

Deep Neural Networks Are Effective At Learning High-Dimensional Hilbert-Valued Functions From Limited Data

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Outline

- 1** Motivation
- 2 Deep learning approach
- 3 Main result
- 4 Proof strategy
- 5 Numerical results

Motivation

Multivariate function recovery

Approximate $f : \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \mathcal{V}$, a Hilbert-valued function, from its evaluations at $m \in \mathbb{N}$ sample points $\mathbf{y}_1, \dots, \mathbf{y}_m \in \mathcal{U}$:

$$d_i = f(\mathbf{y}_i) + n_i \in \mathcal{V}_h, \quad i = 1, \dots, m.$$

Input
 $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^d$



Blackbox
model



Output
 $f(\mathbf{y}) \in \mathcal{V}$

Main motivation

Parametric PDE

A parametric PDE takes the form

$$\mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{y}}[u(\cdot, \mathbf{y})] = 0$$

with suitable boundary conditions.

- Parametric variables $\mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{U}$.
- Physical variables $\mathbf{x} \in \Omega$.
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{y}}$ is an operator depending on the parameters \mathbf{y} (e.g. differentiation wrt \mathbf{x}).
- $u(\cdot, \mathbf{y})$ is an element of some Banach or Hilbert space \mathcal{V} .

Example:

$$-\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} \cdot (a(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \nabla_{\mathbf{x}} u(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})) = g(\mathbf{x}) \quad \text{in } \Omega,$$

and BC.

Main challenges

- 1 High-dimensional models:** Often $d \gg 1$ or even $d = \infty$.
- 2 The space \mathcal{V} is infinite dimensional (Hilbert or Banach):**
Needs discretization \mathcal{V}_h over $\Omega \rightsquigarrow$ induces a discretization error.
- 3 Corrupted data (unknown errors):**
Modelling errors, numerical error, random noise in the measurements.
- 4 Generating data is expensive:**
Example: generating multiple solutions of a particular PDE using a **black-box** numerical PDE solver.

Holomorphy assumption

For $d \geq 1$, let $\rho \in \mathbb{R}^d$ with $\rho > 1$. The Bernstein polyellipse of polyradius ρ is

$$\mathcal{E}_\rho = \mathcal{E}_{\rho_1} \times \mathcal{E}_{\rho_2} \times \cdots \times \mathcal{E}_{\rho_d} \subset \mathbb{C}^d.$$

where

$$\mathcal{E}_\rho = \left\{ \frac{1}{2}(z + z^{-1}) : z \in \mathbb{C}, 1 \leq |z| \leq \rho \right\} \subset \mathbb{C}$$

Assumption

The function f has a **holomorphic extension** from $[-1, 1]^d$ to some Bernstein polyellipse \mathcal{E}_ρ .

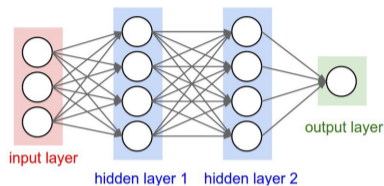
- Many parametric DEs provably satisfy this assumption, including elliptic diffusion equations, parametric IVPs,...

Cohen, DeVore, Schwab (2010, 2011), Chkifa, Cohen, Schwab (2015), Hoang, Schwab (2013, 2014)

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Deep Neural Network (DNN) $\Phi : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^K$



$$\mathbf{z}^{(1)} = \sigma \left(\mathbf{W}^{(1)} \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{b}^{(1)} \right),$$

$$\mathbf{z}^{(\ell)} = \sigma \left(\mathbf{W}^{(\ell)} \mathbf{z}^{(\ell-1)} + \mathbf{b}^{(\ell)} \right), \quad \ell = 2, \dots, L-1$$

$$\Phi(\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{W}^{(L)} \mathbf{z}^{(L-1)} + \mathbf{b}^{(L)}.$$

- $\mathbf{W}^{(\ell)} \in \mathbb{R}^{N_\ell \times N_{\ell-1}}$ are the **weights**.
- $\mathbf{b}^{(\ell)} \in \mathbb{R}^{N_\ell}$ are the **biases**.
- σ is the **activation** function, e.g., $\sigma(t) = \max\{0, t\}$ (ReLU).

Why DNN?

DNNs are capable of efficiently approximating functions from a wide variety of classes:

- Smooth functions, piecewise smooth functions, H^k functions, . . .

[DeVore, Hanin, Petrova (2020)], [Elbrächter, Perekrestenko, Grohs, Bölcskei (2019)], and references therein.

- There are existence theorems about DNNs approximating **holomorphic** functions.
- These DNNs can achieve the same error bound as the best s -term polynomial approximation.
- Specifically, they can obtain an error proportional to $\exp(-\gamma s^{1/d})$, where γ depends on the region of holomorphy.
- The size and depth of these DNNs are bounded in terms of s and d .

[Opschoor, Schwab, Zech (2019)], [Daws, Webster (2020)], [Adcock, Brugiapaglia, Dexter, Moraga (2021)].

Input

- Each d_i is uniquely represented as

$$d_i = f(\mathbf{y}_i) + n_i = \sum_{k=1}^K d_{i,k} \varphi_k \in \mathcal{V}_h, \quad i = 1, \dots, m.$$

- ◆ The values $\{(\mathbf{y}_i, d_i)\}_{i=1}^m$ are the *input*.

Output

- Let $\{\Psi_i\}_{i=1}^N$ be a basis for \mathcal{P}_Λ , where $N = |\Lambda|$. Then we may write

$$\hat{f}_{\Lambda,h} : \mathbf{y} \mapsto \sum_{i=1}^N \left(\sum_{k=1}^K \hat{c}_{i,k} \varphi_k \right) \Psi_i(\mathbf{y}),$$

where $\hat{c}_{i,k} \in \mathbb{R}$.

- ◆ The values $(\hat{c}_{i,k})_{n,k=1}^{N,K}$ are the *output*.

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Practical DNN existence theorem for Hilbert-valued functions:

Let $f : \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \mathcal{V}$ be holomorphic in a suitable region, and $\tilde{m} = cm/(\log^3(m) \log(d))$. Then there exists

- 1 a class of ReLU DNNs,
- 2 a loss function (regularized ℓ^2 -loss),
- 3 a choice of m sample points $\mathbf{y}_1, \dots, \mathbf{y}_m$,

such that any DNN Φ trained from the input $\{(\mathbf{y}_i, d_i)\}_{i=1}^m$ gives an approximation f_Φ satisfying

$$\|f - f_\Phi\|_{L^2(\mathcal{U}; \mathcal{V})} \lesssim (E_1 + E_2 + E_3),$$

$$E_1 = \exp\left(-\gamma \tilde{m}^{1/(2d)}\right), \quad E_2 = \left(\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \|n_i\|_{\mathcal{V}}^2\right)^{1/2}, \quad E_3 = \|f - \mathcal{P}_h(f)\|_{L^\infty(\mathcal{U}; \mathcal{V})}.$$

- E_1 is the **approximation error**: quantifies how well f is approximated by a DNN in terms of \tilde{m} .
- E_2 is the **measurement error**: quantifies the error in the pointwise evaluations of f at the points \mathbf{y}_i .
- E_3 is the **discretization error**: since we work with \mathcal{V}_h instead of \mathcal{V} .



ADCOCK, DEXTER, BRUGIAPAGLIA AND MORAGA, Deep Neural Networks Are Effective At Learning High-Dimensional Hilbert-Valued Functions From Limited Data. MSML, volume 145, pages 1–36. (2021)

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Orthogonal polynomials

- $\mathcal{U} = [-1, 1]^d$ the unit hypercube.
- $d\rho(\mathbf{y}) = 2^{-d} d\mathbf{y}$ be the uniform measure on \mathcal{U} .
- $\{\Psi_\nu\}_{\nu \in \mathbb{N}_0^d}$ be the tensor-product, orthonormal Legendre polynomial basis of $L^2_\rho(\mathcal{U})$.

Let $L^2_\rho(\mathcal{U}; \mathcal{V})$ the Lebesgue-Bochner space of Hilbert-valued functions $f : \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \mathcal{V}$.

Polynomial expansion: if $f \in L^2_\rho(\mathcal{U}; \mathcal{V})$, then

$$f = \sum_{\nu \in \mathbb{N}_0^d} c_\nu \Psi_\nu, \quad c_\nu = \int_{\mathcal{U}} f(\mathbf{y}) \Psi_\nu(\mathbf{y}) d\rho(\mathbf{y}) \in \mathcal{V}.$$

Sequence in $\ell^p(\Lambda; \mathcal{V})$: For $1 \leq p < \infty$ and $\mathbf{c} \in \ell^p(\Lambda; \mathcal{V})$, define

$$\|\mathbf{c}\|_{\mathcal{V}, p}^p = \sum_{\nu \in \Lambda} \|c_\nu\|_{\mathcal{V}}^p.$$

Polynomial approximation as a compressed sensing problem

Let Λ be a finite index set with $|\Lambda| = N$. Define the normalized measurement matrix

$$\mathbf{A} = \left(\frac{\Psi_{\nu_j}(\mathbf{y}_i)}{\sqrt{m}} \right)_{i,j=1}^{m,N} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times N},$$

and the normalized measurement and error vectors

$$\mathbf{b} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{m}} (f(\mathbf{y}_i) + n_i)_{i=1}^m \in \mathcal{V}_h^m, \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{e} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{m}} (n_i)_{i=1}^m \in \mathcal{V}^m.$$

Hence, the recovery of the polynomial coefficients $\mathbf{c}_\Lambda = (c_\nu)_{\nu \in \Lambda}$ of f is equivalent to solving the noisy linear system

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{c}_\Lambda + \mathbf{e} + \mathbf{e}' = \mathbf{b},$$

where

$$\mathbf{e}' = \frac{1}{\sqrt{m}} (f(\mathbf{y}_i) - f_\Lambda(\mathbf{y}_i))_{i=1}^m.$$

Consider the Square Root LASSO problem

$$\min_{\mathbf{z} \in \mathcal{V}_h^N} \lambda \|\mathbf{z}\|_{\mathcal{V},1} + \|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{z} - \mathbf{b}\|_{\mathcal{V},2}.$$

Emulation as a DNN training problem

Key insight: approximating polynomials as DNNs

For any $\delta > 0$, there exists a DNN $\Gamma : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{|\Lambda|}$ (of size and depth depending on d , $|\Lambda|$ and δ) such that

$$\|\Psi_{\nu} - \Psi_{\nu,\delta}\|_{L^\infty(\mathcal{U})} \leq \delta,$$

where $\Gamma(\mathbf{y}) = (\Psi_{\nu,\delta}(\mathbf{y}))_{\nu \in \Lambda}$.

[Opschoor, Schwab, Zech (2019)], [Daws, Webster (2020)], [Adcock, Brugiapaglia, Dexter, Moraga (2021)].

We can use this result to emulate the polynomial approximation problem as a DNN training problem:

$$\mathbf{A} = \left(\frac{\Psi_{\nu_j}(\mathbf{y}_i)}{\sqrt{m}} \right)_{i,j=1}^{m,N} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times N} \quad \rightsquigarrow \quad \mathbf{A}' = \left(\frac{\Psi_{\nu_j,\delta}(\mathbf{y}_i)}{\sqrt{m}} \right)_{i,j=1}^{m,N} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times N}$$

Carefully balancing the error due to this approximation and accounting for all other sources of errors leads to the main result.

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Parametric PDE approximation

A practical example:

- $\Omega = (0, 1)^2$ physical domain with discretization Ω_h .
- $\mathcal{U} = [-1, 1]^d$ parametric domain with uniform probability measure.
- We seek a function $u : \Omega \times \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfying

$$-\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} \cdot (a(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \nabla_{\mathbf{x}} u(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})) = g(\mathbf{x}) \quad \text{in } \Omega, \quad \text{and BC.}$$

Compute: Approximation $u_{\Phi, h} : \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \mathcal{V}_h$ with a DNN $\Phi : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^K$, of the form

$$u_{\Phi, h}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \sum_{k=1}^K (\Phi(\mathbf{y}))_k \varphi_k(\mathbf{x}).$$

Note: we do not implement the training strategy from the theorem.

Training: Given data $\{(\mathbf{y}_i, d_i)\}_{i=1}^m$, $d_i = (c_k(\mathbf{y}_i))_{k=1}^K$ from a fixed FE discretization, minimize the loss function

$$\text{MSE}(\mathbf{y}) := \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{k=1}^K (c_k(\mathbf{y}_i) - (\Phi(\mathbf{y}_i))_k)^2,$$

or

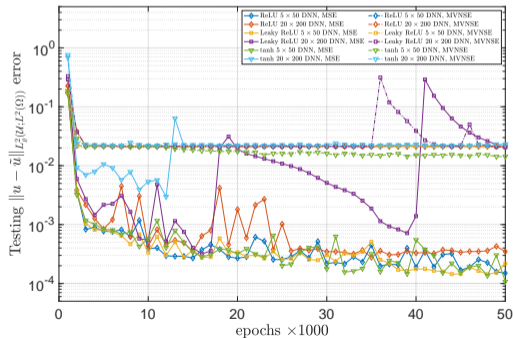
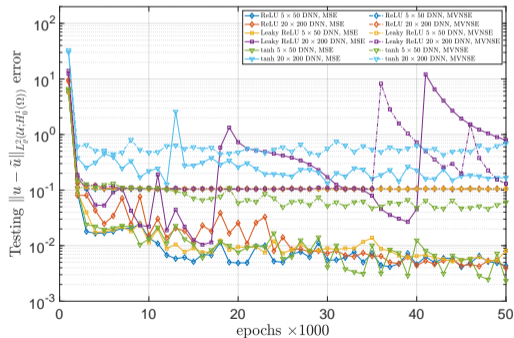
$$\text{MVNSE}(\mathbf{y}) := \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \|u_h(\mathbf{y}_i) - u_{\Phi, h}(\mathbf{y}_i)\|_{\mathcal{V}}^2.$$

Testing: We compare the testing error in $L^2_{\varrho}(\mathcal{U}; L^2(\Omega))$ and $L^2_{\varrho}(\mathcal{U}; H_0^1(\Omega))$ norm.

- We use deterministic high-order sparse grid stochastic collocation method.

Effective architectures and loss functions

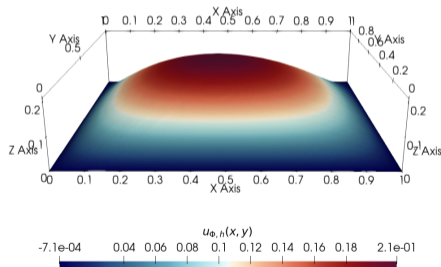
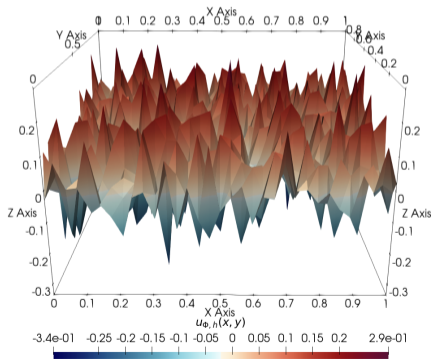
- DNN architectures with MVNSE underperform identical architectures trained with the MSE.
- Big difference between in the $L^2(\Omega)$ -norm (**right**) for tanh, ReLU and Leaky-ReLU 5×50 DNNs.



Visualization comparative

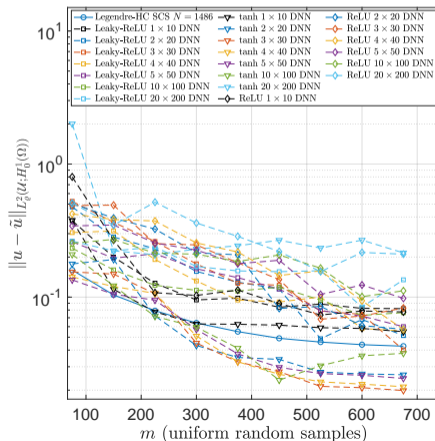
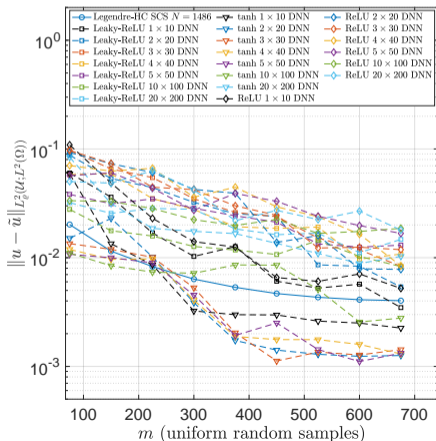
Prediction for $u_h(x, y)$ from a tanh 5×50 DNN at $\mathbf{y} = [0.995, 0]^t$

- Early training: after 2 epochs of Adam (MSE 6.4255).
- At the end of the training: after 2045 epochs (MSE $4.879 \cdot 10^{-7}$).



Comparison with Simultaneous Compressed Sensing (SCS)

- Elliptic PDE with $d=30$ dimensional log-affine parametric diffusion.
- DNNs can outperform state-of-art polynomial-based CS methods.



A mixed formulation

Define $\mathbb{K} = \text{diag}([a_1, a_2])$ and

$$\begin{aligned} -\nabla \cdot (\mathbb{K}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \nabla \mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})) &= \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) & \mathbf{x} \in \Omega, \mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{U}, \\ \mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) &= \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) & \mathbf{x} \in \Gamma_D, \mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{U}, \\ \nabla \mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \cdot \mathbf{n} &= 0 & \mathbf{x} \in \Gamma_N, \mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{U}. \end{aligned}$$

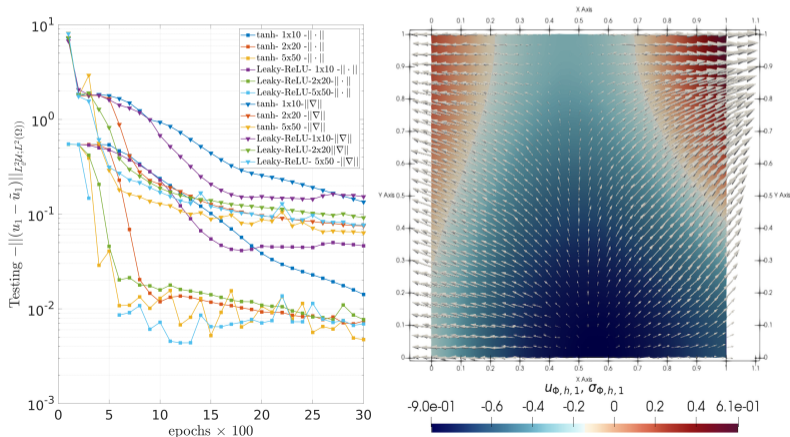
Given $\mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{U}$, find $(\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{y}), \boldsymbol{\sigma}(\mathbf{y})) \in [L^2(\Omega)] \times \mathbf{H}_{\Gamma_N}(\text{div}; \Omega)$ such that

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \boldsymbol{\sigma}, \boldsymbol{\tau} \rangle_{L^2(\Omega)} + \langle \mathbf{u}, \nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{\tau} \rangle_{L^2(\Omega)} &= \langle \boldsymbol{\tau} \cdot \mathbf{n}, \mathbf{h} \rangle_{\Gamma_D} \\ \langle \nabla \mathbb{K} \cdot \boldsymbol{\sigma}, \mathbf{v} \rangle_{L^2(\Omega)} + \langle \mathbb{K} \mathbf{v}, \nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{\sigma} \rangle_{L^2(\Omega)} &= -\langle \mathbf{f}, \mathbf{v} \rangle_{L^2(\Omega)} \end{aligned}$$

Here $\boldsymbol{\sigma}(\mathbf{y}) = \nabla \mathbf{u}(\mathbf{y}) \in \mathbf{H}_{\Gamma_N}(\text{div}; \Omega)$.

Parametric PDE with mixed B.C. example

- Testing errors for \mathbf{u} are substantially smaller than those for its gradient $\nabla \mathbf{u}$.
- DNNs can be used as well to approximate parametric PDEs with mixed boundary conditions.



Conclusions

- Deep learning is capable of approximating Hilbert-valued functions from limited data.
- There exists a DNN architecture and training procedure that performs as well as current best-in-class schemes.
- DNN can be used to approximate mixed formulations.
- Using the MSE loss function leads to better and faster approximations.
- In practice DNNs can outperform or match best current methods.

References



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