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Preliminar Results Using Physics-Informed Neural Networks for Solving Forward and Inverse Problems in Solid and Fluid Mechanics

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Background

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- Since the late 90s researchers have been studying how to solve PDEs using neural networks
- Scientific machine learning has become a buzzing area of research since 2018
- PINNs are first introduced in the paper *Physics-Informed Neural Networks: A deep learning framework for solving forward and inverse problems involving partial differential equations* published in the *Journal of Computational Physics*

• Authors:

- Dr. George Karniadakis, Brown University
- Dr. Maziar Raissi, Colorado University, Boulder
- Dr. Paris Perdiakaris of the University of Pennsylvania
- This paper inspired me to research PINNs and their application to problems that arise in solid and fluid mechanics, particularly for parameter estimation



Why PINNs?

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- Provide an easy-to-use framework to solve forward and inverse problems successfully, with impressive degrees of accuracy
- Meshless method
- Research on PINNs is in high demand
- Purpose are to "solve supervised learning tasks while respecting any given law of physics described by a general nonlinear partial differential equation" (Karniadakis et al.)



Project Proposal

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- Preliminar Results

- Investigate PINNs and their ability to solve forward and inverse problems in solid and fluid mechanics
- Compare to classical numerical methods
- Three types of equations:
 - Euler equations [1] for an incompressible and compressible fluid in 1/2-D Fluid Mechanics
 - Navier-Stokes Equations [1] for a compressible fluid in $1/2\mbox{-}D\xspace$ Fluid Mechanics
 - Plane stress linear elasticity boundary value problem [2] in 3-D (nonlinear if there is time) Solid Mechanics



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PINNs Algorithm

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- The PINNs algorithm stems from the Deep Galerkin Method (Sirignano et al., 2018).
- Difference between the two is that PINNs have incorporated inversion capabilities where DGM has not

Problem Statement

Consider a general nonlinear PDE:

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + \mathcal{L}(u, a) = 0, & (x, t) \in \Omega \times \mathbb{R}^+ \\ u(x, t) = g(x, t), & (x, t) \in \Gamma \times \mathbb{R}^+ \\ u(x, 0) = h(x), & x \in \Omega \end{cases}$$
(1)

where \mathcal{L} is a nonlinear differential operator, $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n$, u(x, t) be the exact solution to (1), and *a* is an arbitrary physical parameter for the governing PDE.



PINNs Algorithm - Forward Problem

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Preliminar Results Generate weights θ ∈ ℝ^k and DNN, f(t, x, θ), where number of layers, neurons per layer, and activation functions for each layer are prescribed by the user

- **2** Generate random points (x_n, t_n) from $\Omega \times \mathbb{R}^+$, (z_n, τ_n) from $\Gamma \times \mathbb{R}^+$, and w_n from Ω , according to respective probability densities ν_1, ν_2 , and ν_3
- 3 Calculate the squared error $G(\theta_n, s_n)$ at randomly sampled points $s_n = \{(x_n, t_n), (z_n, \tau_n), w_n\}$ where:

$$G(\theta_n, s_n) = \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial t}(x_n, t_n, \theta_n) + \mathcal{L}(f(x_n, t_n, \theta_n), a)\right)^2 \\ + (f(z_n, \tau_n, \theta_n) - g(z_n, \tau_n))^2 \\ + (f(w_n, 0, \theta_n) - h(w_n))^2$$

Perform stochastic gradient decent at random points s_n :

$$\theta_{n+1} = \theta_n - \eta_n \nabla_\theta G(\theta_n, s_n)$$



PINNs - Inverse Problem

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Preliminar<u>.</u> Results

- Generate weights θ ∈ ℝ^k and DNN, f(t, x, θ), where number of layers, neurons per layer, and activation functions for each layer are prescribed by the user
- **2** Generate random points (x_n, t_n) from $\Omega \times \mathbb{R}^+$, (z_n, τ_n) from $\Gamma \times \mathbb{R}^+$, and w_n from Ω , according to respective probability densities ν_1, ν_2 , and ν_3 , and generate initial guess for the physical parameter, *a*
- 3 Calculate the squared error $G(\theta_n, s_n)$ at randomly sampled points $s_n = \{(x_n, t_n), (z_n, \tau_n), w_n\}$ where:

$$G(\theta_n, s_n) = \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial t}(x_n, t_n, \theta_n) + \mathcal{L}(f(x_n, t_n, \theta_n), a)\right)^2 \\ + (f(z_n, \tau_n, \theta_n) - g(z_n, \tau_n))^2 \\ + (f(w_n, 0, \theta_n) - h(w_n))^2 \\ + (f(x_n, t_n, \theta_n) - u(x_n, t_n))^2$$

Perform stochastic gradient decent at random points s_n :

$$\theta_{n+1} = \theta_n - \eta_n \nabla_\theta G(\theta_n, s_n)$$



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Euler Equations - Compressible Flow

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Preliminar Results Consider the Euler equations in conserved form for compressible flow:

$$\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{U}}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{F} = 0 \tag{2}$$

In 1-D the conserved variables and fluxes are represented by:

$$\boldsymbol{U} = \begin{pmatrix} \rho \\ \rho u \\ \rho E \end{pmatrix}, \ \boldsymbol{F} = \begin{pmatrix} \rho u \\ \rho u^2 + p \\ u \left(\rho E + p\right) \end{pmatrix}$$
(3)

And in 2-D

$$\boldsymbol{U} = \begin{pmatrix} \rho \\ \rho u \\ \rho v \\ \rho E \end{pmatrix}, \ \boldsymbol{F}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} \rho u \\ p + \rho u^2 \\ p + \rho uv \\ p u + \rho uE \end{pmatrix}, \ \boldsymbol{F}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} \rho v \\ p + \rho uv \\ p + \rho v^2 \\ p v + \rho vE \end{pmatrix}$$
(4)



Euler Equations - Compressible Flow

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- ρ is the density
- p is the pressure
- *u*, *v* correspond to the velocity in the *x*, *y*-directions respectively
- *E* is the total energy of the fluid.

Equation of State

Consider the equation of state based on the ideal gas-law. The equation of state relates the pressure and energy of the fluid by:

$$\boldsymbol{\rho} = (\gamma - 1) \left[\rho \boldsymbol{E} - \frac{1}{2} \rho ||\boldsymbol{u}||^2 \right], \quad \boldsymbol{u} = (\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{v})$$
(5)

where γ is the heat capacity ratio.



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- Use PINNs to solve for the physical quantities ρ, u, and p in 1-D, and additionally v in 2-D.
- We consider the shock tube problem in both dimensions.
- For the 1-D problem, we will reproduce the results from reference [1] as a starting point for the project.
- All remaining problems are original work



1-D (Mao, et all)

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$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{U}}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{F} = 0, \quad (x,t) \in (0,1) \times (0,2] \\ \left(\rho, u, \rho\right)_{t=0} = \begin{cases} (1.4, 0.1, 1.0), & 0 \le x < 0.5 \\ (1.0, 0.1, 1.0), & 0.5 \le x \le 1 \end{cases}$$
(6)

with Dirichlet boundary conditions which take the values of the initial condition at each boundary point.

2-D

$$\left(\begin{array}{c} \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{U}}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{F} = 0, \quad (x, y, t) \in (0, 1)^2 \times (0, 0.3] \\ \left(\rho, u, v, \rho\right)_{t=0} = \begin{cases} (0.5323, 1.206, 0.0, 0.3), & 0 \le x, y < 0.5 \\ (0.138, 1.206, 1.206, 0.029), & 0.5 \le x, y \le 1 \end{cases} \right)$$

with Dirichlet boundary conditions which take on the values of the initial condition at each boundary point.

We take $\gamma = 1.4$ in both problems.



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- After obtaining the PINNs solutions, we will compare them to a finite volume approximation with flux limiting [3]
- Finite Volume Method with Flux Limiting:
 - RK-2 in time
 - Lax-Friedrichs flux solver
 - Osher flux limiter
- Comparative study will measure run-time, shock capturing, and accuracy



Inverse Problem

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Preliminar<u>.</u> Results

- $\bullet\,$ The physical parameter for the Euler equations is the heat capacity ratio, $\gamma\,$
- For the inverse problem, we wish to use PINNs to obtain the original parameter $\gamma = 1.4$, based on three sets of target data and inputs to the network
- The three cases in consideration are:
 - A full analytic solution data set is used as target data, with initial and boundary conditions prescribed to the network
 - A full analytic solution data set is used as target data, with no initial and boundary conditions prescribed to the network
 - A partial analytic solution data set with 1% noise is used as target data, with initial and boundary conditions prescribed to the network



Inverse Problem

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- For each case, we will measure how well PINNs can calculate γ comparatively to the nonlinear least square method, using the Levenberg–Marquardt algorithm [4]
- The Levenberg–Marquardt method is a damped nonlinear least-squares algorithm
- MATLABs built-in function *fmincon()* provides a framework for solving NLS problems using the Levenberg–Marquardt algorithm



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Preliminary Results An incompressible fluid is a fluid whose density remains constant as pressure changes. Hence each derivative of ρ in (2) will be zero. This results in Euler equations for incompressible flow to be of the form:

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{u}}{\partial t} + (\boldsymbol{u} \cdot \nabla) \boldsymbol{u} & + \frac{\nabla \rho}{\rho} = 0\\ \nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{u} = 0 \end{cases}$$
(7)

- Define the density to be $\rho=1g/cm^3,$ which corresponds to the density of water
- Solve for the physical quantities *u* and *p* in 1-D, as well as for *v* in 2-D.
- Prescribe continuous initial conditions and Neumann boundary conditions.



1-D

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$$\begin{array}{l} \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + (u \cdot \nabla)u + \frac{\nabla p}{\rho} = 0, \quad \nabla \cdot u = 0, \ (x, t) \in (0, \pi) \times (0, 1] \\ u(x, 0) = 1.0 - 0.25 \sin(4\pi x) - 0.25 \sin(8\pi x), \quad x \in (0, \pi) \\ p(x, 0) = 1.0, \quad x \in (0, \pi) \\ \frac{\partial u}{\partial \nu} = \frac{\partial p}{\partial \nu} = 0, \quad t \in (0, 1] \end{array}$$

2-D

$$\begin{array}{l} \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + (\boldsymbol{u} \cdot \nabla) \boldsymbol{u} + \frac{\nabla p}{\rho} = 0, \quad \nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{u} = 0, \quad (x, y, t) \in (0, \pi)^2 \times (0, 1] \\ u_{t=0} = 1.0 - 0.25 \sin(4\pi x) - 0.25 \sin(8\pi x), x \in (0, \pi) \\ v_{t=0} = 1.0 - 0.25 \cos(4\pi y) - 0.25 \cos(8\pi y), \quad y \in (0, \pi) \\ p_{t=0} = 1.0, \quad (x, y) \in (0, \pi)^2 \\ \frac{\partial u}{\partial \nu} = \frac{\partial p}{\partial \nu} = 0, \quad t \in (0, 1] \end{array}$$

• A similar framework is used for that of compressible flow



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Consider the Navier-Stokes equations for compressible flow:

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$$\rho \boldsymbol{u}_{t} + \rho \boldsymbol{u} \cdot \nabla \boldsymbol{u} - \mu \nabla^{2} \boldsymbol{u} - (\lambda + \mu) \nabla \nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{u} + \nabla \boldsymbol{p} = 0$$

$$\rho_{t} + \nabla \cdot (\rho \boldsymbol{u}) = 0$$
(8)

- $\boldsymbol{u} = u$ in 1-D and $\boldsymbol{u} = (u, v)$ in 2-D, is the velocity in the x, y direction respectively
- p is the pressure
- ρ is the density
- λ is the bulk viscosity
- μ is the dynamic viscosity.

Remark: The physical parameters λ and μ are referred to as the Lamé parameters.



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- In 1-D, impose discontinuous initial conditions for each physical quantity with periodic boundary condition
- In 2-D, impose continuous initial conditions, with periodic boundary conditions.
- The bulk viscosity, $\lambda=$ 0.001, and the dynamic viscosity, $\mu=$ 0.014

1-D Hydrodynamic Sod Problem

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \rho u_t + \rho u \cdot \nabla u - \mu \nabla^2 u - (\lambda + \mu) \nabla \nabla \cdot u + \nabla p = 0, \quad \in (0, 1) \times (0, 0.2] \\ \rho_t + \nabla \cdot (\rho u) = 0, \quad (x, t) \in (0, 1) \times (0, 0.2] \\ \left(\rho, u, p\right)_{t=0} = \begin{cases} (1.0, 0.0, 1.0), & 0 \le x < 0.5 \\ (0.125, 0.0, 0.1), & 0.5 \le x \le 1 \\ \left(\rho, u, p\right)_{x=0} = \left(\rho, u, \rho\right)_{x=1}, \quad t \in (0, 0.2) \end{cases} \right.$$

- Finite Volume Method with Flux Limiting (1-D):
 - RK-3 in time
 - Lax-Friedrichs flux and second order viscous solver
 - Osher flux limiter



2-D

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$$\begin{split} \rho \boldsymbol{u}_{t} &+ \rho \boldsymbol{u} \cdot \nabla \boldsymbol{u} - \mu \nabla^{2} \boldsymbol{u} - (\lambda + \mu) \nabla \nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{u} + \nabla \boldsymbol{p} = 0, \quad (0, \pi)^{2} \times (0, 1] \\ \rho_{t} &+ \nabla \cdot (\rho \boldsymbol{u}) = 0, \quad (0, \pi)^{2} \times (0, 1] \\ \rho_{t=0} &= (1.0 - 0.25 \cos(8\pi x))(1 - 0.20 \sin(4y)), \quad (x, y) \in (0, \pi)^{2} \\ p_{t=0} &= 1.0, \quad (x, y) \in (0, \pi)^{2} \\ u_{t=0} &= 1.0 - 0.25 \sin(4\pi x) - 0.25 \sin(8\pi x), \quad x \in (0, \pi) \\ v_{t=0} &= 1.0 - 0.25 \cos(4\pi y) - 0.25 \cos(8\pi y), \quad y \in (0, \pi) \\ \left(\rho, u, p\right)_{x=0} &= \left(\rho, u, p\right)_{x=\pi}, \quad (x, t) \in (0, \pi) \times (0, 1] \\ \left(\rho, v, p\right)_{y=0} &= \left(\rho, v, p\right)_{y=\pi}, \quad (y, t) \in (0, \pi) \times (0, 1] \end{split}$$

• Finite Volume Method without Flux Limiting (2-D):

- RK-3 in time
- Lax-Friedrichs flux and second order viscous solver



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LEBVP

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- Motivation: Solid and Structural Mechanics
- The material matrix for an isotropic material in an elasticity boundary value problem consists of two parameters, *E* - Young's Modulus, and ν - Poisson Ratio.
- Let $M_{E\nu} = \frac{E}{(1+\nu)(1-2\nu)}$. Then the material matrix is defined by:

	$/1 - \nu$	0	0	0	ν	0	0	0	ν
	0	$1-2\nu$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	$1-2\nu$	0	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	0	$1 - 2\nu$	0	0	0	0	0
$C = M_{E\nu}$	ν	0	0	0	$1 - \nu$	0	0	0	ν
	0	0	0	0	0	$1-2\nu$	0	0	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	$1-2\nu$	0	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	$1-2\nu$	0
	$\setminus \nu$	0	0	0	ν	0	0	0	$1 - \nu /$

• Solve for the amount of deformation a material undergoes under prescribed body loading, *f*, and surface loading, *g*



LEBVP

• The deformation tensor is define as

$$\boldsymbol{u}=\left(u_1,u_2,u_3\right)^{T}$$

- u_i corresponds to the deformation in the x, y, and z direction, and $u_i : \mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}$.
- We solve for the deformation of a material undergoing loading by solving the equilibrium equation:

$$\begin{cases} -\nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{\sigma} = \boldsymbol{f}, & x \in \Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^3 \\ \boldsymbol{u} = \boldsymbol{0}, & x \in \Gamma_D \\ \boldsymbol{\sigma} \cdot \boldsymbol{\nu} = \boldsymbol{g}, & x \in \Gamma_N \end{cases}$$
(9)

where,

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma} = \boldsymbol{C}\boldsymbol{\epsilon}, \quad \epsilon_{ij} = \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_j} + \frac{\partial u_j}{\partial x_i} \right] + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{3} \frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_k} \frac{\partial u_j}{\partial x_k}, \quad i, j = 1, 2, 3$$

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LEBVP

Since we are considering a LEBVP, the parabolic terms vanish, hence

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$$\boldsymbol{\epsilon} = \frac{1}{2} \left[\nabla \boldsymbol{u} + \nabla \boldsymbol{u}^T \right]$$
$$= A \nabla \boldsymbol{u}$$

_	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\$	$\begin{array}{c} 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ $	$\begin{array}{c} 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ $	0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0	$\begin{array}{c} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 0 \\ 1 \\ 2 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 2 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0$	$\begin{array}{c} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 \end{array}$	0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1	$\begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} \\ \frac{\partial \mathbf{z}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} \\ \frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} \\ $
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Plane Stress

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Preliminar Results A material undergoes plane stress provided the stress vector is zero in a specific plane. Here we chose to have zero stresses in the z - direction, hence,

$$\sigma_{3j} = \sigma_{i3} = 0$$
, for $i, j = 1, 2, 3$

Then the stress tensor in the xy - direction is defined by:

 $\sigma = C_{E\nu}\epsilon$ $= \frac{E}{(1-\nu^2)} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \nu & 0 \\ \nu & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & (1-\nu)/2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \epsilon_{11} \\ \epsilon_{22} \\ \gamma_{12} \end{pmatrix}$

where
$$\gamma_{12} = \left(\frac{\partial u_1}{\partial x_2} + \frac{\partial u_2}{\partial x_1}\right)$$



- $\bullet\,$ Let the Young's Modulus, $E=35\,$ GPa, and the Poisson Ratio, $\nu=0.16\,$
- Define the body force vector to be:

$$\boldsymbol{f} = \begin{pmatrix} \sin(\pi x) + \sin(2\pi y) \\ \sin^2(\pi y) \\ \sin(\pi x) \sin(2\pi y) \end{pmatrix}, \quad (x, y) \in (0, \pi)$$

• Take the surface force $\boldsymbol{g} = \boldsymbol{0}$.

LEBVP - Plane Stress

Let $\Omega = [0, \pi]^2$. Then, the LEBVP in consideration is of the form:

$$\begin{cases} -\nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{\sigma} = \boldsymbol{f}, & x \in \Omega \\ \boldsymbol{u} = \boldsymbol{0}, & x \in \Gamma_D \\ \boldsymbol{\sigma} \cdot \boldsymbol{\nu} = \boldsymbol{0}, & x \in \Gamma_N \end{cases}$$

We compare the PINNs approximated solution of *u*, *ε*, and *σ* to an finite element approximation [5] of the physical quantities.

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- MATLAB

• C++

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- DEEPXDE
- Tensorflow
- PyTorch



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Validation

To ensure a proper PINNs solution is obtained:

 Measure the relative L₂ error between the PINNs solution and an analytic solution, a classical numerical solution, or experimental data

$$\mathcal{E} = \frac{||\hat{u}_{PINNs} - u_{Exact}||_2}{||u_{Exact}||_2}$$

Universial Approximation Theorem (Cybenko, 1989)

Let $x \in I^n \equiv [0,1]^n$ and define

$$G(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{N} \alpha_j \sigma \left(y_j^{\mathsf{T}} x + \theta_j \right)$$

where $\sigma : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ is a continuous discriminatory function, $y_j \in \mathbb{R}^n$, and $\alpha_j, \theta \in \mathbb{R}$ are fixed .Then G(x) is dense in $C(I^n)$. In other words, for any $f \in C(I^n)$, and $\epsilon > 0$, there exists a finite sum of the form above, G(x), such that

$$|G(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon, \quad \forall x \in I^{r}$$

Coding Languages

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Preliminar<u>.</u> Results

- Under the assumptions of the UAT, solutions of PDEs can be approximated by neural networks
- (Mishra and Molinaro, 2020) relate number of layers, neurons per layer, and activation functions used, to obtain error estimates



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Preliminar Results

- **November 1st, 2020:** Comparative study for the Euler equations for compressible flow
- **December 15th, 2020:** Comparative study for the Euler equations for incompressible flow
- February 24th, 2021: Comparative study for the Navier-Stokes equations for compressible flow
- April 1st, 2021: Comparative study for the LEBVP
- April 20th 2021: Comparative study for the NLEBVP



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Preliminary Results

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Preliminary Results Mao et al. (2020), the authors solve a 1-D Riemann Problem for the Euler equations of a compressible fluid, of the form of the (6)

A deep neural network (DNN) with 6 layers, each layer with 40 neurons and consider two cases:

- $N_{x,t} = \{100, 100\}, N_f = 10000, N_{BC} = 50, N_{IC} = 100$
- $N_{x,t} = \{1000, 1000\}, N_f = 10000, N_{BC} = 50, N_{IC} = 1000$

We compare to FVM with flux limiting where:

- $N_{x,t} = \{100, 514\}$ • $N_{x,t} = \{1000, 5133\}$
- \bigcirc To validate each method the relative L_2 norm of each physical quantity is taken with respect to the analytic solution



PINNs Solution $-N_{x,t} = \{100, 100\}$

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Finite Volume Solution - $N_{x,t} = \{100, 514\}$

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PINNs Solution - $N_{x,t} = \{1000, 1000\}$

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Finite Volume Solution - $N_{x,t} = \{1000, 5133\}$

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Results

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Method	$PINNs_{100,100}$	$PINNs_{\{1000,1000\}}$	$FVM_{\{100,514\}}$	FVM _{1000,5133}
Papprox — Pexact 2 Pexact 2	5.0e-03	4.2e-03	1.35e-02	3.5e-03
$\frac{ u_{approx} - u_{exact} _2}{ u_{exact} _2}$	1.11e-02	5.1e-03	5.308e-04	5.335e-05
Papprox — Pexact 2 Pexact 2	3.0e-04	1.0e-04	3.649e-05	3.652e-06
СРИ	923 sec	323 secs	1.41 secs	361.63 secs



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- PINNs experience some form of dissipation much like the FVM solution, except, less points are need to capture shock
- Less points required more training, hence higher CPU, whereas more points required less training and hence smaller CPU
- FVM required more points and effort
- PINNs are easier to implement



Inverse Problem and Results

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Preliminary Results Two out of three cases for the inversion problem are presented:

- A full analytic solution data set is used as target data, with initial and boundary conditions prescribed to the network
- A full analytic solution data set is used as target data, with no initial and boundary conditions prescribed to the network

A DNN with 4 layers, each layer with 60 neurons is constructed.

- $N_{x,t} = \{1000, 100\}, N_f = 2000, N_{BC} = 100, \text{ and } N_{IC} = 1000$
- For each layer we use the tanh activation function

Method	BC/ICs Prescribed	Full Solution Dataset	γ_{exact}	γ_{approx}	CPU
PINNs	Yes	Yes	1.40	1.405	107.71 secs
PINNs	No	Yes	1.40	1.404	40.31 sec
NLS	Yes	Yes	1.40	1.410	173 secs



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- BCs/ICs and full solution data sets must be prescribed for parameter estimation using NLS
- PINNs do not require BC/ICs and full solution data prescribed to the network
- PINNs have predictive capabilities, whereas NLS does not
- NLS only obtained γ when total energy, *E*, solution data was provided, and could not approximate γ when pressure, *p*, solution data was provided



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