

RoPINN: Region Optimized Physics-Informed Neural Networks

Haixu Wu, Huakun Luo, Yuezhou Ma, Jianmin Wang, Mingsheng Long[⊠] School of Software, BNRist, Tsinghua University, China

{wuhx23,luohk19,mayz20}@mails.tsinghua.edu.cn, {jimwang,mingsheng}@tsinghua.edu.cn

Haixu Wu Huakun Luo Yuezhou Ma Jianmin Wang Mingsheng Long

Partial Differential Equations

Partial Differential Equations

Turbulence **Atmospheric circulation Atmospheric circulation** Stress

Millennium Prize Problems

- \triangleright Birch and Swinnerton-Dyer conjecture
- \triangleright Hodge conjecture
- Ø **Navier–Stokes existence and smoothness**
- Ø **P versus NP problem**
- \triangleright Riemann hypothesis
- \triangleright Yang–Mills existence and mass gap
- Ø Poincaré conjecture (Solved)

It is really hard (usually impossible) to obtain the analytic solution of PDEs

Neural PDE Solvers

Karniadakis, G. et al. Physics-informed machine learning, *Nature Review Physics* 3, 422–440 (2021)

Enforcing outputs and gradients of

deep models to satisfy target equations

Karniadakis, G. et al. Physics-informed machine learning, *Nature Review Physics* 3, 422–440 (2021)

$$
\mathcal{F}(u)(\boldsymbol{x})=0, \boldsymbol{x}\in\Omega; \ \mathcal{I}(u)(\boldsymbol{x})=0, \boldsymbol{x}\in\Omega_0; \ \mathcal{B}(u)(\boldsymbol{x})=0, \boldsymbol{x}\in\partial\Omega,
$$

$$
\mathcal{F}(u)(\boldsymbol{x})=0, \boldsymbol{x}\in\Omega; \ \mathcal{I}(u)(\boldsymbol{x})=0, \boldsymbol{x}\in\Omega_0; \ \mathcal{B}(u)(\boldsymbol{x})=0, \boldsymbol{x}\in\partial\Omega,
$$

Point Optimization (optimizing models on scattered points) **Insufficient to obtain an accurate solution for the whole domain**

Related Works: High-order regularization

$$
\mathcal{F}(u)(\boldsymbol{x}) = 0, \boldsymbol{x} \in \Omega; \ \mathcal{I}(u)(\boldsymbol{x}) = 0, \boldsymbol{x} \in \Omega_0; \ \mathcal{B}(u)(\boldsymbol{x}) = 0, \boldsymbol{x} \in \partial\Omega, \n\qquad\n\left[\n\int \text{Differential function}\n\frac{\partial^k}{\partial x_j^k} \mathcal{F}(u)(\boldsymbol{x}) = 0 \quad \implies \mathcal{L}_{k,j}^{\text{reg}}(u_{\theta}) = \frac{\lambda_{k,j}}{N_{k,j}} \sum_{i=1}^{N_{k,j}} \left\| \frac{\partial^k}{\partial x_j^k} \mathcal{F}(u_{\theta})(\boldsymbol{x}_i) \right\|^2
$$

 \checkmark Add the high-order constraints of PDEs as regularization terms to loss function

✗ Calculating high-order derivatives can be extremely time-consuming and unstable

Yu, Jeremy et al. Gradient-enhanced physics-informed neural networks for forward and inverse PDE problems, *Computer Methods in Applied Mechanics and Engineering,* 2022

Related Works: Variational formulation

$$
\mathcal{F}(u)(\boldsymbol{x}) = 0, \boldsymbol{x} \in \Omega; \ \mathcal{I}(u)(\boldsymbol{x}) = 0, \boldsymbol{x} \in \Omega_0; \ \mathcal{B}(u)(\boldsymbol{x}) = 0, \boldsymbol{x} \in \partial\Omega, \\ \bigvee \limits_{\forall \mathcal{F}(u), v \geq 0} \mathcal{S}^{elect \ test \ functions} \\ \langle \mathcal{F}(u), v \rangle_{\Omega} = 0 \\ \bigvee \limits_{\mathcal{F}^{equ}(u_{\theta}) = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{k=1}^{M} \left\| \left\langle \mathcal{F}^{(x_j)}(u_{\theta})(\boldsymbol{x}), v_k(\boldsymbol{x}) \right\rangle \right|_{\partial_{(x_j)}\Omega} - \int_{\Omega} \left\langle \mathcal{F}^{(x_j)}(u_{\theta})(\boldsymbol{x}), \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} v_k(\boldsymbol{x}) \right\rangle d\boldsymbol{x} \right\|^2
$$

 \checkmark High-order derivative operation in loss function is transferred to test functions X Integral on $Ω$ is still hard to compute, requires massive quadrature points ✗ test function selection requires extra manual effort and M times computation costs

Region Optimization V.S. Point Optimization

Point Optimization:

\n
$$
\mathcal{L}(u_{\theta}) = \frac{\lambda_{\Omega}}{N_{\Omega}} \sum_{i=1}^{N_{\Omega}} \|\mathcal{F}(u_{\theta})(x_i)\|^2 + \frac{\lambda_{\Omega_0}}{N_{\Omega_0}} \sum_{i=1}^{N_{\Omega_0}} \|\mathcal{I}(u_{\theta})(x_i)\|^2 + \frac{\lambda_{\partial \Omega}}{N_{\partial \Omega}} \sum_{i=1}^{N_{\partial \Omega}} \|\mathcal{B}(u_{\theta})(x_i)\|^2
$$
\nRegion Optimization:

\n
$$
\mathcal{L}_r^{\text{region}}(u_{\theta}, \mathcal{S}) = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{S}|} \sum_{x \in \mathcal{S}} \mathcal{L}_r^{\text{region}}(u_{\theta}, x) = \frac{1}{|\Omega_r| \times |\mathcal{S}|} \sum_{x \in \mathcal{S}} \int_{\Omega_r} \mathcal{L}(u_{\theta}, x + \xi) \mathrm{d}\xi
$$

Theoretical Analysis

 \triangleright Generalization Error in Expectation

$$
\mathcal{E}_{\text{gen}} = \left| \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{S},\mathcal{A}} \left[\mathcal{L} \left(u_{\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{S})},\Omega \right) - \mathcal{L} \left(u_{\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{S})},\mathcal{S} \right) \right] \right|
$$

 \triangleright Basic Assumption

$$
\|\mathcal{L}(u_{\theta_1}, \bm{x}) - \mathcal{L}(u_{\theta_2}, \bm{x})\| \leq L\|\theta_1 - \theta_2\|, \ \|\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(u_{\theta_1}, \bm{x}) - \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(u_{\theta_2}, \bm{x})\| \leq \beta \|\theta_1 - \theta_2\|.
$$

Theorem 3.3 (Point optimization). Suppose that the loss function L is L-Lipschitz- β -smooth for θ . If we run stochastic gradient method with step size α_t at the t-th step for T iterations, we have that: (1) If L is convex for θ and $\alpha_t \leq \frac{2}{\beta}$, then $\mathcal{E}_{gen} \leq \frac{2L^2}{|S|} \sum_{t=1}^T \alpha_t$ (proved by [13] 52]). (2) If L is bounded by a constant C for all θ , x and is non-convex for θ with monotonically nonincreasing step sizes $\alpha_t \leq \frac{1}{\beta t}$, then $\mathcal{E}_{gen} \leq \frac{C}{|S|} + \frac{2L^2(T-1)}{\beta(|S|-1)}$ (tighter bound than [13, 52]).

Theoretical Analysis: Generalization Bound

Theorem 3.5 (Region optimization). Suppose that the point optimization loss function L is L-Lipschitz and β -smooth for θ . If we run stochastic gradient method with step size α_t for T iterations based on region optimization loss $\mathcal{L}_r^{\text{region}}$ in Eq. (5), the generalization error in expectation satisfies:

(1) If L is convex for θ and $\alpha_t \leq \frac{2}{\beta}$, then $\mathcal{E}_{gen} \leq (1 - \frac{|\Omega_r|}{|\Omega|}) \frac{2L^2}{|\mathcal{S}|} \sum_{t=1}^T \alpha_t$.

(2) If L is bounded by a constant C for all θ , x and is non-convex for θ with monotonically nonincreasing step sizes $\alpha_t \leq \frac{1}{\beta t}$, then $\mathcal{E}_{gen} \leq \frac{C}{|S|} + \frac{2L^2(T-1)}{\beta(|S|-1)} - JL(\frac{|\Omega_r|}{|\Omega|})^2$, where J is a finite number that depends on the training property at the several beginning iterations.

 \triangleright Canonical Point Optimization: $\Omega_r = 0$

Cannot benefit from introducing "region"

 \triangleright Globally sampling points: $\Omega_r = \Omega$

Equivalent to directly optimizing the loss defined on Ω, generalization error will be reduced to zero.

Cannot be satisfied in practice, which requires the precise calculation of the integral of

Theoretical Analysis: High-order PDE Constraints

Corollary 3.6 (Region optimization for first-order constraints). Suppose that $\mathcal L$ is bounded by C for all θ , x and is L-Lipschitz and β -smooth for θ . If we run stochastic gradient method based on first-order j-th dimension loss function $\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \tilde{\mathcal{L}}_r^{\text{region}}$ for T iterations, the generalization error in Theorem 3.5(2) still holds when we adopt the monotonically non-increasing step size $\alpha_t \leq \frac{1}{2\beta t}$.

Introducing "region" can implicitly help training PINNs

with high-order constraints.

Example 3.7 (Point optimization fails in optimizing with first-order constraints). Under the same assumption with Corollary 3.6 we cannot obtain the Lipschitz and smoothness property of $\frac{\partial}{\partial x_j}\mathcal{L}(u_\theta, x)$. For example, suppose that $\mathcal{L}(u_\theta, x) = |\theta^\top \sqrt{x}|$, $x \in [0, 1]^{(d+1)}$, which is 1-Lipschitz-
1-smooth. H

Algorithm 1 Region Optimized PINN (RoPINN)

Input: number of iterations T, number of past iterations T_0 retained to estimate the trust region, default region size r, initial PINN parameters θ_0 and trust region calibration value $\sigma_0 = 1$. **Output:** optimized PINN parameters θ_T .

Initialize an empty buffer to record gradients as g.

for $t=0$ to T do

II Region Optimization with Monte Carlo Approximation ① Monte Carlo Approximation Sample points from neighborhood regions: $\mathcal{S}' = {\mathbf{x}_i + \boldsymbol{\xi}_i}_{i=1}^{|S|}, \mathbf{x}_i \in \mathcal{S}, \boldsymbol{\xi}_i \sim U[0, \frac{r}{\sigma_i}]^{(d+1)}$ Calculate loss function $\mathcal{L}_t = \mathcal{L}(u_{\theta_t}, \mathcal{S}')$ Update θ_t to θ_{t+1} with optimizer (Adam [20], L-BFGS [25], etc) to minimize loss function \mathcal{L}_t // Trust Region Calibration **② Trust Region Calibration**Record the gradient of parameters g_t throughout optimization Update gradient buffer g by adding g_t and keeping the latest T_0 elements Trust region calibration with $\sigma_{t+1} = ||\sigma(\mathbf{g})||$ end for

Part 1: Monte Carlo approximation

for $t=0$ to T do *Il Region Optimization with Monte Carlo Approximation* Sample points from neighborhood regions: $\mathcal{S}' = {\{\mathbf{x}_i + \boldsymbol{\xi}_i\}}_{i=1}^{|S|}, \mathbf{x}_i \in \mathcal{S}, \boldsymbol{\xi}_i \sim U[0, \frac{r}{\sigma_i}]^{(d+1)}$ Calculate loss function $\mathcal{L}_t = \mathcal{L}(u_{\theta_t}, \mathcal{S}')$ Update θ_t to θ_{t+1} with optimizer (Adam [20], L-BFGS [25], etc) to minimize loss function \mathcal{L}_t

Ø Approximate the region optimization gradient by **Monte Carlo approximation**

$$
\mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{\xi} \sim U(\Omega_r)} \left[\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(u_{\theta}, \boldsymbol{x} + \boldsymbol{\xi}) \right] = \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}^{\text{region}}_r(u_{\theta}, \boldsymbol{x})
$$

Ø This sampling-based design is also equivalent to a **high-order loss function**

$$
\mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{\xi} \sim U(\Omega_r)}\big(\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(u_{\theta}, \boldsymbol{x} + \boldsymbol{\xi})\big) = \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{\xi} \sim U(\Omega_r)}\left(\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(u_{\theta}, \boldsymbol{x}) + \nabla_{\theta}(\boldsymbol{\xi}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathcal{L}_1(u_{\theta}, \boldsymbol{x})) + \mathcal{O}(\|\boldsymbol{\xi}\|^2)\right)
$$

Important Note: This design is tailored to PINN loss, where we can precisely calculate loss at any sampled point.

Part 1: Monte Carlo approximation

for $t=0$ to T do *Il Region Optimization with Monte Carlo Approximation* Sample points from neighborhood regions: $S' = {\{\mathbf{x}_i + \boldsymbol{\xi}_i\}}_{i=1}^{|S|}, \mathbf{x}_i \in S, \boldsymbol{\xi}_i \sim U[0, \frac{r}{\sigma_i}]^{(d+1)}$ Calculate loss function $\mathcal{L}_t = \mathcal{L}(u_{\theta_t}, \mathcal{S}')$ Update θ_t to θ_{t+1} with optimizer (Adam [20], L-BFGS [25], etc) to minimize loss function \mathcal{L}_t

Ø Approximate the region optimization gradient by **Monte Carlo approximation**

$$
\mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{\xi} \sim U(\Omega_r)} \left[\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(u_{\theta}, \boldsymbol{x} + \boldsymbol{\xi}) \right] = \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}^{\mathrm{region}}_r(u_{\theta}, \boldsymbol{x})
$$

Theorem 3.8 (Convergence rate). Suppose that there exists a constant H, s.t. $\forall v$ and $\forall x \in \Omega$, $\left|\bm{v}^\mathsf{T}\nabla_\theta \mathcal{L}_r^\text{region}(u_\theta,\bm{x})\bm{v}\right| \leq H \|\bm{v}\|^2.$ If the step size $\alpha_t = \frac{1}{\sqrt{t+1}}$ decreases over time for T iterations, the region optimization based on Monte Carlo approximation will converge at the speed of

$$
\mathbb{E}\left[\left\|\nabla_{\theta}\mathcal{L}_r^{\text{region}}(u_{\theta}, \boldsymbol{x})\right\|^2\right] \leq \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{T}}\right). \tag{10}
$$

Theorem 3.9 (Gradient estimation error). The estimation error of gradient descent between Monte Carlo approximation and the original region optimization satisfies:

$$
\mathbb{E}_{\xi \sim U(\Omega_r)} \left[\left\| \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(u_{\theta}, x + \xi) - \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}_r^{\text{region}}(u_{\theta}, x) \right\|^2 \right]^{\frac{1}{2}} = \left\| \sigma_{\xi \sim U(\Omega_r)} \left(\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(u_{\theta}, x + \xi) \right) \right\|, (11)
$$
\nwhere σ represents the standard deviation of gradients in region Ω_r .
\nRegion $x + \Omega_r$
\nGradient variance within a region.

Recall Generalization error:
$$
\mathcal{E}_{gen} \leq (1 - \frac{|\Omega_r|}{|\Omega|}) \frac{2L^2}{|\mathcal{S}|} \sum_{t=1}^T \alpha_t
$$

Ø A larger region size : **better generalization** but will bring **larger gradient estimation error**.

for $t=0$ to T do // Region Optimization with Monte Carlo Approximation Sample points from neighborhood regions: $S' = \{x_i + \xi_i\}_{i=1}^{|S|}$, $x_i \in S, \xi_i \sim U[0, \frac{r}{\sigma_i}]^{(d+1)}$ Calculate loss function $\mathcal{L}_t = \mathcal{L}(u_{\theta_t}, \mathcal{S}')$ Update θ_t to θ_{t+1} with optimizer (Adam [20], L-BFGS [25], etc) to minimize loss function \mathcal{L}_t // Trust Region Calibration Record the gradient of parameters g_t throughout optimization Update gradient buffer g by adding g_t and keeping the latest T_0 elements Trust region calibration with $\sigma_{t+1} = ||\sigma(\mathbf{g})||$ end for **Adjust region size according to the gradient** $r \propto \frac{1}{\left\|\sigma_{\boldsymbol{\xi} \sim U(\Omega_r)}\left(\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(u_{\theta}, \boldsymbol{x} + \boldsymbol{\xi})\right)\right\|}$ **variance among successive iterations.**

 \checkmark Similar ideas are widely used in deep learning optimizers, such as Adam and AdaGrad, which adopt multi-iteration statistics as the momentum of gradient descent.

for $t=0$ to T do // Region Optimization with Monte Carlo Approximation Sample points from neighborhood regions: $S' = \{x_i + \xi_i\}_{i=1}^{|S|}$, $x_i \in S, \xi_i \sim U[0, \frac{r}{\sigma_i}]^{(d+1)}$ Calculate loss function $\mathcal{L}_t = \mathcal{L}(u_{\theta_t}, \mathcal{S}')$ Update θ_t to θ_{t+1} with optimizer (Adam [20], L-BFGS [25], etc) to minimize loss function \mathcal{L}_t // Trust Region Calibration Record the gradient of parameters g_t throughout optimization Update gradient buffer g by adding g_t and keeping the latest T_0 elements Trust region calibration with $\sigma_{t+1} = ||\sigma(\mathbf{g})||$ end for **Adjust region size according to the gradient** $r \propto \frac{1}{\left\|\sigma_{\boldsymbol{\xi} \sim U(\Omega_r)}\left(\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(u_{\theta}, \boldsymbol{x} + \boldsymbol{\xi})\right)\right\|}$ **variance among successive iterations.**

 \checkmark The gradient of each iteration can be effectively obtained by retrieving the computation graph. **RoPINN has no extra gradient or backpropagation calculation w.r.t. point optimization.**

for $t=0$ to T do *Il Region Optimization with Monte Carlo Approximation* Sample points from neighborhood regions: $S' = \{x_i + \xi_i\}_{i=1}^{|S|}$, $x_i \in S, \xi_i \sim U[0, \frac{r}{\sigma_i}]^{(d+1)}$ Calculate loss function $\mathcal{L}_t = \mathcal{L}(u_{\theta_t}, \mathcal{S}')$ Update θ_t to θ_{t+1} with optimizer (Adam [20], L-BFGS [25], etc) to minimize loss function \mathcal{L}_t // Trust Region Calibration Record the gradient of parameters g_t throughout optimization Update gradient buffer g by adding g_t and keeping the latest T_0 elements Trust region calibration with $\sigma_{t+1} = ||\sigma(\mathbf{g})||$ end for

Theorem 3.11 (Trust region multi-iteration approximation). Suppose that loss function $\mathcal L$ is L-Lipschitz and β -smooth for θ and the learning rate $\alpha_t \leq \frac{1}{\beta L}$ converges to zero over time t, then the estimation error can be approximated by the variance of optimization gradients in multiple successive iterations. Given hyperparameter T_0 , our multi-iteration approximation is guaranteed by

$$
\lim_{t\to\infty}\sigma\left(\left\{\nabla_{\theta}\mathcal{L}(u_{\theta_{t-i+1}},\boldsymbol{z}_i)\right\}_{i=1}^{T_0}\right)=\sigma\left(\left\{\nabla_{\theta}\mathcal{L}(u_{\theta_t},\boldsymbol{z}_i)\right\}_{i=1}^{T_0}\right).
$$
\n(14)

Theoretical Analysis

Theorem 3.12 (Region Optimization with gradient estimation error). Based on the same assumption in Theorem $\overline{3.5}$ but optimize the model with the approximated region optimization loss $\mathcal{L}_r^{\text{approx}}(u_\theta,\bm{x}) = \nabla_\theta \mathcal{L}(u_\theta,\bm{x}+\bm{\xi}), \bm{\xi} \sim U(\Omega_r)$ for T iterations, we further denote the upper bound of gradient estimation error as $\mathcal{E}_{r,\text{grad}} = \max_{t \leq T} ||\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}_r^{\text{approx}} - \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}_r^{\text{region}}||$, then \mathcal{E}_{gen} satisfies: (1) If L is convex for θ and $\alpha_t \leq \frac{2}{\beta}$, $\mathcal{E}_{gen} \leq \left(\frac{(1-|\Omega_r|/|\Omega|)L}{i^{3/2}} + \frac{\mathcal{E}_{r,grad}}{\mathcal{E}_{r,grad}}\right) \frac{2L}{|\mathcal{S}|} \sum_{t=1}^T \alpha_t$. (2) If L is bounded by a constant C and is non-convex for θ with monotonically non-increasing step sizes $\alpha_t \leq \frac{1}{\beta t}$, then $\mathcal{E}_{gen} \leq \frac{C}{|S|} + \frac{2L^2(T-1)}{\beta(|S|-1)} \frac{-J'L(|\Omega_r|/|\Omega|)^2}{\text{inversely proportional to } |\Omega_r|} + \frac{J'\mathcal{E}_{r, grad}(1+|\Omega_r|/|\Omega|)}{\text{generally } \propto |\Omega_r|}$ where J' is a finite number that depends on the training property at the several beginning iterations.

 \triangleright Canonical point optimization ($\Omega_r = 0$) and globally sampling points ($\Omega_r = \Omega$) are fixed special cases.

RoPINN can adaptively balance optimization and generalization during training.

Intuitive Understanding

Point optimization: calculate gradient on the

fixed collocation point in all iterations

RoPINN: Approximate the region gradient by accumulating gradients from multiple iterations

Table 1: Summary of benchmarks. *Dimension* means the input space and *Derivative* is the highest derivative order.

Table 4: Details of datasets in PINNacle [12] (16 different PDEs included in our experiments), including the dimension of inputs, highest order of PDEs, number of train/test points and concrete equations. Here we only present the simplified PDE formalizations for intuitive understanding. More detailed descriptions of PDE type and coefficient meanings can be found in their paper $[12]$.

Ø Five base models: PINN, FLS, QRes, PINNsFormer, KAN

Ø 19 different PDE solving tasks: 1D-Reaction, 1D-Wave, Convection and PINNacle

Main Results

 \triangleright Two typical baselines:

gPINN (high-order regularization) vPINN (variational formalization)

ü **RoPINN consistently boost all five PINN base models in all 19 PDEs.**

ü **RoPINN helps mitigate the "PINN**

failure modes" (see results of 1D-Reaction and Convection).

Main Results

Table 3: Adding RoPINN to other strategies based on PINN. Time is for every 10^2 training iterations on 1D-Reaction.

Other two PINN training strategies:

- \triangleright NTK (loss-reweighting)
- \triangleright RAR (data-sampling)

RoPINN can be integrated seamlessly with other strategies without extra gradient calculation, which verifies its orthogonal contribution and favorable efficiency.

Algorithm Analysis: Region Size

Figure 2: Optimization of canonical PINN [36] on the 1D-Reaction under different region sizes.

 \checkmark **Adaptively find the "balance point":** Even though we initialize the region size as distinct values, RoPINN will progressively adjust the trust region size to similar values during training.

 \checkmark Affect convergence: If r is initialized as a value closer to the balance point, the training will converge faster. Too large a region size will decrease the convergence speed due to the optimization noise.

Algorithm Analysis: Sampling Points

Figure 3: Optimization of canonical PINN [36] on the 1D-Reaction under different sample points.

Sampling more points in each region will bring a lower gradient estimation error, which will lead to **larger region size, better convergence and final performance**.

Algorithm Analysis: Efficiency

Figure 4: Efficiency and model performance w.r.t. number of samples. Note that the default setting of RoPINN is just sampling one point, which will not bring extra gradient calculation costs.

The benefits brought by more sampling points will saturate around 10 points.

Our default setting is just sampling 1 point, which can keep the similar efficiency as point optimization.

Algorithm Analysis: Ablations

Figure 5: Ablation study of RoPINN on different PDEs and diverse base models. rMSE is recorded.

Without trust region calibration, RoPINN (only region sampling) can already boost the performance. Trust region calibration can make the performance better and more stable.

Algorithm Analysis: Loss Landscape

Figure 6: Loss landscape of RoPINN and vanilla PINNs on the Convection equation. *Error Map* refers to the distance between model prediction and the accurate solution, i.e. $(u_{\theta} - u)$.

"PINN failure modes" is not caused by limited model capacity but by **hard-to-optimize loss landscape.**

Empowered by RoPINN, the loss landscape of PINN is significantly smoothed.

Krishnapriyan, Aditi S. et al. Characterizing possible failure modes in physics-informed neural networks. *Neural Information Processing Systems,* 2021.

More Showcases

Figure 9: Showcases of RoPINN on the first three datasets based on PINN and PINNsFormer.

Open Source

Code is available at https://github.com/thur

Thank You!

wuhx23@mails.tsinghua.edu.cn

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