

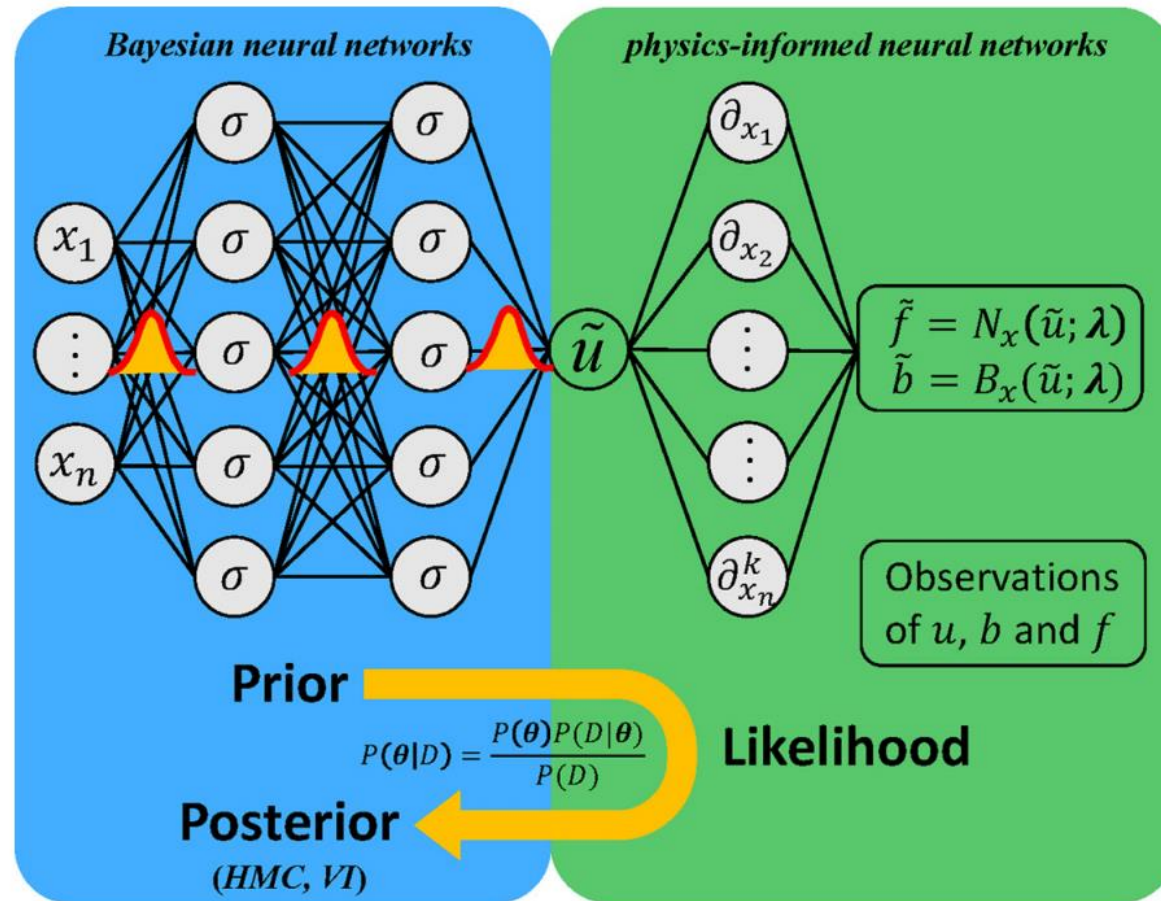
# B-PINNs: Bayesian physics-informed neural networks for forward and inverse PDE problems with noisy data

Liu Yang , Xuhui Meng , George Em Karniadakis

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- In practical applications, the measurement of data is usually noisy (produced by the sensors).
- There is no quantification of uncertainty in the PINN framework.



**Fig. 1.** Schematic of the Bayesian physics-informed neural network (B-PINN).  $P(\theta)$  is the prior for hyperparameters as well as the unknown terms in PDEs,  $P(D|\theta)$  represents the likelihood of observations (e.g.,  $u$ ,  $b$ ,  $f$ ), and  $P(\theta|D)$  is the posterior. The blue panel represents the Bayesian neural network while the green panel represents the physics-informed part. (For interpretation of the colors in the figure(s), the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

- a general partial differential equation (PDE) of the form

$$\mathcal{N}_{\mathbf{x}}(u; \boldsymbol{\lambda}) = f, \quad \mathbf{x} \in D,$$

$$\mathcal{B}_{\mathbf{x}}(u; \boldsymbol{\lambda}) = b, \quad \mathbf{x} \in \Gamma,$$

- Available dataset  $\mathcal{D}$  are scattered noisy measurements of  $u$ ,  $f$  and  $b$  from sensors:

$$\mathcal{D} = \mathcal{D}_u \cup \mathcal{D}_f \cup \mathcal{D}_b, \quad \begin{aligned} \bar{u}^{(i)} &= u(\mathbf{x}_u^{(i)}) + \epsilon_u^{(i)}, & i = 1, 2 \dots N_u, \\ \bar{f}^{(i)} &= f(\mathbf{x}_f^{(i)}) + \epsilon_f^{(i)}, & i = 1, 2 \dots N_f, \\ \bar{b}^{(i)} &= b(\mathbf{x}_b^{(i)}) + \epsilon_b^{(i)}, & i = 1, 2 \dots N_b, \end{aligned}$$

- Bayesian framework starts from representing  $u$  with a surrogate model  $\tilde{u}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta})$ :

$$\tilde{f}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \mathcal{N}_{\mathbf{x}}(\tilde{u}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}); \boldsymbol{\lambda}), \quad \tilde{b}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \mathcal{B}_{\mathbf{x}}(\tilde{u}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}); \boldsymbol{\lambda}).$$

- the likelihood can be calculated as:

$$P(\mathcal{D}|\boldsymbol{\theta}) = P(\mathcal{D}_u|\boldsymbol{\theta})P(\mathcal{D}_f|\boldsymbol{\theta})P(\mathcal{D}_b|\boldsymbol{\theta}),$$

$$P(\mathcal{D}_u|\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \prod_{i=1}^{N_u} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_u^{(i)2}}} \exp\left(-\frac{(\tilde{u}(\mathbf{x}_u^{(i)}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) - \bar{u}^{(i)})^2}{2\sigma_u^{(i)2}}\right),$$

$$P(\mathcal{D}_f|\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \prod_{i=1}^{N_f} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_f^{(i)2}}} \exp\left(-\frac{(\tilde{f}(\mathbf{x}_f^{(i)}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) - \bar{f}^{(i)})^2}{2\sigma_f^{(i)2}}\right),$$

$$P(\mathcal{D}_b|\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \prod_{i=1}^{N_b} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_b^{(i)2}}} \exp\left(-\frac{(\tilde{b}(\mathbf{x}_b^{(i)}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) - \bar{b}^{(i)})^2}{2\sigma_b^{(i)2}}\right).$$

- the posterior is obtained from Bayes' theorem:

$$P(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathcal{D}) = \frac{P(\mathcal{D}|\boldsymbol{\theta})P(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{P(\mathcal{D})} \simeq P(\mathcal{D}|\boldsymbol{\theta})P(\boldsymbol{\theta}),$$

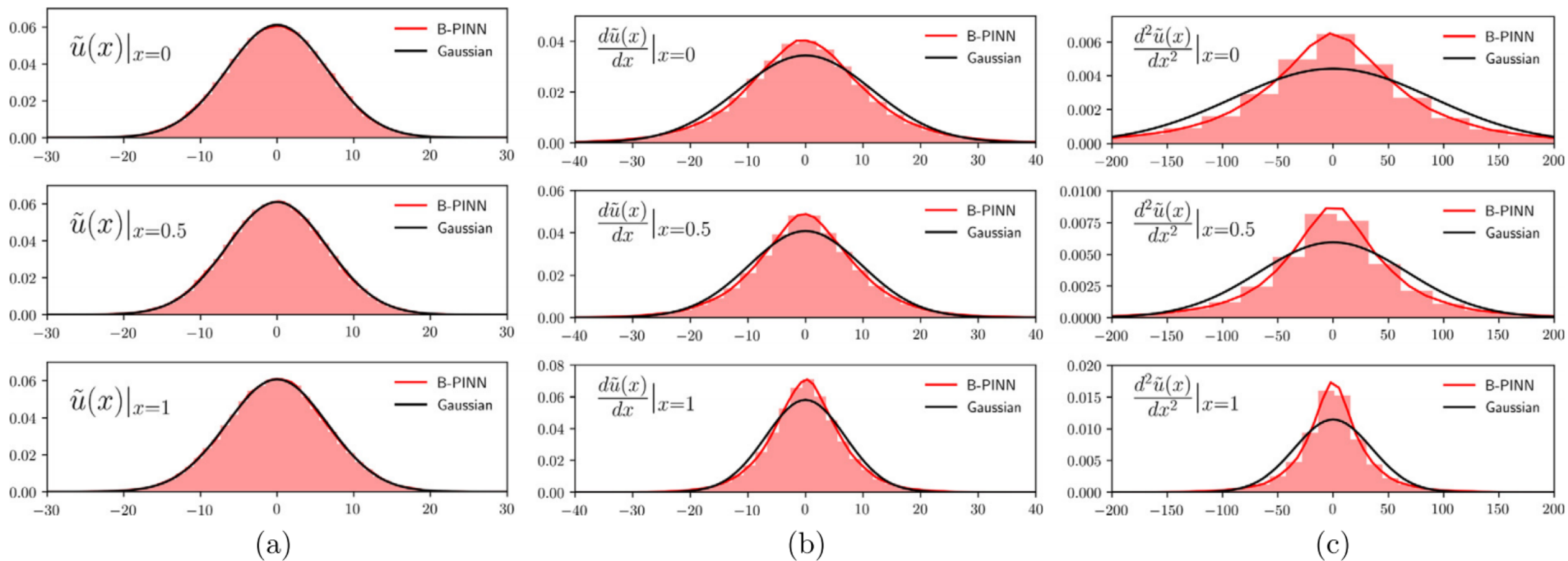
- In the case of inverse problems, we also need to assign a prior distribution for  $\lambda$ , which could be independent of  $P(\theta)$ .

$$P(\theta, \lambda | \mathcal{D}) = \frac{P(\mathcal{D} | \theta, \lambda) P(\theta, \lambda)}{P(\mathcal{D})} \simeq P(\mathcal{D} | \theta, \lambda) P(\theta, \lambda) = P(\mathcal{D} | \theta, \lambda) P(\theta) P(\lambda),$$

- In the application of Bayesian neural networks, a commonly used prior for  $\theta$  is that each component of  $\theta$  is an independent Gaussian distribution.
- In this case, the prior of the function  $\tilde{u}(x)$  is actually a Gaussian process as the width of hidden layers goes to infinity with  $\sqrt{N} \rightarrow \infty$ .

$$\mathbf{z}_l = \phi(\mathbf{w}_{l-1} \mathbf{z}_{l-1} + \mathbf{b}_{l-1}), \quad l = 1, 2, \dots, L,$$

$$\tilde{u} = \mathbf{w}_L \mathbf{z}_L + \mathbf{b}_L,$$



**Fig. 2.** Comparison between the B-PINNs' prior distributions and Gaussian distributions. The red lines and histograms represent the density of B-PINNs' outputs (a)  $\tilde{u}(x)$ , (b)  $d\tilde{u}(x)/dx$ , and (c)  $d^2\tilde{u}(x)/dx^2$  at  $x=0, 0.5$ , and  $1$ . The black lines are the density functions of the corresponding Gaussian distributions with zero mean and the same standard deviations as the B-PINNs' outputs.

## Hamiltonian Monte Carlo (HMC) method

- an efficient Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) method based on the Hamiltonian dynamics

$$p(\mathbf{x}) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{U(\mathbf{x})}{T}\right)$$

- $P(x)$  represents the probability that a system is in a state  $x$ .
- $P(x)$  depends numerically on the state's energy  $U(x)$  and the corresponding temperature  $T$ .

$$p(\mathbf{x}) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right)$$

- the target posterior distribution for  $\theta$  given a certain number of observations  $\mathcal{D}$  is defined as

$$P(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathcal{D}) \simeq \exp(-U(\boldsymbol{\theta})),$$



$$U(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = -\ln P(\mathcal{D}|\boldsymbol{\theta}) - \ln P(\boldsymbol{\theta}).$$



$$H(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{r}) = U(\boldsymbol{\theta}) + \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{r}^T \mathbf{M}^{-1} \mathbf{r},$$

- HMC generates samples from a joint distribution of  $(\theta, r)$  as follows. We simply discard the  $r$  samples, the  $\theta$  samples have marginal distribution  $P(\theta | \mathcal{D})$ .

$$\pi(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{r}) \sim \exp(-U(\boldsymbol{\theta}) - \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{r}^T \mathbf{M}^{-1} \mathbf{r}).$$

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## Algorithm 1 Hamiltonian Monte Carlo.

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**Require:** initial states for  $\theta^{t_0}$  and time step size  $\delta t$ .

**for**  $k = 1, 2 \dots N$  **do**

Sample  $\mathbf{r}^{t_{k-1}}$  from  $\mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{M})$ ,

$(\theta_0, \mathbf{r}_0) \leftarrow (\theta^{t_{k-1}}, \mathbf{r}^{t_{k-1}})$ .

**for**  $i = 0, 1 \dots (L - 1)$  **do**

$\mathbf{r}_i \leftarrow \mathbf{r}_i - \frac{\delta t}{2} \nabla U(\theta_i)$ ,

$\theta_{i+1} \leftarrow \theta_i + \delta t \mathbf{M}^{-1} \mathbf{r}_i$ ,

$\mathbf{r}_{i+1} \leftarrow \mathbf{r}_i - \frac{\delta t}{2} \nabla U(\theta_{i+1})$ ,

**end for**

Metropolis-Hastings step:

Sample  $p$  from Uniform[0, 1],

$\alpha \leftarrow \min\{1, \exp(H(\theta_L, \mathbf{r}_L) - H(\theta^{t_{k-1}}, \mathbf{r}^{t_{k-1}}))\}$ .

**if**  $p \geq \alpha$  **then**

$\theta^{t_k} \leftarrow \theta_L$ ,

**else**

$\theta^{t_k} \leftarrow \theta^{t_{k-1}}$ .

**end if**

**end for**

Calculate  $\{\tilde{u}(\mathbf{x}, \theta^{t_{N+1-j}})\}_{j=1}^M$  as samples of  $u(\mathbf{x})$ , similarly for other terms.

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the samples are generated from the following Hamiltonian dynamics

$$d\theta = \mathbf{M}^{-1} \mathbf{r} dt,$$

$$d\mathbf{r} = -\nabla U(\theta) dt.$$

## Variational inference (VI) method

- $P(\theta|D)$  is approximated by another density function  $Q(\theta; \zeta)$  parameterized by  $\zeta$ .
- Usually use multiple independent Gaussian distributions. Assuming that the parameters obey Gaussian distribution with mean  $\zeta_{\mu,i}$  and standard deviation  $\ln(1 + \exp(\zeta_{\rho,i}))$

$$Q(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \boldsymbol{\zeta}) = \prod_{i=1}^{d_{\theta}} q(\theta_i; \zeta_{\mu,i}, \zeta_{\rho,i}),$$

- tune  $\zeta$  to minimize

$$D_{KL}(Q(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \boldsymbol{\zeta}) || P(\boldsymbol{\theta}|D)) \simeq \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{\theta} \sim Q} [\ln Q(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \boldsymbol{\zeta}) - \ln P(\boldsymbol{\theta}) - \ln P(D|\boldsymbol{\theta})],$$

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## Algorithm 2 Variational inference.

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**Require:** an initial state for  $\zeta$ .

**for**  $k = 1, 2 \dots N$  **do**

Sample  $\{\mathbf{z}^{(j)}\}_{j=1}^{N_z}$  independently from  $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I}_{d_\theta})$ .

$\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(j)} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{\zeta}_\mu + \ln(1 + \exp(\boldsymbol{\zeta}_\rho)) \odot \mathbf{z}^{(j)}$ ,  $j = 1, 2 \dots N_z$ ,  $\odot$  denotes element-wise product.

$L(\boldsymbol{\zeta}) \leftarrow \frac{1}{N_z} \sum_{j=1}^{N_z} [\ln Q(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(j)}; \boldsymbol{\zeta}) - \ln P(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(j)}) - \ln P(\mathcal{D}|\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(j)})]$ .

Update  $\boldsymbol{\zeta}$  with gradient  $\nabla_{\boldsymbol{\zeta}} L(\boldsymbol{\zeta})$  using Adam optimizer.

**end for**

Sample  $\{\mathbf{z}^{(j)}\}_{j=1}^M$  independently from  $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I}_{d_\theta})$ .

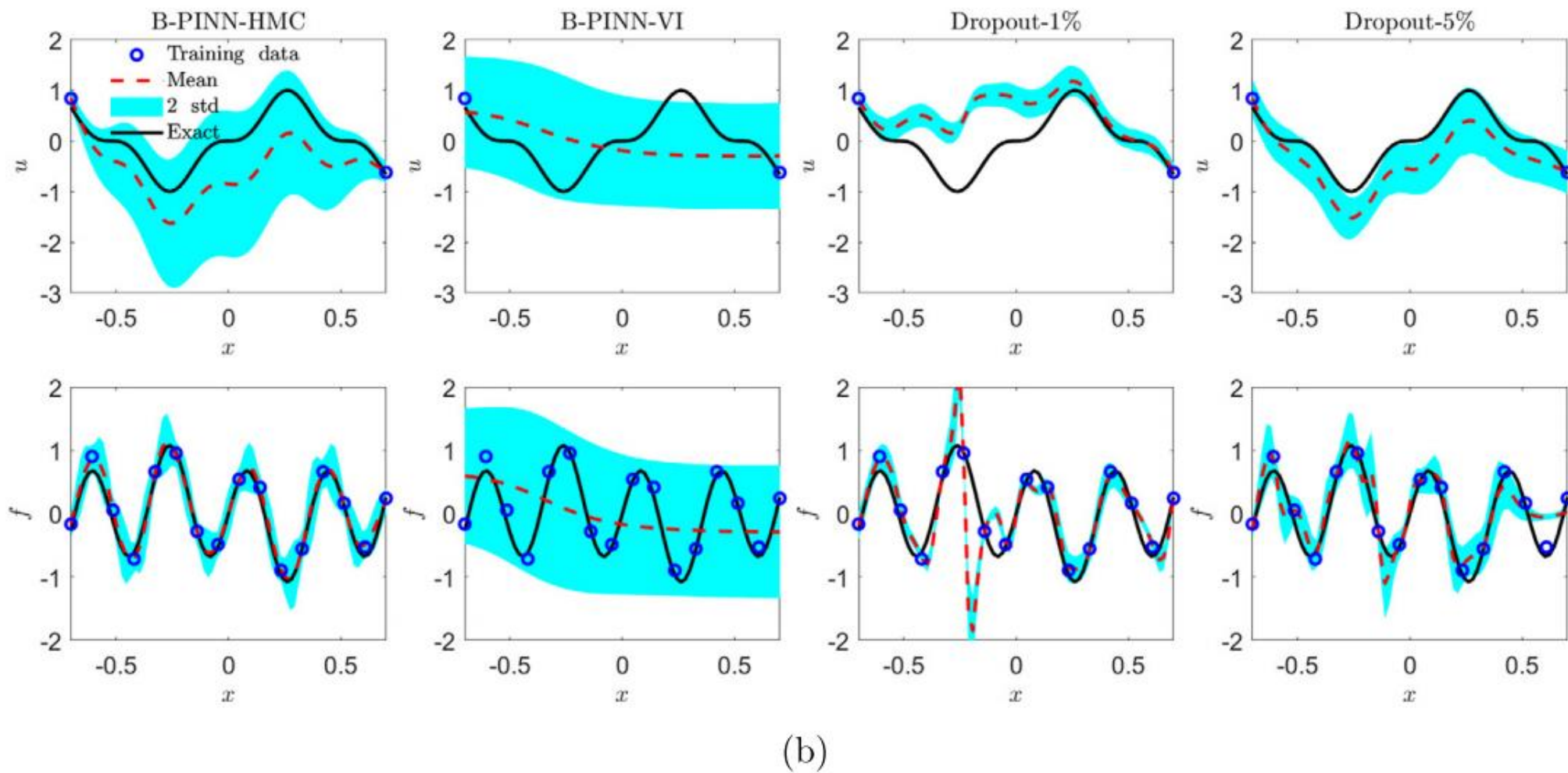
$\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(j)} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{\zeta}_\mu + \ln(1 + \exp(\boldsymbol{\zeta}_\rho)) \odot \mathbf{z}^{(j)}$ ,  $j = 1, 2 \dots M$ .

Calculate  $\{\tilde{u}(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(j)})\}_{j=1}^M$  as samples of  $u(\mathbf{x})$ , similarly for other terms.

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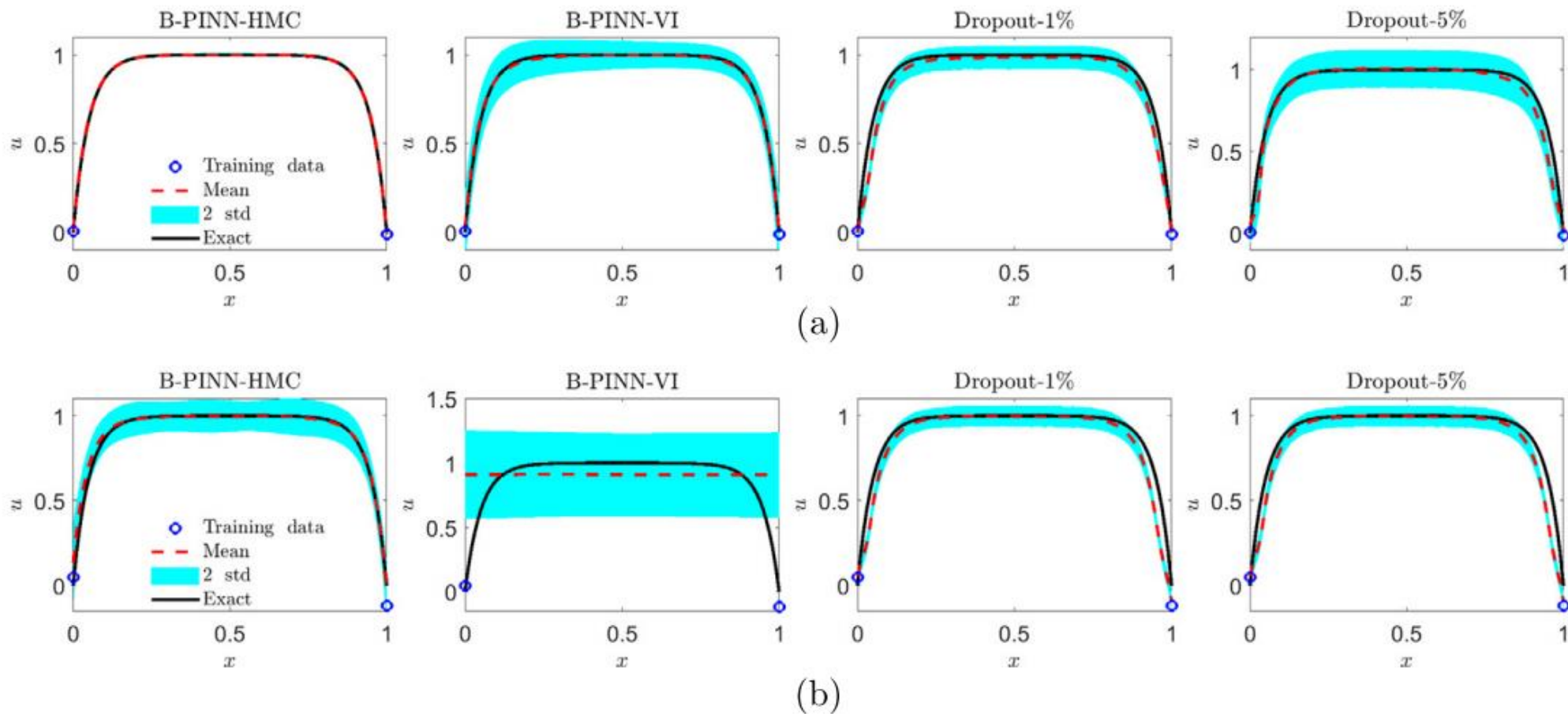
$$\lambda \partial_x^2 u = f, x \in [-0.7, 0.7], \lambda = 0.01. \quad u = \sin^3(6x)$$



**Fig. 5.** 1D linear Poisson equation - forward problem: predicted  $u$  and  $f$  from different methods with two data noise scales. (a)  $\epsilon_f \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 0.01^2)$ ,  $\epsilon_b \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 0.01^2)$ . (b)  $\epsilon_f \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 0.1^2)$ ,  $\epsilon_b \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 0.1^2)$ .

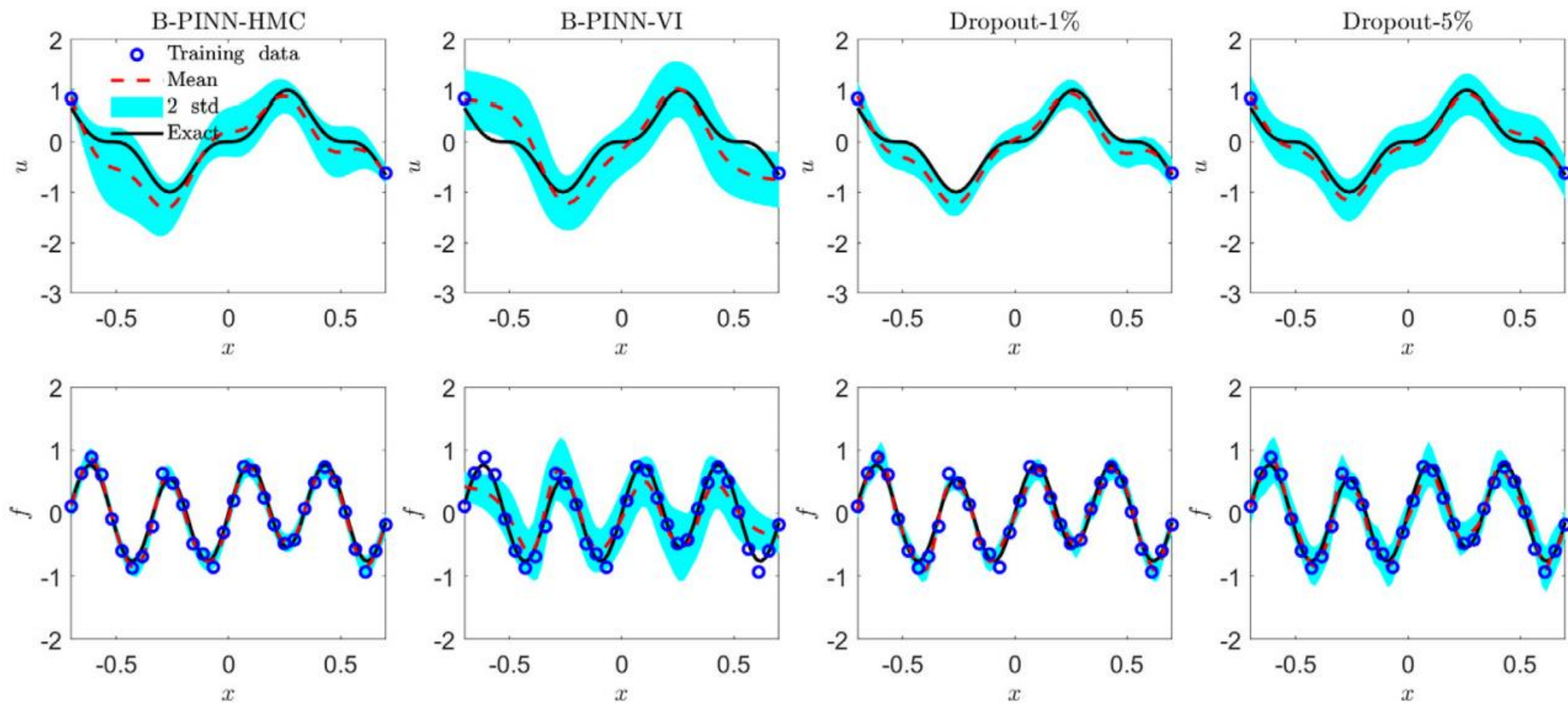
$$-\frac{\nu_e}{\phi} \partial_x^2 u + \frac{\nu u}{K} = g, \quad x \in [0, 1], \quad u = \frac{gK}{\nu} \left[ 1 - \frac{\cosh(r(x - H/2))}{\cosh(rH/2)} \right], \quad r = \sqrt{\frac{\nu\phi}{\nu_e K}}.$$

$$\nu_e = \nu = 10^{-3}, \quad \phi = 0.4, \quad K = 10^{-3}.$$



**Fig. 7.** 1D flow through porous media with boundary layer: predicted  $u$  from different methods with two data noise scales. (a)  $\epsilon_g \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 0.01^2)$ ,  $\epsilon_b \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 0.01^2)$ . (b)  $\epsilon_g \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 0.1^2)$ ,  $\epsilon_b \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 0.1^2)$ .

$$\lambda \partial_x^2 u + k \tanh(u) = f, \quad x \in [-0.7, 0.7], \quad u = \sin^3(6x). \quad \lambda = 0.01, \text{ and } k = 0.7$$



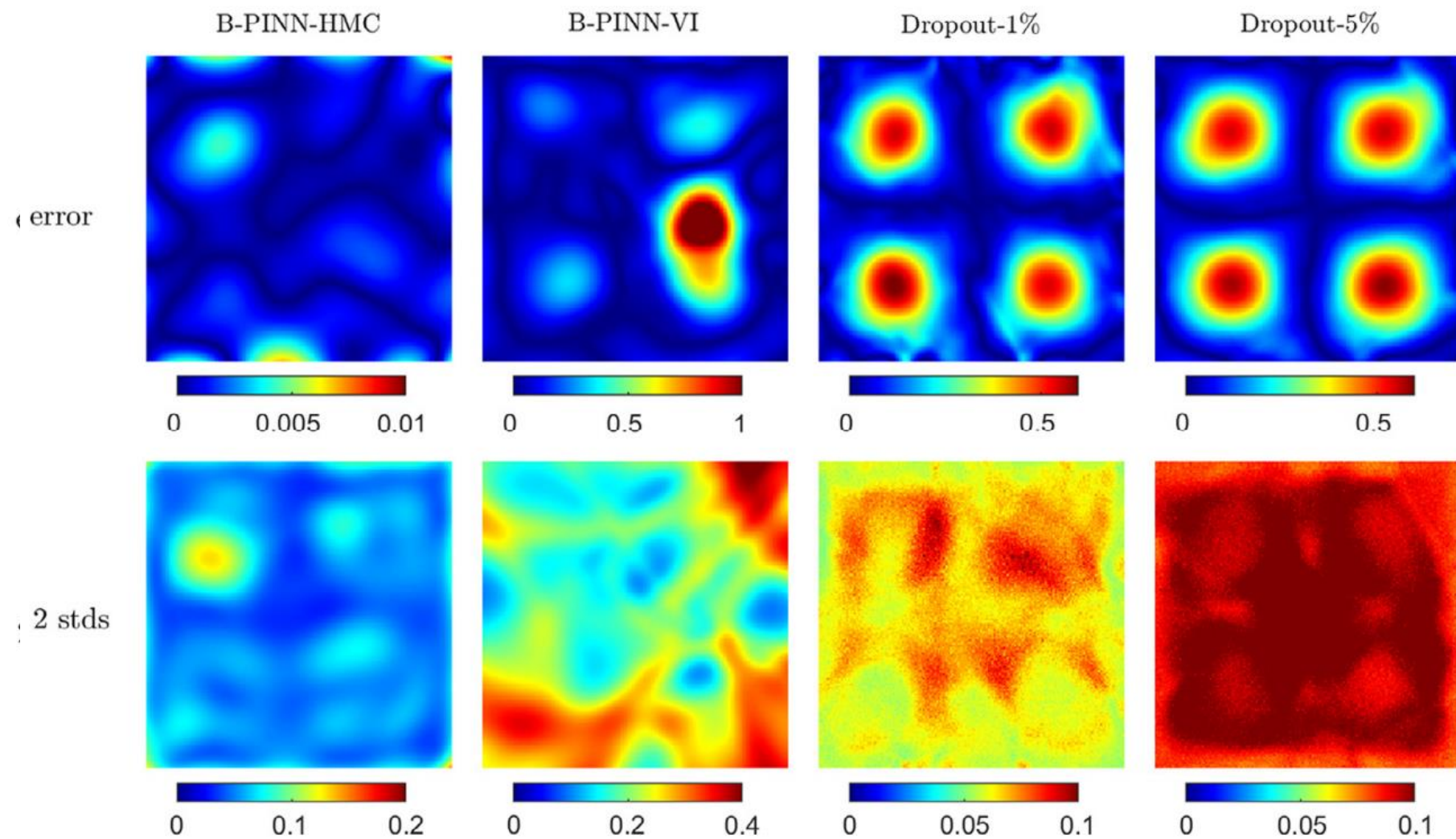
(b)

**Fig. 8.** 1D nonlinear Poisson equation - forward problem: predicted  $u$  and  $f$  from different methods with two data noise scales. (a)  $\epsilon_f \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 0.01^2)$ ,  $\epsilon_b \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 0.01^2)$ . (b)  $\epsilon_f \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 0.1^2)$ ,  $\epsilon_b \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 0.1^2)$ .

(a)

$$\lambda(\partial_x^2 u + \partial_y^2 u) + u(u^2 - 1) = f, \quad x, y \in [-1, 1], \quad u = \sin(\pi x) \sin(\pi y).$$

$$\lambda = 0.01$$



(b)

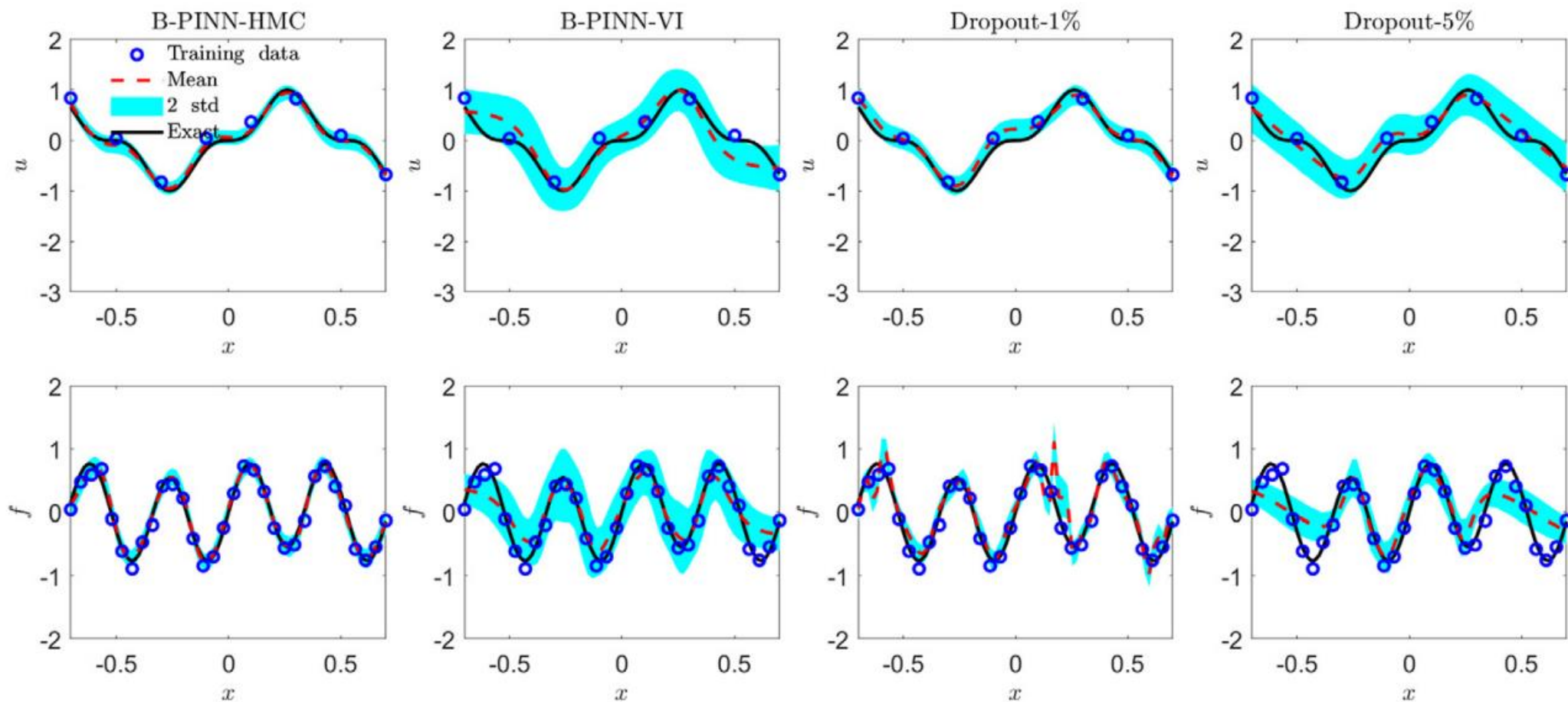
(a)

$$\lambda \partial_x^2 u + k \tanh(u) = f, \quad x \in [-0.7, 0.7],$$

**Table 1**

1D diffusion-reaction system with nonlinear source term: Predicted mean and standard deviation for  $k$  using different uncertainty quantification methods. The exact value for  $k$  is 0.7.

Noise scale		B-PINN-HMC	B-PINN-VI	Dropout-1%	Dropout-5%
0.01	Mean	0.705	0.708	0.714	0.669
	Std	$5.75 \times 10^{-3}$	$4.01 \times 10^{-3}$	$4.38 \times 10^{-3}$	$2.02 \times 10^{-2}$
0.1	Mean	0.665	0.775	0.746	0.633
	Std	$5.63 \times 10^{-2}$	$3.58 \times 10^{-2}$	$6.508 \times 10^{-3}$	$6.45 \times 10^{-3}$



$$\lambda \partial_x^2 u + k\alpha \tanh(u) = f, \quad x \in [-0.7, 0.7], \quad k\alpha = 0.7.$$

**Table 2**

1D diffusion-reaction system with nonlinear source term: Predicted mean and standard deviation for  $k$  using different priors with exact value  $k = 50$ .

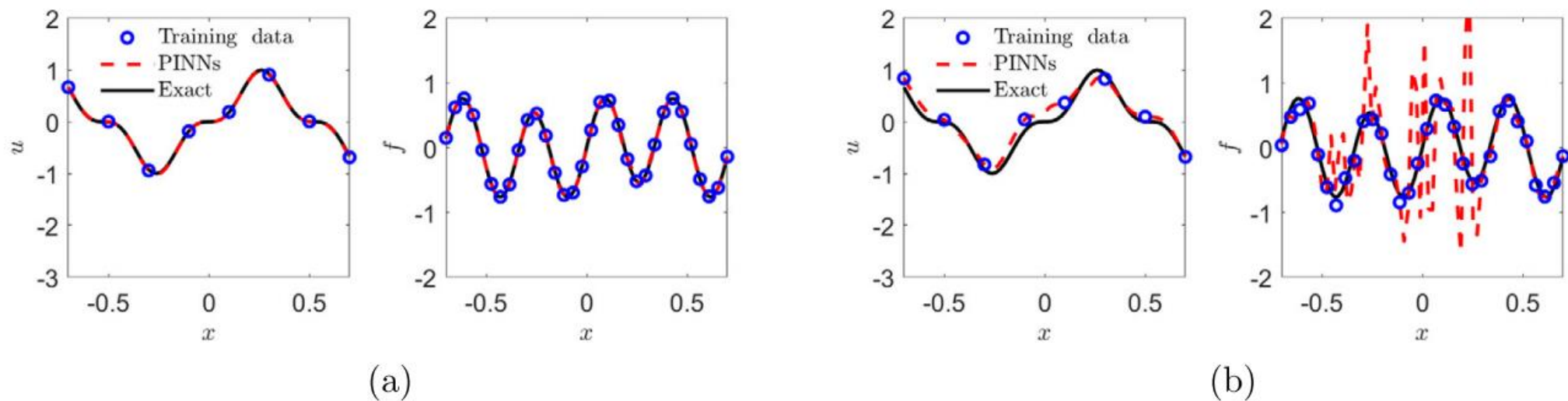
Prior for $k$		$N_{burnin} = 50,000$	$N_{burnin} = 100,000$
$k \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1^2)$	Mean	42.77	43.27
	Std	$1.39 \times 10^{-1}$	$6.65 \times 10^{-2}$
$\log(k) \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1^2)$	Mean	50.39	50.39
	Std	$3.90 \times 10^{-1}$	$3.96 \times 10^{-1}$

**Table 3**

1D diffusion-reaction system with nonlinear source term: Predicted mean and standard deviation for exact  $k = 0.7$  and  $k = 100$ , using the prior  $\log(k) \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1^2)$ .

Exact $k$		$N_{burnin} = 50,000$	$N_{burnin} = 100,000$
100	Mean	100.78	100.75
	Std	$7.95 \times 10^{-1}$	$8.08 \times 10^{-1}$
0.7	Mean	0.705	0.706
	Std	$5.6 \times 10^{-3}$	$5.2 \times 10^{-3}$

## Comparison with PINNs



**Fig. 12.** 1D diffusion-reaction system with nonlinear source term (PINNs): Predicted  $u$  and  $f$  with two data noise scales. (a)  $\epsilon_f \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 0.01^2)$ ,  $\epsilon_u \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 0.01^2)$ ,  $\epsilon_b \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 0.01^2)$ . (b)  $\epsilon_f \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 0.1^2)$ ,  $\epsilon_u \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 0.1^2)$ ,  $\epsilon_b \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 0.1^2)$ .