

A Method for Computing Inverse Parametric PDEs with Randomized Neural Networks

Steven Suchuan Dong

Center for Computational & Applied Mathematics

Department of Mathematics

Purdue University

(Joint with: Yiran Wang)



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Randomized Neural Network:

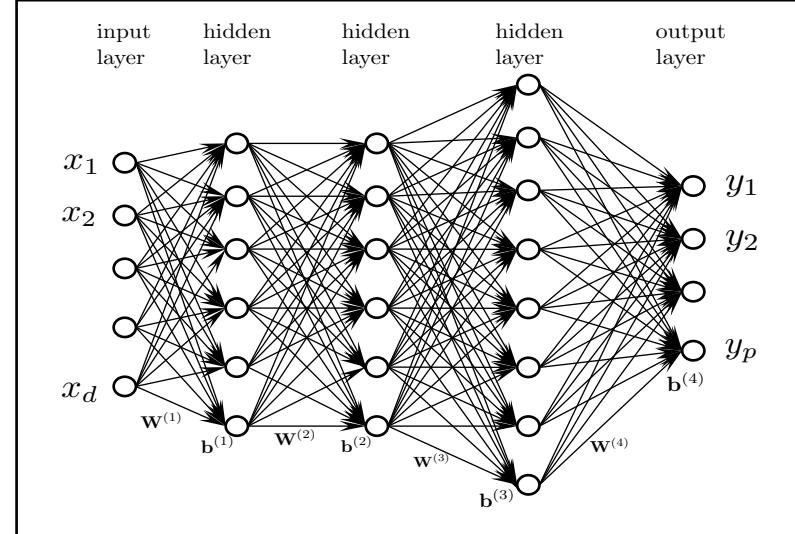
- A subset of NN parameters is assigned to random values and fixed (not-trainable);
- Only the rest of NN parameters are adjustable/trainable.

Strategy Underlying Randomized NNs:

- Full set of NN parameters extremely hard and costly to train;
- Randomized NN can make the optimization task of NN training simpler, (hopefully) without severely sacrificing achievable approximation capacity.

ELM: One Type of Randomized NN

ELM – Extreme Learning Machine



Feed-forward NN

Extreme Learning Machine (ELM): (Huang et al, 2006)

- All hidden-layer coefficients are randomly assigned and fixed (non-trainable);
- Only the output-layer coefficients are trainable.

Also known as:

RVFL (Random Vector Functional Link Network, Pao et al. 1994)

Randomized Neural Networks Are Universal Function Approximators

- Universal approximation theorem (Igelnik & Pao, 1995; Huang et al, 2006)

Theorem (Huang et al 2006): Given any bounded non-constant piecewise continuous function $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, for any continuous target function f , there exists a sequence of single-hidden-layer feedforward neural networks with g as the activation function, with its hidden-layer coefficients randomly generated, and with its output-layer coefficients appropriately chosen, such that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|f - f_n\| = 0$, where n is the number of hidden-layer nodes and f_n is the output of the neural network.

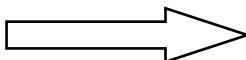
Hidden-layer coefficients randomly set (not trained);
Output-layer coefficients trainable/adjustable

What Are Inverse PDE Problems?

- PDE contains unknown parameters (as constants or field distributions).
- Some measurement data (sparse, noisy) available.
- Goal: determine the unknown PDE parameters and the unknown solution field simultaneously

Given:

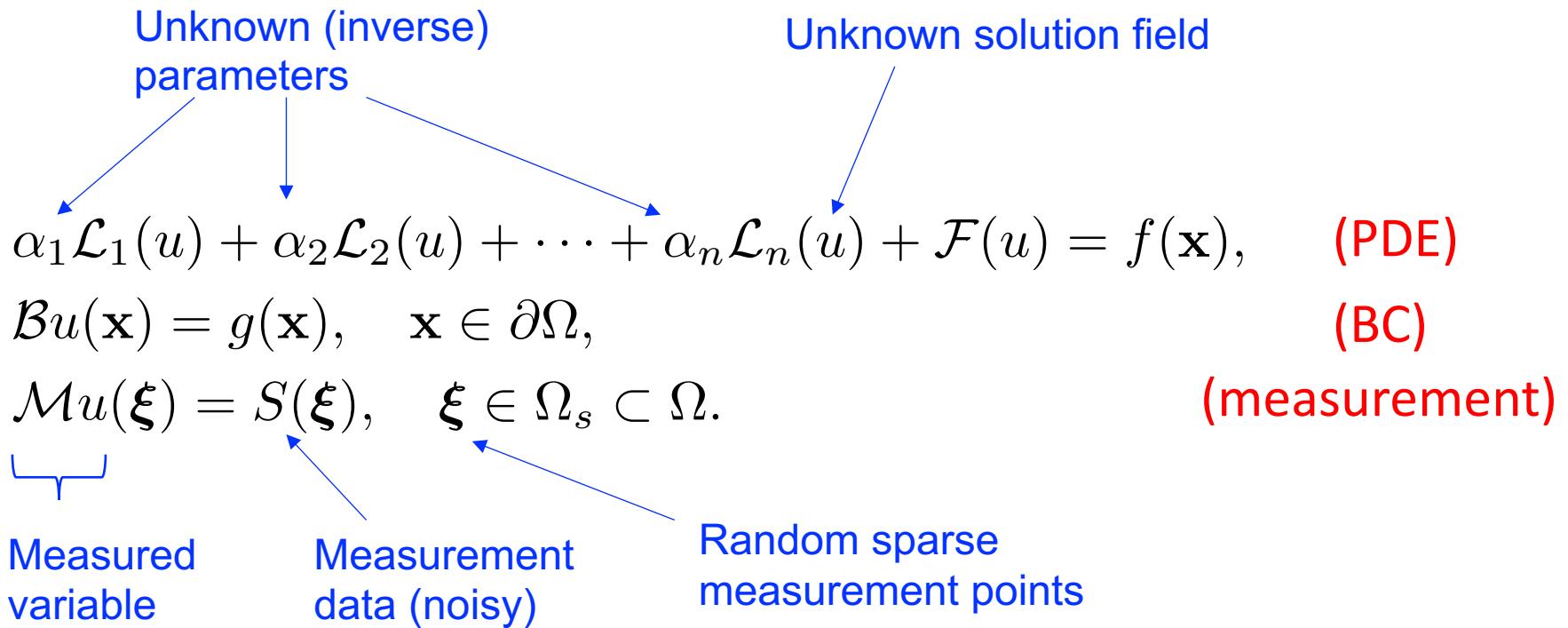
Sparse measurement
of concentration data
at certain points



Want:

Diffusion coefficient,
and concentration field
in space/time

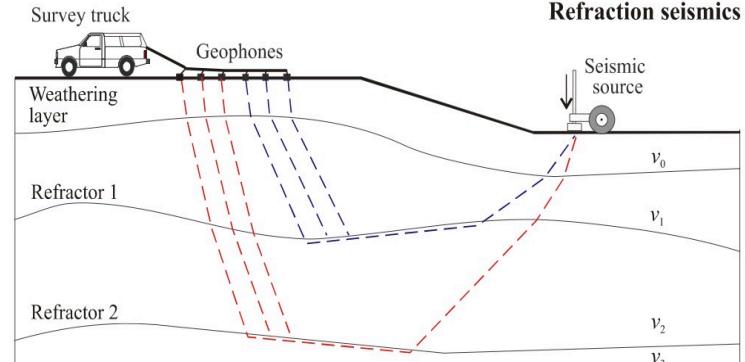
Inverse Parametric PDE Problem



Known: measurement data $S(\boldsymbol{\xi})$, source terms, BC
Unknown: α_i ($1 \leq i \leq n$), $u(\mathbf{x})$

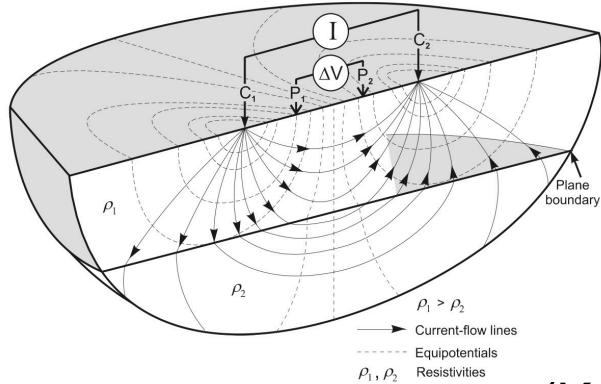
Why Inverse PDE Problems

- widespread in environmental, medical, and geological applications



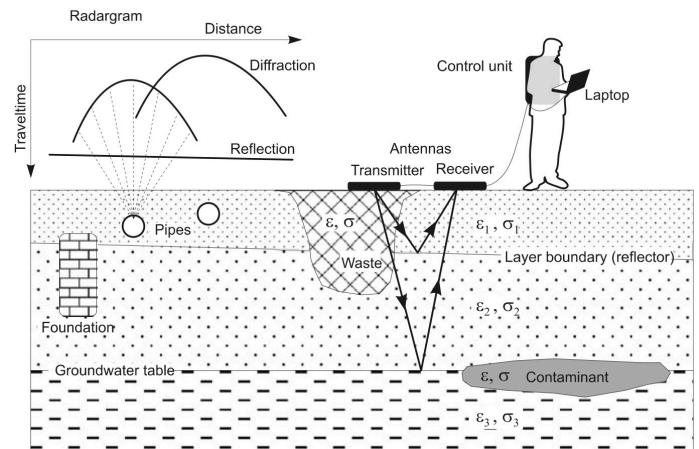
Seismic method

Direct current resistivity method



(Knodel et al. 2007)

Ground penetrating radar



NN-Related Works on Inverse PDEs

- Bongard & Lipton (2007); Schmidt & Lipton (2009)
- Brunton et al (2016); Rudy et al (2017,2019); Schaeffer (2017); Zhang & Lin (2018);
- Raissi & Karniadakis (2018, 2020);
- Raissi et al (2019);
- Berg & Nystrom (2018, 2019); Long et al (2019); Both et al (2021)
- Jagtap & Karniadakis (2020); Jagtap et al (2020, 2022);
- Karniadakis et al (2021) ← (Review Article)
- Lu et al (2021); Mao et al (2020); Chen et al (2020); Meng & Karniadakis (2020); Yang et al (2021); Cai et al (2021);
- Tartakovsky et al (2020); Li et al (2020); Mathews et al (2020);
- Patel et al (2022); Dwivedi et al (2021); Yuan et al (2022);
-

(Incomplete list of contributions)

LocELM / ELM for Forward PDEs

LocELM Method:

- Based on ELM (randomized NN);
- Combines domain decomposition, C^k continuity conditions, and local neural networks;
- Network training by linear or nonlinear least squares methods (not by gradient-descent type algorithms);
- For forward PDE problems (linear or nonlinear).

- Spectral accuracy (exponential convergence w.r.t. number of collocation points and number of training parameters)
- Outperform traditional numerical methods (classical and high-order FEM) in terms of accuracy and computational cost (network training time)

(Dong & Li, CMAME, 2021; Dong & Yang, JCP, 2022)

- Can we extend this approach to inverse PDE problems to gain similar performance benefits (high accuracy, competitive computational cost)?

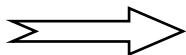
Main Complication

$$\alpha_1 \mathcal{L}_1(u) + \alpha_2 \mathcal{L}_2(u) + \cdots + \alpha_n \mathcal{L}_n(u) + \mathcal{F}(u) = f(\mathbf{x})$$

- Unknown PDE parameters and unknown solution field are coupled;
- Problem is fully nonlinear.

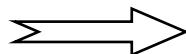
Three Algorithms: (training NN, solving inverse problem)

NLLSQ



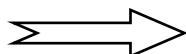
- Solve α_i and solution field u altogether by nonlinear least squares method with perturbations (NLLSQ-perturb).

VarPro-F1



- Eliminate α_i from original problem using variable projection (VarPro) \Rightarrow Reduced problem about u only.
- Solve reduced problem for u by NLLSQ-perturb.
- Compute α_i by linear least squares method.

VarPro-F2



- Eliminate solution field u from original problem using VarPro \Rightarrow Reduced problem about α_i only.
- Solve reduced problem for α_i by NLLSQ-perturb.
- Compute u based on α_i .

NLLSQ Algorithm

(nonlinear least squares algorithm)

Main Procedure

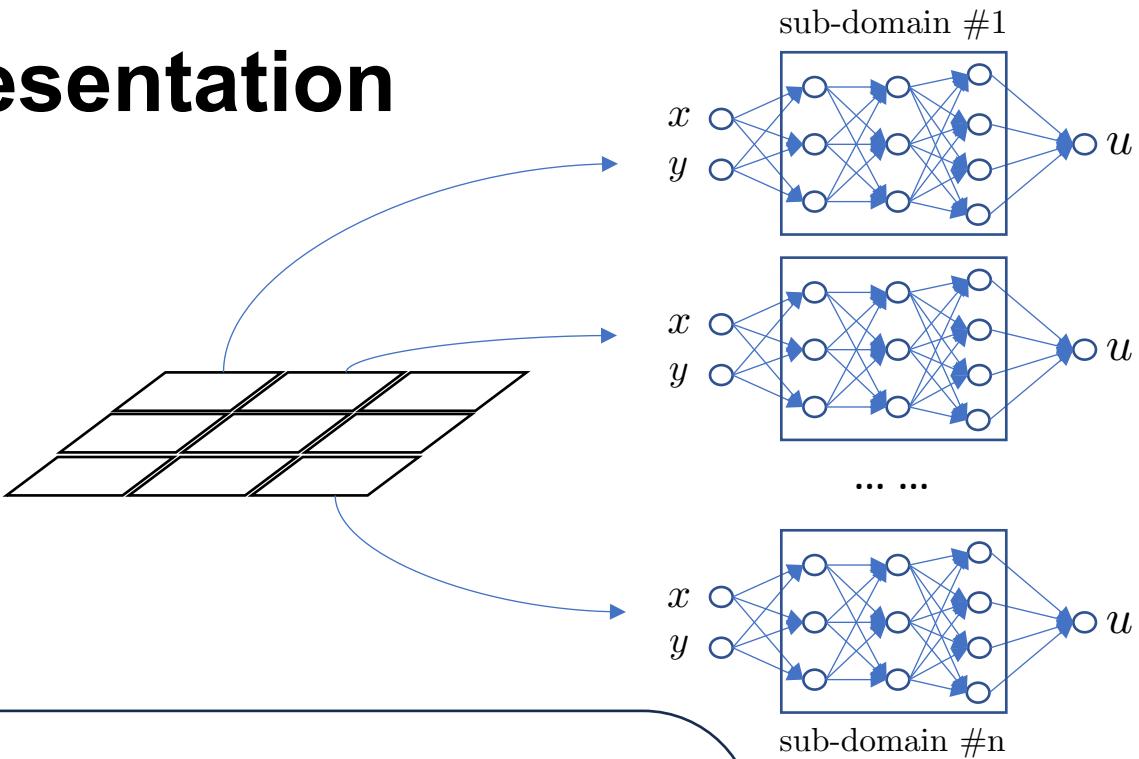
Given: PDE, BC,
Measurement data

Procedure:

- Represent solution field u by local ELM (locELM) representation;
- Formulate residual function in terms of local ELM representation;
- Enforce residual function to be zero on training collocation points and random measurement points
 \implies nonlinear algebraic system about α_i and ELM training parameters.
- Seek least squares solution to algebraic system, and solve this system by nonlinear least squares method with perturbations (NLLSQ-perturb).
- Set ELM training parameters by the least squares solution.

Local ELM Representation of Functions

(Dong & Li,
CMAME, 2021)



locELM Representation:

- Partition domain into sub-domains.
- Impose C^k continuity conditions across sub-domain boundaries.
- Represent function on each sub-domain by a local randomized NN.
- Local NN: hidden-layer coefficients set to random numbers on $[-R_m, R_m]$ and fixed.
- Local NN: Output layer linear, whose coefficients are trainable.
- Local NNs are coupled due to C^k continuity, trained in coupled fashion.

LocELM Representation

NN Logic \implies Expansion Relation

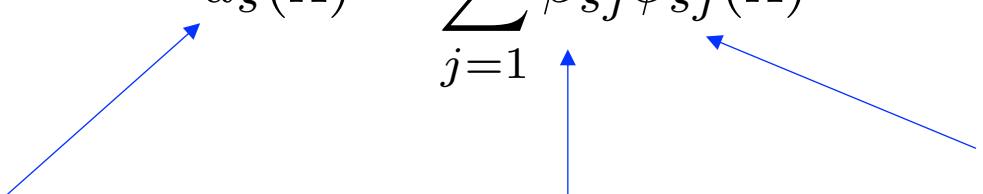
On sub-domain Ω_s ,
 $(1 \leq s \leq N)$:

$$u_s(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{j=1}^M \beta_{sj} \phi_{sj}(\mathbf{x})$$

output field on Ω_s

output-layer coefficients
(trainable)

output field of
last hidden layer
(fixed, random)



Function on each sub-domain is expanded in terms
of a set of random basis functions

Residual Functions

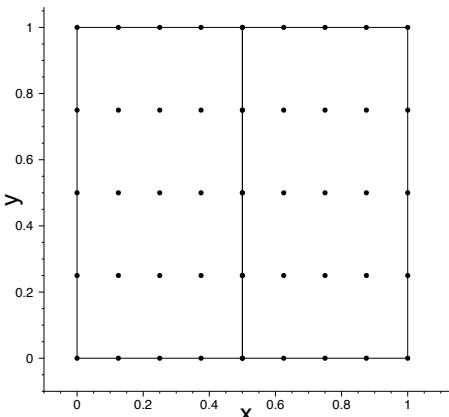
$$u_i(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{j=1}^M \beta_{ij} \phi_{ij}(\mathbf{x}) = \Phi_i(\mathbf{x}) \boldsymbol{\beta}_i$$

$$\boldsymbol{\alpha} = (\dots, \alpha_i, \dots), \quad \boldsymbol{\beta} = (\dots, \beta_i, \dots)$$

$$\mathbf{R}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta}, \mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\xi}) = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 \mathcal{L}_1(u_i) + \alpha_2 \mathcal{L}_2(u_i) + \dots + \alpha_n \mathcal{L}_n(u_i) + \mathcal{F}(u_i) - f(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{x} \in \Omega_i, 1 \leq i \leq N \\ \mathcal{B}u_i(\mathbf{x}) - g(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{x} \in \partial\Omega \cap \Omega_i, 1 \leq i \leq N \\ \mathcal{M}u_i(\boldsymbol{\xi}) - S(\boldsymbol{\xi}), \boldsymbol{\xi} \in \Omega_s \cap \Omega_i, 1 \leq i \leq N \\ \mathcal{C}u_i(\mathbf{x}) - \mathcal{C}u_j(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{x} \in \partial\Omega_i \cap \partial\Omega_j, \text{ for all adjacent } (\Omega_i, \Omega_j), 1 \leq i, j \leq N \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{array}{l} (\text{PDE}) \\ (\text{BC}) \\ (\text{measurement}) \\ (\text{C}^k \text{ continuity}) \end{array}$$

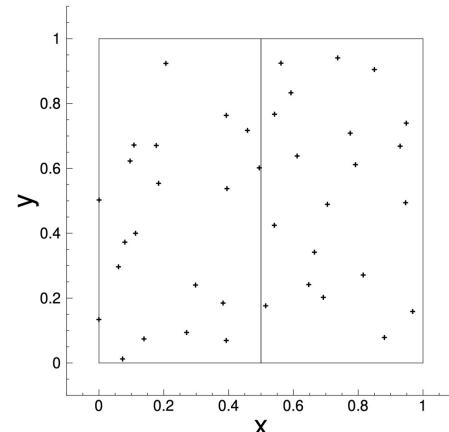
Set/choose:

- training collocation points: \mathbf{x}_p^s , on each sub-domain Ω_s
- measurement points: $\boldsymbol{\xi}_q^s$, on each sub-domain Ω_s



Regular grid points
as collocation points

Random
measurement points



From Residual Function to Algebraic System

Enforce residual function to zero on collocation and measurement points



Nonlinear algebraic system about α and β



Compute α and β by nonlinear least squares method with perturbations (NLLSQ-perturb)

Algebraic System:

$$0 = \mathbf{R}(\alpha, \beta, \mathbf{x}_p^s, \xi_q^s) = \mathbf{R}(\alpha, \beta) = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{R}^{\text{pde}}(\alpha, \beta) \\ \mathbf{R}^{\text{bc}}(\beta) \\ \mathbf{R}^{\text{mea}}(\beta) \\ \mathbf{R}^{\text{ck}}(\beta) \end{bmatrix}$$

NLLSQ
Algorithm

VarPro-F1 Algorithm

Main Procedure

VarPro: Variable Projection
(Golub & Pereyra, 1973)

Idea:

- Eliminate α from original problem using variable projection (VarPro)
 \Rightarrow Reduced problem about β only.
- Solve reduced problem for β by nonlinear least squares method with perturbations (NLLSQ-perturb).
- Compute α by linear least squares method.

Eliminate inverse
parameters from
original problem



Reduced problem
about solution field

VarPro Reformulation

Start with Algebraic System:

$$\mathbf{R}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta}, \mathbf{x}_p^s, \boldsymbol{\xi}_q^s) = \mathbf{R}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta}) = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{R}^{\text{pde}}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta}) \\ \mathbf{R}^{\text{bc}}(\boldsymbol{\beta}) \\ \mathbf{R}^{\text{mea}}(\boldsymbol{\beta}) \\ \mathbf{R}^{\text{ck}}(\boldsymbol{\beta}) \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{0}$$

Rewrite the System:

$$\mathbf{R}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta}) = \mathbf{H}(\boldsymbol{\beta})\boldsymbol{\alpha} - \mathbf{b}(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = \mathbf{0}$$

or $\mathbf{H}(\boldsymbol{\beta})\boldsymbol{\alpha} = \mathbf{b}(\boldsymbol{\beta})$

(noting $\mathbf{R}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta})$ is linear w.r.t. $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$)

For arbitrary given $\boldsymbol{\beta}$,
the optimal $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ is:

$$\boldsymbol{\alpha}^* = \mathbf{H}^+(\boldsymbol{\beta})\mathbf{b}(\boldsymbol{\beta})$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{r}(\boldsymbol{\beta}) &= \mathbf{R}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}^*, \boldsymbol{\beta}) \\ &= \mathbf{H}(\boldsymbol{\beta})\mathbf{H}^+(\boldsymbol{\beta})\mathbf{b}(\boldsymbol{\beta}) - \mathbf{b}(\boldsymbol{\beta}) \\ &= \mathbf{0} \end{aligned}$$

Substitute Back:

Reduced Problem about $\boldsymbol{\beta}$

VarPro-F1 Algorithm

Procedure:

- Solve reduced problem for β by nonlinear least squares method with perturbations (NLLSQ-perturb).

$$\beta^* = \arg \min_{\beta} \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{r}(\beta)\|^2 = \arg \min_{\beta} \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{H}(\beta) \mathbf{H}^+(\beta) \mathbf{b}(\beta) - \mathbf{b}(\beta)\|^2$$

- Solve for α by linear least squares method based on β^* .

$$\alpha^* = \mathbf{H}^+(\beta^*) \mathbf{b}(\beta^*)$$

VarPro-F1 solution: (α^*, β^*)

Equivalent to: $(\hat{\alpha}, \hat{\beta}) = \arg \min_{\alpha, \beta} \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{R}(\alpha, \beta)\|^2$

VarPro-F2 Algorithm

VarPro-F2 Algorithm

(When Forward PDE Problem Is Linear)

Idea:

- Eliminate β from original problem using VarPro
 \implies Reduced problem about α only.
- Solve reduced problem for α by nonlinear least squares method with perturbations (NLLSQ-perturb).
- Compute β by linear least squares method.

Reciprocal to VarPro-F1 in some sense

VarPro Reformulation (Linear Forward PDE Problem)

Start with Algebraic System:

$$\mathbf{R}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta}, \mathbf{x}_p^s, \boldsymbol{\xi}_q^s) = \mathbf{R}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta}) = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{R}^{\text{pde}}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta}) \\ \mathbf{R}^{\text{bc}}(\boldsymbol{\beta}) \\ \mathbf{R}^{\text{mea}}(\boldsymbol{\beta}) \\ \mathbf{R}^{\text{ck}}(\boldsymbol{\beta}) \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{0}$$

Rewrite the System:

$$\mathbf{R}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta}) = \mathbf{H}(\boldsymbol{\alpha})\boldsymbol{\beta} - \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{0}$$

or $\mathbf{H}(\boldsymbol{\alpha})\boldsymbol{\beta} = \mathbf{b}$

(noting $\mathbf{R}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta})$ is linear w.r.t. $\boldsymbol{\beta}$)

For arbitrary given $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$,
the optimal $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ is:

$$\boldsymbol{\beta}^* = \mathbf{H}^+(\boldsymbol{\alpha})\mathbf{b}$$

Substitute Back:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{r}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}) &= \mathbf{R}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta}^*) \\ &= \mathbf{H}(\boldsymbol{\alpha})\mathbf{H}^+(\boldsymbol{\alpha})\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{b} \\ &= \mathbf{0} \end{aligned}$$

Reduced Problem about $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$

VarPro-F2 Algorithm

(Linear Forward PDE Problem)

Procedure:

- Solve reduced problem for α by nonlinear least squares method with perturbations (NLLSQ-perturb).

$$\alpha^* = \arg \min_{\alpha} \frac{1}{2} \| \mathbf{r}(\alpha) \|^2 = \arg \min_{\alpha} \frac{1}{2} \| \mathbf{H}(\alpha) \mathbf{H}^+(\alpha) \mathbf{b} - \mathbf{b} \|^2$$

- Solve for β by linear least squares method based on α^* .

$$\beta^* = \mathbf{H}^+(\alpha^*) \mathbf{b}$$

VarPro-F2 solution: (α^*, β^*)

VarPro-F2 Algorithm

(When Forward PDE Problem is Nonlinear)

(Newton method + VarPro-F2 algorithm)

Idea: (nonlinear forward PDE problem)

- Use Newton method to linearize the problem w.r.t. the solution field.
- Within each Newton iteration, use VarPro-F2 algorithm to solve the linearized problem for (α, β) , as in previous slides.
- Upon convergence of Newton iteration, attain solution to original inverse problem.

Numerical Examples

Inverse Poisson Equation

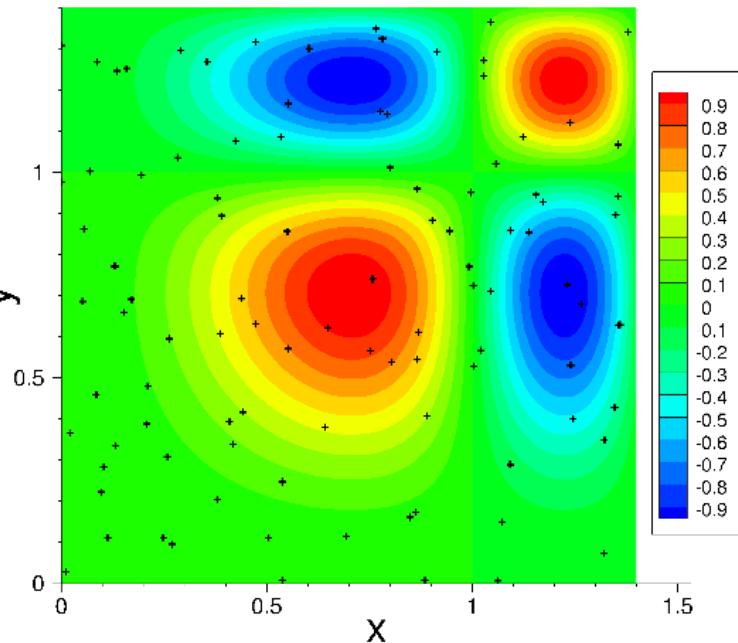
$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \alpha \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = f(x, y)$$

$$u(0, y) = g_1(y), \quad u(1.4, y) = g_2(y)$$

$$u(x, 0) = g_3(x), \quad u(x, 1.4) = g_4(x)$$

$$u(\xi_i, \eta_i) = S(\xi_i, \eta_i) \quad (\text{measurement})$$

Solution field
Random measurement points



Known:

source term and BC: f, g_i
measurement data: $S(\xi_i, \eta_i)$

Unknown:
 $\alpha, u(x, y)$

Noisy measurement data

$$S(\xi_i, \eta_i) = u_{ex}(\xi_i, \eta_i)(1 + \epsilon \zeta_i)$$

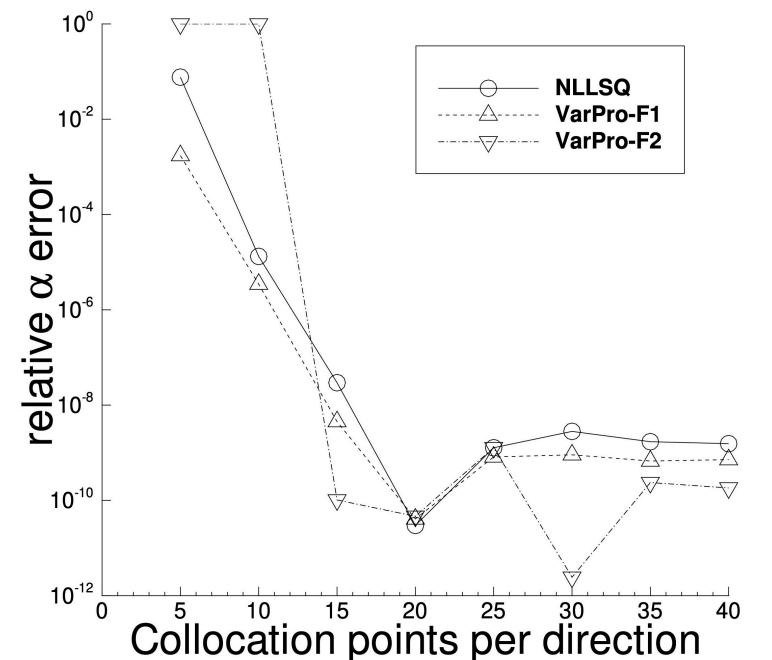
Noise level

Random number $[-1, 1]$

Error of Inverse Parameters

(Noise-free measurement data)

Error decreases exponentially w.r.t. collocation points



Alpha error vs. collocation points

Computed alpha vs. collocation points

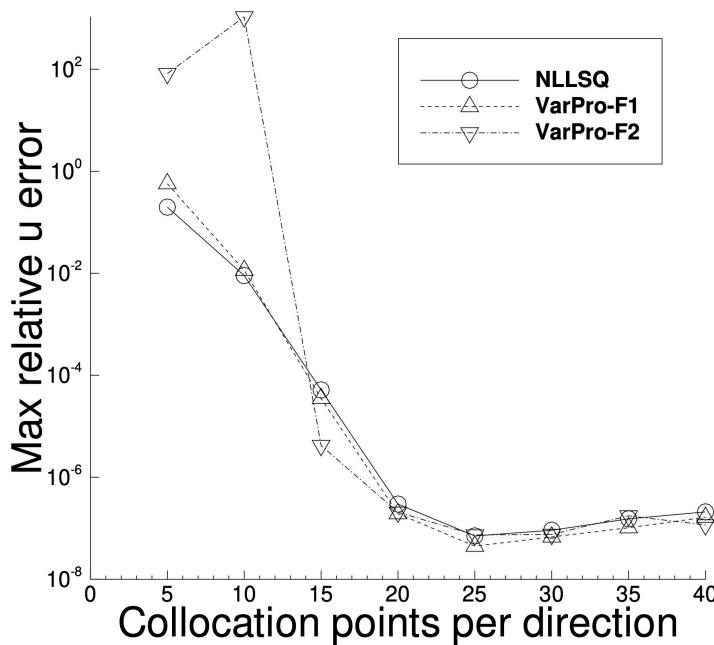
Q	α (NLLSQ)	α (VarPro-F1)	α (VarPro-F2)
5×5	1.076466245043E+0	9.982719409724E-1	0.000000000000E+0
10×10	9.999867935849E-1	9.999965494049E-1	-3.188390321381E-5
15×15	1.000000029498E+0	9.999999954822E-1	9.999999998978E-1
20×20	9.999999999701E-1	9.999999999592E-1	9.999999999536E-1
25×25	9.999999987249E-1	1.000000000817E+0	1.000000001279E+0
30×30	1.000000002811E+0	1.000000000906E+0	1.000000000002E+0
35×35	1.000000001708E+0	1.000000000670E+0	1.000000000237E+0
40×40	1.000000001552E+0	1.000000000717E+0	1.000000000183E+0

$\alpha_{exact} = 1$
 NN: [2,600,1]
 Gaussian activation
 100 measurement points

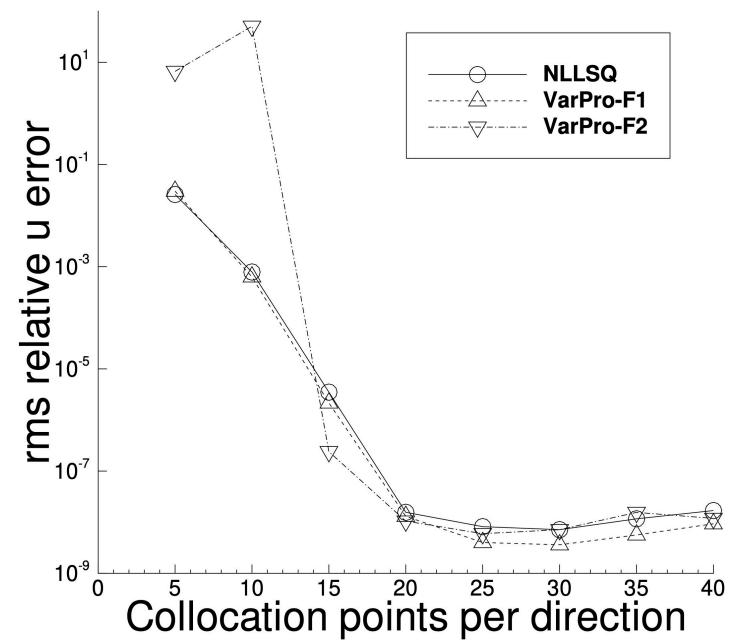
Error in Solution Field vs. Collocation Points

(Noise-free measurement data)

Maximum error in domain



Rms error in domain



Errors decrease exponentially w.r.t. number of collocation points

Errors vs. Training Parameters

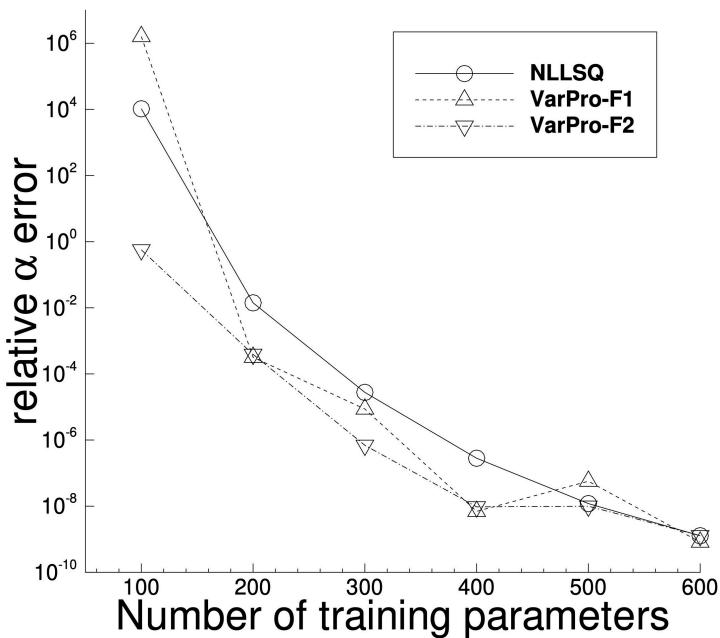
(Noise-free measurement data)

NN: $[2, M, 1]$

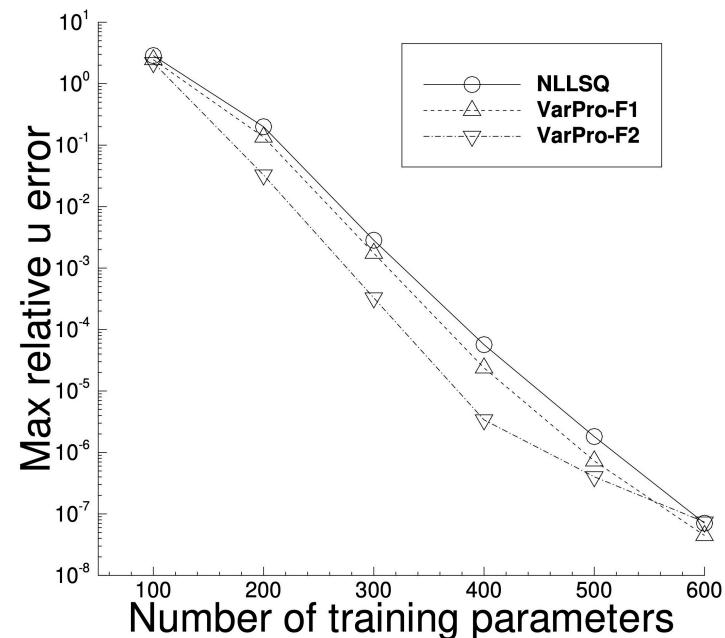
25×25 collocation points

100 measurement points

Alpha error vs. training parameters



u error vs. training parameters



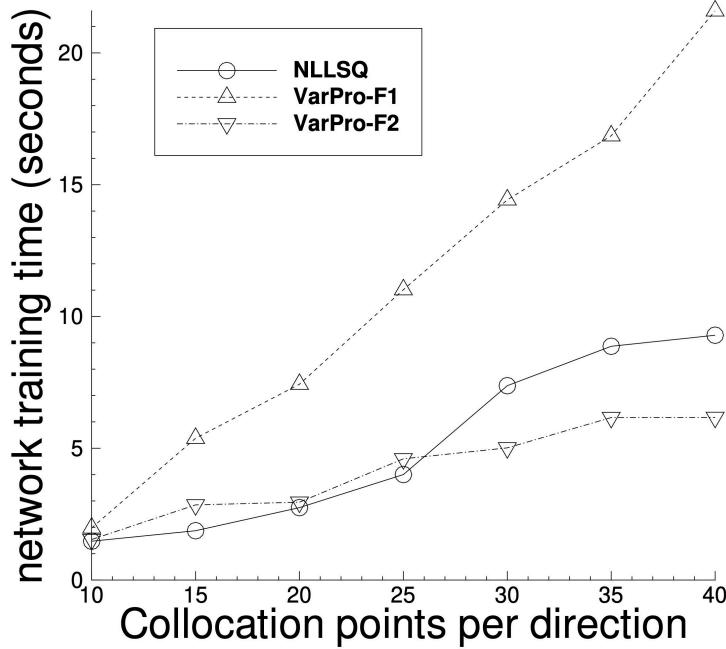
Errors decrease (approximately) exponentially w.r.t. number of training parameters

Network Training Cost

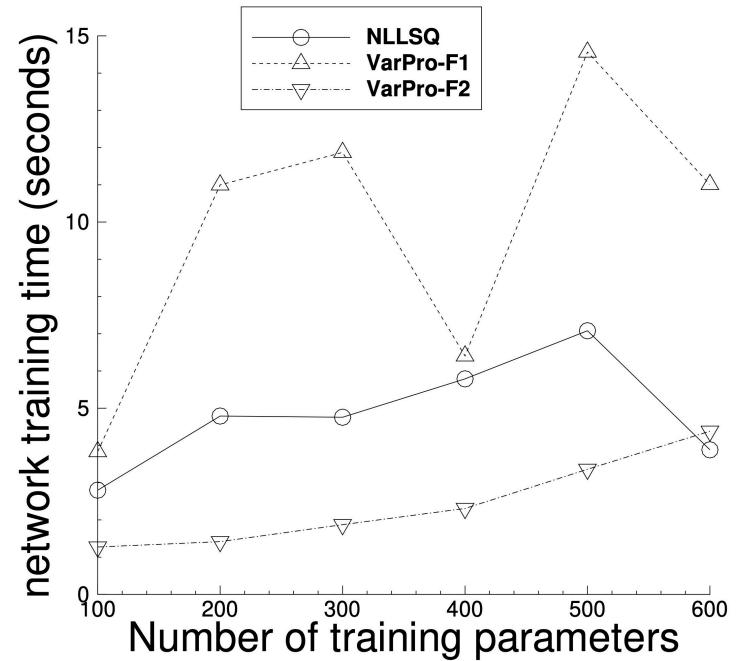
(Noise-free measurement data)

Timing collected on
a MAC computer

Training time vs. collocation points



Training time vs. training parameters



Network training time grows roughly linearly w.r.t. number of collocation points and number of training parameters

Noisy Data: Inverse Parameters

$$S(\xi_i) = u_{ex}(\xi_i)(1 + \epsilon \zeta_i)$$

Noise level

Random number [-1,1]

NN: [2,500,1]

25×25 collocation points

50 random measurement points

$\alpha_{ex} = 1$

Accuracy degrades with increasing noise level

	ϵ	computed- α	ϵ	computed- α	
No noise	0.0	9.99999993208E-1	0.1	9.8779390E-1	10% noise
	0.001	9.9987537E-1	0.2	9.7602056E-1	
	0.005	9.9937764E-1	0.5	9.4329282E-1	
1% noise	0.01	9.9875752E-1	0.7	9.2316247E-1	
	0.05	9.9383633E-1	1.0	8.9557261E-1	

Computed by NLLSQ Algorithm

Noisy Data: Errors

NN: [2,500,1]

25×25 collocation points

50 random measurement points

$$\alpha_{ex} = 1$$

Relative errors

ϵ	NLLSQ			VarPro-F1			VarPro-F2			
	e_α	$l^\infty\text{-}u$	$l^2\text{-}u$	e_α	$l^\infty\text{-}u$	$l^2\text{-}u$	e_α	$l^\infty\text{-}u$	$l^2\text{-}u$	
0.0	6.79E-9	1.81E-6	1.93E-7	5.93E-8	7.59E-7	1.38E-7	4.20E-10	4.50E-7	2.31E-8	
0.001	1.25E-4	2.79E-4	8.04E-5	1.33E-4	2.82E-4	8.50E-5	1.23E-4	2.81E-4	7.85E-5	
0.005	6.22E-4	1.39E-3	4.01E-4	6.73E-4	1.42E-3	4.29E-4	6.10E-4	1.41E-3	3.92E-4	
1% noise	0.01	1.24E-3	2.79E-3	8.02E-4	1.35E-3	2.85E-3	8.61E-4	1.22E-3	2.81E-3	7.82E-4
10% noise	0.05	6.16E-3	1.39E-2	4.00E-3	6.63E-3	1.42E-2	4.26E-3	6.49E-3	1.41E-2	4.07E-3
	0.1	1.22E-2	2.79E-2	7.98E-3	1.33E-2	2.86E-2	8.58E-3	1.19E-2	2.81E-2	7.75E-3
	0.5	5.67E-2	1.42E-1	3.90E-2	6.08E-2	1.44E-1	4.17E-2	5.52E-2	1.43E-1	3.78E-2
	1.0	1.04E-1	2.88E-1	7.63E-2	1.11E-1	2.93E-1	8.14E-2	1.08E-1	2.90E-1	7.62E-2

Inverse
parameters

Solution
field

Method remains quite accurate
with noisy data

Comparison with PINN

PINN – Physics-informed neural network (Raissi et al 2019)

Both:

30×30 collocation points

100 random measurement points

Gaussian activation function

PINN:

NN: [2,30,30,30,1]

20,000 epochs

learning rate: 0.01 → 1E-4 for first 10K epochs, then fixed

Current (NLLSQ):

NN: [2,500,1]

Current method produces more accurate results with less training time

method	No noise				1% noise				
	$\epsilon=0$		$\epsilon=0.01$		$\epsilon=0$		$\epsilon=0.01$		
	e_α	$l^\infty-u$	l^2-u	time(sec)		e_α	$l^\infty-u$	l^2-u	time(sec)
PINN (Adam)	6.31E-3	1.08E-2	3.56E-3	134.5		5.53E-3	1.03E-2	3.30E-3	130.9
current (NLLSQ)	1.66E-8	3.66E-6	2.62E-7	11.5		9.72E-4	1.76E-3	5.26E-4	10.4

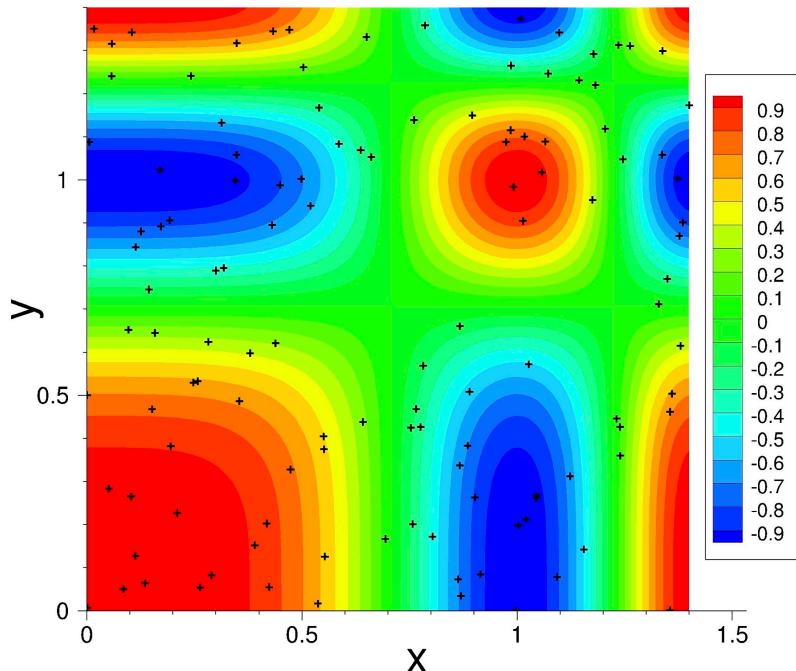
Network
training time

Network
training time

Inverse Nonlinear Helmholtz Equation

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} - \alpha_1 u + \alpha_2 \cos(2u) = f(x, y),$$
$$u(0, y) = g_1(y), \quad u(1.4, y) = g_2(y),$$
$$u(x, 0) = g_3(x), \quad u(x, 1.4) = g_4(x),$$
$$u(\xi_i, \eta_i) = S(\xi_i, \eta_i) \quad \leftarrow \text{(measurement)}$$

Unknowns:
 $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, u(x, y)$



Exact solution:

$$\alpha_1^{ex} = 100$$

$$\alpha_2^{ex} = 5$$

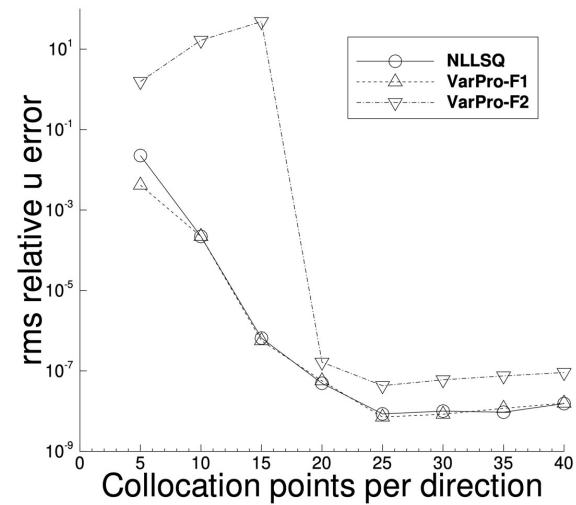
$$u_{ex}(x, y) = \cos(\pi x^2) \cos(\pi y^2)$$

Solution field
Random measurement points

Error vs. Collocation Points

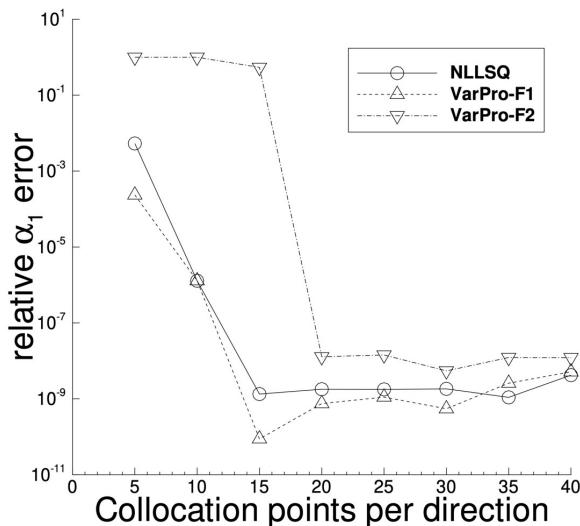
(noise-free data)

NN: [2,500,1]
100 measurement points

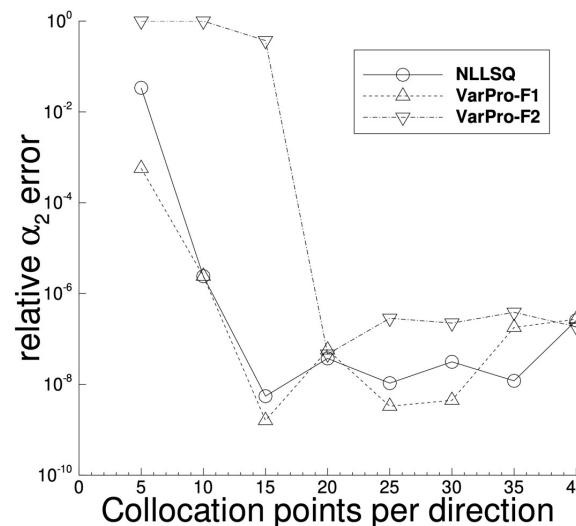


Solution field error

α_1 error



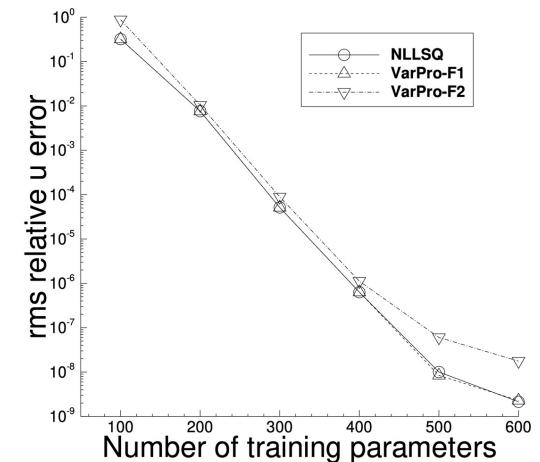
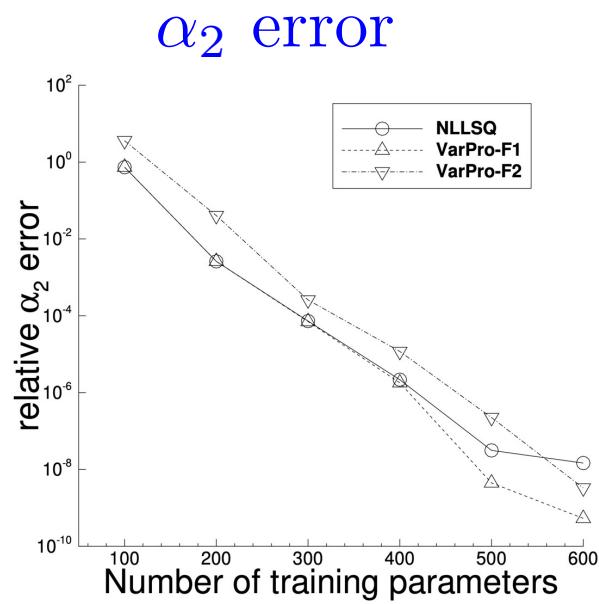
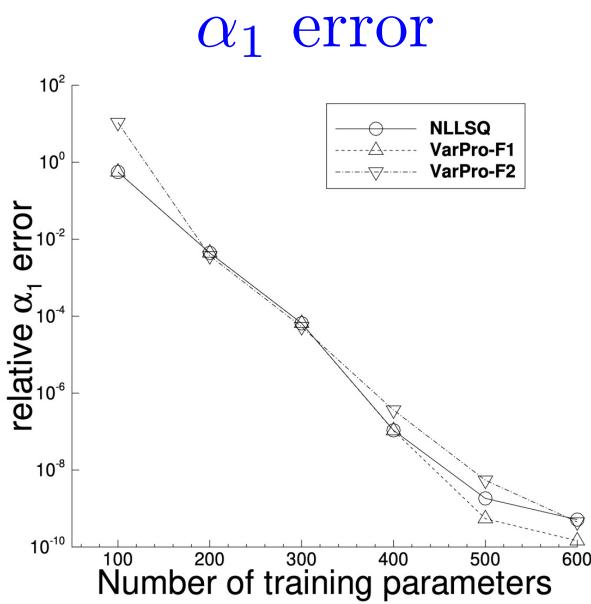
α_2 error



Exponential convergence

Error vs. Training Parameters

(noise-free data)



Exponential convergence w.r.t. number of training parameters

NN: [2,M,1]
 30×30 collocation points
 100 measurement points

Noisy Data: Errors

NN: [2,500,1]
 30×30 collocation points
 50 measurement points

Method remains quite accurate
 with noisy data

Relative errors

ϵ	NLLSQ			VarPro-F1			VarPro-F2		
	e_{α_1}	e_{α_2}	l^2-u	e_{α_1}	e_{α_2}	l^2-u	e_{α_1}	e_{α_2}	l^2-u
1% noise	1.99E-9	1.32E-7	1.05E-8	1.96E-11	1.76E-8	7.85E-9	7.18E-9	4.77E-7	5.95E-8
	4.31E-4	1.12E-4	2.46E-4	4.31E-4	1.04E-4	2.46E-4	4.31E-4	1.45E-4	2.46E-4
	8.62E-4	2.19E-4	4.92E-4	8.62E-4	2.40E-4	4.92E-4	8.62E-4	2.60E-4	4.92E-4
	2.16E-3	5.21E-4	1.23E-3	2.16E-3	5.67E-4	1.23E-3	2.16E-3	6.00E-4	1.23E-3
	4.32E-3	9.64E-4	2.46E-3	4.32E-3	9.54E-4	2.46E-3	4.32E-3	1.26E-3	2.46E-3
	8.67E-3	1.41E-3	4.92E-3	8.67E-3	1.61E-3	4.92E-3	8.67E-3	1.84E-3	4.92E-3
5% noise	2.19E-2	3.72E-4	1.23E-2	2.19E-2	6.72E-4	1.23E-2	2.19E-2	2.29E-3	1.23E-2
	4.44E-2	8.72E-3	2.45E-2	4.44E-2	8.77E-3	2.45E-2	4.44E-2	7.37E-3	2.45E-2

α_1 error α_2 error u error

Comparison with PINN

Both:

30×30 collocation points

100 random measurement points

Gaussian activation function

PINN:

NN: [2,30,30,30,30,30,30,1]

200,000 epochs

learning rate: 0.01 → 1E-4 for first 10K epochs, then fixed

Current (NLLSQ):

NN: [2,500,1]

No noise

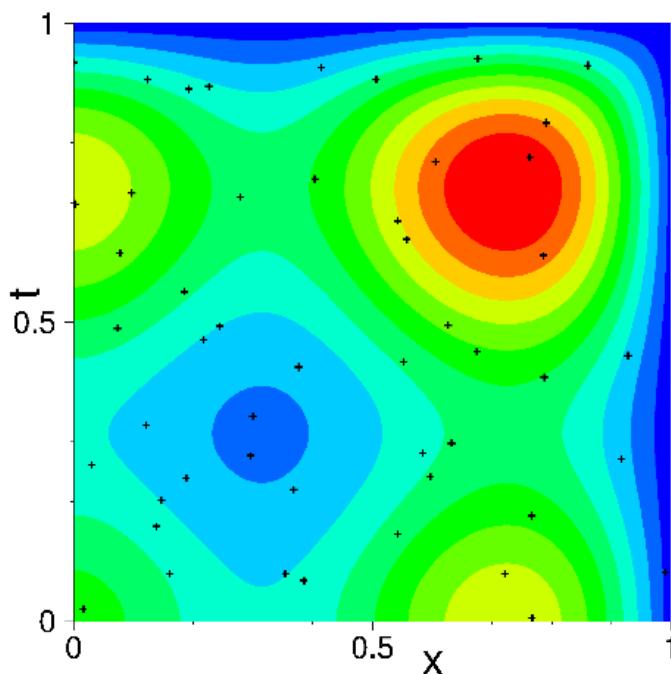
1% noise

	noise level	method	e_{α_1}	e_{α_2}	$l^{\infty}\text{-}u$	$l^2\text{-}u$	training-time(sec)
No noise	$\epsilon = 0$	PINN (Adam)	7.08E-1	2.68E-1	1.48E+0	5.65E-1	3049.2
		current (NLLSQ)	5.71E-9	3.05E-7	5.98E-8	1.49E-8	10.3
1% noise	$\epsilon = 0.01$	PINN (Adam)	6.74E-1	7.76E-1	1.56E+0	6.79E-1	2742.9
		current (NLLSQ)	4.34E-3	7.13E-4	5.25E-3	2.38E-3	10.0

Current method produces more accurate results with less training time

Inverse Sine-Gordan Equation

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t^2} - \alpha_1 \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \alpha_2 u + \alpha_3 \sin(u) &= f(x, t) \\ u(0, t) = g_1(t), \quad u(1, t) &= g_2(t), \\ u(x, 0) = g_3(x), \quad \frac{\partial u}{\partial t}(x, 0) &= g_4(x) \\ u(\xi_i, \eta_i) &= S(\xi_i, \eta_i)\end{aligned}$$



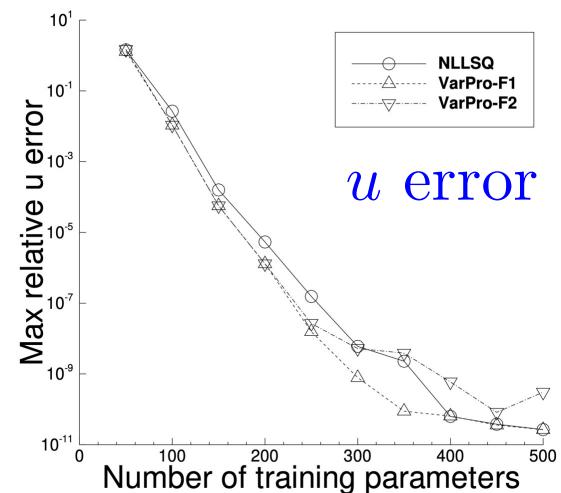
Unknown:
 $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3, u(x, t)$

$$\alpha_1^{ex} = \alpha_2^{ex} = \alpha_3^{ex} = 1$$

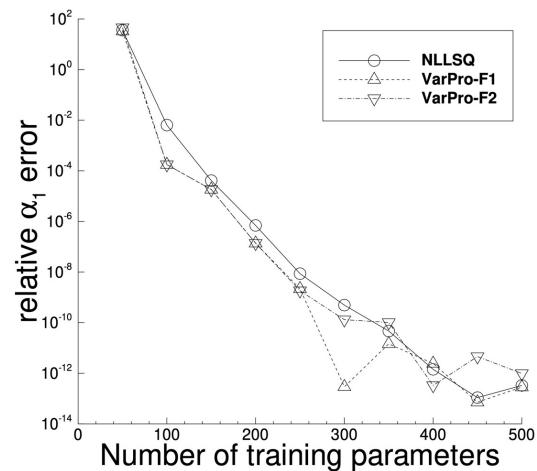
Solution field
Random measurement points

Error vs. Training Parameters

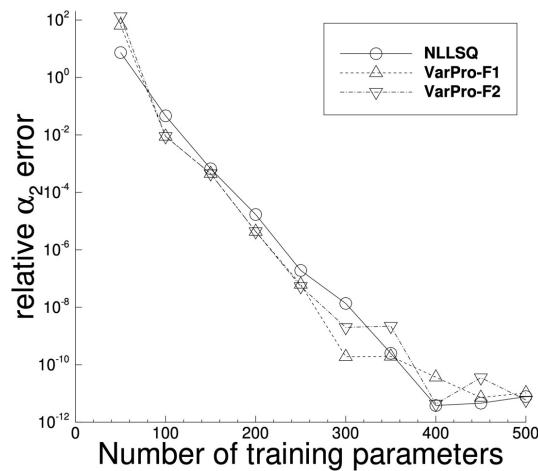
(noise-free data)



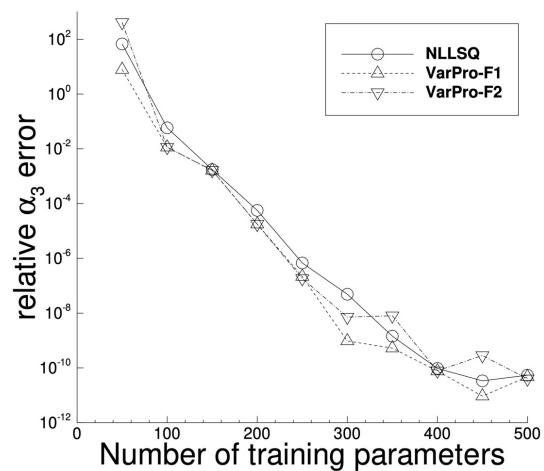
α_1 error



α_2 error



α_3 error



Exponential convergence w.r.t. number of training parameters

Noisy Data: Errors

1% noise

u relative errors

ϵ	NLLSQ		VarPro-F1		VarPro-F2	
	l^∞ -u	l^2 -u	l^∞ -u	l^2 -u	l^∞ -u	l^2 -u
0.0	3.44E-11	4.16E-12	7.03E-11	5.01E-12	7.73E-10	1.57E-10
0.001	8.76E-4	3.71E-4	8.49E-4	3.70E-4	8.51E-4	3.69E-4
0.005	4.39E-3	1.86E-3	4.26E-3	1.85E-3	4.25E-3	1.85E-3
0.01	8.77E-3	3.71E-3	8.50E-3	3.70E-3	8.51E-3	3.70E-3
0.05	4.35E-2	1.87E-2	4.25E-2	1.87E-2	4.24E-2	1.86E-2
0.1	8.65E-2	3.78E-2	8.46E-2	3.77E-2	8.43E-2	3.76E-2
0.5	4.10E-1	1.95E-1	4.08E-1	1.95E-1	4.07E-1	1.95E-1
1.0	8.90E-1	3.83E-1	8.97E-1	3.84E-1	9.07E-1	3.86E-1

$\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3$ relative errors

ϵ	NLLSQ			VarPro-F1			VarPro-F2		
	e_{α_1}	e_{α_2}	e_{α_3}	e_{α_1}	e_{α_2}	e_{α_3}	e_{α_1}	e_{α_2}	e_{α_3}
0.0	1.93E-12	4.90E-11	1.35E-10	1.50E-12	4.42E-12	2.23E-11	3.61E-11	9.72E-10	3.02E-9
0.001	6.90E-4	2.66E-3	3.00E-3	6.88E-4	2.64E-3	3.09E-3	6.86E-4	2.63E-3	3.08E-3
0.005	3.44E-3	1.31E-2	1.45E-2	3.44E-3	1.32E-2	1.54E-2	3.43E-3	1.32E-2	1.54E-2
0.01	6.88E-3	2.63E-2	2.93E-2	6.86E-3	2.63E-2	3.08E-2	6.84E-3	2.62E-2	3.04E-2
0.05	3.38E-2	1.27E-1	1.39E-1	3.38E-2	1.30E-1	1.53E-1	3.39E-2	1.32E-1	1.60E-1
0.1	6.65E-2	2.49E-1	2.76E-1	6.65E-2	2.55E-1	3.05E-1	6.65E-2	2.57E-1	3.12E-1
0.5	2.67E-1	8.07E-1	5.90E-1	2.65E-1	7.69E-1	4.39E-1	2.66E-1	7.95E-1	5.41E-1
1.0	4.09E-1	1.01E+0	2.18E-1	4.12E-1	1.07E+0	5.43E-1	4.15E-1	1.10E+0	6.27E-1

Comparison with PINN

Both:

30×30 collocation points

100 random measurement points

Gaussian activation function

PINN:

NN: [2,30,30,30,30,1]

200,000 epochs

learning rate: 0.01 → 1E-4 for first 10K epochs, then fixed

Current (NLLSQ):

NN: [2,400,1]

Relative Errors

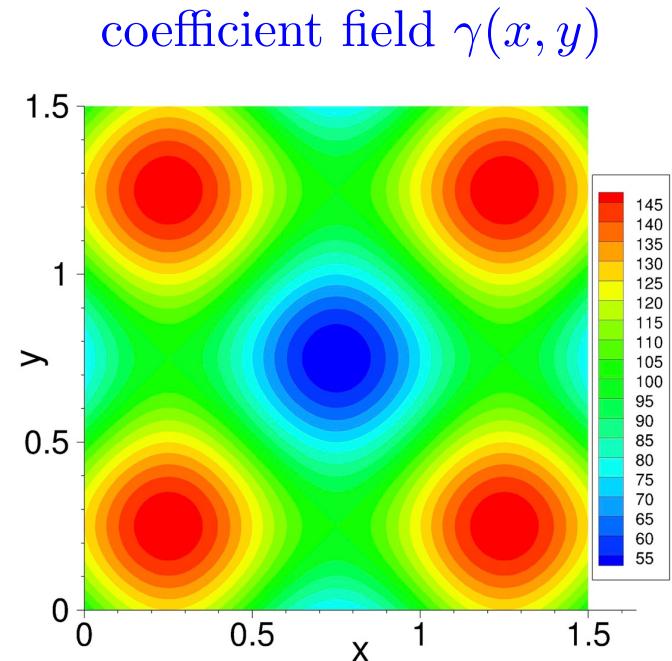
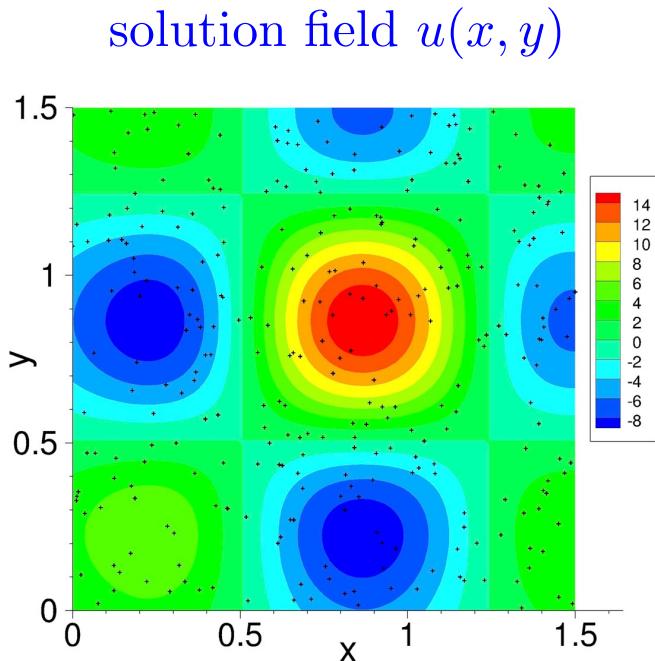
noise level	method	e_{α_1}	e_{α_2}	e_{α_3}	$l^{\infty}\text{-}u$	$l^2\text{-}u$	training-time(sec)
$\epsilon = 0$	PINN (Adam)	9.21E-3	2.30E-1	7.33E-1	1.86E-2	3.32E-3	1853.3
	current (NLLSQ)	7.65E-10	4.49E-9	6.60E-9	7.97E-10	3.50E-10	23.6
$\epsilon = 0.01$	PINN (Adam)	1.16E-2	1.35E-1	3.51E-1	1.18E-2	2.97E-3	1833.2
	current (NLLSQ)	5.45E-3	2.59E-2	5.09E-3	5.76E-3	2.63E-3	30.1

Current method produces more accurate results with less training time

Inverse Helmholtz Equation with Variable Coefficient

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} - \gamma(x, y)u = f(x, y),$$
$$u(a_1, y) = g_1(y), \quad u(b_1, y) = g_2(y),$$
$$u(x, a_2) = g_3(x), \quad u(x, b_2) = g_4(x),$$
$$u(\xi_i, \eta_i) = S(\xi_i, \eta_i), \quad (\text{measurement})$$

Unknowns: $\gamma(x, y)$, $u(x, y)$



Convergence Tests

(noise-free data)

Computed by NLLSQ

		$l^\infty\text{-}\gamma$	$l^2\text{-}\gamma$	$l^\infty\text{-}u$	$l^2\text{-}u$
collocation point test	$Q = 5 \times 5$	9.84E-2	3.15E-2	7.94E-3	4.38E-4
	10×10	4.05E-3	2.90E-4	1.63E-4	1.02E-5
	15×15	1.15E-4	4.94E-6	3.38E-6	2.99E-7
	20×20	4.99E-6	4.84E-7	2.65E-7	2.70E-8
	25×25	4.42E-6	3.57E-7	3.34E-7	2.90E-8
	30×30	1.56E-6	1.46E-7	1.19E-7	1.08E-8
	35×35	1.61E-6	1.73E-7	1.26E-7	1.15E-8
training parameter test	$M = 50$	6.79E+0	1.67E+0	1.63E+0	5.67E-1
	100	8.64E-2	1.10E-2	8.44E-3	2.00E-3
	200	1.98E-4	2.08E-5	6.46E-6	6.42E-7
	300	2.07E-6	1.26E-7	3.13E-8	2.46E-9
	400	5.08E-7	2.95E-8	5.76E-9	5.29E-10
	500	1.61E-7	1.18E-8	1.95E-9	1.91E-10

Exponential convergence w.r.t. number of collocation points and number of training parameters

Noisy Data: Errors

NN: [2,400,2]

30×30 collocation points

300 random measurement points
with regularization

Relative errors

	noise	level	$l^\infty\text{-}\gamma$	$l^2\text{-}\gamma$	$l^\infty\text{-}u$	$l^2\text{-}u$
NLLSQ	$\epsilon =$	0.0	1.39E-4	7.11E-6	2.57E-6	2.24E-7
		0.0005	1.47E-2	1.42E-3	7.48E-4	2.17E-4
		0.001	2.92E-2	2.85E-3	1.50E-3	4.34E-4
		0.005	1.27E-1	1.36E-2	7.33E-3	2.17E-3
		0.01	2.14E-1	2.58E-2	1.48E-2	4.32E-3
		0.05	7.38E-1	1.02E-1	7.35E-2	2.14E-2
		0.1	8.43E-1	1.84E-1	1.48E-1	4.26E-2
VarPro-F1	$\epsilon =$	0.0	3.16E-4	3.02E-5	7.75E-6	1.11E-6
		0.0005	1.65E-2	1.93E-3	7.23E-4	2.18E-4
		0.001	3.21E-2	3.81E-3	1.44E-3	4.35E-4
		0.005	1.30E-1	1.78E-2	7.29E-3	2.16E-3
		0.01	2.31E-1	3.34E-2	1.48E-2	4.31E-3
		0.05	9.30E-1	1.16E-1	7.19E-2	2.14E-2
		0.1	1.02E+0	2.08E-1	1.42E-1	4.29E-2
VarPro-F2	$\epsilon =$	0.0	5.71E-4	4.93E-5	1.28E-5	1.29E-6
		0.0005	2.18E-2	2.46E-3	7.19E-4	2.23E-4
		0.001	4.33E-2	4.90E-3	1.44E-3	4.46E-4
		0.005	1.88E-1	2.30E-2	6.97E-3	2.21E-3
		0.01	3.37E-1	4.42E-2	1.37E-2	4.39E-3
		0.05	1.60E+0	1.93E-1	6.91E-2	2.18E-2
		0.1	2.66E+0	3.11E-1	1.38E-1	4.31E-2

1% noise

Summary

- Developed a method based on randomized NN for inverse PDE problems
- Presented three algorithms for training NN to solve inverse problem
 - ❖ NLLSQ,
 - ❖ VarPro-F1,
 - ❖ VarPro-F2
- For noise-free data, method exhibits spectral accuracy w.r.t. number of collocation points and number training parameters
- Noise degrades the accuracy of method. But method remains quite accurate in the presence of noise.

References

(Inverse PDEs)

1. S. Dong & Y. Wang, “A method for computing inverse parametric PDE problems with random-weight neural networks”. *Journal of Computational Physics*, accepted, 2023. (also arXiv:2210.04338)

(Local ELM for Forward PDEs)

2. S. Dong & Z. Li, “Local extreme learning machines and domain decomposition for solving linear and nonlinear partial differential equations”. *Computer Methods in Applied Mechanics and Engineering*, 387, 114129, 2021.
3. S. Dong & J. Yang, “On computing the hyperparameter of extreme learning machines: Algorithm and application to computational PDEs, and comparison with classical and high-order finite elements”. *Journal of Computational Physics*, 463, 111290, 2022.

Nonlinear Least Squares Method

Gauss-Newton
Method

+

Trust Region
Strategy

Newton Method with an
approximate Hessian matrix
(retaining only the contribution
from Jacobian matrix)

To improve convergence of
Gauss-Newton iterations

No need to compute 2nd
derivatives of residual

(Bjorck, 1996)