## **Optimizing a Physics-Informed Neural Network to solve the Reynolds Equation**

Z. Sánchez López and G. Berenice Díaz Cortés

Instituto Mexicano del Petróleo,

Eje Central Lázaro Cárdenas Norte 152, Col. San Bartolo Atepehuacán, Gustavo A. Madero, 07730, Ciudad de México.

Received 16 February 2024; accepted 8 August 2024

This study focuses on the optimization of a Physics-Informed Neural Network (PINN) to address Partial Differential Equation (PDE) problems associated with fluid flow. Specifically, the stationary, one-dimensional classical Reynolds equation is solved using the PINN. Within the conducted studies, a comparison is made between the solutions obtained using the PINN, the numerical Finite Difference Method (FD), and the analytical solution. We study various scenarios with diverse hyper-parameters such as learning rate, epochs, number of training points, etc., for constructing the neural network to identify the optimal setup. The PINN accurately approximated the solution to the Reynolds equation (up to  $O(10^{-2})$ ). This suggests that PINNs can be used to address diverse problems in fluid dynamics. We proposed a PINN configuration that outperformed the PINN presented in the literature. The finite differences method obtains a better approximation than the PINNs, however, the full potential of the PINNs is yet to be determined, as it can include data from the problem, that finite difference method (FD) can not. Further studies are planned to investigate the capabilities of PINNs.

Keywords: PINN; PDE solution; Reynolds equation; fluid dynamics; hyperparameters optimization.

DOI: https://doi.org/10.31349/RevMexFis.71.020601

## 1. Introduction

Physics-informed neural networks (PINNs) are a state-of-theart framework recently developed to solve partial differential equations [1] for both, forward and inverse problems.

PINNs were introduced in 2017 as a new class of datadriven solvers in a two-part paper [2,3] published in a merged version later in 2019, Raissi *et al.* [4] developed the PINNs that can accurately solve both forward problems that approximate the solutions of the governing mathematical model, as well as inverse problems, where the model parameters are inferred from the observed data. The PINN algorithm inputs the governing equation into the network and thus enriches the loss function by adding a residual form of the equation, which essentially acts as a penalizing term to constrain the space of admissible solutions. In this setting, the problem of inferring solutions of PDEs is transformed into an optimization problem of the loss function that contains the physics of the problem in the residual, boundary, and initial conditions loss terms [5].

PINNs have now been applied to solve a variety of problems including fluid mechanics [4,6-12], solid mechanics [13-16], heat transfer [17-19], geophysics [9,20-22], and flow in porous media [23-29].

Applications in flow simulations include solving Navier-Stokes equations [30], fluid flow through random heterogeneous media [31-33], Reynolds-Averaged Navier-Stokes simulations [34-36], among others [37].

The performance of the PINNs is influenced by various factors, including data quantity, quality, and features. A key factor is the configuration of parameters based on the problem specification. Parameters in a PINN can be classified into two types: model parameters, which are estimated from data such as weights and biases, and hyperparameters, which are external and cannot be estimated directly from data, such as the learning rate, number of neurons and layers, etc.

Optimizing hyperparameters is essential for maximizing model performance, as the best values are those that yield the highest accuracy. Various methods, such as grid search, randomized search, genetic and evolutionary algorithms, and Bayesian optimization, can be employed to identify the best hyperparameter values [38-41].

In this paper, we optimize a Physics-Informed Neural Network (PINN) to solve the stationary one-dimensional Reynolds equation, as previously presented in the literature [38]. We complement this work by providing a detailed explanation of the analytically computed derivatives required for training the PINN, aiming for a clearer understanding of the process (see Appendix A).

As we will see in the first experiment, the PINN does not always converge to the solution, therefore, an statistical study is performed. Due to the instability of the particular PINN we are working on, automatized optimization methods that include large number of computations such as grid search, evolutionary algorithms and Bayesian optimization are not the best option due to the number of repetitions performed for the statistics, and are out of the scope of this paper. Instead, we selected a set of parameters to perform the study based on the best observed performance, more details are presented in the Sec. 3.

This paper is distributed as follows, in Sec. 2, we present the methodology for applying PINNs to solve PDEs, followed by its specific application in solving the Reynolds Equation, discussed in Subsec. 2.1. We present the neural network architecture used to solve the Reynolds equation in Subsec. 2.2. Then, in Subsec. 2.3, we provide a brief description of the experiments conducted, where the network's hyperparameters were adjusted for optimization. Finally, in Sec. 3, we present the results and discuss their implications, finally, we include the conclusions of this work.

The experiments presented in this work were performed in python in an Intel@ Core i7-7700HQ CPU @2.80 GHz x8, with 32 GB of RAM. The PINN for the Reynolds Equation theory and code is available at https://github.com/ gbdiazc/Reynolds\_PINN\_Notebook.git.

## 2. Methodology of physics-informed neural networks for solving PDEs

The methodology to approximate a PDE with physicsinformed neural networks (PINNs) is based on the minimization of the cost function, taking into account the residual form of the PDE, together with the boundary conditions, and initial conditions [4]. The residual form of the PDE is given in Eq. (1),

$$R(t, \boldsymbol{x}) = \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{u}(\boldsymbol{x}, t)}{\partial t} + \mathcal{N}[\boldsymbol{u}(\boldsymbol{x}, t)] = 0,$$
$$\boldsymbol{x} \in \boldsymbol{\Omega}, \ t \in [0, T], \tag{1}$$

subject to the initial Eq. (2) and boundary conditions Eq. (3):

$$\boldsymbol{u}(\boldsymbol{x},t=0) = \boldsymbol{g}(\boldsymbol{x}), \qquad \qquad \boldsymbol{x} \in \boldsymbol{\Omega}$$
 (2)

$$\mathcal{B}[\boldsymbol{u}(\boldsymbol{x},t)] = 0, \qquad \boldsymbol{x} \in \boldsymbol{\partial}\Omega, \ t \in [0,T].$$
(3)

In Eq. (1),  $\mathcal{N}[\cdot]$  represents a differential operator (linear or nonlinear), and  $\mathcal{B}[\cdot]$  is an operator representing the boundary conditions (Dirichlet, Neumann, Robin, or periodic). The vector  $\boldsymbol{x} = (\boldsymbol{x_1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{x_d}) \in \boldsymbol{\Omega}$  is the spatial coordinate, that in general could be in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ , and  $t \in [0, T]$  is the temporal coordinate. The spatial domain and the boundary of the domain where the PDE is defined are represented by  $\boldsymbol{\Omega}, \partial \boldsymbol{\Omega} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ , respectively.

A feed-forward neural network has an architecture such that the information flows in a single direction. It consists of the input layer, hidden layers, and an output layer (See Fig. 1). The input layer corresponds to the data inputted to the NN. If the PDE depends on the variables x, t, a set of points  $x_i, t_i$  in the domain  $\Omega$  are selected to train the network, the output of this layer is the original data  $z^0 = (x, t)$ .



FIGURE 1. Architecture of a Feed Forward Neural Network, image created in Ref. [39] and adapted.

Next, we have the hidden layers, where all the computation is done. Neurons in adjacent layers are connected but neurons within a single layer share no connection, and each neuron in layer (L) is connected to all neurons in the next layer (L + 1). In each of these layers, the input data ( $z^{L-1}$ ) of the previous layer (L - 1) is multiplied by the weights and the bias is added, therefore the output of each layer is given by  $z^{L} = w^{L} z^{L-1} + b^{L}$ . The output of each layer passes through an activation function  $\varphi$ , before moving to the next layer *i.e.*,  $z^{L} = \varphi(w^{L} z^{L-1} + b^{L})$ .

In the last layer, the expected approximation is obtained. For a neural network of Nn layers the output of the previous layer Nn - 1 is multiplied by the weights and biases and an activation function is applied, leading to the expected solution  $u_{\theta}(\boldsymbol{x},t) = \varphi(\boldsymbol{w}^{Nn}\boldsymbol{z}^{Nn-1} + \boldsymbol{b}^{Nn})$ . The layers can be summarized as:

Input: (Data) 
$$\mathbf{z}^{0} = (\mathbf{x}, t)$$
.  
Hidden:  $\mathbf{z}^{L} = \varphi(\mathbf{w}^{L}\mathbf{z}^{L-1} + \mathbf{b}^{L}), \quad 1 \leq L \leq Nn - 1$ .  
Output:  $u_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}, t) = \mathbf{z}^{Nn} = \varphi(\mathbf{w}^{Nn}\mathbf{z}^{Nn-1} + \mathbf{b}^{Nn})$ . (4)

The solution u(t, x) of the PDE is approximated with the output of a Neural Network  $u_{\theta}(t, x)$ , where  $\varphi(.)$  is an activation function that can be linear or nonlinear,  $\mathbf{w}^L$  and  $\mathbf{b}^L$  are the weights and biases of the  $L^{th}$  layer, and together, they form the parameter vector of the neural network approximation denoted by  $\theta$ :

$$\boldsymbol{\theta} = \{\boldsymbol{w}^1, \boldsymbol{w}^2, \dots, \boldsymbol{w}^L, \boldsymbol{b}^1, \boldsymbol{b}^2, \dots, \boldsymbol{b}^L\}.$$
 (5)

The parameters of the neural network are randomly initialized and updated iteratively by minimizing a loss function.

The architecture of the PINNs differs from the architecture of a traditional NN in the last part of the network. The PINN works in the first part as a NN, however, the PINN takes the output  $u_{\theta}$  and computes its derivatives using the given equations (see Fig. 2). It calculates the loss functions related to the PDE, initial and boundary conditions, and, if available, due to the data. The final step involves the feed-



FIGURE 2. Building Blocks of Physics-Informed Neural Networks (PINNs), modified Image of [40].

back mechanism, which minimizes the loss using an optimizer with a specified learning rate to obtain the neural network parameters  $\theta$  [40].

The loss function takes into account four error terms, see Eq. (7). The first term is related to the PDE ( $\mathcal{L}_{PDE}$ ), to compute this term, we input the approximate solution  $u_{\theta}(t, x)$  into the residual Eq. (1) as [41]:

$$R_{\theta}(t, \boldsymbol{x}) = \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{u}_{\theta}}{\partial t}(t_r, \boldsymbol{x}) + \mathcal{N}[\boldsymbol{u}_{\theta}](t_r, \boldsymbol{x}).$$
(6)

The second term, takes into account the initial conditions  $(\mathcal{L}_{IC})$ , if the problem requires them. The third term is related to the boundary conditions  $(\mathcal{L}_{BC})$ , and the last term is related to the observation data  $(\mathcal{L}_{Data})$  if they are available.

Then, a physics-informed model can be trained by minimizing the following composite loss function:

$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \boldsymbol{\omega}_{f} \mathcal{L}_{PDE}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) + \boldsymbol{\omega}_{BC} \mathcal{L}_{BC}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) + \boldsymbol{\omega}_{IC} \mathcal{L}_{IC}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) + \boldsymbol{\omega}_{D} \mathcal{L}_{Data}(\boldsymbol{\theta}),$$
(7)

where  $\omega_f, \omega_{BC}, \omega_{IC}$  and  $\omega_D$  are weights associated with the loss terms. In this work,  $\omega_f = \omega_{BC} = \omega_{IC} = \omega_D = 1$ .

In this work, the mean square error (MSE) is employed to compute the losses in Eq. (8). These terms are calculated as follows [40-42]:

$$\mathcal{L}_{PDE}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \frac{1}{N_r} \sum_{i=1}^{N_r} \left\| R_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(t_r^i, \boldsymbol{x}_r^i) \right\|^2,$$
  
$$\mathcal{L}_{IC}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \frac{1}{N_{IC}} \sum_{i=1}^{N_{IC}} \left\| \boldsymbol{u}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(0, \boldsymbol{x}_{IC}^i) - \boldsymbol{g}(\boldsymbol{x}_{IC}^i) \right\|^2,$$
  
$$\mathcal{L}_{BC}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \frac{1}{N_{BC}} \sum_{i=1}^{N_{BC}} \left\| \mathcal{B}[\boldsymbol{u}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}](t_{BC}^i, \boldsymbol{x}_{BC}^i) \right\|^2,$$
  
$$\mathcal{L}_{Data}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \frac{1}{N_D} \sum_{i=1}^{N_D} \left\| \boldsymbol{u}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(t_D^i, \boldsymbol{x}_D^i) - \boldsymbol{u}_D^{*i} \right\|^2, \qquad (8)$$

where  $\{t_r^i, \boldsymbol{x}_r^i\}_{i=1}^{N_r}$  are the selected points, sampled randomly in  $\boldsymbol{\Omega}$ , also known as collocation points used to evaluate the PDE residual equation  $R_{\theta}$ ,  $\{\boldsymbol{x}_{IC}^i\}_{i=1}^{N_{IC}}$  are the points where the initial conditions are imposed,  $\{t_{BC}^i, \boldsymbol{x}_{BC}^i\}_{i=1}^{N_{BC}}$  are the points in the boundary conditions, and  $\mathcal{L}_{Data}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$  is the difference between the approximation  $\boldsymbol{u}_{\theta}$  and the labels or solutions to the equation  $u_D^{*i}$  of the training data for  $N_D$  labeled data points.

To update the parameters  $\theta$  the gradient descent is used in this work, given by:

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}_{n+1} = \boldsymbol{\theta}_n - \eta \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_n), \tag{9}$$

where  $\eta$  is the learning rate, a hyperparameter that depends on each network, and  $\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(\theta_n)$  are the derivatives of the loss function. More details are presented below for the studied case.

#### 2.1. PINNs applied to solving the Reynolds Equation

In this work, the optimization of a Physics-Informed Neural Network (PINN) will be conducted to solve the classical one-dimensional steady-state Reynolds equation in the interval  $\Omega = [0, 1]$ .

The dimensionless form of the Reynolds equation for the steady-state, one-dimensional case is expressed as follows Eq. (10) [38,43]:

$$\frac{d}{dx}\left(c(x)\frac{dy}{dx}\right) = c'(x)y' + c(x)y'' = f(x); 0 < x < 1,$$
(10)

where

$$c(x) = H^{3};$$
  $H(x) = 1 + K - Kx,$   
 $c'(x) = -3K(1 + K - Kx)^{2},$   
 $f(x) = \frac{dH}{dx} = -K,$  (11)

with the following boundary conditions:

$$y(0) = 0, \quad y(1) = 0.$$
 (12)

Equation (10) has an analytical solution given by:

$$y_{ex}(x) = \frac{1}{K} \left( \frac{1}{1+K-Kx} - \frac{1+K}{2+K} \frac{1}{(1+K-Kx)^2} - \frac{1}{2+K} \right).$$
(13)

If we define the operators M and N as:

$$My = c'(x)y' + c(x)y'',$$
 (14)

$$Ny = \begin{bmatrix} y(0)\\ y(1) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0\\ 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$
 (15)

Equations (10) and (12) can be rewritten in terms of the operators M and N for a given point x in the domain  $x \in [0, 1]$ , as follows:

$$My - f = 0, 0 < x < 1, (16)$$

$$Ny - \mathbf{b} = 0, \tag{17}$$

where  $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{0}$ .

In the PINNs approach, we approximate the solution with the neural network, that is:

$$y(x) \approx y_{\theta}(x; \boldsymbol{\theta}).$$
 (18)

In this particular case, the cost function consists of the sum of two error terms, the term due to the residual equation of the PDE, and the term due to the boundary conditions, and it is expressed as follows:

$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \mathcal{L}_{PDE} + \mathcal{L}_{BC} = \left\langle (My - f)^2 \right\rangle + \left( (Ny - \mathbf{b}) \cdot \mathbf{e}_1 \right)^2 + \left( (Ny - \mathbf{b}) \cdot \mathbf{e}_2 \right)^2, \quad (19)$$

where

$$\mathcal{L}_{PDE} = \left\langle (My - f)^2 \right\rangle$$
$$= \left\langle \left( c'(x)y' + c(x)y'' - f \right)^2 \right\rangle, \qquad (20)$$

and

$$\mathcal{L}_{BC} = (y(0))^2 + (y(1))^2.$$
 (21)

Substituting (20) and (21) into (19), the cost function takes the form:

$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \left\langle (c'(x)y' + c(x)y'' - f)^2 \right\rangle + (y(0))^2 + (y(1))^2.$$
(22)

This cost function is minimized with the gradient descent algorithm to update the weights and biases iteratively as indicated in Eq. (9).

### 2.2. Architecture of the PINN

The architecture of the PINN developed here has an input node x (the independent variable representing spatial coordinate), a hidden layer consisting of Nn nodes, and an output node y(x) (the dependent variable representing pressure).

Figure 3 shows a graphical illustration of the PINN architecture used to solve the Reynolds problem.

The prediction of the PINN, y(x), is obtained as follows: the input x is multiplied by the initial weights  $\boldsymbol{w}_i^{(0)}$  and the initial biases,  $\boldsymbol{b}_i^{(0)}$ , are added to this result. Later, the activation function is applied and the outcome is then multiplied



FIGURE 3. PINN architecture used to solve the Reynolds problem, image created in Ref. [39] and adapted.

by the second set of weights  $\boldsymbol{w}_i^{(1)}$  and a second bias  $b^{(1)}$  is added to it:

$$y(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{N_n} w_i^{(1)} \varphi(w_i^{(0)} x + b_i^{(0)}) + b^{(1)}.$$
 (23)

We use as activation function the sigmoid function, defined as:

$$\varphi(\varepsilon) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\varepsilon}}, \quad \mathbb{R} \to [0, 1].$$
 (24)

To update the weights and biases iteratively, we use the gradient descent algorithm, which updates the weights and biases as follows:

$$w_{i+1}^{(0)} = w_i^{(0)} - \eta \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial w_i^{(0)}}, \quad w_{i+1}^{(1)} = w_i^{(1)} - \eta \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial w_i^{(1)}},$$
  
$$b_{i+1}^{(0)} = b_i^{(0)} - \eta \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial b_i^{(0)}}, \quad b_{i+1}^{(1)} = b_i^{(1)} - \eta \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial b_i^{(1)}}, \quad (25)$$

where  $\eta$  is a hyperparameter known as the learning rate.

To compute the gradients, the cost function, Eq. (22), the output Eq. (23) of the PINN is evaluated at a set of points in the domain to compute the residual equation, and the boundary conditions y(0), y(1), its first derivative y'(x) and second derivative y''(x) in terms of the weights and biases. The derivatives are computed by deriving the equations analytically, see Appendix A for details.

## 2.3. Numerical experiments

To optimize the PINN, we performed five experiments designated as Experiment A, B, C, D, and E, with the first experiment being Experiment A, and so forth. In Experiment A, we replicate the results obtained by Andreas Almqvist (2021) [38]. In the subsequent experiments, we optimize the PINN by adjusting the following hyperparameters, Experiment B: the learning rate (lr) and batch size (Tb), Experiment C: the number of points in the domain (Ni), Experiment D: the number of epochs (Ne), and Experiment E: the number of neurons (Nn) in Experiment E.

Below, we provide a detailed description of each of the aforementioned experiments, and we present the results and subsequent discussion.

## 3. Results and discussion

In this section, we describe and analyze the five experiments (Experiment A, Experiment B, Experiment C, Experiment D, and Experiment E) conducted to optimize the PINN. In all cases, a fully connected feedforward neural network was used, with a sigmoid activation function and the loss function defined by Eq. (22). The architecture of the PINN consists of an input layer with one neuron, a hidden layer with 10 neurons (except in Experiment E, where the number of neurons in the hidden layer was modified), and an output layer with one neuron. The PINN was trained using the Gradient Descent optimizer.

## 3.1. Experiment A

In this section, we repeat the experiment performed by Andreas Almqvist (2021) [38], and compare it with the analytical solution, Eq. (13). The PINN was trained with the same hyperparameters as in Ref. [38] presented in Table I, and the architecture is described in Secs. 2.1 and 2.2. The PINN with this set of hyperparameters and architecture is now on referred to as PINN-2.

The comparison between the predictions of PINN-2 and the analytical solution (13) within the domain [0,1] is depicted in Fig. 4 for two scenarios, identified as "Prediction 1" (represented by orange points) and "Prediction 2" (represented by green points), respectively. They are contrasted with the analytical solution (illustrated by a blue solid curve).

We notice that PINN Prediction 1 fits with the analytical solution, while PINN Prediction 2 does not fit. In Fig. 5, the convergence of the cost function is presented for each prediction, both in the case of PINN Prediction 1 (orange) and the case of PINN Prediction 2 (green). We can observe that for PINN Prediction 1, its cost function converges to a value closer to zero than in the case of PINN Prediction 2. Note that no changes were made for both scenarios in the architecture or hyperparameters.

Hyperparameters		Description
Ne	2000	Epochs
Nn	10	Number of neurons
Ni	21	Number of points
		in the domain [0,1]
lr	0.005	Learning rate
Tb	600	Training batches



FIGURE 4. PINN Prediction 1 (orange) and PINN Prediction 2 (green) are compared to the analytical solution (blue) using the parameters from Table I.



FIGURE 5. The convergence of the cost function for PINN Prediction 1 (orange) and PINN Prediction 2 (green).

Every time we run the PINN, we obtain a different solution, for the next experiments, we perform a statistical analysis, in which, we repeat the experiment 100 times and we compute the mean and standard deviations of the solutions obtained with these repetitions. For those cases, the best solution is the one with lower mean and smaller standard deviation.

## 3.2. Experiment B

In this experiment, the hyperparameters learning rate lr and training batches Tb were modified, as described in Table II. Each value of Tb is paired with all proposed values of lr. For example, when Tb = 300, it is combined with lr values of 0.005, 0.001, 0.05, and 0.01, and so on. This gives us a total

TABLE II. Mean of the minima of the Cost Function value (MMCF) and Standard Deviation for different lr and Tb values.

lr	Tb	MMCF		
11	10	Value	Standard Deviation	
	300	0.0502	0.1858	
0.005	600	0.1153	0.3082	
0.005	900	0.0609	0.2353	
	1200	0.0131	0.0950	
	300	0.0240	0.0031	
0.001	600	0.0222	0.0079	
0.001	900	0.0142	0.0073	
	1200	0.0268	0.0983	
	300	0.0000	0.0000	
0.05	600	0.5488	0.4802	
0.03	900	5243.2396	52166.0617	
	1200	502295852.0	4997780620.0	
	300	0.0925	0.2773	
0.01	600	0.1634	0.3616	
	900	0.0872	0.2757	
	1200	0.0663	0.2354	



FIGURE 6. Tb (Batch size) vs Mean of the minima of the Cost Function for the 16 combinations.



FIGURE 7. Tb (Batch size) vs Mean of the minima of the Cost Function, excluding lr = 0.05 data due to the lack of a discernible minimum, given the large standard deviation as shown in Table II.

of 16 possible combinations. The primary objective was to find optimal hyperparameters while minimizing the loss function. Table II provides the values of Tb, lr, their corresponding Mean of the Minima of the Cost Function (MMCF), and their respective standard deviations.

As mentioned before, we repeat each experiment 100 times, for each repetition we get the cost function for the 16 possible combinations. From each cost function, we take the minimum value (assuming that the last value of the function is the minimum), and from these 100 values, we calculate the mean (MMCF) and plot it for each Tb and lr, as shown in Fig. 6.

Throughout the process, the hyperparameters Ne = 2000, Nn = 10, and Ni = 21 remained constant.

In Fig. 6, a very high standard deviation is observed for Tb = 1200. For a better visualization, we present Fig. 7, which provides a zoom into the area of interest.

From Figs. 6 and 7, it is observed that the best performance of the PINN is achieved with the hyperparameter values lr = 0.001 and Tb = 300 (green stars). Table II confirms this minimum value, also highlighting its low standard deviation. Furthermore, this observation is visually validated in Fig. 7, where the green stars corresponding to lr = 0.001 are closer to zero compared to the other blue stars representing lr = 0.005, as well as the pink stars corresponding to lr = 0.01, across values of Tb.

Therefore, in the subsequent experiments, we compare the PINN with the hyperparameters lr = 0.001 and Tb =300, referred to as PINN-1, against the values lr = 0.005and Tb = 600, reported in the article by Andreas Almqvist (2021) [38], referred to as PINN-2.

## 3.3. Experiment C

In this experiment, we modified the hyperparameter Ni that represents the number of grid points for the solution domain [0,1], randomly selected from the space. We selected the value  $N_i = 21$ , as in the reference article, and included a higher value,  $N_i = 30$ , as well as a lower value,  $N_i = 10$ . Then, we compared PINN-1 (with the optimal hyperparameters lr = 0.001 and Tb = 300 found in Experiment 2) with PINN-2 (using the hyperparameters from the article by Andreas Almqvist (2021) [38], as shown in Table III), and with the Finite Differences method (FD).

In this experiment, we calculated the RMSE (defined as the square root of the MSE previously defined in Eq. (8)) between the analytical solution and the one predicted by PINN1 and PINN2 in each repetition (out of the 100 available). This provides us with 100 RMSE values for each network. Subsequently, we computed the Mean of these 100 RMSE values (MRMSE) along with their standard deviation, resulting in a single value for each Ni.

Figure 8 shows a comparison between two networks PINN-1 (green stars) and PINN-2 (blue stars), and the finite difference method (red stars). In Fig. 8, a significantly high standard deviation is observed for Ni = 21 for PINN-2. For a better visualization, we include Fig. 9, which is a zoom into the area of interest.

For the FD method, we calculate the RMSE between the analytical solution and the solution obtained by the method. The Fig. 10 illustrates the results of the Finite Differences method for different numbers of grid points (Ni =10, 21, 30), compared to the analytical solution.

Once the value of Ni is set in the FD method, the calculation is performed deterministically and yields a unique and consistent result. There is no need to repeat the calculation

	Modified Hyperp	arameters	
Ni	10	21	30
	Fixed Hyperpar	rameters	
	PINN-1		PINN-2
Ne	2000		2000
Nn	10	0 10	
lr	0.001		0.005
Tb	300	300 600	



FIGURE 8. Comparison between PINN-1, PINN-2, and the FD method. On the x-axis, the number of points Ni = 10, 21, 30; on the y-axis, Mean RMSE (MRMSE) between the Analytical Solution and the PINN Prediction.



FIGURE 9. Zooming into the comparison between PINN-1, PINN-2, and the FD method. On the *x*-axis, the number of points Ni = 10, 21, 30; on the y-axis, Mean RMSE (MRMSE) between the Analytical Solution and the PINN Prediction.



FIGURE 10. Analytical solution Vs finite difference method for Ni = 10, 21, 30.

TABLE IV. Mean RMSE (MRMSE) between the Analytical Solution and the prediction and Standard Deviation for PINN1, PINN-2, and FD.

	Ni	Μ	IRMSE
	181	Value	Standard Deviation
	10	0.0672	0.00717
PINN-1	21	0.0615	0.00625
	30	$4.307 \times 10^6$	$4.284\times 10^7$
	10	0.005874	0.005433
PINN-2	21	$3.206\times 10^7$	$3.190 \times 10^8$
	30	0.008841	0.01128
	10	$7.927\times10^{-6}$	0.0
FD	21	$1.656 \times 10^{-6}$	0.0
	30	$7.931\times10^{-7}$	0.0

multiple times, as the solution obtained is the same each time the method is applied with the same parameters and initial conditions.

This allows us to compare the accuracy of the finite differences method for different values of Ni compared to the PINNs, as shown in Table IV. The value of RMSE in the case of FD decreases as the number of points increases and is very small compared to the value of MRMSE for the PINNs in all cases. The value of MRMSE for PINN-1 and PINN-2 both exhibit a large standard deviation for Ni = 30 and Ni = 21respectively. However, for Ni = 10, PINN-2 has a lower MRMSE than PINN-1.

Even if the FD method gives better results in this case, the problem we are solving is a 1D problem, for more complicated problems and inverse problems, the PINNs can be useful, especially if the problems require large computations times and they require to include data, such as in numerical reservoir simulations [31-33]. More studies are required to assess the full capacity of the PINNs.

## 3.4. Experiment D

In this experiment, we varied *Ne*, the number of epochs, from 1500, 2000, 2500, and 5000 for both PINN-1 and PINN-2.

TABLE V. Hy	TABLE V. Hyperparameters of the PINNs in Experiment D.				
Modified Hyperparameters					
Ne	1500	2000	2500	5000	
	Fix	ed Hyperparar	neters		
		PINN-1	PINN-2		
Ni		21	21		
Nn		10	10		
lr		0.001	0.005		
Tb		300		500	



FIGURE 11. The figure illustrates the relationship between the number of epochs Ne = 1500, 2000, 2500, and 5000 and the Mean RMSE for PINN-1 (green) and PINN-2 (blue).



FIGURE 12. The figure provides a zoom of the relationship between the number of epochs Ne = 1500, 2000, 2500, and 5000 and the Mean RMSE for PINN-1 (green) and PINN-2 (blue).

TABLE VI. Mean RMSE (MRMSE) between the Analytical Solu-
tion and the prediction and Standard Deviation for PINN1, PINN-2.

	Ne	MRMSE	
	IVE	Value	Standard Deviation
	1500	0.0663	0.0018
PINN-1	2000	0.0563	0.0057
	2500	0.0516	0.0170
	5000	0.0503	0.0178
	1500	0.0119	0.0128
PINN-2	2000	0.0087	0.0149
	2500	118.98	1183.8
	5000	5.444	54.09

The description of the modified hyperparameters and the fixed parameters are found in Table V.

In this experiment, we calculated the RMSE between the analytical solution and the one predicted by PINN-1 and PINN-2 in each repetition (out of the 100 available), as in Experiment D. This provides us with 100 RMSE values for each value of Ne. Subsequently, we computed the mean of these 100 RMSE values (MRMSE) along with their standard deviation, resulting in a single value for each Ne, as show in Fig. 11. For a better visualization we include Fig. 12, which is a zoom into the area of interest.

In Table VI, the mean RMSE (MRMSE) between the analytical solution and the prediction and the standard deviation for PINN1, PINN-2 are presented. It can be seen that the MRMSE values between PINN-1 and PINN-2 are comparable at Ne = 1500 and Ne = 2000; for values of Ne = 2500 and Ne = 5000, PINN-1 exhibits lower MRMSE values than PINN-2.

### 3.5. Experiment E

In this experiment, we varied Nn the number of neurons from 5, 10, 20, and 40 for both PINN-1 and PINN-2 networks.

We compared the behavior of the optimized PINN-1 network with the reference PINN-2 network. The description of the modified hyperparameters and the fixed parameters are found in Table VII.

In this experiment, we calculated the RMSE between the analytical solution and the one predicted by PINN-1 and PINN-2 in each repetition (out of the 100 available). This provides us with 100 RMSE values for each network. Subsequently, we computed the Mean of these 100 RMSE values

Modified Hyperparameters				
Nn	5	10	20	40
	Fix	ed Hyperparan	neters	
		PINN-1	Р	INN-2
Ne		2000		2000
Ni		21		21
lr		0.001		0.005
Tb		300		600



FIGURE 13. The figure illustrates the relationship between the number of neurons Nn = 5, 10, 20, and 40 and the Mean RMSE for PINN-1 (green) and PINN-2 (blue).



FIGURE 14. The figure provides a zoom of the relationship between the number of neurons Nn = 5, 10, 20, and 40 and the Mean RMSE for PINN-1 (green) and PINN-2 (blue).

TABLE VIII. Mean RMSE (MRMSE) between the Analytical Solution and the prediction and Standard Deviation for PINN-1, PINN-2.

	Nn	MRMSE	
	1111	Value	Standard Deviation
	5	0.0614	0.0054
PINN-1	10	0.0548	0.0117
	20	23.65	181.2
	40	0.0484	0.0113
	5	0.0193	0.0223
PINN-2	10	0.0100	0.0177
	20	1.149	1.143e+13
	40	2.504e+11	2.488e+12

(MRMSE) along with their standard deviation, resulting in a single value for each Nn, as shown in Fig. 13. For a better visualization, we include Fig. 14, which is a zoom into the area of interest.

In Table VIII, the values of MRMSE and their standard deviation for each PINN are presented. It is observed that for Nn = 5 and 10, both PINNs show comparable values. However, in the case of Nn = 20, both PINN-1 and PINN-2 exhibit high MRMSE values, as well as high standard deviation, which occurs in both cases. Regarding Nn = 40, PINN-1 shows considerably lower MRMSE and standard deviation than PINN-2.

## 4. Conclusion

In this paper, we present to optimize a Physics Informed Neuran Network (PINNs) to solve the stationary one-dimensional Reynolds equation.

Within the conducted studies, a comparison is made between the solutions obtained using the PINN and the analytical solution. We performed five experiments. In Experiment A, where we replicated the experiment conducted by Almqvist *et al.* [38], and compared it with the analytical solution the PINN with this hyperparameters is referred to as PINN-2. We observe that the PINN prediction does not always correctly approximate the analytical solution of the Reynolds equation. Therefore, we decided to perform a statistical analysis by varying hyperparameters to find the optimal architecture for the PINN. Later, in Experiments B to E, we study diverse scenarios to optimize the PINN, where we vary the hyperparameters such as the learning rate (lr) and batch size (Tb), number of points (Ni), number of epochs (Ne), and number of neurons (Nn).

For Experiment B we modified the learning rate (lr) and training batches (Tb) to 0.01, 0.01, 0.05, 0.005, and 300, 600, 900, and 1200 respectively. Each value of Tb was paired with all proposed values of lr, resulting in a total of 16 possible combinations. For the statistical analysis, we repeated each experiment 100 times. In each repetition, we obtained the cost function for the 16 possible combinations. From each cost function, we selected the minimum value and calculated the mean (MMCF) and corresponding standard deviations. As a result, we have identified the optimal values for the learning rate (lr = 0.001) and (Tb = 300). These optimal values correspond to the points at which the cost function reaches its minimum and exhibit a small standard deviation. The PINN with these hyperparameters is referred to as PINN-1. From here onwards, we conduct a statistical analysis comparing PINN-1 and PINN-2. In general, for the next experiments, we observe a better performance for the PINN that we proposed (PINN-1), we elaborate next.

In Experiment C, we modified the hyperparameter Nithat represents the number of grid points for the solution domain [0,1], randomly selected from the space. We selected the value  $N_i = 21$ , as in the reference article, and included a higher value,  $N_i = 30$ , and a lower value,  $N_i = 10$ , and we compared PINN-1 with PINN-2 and with the Finite Differences method (FD). We calculated the RMSE between the analytical solution and the one predicted by PINN-1 and PINN-2 in each repetition (out of the 100 available), and computed the mean of these 100 RMSE values (MRMSE) along with their standard deviation. For the FD method, we calculate the RMSE between the analytical solution and the solution obtained by the method. We observe that the value of RMSE in the case of FD decreases as the number of points increases and is very small compared to the value of MRMSE for the PINNs in all cases. The value of MRMSE for PINN-1 and PINN-2 both exhibit a large standard deviation for Ni = 30and Ni = 21 respectively. However, for Ni = 10, PINN-2 has a lower MRMSE than PINN-1. Even if the FD method shows better results, the PINNs are capable of approximating the solution up to  $\mathcal{O}(10^{-2})$ , this could be helpful for problems where using a traditional discretization scheme is complicated or when it is required to include data from the problem, that FD is not capable to do. As next steps, we plan to solve one of these problems.

For Experiment D, we varied Ne, the number of epochs, from 1500, 2000, 2500, and 5000 for both PINN-1 and PINN-2, and we calculated the RMSE between the analytical solution and the one predicted by PINN-1 and PINN-2 in each repetition (out of the 100 available). The MRMSE values between PINN-1 and PINN-2 are comparable at Ne = 1500and Ne = 2000; for values of Ne = 2500 and Ne = 5000, PINN-1 exhibits lower MRMSE values than PINN-2.

For Experiment E, we varied Nn the number of neurons from 5, 10, 20, and 40 for both PINN-1 and PINN-2. It is observed that for Nn = 5 and 10, both PINNs show comparable values. However, in the case of Nn = 20, both PINN-1 and PINN-2 exhibit high MRMSE values, as well as high standard deviation, which occurs in both cases. Regarding Nn = 40, PINN-1 shows considerably lower MRMSE and standard deviation than PINN-2.

## Appendix

# A. Detailed description of the Neural Network elements and derivatives required for Training.

This appendix provides a detailed description of the theory presented in Subsec. 2.1 regarding the construction and computation of the PINN cost function applied to solving the Reynolds equation.

As described in Subsec. 2.1, the work involves the Reynolds equation in its dimensionless form Eq. (10), along with its boundary conditions Eq. (12) and its analytical solution Eq. (13). Subsection 2.1 also defines the problem in terms of operators Eqs. (16) and (17) and describes the cost function in its general form Eq. (19) and a specific case Eq. (22). For training the PINN, this cost function is minimized using the gradient descent algorithm, where weights and biases are iteratively updated as indicated in Eq. (25).

This appendix also expands on the theory presented in Subcec. 2.2, which discusses the neural network architecture and the operations required to compute the network output y(x). Below is a detailed description of the neural network elements used in this study. We begin by introducing the nomenclature used in this appendix and throughout the article, followed by a description of the network components, including its architecture and activation function. We also provide the activation function's derivatives, which are essential for the subsequent calculation of the cost function. The cost function is then described in detail using algebraic expressions.

## Nomenclature

- The superscript (*j*) indicates the layer number.
- The subscript *i* refers to the neuron number. For example,  $w_i^{(0)}$  represents the weight associated with neuron *i* in the first layer (0).



FIGURE 15. Domain divided into N points.

- Vectors (lowercase letters in boldface): such as  $\boldsymbol{x}$ , represent a vector with components  $\boldsymbol{x} = [x_1, \ldots, x_n, \ldots, x_N] \in \mathbb{R}^N$ , where  $x_n \in \mathbb{R}$  for  $n = 1, \ldots, N$ .
- $\mathbb{R}^N$  represents the *N*-dimensional space.

### The elements of the network

To predict the output y(x) of the PINN, the solution domain [0,1] is divided into N points, as illustrated in Fig. 15, creating N-1 equal subintervals of length h (uniformly spaced mesh points). A value  $x_n$  is randomly selected from the vector  $\boldsymbol{x} = [x_1, \ldots, x_n \ldots, x_N]$ , where  $x_n \in [0,1]$  and n = 1..N. This value is used to train the network.

The network consists of an input layer where a random element  $x_n$  from the vector  $\boldsymbol{x} = [x_1, \ldots, x_n \ldots, x_N] \in \mathbb{R}^N$  is taken as the input value. This value is then multiplied by all the weights of the first layer, where each  $w_{i=1,\ldots,N_n}^{(0)} \in \mathbb{R}$ , is an element of the weights vector  $\boldsymbol{w}^{(0)} = [w_1^{(0)}, \ldots, w_i^{(0)}, \ldots, w_{N_n}^{(0)}] \in \mathbb{R}^{N_n}$  where  $N_n$  is the number of neurons, thereafter, the corresponding bias  $b_{i=1,\ldots,N_n}^{(0)} \in \mathbb{R}$ , is added, $b_i$  is an element of the bias vector  $\boldsymbol{b}^{(0)} = [b_1^{(0)}, b_2^{(0)}, \ldots, b_{N_n}^{(0)}] \in \mathbb{R}^{N_n}$ .

The result of these operations is then passed through the sigmoid activation function  $\varphi$ , which gives us the output data for each neuron in layer (0):  $z_i^{(0)}(x_n) = \varphi(w_i^{(0)}x_n + b_i^{(0)}) \in \mathbb{R}, i = 1, ..., N_n$ , which are elements of the vector  $z^{(0)}(x_n) = [z_1^{(0)}(x_n), ..., z_i^{(0)}(x_n), ..., z_{N_n}^{(0)}] \in \mathbb{R}^{N_n}$  [see Fig. 16a)].

Subsequently, this result is multiplied by the second set of weights, where each  $w_{i=1,...,N_n}^{(1)} \in \mathbb{R}$  is an element of the weights vector  $w^{(1)} = [w_1^{(1)}, \ldots, w_i^{(1)}, \ldots, w_{N_n}^{(1)}] \in \mathbb{R}^{N_n}$ . The dot product between the vectors  $w^{(1)}$  and  $z^{(0)}$  results in a sum, performed from i = 1 to  $N_n$ , of the products of their corresponding components. A second bias term,  $b^{(1)} \in \mathbb{R}$ , is finallyadded, yielding the network output  $y(x_n)$  for the point  $x_n$  [see Fig. 16b)]. The output is then obtained as follows:

$$y(x_n) = \sum_{i=1}^{N_n} w_i^{(1)} \varphi(w_i^{(0)} x_n + b_i^{(0)}) + b^{(1)} \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Below, we list the elements of the network:

• Input data set

$$\boldsymbol{x} = [x_1, \dots, x_n \dots, x_N] \in \mathbb{R}^N,$$

....

where N is the number of points into which the [0,1] domain was divided.



FIGURE 16. Output data for each neuron in layer (0), a)  $z^{(0)}(x_n)$ . b) Output of the neural network,  $y(x_n)$ .

• Vector of real-valued weights for layer (0):

$$\boldsymbol{w}^{(0)} = [w_1^{(0)}, \dots, w_i^{(0)}, \dots, w_{N_n}^{(0)})] \in \mathbb{R}^{N_n},$$

where  $N_n$  is the number of neurons.

• Vector of real-valued biases for layer (0):

$$\boldsymbol{b}^{(0)} = [b_1^{(0)}, \dots, b_i^{(0)}, \dots, b_{N_n}^{(0)}] \in \mathbb{R}^{N_n}.$$

• Sigmoid activation function

$$\varphi(\varepsilon) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\varepsilon}}, \qquad \varphi : \mathbb{R} \to [0, 1].$$

• Output data for each neuron in layer (0):  $z_i^{(0)}(x_n) = \varphi(w_i^{(0)}x_n + b_i^{(0)}) \in \mathbb{R}.$ 

• The vector output containing all the neurons is:

$$\boldsymbol{z}^{(0)}(x_n) = [z_1^{(0)}, ..., z_i^{(0)}, ..., z_{N_n}^{(0)}] \in \mathbb{R}^{N_n}.$$

• Second weights vector:

$$\boldsymbol{w}_{i}^{(1)} = [w_{1}^{(1)}, \dots, w_{i}^{(1)}, \dots, w_{N_{n}}^{(1)}] \in \mathbb{R}^{N_{n}}.$$

- Second bias term  $b_i^{(1)} = b^{(1)} \in \mathbb{R}$ .
- Output data for a single value  $x_n$ :

$$y(x_n) = \sum_{i=1}^{N_n} w_i^{(1)} \varphi(w_i^{(0)} x_n + b_i^{(0)}) + b^{(1)} \in \mathbb{R}.$$

## **Activation function**

We use as activation function the sigmoid function, defined as:

$$\varphi(\varepsilon) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\varepsilon}}, \quad \varphi : \mathbb{R} \to [0, 1].$$
 (A.1)

For future calculations, we need its first, second, and third derivatives. Therefore, we compute them as follows: 1st Derivative of the Activation Function:

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi'(\varepsilon) &= \frac{d\varphi(\varepsilon)}{d\varepsilon} = \frac{d}{d\varepsilon} \left( \frac{1}{1+e^{-\varepsilon}} \right) = \frac{d}{d\varepsilon} \left( 1+e^{-\varepsilon} \right)^{-1} = -\frac{1}{(1+e^{-\varepsilon})^2} \cdot \left( -e^{-\varepsilon} \right) = \frac{e^{-\varepsilon}}{(1+e^{-\varepsilon})^2} \\ &= \frac{1}{1+e^{-\varepsilon}} \cdot \frac{e^{-\varepsilon}}{1+e^{-\varepsilon}} = \frac{1}{1+e^{-\varepsilon}} \cdot \frac{1+e^{-\varepsilon}-1}{1+e^{-\varepsilon}} = \frac{1}{1+e^{-\varepsilon}} \cdot \frac{1+e^{-\varepsilon}}{1+e^{-\varepsilon}} - \frac{1}{1+e^{-\varepsilon}} = \varphi(\varepsilon)(1-\varphi(\varepsilon)), \end{aligned}$$

that is:

$$\varphi'(\varepsilon) = \varphi(\varepsilon)(1 - \varphi(\varepsilon)).$$
 (A.2)

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2nd Derivative of the Activation Function:

$$\begin{split} \varphi''(\varepsilon) &= \frac{d^2\varphi(\varepsilon)}{d\varepsilon^2} = \frac{d}{d\varepsilon} \left[ \varphi(\varepsilon)(1-\varphi(\varepsilon)) \right] = \frac{d\varphi(\varepsilon)}{d\varepsilon} (1-\varphi(\varepsilon)) + \varphi(\varepsilon) \frac{d}{d\varepsilon} (1-\varphi(\varepsilon)) = \frac{d\varphi(\varepsilon)}{d\varepsilon} (1-\varphi(\varepsilon)) - \varphi(\varepsilon) \frac{d\varphi(\varepsilon)}{d\varepsilon} \\ &= \frac{d\varphi(\varepsilon)}{d\varepsilon} - \frac{d\varphi(\varepsilon)}{d\varepsilon} \varphi(\varepsilon) - \varphi(\varepsilon) \frac{d\varphi(\varepsilon)}{d\varepsilon} = \frac{d\varphi(\varepsilon)}{d\varepsilon} - 2\varphi(\varepsilon) \frac{d\varphi(\varepsilon)}{d\varepsilon} = \varphi(\varepsilon)(1-\varphi(\varepsilon)) - 2\varphi(\varepsilon) \left[ \varphi(\varepsilon)(1-\varphi(\varepsilon)) \right] \\ &= \varphi(\varepsilon)(1-\varphi(\varepsilon))(1-2\varphi(\varepsilon)) = \varphi'(\varepsilon)(1-2\varphi(\varepsilon)), \end{split}$$

that is:

$$\varphi''(\varepsilon) = \varphi(\varepsilon)(1 - \varphi(\varepsilon))(1 - 2\varphi(\varepsilon)) = \varphi'(\varepsilon)(1 - 2\varphi(\varepsilon)).$$
(A.3)

3rd Derivative of the Activation Function:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{d\xi} \left(\varphi''(\xi)\right) &= \frac{d}{d\xi} \left(\varphi'(\xi)(1 - 2\varphi(\xi))\right) = \frac{d\varphi'(\xi)}{d\xi} (1 - 2\varphi(\xi)) + \varphi'(\xi) \frac{d}{d\xi} (1 - 2\varphi(\xi)) = \varphi''(\xi)(1 - 2\varphi(\xi)) + \varphi'(\xi) \cdot (-2\varphi'(\xi)) \\ &= \varphi''(\xi)(1 - 2\varphi(\xi)) - 2 \left(\varphi'(\xi)\right)^2 = \varphi(\xi)(1 - \varphi(\xi))(1 - 2\varphi(\xi))(1 - 2\varphi(\xi)) - 2 \left(\varphi(\xi)(1 - \varphi(\xi))\right)^2 \\ &= \varphi(\xi)(1 - \varphi(\xi)) \left[ (1 - 2\varphi(\xi))^2 - 2\varphi(\xi)(1 - \varphi(\xi)) \right] = \varphi(\xi)(1 - \varphi(\xi)) \left[ 1 - 4\varphi(\xi) + 4(\varphi(\xi))^2 - 2\varphi(\xi) + 2(\varphi(\xi))^2 \right] \\ &= \varphi(\xi)(1 - \varphi(\xi)) \left[ 1 - 6\varphi(\xi) + 6(\varphi(\xi))^2 \right] = \varphi(\xi)(1 - \varphi(\xi))(1 - 3\varphi(\xi)) \\ &= \varphi(\xi)(1 - \varphi(\xi))^2(1 - 3\varphi(\xi)), \end{aligned}$$

that is:

$$\varphi^{\prime\prime\prime}(\varepsilon) = \varphi(\varepsilon)(1 - \varphi(\varepsilon))^2(1 - 3\varphi(\varepsilon)). \tag{A.4}$$

## **Cost function**

The cost function for the PINN, in terms of operators, in our case includes only the loss associated with the PDE and the loss due to the boundary conditions, as given by Eq. (19). It is expressed as:

$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \left\langle (My - f)^2 \right\rangle + \left( (Ny - \mathbf{b}) \cdot \mathbf{e}_1 \right)^2 + \left( (Ny - \mathbf{b}) \cdot \mathbf{e}_2 \right)^2, \tag{A.5}$$

where  $\langle Q \rangle$  is the average value of variable Q.

The cost function, substituting the residual Reynolds Eq. (20) and its boundary conditions (21), is given by:

$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \left\langle (c'(x_n)y'(x_n) + c(x_n)y''(x_n) - f)^2 \right\rangle + (y(0))^2 + (y(1))^2.$$
(A.6)

To optimize the PINN, we need to express the cost function  $\mathcal{L}(\theta)$  in terms of the weights and biases. Since the network output y(x) depends on these weights and biases, we can express  $\mathcal{L}(\theta)$  in terms of y(x) and its derivatives as follows:

$$y(x_n) = \sum_{n=1}^{N_n} w_i^{(1)} \varphi(w_i^{(0)} x_n + b_i^{(0)}) + b^{(1)},$$
(A.7)

$$y(0) = \sum_{i=1}^{N_n} w_i^{(1)} \varphi(b_i^{(0)}) + b^{(1)},$$
(A.8)

$$y(1) = \sum_{i=1}^{N_n} w_i^{(1)} \varphi(w_i^{(0)} + b_i^{(0)}) + b^{(1)},$$
(A.9)

$$y'(x_n) = \frac{dy}{dx} = \sum_{i=1}^{N_n} w_i^{(1)} w_i^{(0)} \varphi'(w_i^{(0)} x_n + b_i^{(0)}),$$
(A.10)

$$y''(x_n) = \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \sum_{i=1}^{N_n} w_i^{(1)}(w_i^{(0)})^2 \varphi''(w_i^{(0)}x_n + b_i^{(0)}).$$
(A.11)

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Substituting the Eqs. (A.8), (A.9), (A.10), and (A.11) into Eq. (A.6), we obtain:

$$\mathcal{L} = \left\langle \left( c'(x_n) \sum_{i=1}^{N_n} w_i^{(1)} w_i^{(0)} \varphi'(w_i^{(0)} x_n + b_i^{(0)}) + c(x_n) \sum_{i=1}^{N_n} w_i^{(1)} (w_i^{(0)})^2 \varphi''(w_i^{(0)} x_n + b_i^{(0)}) - f \right)^2 \right\rangle + \left( \sum_{i=1}^{N_n} w_i^{(1)} \varphi(w_i^{(0)} + b_i^{(0)}) + b^{(1)} \right)^2 + \left( \sum_{i=1}^{N_n} w_i^{(1)} \varphi(w_i^{(0)} + b_i^{(0)}) + b^{(1)} \right)^2,$$
(A.12)

where

$$c(x) = (1 + K - Kx)^3,$$
  $c'(x) = \frac{dc(x)}{dx} = -3K(1 + K - Kx)^2.$ 

Once we have the cost function expressed in terms of the neural network parameters, and since we want to minimize this function, the next step is to use an algorithm to optimize it. The algorithm we use here is Gradient Descent.

## Gradient descent algorithm

The gradient descent algorithm iteratively adjusts the parameters  $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ , where  $\boldsymbol{\theta}$  represents the set of all weights and biases across all layers of the network as previously defined in Eq. (9). In our case:  $\boldsymbol{\theta} = \{\boldsymbol{w}^{(0)}, \boldsymbol{w}^{(1)}, \boldsymbol{b}^{(0)}, \boldsymbol{b}^{(1)}\}$  and we want to find the set of parameters  $\boldsymbol{\theta}$  that minimize the cost function  $\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$  as defined in Eq. (A.12).

The gradient  $\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(\theta_n)$  is computed, indicating the direction of the steepest increase in the cost function. The parameters are then adjusted in the opposite direction of the gradient using:

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}_{n+1} = \boldsymbol{\theta}_n - \eta \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_n),$$

where  $\eta$  is the learning rate, and the parameters of the neural network are initialized randomly.

This process continues until the error is less than a userdefined tolerance value or until a maximum number of iterations is reached. When either of these conditions is met,



FIGURE 17. Gradient descent algorithm.

the obtained weights and biases are those that minimize the cost function within the established tolerance. The goal is to minimize the cost function value to optimize the model.

To illustrate the process of conjugate gradient, see Fig. 17, where we have an initial parameter  $w_i^{(0)}$ . We compute the gradient of the function in this point  $\partial \mathcal{L}(\theta) / \partial w_i^{(0)}$ . The next position  $w_{i+1}^{(0)}$  of the parameter is found taking the initial position and giving a step  $\eta$  in the opposite direction of the gradient (which is the direction of bigger growth of the function), *i.e.*:

$$w_{i+1}^{(0)} = w_i^{(0)} - \eta \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial w_i^{(0)}}.$$

In our case, the cost function depends on the weights and biases of each layer. Therefore, the parameters are adjusted using the following formulas:

$$2w_{i+1}^{(0)} = w_i^{(0)} - \eta \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial w_i^{(0)}},$$
  

$$w_{i+1}^{(1)} = w_i^{(1)} - \eta \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial w_i^{(1)}},$$
  

$$b_{i+1}^{(0)} = b_i^{(0)} - \eta \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial b_i^{(0)}},$$
  

$$b_{i+1}^{(1)} = b_i^{(1)} - \eta \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial b_i^{(1)}},$$
(A.13)

where the step  $\eta$  is an hyperparameter known as the learning rate.

The derivatives of the Eqs. (A.13) are computed analytically by differentiating the equations, which requires the partial derivatives of the general cost function with respect to each weight and bias. These derivatives are presented next:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{i}^{(0)}} &= \frac{\partial \langle (My - f)^{2} \rangle}{\partial w_{i}^{(0)}} + \frac{\partial ((Ny - \mathbf{b}) \cdot \mathbf{e}_{1})^{2}}{\partial w_{i}^{(0)}} + \frac{\partial ((Ny - \mathbf{b}) \cdot \mathbf{e}_{2})^{2}}{\partial w_{i}^{(0)}} &= \frac{\partial \langle (c'(x)y' + c(x)y'' - f)^{2} \rangle}{\partial w_{i}^{(0)}} \\ &+ \frac{\partial ((y(0) - 0))^{2}}{\partial w_{i}^{(0)}} + \frac{\partial ((y(1) - 0))^{2}}{\partial w_{i}^{(0)}} &= \left\langle 2 \left( c(x)y'' + c'(x)y' - f \right) \left( c(x)\frac{\partial y''}{\partial w_{i}^{(0)}} + c'(x)\frac{\partial y'}{\partial w_{i}^{(0)}} - \frac{\partial f}{\partial w_{i}^{(0)}} \right) \right\rangle \\ &+ 2(y(0) - 0)\frac{\partial y(0)}{\partial w_{i}^{(0)}} + 2(y(1) - 0)\frac{\partial y(1)}{\partial w_{i}^{(0)}}, \end{aligned}$$
(A.14)

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{i}^{(1)}} &= \frac{\partial \langle (My - f)^{2} \rangle}{\partial w_{i}^{(1)}} + \frac{\partial ((Ny - \mathbf{b}) \cdot \mathbf{e}_{1})^{2}}{\partial w_{i}^{(1)}} + \frac{\partial (((Ny - \mathbf{b}) \cdot \mathbf{e}_{2})^{2}}{\partial w_{i}^{(1)}} &= \frac{\partial \langle (c'(x)y' + c(x)y'' - f)^{2} \rangle}{\partial w_{i}^{(1)}} \\ &+ \frac{\partial ((y(0) - 0))^{2}}{\partial w_{i}^{(1)}} + \frac{\partial ((y(1) - 0))^{2}}{\partial w_{i}^{(1)}} &= \left\langle 2 \left( c(x)y'' + c'(x)y' - f \right) \left( c(x) \frac{\partial y''}{\partial w_{i}^{(1)}} + c'(x) \frac{\partial y'}{\partial w_{i}^{(1)}} - \frac{\partial f}{\partial w_{i}^{(1)}} \right) \right\rangle \\ &+ 2(y(0) - 0) \frac{\partial y(0)}{\partial w_{i}^{(1)}} + 2(y(1) - 0) \frac{\partial y(1)}{\partial w_{i}^{(1)}}, \end{aligned} \tag{A.15} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial b_{i}^{(0)}} &= \frac{\partial \langle (My - f)^{2} \rangle}{\partial b_{i}^{(0)}} + \frac{\partial ((y(1) - 0))^{2}}{\partial b_{i}^{(0)}} + \frac{\partial ((y(1) - 0))^{2}}{\partial b_{i}^{(0)}} + \frac{\partial ((y(1) - 0))^{2}}{\partial b_{i}^{(0)}} = \left\langle 2 \left( c(x)y'' + c'(x)y' - f \right) \left( c(x) \frac{\partial y''}{\partial b_{i}^{(0)}} + c'(x) \frac{\partial y'}{\partial b_{i}^{(0)}} - \frac{\partial f}{\partial b_{i}^{(0)}} \right) \right\rangle \\ &+ 2(y(0) - 0) \frac{\partial y(0)}{\partial b_{i}^{(0)}} + 2(y(1) - 0) \frac{\partial y(1)}{\partial b_{i}^{(0)}}, \end{aligned} \tag{A.16} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial b^{(1)}} &= \frac{\partial \langle (My - f)^{2} \rangle}{\partial b^{(1)}} + \frac{\partial ((Ny - \mathbf{b}) \cdot \mathbf{e}_{1})^{2}}{\partial b^{(1)}} + \frac{\partial ((Ny - \mathbf{b}) \cdot \mathbf{e}_{2})^{2}}{\partial b^{(1)}} = \frac{\partial \langle (c'(x)y' + c(x)y'' - f) \rangle}{\partial b^{(0)}_{i}} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} + \frac{\partial ((y(0) - 0))^{2}}{\partial b^{(0)}_{i}} + 2(y(1) - 0) \frac{\partial y(1)}{\partial b^{(0)}_{i}}, \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} + \frac{\partial ((y(0) - 0))^{2}}{\partial b^{(1)}_{i}} + \frac{\partial ((Ny - \mathbf{b}) \cdot \mathbf{e}_{1})^{2}}{\partial b^{(1)}_{i}} + \frac{\partial ((Ny - \mathbf{b}) \cdot \mathbf{e}_{2})^{2}}{\partial b^{(1)}_{i}} = \frac{\partial \langle (c'(x)y' + c(x)y'' - f)^{2} \rangle}{\partial b^{(1)}_{i}} + \frac{\partial ((y(1) - 0))^{2}}{\partial b^{(1$$

$$+2(y(0)-0)\frac{\partial y(0)}{\partial b^{(1)}}+2(y(1)-0)\frac{\partial y(1)}{\partial b^{(1)}}.$$
(A.16)

The expressions (A.14), (A.15), (A.16), and (A.16), require a set of derivatives, which we calculate below. For Eq. (A.14), we need,

$$\frac{\partial y'}{\partial w_i^{(0)}}, \quad \frac{\partial y''}{\partial w_i^{(0)}}, \quad \frac{\partial y(0)}{\partial w_i^{(0)}}, \quad \frac{\partial y(1)}{\partial w_i^{(0)}}.$$

From Eqs. (A.7), (A.8), (A.9), (A.10), and (A.11), we have the values of y(x), y(0), y(1), y', and y'' respectively. Here, we will need the activation function and its respective derivatives, which are given by Eqs. (A.1), (A.2), (A.3), and (A.4). Substituting the values of y', y'', y(0), and y(1) and differentiating with respect to  $w_i^{(0)}$ , we obtain the following:

$$\frac{\partial y'}{\partial w_i^{(0)}} = \sum_{i=1}^{N_n} w_i^{(1)} \varphi'(w_i^{(0)} x_n + b_i^{(0)}) + \sum_{i=1}^{N_n} x_n w_i^{(1)} (w_i^{(0)})^2 \varphi''(w_i^{(0)} x_n + b_i^{(0)}), \tag{A.17}$$

$$\frac{\partial y''}{\partial w_i^{(0)}} = \sum_{i=1}^{N_n} 2w_i^{(1)} w_i^{(0)} \varphi''(w_i^{(0)} x_n + b_i^{(0)}) + \sum_{i=1}^{N_n} x_n w_i^{(1)} (w_i^{(0)})^2 \varphi'''(w_i^{(0)} x_n + b_i^{(0)}), \tag{A.18}$$

since

$$y(0) = \sum_{i=1}^{N_n} w_i^{(1)} \varphi(w_i^{(0)}(0) + b_i^{(0)}) + b^{(1)} = \sum_{i=1}^{N_n} w_i^{(1)} \varphi(b_i^{(0)}) + b^{(1)},$$
(A.19)

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 $\frac{\partial y(0)}{\partial w_i^{(0)}} = 0,$ 

then

since

$$y(1) = \sum_{i=1}^{N_n} w_i^{(1)} \varphi(w_i^{(0)}(1) + b_i^{(0)}) + b^{(1)},$$
(A.21)

then

$$\frac{\partial y(1)}{\partial w_i^{(0)}} = \sum_{i=1}^{N_n} w_i^{(1)} \varphi'(w_i^{(0)}(1) + b_i^{(0)})(1) = \sum_{i=1}^{N_n} w_i^{(1)} \varphi'(w_i^{(0)} + b_i^{(0)}).$$
(A.21)

For Eq. (A.15), we need:

 $\frac{\partial y'}{\partial w_i^{(1)}}, \quad \frac{\partial y''}{\partial w_i^{(1)}}, \quad \frac{\partial y(0)}{\partial w_i^{(1)}}, \quad \frac{\partial y(1)}{\partial w_i^{(1)}}.$ 

From Eqs. (A.7), (A.8), (A.9), (A.10), and (A.11), we have the values of y(x), y(0), y(1), y', and y'' respectively. Here, we will need the activation function and its respective derivatives, which are given by Eqs. (A.1), (A.2), (A.3), and (A.4). Substituting the values of y', y'', y(0), and y(1) and differentiating with respect to  $w_i^{(1)}$ , we obtain the following:

$$\frac{\partial y'}{\partial w_i^{(1)}} = \sum_{i=1}^{N_n} w_i^{(0)} \varphi'(w_i^{(0)} x_n + b_i^{(0)}), \tag{A.22}$$

$$\frac{\partial y''}{\partial w_i^{(1)}} = \sum_{i=1}^{N_n} (w_i^{(0)})^2 \varphi''(w_i^{(0)} x_n + b_i^{(0)}), \tag{A.23}$$

since

$$\frac{\partial y(x)}{\partial w_i^{(1)}} = \sum_{i=1}^{N_n} \varphi(w_i^{(0)} x_n + b_i^{(0)}), \tag{A.24}$$

then:

$$\frac{\partial y(0)}{\partial w_i^{(1)}} = \sum_{i=1}^{N_n} \varphi(w_i^{(0)}(0) + b_i^{(0)}) = \sum_{i=1}^{N_n} \varphi(b_i^{(0)}), \tag{A.25}$$

$$\frac{\partial y(1)}{\partial w_i^{(1)}} = \sum_{i=1}^{N_n} \varphi(w_i^{(0)}(1) + b_i^{(0)}) = \sum_{i=1}^{N_n} \varphi(w_i^{(0)} + b_i^{(0)}), \tag{A.26}$$

For Eq. (A.16), we need:

$$\frac{\partial y'}{\partial b_i^{(0)}}, \quad \frac{\partial y''}{\partial b_i^{(0)}}, \quad \frac{\partial y(0)}{\partial b_i^{(0)}}, \quad \frac{\partial y(1)}{\partial b_i^{(0)}}.$$

From Eqs. (A.7), (A.8), (A.9), (A.10), and (A.11), we have the values of y(x), y(0), y(1), y', and y'' respectively. Here, we will need the activation function and its respective derivatives, which are given by Eqs. (A.1), (A.2), (A.3), and (A.4). Substituting the values of y', y'', y(0), and y(1) and differentiating with respect to  $b_i^{(0)}$ , we obtain the following:

$$\frac{\partial y'}{\partial b_i^{(0)}} = \sum_{i=1}^{N_n} w_i^{(1)} w_i^{(0)} \varphi''(w_i^{(0)} x_n + b_i^{(0)}), \tag{A.27}$$

$$\frac{\partial y''}{\partial b_i^{(0)}} = \sum_{i=1}^{N_n} w_i^{(1)} (w_i^{(0)})^2 \varphi''' (w_i^{(0)} x_n + b_i^{(0)}), \tag{A.28}$$

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(A.20)

since

$$\frac{\partial y(x)}{\partial b_i^{(0)}} = \sum_{i=1}^{N_n} w_i^{(1)} \varphi'(w_i^{(0)} x_n + b_i^{(0)}), \qquad (A.29)$$

then

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial y(0)}{\partial b_i^{(0)}} &= \sum_{i=1}^{N_n} w_i^{(1)} \varphi'(w_i^{(0)}(0) + b_i^{(0)}) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{N_n} w_i^{(1)} \varphi'(b_i^{(0)}), \end{aligned} \tag{A.30}$$

$$\frac{\partial y(1)}{\partial b_i^{(0)}} = \sum_{i=1}^{N_n} w_i^{(1)} \varphi'(w_i^{(0)}(1) + b_i^{(0)})$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{N_n} w_i^{(1)} \varphi'(w_i^{(0)} + b_i^{(0)}). \tag{A.31}$$

For Eq. (A.16), we need:

 $\overline{i=1}$ 

$$\frac{\partial y'}{\partial b^{(1)}}, \quad \frac{\partial y''}{\partial b^{(1)}}, \quad \frac{\partial y(0)}{\partial b^{(1)}}, \quad \frac{\partial y(1)}{\partial b^{(1)}}.$$

From Eqs. (A.7), (A.8), (A.9), (A.10), and (A.11), we have the values of y(x), y(0), y(1), y', and y'' respectively.

Here, we will need the activation function and its respective derivatives, which are given by Eqs. (A.1), (A.2), (A.3), and (A.4).

Substituting the values of y', y'', y(0), and y(1) and differentiating with respect to  $b^{(1)}$ , we obtain the following:

$$\frac{\partial y'}{\partial b^{(1)}} = 0, \tag{A.32}$$

$$\frac{\partial y''}{\partial b^{(1)}} = 0, \tag{A.33}$$

$$\frac{\partial y(x)}{\partial b^{(1)}} = 1, \tag{A.34}$$

then:

since

$$\frac{\partial y(0)}{\partial b^{(1)}} = 1, \tag{A.35}$$

$$\frac{\partial y(1)}{\partial b^{(1)}} = 1. \tag{A.36}$$

Once the necessary derivatives for Eqs. (A.16), (A.16), (A.17), and (A.18) have been computed, we can iteratively update the weights and biases according to Eq. (A.15). Then, we calculate the cost function using these updated weights and biases, as indicated in Eq. (A.12). The optimization is performed over  $T_b$  batches, and the entire process is repeated across the specified number of epochs.

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