# Neural representation for PDEs

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## Outline

Introduction

"Classical" ML and numerical methods

Neural representation in ML and numerics

How improve PINNs

Conclusion

Inverse problem and optimal control



#### Numerical Methods and implicit neural representation



### Parametric models

We consider a unknown function

$$y = f(x)$$

with  $x \in V \subset \mathbb{R}^d$  and  $y \in W \subset \mathbb{R}^p$ .

#### Objective

- □ find  $f_h \in H$  an approximation of f with H a functional space.
- Difficulty: it is a infinite dimensional problem.

#### Solutions parametric models

- □ We consider a function  $f_{\theta}$  composed of known elementary functions and *n* unknown parameters  $\theta_i$
- □ The problem becomes : find  $f_{\theta} \in H_n$  an approximation of f with  $H_n$  a finite dimensional functional space.

It is equivalent to

```
Find \theta, such that \parallel f_{\theta} - f \parallel_{H} \leq \epsilon
```

- Main Question: How determinate  $\theta$ ?
- Example in the following. We want approximate the temperature in a Room:

$$T(t,x), \quad x \in \Omega \in \mathbb{R}^3, t \in \mathbb{R}^4$$



### ML and regression

#### ML regression approach

- $\hfill\square$  We have data and we use it to construct the parametric model which approach our function  ${\cal T}$
- We assume that we known:  $\{(x_1, t_1, T_1), \dots, (x_N, t_N, T_N)\}$  such that

$$T_i = T(t_i, x_i) + \epsilon_i$$

with  $\epsilon_i$  a noise.

- To approximate the temperature function we propose to approximate correctly our data examples.
- It is equivalent to solve:

$$\min_{\theta} \sum_{i=1}^{N} d(T_i, f_{\theta}(t_i, x_i))$$

with d a distance like euclidian norm.

### Questions in ML

- Which parametric model ?
- □ Generalization for input outside of the data set (overfitting) ?
- Robustness to the noise ?
- □ How collect, process the date ?



### Models and garanties

- We consider:  $y = f(\mathbf{x})$  with  $\mathbf{x} = (x^1, ..., x^d) \in \mathbb{R}^d$
- Models:
  - Linear model:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{d} \theta_i x^i$$

Polynomial model:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \theta_i P_i(\mathbf{x})$$

Kernel model:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} \theta_i K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_i)$$



Polynomial regression of the Runge function

with  $\mathbf{x}_i$  a data and K a symmetric kernel.

- **Garanties**: For  $d = ||x y||_2^2$  the minimization problem is convex and admit a unique solution if you have sufficient number of data.
- For nonlinear models compared to the inputs more you have data and parameters more you will accurate.

### Curse of dimensionality

The number of data needed to approximate well the function grows up exponentially with the dimension d



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## Numerical methods

#### Principe of numerical methods

□ Same objective than ML: construct a parametric model approaching *T*.

no data but a strong constrain on the function: the equation

Equation for temperature evolution:

$$\begin{pmatrix} L_{t,x}u = \partial_t T - \Delta T = f(x) \\ T(t = 0, x) = T_0(x) \\ T(x) = g \text{ on } \partial \Omega \end{cases}$$

Numerical method: choose a parametric model, transform the equation/constrain on the function on a equation/constrain on the parameters.

#### Important: convergence

For numerical methods, we want that  $\| f_{\theta} - f \|_{h} \to 0$ , when ,  $n \to \infty$  with *n* the number of parameters (call degrees of freedom).

For the three next slides, i consider only a spatial problem like  $-\Delta T = f(x)$ 

#### Parametric models

□ In all the classical numerical method we choose:  $f_{\theta} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \theta_i \phi_i(x)$ □ How construct  $\phi_i$  ?



### Mesh based methods

#### Polynomial Lagrange interpolation

We consider a domain [a, b]. There exists a polynomial P of degree k such that, for any  $f \in C^0([a, b])$ ,

$$|f(x) - P(x)| \le |b - a|^k \max_{x \in [a,b]} |f^{k+1}(x)|.$$

- On small domains  $(|b a| \ll 1)$  or for large k, this polynomial gives a very good approximation of any continuous function.
- Very high degrees k can generate oscillations (like in ML).
- To obtain good approximation: we introduce a mesh and a cell-wise polynomial approximation
- Possible since contrary to ML, the domain of inputs is always well-known.

#### First step: choose a parametric function

We define a mesh by splitting the geometry in small sub-intervals  $[x_k, x_{k+1}]$ , and we propose the following candidate to approximate the PDE solution T

$$T_{\mid [x_k, x_{k+1}]}(t, x) = \sum_{j=1}^{\kappa} \theta_k^j \phi_j(x).$$

This is a piecewise polynomial representation.



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# Classical numerical methods, encoder and decoder

#### Parametric model for all numerical methods;

$$f_{\theta} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \theta_i \phi_i(x)$$

- Classical mesh based methods:
  - □ **Finite element**:  $C^p$  continuity between the cells (depend of the finite element) so  $\phi_i(x)$  piecewise polynomial.
  - □ **DG**: discontinuity between the cell so  $\phi_i(x) = p_j(x)\chi_{x \in \Omega_i}$ .
  - DG Treffz: same as DG but non-polynomial.
  - □ **Finite difference**: punctual value so  $\phi_i(x) = \delta_{x_i}(x)$  with  $x_i$  a mesh node.
- Classical mesh free methods:
  - □ **Spectral**: we use Hilbert basis so  $\phi_i(x) = sin(2\pi k_i x)$  for example (same with Hermite, Laguerre, Legendre polynomiales).
  - □ **Radial basis**: we use radial basis so for example  $\phi_i = \phi(|x x_i)$  with  $\phi$  a Gaussian or  $\frac{1}{1 + \sigma^2 x^2}$ .





## How determinate the degree of freedom

#### General method

The aim is to transform the PDE on T into a equation on  $\theta$  (DOF).

- We note  $V_{ heta} = Span \{ f_{ heta}, ext{ such that }, heta \in V \in \mathbb{R}^n \}$
- First approach: Galerkin
  - $\Box$  Rewrite the problem:

$$-\Delta T(x) = f(x), \iff \min_{T \in H} \int_{\Omega} \left( |\nabla T(x)|^2 - f(x)T(x) \right) dx$$

□ Galerkin projection:

$$\min_{T_{\theta} \in V_{\theta}} \int_{\Omega} \left( |\nabla T_{\theta}(x)|^2 - f(x) T_{\theta}(x) \right) dx$$

The problem is quadratic in  $\theta$ . The parameters which put the gradient at zero satisfy

$$\int_{\Omega} (-\Delta T_{\theta}(x) - f) \phi_i(x) = 0, \quad \forall i \in \{1, ..., n\}$$

Since we can compute exactly the derivative and numerically the integral we precompute everything (after in general a integration by part) to obtain

$$A\theta = b$$

Second approach: Least square Galerkin projection

$$\min_{\theta \in V} \int_{\Omega} |-\Delta T_{ heta} - f|^2 dx$$



### Space time methods

We use the parametric model:

$$f_{ heta} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} heta_i \phi_i(t,x)$$

- The time equation have no equivalent minimization form so we use the Least square Galerkin projection.
- In practice we compute the gradient and obtain a large system to invert since *n* is large

### Space methods

We use the parametric model:

$$f_{ heta} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} heta_i(t) \phi_i(x)$$

• We consider Least square Galerkin:

$$\min_{\theta(t) \in V} \int_{\Omega} | \partial_t T_{\theta(t)(x)} - \Delta T_{\theta(t)(x)} - f(t, x) |^2 dx$$





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### Space methods

We use the parametric model:

$$f_{ heta} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} heta_i(t) \phi_i(x)$$

• We discretize on time (here a Euler method):

$$\min_{\theta(t^{n+1})\in V} \int_{\Omega} | T_{\theta(t_{n+1})(x)} - T_{\theta(t_n)(x)} - \Delta t (\Delta T_{\theta(t)(x)} - f(t, x)) |^2 dx$$



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#### Space methods

We use the parametric model:

$$f_{ heta} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} heta_i(t) \phi_i(x)$$

• it gives a succession of Galerkin  $(L^2)$  projection on the spatial approximation space:

$$\min_{\theta(t^{n+1})\in V} \int_{\Omega} |\left(\Phi(x), \theta(t_{n+1})\right) - \left(\Phi(x), \theta(t_n)\right) - \Delta t \left(\Delta T_{\theta(t)(x)} - f(t, x)\right)|^2 dx$$

This projection are smaller an faster than in the space time methods.



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#### Space methods

We use the parametric model:

$$f_{ heta} = \sum_{i=1}^n heta_i(t) \phi_i(x)$$

Computing the gradient and  $\nabla_{\theta} J(\theta) = 0$ :

$$\left(\int_{\Omega} \Phi \otimes \Phi\right) \theta(t_{n+1}) = \left(\int_{\Omega} \Phi \otimes \Phi\right) \theta(t_n) - \Delta t \left(\int_{\Omega} \Phi(x) (\Delta T_{\theta(t)(x)} - f(t, x))\right)$$

it is the equivalent to the normal equation in infinite dimension for Least square problem.



### Garanties

#### Essential point

The space  $V_{\theta}$  is a a vectorial space. So the projector is on subspace is unique (projection on convexe subspace of Hilbert theorem). It allows to assure that the problem on parameters admit also a unique solution.

#### Convergence

The previous property coupled the approximation theorem of polynomial or Hilbert basis allows to assure that

 $\parallel f_{ heta} - f \parallel_h o 0$ , when ,  $n o \infty$ 

#### Curse of dimensionality

For mesh based approaches

$$\parallel f_{\theta} - f \parallel_{H} \leq Ch^{p}$$

with *h* characteristic size of the cells and the number of cell  $N = O(\frac{1}{h^d})$ . For that we need p polynomial by cell and direction so  $O(p^d)$  parameters by cell. There is also similar problem for mesh less methods.

### Neural representation in ML and numerics







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# Deep ML, nonlinear model and manifold

#### Key point

All the parametric models introduced for ML or numerical methods are linear compared to the parameters and gives finite dimension function vectorial space

#### Deep learning

The rupture associated to the deep learning is to use massively nonlinear compared to the parameters which gives finite dimension function manifold

#### Projection on manifold

How project on manifold ? Not uniqueness ? The convex optimisation problem are replaced by non-convex problem. So there is less guaranties on the results.



### Nonlinear models

Nonlinear version of classical models: f is represented by the DoF  $\alpha_i$ ,  $\mu_i$ ,  $\omega_i$  or  $\Sigma_i$ :

$$f(x; \alpha, \mu, \Sigma) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \alpha_i e^{(x-\mu_i)\Sigma_i^{-1}(x-\mu_i)}, \quad f(x; \alpha, \omega) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \alpha_i sin(\omega_i x)$$

Neural networks (NN).

#### Layer

A layer is a function  $L_l(\mathbf{x}_l) : \mathbb{R}^{d_l} \to \mathbb{R}^{d_{l+1}}$  given by

$$L_{I}(\mathbf{x}_{I}) = \sigma(A_{I}\mathbf{x}_{I} + \mathbf{b}_{I}),$$

 $A_l \in \mathbb{R}^{d_{l+1},d_l}$ ,  $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^{d_{l+1}}$  and  $\sigma()$  a nonlinear function applied component by component.

#### Neural network

A neural network is parametric function obtained by composition of layers:

$$f_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) = L_n \circ \ldots \circ L_1(\mathbf{x})$$

with  $\theta$  the trainable parameters composed of all the matrices  $A_{l,l+1}$  and biases  $\mathbf{b}_l$ .

- **Go to nonlinear models**: would allows to use less parameters and data.
- Go to nonlinear models allows to use NN which are: accurate global model, low frequency (better for generalization) and able to deal with large dimension.



- We compare over-parametrized NN and polynomial regression on the Runge function.
- **Regression**: 120 data and approximately 800 parameters in each model.



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• The polynomial model tends to oscillate in the over parameterized regime. Problematic for overfitting.



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- The ANN generates very smooth/low frequency approximations.
- It is related to the spectral bias. The low frequencies are learned before the high frequencies.

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Seems very helpful to use it for global and high dimensional representation.



#### Neural methods

The PINNs and Neural Galerkin approaches use exactly the same strategy than classical numerical methods but project on manifold associated to nonlinear parametric models compared to the parameters

### Idea of PINNs

For u in some function space  $\mathcal{H}$ , we wish to solve the following PDE:

$$\partial_t u = \mathcal{F}(u, \nabla u, \Delta u) = F(u).$$

Classical representation for space-time approach:  $u(t, x) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \theta_i \phi_i(x, t)$ 

Deep representation:  $u(t, x) = u_{nn}(x, t; \theta)$  with  $u_{nn}$  a NN with trainable parameters  $\theta$ .

#### Which projection

Galerkin projection is just valid for elliptic equations with energetic form.

• More general: Least square Galerkin. We minimize the least square residue of the restricted to the manifold associated by our chosen neural architecture.



### Space-time approach: PINNs II

• We define the residual of the PDE:

 $R(t,x) = \partial_t u_{nn}(t,x;\theta) - \mathcal{F}(u_{nn}(t,x;\theta),\partial_x u_{nn}(t,x;\theta),\partial_{xx} u_{nn}(t,x;\theta))$ 

To learn the parameters  $\theta$  in  $u_{nn}(t, x; \theta)$ , we minimize:

$$\theta = \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{\theta} \Big( J_r(\theta) + J_b(\theta) + J_i(\theta) \Big),$$

with

$$J_r(\theta) = \int_0^T \int_{\Omega} |R(t,x)|^2 dx dt$$

and

$$J_b(\theta) = \int_0^T \int_{\partial\Omega} \|u_{nn}(t,x;\theta) - g(x)\|_2^2 dx dt, \quad J_i(\theta) = \int_\Omega \|u_{nn}(0,x;\theta) - u_0(x)\|_2^2 dx.$$

If these residuals are all equal to zero, then  $u_{nn}(t, x; \theta)$  is a solution of the PDE.

- To complete the determination of the method, we need a way to compute the integrals. In practice we use Monte Carlo.
- Important point: the derivatives are computed exactly using automatic differentiation tools and back propagation. Valid for any decoder proposed.



### Space-time approach: PINNs II

• We define the residual of the PDE:

 $R(t,x) = \partial_t u_{nn}(t,x;\theta) - \mathcal{F}(u_{nn}(t,x;\theta),\partial_x u_{nn}(t,x;\theta),\partial_{xx} u_{nn}(t,x;\theta))$ 

To learn the parameters  $\theta$  in  $u_{nn}(t, x; \theta)$ , we minimize:

$$\theta = \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{\theta} \left( J_r(\theta) + J_b(\theta) + J_i(\theta) \right),$$

with

$$J_r(\theta) = \sum_{n=1}^N \sum_{i=1}^N |R(t_n, x_i)|^2$$

with  $(t_n, x_i)$  sampled uniformly or through importance sampling, and

$$J_b(\theta) = \sum_{n=1}^{N_b} \sum_{i=1}^{N_b} |u_{nn}(t_n, x_i; \theta) - g(x_i)|^2, \quad J_i(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{N_i} |u_{nn}(0, x_i; \theta) - u_0(x_i)|^2.$$

If these residuals are all equal to zero, then  $u_{nn}(t, x; \theta)$  is a solution of the PDE.

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## PINNs for parametric PDEs

- Advantages of PINNs: mesh-less approach, not too sensitive to the dimension.
- Drawbacks of PINNs: they are often not competitive with classical methods.
- Interesting possibility: use the strengths of PINNs to solve PDEs parameterized by some μ.
- The neural network becomes  $u_{nn}(t, x, \mu; \theta)$ .

### New Optimization problem for PINNs

$$\min_{\theta} J_r(\theta) + \dots, , \quad \text{with}$$

$$J_r(\theta) = \int_{V_{\mu}} \int_0^T \int_{\Omega} \left\| \partial_t u_{nn} - \mathcal{L} \left( u_{nn}(t, x, \mu), \partial_x u_{nn}(t, x, \mu), \partial_{\infty} u_{nn}(t, x, \mu) \right) \right\|_2^2 dx dt$$

with  $V_{\mu}$  a subspace of the parameters  $\mu$ .

Application to the Burgers equations with many viscosities  $[10^{-2}, 10^{-4}]$ :



Training for  $\mu = 10^{-4}$ : 2h. Training for the full viscosity subset: 2h.



### Spatial approach: Neural Galerkin I

We solve the following PDE:

$$\partial_t u = \mathcal{F}(u, \nabla u, \Delta u) = F(u).$$

- Classical representation:  $u(t, x) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \theta_i(t) \phi_i(x)$
- Deep representation:  $u(t, x) = u_{nn}(x; \theta(t))$  with  $u_{nn}$  a neural network, with parameters  $\theta(t)$ , taking x as input.
- We use the same strategy as before: we begin with Lest square Galerkin Projection

$$\min_{\theta(t)\in\mathbb{R}^n}\int_{\Omega}|\partial_t u_{nn}(x;\theta(t))-F(u_{nn}(x;\theta(t)))|^2 dx$$

We discretize in time

$$\min_{\theta(t_{n+1})\in\mathbb{R}^n}\int_{\Omega}\mid u_{nn}(x;\theta(t_{n+1}))-u_{nn}(x;\theta(t_n))-\Delta tF(u_{nn}(x;\theta(t)))\mid^2 dx$$

- Here we solve a succession of nonlinear optimization problems (similar to linear case). Since we initialize  $\theta(t_{n+1})$  with  $\theta(t_n)$  and the weights evolve slowly these optimization problems are fast to solve.
- We speak about "Discrete time PINN".



## Spatial approach: Neural Galerkin II

Variant: Neural galerkin. We linearize:

$$u_{nn}(x;\theta(t_{n+1})) \approx u_{nn}(x;\theta(t_n)) + (\theta_{t_{n+1}} - \theta_{t_n}) \nabla_{\theta} u_{nn}(x;\theta(t_n))$$

So we have

$$\min_{\theta(t_{n+1})\in\mathbb{R}^n}\int_{\Omega}|\nabla_{\theta}u_{nn}(x;\theta)\theta_{t_{n+1}}-\nabla_{\theta}u_{nn}(x;\theta)\theta_{t_n}-\Delta tF(u_{nn}(x;\theta(t)))|^2 dx$$

Since the problem is quadratic in  $\theta(t_{n+1})$  we can compute the solution which is given by

$$M(\theta(t_n))\theta_{t_{n+1}} = M(\theta(t_n))\theta_{t_n} - \Delta t f(\theta(t_n))$$

with

$$M(\theta(t)) = \int_{\Omega} \nabla_{\theta} u_{nn}(x;\theta) \otimes \nabla_{\theta} u_{nn}(x;\theta) dx, \quad f(,\theta(t)) = \int_{\Omega} \nabla_{\theta} u_{nn}(x;\theta) F(u_{nn}(x;\theta)) dx.$$

• How to estimate  $M(\theta(t))$  and  $F(x, \theta(t))$ ?

**Firstly**: we need to differentiate the network with respect to  $\theta$  and to x (in the function *F*). This can easily be done with automatic differentiation.

- Secondly: How to compute the integrals? Monte Carlo approach.
- So, we use (same for  $f(\theta(t))$ ):

$$M(\theta(t)) \approx \sum_{i=1}^{N} \nabla_{\theta} u_{nn}(x_i; \theta) \otimes \nabla_{\theta} u_{nn}(x_i; \theta)$$

 Like in the case of PINNs, we can apply this framework to parametric PDEs and larger dimensions.



# Spatial approach: Neural Galerkin III

- We solve the advection-diffusion equation  $\partial_t \rho + \mathbf{a} \cdot \nabla \rho = D\Delta \rho$  with a Gaussian function as initial condition.
- Case 1: with a neural network (2200 DOF)



5 minutes on CPU, MSE error around 0.0045.



# Spatial approach: Neural Galerkin III

- We solve the advection-diffusion equation  $\partial_t \rho + \mathbf{a} \cdot \nabla \rho = D\Delta \rho$  with a Gaussian function as initial condition.
- Case 2: with a Gaussian mixture (one Gaussian):



5 sec on CPU. MSE around  $1.0^{-6}$ . Decoder perfect to represent this test case.

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### Convergence ?

- I solve a 2D laplacian with 5 layers neural network and increase the size (685 weights the smaller 26300 weights the larger).
- Two learning rates:



- The behavior of the error when we increase" the number of weights is complex".
- Sensitivity to the dimension. We use a network of 960 parameters for 1D/2D laplacian:

$$| u_{1D} |_{L^{\infty}} = 1.4e^{-4}, | u_{2D} |_{L^{\infty}} = 3e^{-4}$$



How improve PINNs







# How go complex geometry ? mapping

- Claim on PINNs: no mesh, so easy to go to complex geometries.
- In practice: No so easy. We need to find how sample in the geometry.
- First approach:
  - □ We are able to sample easily: quadrilateral, ellipse, cylinder etc
  - □ Using union/soustraction/intersection we can sample more complex domains.
- Second approach: mapping
  - $\hfill\square$  We consider a simple domain  $\Omega_0$  and the target domain  $\Omega$
  - $\Box$  We assume that  $\Omega = \phi(\Omega_0)$
  - $\Box$  We sample in  $\Omega_0$  and apply  $\phi$  to the points sampled.



prediction, parameters =



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### How go complex geometry ? level-set

• We define the model by a level set  $\phi(x)$  which satisfy

$$\phi(x) = 0, x \in \partial\Omega, \quad \phi(x) < 0, x \in \Omega, \quad \phi(x) > 0, x \in \mathbb{R}^n/\Omega,$$

Sample is easy in this case. Allow to impose in hard the BC (example for Dirichlet):

$$u_{\theta}(x) = u_{nn,\theta}(x)\phi(x) + g(x)$$

How construct  $\phi$ ? Classic level set: the signed distance function.



Left: exact distance function, right: smooth levelset.



#### Remark on levelset

The exact distance function is a  $C^0$  non  $C^1$  function. The derivates explode. If we impose the BC using the Distance function the network must compensate the singularity. For the BC we need regular level set.

- How construct smooth signed distance function ?
  - □ **First solution**: Approximation theory (*Exact imposition of boundary conditions* with distance functions in physics-informed deep neural networks).
  - $\Box \Delta u$  can be singular at the boundary. Sampling at  $\epsilon$  to the BC solve the problem.



Second solution: learn the signed distance function. How make that ? with a PINNs.



#### Signed Distance function

If we have a boundary domain  $\Gamma,$  the SDF is solution to the Eikonal equation:

$$|\nabla \phi(x)| = 1, \quad x \in [0, 1]^{c}$$
  
$$\phi(x) = 0, \quad x \in \Gamma$$
  
$$(\nabla \phi(x), \mathbf{n}) = 0, \quad x \in \Gamma$$

In practice we solve the Eikonal equation with PINNs

To obtain a smooth SDF (important to impose strongly the BC) we add a penalization:



$$L_{penalize}( heta) = \lambda \mid \partial_{xx} \phi(x) \mid^2$$



### Signed Distance function

If we have a boundary domain  $\Gamma,$  the SDF is solution to the Eikonal equation:

$$\begin{array}{l} \mid \nabla\phi(x) \mid = 1, \quad x \in [0, 1]^c \\ \phi(x) = 0, \quad x \in \Gamma \\ (\nabla\phi(x), \mathbf{n}) = 0, \quad x \in \Gamma \end{array}$$

- In practice we solve the Eikonal equation with PINNs
- To obtain a smooth SDF (important to impose strongly the BC) we add a penalization:



$$L_{penalize}( heta) = \lambda \mid \partial_{xx} \phi(x) \mid^2$$



We can combine the options: mapping for the big domain. Level set for the holes.



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### NTK

- How study the learning dynamic and discover training bias: NTK theory.
- We call  $\mathcal{L}(\theta)$  the loss and  $f_{\theta}(x)$  the model. Continuous gradient descent:

$$\frac{d\theta(t)}{dt} = -\nabla_{\theta}\mathcal{L}(\theta) = -\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N} (\nabla_{\theta}f_{\theta}(x_i))(\nabla_{f_{\theta}}I(f_{\theta}(x_i), y_i))$$

• We multiply by  $\nabla_{\theta} f_{\theta}(x)$ 

$$\frac{df_{\theta(t)}(x)}{dt} = -\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathcal{K}(x, x_i)(\nabla_{f_{\theta}} l(f_{\theta}(x_i), y_i))$$

with  $K_{\theta(t)}(x, y) = (\nabla_{\theta} f_{\theta}(x))^{T} (\nabla_{\theta} f_{\theta}(y)).$ 

#### Theorem

In the limit n the number of neurons tends to infinity We have:

 $\Box \ K_{\theta(0)}(x, y) \text{ deterministic at initialization, only determined by the model architecture}$  $\Box \ K_{\theta(t)}(x, y) = K_{\theta(0)}(x, y)$ 

So we have:

$$f_{\theta(t)}(X) = (f_{\theta(0)}(X) - Y)e^{-\eta K_0(X,\bar{X})}$$

with X the evaluation points and  $\bar{X}$  the training points,  $\eta$  the learning rates.

Study  $K_0(X, \bar{X})$  allows to understand the bias and fails of PINNs. For example some trouble arrive when a loss decay really faster than another.



# Spectral biais ans high frequencies

### Spectral bias

Using NTK we can study the **Spectral bias of MLP**. the MLP learn firstly the low frequencies and after the high frequencies (with difficulty)

Classic MLP with Sinus activation function (to help). We solve  $-\Delta u = 128 \sin(8\pi x) \sin(8\pi y)$ 



To solve this problem for PINNs we add Fourier features. We replace

 $NN_{\theta}(x)$ , by  $NN_{\theta}(x, \sin(2\pi k_1 x), \dots, \sin(2\pi k_n x))$ 

with  $(k_1, \dots, k_n)$  trainable parameters.



## Spectral biais ans high frequencies II



• Other interesting subjects: adaptive sampling, loss balancing (to avoid bais) etc

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## Spectral biais ans high frequencies II



• Other interesting subjects: adaptive sampling, loss balancing (to avoid bais) etc

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### Inverse problem and optimal control







# Shape optimization I

- Since the PINNs use a minimization framework it will be easy to solve without large modification control optimal and inverse problems.
- Example: shape optimization.
- We introduce the energy associated to the Laplace problem for one domain:

$$E(\Omega) = \inf_{u \in H_0^1} \frac{1}{2} \left( \int_{\Omega} |\nabla u(x)|^2 - f(x)u(x) dx \right)$$

A classical problem is to find the domain Ω which minimize this energy with a constrains volume :

$$\Omega^* = \inf_{\Omega, |\Omega| = V_0} E(\Omega)$$

#### Classical approach

Gradient method: we define a form gradient, we solve adjoint problem for that. Each change of domain needs a remeshing step. It is costly and non trivial.



## Shape optimization II

### Pinns approach

- We parametrize the PDE solution by a neural network  $u_{\theta}(x)$ ,
- We consider a initial form Ω<sub>0</sub>,
- We parametrize a mapping  $m_{\phi}(x)$  such that  $\Omega = m_{\phi}(\Omega_0)$ .
- We solve:

$$\min_{\theta,\phi} \frac{1}{2} \left( \int_{m_{\phi}(\Omega_0)} |\nabla u_{\theta}(x)|^2 - f(x)u_{\theta}(x)dx \right)$$

The integral is approximated with Monte Carlo approach. In practice we solve

$$\min_{\theta,\phi} \frac{1}{2} \left( \int_{\Omega_0} |\nabla(m_\phi(u_\theta(x)))|^2 - m_\phi(f(x))m_\phi(u_\theta(x))dx \right)$$

 There exist specific neural network called Sympnet which generate Symplectomorphism.

#### Idea

In  $\mathbb{R}^2$  the symplectomorphism preserve the volume. So we propose to use a SympNet for  $m_{\phi}$ .



# Shape optimization III

PINNs on ellipse with hole.



Learn mapping between shape:





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# Shape optimization IV

Shape optimization with different sources



Fig. 10



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The initial shape is not a circle.



Conclusion







## Conclusion

#### Short conclusion

- The PINNs and the Neural Galerkin can be view as a classical space time and space Galerkin approximation method where we project on a finite dimensional manifold (PINNs) or in the tangent space to the manifold (Neural Galerkin).
- We hope reduced significantly the number of parameters using manifolds. The neural networks seems good candidate for than in large dimensional input case.

#### Scimba

Innia

All the experiments of the talk have been realized with our library Scimba





### Main references

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