



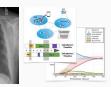
Scientific Machine Learning

Alexander Heinlein¹
VORtech Lunch Lecture, September 29, 2025

¹Delft University of Technology

Artificial Intelligence in Science and Engineering

Medical Imaging



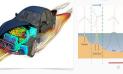
Epidemiology

Biomedical Engineering



Civil Engineering Fluid Mechanics







Unsupervised Learning

Use weak inductive biases to uncover structure from data

Inverse Problems

Use strong inductive biases to infer variables from data

Inference

Predict complex, nonlinear relations from data

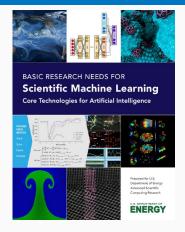
Challenges

- Data are often scarce and noisy, yet we must deliver accuracy, reliability, and robustness
- Multi-physics, multi-scale systems require robust coupling, scalability, and scale adaptation of learning algorithms

Opportunities

- Integrating physics with data-driven models enhances generalization, interpretability, and reliability
- Encoding physical laws enables trustworthy predictions and efficient surrogates for real-time predictions and control (digital twins)

Scientific Machine Learning as a Standalone Field



2019.

N. Baker, A. Frank, T. Bremer, A. Hagberg, Y. Kevrekidis, H. Najm, M. Parashar, A. Patra, J. Sethian, S. Wild, K. Willcox, and S. Lee. Workshop Report on Basic Research Needs for Scientific Machine Learning: Core Technologies for Artificial Intelligence.

USDOE Office of Science (SC), Washington, DC (United States),

Priority Research Directions

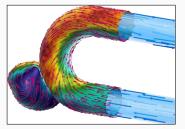
Foundational research themes:

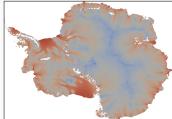
- Domain-awareness
- Interpretability
- Robustness

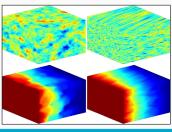
Capability research themes:

- Massive scientific data analysis
- Machine learning-enhanced modeling and simulation
- Intelligent automation and decision-support for complex systems

Scientific Computing and Machine Learning







Numerical methods

Based on physical models

- + Robust and generalizable
- Require availability of mathematical models

Machine learning models

Driven by data

- + Do not require mathematical models
- Sensitive to data, limited extrapolation capabilities

Scientific machine learning

Combining the strengths and compensating the weaknesses of the individual approaches:

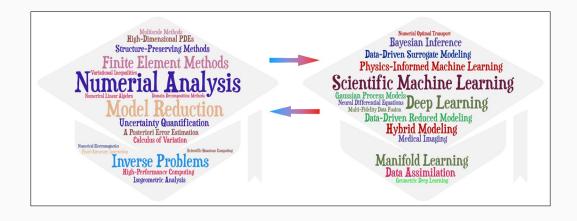
numerical methods machine learning techniques

improve assist

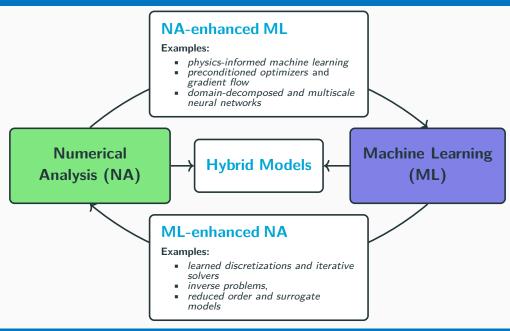
machine learning techniques

numerical methods

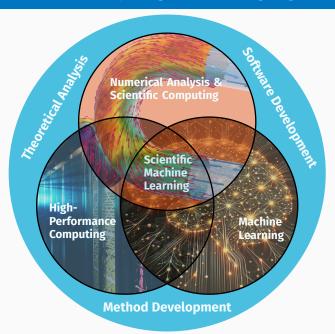
Numerical Analysis and Machine Learning



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SCaLA – Scalable **Scientific Computing and Learning Algorithms**



Outline

■ Physics-informed neural networks – Adaptive sampling and localization via domain decompostion

Based on joint work with

Victorita Dolean (Eindhoven University of Technology)
Bianca Giovanardi, Coen Visser (Delft University of Technology)
Amanda A. Howard and Panos Stinis (Pacific Northwest National Laboratory)
Siddhartha Mishra (ETH Zürich)
Ben Moseley (Imperial College London)

2 Deep operator networks – Error analysis and localization via domain decompostion

Based on joint work with

Damien Beecroft (University of Washington)
Amanda A. Howard and Panos Stinis (Pacific Northwest National Laboratory)

3 Surrogate models for varying computational domains

Based on joint work with

Eric Cyr (Sandia National Laboratories)
Matthias Eichinger, Viktor Grimm, Axel Klawonn
Corné Verburg (Delft University of Technology)

Adaptive sampling and localization via domain decompostion

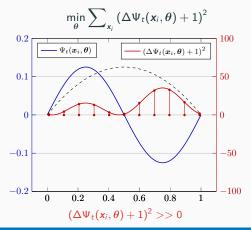
Physics-informed neural networks -

Physics-Informed Neural Networks (PINNs) – Idea

In Lagaris et al. (1998), the authors solve the boundary value problem

$$-\Delta \Psi_t(\mathbf{x}, oldsymbol{ heta}) = 1 ext{ on } [0, 1],$$
 $\Psi_t(0, oldsymbol{ heta}) = \Psi_t(1, oldsymbol{ heta}) = 0,$

via a collocation approach:

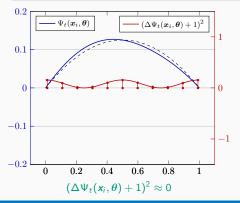


Boundary conditions . . .

... can be **enforced explicitly** via the ansatz:

$$\Psi_t(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{\theta}) = A(\mathbf{x}) + F(\mathbf{x}, NN(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{\theta}))$$

- A satisfies the boundary conditions
- F does not contribute to the boundary conditions



Physics-Informed Neural Networks (PINNs)

In the physics-informed neural network (PINN) approach introduced by Raissi et al. (2019), a neural network is employed to discretize a partial differential equation

$$\mathcal{N}[u] = f$$
, in Ω .

PINNs use a **hybrid loss function**:

$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \omega_{\text{data}} \mathcal{L}_{\text{data}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) + \omega_{\text{PDE}} \mathcal{L}_{\text{PDE}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}),$$

where ω_{data} and ω_{PDE} are weights and

$$egin{aligned} \mathcal{L}_{\mathsf{data}}(heta) &= rac{1}{N_{\mathsf{data}}} \sum_{i=1}^{N_{\mathsf{data}}} \left(u(\hat{oldsymbol{x}}_i, oldsymbol{ heta}) - u_i
ight)^2, \ \mathcal{L}_{\mathsf{PDE}}(heta) &= rac{1}{N_{\mathsf{PDF}}} \sum_{i=1}^{N_{\mathsf{PDE}}} \left(\mathcal{N}[u](oldsymbol{x}_i, oldsymbol{ heta}) - f(oldsymbol{x}_i)
ight)^2. \end{aligned}$$

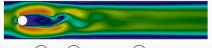
See also Dissanayake and Phan-Thien (1994); Lagaris et al. (1998).

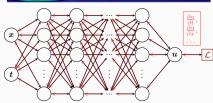
Advantages

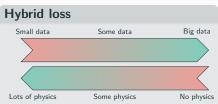
- "Meshfree"
- Small data
- Generalization properties
- High-dimensional problems
- Inverse and parameterized problems

Drawbacks

- Training cost and robustness
- Convergence not well-understood
- Difficulties with scalability and multi-scale problems







- Known solution values can be included in L_{data}
- Initial and boundary conditions are also included in $\mathcal{L}_{\text{data}}$

Error Estimate & Spectral Bias

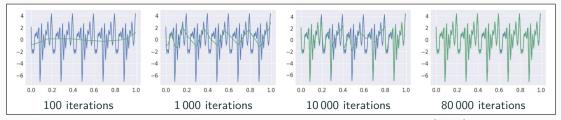
Estimate of the generalization error (Mishra and Molinaro (2022))

The generalization error (or total error) satisfies

$$\mathcal{E}_G \leq C_{PDE} \mathcal{E}_T + C_{PDE} C_{quad}^{1/p} N^{-\alpha/p}$$

- $\mathcal{E}_G = \mathcal{E}_G(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{\theta}) := \|\mathbf{u} \mathbf{u}^*\|_V$ general. error (V Sobolev space, \mathbf{X} training data set)
- €_T training error (I^p loss of the residual of the PDE)
- N number of the training points and α convergence rate of the quadrature
- ullet C_{PDE} and C_{quad} constants depending on the PDE, quadrature, and neural network

Rule of thumb: "As long as the PINN is trained well, it also generalizes well"



Rahaman et al., On the spectral bias of neural networks, ICML (2019)

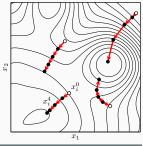
Related works: Cao et al. (2021), Wang, et al. (2022), Hong et al. (arXiv 2022), Xu et al. (2024), ...

PACMANN - Point Adaptive Collocation Method for Artificial Neural Networks

In Visser, Heinlein, and Giovanardi (subm. 2025; arXiv:2411.19632), the collocation points are updated by solving the min-max problem

$$\min_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \left[\omega_{\text{data}} \mathcal{L}_{\text{data}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) + \max_{\boldsymbol{X} \subset \Omega} \omega_{\text{PDE}} \mathcal{L}_{\text{PDE}}(\boldsymbol{X}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) \right].$$

This idea was already mentioned in Wang et al. (2022). Different from other residual-based adaptive sampling methods, existing collocation points are moved using gradient-based optimizers such as gradient ascent, RMSprop (Hinton (2018)), or Adam (Kingma, Ba (2017)).



Algorithm 1: PACMANN with iteration counts P and T and stepsize s

Sample a set \boldsymbol{X} of N_{PDE} collocation points using a uniform sampling method; while stopping criterion not reached do

Train the PINN for *P* iterations;

for
$$k = 1, \ldots, T$$
 do

Compute squared residual $\Re(x_i) = (\Re[u](x_i, \theta) - f(x_i))^2$ for all $x_i \in X$;

Compute gradient $\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{x}_i)$ for all $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbf{X}$;

Move the points in X according to the chosen optimization algorithm and stepsize s;

end

Resample points in X that moved outside Ω based on a uniform probability distribution;

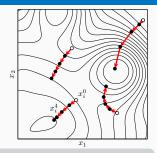
end

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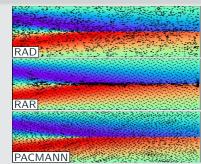
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Comparison against different methods

sampling method	L_2 relative error		mean
2500 coll. points	mean	1 SD	runtime [s]
uniform grid	25.9%	14.2%	425
Hammersley grid	0.61%	0.53%	443
random resampling	0.40%	0.35%	423
RAR	0.11%	0.05%	450
RAD	0.16%	0.10%	463
RAR-D	0.24%	0.21%	503
PACMANN-Adam	0.07%	0.05%	461



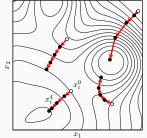
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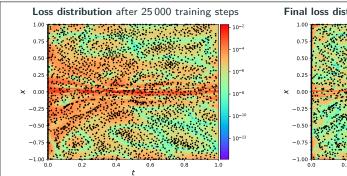
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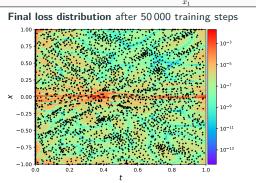
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Scaling of PINNs for a Simple ODE Problem

Solve

$$u' = \cos(\omega x),$$

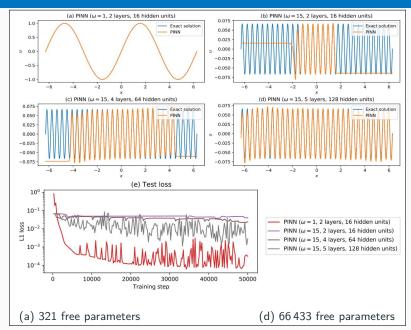
$$u(0) = 0,$$

for different values of ω using PINNs with varying network capacities.

Scaling issues

- Large computational domains
- Small frequencies

Cf. Moseley, Markham, and Nissen-Meyer (2023)



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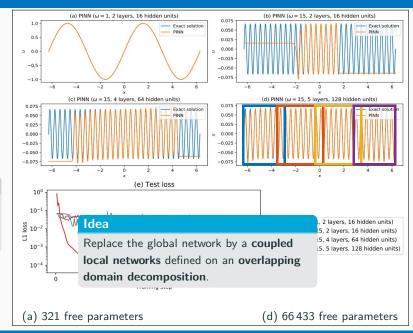
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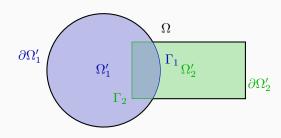
Domain Decomposition Methods



Graphics based on results from Heinlein, Perego, Rajamanickam (2022)

Historical remarks: The alternating Schwarz method is the earliest domain decomposition method (DDM), which has been invented by H. A. Schwarz and published in 1870:

 Schwarz used the algorithm to establish the existence of harmonic functions with prescribed boundary values on regions with non-smooth boundaries.



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Finite Basis Physics-Informed Neural Networks (FBPINNs)

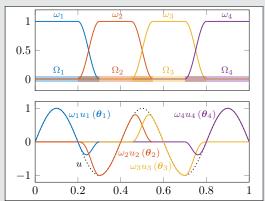
FBPINNs (Moseley, Markham, Nissen-Meyer (2023))

FBPINNs employ the network architecture

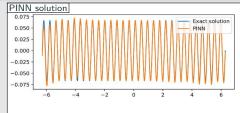
$$u(\theta_1,\ldots,\theta_J)=\sum_{j=1}^J\omega_ju_j(\theta_j)$$

and the loss function

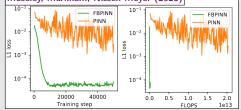
$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(n \left[\sum_{\mathbf{x}_i \in \Omega_j} \omega_j u_j \right] (\mathbf{x}_i, \theta_j) - f(\mathbf{x}_i) \right)^2.$$



1D single-frequency problem



Moseley, Markham, Nissen-Meyer (2023)



Finite Basis Physics-Informed Neural Networks (FBPINNs)

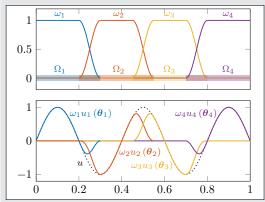
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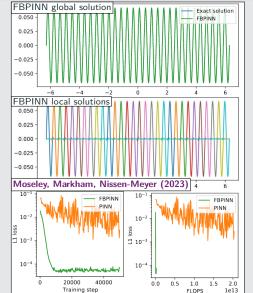
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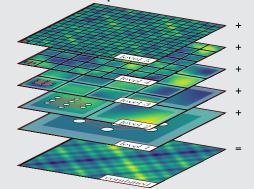
1D single-frequency problem



Multi-Level FBPINNs

Multi-level FBPINNs (ML-FBPINNs)

ML-FBPINNs (Dolean, Heinlein, Mishra, Moseley (2024)) are based on a hierarchy of domain decompositions:



This yields the **network architecture**:

$$u(\theta_1^{(1)}, \dots, \theta_{J^{(L)}}^{(L)}) = \sum_{l=1}^{L} \sum_{i=1}^{N^{(l)}} \omega_j^{(l)} u_j^{(l)}(\theta_j^{(l)})$$

Multiscale problems . . .

. appear in most areas of modern science and engineering:







Dual-phase steel; fig. courtesy of **J. Schröder**.

Groundwater flow; cf. **Christie & Blunt** (2001) (SPE10).

Arterial walls; cf. O'Connell et al. (2008).

Multi-frequency problem

Consider the multi-frequency Laplace problem

$$-\Delta u = 2 \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\omega_i \pi)^2 \sin(\omega_i \pi x) \sin(\omega_i \pi y),$$

with homogeneous Dirichlet boundary conditions and $\omega_{l}=2^{i}.$

For increasing values of n, we obtain the solutions



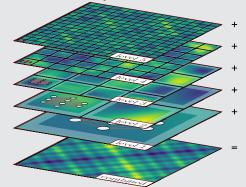




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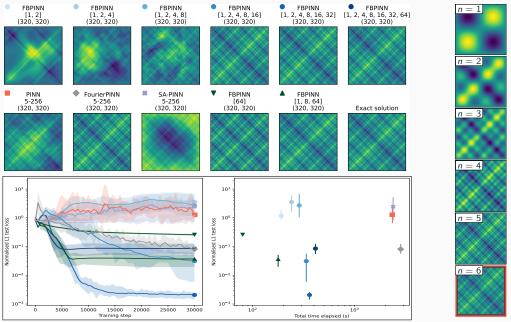
For increasing values of n, we obtain the **solutions**:





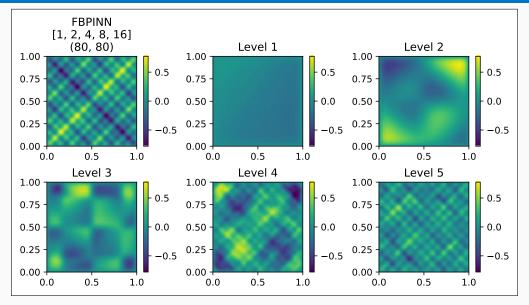


Multi-Level FBPINNs for a Multi-Frequency Problem – Strong Scaling



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Multi-Frequency Problem – What the FBPINN Learns



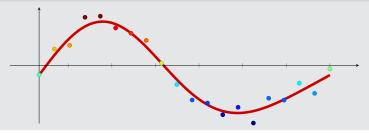
Cf. Dolean, Heinlein, Mishra, Moseley (2024).

Deep operator networks - Error analysis

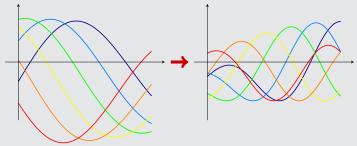
and localization via domain decompostion

Function Versus Operator Learning

Function learning



Operator learning

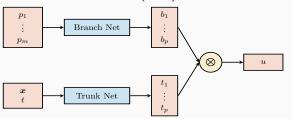


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Deep Operator Networks (DeepONets / DONs)

Neural operators learn operators between function spaces using neural networks. Here, we learn the **solution operator** of a initial-boundary value problem parametrized with p_1, \ldots, p_m using **DeepONets** as introduced in **Lu et al. (2021)**.



Single-layer case

The DeepONet architecture is based on the single-layer case analyzed in Chen and Chen (1995). In particular, the authors show universal approximation properties for continuous operators.

The architecture is based on the following ansatz for presenting the parametrized solution

$$u_{(\rho_1,\ldots,\rho_m)}(\mathbf{x},t) = \sum_{i=1}^{\rho} \underbrace{b_i(p_1,\ldots,p_m)}_{\text{branch}} \cdot \underbrace{t_i(\mathbf{x},t)}_{\text{trunk}}$$

Physics-informed DeepONets

DeepONets are compatible with the PINN approach but physics-informed DeepONets (PI-DeepONets) are challenging to train.

Other operator learning approaches

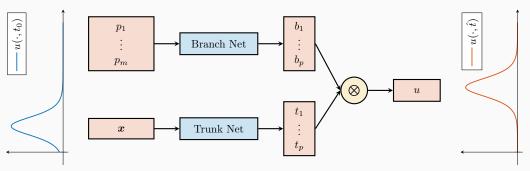
- FNOs: Li et al. (2021)
- PCA-Net: Bhattacharya et al. (2021)
- Random features: Nelsen and Stuart (2021)
- CNOs: Raonić et al. (2023)

How a DeepONet Maps Between Function Spaces

To illustrate how a DeepONet operates, we consider the Korteweg-de Vries (KdV) equation

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = -u \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} - 0.01 \frac{\partial^3 u}{\partial x^3},$$

which models unidirectional waves in shallow water. Our goal is to train a DeepONet that predicts the wave profile at a future time \hat{t} from the observed height profile $u(\cdot, t_0)$.



Here, the forecast time \hat{t} is fixed to keep the learning task simple. A more general neural operator can take the target time as an additional input to the trunk network.

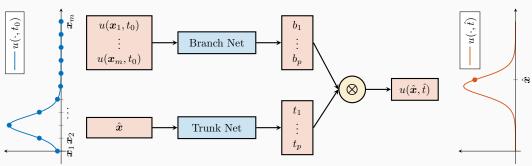
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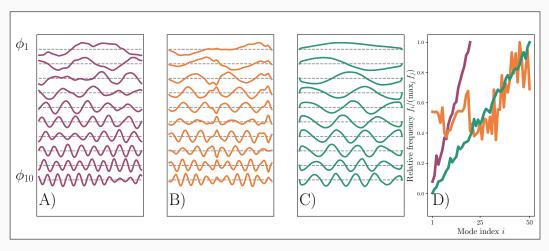
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DeepONet Trunk Basis – Examples

Let us consider some examples of the left singular vectors for three differential equations:

A) advection-diffusion equation B) KdV equation C) Burgers equation

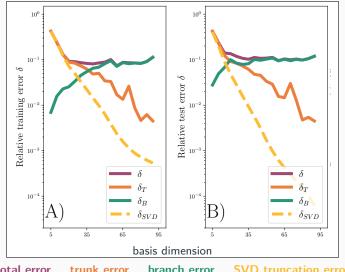


The learned trunk bases have been investigated in more detail in Williams et al. (2024).

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Results for the **KdV equation** with $t_0 = 0.0$ and $\hat{t} = 0.2$.

 $900\ training$ and $100\ test$ configurations.



total error trunk error branch error SVD truncation error δ δ_T δ_B δ_{SVD}

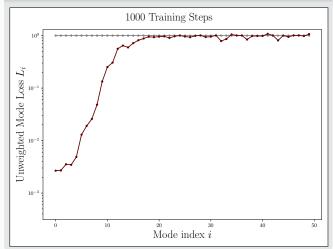
$$\mathcal{E}_B = \sum_{i=1}^m \sigma_i^2 \underbrace{\|b_i - v_i\|_2^2}_{=:L_i}.$$

We call

$$\sigma_i^2 L_i$$

the (weighted) mode loss because it equals the loss contribution of the ith mode. Accordingly, L_i is the unweighted mode loss.

This choice of **left singular vectors** as the trunk basis is often denoted POD-DeepONet in Lu et al. (2022).



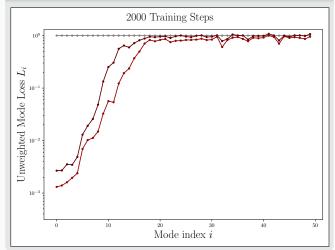
$$\mathcal{E}_B = \sum_{i=1}^m \sigma_i^2 \underbrace{\|b_i - v_i\|_2^2}_{=:L_i}.$$

We call

$$\sigma_i^2 L_i$$

the (weighted) mode loss because it equals the loss contribution of the ith mode. Accordingly, L_i is the unweighted mode loss.

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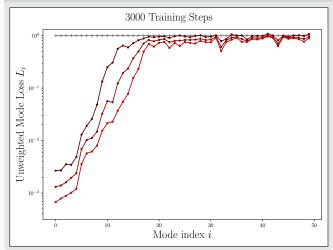
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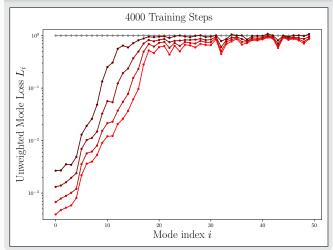
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DeepONet - Branch Error

Using the left singular vectors, the **branch error** becomes

$$\mathcal{E}_B = \sum_{i=1}^m \sigma_i^2 \underbrace{\|b_i - v_i\|_2^2}_{=:L_i}.$$

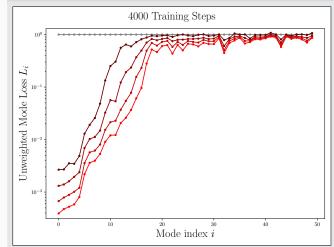
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Unweighted mode loss



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 \rightarrow The coefficients of modes with large singular values are learned best. Errors for modes with small singular values remain high.

Using the left singular vectors, the **branch error** becomes

$$\mathcal{E}_B = \sum_{i=1}^m \sigma_i^2 \underbrace{\|b_i - v_i\|_2^2}_{=:L_i}.$$

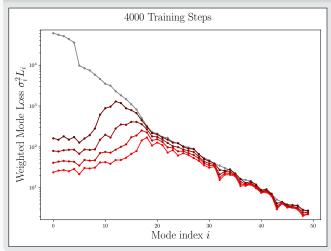
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(Weighted) mode loss



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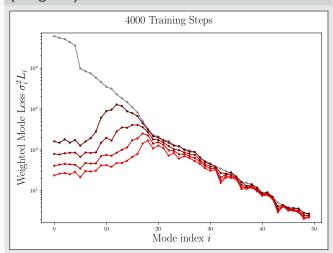
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(Weighted) mode loss



 \rightarrow Analyzing the actual error contributions, the **modes with medium singular values contribute most**.

Using the left singular vectors, the **branch error** becomes

$$\mathcal{E}_{B} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sigma_{i}^{2} \underbrace{\|b_{i} - v_{i}\|_{2}^{2}}_{=:L_{i}}.$$

We call

$$\sigma_i^2 L_i$$

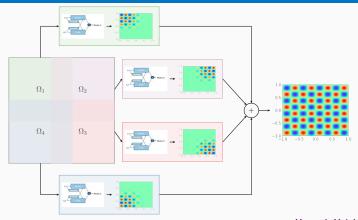
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(Weighted) mode loss 4000 Training Steps Weighted Mode Loss $\sigma_i^2 L_i$ 20 40 Mode index i

How to improve the performance on medium-sized singular value modes?

Finite Basis DeepONets (FBDONs)



Howard, Heinlein, Stinis (in prep.)

Variants:

Shared-trunk FBDONs (ST-FBDONs)

The trunk net learns spatio-temporal basis functions. In ST-FBDONs, we use the same trunk network for all subdomains.

Stacking FBDONs

Combination of the **stacking multifidelity approach** with FBDONs.

Heinlein, Howard, Beecroft, Stinis (2025)

FBDONs – Wave Equation

Wave equation

$$\begin{split} \frac{d^2s}{dt^2} &= 2\frac{d^2s}{dx^2}, & (x,t) \in [0,1]^2 \\ s_t(x,0) &= 0, x \in [0,1], & s(0,t) = s(1,t) = 0, \end{split}$$

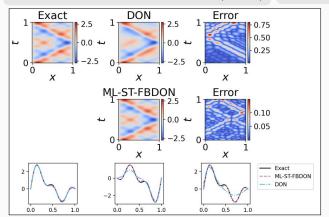
Solution: $s(x, t) = \sum_{n=1}^{5} b_n \sin(n\pi x) \cos(n\pi \sqrt{2}t)$

Parametrization

Initial conditions for s parametrized by $b = (b_1, \ldots, b_5)$ (normally distributed):

$$s(x,0) = \sum_{n=1}^{5} b_n \sin(n\pi x) \quad x \in [0,1]$$

Training on 1000 random configurations.



Mean rel. l_2 error on 100 config.				
DeepONet	0.30 ± 0.11			
ML-ST-FBDON	0.05 ± 0.03			
([1, 4, 8, 16] subd.)	0.03 ± 0.03			
ML-FBDON	0.08 ± 0.04			
([1, 4, 8, 16] subd.)	0.00 ± 0.04			

→ Sharing the trunk network does not only save in the number of parameters but even yields **better performance**

Cf. Howard, Heinlein, Stinis (in prep.)

Surrogate models for varying

computational domains

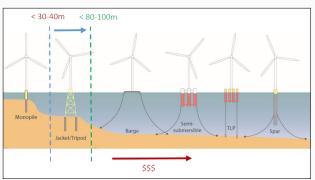
Designing of Perforated Monopiles for Offshore Wind Energy

Perforated monopiles

Monopiles are the **most used and cheapest** solution of support structures in **offshore wind energy**.

 \rightarrow Perforated monopiles reduce the wave load.

What is the **optimal perforation shape**?





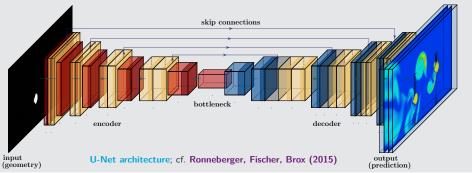


Fully resolved CFD simulations are costly, but rough predictions may be sufficient.

Convolutional Neural Network-Based Surrogate Model

CNN-based approach

We employ a convolutional neural network (CNN) (LeCun (1998)) to predict the stationary flow field, given an image of the geometry as input.



Related works (non-exhaustive)

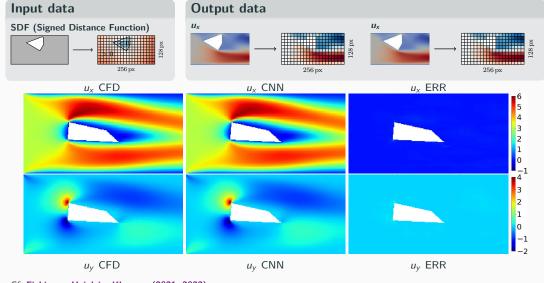
- Guo, Li, Iorio (2016)
- Niekamp, Niemann, Schröder (2022)
- Stender, Ohlsen, Geisler, Chabchoub, Hoffmann, Schlaefer (2022)

Operator learning (non-exhaustive)

- FNOs: Li et al. (2021)
- PCA-Net: Bhattacharya et al. (2021)
- Random features: Nelsen and Stuart (2021)
- CNOs: Raonić et al. (2023)

Comparison OpenFOAM® Versus CNN (Relative Error 2%)

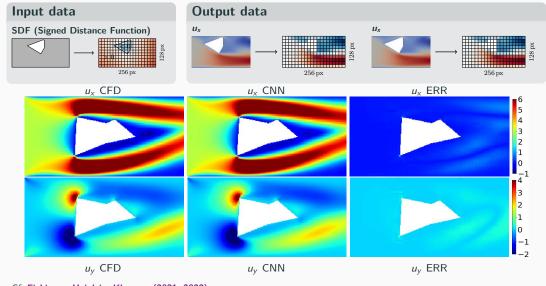
We automatically generate geometries and compute the corresponding flow fields using $\operatorname{OPEnFOAM} @. \\$



Cf. Eichinger, Heinlein, Klawonn (2021, 2022).

Comparison OpenFOAM® Versus CNN (Relative Error 14%)

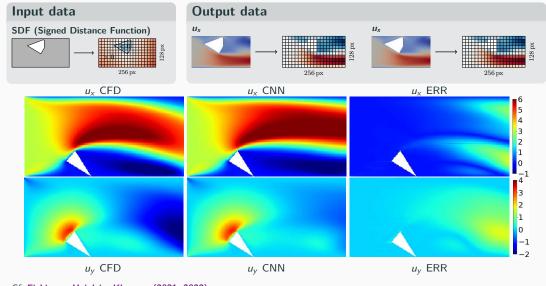
We automatically generate geometries and compute the corresponding flow fields using $\operatorname{OPEnFOAM}{} \& \$



Cf. Eichinger, Heinlein, Klawonn (2021, 2022).

Comparison OpenFOAM® Versus CNN (Relative Error 31 %)

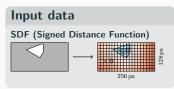
We automatically generate geometries and compute the corresponding flow fields using $\operatorname{OPEnFOAM} @. \\$

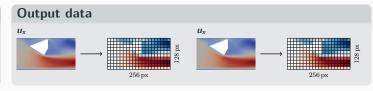


Cf. Eichinger, Heinlein, Klawonn (2021, 2022).

Comparison OpenFOAM® Versus CNN

We automatically generate geometries and compute the corresponding flow fields using OPENFOAM@.





OpenFOAM® simulation avg. runtime per case create STL 0.15 s snappyHexMesh 37 s simpleFoam 13 s total time ≈ 50 s

 $\textbf{CPU:} \ \mathsf{AMD} \ \mathsf{Threadripper} \ \mathsf{2950X} \ (\mathsf{8} \times \mathsf{3.8} \ \mathsf{Ghz}), \mathsf{32GB} \ \mathsf{RAM}$

GPU: GeForce RTX 2080Ti

Cf. Eichinger, Heinlein, Klawonn (2021, 2022).

U-Net training cost # decoders # parameters $\approx 34 \, \text{m}$ $\approx 53.5 \, \text{m}$ 270 stime/epoch $195 \, \mathrm{s}$ avg. inference cost **CPU GPU** avg. time 0.092 s0.0054 s

Unsupervised Learning Approach – PDE Loss Using Finite Differences

Physics-informed loss function

We train the CNN by incorporating the **PDE residuals**, discretized via finite differences, into the **loss function**:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\mathsf{PDE}} = \frac{1}{N_{\mathsf{PDE}}} \sum\nolimits_{i=1}^{N_{\mathsf{PDE}}} \|\mathcal{R}(u_{\mathsf{CNN}}, p_{\mathsf{CNN}})\|_{2}^{2}$$

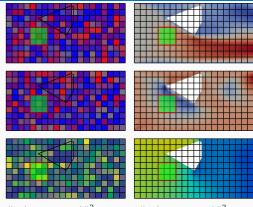
Here, N_{PDE} is the number of training configs.

Cf. Raissi et al. (2019), Dissanayake and Phan-Thien (1994), Lagaris et al. (1998).

We explcitly enforce boundary conditions on the output image \rightarrow hard constraints

error	$ \begin{array}{c c} \ u_{NN} - u\ _2 \\ \ u\ _2 \\ \ u\ _2 \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c c} \ p_{NN} - p\ _2 \\ \ p\ _2 \\ \end{array} $	$ p_{NN}-p _2$	mean residual		# epochs
error		moment.	mass	trained	
train.	1.43 %	7.30 %	$1.0 \cdot 10^{-1}$	1.5·10 ⁰	F00
val.	2.52 %	8.67 %	$1.2 \cdot 10^{-1}$	1.5·10 ⁰	500
train.	5.03 %		$3.2 \cdot 10^{-2}$		5 000
val.	5.18 %	11.60 %	$4.2 \cdot 10^{-2}$	$1.1 \cdot 10^{-1}$	3 000

→ Errors are comparable to the data-based approach, but training requires more epochs.



$$\|\mathcal{R}(u_{\text{CNN}}, p_{\text{CNN}})\|^2 >> 0 \quad \|\mathcal{R}(u_{\text{CNN}}, p_{\text{CNN}})\|^2 \approx 0$$

Here, we consider ther Navier-Stokes equations:

$$\mathcal{R}(u_{\text{CNN}}, p_{\text{CNN}}) = \begin{bmatrix} -\nu \Delta \vec{u} + (u \cdot \nabla) \vec{u} + \nabla p \\ \nabla \cdot u \end{bmatrix}$$

Cf. Grimm, Heinlein, Klawonn (2025).

A New Paradigm for Scientific Software?

Hybrid workflows determine software design

- SciML codes combine machine learning modules with classical numerical algorithms and physics models.
- Mainstream ML frameworks (e.g., PyTorch, JAX, ...) excell in maintainance, usability, and documentation.
- Automatic differentiation significantly simplifies core kernels, shifting major efforts towards data processing as well as architecture and hyperparameter tuning.

Hardware and parallelization assumptions change

- Most architectures are not based on locality except for, e.g., CNNs, GNNs, or explicit domain decomposition. Hence, dominant kernels rely on dense linear algebra, favoring dense GPU/TPU kernels over CPU/sparse stacks.
- Training often converges slowly in both iterations and computing time; training offline is preferred.
- Parallel scaling is more natural through data parallelism than through model decomposition.

Robustness and reproducibility guarantees often still work-in-progress

- Randomness in models (training) demand infrastructure for uncertainty quantification, ensembles, and validation.
- Non-convex optimization problems make guarantees on convergence, robustness, and stability difficult.
 Reproducibility is a major challenge.

4TU.AMI - SRI "Bridging Numerical Analysis and Machine Learning"

UNIVERSITY OF TWENTE.



Christoph

Brune





Matthias Schlottbom













Deepesh Toshniwal

4TU.AMI





Victorita Dolean



Wil Schilders



Jemima Tabeart



Karen Veroy-Grepl



WAGENINGEN



Xiaodong Cheng

CWI Research Semester Programme:

Bridging Numerical Analysis and Scientific Machine Learning: Advances and Applications

Co-organizers: Victorita Dolean (TU/e), Alexander Heinlein (TU Delft), Benjamin Sanderse (CWI), Jemima Tabbeart (TU/e), Tristan van Leeuwen (CWI)

- Autumn School (October 27–31, 2025):
 - Chris Budd (University of Bath)
 - Ben Moseley (Imperial College London)
 - Gabriele Steidl (Technische Universität Berlin)
 - Andrew Stuart (California Institute of Technology)
 - Andrea Walther (Humboldt-Universität zu Berlin)
 - Ricardo Baptista (University of Toronto)
- **Workshop** (December 1–3, 2025):
 - Plenary talks (academia & industry) and panel discussion
 - Poster session with prize sponsored by Math4NL
 - Plenary speakers:
 - Benjamin Peherstorfer (NYU)
 - Elena Celledoni (NTNU)
 - Jakob Sauer Jørgensen (DTU)
 - Marcelo Pereyra (Heriot-Watt University)
 - Nicolas Boullé (ICL)





Join us for inspiring talks, hands-on sessions, and industry collaboration!

Summary

Scientific Machine Learning (SciML)

- SciML is a young field joining scientific computing and machine learning.
- The combination of scientific computing and machine learning comes in various forms.
- Recent progress rides on accessible hardware and open-source software.

Opportunities

- SciML techniques enhance classical numerical solvers and purely data-driven models.
- Offline-trained surrogates yield fast inference, speeding up or replacing costly workflow steps.

Challenges

- Many methods are not yet fully theoretically understood and lack rigorous theoretical guarantees.
- Achieving robust, efficient, stable training at scale, especially with sparse or noisy data, is a topic of ongoing research.

Thank you for your attention!



Topical Activity
Group
Scientific Machine
Learning

