# Data-Driven Discovery of Partial Differential Equations



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• The Navier-Stokes equations in fluid dynamics:

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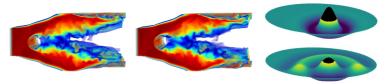


Figure: Left: the 3D Navier-Stokes Equation. Right: the 2D wave equation

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### **Data-driven PDE discovery**

ullet Suppose we have a dataset for a system regarding a certain quantity u, but the governing PDE for u is unknown. Assume the PDE is of the generic form

$$u_t = F(u, u_x, u_{xx}, \dots, x, \mu), \tag{4}$$

where  $F(\cdot)$  is an unknown, usually nonlinear function of u(x,t) and its derivatives, parameterized by  $\mu$ . Goal: to discover F from the data.

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• Input data  $U \in \mathbb{C}^{mn}$  is a matrix of values of u collected at m time steps with time interval  $\Delta t$  and n spatial locations with space interval  $\Delta x$  given by

$$\mathbf{U} = \begin{bmatrix} u(0,0) & \dots & u(n\Delta x,0) \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ u(0,m\Delta t) & \dots & u(n\Delta x,m\Delta t) \end{bmatrix}.$$
 (5)

**U** is flattened as a vector  $[u(0,0)\dots u(n\Delta x,0)\dots u(0,m\Delta t)\dots u(n\Delta x,m\Delta t)]$  of length mn to serve as the input to our the machine learning algorithm.

# Discretizing Target PDE and Learning Coefficients

Applying numerical methods (finite difference methods, or polynomial interpolation) to input data  $\mathbf{U}$  yields a dataset  $\mathbf{U}_t \in \mathbb{R}^{mn}$  of time derivative  $u_t$ . The discrete form of the target PDE  $u_t = F(u, u_x, u_{xx}, \dots, x, \mu)$  can thus be written as

$$\mathbf{U}_t = [u_t(0,0) \dots u_t(n\Delta x, m\Delta t)]^T = \mathbf{\Theta}(\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{Q})\xi.$$
 (6)

Here  $\mathbf{Q} \in \mathbb{C}^{mn}$  denotes additional input, and  $\mathbf{\Theta}(\mathbf{U},\mathbf{Q}) \in \mathbb{C}^{mn \times D}$  is a library of D candidate terms and takes the form

$$\Theta(\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{Q}) = [\mathbf{1} \quad \mathbf{U} \quad \mathbf{U}^2 \dots \quad \mathbf{Q} \quad \dots \quad \mathbf{U}_{x} \quad \mathbf{U}\mathbf{U}_{x} \quad \dots]. \tag{7}$$

 $\xi \in \mathbb{C}^D$  is the coefficient vector containing coefficients of each of the candidate terms. We apply machine learning methods to obtain the correct coefficient vector  $\xi$ .

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#### Example (Diffusion Equation)

Suppose the data  ${\bf U}$  is governed by the 1D heat equation  $u_t=u_{\rm xx}$ , then we may build a library of D=6 candidate terms

$$\Theta(U,Q) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & U & U^2 & U_x & U_{xx} & UU_x \end{bmatrix},$$

and if our method is successful, we will get a coefficient vector  $\xi \in \mathbb{C}^{D=6}$  that takes the value

$$\xi = [0\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 0]^T$$
.

# Sparse Regression: Ridge, LASSO, and Elastic Net

Our goal is to find the optimal coefficient vector  $\xi\in\mathbb{C}^D$  satisfying

- $\mathbf{U}_t \approx \mathbf{\Theta}(\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{Q}) \xi$ ,
- ullet is sparse, so that only the most relevant terms are included.

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### Three Types of Sparse Regression

ullet Ridge Regression: aims to find  $\hat{\xi}$  that minimizes the loss function

$$\hat{\xi} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\xi} L(\xi), \text{ where } L(\xi) = \|\mathbf{\Theta}\xi - \mathbf{U}_t\|_2^2 + \lambda \|\xi\|_2, \tag{8}$$

where  $\|\xi\|_2 = \sqrt{\xi_1^2 + \dots + \xi_D^2}$  is the  $L_2$  norm and  $\lambda$  a constant coefficient

ullet LASSO Regression: similar structure, but uses  $L_1$  norm instead of the  $L_2$  norm

$$L(\xi) = \|\mathbf{\Theta}\xi - \mathbf{U}_t\|_2^2 + \alpha \|\xi\|_1, \tag{9}$$

where  $\|\xi\|_1 = |\xi_1|_+ \cdots + |\xi_D|$  is the  $L_1$  norm.

• Elastic Net Regression simply combines the two regularization terms above:

$$L(\xi) = \|\mathbf{\Theta}\xi - \mathbf{U}_t\|_2^2 + \lambda \|\xi\|_2 + \alpha \|\xi\|_1. \tag{10}$$

Minimizing  $\|\Theta\xi - \mathbf{U}_t\|_2^2$  fits  $\xi$  to the data  $\mathbf{U_t}$ , and minimizing  $\|\xi\|_1$  and/or  $\|\xi\|_2$  shrinks coefficients of irrelevant terms.

# Sequential Threshold Ridge Regression

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$$\hat{\xi} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\xi} L(\xi), \text{ where } L(\xi) = \|\Theta(\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{Q})\xi - \mathbf{U}_t\|_2^2 + \epsilon \kappa(\Theta(\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{Q}))\|\xi\|_0. \tag{11}$$

 $\|\cdot\|_0$  is the  $L_0$  norm that counts the number of nonzero elements in  $\xi$ ,  $\kappa(\Theta(U,Q))$  is the condition number of the matrix  $\Theta$ .

### Sequential Threshold Ridge Regression

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To get the above  $\hat{\xi}$ , sparse regression is applied with sequential thresholding:

```
Algorithm 3: Sequential Threshold Ridge Regression: STRidge(\Theta, U_t, \lambda, tol, iters, num\_big)
```

$$\begin{split} \hat{\xi} \leftarrow \text{argmin}_{\xi} (\|\mathbf{\Theta}\xi - \mathbf{U}_t\|_2^2 + \lambda \|\xi\|_2) & \text{\#standard ridge regression} \\ \text{biginds} \leftarrow \{j: |\hat{\xi}_j| \geq tol\} & \text{\#select indices of large coefficients} \end{split}$$

#Check if number of big coefficients changed from last time
if num\_big != len(biginds) then

$$\begin{array}{ll} \operatorname{num\_big} \leftarrow \operatorname{len}(\operatorname{biginds}) & \text{\#Updates number of big coefficients} \\ \hat{\xi}[\sim \operatorname{biginds}] \leftarrow 0 & \text{\#set small coefficients to 0} \\ \hat{\xi}[\operatorname{biginds}] \leftarrow \operatorname{STRidge}(\boldsymbol{\Theta}[:,\operatorname{biginds}], \boldsymbol{U}_t, \lambda, tol, \operatorname{iters} - 1, \operatorname{num\_big}) \end{array}$$

#recursive call with fewer coefficients

else

 $\mid \ \, \mathsf{return} \,\, \hat{\xi} \\ \mathsf{end} \\$ 

# Generating Simulation Data with Finite Difference Method

Let  $u_t(x,t) = F(u,u_x,\dots), x \in [0,L], t \in [0,T]$  be a PDE, with initial condition u(x,0) = f(x), boundary conditions u(0,t) = g(t), u(L,t) = h(t). A simulation dataset for this PDE can be generated using **finite difference methods (FDM)**.

#### Finite Difference Methods: FTCS and Crank-Nicholson

Forward difference in time, central difference for space (FTCS):

$$U_{t} \approx \frac{U_{j}^{k+1} - U_{j}^{k}}{\Delta t}, \ U_{x} = \frac{U_{j+1}^{k} - U_{j-1}^{k}}{2\Delta x}, \ U_{xx} = \frac{U_{j+1}^{k} - 2U_{j}^{k} + U_{j+1}^{k}}{2(\Delta x)^{2}}$$
(12)

ullet Crank-Nicholson method, which uses the same formulation of  $U_t$  and  $U_x$  but

$$UU_{x} = \frac{1}{2} \left( U_{j}^{k} \frac{U_{j+1}^{k+1} - U_{j-1}^{k}}{2\Delta x} + U_{j}^{k+1} \frac{U_{j+1}^{k} - u_{j-1}^{k}}{2\Delta x} \right)$$
(13)

$$U_{xx} \approx \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{U_{j+1}^{k+1} - 2U_{j}^{k+1} + U_{j-1}^{K+1}}{2\Delta x} + U_{j}^{k+1} \frac{U_{j+1}^{k} - U_{j-1}^{k}}{2\Delta x} \right)$$
(14)

$$\mathbf{U} = \begin{bmatrix} u(0,0) & \dots & u(n\Delta x,0) \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ u(0,m\Delta t) & \dots & u(n\Delta x,m\Delta t) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} U_0^0 & \dots & U_n^0 \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ U_0^m & \dots & U_n^m \end{bmatrix}$$

### Testing results: Linear Advection Equation

We now generate data set with FDM and test the accuracy of the regression algorithm.

#### The advection equation

The advection equation is a hyperbolic equation that represents how a scalar quantity u (such as temperature, concentration, etc.) is transported by a fluid moving with a constant velocity c in a single spatial dimension. For our example we set c=1 and use Gaussian initial condition and periodic boundary condition.

$$u_t(x,t) = -cu_x(x,t), \quad x \in [-L/2,L/2], t \in [0,T]$$
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$$u(x,0) = \exp(-x^2)$$
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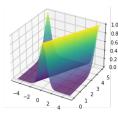
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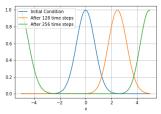
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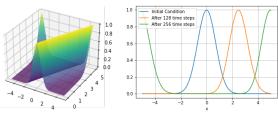
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The simulation results of  $u_t = -u_x$  from Crank-Nicholson is given by the figure below.



The PDE discovered by the data-driven method from this dataset is  $u_t = -0.999448 u_x$ .

# Testing results: Diffusion Equation

### The Diffusion Equation

The diffusion equation, also known as the 1D heat equation, describes how heat u (or similar diffusive scalar quantity) is distributed over time in a one dimensional system. The heat equation deals with the spreading or dissipation of heat due to diffusion.

$$u_t = du_{xx}, \quad x \in [-L/2, L/2], t \in [0, T].$$
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For our example we set d=0.1 and apply the same Gaussian initial condition and periodic boundary condition.

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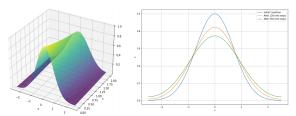
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The simulation results of  $u_t = 0.1u_{xx}$  from Crank-Nicholson is given by below.



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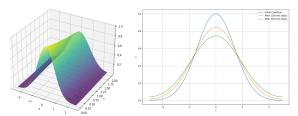
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The simulation results of  $u_t = 0.1u_{xx}$  from Crank-Nicholson is given by below.



The PDE discovered by data-driven method from this dataset is  $u_t = 0.100003 u_{xx}$ .

# Testing Results: Burger's Equation

### Burger's Equation

**Burgers' equation** is a fundamental PDE from the field of fluid mechanics and can be used for studying shock waves. The equation is given by

$$u_t = -uu_x + \nu u_{xx}, \quad x \in [-L/2, L/2], t \in [0, T],$$
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where u represents speed in a fluid flow context, and  $\nu$  is viscosity.

### Testing Results: Burger's Equation

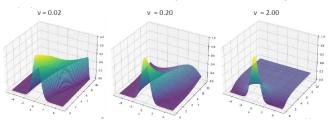
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The simulation results of  $u_t = -uu_x + \nu u_{xx}$  by Crank-Nicholson are given below



$\nu$	Discovered PDE
0.02	$u_t = -1.06uu_x + 0.29u^2u_x - 0.26u^3u_x + 0.02u_{xx}$
0.20	$u_t = -uu_x + 0.20u_{xx}$
2.00	$u_t = 0.04u - 0.30u^2 - 0.46u^3 + \dots$

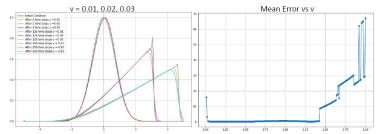
### Effect of Smoothness

Previous results show that our method appears to only work for a certain range of viscosity  $\nu$ . We tested the method on  $\nu=0.01,0.02,\ldots,2.00$  to investigate the cut-off points.

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٧	PDE	Mean parameter error	Std. of parameter error
0.01	u_t = (0.050140 +0.000000i)u + (-0.163713 +0.000000i)u^2 + (0.100025 +0.000000i)u^3 +	16.009310%	14.174193%
0.02	u_t = (-1.057625 +0.000000i)uu_{x} + (0.283156 +0.000000i)u^2u_{x} +	3.319493%	2.442960%
0.03	u_t = (-0.995775 +0.000000i)uu_{x} + (0.029581 +0.000000i)u_{xx}	0.420690%	0.001847%
0.04	u_t = (-0.997450 +0.000000i)uu_{x} + (0.039687 +0.000000i)u_{xx}	0.283914%	0.028941%
1.41	u_t = (-0.995066 +0.000000i)uu_{x} + (1.409464 +0.000000i)u_{xx}	0.514596%	0.021155%
1.42	u_t = (-0.994757 +0.000000i)uu_{x} + (1.419375 +0.000000i)u_{xx}	0.574683%	0.050394%
1.43	u_t = (-0.998046 +0.000000i)uu_{x} + (1.447058 +0.000000i)u_{xx} + (-0.312211 +0.000000i)uu_{xx} +	8.626920%	8.431511%
1.44	u_t = (-0.997805 +0.000000i)uu_{x} + (1.457516 +0.000000i)u_{x} + (-0.320027 +0.000000i)uu_{xx} +	8.867872%	8.648358%
1.99	u_t = (-0.034076 +0.000000i)u + (0.260786 +0.000000i)u^2 + (-0.391764 +0.000000i)u^3 +	29.460429%	16.816766%
2.00	u_t = (0.000286 +0.000000i) + (-0.039955 +0.000000i)u + (0.296344 +0.000000i)u^2 +	67.171925%	20.811909%



- $\bullet$   $\nu <$  0.02: a shock is formed, does not identify the correct terms.
- $0.02 \le \nu \le 1.42$ : retrieves the original PDE.
- $\nu \geq$  1.43: diffusing too quickly, does not reflect the dynamics, gets inaccurate results.

### Effect of Regression Type

The original paper does not test the model with LASSO and Elastic Net. To fill the blank, I modified the STRidge code to develop the algorithms STLasso and STElasticNet for further exploration.

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ν	Regression Type	Discovered PDE	Runtime (s)	Mean Error (%)	Std Er- ror(%)
2.00	Ridge	$u_t = 2.221u^2u_{xx} - 1.751u^3u_{xx} - 0.009u_{xxx} + 0.060uu_{xxx} \dots$	1.90	67.2	20.8
2.00	LASSO	$u_t = 2.047u_{xx} - 0.750uu_{xx} + 2.284u^2u_{xx} - 1.792u^3u_{xx} \dots$	37.88	29.9	17.1
2.00	Elastic Net	$u_t = 2.047u_{xx} - 0.750uu_{xx} + 2.284u^2u_{xx} - 1.792u^3u_{xx} \dots$	8.61	29.9	17.1
0.20	Ridge	$u_t = -1.00uu_x + 0.200u_{xx}$	1.2	0.1	0.1
0.20	LASSO	$u_t = -1.00uu_x + 0.200u_{xx}$	7.0	0.1	0.1
0.20	Elastic Net	$u_t = -1.00uu_x + 0.200u_{xx}$	8.9	0.1	0.1
0.02	Ridge	$u_t = -0.040u + 0.296u^2 - 0.457u^3 + 0.057u_x - 1.880uu_x + \dots$	3.0	742.9	2429.8
0.02	LASSO	$u_t = -0.035u + 0.266u^2 - 0.402u^3 - 1.128uu_x + 1.411u^2u_x \dots$	18.8	701.4	2437.6
0.02	Elastic Net	$u_t = -0.035u + 0.266u^2 - 0.402u^3 - 1.128uu_x + 1.411u^2u_x \dots$	18.7	701.4	2437.6

### Conclusion and Related Works

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- The data-driven method works well when the data is smooth and no shock waves are formed.
- Ridge regression is the most efficient compared to the other two sparse regressions, and accuracy does not seem to differ.
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- (Not included in this presentation) Accuracy suffers when a certain level of noise is introduced.

#### Related Works

- More on machine learning for PDE-discovery:
  - Brunton et al., "Discovering governing equations from data by sparse identification of nonlinear dynamical systems" (2016)
  - Baddoo et al., "Physics-informed dynamic mode decomposition" (2023)
- Physics-Informed Neural Networks (PINN) for PDE-discovery:
  - Raissi et al., "Physics-informed neural networks: A deep learning framework for solving forward and inverse problems involving nonlinear partial differential equations" (2019)
  - Chen et al., "Physics-informed learning of governing equations from scarce data" (2021)
- PDE-discovery for climate science and geophysics:
  - Lai et al., "Machine learning for climate physics and simulations" (2024)
  - Cheng and Alkhalifah, "Robust data driven discovery of a seismic wave equation" (2024)
  - Zanna and Bolton, "Data-driven equation discovery of ocean mesoscale closures", (2020)

### Reference I

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