mathcal{F}}) - \mathcal{L}_M(\mathcal{N}_{\mathcal{T}}))^{1/2}$ .

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- **Optimization error:** The empirical loss is highly nonlinear, non-convex so that we compute a local minimum  $\mathcal{N}_M$  of  $\mathcal{L}_M$ . Optimization error is then

$$\mathcal{E}_{\text{optim}} := \|\mathcal{N}_M - \mathcal{N}_{\mathcal{T}}\|^{1/2}.$$

# Error analysis and the curse of dimensionality

$$\mathcal{E}_{\text{total}} = \mathcal{E}_{\text{approx}} + \mathcal{E}_{\text{gener}} + \mathcal{E}_{\text{optim}}$$

## Definition (Curse of dimensionality)

For a given  $\varepsilon > 0$ , let  $\mathcal{N}_\varepsilon$  be a DeepONet such that  $\mathcal{E}_{\text{approx}} < \varepsilon$ , and

$$\text{size}(\mathcal{N}_\varepsilon) \sim \mathcal{O}\left(\varepsilon^{-\vartheta_\varepsilon}\right) \quad \text{for some } \vartheta_\varepsilon \geq 0.$$

Our DeepONet approximation, with underlying measure  $\mu$ , is said to *incur a curse of dimensionality* if  $\lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \vartheta_\varepsilon = +\infty$  and *breaks the curse of dimensionality* if  $\lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \vartheta_\varepsilon = \bar{\vartheta} < +\infty$ .

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<sup>1</sup>Size of a neural network is understood as the number of non-vanishing parameters of the net.

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Yarotsky proved that the approximation of a general Lipschitz function to accuracy  $\varepsilon$  requires a ReLU network of size<sup>1</sup>  $\varepsilon^{-m(\varepsilon)/2}$ , with  $m(\varepsilon) \rightarrow \infty$  as  $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$ , and hence suffers from the curse of dimensionality.



**Yarotsky, D.:** *Optimal approximation of continuous functions by very deep relu networks.* **Conference on Learning Theory. PMLR, 639-649, 2018.**

In our setting,  $m$  is the number of sensors for the encoding operator  $u \mapsto \mathcal{E}(u) = (u(x_1), \dots, u(x_m))$ .

---

<sup>1</sup>Size of a neural network is understood as the number of non-vanishing parameters of the net.

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- bounded linear operators  $\mathcal{G} : L^2(D) \rightarrow L^2(U)$

# Error analysis and the curse of dimensionality

As for **generalization error** under suitable boundedness and Lipschitz continuity assumptions one gets

$$\mathcal{E}_{\text{gener}} \leq \frac{C}{\sqrt{N}} \left( 1 + Cd_{\theta} \log \left( CB\sqrt{N} \right) \right)^{2\kappa + \frac{1}{2}}$$

where  $N$  is the number of sampling functions,  $d_{\theta}$  is the number of parameters of the DeepONet, and  $C$ ,  $B$  and  $\kappa$  are suitable constants.



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## Part IV

# Numerical Implementation via DeepXDE

## PINN. Experiment 1: the Laplace-Poisson equation

$$\begin{cases} -\Delta u(x) = -2d, & x \in D := (0,1)^d \\ u(x) = \sum_{k=1}^d x_k^2, & x \in \partial D \end{cases}$$

This problem has the exact solution

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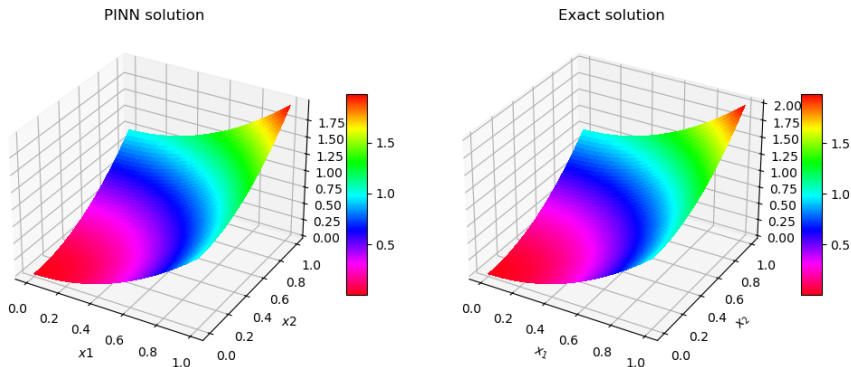
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**Table:**  $L^2$ - relative error  $\frac{\|u_{\text{exact}} - u_{\text{PINN}}\|_{L^2(D)}}{\|u_{\text{exact}}\|_{L^2(D)}}$  for different values of the spatial dimension  $d$  and number of training points  $N = N_{\text{interior}} + N_{\text{boundary}}$

	$N = 100 + 40$	$N = 1000 + 400$	$N = 10000 + 4000$
$d = 2$	$9 \times 10^{-4}$	$1.2 \times 10^{-4}$	$7.5 \times 10^{-5}$
$d = 3$	$1.2 \times 10^{-3}$	$1.4 \times 10^{-4}$	$1.3 \times 10^{-3}$
$d = 5$	$2.5 \times 10^{-2}$	$7.5 \times 10^{-4}$	$1.9 \times 10^{-4}$
$d = 10$	$2.2 \times 10^{-1}$	$4.2 \times 10^{-3}$	$2.2 \times 10^{-3}$
$d = 20$	$3.1 \times 10^{-1}$	$2.6 \times 10^{-2}$	$2.5 \times 10^{-3}$

# PINN. Experiment 1: the Laplace-Poisson equation



**Figure:** Experiment 1. Comparison between PINN (or predicted) solution  $u_{\text{PINN}}$  (**left**), and exact solution  $u_{\text{exact}}$  (**right**). Neural network composed of 3 hidden layers and 50 neurons in each layer. No regularization. Number of training points  $N_{\text{interior}} = 100$ ,  $N_{\text{boundary}} = 40$ .



## PINN. Experiment 2: exact control of the wave equation

Compute  $u(t)$  such that the solution  $y(x, t)$  of the problem

$$\begin{cases} y_{tt} - y_{xx} = 0, & \text{in } (0, 1) \times (0, 2) \\ y(x, 0) = \sin(\pi x), & \text{in } (0, 1) \\ y_t(x, 0) = 0 & \text{in } (0, 1) \\ y(0, t) = 0, & \text{on } (0, 2) \\ y(1, t) = u(t) & \text{on } (0, 2) \end{cases}$$

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This problem has an exact solution which can be obtained through D'Alembert formula. Indeed, by considering the function

$$\tilde{y}^0(x) = \begin{cases} \sin(\pi x) & -1 \leq x \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere,} \end{cases}$$

the explicit exact state is given by

$$y(x, t) = \frac{1}{2} \left( \tilde{y}^0(x - t) + \tilde{y}^0(x + t) \right), \quad 0 \leq x \leq 1, \quad 0 \leq t \leq 2,$$

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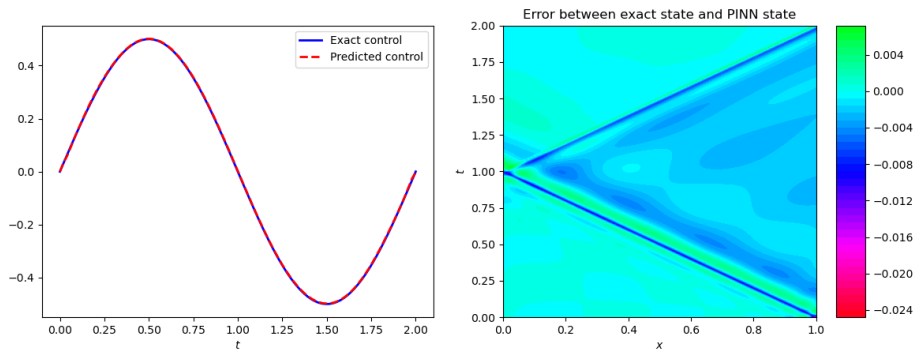
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## PINN. Experiment 2: exact control of the wave equation



**Figure:** Experiment 1 (linear wave equation). Comparison between exact control  $u(t)$  and PINN (or predicted) control  $\hat{u}(t; \theta^*)$  (**left**), and error between exact state and PINN state, i.e.  $y(x, t) - \hat{y}(x, t; \theta^*)$  (**right**). Neural network composed of 4 hidden layers and 50 neurons in each layer. No regularization. Number of training points  $N = 10300$ .

## DeepONet. Experiment 3: generation of training and test datasets

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{G} : \quad L^2(0,1) \times H^{-1}(0,1) &\rightarrow L^2(0,2) \\ (y^0, y^1) &\mapsto \mathcal{G}(y^0, y^1) := u \end{aligned}$$

where  $u$  is the unique control of minimal  $L^2$ -norm of the system

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{ll} y_{tt} - y_{xx} = 0, & \text{in } (0,1) \times (0,2) \\ y(x,0) = y^0(x), & \text{on } (0,1) \\ y_t(x,0) = y^1(x) & \text{on } (0,1) \\ y(0,t) = 0, & \text{on } (0,2) \\ y(1,t) = u(t) & \text{on } (0,2) \\ y(x,2) = y_t(x,2) = 0, & \text{on } (0,1). \end{array} \right.$$

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The **matrix of features** corresponds to initial conditions  $(y^0(x), y^1(x))$  evaluated at a number of sensor points  $x_j \in (0,1)$ . It is computed by sampling a Gaussian random field

$$a(x, \omega) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \sqrt{\lambda_i} e_i(x) \xi_i(\omega), \quad (12)$$

where  $\xi_i$  are iid standard Gaussian variables, and  $\{\lambda_i, e_i(x)\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$  are the eigenvalues and normalized eigenfunctions of the operator

$$\mathcal{C}(\phi)(x) = \int_0^1 C(x, x') \phi(x') dx', \quad C(x, x') = \sigma^2 \exp\left(-\frac{|x - x'|^2}{2\ell}\right)$$

## DeepONet. Experiment 3: generation of training and test datasets

The **vector of labels** corresponds to the exact control, which is given by

$$u(t) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2}y^0(1-t) + \frac{1}{2}\int_{1-t}^1 y^1(s) ds & 0 \leq t \leq 1 \\ -\frac{1}{2}y^0(t-1) + \frac{1}{2}\int_{t-1}^1 y^1(s) ds & 1 \leq t \leq 2. \end{cases} \quad (13)$$

A data point is a triplet  $((y^0, y^1), t, \mathcal{G}(y^0, y^1)(t))$ .

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$$X_{\text{train}} = \left[ \begin{array}{ccc|c} y_{1,1}^{\text{initial}} & \cdots & y_{1,2m}^{\text{initial}} & t_1 \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\ y_{1,1}^{\text{initial}} & \cdots & y_{1,2m}^{\text{initial}} & t_\ell \\ \hline \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\ \hline y_{N,1}^{\text{initial}} & \cdots & y_{N,2m}^{\text{initial}} & t_1 \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\ y_{N,1}^{\text{initial}} & \cdots & y_{N,2m}^{\text{initial}} & t_\ell \end{array} \right], \quad y_{\text{train}} = \left[ \begin{array}{c} u_1(t_1) \\ \cdots \\ u_1(t_\ell) \\ \hline \cdots \\ \cdots \\ \hline u_N(t_1) \\ \cdots \\ u_N(t_\ell) \end{array} \right]$$

## DeepONet. Experiment 4: fitting the deeponet model

The implementation in DeepXDE is as follows:

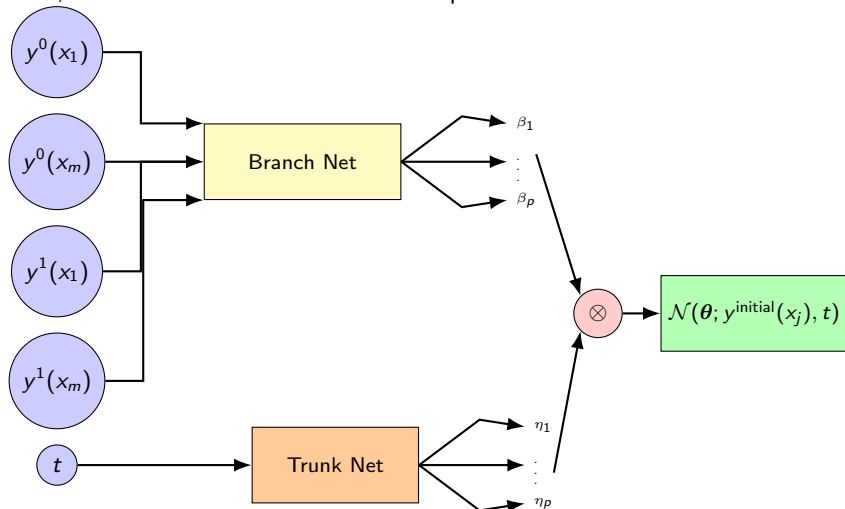
```
1 X_train = (X_train[:, :-1], X_train[:, -1:])
2 X_test = (X_test[:, :-1], X_test[:, -1:])
3
4 data = dde.data.Triple(
5     X_train=X_train, y_train=y_train, X_test=X_test, y_test=
6     y_test
7 )
```



Lu, L., Jin, P., Pang, G., Zhang, Z., Karniadakis, G.E.: *Learning nonlinear operators via deeponet based on the universal approximation theorem of operators*. **Nature Machine Intelligence** 3(3), 218-229, 2021.

## DeepONet. Experiment 4: fitting the deeponet model

Next, we select the architecture of the DeepONet

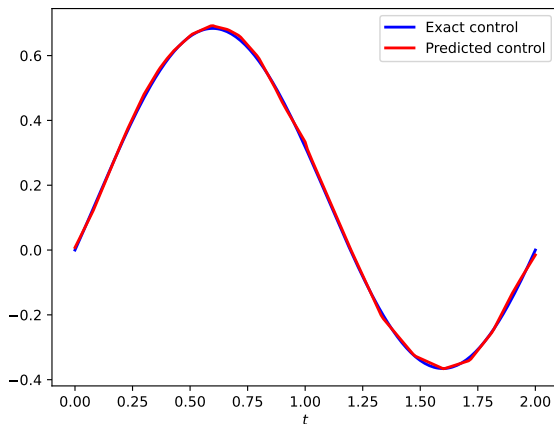


## DeepONet. Experiment 4: fitting the deeponet model

The implementation in DeepXDE is as follows:

```
1      m = X_train_input_dimension  # inferred from
      training data
2
3      dim_t = 1  # input dimension of the trunk
4
5      p = 10  # output dimension of the branch and trunk
      nets
6
7      net = dde.nn.DeepONet(
8          [m, 40, p],          # dimensions of the branch net
9          [dim_t, 40, p],      # dimensions of the trunk net
10         "relu",              # activation function
11         "Glorot normal",     # initialization of parameters
12     )
13
14     model = dde.Model(data, net)
15
16     model.compile("adam", lr=0.001)
17
18     losshistory, train_state = model.train(iterations=
        ITERATIONS)
19
20     dde.saveplot(losshistory, train_state, issave=True,
        isplot=True)
```

## DeepONet. Experiment 4: Smooth initial conditions



**Figure:** Experiment 4: wave equation. Exact versus predicted solutions for THE smooth initial conditions  $y^0(x) = y^1(x) = \sin(\pi x)$ .  $n_{functions} = 10^4$ ,  $(\ell_0, \ell_1) = (0.25, 0.125)$ ,  $n_{sensors} = 101$ ,  $p = 40$ . Relative error  $\approx 1\%$ .

## DeepONet. Experiment 4: Unsmooth initial conditions

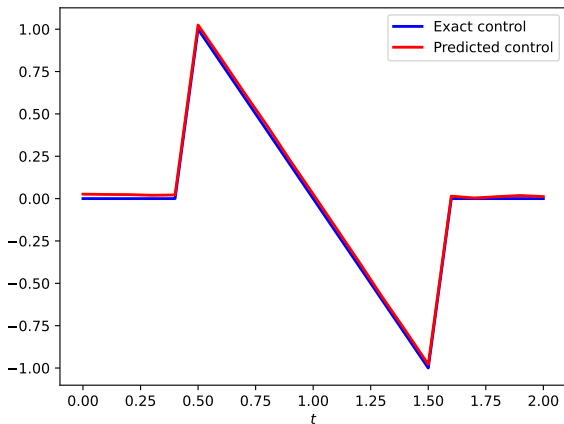


Figure: Experiment 4: wave equation. Exact versus predicted solutions for the unsmooth initial conditions  $y^0(x) = \begin{cases} 4x, & 0 \leq x \leq 0.5 \\ 0, & 0.5 < x \leq 1 \end{cases}$ ,  $y^1(x) = 0$ .

$n_{\text{functions}} = 10^4$ ,  $(\ell_0, \ell_1) = (0.03125, 0.03125)$ ,  $p = 100$ .  $n_{\text{sensors}} = 11$ . Relative error  $\approx 4\%$ .

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**Thank you for your attention !**