TOWARDS FAST SIMULATION OF ENVIRONMENTAL FLUID MECHANICS WITH MULTI-SCALE GRAPH NEURAL NETWORKS

Mario Lino
Department of Aeronautics
Imperial College London
mal1218@ic.ac.uk

Stathi FotiadisDepartment of Bioengineering
Imperial College London

Anil A. Bharath
Department of Bioengineering
Imperial College London

Chris Cantwell
Department of Aeronautics
Imperial College London

ABSTRACT

Numerical simulators are essential tools in the study of natural fluid-systems, but their performance often limits application in practice. Recent machine-learning approaches have demonstrated their ability to accelerate spatio-temporal predictions, although, with only moderate accuracy in comparison. Here we introduce MultiScaleGNN, a novel multi-scale graph neural network model for learning to infer unsteady continuum mechanics in problems encompassing a range of length scales and complex boundary geometries. We demonstrate this method on advection problems and incompressible fluid dynamics, both fundamental phenomena in oceanic and atmospheric processes. Our results show good extrapolation to new domain geometries and parameters for long-term temporal simulations. Simulations obtained with MultiScaleGNN are between two and four orders of magnitude faster than those on which it was trained.

1 Introduction

Forecasting the spatio-temporal mechanics of continuous systems is a common requirement in many areas of science and engineering, including environmental fluid dynamics (Rubin, 2001). Physical models for the transport and dispersion processes in natural fluid flows often consist on one or more partial differential equations (PDEs), whose complexity may preclude their analytic solution (Kim & Boysan, 1999). Numerical methods are well-established for approximating the solution of PDEs with high accuracy, but they are computationally expensive (Karniadakis & Sherwin, 2013). Deep learning techniques have been shown to be capable of accelerating physical simulations (Guo et al., 2016). Most of the recent work on deep learning to infer continuum physics has focused on the use of convolutional neural networks (CNNs). In part, the success of CNNs for these problems lies in their translation invariance and locality Goodfellow et al. (2016), which represent strong and desirable inductive biases for continuum-mechanics models. However, CNNs constrain input and output fields to be defined on rectangular domains represented by regular grids, which is not suitable for more complex domains. As with traditional numerical techniques, it is desirable to be able to vary the resolution in space, devoting more effort where the physics are challenging to resolve, and less effort elsewhere. An alternative approach to applying deep learning to geometrically and topologically complex domains is provided by graph neural networks (GNNs), which can also be designed to satisfy spatial invariance and locality (Battaglia et al., 2018; Wu et al., 2020).

In this paper, we describe a novel approach to applying GNNs for accurately forecasting the evolution of physical systems in complex and irregular domains. We propose MultiScaleGNN, a multiscale GNN model, to forecast the spatio-temporal evolution of continuous systems discretised as unstructured sets of nodes. Each scale processes the information at different resolutions, enabling the network to more accurately and efficiently capture complex physical systems. We apply Mul-

tiScaleGNN to simulate advection and incompressible fluid dynamics, fundamental processes in oceanic and atmospheric research. Importantly, MultiScaleGNN is independent of the spatial discretisation and the mean absolute error (MAE) decreases linearly as the distance between nodes is reduced, which allows for the application of adaptive re-meshing (see Figure 1b) MultiScaleGNN simulations are between two and four orders of magnitude faster than the numerical solver used for generating the ground truth datasets, becoming a potential surrogate model for fast predictions.

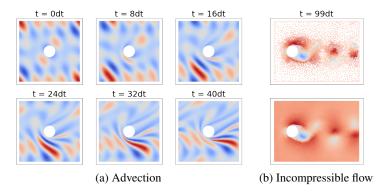


Figure 1: MultiScaleGNN forecasts continuum dynamics. We used it to simulate (a) advection [video] and, (b) the incompressible flow around a circular cylinder [video].

2 Related work

During the last five years, most deep neural networks (DNNs) architectures used for predicting fluid dynamics have included convolutional layers (Guo et al., 2016; Tompson et al., 2017; Lee & You, 2019; Kim et al., 2019; Wiewel et al., 2019; Fotiadis et al., 2020). These CNN-based solvers are between one and four orders of magnitude faster than numerical solvers (Guo et al., 2016; Lino et al., 2020), and some of them have shown good extrapolation to unseen domain geometries and initial conditions (Thuerey et al., 2018; Lino et al., 2020). Recently, GNNs have been used to simulate the motion of discrete systems of solid particles (Battaglia et al., 2016; Chang et al., 2017) and deformable solids and fluids discretised into Lagrangian (or free) particles (Li et al., 2019a; Mrowca et al., 2018b; Sanchez-Gonzalez et al., 2020). Further research in this area introduced more general message-passing (MP) layers (Sanchez-Gonzalez et al., 2018; Li et al., 2019b; Mrowca et al., 2018a), high-order time-integration (Sanchez-Gonzalez et al., 2019) and hierarchical models (Li et al., 2019a; Mrowca et al., 2018b). To the best of our knowledge Alet, et al. (2019) Alet et al. (2019) were the first to explore the use of GNNs to infer Eulerian mechanics by solving the Poisson PDE. However, their domains remained simple, used coarse spatial discretisations and did not explore the generalisation of their model. More closely related to our work, Pfaff et al. (2021) proposed a mesh-based GNN to simulate continuum mechanics, although they did not consider the use of MP at multiple scales of resolution. Li et al. (2020b) and Liu et al. (2021) used multi-resolution GNNs to infer steady solutions, but their pooling remained simple and did not explore extrapolation to unseen domain geometries or physical parameters. Li et al. (2020a) also considered multi-scale neural PDE modelling, with the mayor drawback that the spatial discretisations are constrained to uniform grids.

3 Model

3.1 Model definition

For a PDE $\frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial t} = \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{u})$ on a spatial domain $\mathcal{D} \subset \mathbb{R}^2$, MultiScaleGNN infers the temporal evolution of $\mathbf{u}(t,\mathbf{x})$ at a finite set of nodes V^1 , with coordinates $\mathbf{x}_i^1 \in \mathcal{D}$. Given an input field $\mathbf{u}(t_0,\mathbf{x}_{V^1})$, at time $t=t_0$ and at the V^1 nodes, a single evaluation of MultiScaleGNN returns $\mathbf{u}(t_0+dt,\mathbf{x}_{V^1})$, where dt is a fixed time-step size. Each time-step is performed by applying MP layers in L graphs and between them, as illustrated in Figure 2. The high-resolution graph G^1 consists of the set of nodes V^1 and a set of directed edges E^1 connecting these nodes. In a complete graph, there exist

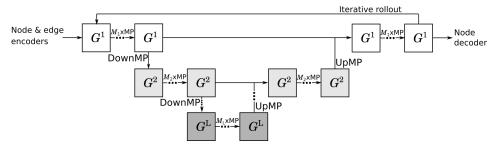


Figure 2: MultiScaleGNN architecture. G^1 is the high-resolution graph, G^2 and G^L are low-resolution graphs.

 $|V^1|(|V^1|-1)$ edges, this would result in a high computational cost to MP. Instead, MultiScaleGNN connects each node in V^1 (receiver node) to its k-closest nodes (k sender nodes) using a k-nearest neighbours (k-NN) algorithm. This guarantees that, in MP layers, each node is receiving information from exactly k nodes, in contrast to Pfaff et al. (2021) and Sanchez-Gonzalez et al. (2018). This uniformity can ease the learning and improve the accuracy of the predictions. The attributes assigned to each node \mathbf{v}_i^1 are the concatenation of $\mathbf{u}(t_0,\mathbf{x}_i)$, \mathbf{p}_i and Ω_i , where \mathbf{p}_i is a set of physical parameters at \mathbf{x}_i (such as the Reynolds number in fluid dynamics) and $\Omega_i = 1$ for nodes located on Dirichlet boundaries and zero elsewhere. Each edge attribute \mathbf{e}_k^1 is assigned the relative position between sender node s_k and receiver node r_k .

Node attributes and edge attributes are encoded through two independent multi-layer perceptrons (MLPs). A MP layer applied to G^1 propagates the nodal and edge information only locally between adjacent nodes. Nevertheless, most continuous physical-systems require this propagation at larger scales, or even globally. To handle this, MultiScaleGNN processes the information at L scales, creating a graph for each level and propagating information between them in each pass. The lowerresolution graphs $(G^2, G^3, \dots, G^L;$ with $|V_1| > |V_2| > \dots > |V_L|)$ possess fewer nodes and edges, and hence, a single MP layer can propagate features over longer distances more efficiently. As depicted in Figure 2, the information is first diffused and processed in the high-resolution graph G^1 through M_1 MP layers. It is then passed to G^2 through a downward MP (DownMP) layer. In G^2 the attributes are again processed through M_2 MP layers and a DownMP layer to G^3 . This process is repeated L-1 times. The lowest resolution attributes (stored in G^L) are then passed back to the scale immediately above through an upward message passing (UpMP) layer. Attributes are again successively passed through M_l MP layers at scale l and an UpMP layer from scale l to scale l-1 until the information is ultimately processed in G^1 . Finally, a MLP decodes the nodal information to return the predicted field at time t_0+dt at the V^1 nodes. To apply MP in the L graphs, MultiScaleGNN uses the MP layer introduced by Sanchez-Gonzalez et al. (2018) and Battaglia et al. (2018), with the mean as the aggregation function.

3.2 MULTI-SCALE GRAPHS

Each graph $G^l=(V^l,E^l)$ with $l=2,3,\ldots,L$; is obtained from graph G^{l-1} by first dividing $\mathcal D$ into a regular grid with cell size $d_x^l \times d_y^l$ (Figure 3a exemplifies this for l=2). For each cell, provided that there is at least one node from V^{l-1} in it, a node is added to V^l . The nodes from V^{l-1} in a given cell i and the node from V^l on the same cell are denoted as child nodes, $Ch(i) \subset V^{l-1}$, and parent node, $i \in V^l$, respectively. The coordinates of each parent node is the mean position of its children nodes. Each edge $k \in E^l$ connects sender node $s_k \in V^l$ to receiver node $r_k \in V^l$, provided that there exists at least one edge from $Ch(s_k)$ to $Ch(r_k)$ in E^{l-1} . Edge k is assigned the mean edge attribute of the set of edges going from $Ch(s_k)$ to $Ch(r_k)$.

Downward message-passing (DownMP). To perform MP from G^{l-1} to G^l (see Figure 3b), a set of directed edges, $E^{l-1,l}$, is created. Each edge $k \in E^{l-1,l}$ connects node $s_k \in V^{l-1}$ to its parent node $r_k \in V^l$, with edge attributes assigned as the relative position between child and parent nodes. A DownMP layer applies a common edge-update function, $f^{l-1,l}$, to edge k and node s_k . It then assigns to each node attribute \mathbf{v}_i^l the mean updated attribute of all the edges in $E^{l-1,l}$ arriving to node i, i.e.,

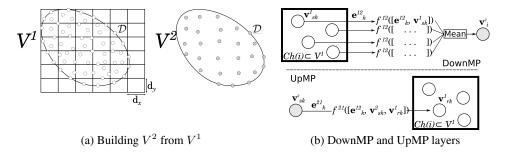


Figure 3: (a) V^2 is obtained from V^1 by partitioning \mathcal{D} using a grid with cell size $d_x^2 \times d_y^2$. (b) DownMP and UpMP diagrams.

$$\mathbf{v}_{i}^{l} = \frac{1}{|Ch(i)|} \sum_{k:r_{k}=i} f^{l-1,l}([\mathbf{e}_{k}^{l-1,l}, \mathbf{v}_{s_{k}}^{l-1}]), \quad \forall i \in 1, \dots, |V^{l}|.$$
(1)

Upward message-passing (UpMP). To pass and process the node attributes from G^{l+1} to G^l , MultiScaleGNN defines a set of directed edges, $E^{l+1,l}$. These edges are the same as in $E^{l,l+1}$, but with opposite direction. An UpMP layer applies a common edge-update function, $f^{l+1,l}$, to each edge $k \in E^{l+1,l}$ and both its sender (at scale l+1) and receiver (at scale l) nodes, directly updating the node attributes in G^l , i.e.,

$$\mathbf{v}_{r_{t}}^{l} = f^{l+1,l}([\mathbf{e}_{t}^{l+1,l}, \mathbf{v}_{s_{t}}^{l+1}, \mathbf{v}_{r_{t}}^{l}]), \quad \forall k \in E^{l+1,l}.$$
 (2)

UpMP layers leave the edge attributes of G^l unaltered. To model functions $f^{l-1,l}$ and $f^{l+1,l}$, we use MLPs.

4 Training datasets

Datasets AdvBox and AdvInBox, both used simultaneously for training, contain simulations of a scalar field advected under a uniform velocity field on a square domain ($[0,1] \times [0,1]$) and a rectangular domain ($[0,1] \times [0,0.5]$) respectively. AdvBox domains have periodic conditions on all four boundaries, whereas AdvInBox domains have upper and lower periodic boundaries, a prescribed Dirichlet condition on the left boundary, and a zero-Neumann condition on the right boundary. The initial states at t_0 are derived from two-dimensional truncated Fourier series with random coefficients and a random number of terms. For advection models, $\mathbf{u}(t,\mathbf{x}_i) \in \mathbb{R}$ is the advected field and $\mathbf{p}_i \in \mathbb{R}^2$ are the two components of the velocity field at \mathbf{x}_i .

Dataset NS contains simulations of the periodic vortex shedding around a circular cylinder at Reynolds numbers between 500 and 1000. The upper and lower boundaries are periodic, and the vertical distance between cylinders is randomly sampled between 4 and 6. Each domain is discretised into approximately 7000 nodes. For flow models, $\mathbf{u}(t,\mathbf{x}_i) \in \mathbb{R}^3$ contains the velocity and pressure fields and $\mathbf{p}_i \in \mathbb{R}$ is the Reynolds number. Further details of the training and testing datasets are included in Appendix A.

5 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

We first consider the MultiScaleGNN model trained to infer advection. Despite MultiScaleGNN being trained on square and rectangular domains and uniform velocity fields, it generalises to complex domains and non-uniform velocity fields. As an example of a closed domain, we consider the Taylor-Couette flow in Figure 4, where after 49 time-steps a MultiScaleGNN with L=1 maintains high accuracy in transporting both the lower and the higher frequencies generated due to the shear flow. We also evaluated the predictions of MultiScaleGNN on open domains containing obstacles of different shapes (circles, squares, ellipses and closed spline curves). Figure 1 shows the predictions obtained with a MultiScaleGNN with L=2 for a field advected around a circular cylinder and upper-lower and left-right periodic boundaries. MultiScaleGNN was also trained to simulate

unsteady incompressible fluid dynamics in a range of Reynolds numbers between 500 and 1000. It shows very good interpolation to unseen Reynolds numbers within this range. For instance, Figure 1b shows the horizontal velocity field predicted by MultiScaleGNN with L=4 after 99 time-steps for Re=700. The MAE increases for Reynolds numbers lower than 400 and higher than 1200, but the predictions remain visually realistic in the range 300 to 1500, indicating that the network has learnt some fundamental aspects of the fluid dynamics. ¹

We evaluate the accuracy of MultiScaleGNN with L=1,2,3and 4; the architectural details of each model are included in Appendix B. Tables 1 and 2 collect the MAE for the last time-point and the mean of all the time-points on the testing datasets. Incompressible fluids have a global behaviour, and the addition of coarser layers helps the network to learn this characteristic and achieve significantly lower errors. Hence, for the N-S testing dataset there is a clear benefit from increasing the number of scales. In contrast, for the advection datasets, the lowest MAE values are obtained for L = 1 or 2, since in advection the information is propagated only locally. As a comparison to Pfaff et al. (2021), a GNN with 16 sequential MP-layers (GN-Blocks) results in a MAE of 5.852×10^{-2} on our NSMidRe dataset; whereas MultiScaleGNN with the same number and type of MP layers, but distributed among 3 scales, results in a lower MAE of 3.081×10^{-2} . A comparison

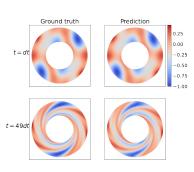


Figure 4: Advection of a scalar field in a Taylor-Couette flow [video].

of our coarsening/pooling algorithm to Liu et al. (2021) is included in Appendix C.

Table 1: MAE $\times 10^{-2}$ on the advection testing datasets for MultiScaleGNN models with L=1,2,3,4

Di	L =	= 1	L =	= 2	L	= 3	L =	= 4
Datasets	Step 49	All	Step 49	All	Step 49	All	Step 49	All
AdvTaylor	6.940	3.195	7.914	3.676	8.037	3.739	8.790	4.050
AdvCircle	4.057	2.112	3.690	1.817	3.911	1.916	3.827	1.995
AdvCircleAng	3.870	2.030	3.962	1.890	4.300	2.074	4.428	2.249
AdvSquare	4.250	2.178	4.175	1.991	4.420	2.107	4.279	2.141
AdvEllipseH	4.462	2.241	4.328	2.017	4.567	2.136	4.449	2.179
AdvEllipseV	4.265	2.236	4.132	2.014	4.297	2.100	4.207	2.22
AdvSplines	4.484	2.293	4.426	2.088	4.636	2.199	4.58	2.300
AdvInCir	11.7	7.101	25.369	18.548	27.981	22.626	27.379	22.034

Table 2: MAE $\times 10^{-2}$ on the N-S testing datasets for MultiScaleGNN models with L=1,2,3,4

Datasets	L = 1		L=2		L=3		L=4	
	Step 99	All	Step 99	All	Step 99	All	Step 99	All
NSMidRe	9.765	6.108	4.759	3.663	3.851	3.081	3.456	2.825
NSLowRe	9.43	7.327	12.346	8.211	11.707	8.203	7.338	5.532
NSHighRe	9.487	10.598	7.879	9.002	6.98	7.096	5.826	5.871

6 Conclusion

MultiScaleGNN is a novel multi-scale GNN model for inferring mechanics on continuous systems discretised into unstructured sets of nodes. Unstructured discretisations allow complex domains to be accurately represented and the node count to be adjusted over space. Multiple coarser levels allow high and low-resolution mechanics to be efficiently captured. In global and local problems, such as incompressible fluid dynamics, the coarser graphs are particularly advantageous, since they enable

¹Animations with the ground truth and best-model predictions can be found *here*.

global characteristics to be learnt. MultiScaleGNN interpolates to unseen spatial discretisations of the physical domains, allowing it to adopt efficient discretisations and to dynamically and locally modify them to further improve the accuracy. MultiScaleGNN also generalises to advection on complex domains and velocity fields and it interpolates and extrapolates to unseen Reynolds numbers in fluid dynamics. Inference is between two and four orders of magnitude faster than with the high-order solver used for generating the training datasets. This work is a significant advancement in the design of flexible, accurate and efficient neural simulators for fluid dynamics and in general for continuum mechanics.

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A DATASETS DETAILS

A.1 ADVECTION DATASETS

We solved the two-dimensional advection equation using Nektar++, an spectral/hp element solver (Karniadakis & Sherwin, 2013; Cantwell et al., 2015). As initial condition, φ_0 , we take an scalar field derived from a two-dimensional Fourier series with $M \times N$ random coefficients, specifically

$$\varphi_0 = \sum_{m=0}^{M} \sum_{n=0}^{N} c_{m,n} \varphi_{m,n} \cdot \exp\left(-2(x - x_c)^2 - 2(y - y_c)^2\right),\tag{3}$$

with
$$\varphi_{m,n} = \Re \left\{ \exp \left(i2\pi (mx + ny) \right) \right\}.$$
 (4)

Coefficients $c_{m,n}$ are sampled from a uniform distribution between 0 and 1, and integers M and N are randomly selected between 3 and 8. In equation (4), x_c and y_c are the coordinates of the centre of the domain. The initial field φ_0 is scaled to have a maximum equal to 1 and a minimum equal to -1. We created training and testing datasets containing advection simulations with 50 time-points each, equispaced by a time-step size dt=0.03. A summary of these datasets can be found in Table 3.

Training datasets. We generated two training datasets: AdvBox with 1500 simulations and AdvInBox with 3000 simulations. In these datasets we impose a uniform velocity fields with random values for u and v, but constrained to $u^2+v^2\leq 1$. In dataset AdvBox the domain is a square ($\mathbf{x}\in[0,1]\times[0,0.5]$) with periodicity in x and y. In dataset AdvInBox the domain is a rectangle ($\mathbf{x}\in[0,1]\times[0,0.5]$) with periodicity in y, a Dirichlet condition on the left boundary and a homogeneous Neumann condition on the right boundary — as an additional constraint, $u\geq 0$. During training, a new set of nodes V^1 is selected at the beginning of every iteration. The node count was varied smoothly across the different regions of the domains. The sets of node were created with Gmsh, a finite-element mesher. The *element size* parameter was set to 0.012 in the corners and the centre of the training domains, and set to $\sqrt{10}$ or $1/\sqrt{10}$ times that value at one random control point on each boundary. The mean number of nodes in $|V_1|$ for AdvBox and AdvInBox predictions are 9802 and 5009 respectively.

Testing datasets. We generated eight testing datasets, each of them containing 200 simulations. These datasets consider advection on more complex open and closed domains with non-uniform velocity fields. The domains employed are represented in Figure 5, and the testing datasets are listed in Table 3. The velocity fields were obtained from the steady incompressible Navier-Stokes (N-S) equations with Re=1. In dataset AdvTaylor the inner and outer walls spin at a velocity randomly sampled between -1 and 1. In datasets AdvCircle, AdvSquare, AdvEllipseH, AdvEllipseV and AdvSplines there is periodicity along x and y, and a horizontal flow rate between 0.2 and 0.75 is imposed. The obstacles inside the domains on the AdvSplines dataset are made of closed spline curves defined from six random points. Dataset AdvCircleAng is similar to AdvCircle, but the flow rate forms an angle between $-45 \deg$ and $45 \deg$ with the x axis. The domain in dataset AdvInCir has periodicity along y, a Dirichlet condition on the left boundary (with $0.2 \le u^2 + v^2 \le 0.75$ and $-45 \deg \le \arctan(v/u) \le 45 \deg$), and a homogeneous Neumann condition on the right boundary. The set of nodes V^1 were generated using Gmsh with an element size equal to 0.005 on the walls of the obstacles and 0.01 on the remaining boudaries.

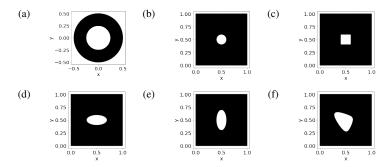


Figure 5: Physical domains (black areas) on our testing datasets.

Table 3: Advection training and testing datasets

Dataset	Flow type	Domain	#Nodes	Train/Test	
AdvBox	Open, periodic in x and y	$[0,1] \times [0,1]$	9601-10003	Training	
AdvInBox	Open, periodic in y	$[0,1] \times [0,0.5]$	4894-5135	Training	
AdvTaylor	Closed, Taylor-Couette flow	Figure 5a	7207	Testing	
AdvCircle	Open, periodic in x and y	Figure 5b	19862	Testing	
AdvCircleAng	Open, periodic in x and y	Figure 5b	19862	Testing	
AdvSquare	Open, periodic in x and y	Figure 5c	19956	Testing	
AdvEllipseH	Open, periodic in x and y	Figure 5d	20210	Testing	
AdvEllipseV	Open, periodic in x and y	Figure 5e	20221	Testing	
AdvSplines	Open, periodic in x and y	Figure 5f	19316-20389	Testing	
AdvIncir	Open, periodic in y	Figure 5b	19862	Testing	

A.2 INCOMPRESSIBLE FLUID DYNAMICS DATASETS

We solved the two-dimensional incompressible Navier-Stokes equation using the high-order solver Nektar++. We consider the flow around an infinite vertical array of circular cylinders, with diameter D=1, equispaced a distance H randomly sampled between 4D and 6D. The width of the domain is 7D and the cylinders axis is at 1.5D from the left boundary. The left boundary is an inlet with u=1, v=0 and $\partial p/\partial x=0$; the right boundary is an outlet with $\partial u/\partial x=0, \partial v/\partial x=0$ and p=0; and, the cylinder walls have a no-slip condition. In our simulations, we select Re values that yield solutions in the laminar vortex-shedding regime, and we only include the periodic stage to our datasets. The sets of nodes V^1 employed for each simulation were created using Gmsh placing more nodes around the cylinders walls. The mean number of nodes in these sets is 7143. Each simulation contains 100 time-points equispaced by a time-step size dt = 0.1. The training and testing datasets are listed in Table 4.

MODEL DETAILS В

Hyper-parameters choice. The number of edges going to each node was set to k=6, and the number of layers in each MLP (encoder, decoder and edge and node update functions) was three, with 128 neurons per hidden layer. All MLPs (except the decoder) use SELU activation functions (Klambauer et al., 2017), and, batch normalisation (Ba et al., 2016). The grid sizes used for gener-

Table 4: Incompressible flow training and testing datasets Table 5: Cell sizes for coarsening to levels 2, 3

Dataset	Re	#Simulations	Train/Test
NS	500-1000	1000	Training
NSMidRe	500-1000	250	Testing
NSLowRe	100-500	250	Testing
NSMidRe	1000-1500	250	Testing

and 4

Cell size	Advection	Fluid dynamics
$d_x^2, d_y^2 \ d_x^3, d_y^3 \ d_x^4, d_y^4$	0.02	0.15
d_x^3, d_y^3	0.04	0.30
d_x^4, d_y^4	0.08	0.60

ating the coarser graphs are collected in Table 5. The number of MP layers we used at each scale are listed in the Table 6.

		, ,
L	Advection	Fluid dynamics
L=1	$M_1 = 4$	$M_1 = 8$
L=2	$M_1 = 2, M_2 = 4$	$M_1 = 4, M_2 = 4$
L=3	$M_1 = 2, M_2 = 2, M_3 = 4$	$M_1 = 4, M_2 = 2, M_3 = 4$
L=4	$M_1 = 2, M_2 = 2, M_3 = 2, M_4 = 4$	$M_1 = 4, M_2 = 2, M_3 = 2, M_4 = 4$

Table 6: Number of MP layers at each scale for L = 1, 2, 3 and 4

Training details. We trained MultiScaleGNN models on a internal cluster using 4 CPUs, 86GB of memory, and a RTX6000 GPU with 24GB. We fed 8 graphs per batch. First, each training iteration predicted a single time-point, and, every time the training loss decreased below a threshold (0.01 for advection and 0.005 for fluid dynamics), we increased the number of iterative time-steps by one, up to a limit of 10. We used the loss function given by

$$\mathcal{L} = \text{MSE}\left(\hat{\mathbf{u}}(t, \mathbf{x}_{V^{1}}^{1}), \mathbf{u}(t, \mathbf{x}_{V^{1}}^{1})\right)$$

$$+ \lambda_{d} \, \text{MAE}\left(\hat{\mathbf{u}}(t, \mathbf{x}_{V^{1}}^{1} \in \partial_{D}\mathcal{D}), \mathbf{u}(t, \mathbf{x}_{V^{1}}^{1} \in \partial_{D}\mathcal{D})\right)$$

$$+ \frac{\lambda_{e}}{|E^{1}|} \sum_{\forall k \in E^{1}} \text{MSE}\left(\frac{\hat{\mathbf{u}}(t, \mathbf{x}_{r_{k}}^{1}) - \hat{\mathbf{u}}(t, \mathbf{x}_{s_{k}}^{1})}{||\mathbf{e}_{k}||_{2}}, \frac{\mathbf{u}(t, \mathbf{x}_{r_{k}}^{1}) - \mathbf{u}(t, \mathbf{x}_{s_{k}}^{1})}{||\mathbf{e}_{k}||_{2}}\right). \tag{5}$$

with $\lambda_d=0.25$, and, $\lambda_e=0.5$ for advection and $\lambda_e=0$ for fluid dynamics. The initial time-point was randomly selected for each prediction, and, we added to the initial field noise following a uniform distribution between -0.01 and 0.01. After each time-step, the models' weights were updated using the Adam optimiser with its standard parameters Kingma & Ba (2015). The learning rate was set to 10^{-4} and multiplied by 0.5 when the training loss did not decrease after six consecutive epochs, also, we applied gradient clipping to keep the Frobenius norm of the weights' gradients below or equal to one.

C COARSENING COMPARISON

An important question in the design of MultiScaleGNN was how to coarsen V_l to V_{l+1} . In the field of numerical simulations several coarsening algorithms have been developed to guarantee the stability and accuracy of the simulations. Liu et al. (2021) and Belbute-Peres et al. (2020) used coarsening techniques from numerical simulations and then interpolated the nodes attributes into the coarsened set of nodes. We found that our *cell-grid* coarsening and learnt MP from the high to the low-resolution graph (see section 3.2) performs significantly better than such coarsening-interpolation approach. Table 7 shows the MAE on the incompressible flow testing datasets for MultiScaleGNN models using both pooling strategies and a random coarsening, which randomly drops nodes to match the same $|V_l|/|V_{l+1}|$ ratio. In contrast to coarsening algorithms adopted from numerical simulations, cell-grid coarsening does not preserve the spatial node density from the original discretisation, but it results into a pseudo-structured discretisation. This discretisation may help to spread the node information more efficiently on all directions and regions and to ease the learning of the parameters of the MP layers at low resolution scales. Also, instead of a vanilla interpolation, in the DownMP the node information is passed to the low-resolution graph using a learnt MP layer, and the edge information is also passed to the edges of the low-resolution graph.

Table 7: MAE $\times 10^{-2}$ on the N-S testing datasets for L=1,2,3,4 with three different coarsening algorithms

Detecto	,	Cell	grid	Guill	ard's	Random	
Datasets L		Step 99	All	Step 99	All	Step 99	All
	2	4.759	3.663	6.756	4.393	7.191	4.741
	3	3.851	3.081	5.735	3.952	6.431	4.606
	4	3.456	2.825	4.494	3.330	6.337	4.428
	2	12.346	8.211	9.053	6.378	10.736	7.255
NSLowRe	3	11.707	8.203	9.099	6.946	8.977	6.672
	4	7.338	5.532	14.358	9.164	10.335	7.521
NSHighRe	2	7.879	9.002	10.776	7.608	11.024	7.842
	3	6.980	7.096	10.331	7.556	9.631	7.28
	4	5.826	5.871	11.222	7.837	9.572	7.202