
Discovering Symbolic Partial Differential Equation by Abductive Learning

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Abstract

Discovering symbolic Partial Differential Equation (PDE) from data is one of the most promising directions of modern scientific discovery. However, effectively constructing an expressive yet concise hypothesis space and accurately evaluating expression values remain challenging due to the exponential explosion with the spatial dimension and the noise in the measurements. To address these challenges, we propose the ABL-PDE approach that employs the Abductive Learning (ABL) framework to discover symbolic PDEs. By introducing a First-Order Logic (FOL) knowledge base, ABL-PDE can represent various PDEs, significantly constraining the hypothesis space without sacrificing expressive power, while also facilitating the incorporation of problem-specific knowledge. Furthermore, the proposed consistency optimization process establishes a synergistic interaction between the knowledge base and the neural network, achieving robust structure identification, accurate coefficient estimation, and enhanced stability against hyperparameter variation. Experimental results on three benchmarks across different noise levels demonstrate the state-of-the-art performance of our approach in PDE discovery.

1 Introduction

Partial Differential Equations (PDEs) serve as fundamental mathematical tools for describing a vast array of physical phenomena in science and engineering, effectively capturing the intricate relationships between how quantities change over space and evolve over time. Due to their versatility, PDEs are widely employed across a range of applications, including airfoil design in aerodynamics [14], weather prediction in meteorology [9], and pricing analysis in quantitative finance [6].

Recently, physics-informed machine learning has demonstrated remarkable success in approximating the behavior of complex physical systems [3, 22], which significantly changes the way we represent and leverage PDEs. Despite these advancements, explicit form PDEs remain essential in applications where high reliability is paramount. Furthermore, their inherent structure allows a single PDE to be adapted to various scenarios by simply modifying the boundary conditions and domain geometries. Due to such superior interpretability and generalizability, discovering symbolic governing equations from data remains one of the most promising avenues in scientific discovery [4].

Significant efforts [7, 10, 12, 16, 18] have been made to the PDE discovery task. Figure 1 provides an overview of the entire framework. Most of these methods consist of two primary components: a derivative-integral calculator and a candidate term library. The calculator evaluates symbolic expressions based on either direct derivative estimation or weak formulation-based integral computation. Meanwhile, the library constructs the hypothesis space for the target equation, with each term representing a function of the variables of interest. The underlying PDE is typically assumed to be a linear combination of these terms and is identified through symbolic regression techniques.

The first challenge of PDE discovery lies in constructing a comprehensive candidate term library. On one hand, this library must be sufficiently expressive to capture patterns within data; On the other hand, it should remain compact to enable an efficient PDE structure identification. Existing studies attempt to balance this trade-off by either constraining expressiveness to create a more concise library [11, 16] or maintaining flexibility at the expense of introducing numerous redundancies [8, 26, 27]. Moreover, accurately evaluating the expression values is also challenging. Since we can only access discrete measurements, derivatives or integrals must be estimated using approximate methods, the accuracy of which is significantly affected by the amount of data and the level of noise. Despite many studies attempting to address this issue using techniques such as ensemble learning [12] and weak formulation [11], most of them ignore the potential of using discovered physical information to in turn enhance the calculator’s capability, leading to inferior performance in both structure identification and coefficient estimation.

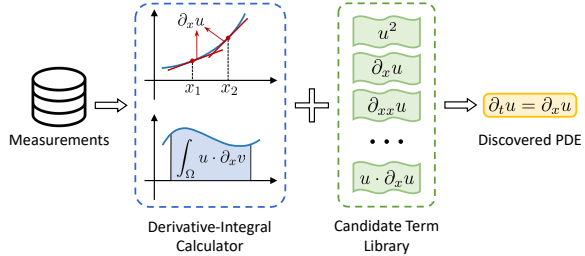


Figure 1: An illustration of PDE discovery framework.

In this paper, we propose the ABductive Learning for PDE discovery (ABL-PDE) approach to tackle the aforementioned challenges under the ABductive Learning (ABL) framework [28, 29]. ABL is a powerful paradigm that integrates data-driven machine learning with knowledge-driven logical reasoning in a balanced mutual promotion loop while maintaining the expressive power of both. Building on this framework, we design two components for ABL-PDE: a neural network-based learning module for derivative estimation and a First-order Logic (FOL) based reasoning module for candidate term generation, along with a consistency maximization process to bridge the two parts. Our approach balances the expressiveness and compactness of the hypothesis space and enables reciprocal enhancement between the calculator and the library.

Our contributions are summarized as follows:

- We propose a novel PDE discovery approach based on the ABL framework, transforming the previous unidirectional discovery pipeline into a bidirectional enhancement loop.
- We introduce a FOL knowledge base capable of representing a wide range of PDEs, substantially reducing redundancy and facilitating the incorporation of problem-specific knowledge.
- We design a consistency optimization process to bridge the two parts, which significantly enhances the robustness of structure identification, the accuracy of coefficient estimation, and the stability against hyperparameter variations.

We conduct extensive experiments on various PDE discovery tasks across different noise levels. The experimental results demonstrate the state-of-the-art performance of our approach.

2 Related Work

Based on whether the equation structure and the coefficients are determined synchronously, PDE discovery methods can be broadly classified into two categories.

The first category comprises synchronous methods, most of which rely on sparse regression techniques. A pioneering approach is SINDy [5], which was extended by PDE-FIND [23] from ODEs to PDEs. Weak SINDy [11] further enhances noise robustness by employing weak formulation. Apart from explicit sparse regression, several synchronous methods such as PDE-Net [18, 19] and Bayesian hidden physics models [1] optimize derivatives and coefficients end-to-end. Although generally exhibiting superior performance in fitting physical fields, they struggle to distinguish noise from small-coefficient terms. D-CIPHER [16] extends the boundary of PDE discovery to learn parameters within nonlinear terms. However, this comes with a more challenging optimization process, making it struggle to learn coupled PDE systems. A limitation of synchronous methods is their reliance on predefined, typically polynomial libraries. Although this compact library ensures term uniqueness, its inherent lack of expressiveness prevents the capture of complex structures like fractions.

The second category comprises asynchronous methods, often based on evolutionary algorithms, proposed to overcome the limitations of predefined libraries [8, 10, 12, 15, 25]. These methods first

determine the equation’s form by discrete optimization and then estimate the equation’s coefficients. Although such approaches incur higher computational costs due to discrete optimization, they mitigate the detrimental impact of interference terms on coefficient estimation while facilitating the incorporation of more flexible equation representation methods, such as binary trees [8, 15, 25]. However, it’s difficult for these methods to impose constraints on the equation form, resulting in an excessive number of redundant and invalid PDEs within the hypothesis space. In contrast, by introducing a FOL knowledge base, our method achieves a better balance between expressiveness and compactness in PDE representation, while also facilitating the incorporation of prior knowledge.

3 Preliminaries

In this section, we first present the problem formulation and then briefly introduce the abductive reasoning technique used to construct the candidate term library.

3.1 Problem Setting

In this paper, we consider general dynamical systems governed by PDEs of the following form:

$$\partial_t u = \left[f^{(1)}(u, \mathbf{x}), f^{(2)}(u, \mathbf{x}), \dots, f^{(i)}(u, \mathbf{x}), \dots \right] \cdot \boldsymbol{\xi}, \quad (1)$$

where $u : [0, T] \times \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is the solution function with time horizon T and bounded spatial domain $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^d$, t and \mathbf{x} denote the temporal and spatial coordinate, each $f^{(i)}$ is a function of u and \mathbf{x} , and $\boldsymbol{\xi}$ is their linear combination coefficient which is always sparse in practice. The data available is a set of triplets $\{(t_i, \mathbf{x}_i, \hat{u}(t_i, \mathbf{x}_i))\}_{i=1}^m$ representing m temporal-spatial coordinates, with measurements that may contain noise. Each $f^{(i)}(u, \mathbf{x})$ collectively forms the candidate term library that will be gradually expanded during the execution of our approach. We call $f^{(i)}(u, \mathbf{x})$ an *expression term*.

Definition 1 (Expression Term). An *expression term* is recursively formed by the following rule:

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \text{expr} \rangle & ::= \langle \text{idpv} \rangle \mid \langle \text{dpv} \rangle \mid \partial_{\langle \text{idpv} \rangle} \langle \text{expr} \rangle \mid \langle \text{expr} \rangle \langle \text{op} \rangle \langle \text{expr} \rangle \\ \langle \text{op} \rangle & ::= + \mid - \mid \times \mid / \end{aligned}$$

Here, $\langle \cdot \rangle$ denotes a nonterminal symbol, $::=$ indicates definition, and \mid signifies alternation. The nonterminal symbols $\langle \text{dpv} \rangle$ and $\langle \text{idpv} \rangle$ represent dependent and independent variables, respectively. Combining Equation (1) with expression terms, it suffices to represent a wide range of fundamental PDEs, such as the Diffusion equation, the Schrödinger equation, the Navier-Stokes equation, etc.

3.2 Abductive Reasoning

Abductive reasoning, also known as abduction, is a fundamental mode of logical reasoning that seeks explanations for observed facts. Abductive Logic Programming (ALP) formalizes this process within the context of logic programming by defining an abductive logic program as follows:

Definition 2 (Abductive Logic Program [17]). An abductive logic program is a triplet (P, A, IC) , where P is the background knowledge encoded as a logic program, A is a set of abducible predicates representing hypotheses, and IC is a set of first-order formulae called integrity constraints. Abductive explanation for an observation O is a set Δ of ground atoms on abducible predicates A , such that:

- (1) $P \cup \Delta \models O, IC$
- (2) $P \cup \Delta$ is consistent

Here, \models denotes logical entailment, meaning that each model of the left-hand side is also a model of the right-hand side. Abductive reasoning is essentially a search problem to find a set Δ on A which satisfies the three rules above. In our task, P is the logic program encoding the syntactic rules for expression terms, A is a subset of predicates used to represent expression terms, IC consists of various constraints on the term structure, and O is the number of operators in the term.

4 Our Approach

In this section, we first present an overview of our approach, ABductive Learning for PDE discovery (ABL-PDE), and then detail its components and the proposed consistency optimization process.

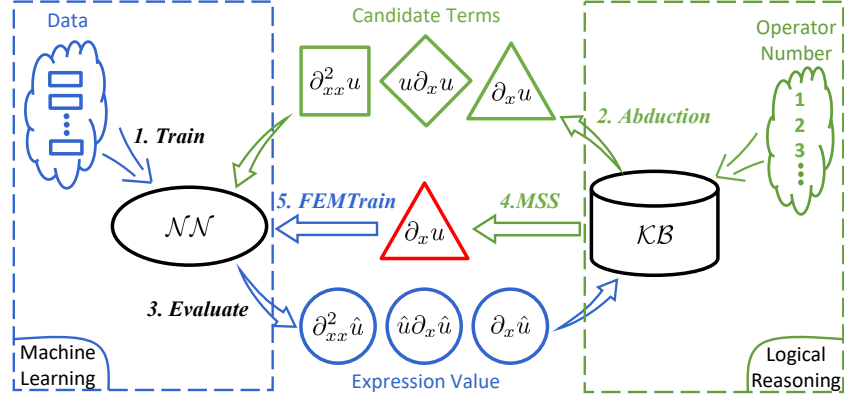


Figure 2: An illustration of ABL-PDE's framework.

4.1 Overview of ABL-PDE

As illustrated in Figure 2, ABL-PDE comprises two modules:

- **Machine Learning.** This module employs a neural network to fit the physical field and calculates derivatives through automatic differentiation.
- **Logical Reasoning.** This module incorporates an abductive logic program as the knowledge base and is responsible for generating candidate expression terms.

The discovery process commences with pretraining the neural network, during which no physical information is available (Step 1). Following this initial stage, an iterative deepening search is performed by progressively increasing the number of operators in the candidate terms. In each iteration, ABL-PDE first expands the candidate term library through abduction, utilizing the current number of operators as observations (Step 2). After this expansion, the abducted expression terms are transformed into numerical values (Step 3). Next, the proposed Monotone Subset Selection (MSS) algorithm is employed to identify terms with nonzero coefficients (Step 4). Subsequently, ABL-PDE estimates their coefficients and jointly optimizes the neural network through Finite Element Method-based Training (FEMTrain) (Step 5). Steps 4 and 5 together constitute the consistency optimization process, which is repeated until the discovered equation stabilizes and the coefficients converge.

4.2 Logic-based Knowledge Base

This part details our knowledge base KB, an abductive logic program (P, A, IC) . Recall that abductive reasoning is a search problem to find a set Δ on A that satisfies the rules in Definition 2.

Background Knowledge P . A straightforward way is to adopt the syntax rule in Definition 1 as the background knowledge P . Since $P \cup \Delta$ is consistent (rule (2) in Definition 2), P actually gives the boundary of search space, i.e., Δ should be an expression term. Obviously, size of the search space grows exponentially with the operator number O , which is a significant challenge. We observe that numerous mathematically equivalent terms are different only in their representations. Therefore, we introduce *canonical form term* to reduce the search space by eliminating such equivalent cases.

Definition 3 (Canonical Form Term). An expression term is called in *canonical form* if and only if it can be recursively generated by the following rules:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \langle \text{cfterm} \rangle &::= \langle \text{div} \rangle \mid \langle \text{mul} \rangle \mid \langle \text{add} \rangle \mid \langle \text{sub} \rangle \mid \langle \text{unit} \rangle \\
 \langle \text{div} \rangle &::= \langle \text{mul} \rangle / \langle \text{add} \rangle \mid \langle \text{mul} \rangle / \langle \text{sub} \rangle \\
 \langle \text{mul} \rangle &::= \langle \text{unit} \rangle \times \langle \text{mul} \rangle \mid \langle \text{unit} \rangle \\
 \langle \text{add} \rangle &::= \langle \text{mul} \rangle + \langle \text{add} \rangle \mid \langle \text{mul} \rangle \\
 \langle \text{sub} \rangle &::= \langle \text{add} \rangle - \langle \text{add} \rangle \\
 \langle \text{unit} \rangle &::= \langle \text{dpv} \rangle \mid \langle \text{idpv} \rangle \mid \langle \text{par} \rangle \\
 \langle \text{par} \rangle &::= \partial_{\langle \text{idpv} \rangle} \langle \text{dpv} \rangle \mid \partial_{\langle \text{idpv} \rangle} \langle \text{par} \rangle
 \end{aligned}$$

Table 1: General-purpose (C1, C2, C3) and domain-specific (C4, C5, C6) integrity constraints.

Integrity Constraint	Description
C1 $\leftarrow \text{add}(X, L) \wedge L = \text{add}(Y, Z) \wedge X \succ Y.$	Unique addition order
C2 $\leftarrow \text{mul}(X, L) \wedge L = \text{mul}(Y, Z) \wedge X \succ Y.$	Unique multiplication order
C3 $\leftarrow \text{sub}(X, Y) \wedge \text{intersect}(X, Y).$	Disjoint subtraction operands
C4 $\leftarrow \text{getPower}(\text{mul}(X, Y), u, N) \wedge N > n.$	Power limit
C5 $\leftarrow \text{getOrder}(\text{par}(X, Y), x, M) \wedge M > m.$	Derivative order limit
C6 $\leftarrow \text{getDependent}(\text{par}(X, Y), Z) \wedge Z = v \wedge Y = y.$	Continuity equation constraint

The notation has the same meaning as in Definition 1. These rules impose structure constraints on expression terms derivable from each nonterminal symbol. We illustrate the constraint on partial derivatives ($\langle \text{par} \rangle$) in Example 1; for detailed explanations of other rules, please refer to Appendix A.

Example 1. Given two dependent variables u and v . The expression term $\partial_t(u \times v)$ is not in canonical form as it does not satisfy the rule of $\langle \text{par} \rangle$ nor any other rules. However, $\partial_t(u \times v) = \partial_t u \times v + u \times \partial_t v$, which is the linear combination of canonical form terms $\partial_t u \times v$ and $u \times \partial_t v$. In Section 5, we prove that every expression term can be represented by a linear combination of canonical form terms.

In our implementation, P is a logic program directly translated from the rules in Definition 3. Integrated with the operator number tracking capability in the deductive reasoning process, P can leverage abductive reasoning to generate canonical form terms.¹

Abducible Predicates A . In this work, the design of abducible predicates is not a focus. We simply introduce an auxiliary predicate to only allow abducing terms derivable from $\langle \text{mul} \rangle$ and $\langle \text{div} \rangle$. Since we consider linear combinations of expression terms, this does not compromise the expressiveness.

Integrity Constraints IC . Integrity constraints enable us to declaratively state various constraints on the structure of expression terms. Table 1 presents several examples of such constraints: the upper section lists general-purpose constraints, while the lower section includes domain-specific ones. The logical symbols are used as follows: ‘ \leftarrow ’ denotes implication (with the left-hand side `False` omitted), ‘ \wedge ’ represents conjunction, and ‘ \succ ’ indicates symbolic order, which is a built-in predicate in most logic programming languages. C1 and C2 in Table 1 state that an addition or multiplication sequence is invalid if the former of two adjacent subterms is symbolically greater than the latter. C3 ensures that the two operands of a subtraction do not intersect. C4 and C5 respectively constrain the power of u and the derivative order with respect to x in a term. C6 is pertinent to the continuity equation. Specifically, in our experiment on the Navier-Stokes equation, knowing that 2D incompressible flow satisfies the continuity equation ($-\partial_x u = \partial_y v$) allows us to eliminate terms involving partial derivatives of v with respect to y , since these terms can be systematically replaced by partial derivatives of u with respect to x (e.g., $v_y = -u_x$, $v_{yy} = -u_{xy}$). Please note that only the general-purpose constraints are included in KB to ensure a fair comparison with other methods.

4.3 Consistency Optimization

In this part, we first introduce the consistency measure and then present MSS and FEMTrain.

Consistency Measure. Given the operator number limit L and the dataset D , the consistency measure $\text{Con}_{L,D}(\text{NN}_\theta, \text{KB})$ of a neural network NN_θ and a knowledge base KB is defined as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 & - \left(\min_{\xi, F} \text{Res}(\text{NN}_\theta, \xi, F) + \lambda \cdot \text{MSE}(\text{NN}_\theta, D) \right) \\
 & \text{s.t. } F \subset \bigcup_{O=1}^L \Delta_{\text{KB}, O},
 \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

where θ denotes the neural network parameters, ξ is the coefficient vector as in Eq. (1), F is a set of terms obtained from the abductive reasoning on KB for each operator number $O \leq L$, and λ is a hyperparameter utilized to balance Res and MSE.

¹Please refer to Appendix B for a pedagogical example illustrating the program and the abduction process.

Let $F = \{f^{(i)}(u, \mathbf{x})\}_{i=1}^{N_F}$, the physics-informed residual is defined as:²

$$\text{Res}(\text{NN}_\theta, \boldsymbol{\xi}, F) = \left\| \partial_t \text{NN}_\theta(t, \mathbf{x}) - \sum_{i=1}^{N_F} \xi_i \cdot f^{(i)}(\text{NN}_\theta(t, \mathbf{x}), \mathbf{x}) \right\|_2. \quad (3)$$

Let $D = \{(t_i, \mathbf{x}_i, \hat{u}(t_i, \mathbf{x}_i))\}_{i=1}^m$ as in Section 3.1, the mean square error is defined as:

$$\text{MSE}(\text{NN}_\theta, D) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (\text{NN}_\theta(t_i, \mathbf{x}_i) - \hat{u}(t_i, \mathbf{x}_i))^2. \quad (4)$$

The minimal residual in Eq. (2) decreases monotonically as the size of F increases. Thus, directly maximizing the consistency measure will lead to a trivial solution where $F = \bigcup \Delta_{\text{KB}, O}$. Since the number of nonzero terms cannot be determined in advance, selecting an upper bound of $|F|$ is insufficient to balance sparsity and consistency. Thus we introduce *margin* and *k-level margin*.

Definition 4 (Margin). Let H be a set of expression terms, and $F \subseteq H$. The *margin* of F with respect to H is defined as:

$$\text{Margin}_H(F) = \frac{\|\text{Res}^*(\text{NN}_\theta, F)\|_2 - \|\text{Res}^*(\text{NN}_\theta, H)\|_2}{\|\text{Res}^*(\text{NN}_\theta, H)\|_2}, \quad (5)$$

where $\text{Res}^*(\text{NN}_\theta, \cdot)$ is the minimal residual in Eq. (2) with respect to $\boldsymbol{\xi}$.

Definition 5 (k-Level Margin). Let H be a set of expression terms, k a positive integer, and $|\cdot|$ denote set cardinality. The *k-level margin* of H is defined as

$$\text{LevelMargin}_H(k) = \min_{F' \subseteq H, |F'|=k} \text{Margin}_H(F'). \quad (6)$$

Intuitively, the margin of a subset F quantifies how self-sufficient it is in approximating the dynamics $\partial_t \text{NN}_\theta$. A smaller margin suggests that the terms within F are sufficient, while the terms outside it are negligible. Accordingly, the *k-level margin* measures the sufficiency of the best possible k -term model, indicating whether a parsimonious, k -term equation can accurately represent the system. As shown in Section 5, the level margin decreases monotonically as k increases, which enables us to adaptively control the expression term number by applying a margin threshold.

Monotone Subset Selection. Under a given margin threshold, evaluating the consistency measure $\text{Con}_{L, D}(\text{NN}_\theta, \text{KB})$ with respect to the neural network parameters θ is time-consuming, as the complexity of the residual minimization subproblem in Eq. (2) is no less than that of the sparse regression under a cardinality constraint, which is generally NP-hard [20]. To reduce computational costs, we propose Monotone Subset Selection (MSS), a two-stage algorithm featuring an initial stage of rapid, large-scale coarse selection succeeded by a precise, small-scale refined search.

Algorithm 1 presents the details of MSS. In the first stage (cf. Line 2-3), MSS evaluates expression terms in the library and calls

Algorithm 1 MSS

Input: Neural network NN , Term library termLib , Initial sparsity initSp , Margin threshold magThd

Output: Minimal residual set under magThd -margin minSet

```

1: Initialization:  $\text{minSet} \leftarrow \emptyset$ 
2:  $\text{libVal} \leftarrow \text{Eval}(\text{NN}, \text{termLib})$ 
3:  $\text{subLib} \leftarrow \text{POSS}(\text{libVal}, \text{termLib}, \text{initSp})$ 
4:  $\text{left} \leftarrow 1, \text{right} \leftarrow |\text{subLib}|$ 
5: while  $\text{left} \leq \text{right}$  do
6:    $\text{mid} \leftarrow \lfloor (\text{left} + \text{right}) / 2 \rfloor$ 
7:    $\text{tmpMinSet}, \text{levMag} \leftarrow \text{Enum}(\text{subLib}, \text{mid})$ 
8:   if  $\text{levMag} < \text{magThd}$  then
9:      $\text{minSet} \leftarrow \text{tmpMinSet}, \text{right} \leftarrow \text{mid} - 1$ 
10:  else
11:     $\text{left} \leftarrow \text{mid} + 1$ 

```

Pareto Optimization for Subset Selection (POSS) [21] to find a reduced term library subLib whose size should be no greater than the initial sparsity. POSS is a non-deterministic subset selection algorithm designed to minimize the residual in Eq. (2) under a cardinality constraint. In expectation, it is guaranteed to find a reasonably good solution within a polynomial number of queries to the objective function. This property makes it well-suited for the first stage, which focuses on rapidly identifying relevant terms rather than performing costly residual minimization. More details about

²Since the underlying PDE is expected to hold at every point within the domain, we are free to select the set of points for calculating the residual, which has been omitted for brevity.

POSS are provided in Appendix C. In the second stage (cf. Line 4-11), MSS employs binary search to identify the smallest subset size for which the level margin falls below the given threshold. Each time, it enumerates the subset of size `mid` to identify the one with the minimal residual and calculates the level margin, which is tractable within the reduced library size.

Finite Element Method-based Training. Once the set of active expression terms F in Eq. (2) is identified via MSS for a given neural network parameters θ , the next step of consistency optimization is to jointly optimize the network parameters θ and coefficient vector ξ to maximize the consistency measure. A standard approach for this sub-problem is to adopt the Physics-Informed Neural Networks (PINN) paradigm [22]. However, the efficacy of the PINN approach is often hindered by its sensitivity to hyperparameters, such as the loss weighting term λ in Eq. (2) [13]. To enhance the stability of model training and coefficient estimation, we move beyond pointwise collocation and instead enforce the physics-informed residual in a weighted-average sense across the domain. This is achieved through a *Galerkin projection* [24] of the residual from Eq. (3) onto the space spanned by Finite Element Method (FEM) basis functions, leading to the following objective function:

$$\|M(\partial_t \text{NN}_\theta(t, \mathbf{x}) - \sum_{i=1}^{N_F} \xi_i \cdot f^{(i)}(\text{NN}_\theta(t, \mathbf{x}), \mathbf{x}))\|_2, \quad (7)$$

where M is the mass matrix constructed from the inner product of FEM basis functions. Please refer to Appendix D for detailed definitions and derivations. The overall consistency optimization process alternates between MSS and FEMTrain until the set F stabilizes and the coefficients ξ converge.

5 Theoretical Analysis

In this section, we first demonstrate that our logic-based knowledge base, KB, retains full expressive power, and then establish the soundness of MSS. Proofs are available in Appendix E.

We denote the abduction result of KB for a given operator number i as H_i . Thus, the set of all possible abduction results is given by $H = \bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} H_i$. Besides, we refer to the set of all expression terms as S .

Definition 6 (Subsume). A finite set of expression terms F is said to *subsume* an expression term s if there exists an expression term s' such that:

- s' can be derived from s through a finite sequence of algebraic operations and differentiation.
- s' can be symbolically expressed as a linear combination of expression terms in F , i.e., $s' = \sum_{f \in F} \alpha_f \cdot f$, where α_f are scalars.

As shown in Example 1, $\{\partial_x u \times v, u \times \partial_x v\}$ subsumes $\partial_x(u \times v)$.

Theorem 1. For every $s \in S$, there exists a finite subset $H' \subset H$ such that H' subsumes s .

According to the PDE formulation in Eq. (1), it suffices to consider the expressiveness of a candidate term library up to a linear combination. Theorem 1 states that every expression term in S has a mathematically equivalent form that is a linear combination of elements from H , which directly implies that the expressive power of KB is equivalent to that of the full expression term space S .

The soundness of MSS depends on the criterion utilized in its binary search, whose validity is ensured by the following monotonicity theorem.

Theorem 2. For an expression term set F and integers $1 \leq k_1 < k_2 \leq |F|$, it holds that:

$$\text{LevelMargin}_F(k_1) \geq \text{LevelMargin}_F(k_2).$$

6 Experiments

In this section, we present empirical studies to answer the following questions:

1. How does ABL-PDE perform against contenders in PDE discovery?
2. How robust is ABL-PDE against hyperparameter selection?
3. How does each component of ABL-PDE contribute to its performance?

Table 2: PDE discovery comparison results. The evaluation metric is the sum of L2RE (%) on all coefficients. Number with a dagger (†) indicates the discovered equation has redundant terms. Results of ABL-PDE (w/o FEM) and ABL-PDE are the mean and standard deviation of 5 experiments with different λ that used to balance the two sub-metrics in Eq. (2). We **bold** the best results in each task.

Method	Burgers' Equation			Schrödinger Equation			Navier-Stokes Equation		
	0	5%	10%	0	5%	10%	0	5%	10%
PDERidge	22.68	23.86	24.54	10.34	10.26	9.99	17.13	16.58	40.92
DL-PDE++	22.68	23.86	24.54	10.34	10.26	9.99	57.25†	37.96†	98.52†
ABL-PDE (w/o CO)	22.68	23.86	24.54	42.16†	44.67†	48.76†	17.13	17.99	40.92
ABL-PDE (w/o FEM)	13.69 ± 2.81	14.65 ± 2.67	15.04 ± 3.87	3.05 ± 0.94	3.27 ± 1.09	2.87 ± 1.07	30.88 ± 5.24	26.47 ± 5.00	34.28 ± 7.50
ABL-PDE	2.18 ± 1.06	2.79 ± 0.13	4.12 ± 0.34	1.03 ± 0.10	1.12 ± 0.06	1.08 ± 0.29	18.02 ± 0.08	15.22 ± 0.08	21.27 ± 1.72

6.1 Experimental Setup

We conduct experiments on three types of discovery tasks: (i) one-dimensional PDE: Burgers' Equation, (ii) one-dimensional PDE system: Schrödinger Equation, (iii) two-dimensional PDE system: Navier-Stokes Equation. Tasks (ii) and (iii) each involve two coupled equations. We use data from public datasets [2], incorporating 5% and 10% Gaussian noise to simulate inaccurate measurements as in [27]. We use the L_2 Relative Error (L2RE, %) as in [11] to measure the quality of coefficient estimation and physical field approximation. More details are specified in Appendix F. Code is available at: <https://github.com/AbductiveLearning/ABL-PDE>.

6.2 Compared Methods

We compare ABL-PDE with four methods: 1) **PDERidge**: We build this strong baseline by assuming a known PDE structure and applying ridge regression to estimate coefficients. This represents the best possible performance for most methods that focus on enhancing structure identification [8, 10, 16]. 2) **DL-PDE++**: DL-PDE [27] is a representative method among synchronous approaches that discussed in Section 2. We enhance it by applying a normalization trick and tuning the sparsity threshold to retain all correct terms while minimizing redundancy. 3) **ABL-PDE (w/o Con)**: It utilizes the pre-trained neural network and MSS algorithm to discover PDE, without the subsequent consistency optimization. 4) **ABL-PDE (w/o FEM)**: It employs the residual in Eq. (3) instead of the FEM residual in Eq. (7) during the consistency optimization. To ensure a fair comparison, we use the same pre-trained neural network as in ABL-PDE to compute derivatives for the first two methods.

6.3 PDE Discovery Comparison

In this part, we seek to answer the first two questions. Table 2 presents the results of structure identification and coefficient estimation. Number with a dagger (†) indicates the discovered equation has redundant terms (See Appendix G.1 for the specific form). The performance of DL-PDE++ and ABL-PDE (w/o CO) is equivalent to PDERidge when the discovered structure matches the ground truth, due to their shared neural network for derivative computation. As shown in the table, ABL-PDE correctly identified the PDE structure across all three tasks under varying noise levels, achieving the best coefficient estimation in 8 out of 9 cases and ranking second only to the structure-known baseline, PDERidge, in the remaining one case. Notably, this performance was achieved utilizing the *same* initial sparsity of 10 and the *same* margin threshold of 0.05 for all three tasks. ABL-PDE has only one remaining hyperparameter, which will be discussed in Section 6.4. In our experiments, despite the simple structure of Burgers' equation, it remains challenging for coefficient estimation. The inferior performance of compared methods is primarily attributed to the formation of sharp shock waves in the solution, which can only be captured by an extremely dense mesh that is impractical in most real-world applications. ABL-PDE effectively mitigates this issue via consistency optimization, which utilizes the discovered physical information, even if it is initially incorrect, to improve the derivative estimation, leading to a 5x to 10x reduction in L2RE.

Beyond its robustness to noise, ABL-PDE is also resilient to hyperparameter selection. As shown in Table 2, the discovered equation of ABL-PDE (w/o CO) contains redundant terms in several tasks. This redundancy stems from the misalignment between the margin threshold and the data. Nevertheless, ABL-PDE finally eliminates these terms via consistency optimization. A by-product of our method is the improvement in the neural network's generalizability. Figure 3 presents the L2RE

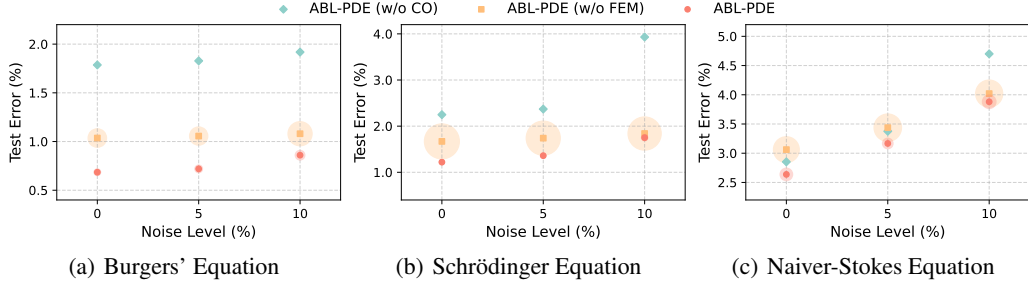


Figure 3: Test error comparison results. The evaluation metric is the sum of L2RE on each component of the predicted physical field. Results of ABL-PDE (w/o FEM) and ABL-PDE show the mean and standard deviation of 5 experiments under different λ used in Eq. (2). The area of the shadowed circle represents the magnitude of the standard deviation. Detailed results are provided in Appendix G.2.

of model prediction on the noise-free test data. Compared with the best performance achievable by supervised training alone (cf. ABL-PDE (w/o CO)), ABL-PDE consistently outperforms it across all tasks. Initially, the neural network performs suboptimally, and the candidate term library is too expansive. Consistency optimization progressively clarifies the ambiguity within the library, leading to a refined equation that, in turn, provides physical insights to improve neural network.

In addition to our main experiments, we benchmark our method against another three representative approaches: D-CIPHER [16], SPL [25], and SGA-PDE [8]. However, limitations in these methods prevent a direct comparison on our primary benchmarks. Neither D-CIPHER nor SGA-PDE are designed for coupled PDE systems, and SPL’s methodology is tailored to discovering algebraic equations and ODEs. Therefore, to ensure fair comparisons, we evaluate our method on the original benchmarks used in these respective studies. Since the experimental setups for these comparisons differ from those of our primary benchmarks, we present the results in Appendix G.4-G.6. These experiments serve to further validate the effectiveness and versatility of our approach.

6.4 Ablation Study

Influence of FEMTrain. We investigate the effect of FEMTrain by comparing the performance of our method with and without the utilization of FEM residual. Selecting a hyperparameter, e.g., λ in Eq. (2), to balance the physical information and the supervision signal has long been an existing issue with physics-informed machine learning [13]. Therefore, we conduct five experiments for each task with hyperparameters: $[0.5\lambda, 0.75\lambda, \lambda, 1.25\lambda, 1.5\lambda]$. The mean and standard deviation of coefficient errors are presented in Table 2, and the results of test errors are visualized in Figure 3. In addition to the superior performance of ABL-PDE in coefficient estimation and test error, its stability to hyperparameter variations is particularly noteworthy. We use the area of the shadowed circle to reflect the magnitude of the standard deviation. This enhanced stability is crucial for scientific discovery, as finding an effective hyperparameter is much easier than finding the optimal one.

To further probe the stability of our method, we perform a rigorous, large-scale hyperparameter sensitivity study under 10% noise conditions. Specifically, we vary the loss weight λ by multiplicative factors of 0.1, 1, and 10, while testing margin thresholds of 0.01, 0.05, and 0.1. The comprehensive results and a discussion guiding hyperparameter selection are presented in Appendix G.7.

Influence of KB. We use the one-dimensional PDE with a single dependent variable as a showcase to demonstrate the effectiveness of KB in constraining the search space. Figure 4 illustrates the logarithmic growth curve of the candidate term number as the operator number limit increases. Compared to the full space of expression terms, the proposed canonical form reduces the problem size to a computationally feasible scale. Nevertheless, KB still demonstrates a reduction by a constant factor in the exponent, making it tractable for POSS. As terms with 10 operators can construct highly complex equations, our method can be applied to most scenarios.

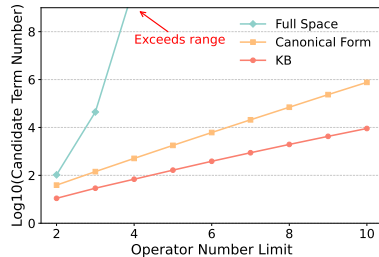


Figure 4: Logarithmic growth curve of the candidate term number as the operator number limit increases.

7 Conclusion

In this paper, we propose a novel PDE discovery method based on the abductive learning framework, aiming at leveraging the logic-based knowledge base and the neural network in a reciprocal way. Specifically, we introduce the ABductive Learning for PDE discovery (ABL-PDE) approach, which alternatively refines the knowledge base by utilizing a neural network to access data and enhances the neural network’s performance by integrating the physical information provided by the knowledge base. Experimental results demonstrate the robustness of our approach in PDE structure identification, the accuracy in coefficient estimation, and the stability against hyperparameter variations. Furthermore, ABL-PDE is a general-purpose approach with sufficient flexibility in implementation, e.g., the neural network can adopt any advanced architecture, and the knowledge base can incorporate domain-specific information by declaring new integrity constraints. The limitation of ABL-PDE lies in its restriction to learning linear combination coefficients, which prevents it from handling unknown parameters within nonlinear terms. In future work, we will try to construct a parameterized candidate term library and incorporate advanced techniques for joint parameter optimization.

8 Acknowledgements

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- Please refer to our LLM policy (<https://neurips.cc/Conferences/2025/LLM>) for what should or should not be described.

A Detailed Explanation of the Canonical Form

The canonical form of expression terms is defined by the BNF grammar presented in Definition 3. This grammar uses standard notation: $\langle \cdot \rangle$ for nonterminal symbols, $::=$ for production rules (indicating that the nonterminal on the left can be replaced by the expression on the right), and $|$ signifies alternation between possible forms. The notation used here is consistent with that in Definition 1. In this grammar, nonterminal symbols define the valid structure for terms corresponding to specific operators or types: $\langle \text{cfterm} \rangle$ for any canonical form term, $\langle \text{div} \rangle$ for division ($/$), $\langle \text{mul} \rangle$ for multiplication (\times), $\langle \text{add} \rangle$ for addition ($+$), $\langle \text{sub} \rangle$ for subtraction ($-$), $\langle \text{par} \rangle$ for partial differentiation (∂), $\langle \text{unit} \rangle$ for base multiplicative/derivative units, and $\langle \text{var} \rangle$, $\langle \text{dpv} \rangle$, $\langle \text{idpv} \rangle$ represent variables.

The production rules in Definition 3 define the set of expression terms that are in canonical form by imposing syntactic constraints on their structure. We explain the meaning of these rules as follows:

- The top-level rule, $\langle \text{cfterm} \rangle ::= \langle \text{div} \rangle | \langle \text{mul} \rangle | \langle \text{add} \rangle | \langle \text{sub} \rangle | \langle \text{unit} \rangle$, specifies that any expression in canonical form must be derivable from one of these five main nonterminals or be a base unit.
- The rule for division, $\langle \text{div} \rangle ::= \langle \text{mul} \rangle / \langle \text{add} \rangle | \langle \text{mul} \rangle / \langle \text{sub} \rangle$, defines the valid structure for division terms ($/$). It requires the numerator to be a term derivable from $\langle \text{mul} \rangle$ and the denominator to be a term derivable from either $\langle \text{add} \rangle$ or $\langle \text{sub} \rangle$. For example, a term corresponding to $(u + v)/(u - v)$ would be considered invalid under this rule because its numerator, $(u + v)$, is derivable from $\langle \text{add} \rangle$, not $\langle \text{mul} \rangle$.
- The recursive rule for multiplication, $\langle \text{mul} \rangle ::= \langle \text{unit} \rangle \times \langle \text{mul} \rangle | \langle \text{unit} \rangle$, defines the structure of multiplication terms (\times). The base case is any term derivable from $\langle \text{unit} \rangle$. The recursive step requires a term derivable from $\langle \text{unit} \rangle$ on the left of “ \times ” and a term derivable from $\langle \text{mul} \rangle$ on the right. This imposes a specific structure on multiplication chains; for instance, a product of three terms like $u \times v \times w$ can only be derived in the form $\langle \text{unit} \rangle \times \langle \text{mul} \rangle$, where the second term derivable from $\langle \text{mul} \rangle$ is $v \times w$. This enforces the structure $u \times (v \times w)$, preventing syntactically distinct but equivalent forms like $(u \times v) \times w$.
- The recursive rule for addition, $\langle \text{add} \rangle ::= \langle \text{mul} \rangle + \langle \text{add} \rangle | \langle \text{mul} \rangle$, similarly defines the structure of addition terms ($+$). It allows a base case of a term derivable from $\langle \text{mul} \rangle$, and a recursive step $\langle \text{mul} \rangle + \langle \text{add} \rangle$. This ensures a specific structure for addition chains; for example, an expression like $t + u \times v + w$ (where $u \times v$ is derivable from $\langle \text{mul} \rangle$) can only be derived as $\langle \text{mul} \rangle + \langle \text{add} \rangle$, where the first term derivable from $\langle \text{mul} \rangle$ is t and the term derivable from $\langle \text{add} \rangle$ is $u \times v + w$. This enforces the structure $t + (u \times v + w)$, preventing forms like $(t + u \times v) + w$.
- The rule for subtraction, $\langle \text{sub} \rangle ::= \langle \text{add} \rangle - \langle \text{add} \rangle$, defines subtraction terms ($-$), requiring both the left and right operands to be derivable from $\langle \text{add} \rangle$. This enforces a specific structure; for example, $u + v - w$ (where $u + v$ and w are derivable from $\langle \text{add} \rangle$) can only be derived as $(u + v) - w$, not $u - (w - v)$.
- The rule $\langle \text{unit} \rangle ::= \langle \text{dpv} \rangle | \langle \text{idpv} \rangle | \langle \text{par} \rangle$ defines terms derivable from $\langle \text{unit} \rangle$. These are referred to as unit expressions and serve as the base elements for multiplication and differentiation arguments.
- The rule for partial differentiation, $\langle \text{par} \rangle ::= \partial_{\langle \text{idpv} \rangle} \langle \text{dpv} \rangle | \partial_{\langle \text{idpv} \rangle} \langle \text{par} \rangle$, defines partial derivative terms (∂). It requires the derivative operator to be applied to a term derivable from either $\langle \text{dpv} \rangle$ or $\langle \text{par} \rangle$, and differentiation is always with respect to a term derivable from $\langle \text{idpv} \rangle$ (an independent variable). This imposes strong constraints, for instance, forbidding derivatives of products or sums as single terms, such as $\partial_x(u \times v)$, which would be invalid because $u \times v$ is neither derivable from $\langle \text{dpv} \rangle$ nor $\langle \text{par} \rangle$.

B A Pedagogical Example of Logic-based Knowledge Base

We provide a pedagogical example to elucidate the logic-based knowledge base and the abduction process discussed in the main text. As a pedagogical example, this knowledge base considers three basic operators ($+$, $-$, $/$), and the full implementation (`reasoning/expr.pl`) is provided in the code of the supplementary material. By querying `?- write_to_file.` in SWI-Prolog, we can generate all expression terms with up to a given number of operators (2 in this code). Abduced expressions are

all in the form similar to $\text{mul}(u, \text{mul}(v, v))$. A single integrity constraint is employed to ensure that multiplication expressions are in a canonical order, illustrating how various human knowledge can be declaratively stated through such constraints. The declarative nature simplifies the task by allowing the user to specify desired properties directly, with the generation of constraint-satisfying expressions entirely managed by the Prolog prover. The implementation of this simplified knowledge base and abduction process is detailed in the following Prolog code.

```

%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
% Background Knowledge
%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%

% Declare the dependent variables
dep_var([u, v]).

% Rule for fraction expressions: (X/Y)
% Cur_num: Counter for the number of operations used so far
% Op_limit: Maximum operations allowed
fraction_expr(frac(X, Y), Cur_num, Op_limit) -->
    ['('],
    multiplication_expr(X, Cur_num1, Op_limit - 1), % Parse
        numerator (X)
    ['/'],
    addition_expr(Y, Cur_num2, Op_limit - Cur_num1 - 1), %
        Parse denominator (Y)
    {Cur_num is Cur_num1 + Cur_num2 + 1}, % Calculate total
        operations used (adding 1 for fraction)
    [')'].

% Rule for multiplication expressions: (X*Y)
% First clause handles actual multiplication
multiplication_expr(mul(X, Y), Cur_num, Op_limit) -->
    ['('],
    unit_expr(X, Cur_num1, Op_limit - 1), % Parse first operand
        (X)
    [*],
    multiplication_expr(Y, Cur_num2, Op_limit - Cur_num1 - 1),
        % Parse second operand (Y)
    {Cur_num is Cur_num1 + Cur_num2 + 1},
    {\+constraint(mul(X, Y))}, % Check that this multiplication
        doesn't violate integrity constraints
    [')'].

% Second clause for multiplication_expr
% This is how the recursion terminates
multiplication_expr(X, Cur_num, Op_limit) -->
    {0 =< Op_limit},
    unit_expr(X, Cur_num, Op_limit).

% Rule for addition expressions: (X+Y)
addition_expr(add(X, Y), Cur_num, Op_limit) -->
    ['('],
    multiplication_expr(X, Cur_num1, Op_limit - 1), % Parse
        first operand (X)
    [+],
    addition_expr(Y, Cur_num2, Op_limit - Cur_num1 - 1), %
        Parse second operand (Y)
    [')'],
    {Cur_num is Cur_num1 + Cur_num2 + 1}.

% Second clause for addition_expr
% This is how the recursion terminates
addition_expr(X, Cur_num, Op_limit) -->

```

```

multiplication_expr(X, Cur_num, Op_limit).

% Rule for basic units
% This is a terminal rule that matches a single variable from
  the dependent variable list
unit_expr(X, Cur_num, Op_limit) -->
{
    Cur_num is 0,
    Cur_num =< Op_limit,
    dep_var(DepVarList), member(X, DepVarList) % X must be
      one of the dependent variables
},
[X].

%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
% Abducible Predicates
%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
% Decide which terms can be utilized to explain the
  observation, i.e., which values of X can satisfy
expression_term(X, Op_limit)
expression_term(X, Op_limit) --> fraction_expr(X, _, Op_limit).
expression_term(X, Op_limit) --> multiplication_expr(X, _,
  Op_limit).

%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
% Integrity Constraints
%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
% Constraint to enforce a canonical ordering of multiplication
  terms
% This prevents generating both (a*b) and (b*a) which are
  mathematically equivalent
constraint(mul(X, Y)) :- extract_first_mul_term(Y, FirstTerm),
  X @> FirstTerm.

% Helper predicate to extract the first term in a
  multiplication chain
% For mul(a, mul(b, c)), it returns 'a'
% For a simple term like 'u', it returns 'u'
extract_first_mul_term(Term, FirstTerm) :-
  ( functor(Term, mul, 2) % Check if Term is a
    multiplication
  -> arg(1, Term, FirstTerm) % If yes, extract first argument
  ; FirstTerm = Term % If not, the term itself is the first
    term
  ).

% Utility predicate to write all generated expressions to a file
write_to_file :-
  open('out.txt', write, Stream),
  findall([X, Y], phrase(expression_term(X, 2), Y), L), %
    Generate all expressions with max 2 operators
  forall(member([X, Y], L),
    (write(Stream, X), nl(Stream),
      write(Stream, Y), nl(Stream))),
  close(Stream).

```

C A Brief Introduction to POSS

POSS leverages Pareto Optimization to solve the following subset selection problem:

Algorithm 2 POSS

Input: all variables $V = \{X_1, \dots, X_n\}$, a given criterion f and an integer parameter $k \in [1, n]$

Parameter: the number of iterations T and an isolation function $I : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

Output: a subset of V with at most k variables

1: Let $s = \{0\}^n$ and $P = \{s\}$.

2: Let $t = 0$.

3: **while** $t < T$ **do**

4: Select s from P uniformly at random.

5: Generate s' from s by flipping each bit of s with probability $1/n$.

6: **if** $\nexists z \in P$ such that $I(z) = I(s')$ and

$$(z.o_1 < s'.o_1 \wedge z.o_2 \leq s'.o_2) \text{ or } (z.o_1 \leq s'.o_1 \wedge z.o_2 < s'.o_2)$$

then

7: $Q = \{z \in P \mid I(z) = I(s') \wedge s'.o_1 \leq z.o_1 \wedge s'.o_2 \leq z.o_2\}$.

8: $P = (P \setminus Q) \cup \{s'\}$.

9: $t = t + 1$.

10: **Return** $\arg \min_{s \in P, |s| \leq k} f(s)$

Definition 7 (Sparse Regression). Given all observation variables $V = \{X_1, \dots, X_n\}$, a predictor variable Z and a positive integer k , define the mean squared error of a subset $F \subseteq V$ as

$$MSE_{Z,F} = \min_{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^{|F|}} \mathbb{E} \left[\left(Z - \sum_{i \in F} \alpha_i X_i \right)^2 \right].$$

Sparse regression is to find a set of at most k variables minimizing the mean squared error, i.e.,

$$\arg \min_{F \subseteq V} MSE_{Z,F} \quad \text{s.t.} \quad |F| \leq k.$$

We use it to roughly select the subset that contains possible relevant terms. The following is the pseudo-code of POSS:

In Algorithm 2, o_1 represents residual and o_2 represents the subset size. $I : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ determines if two solutions are allowed to be compared: they are comparable only if they have the same isolation function value.

D More Details on FEMTrain

D.1 A Brief Introduction to FEM

Finite Element Method (FEM) is a well-established numerical method that provides a systematic framework for approximating solutions to PDEs.

We use a scalar field u with one spatial dimension, $[0, L]$, as a showcase to explain the process of using FEM to solve the following type PDE:

$$\partial_t u = f(u, x, \partial_x u, \partial_x^2 u, \dots). \quad (8)$$

The first step to apply FEM is to discretize the spatial domain into smaller, finite subdomains called elements. Given an ordered set of points $X = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ with $x_1 = 0$ and $x_n = L$, they split the domain into $n - 1$ elements: $[x_1, x_2], \dots, [x_{n-1}, x_n]$. The second step is to construct a set of basis functions $\{\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n\}$ to approximate the solution u . ϕ_i is defined as follows:

$$\phi_i(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } x < x_{i-1} \text{ or } x > x_{i+1}, \\ \frac{x-x_{i-1}}{x_i-x_{i-1}}, & \text{if } x_{i-1} \leq x < x_i, \\ \frac{x_{i+1}-x}{x_{i+1}-x_i}, & \text{if } x_i \leq x \leq x_{i+1}. \end{cases}$$

The solution u is then approximated by \tilde{u} defined as:

$$\tilde{u}(t, x) = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i(t) \phi_i(x), \quad (9)$$

where $\alpha_i(t) = u(t, x_i)$. The third step is to transform Eq. (8) into *weak formulation* by multiplying both sides with each basis function and integrating over the domain:

$$\int_0^L \partial_t u \cdot \phi_i dx = \int_0^L f(u, x, \dots) \cdot \phi_i dx. \quad (10)$$

Substitute Eq. (9) into Eq. (10), we get a linear system:

$$\mathbf{M} \frac{d}{dt} \boldsymbol{\alpha}(t) = \mathbf{F}(t), \quad (11)$$

where $M_{ij} = \int_0^L \phi_i \cdot \phi_j dx$ is the so-called mass matrix in finite element analysis, $\boldsymbol{\alpha}(t)$ is the vector of coefficients in Eq. (9), and $F_i(t) = \int_0^L f(\tilde{u}, x, \dots) \cdot \phi_i dx$. Eq. (11) is an Ordinary Differential Equation (ODE) system of $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$. Therefore, given the initial state, we can calculate \mathbf{F} and forward $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ iteratively, thus forecasting \tilde{u} at any time.

D.2 FEM-based Residual

Firstly, we discretize the spatial domain Ω into a set of cubic elements $\mathcal{T} = \{\Omega_i \subset \mathbb{R}^d\}_{i=1}^{N_\Omega}$. Let $X = \{\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^d\}_{i=1}^N$ denote their vertices, and $\Phi = \{\phi_i : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}\}_{i=1}^N$ for the corresponding basis functions. Secondly, we use Φ to approximate $\partial_t u(t, \mathbf{x}) \triangleq f^{(0)}(u(t, \mathbf{x}), \mathbf{x})$ and expression terms $\{f^{(i)}(u(t, \mathbf{x}), \mathbf{x})\}_{i=1}^{N_F}$ identified by MSS as follows:

$$\tilde{f}^{(i)}(u(t, \mathbf{x}), \mathbf{x}) = \sum_{j=1}^N \alpha_j^{(i)}(t) \phi_j(\mathbf{x}), i = 0, 1, \dots, N_F, \quad (12)$$

where $\alpha_j^{(i)}(t) = f^{(i)}(u(t, \mathbf{x}_j), \mathbf{x}_j)$, which can be evaluated through the pre-trained neural network. Thirdly, we transform $f^{(0)} = \sum_{i=1}^{N_F} \xi_i \cdot f^{(i)}$ into the weak formulation:

$$\langle f^{(0)}, \phi_j \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{N_F} \xi_i \cdot \langle f^{(i)}, \phi_j \rangle, j = 1, 2, \dots, N, \quad (13)$$

where ξ_i is the coefficient as introduced in Eq. (1), and $\langle u, v \rangle = \int_\Omega u \cdot v dx$. Substituting (12) into (13) at a given time point t (omitted for brevity) yields the linear system:

$$\mathbf{M} \boldsymbol{\alpha}^{(0)} = \mathbf{M} \mathbf{A} \boldsymbol{\xi}, \quad (14)$$

where $M_{ij} = \langle \phi_i, \phi_j \rangle$, $\boldsymbol{\alpha}^{(i)} = (\alpha_0^{(i)}, \alpha_1^{(i)}, \dots, \alpha_N^{(i)})^T$, $\mathbf{A} = [\boldsymbol{\alpha}^{(1)} \boldsymbol{\alpha}^{(2)} \dots \boldsymbol{\alpha}^{(N_F)}]$, and $\boldsymbol{\xi} = (\xi_0, \xi_1, \dots, \xi_{N_F})^T$. Since $\{\boldsymbol{\alpha}^{(i)}\}_{i=0}^{N_F}$ are outputs of the neural networks, the following FEM-based residual can be utilized to optimize neural network parameters θ and PDE coefficients $\boldsymbol{\xi}$:

$$\|\mathbf{M}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}^{(0)} - \mathbf{A}\boldsymbol{\xi})\|_2 \quad (15)$$

Replacing $\text{Res}(\text{NN}_\theta, \boldsymbol{\xi}, F)$ in Eq. (2) with this residual gives the loss function utilized in FEMTrain.

E Proofs

E.1 Theorem 1

Lemma 1. Let e_1 and e_2 be two expressions generated by $\langle \text{sub} \rangle$. Then, $e_1 \times e_2$ can be rewritten as an expression generated by $\langle \text{sub} \rangle$.

Proof. According to Definition 3, e_1 can be expressed as $a - b$, e_2 can be expressed as $c - d$, where a, b, c, d are expressions generated by $\langle \text{add} \rangle$, $\langle \text{mul} \rangle$, $\langle \text{par} \rangle$, $\langle \text{dep} \rangle$, or $\langle \text{indep} \rangle$. Without loss of generality, we only need to consider the $\langle \text{add} \rangle$ case, as all other cases are simply degenerate forms of this one. Since $(a - b) \times (c - d) = (ac + bd) - (bc + ad)$, we only need to prove $ac + bd$ and $bc + ad$ can be rewritten as expressions generated by $\langle \text{add} \rangle$. Since a and c are summations of multiplication or unit expressions, it's obvious that we can rewrite ac as an expression generated by $\langle \text{add} \rangle$ according to basic algebraic laws, so as bd, bc , and ad . Therefore, $(ac + bd) - (bc + ad)$ is a subtraction between two expressions generated by $\langle \text{add} \rangle$, which can be rewritten as an expression generated by $\langle \text{sub} \rangle$. □

Lemma 2. *Let e_1 and e_2 be two expressions generated by $\langle \text{div} \rangle$. Then, $e_1 \times e_2$ can be rewritten as an expression generated by $\langle \text{div} \rangle$.*

Proof. Without loss of generality, we assume $e_1 = \frac{a}{b-c}$, $e_2 = \frac{d}{e-f}$, where a and d are expressions generated by $\langle \text{mul} \rangle$; b, c, e , and f are expressions generated by $\langle \text{add} \rangle$. According to Lemma 1, the denominator of $e_1 \times e_2$ can be written as an expression generated by $\langle \text{sub} \rangle$. The numerator of $e_1 \times e_2$ can be rewritten as an expression generated by $\langle \text{mul} \rangle$, thus $e_1 \times e_2$ can be rewritten as an expression generated by $\langle \text{div} \rangle$. □

Lemma 3. *Let e_1 and e_2 be two expressions generated by $\langle \text{div} \rangle$. Then, the numerator and denominator of $e_1 \text{ op } e_2$, where $\text{op} \in \{+, -, /\}$ can all be rewritten as expressions generated by $\langle \text{sub} \rangle$.*

Proof. Without loss of generality, we assume $e_1 = \frac{a}{b-c}$, $e_2 = \frac{d}{e-f}$, where a and d are expressions generated by $\langle \text{mul} \rangle$; b, c, e , and f are expressions generated by $\langle \text{add} \rangle$. We prove the “+” case and others are similar. Since $e_1 + e_2 = \frac{a(e-f)+d(b-c)}{(b-c)(e-f)}$, according to Lemma 1, $a(e-f) + d(b-c)$ and $(b-c)(e-f)$ are all expressions generated by $\langle \text{sub} \rangle$. □

Lemma 4. *Let e be an expression generated by $\langle \text{div} \rangle$. Then, $\frac{\partial e}{\partial x}$ can be subsumed by a set $H' \subset H$, where x is an arbitrary independent variable.*

Proof. Without loss of generality, we assume $e = \frac{a}{b-c}$, where a is an expression generated by $\langle \text{mul} \rangle$; b and c are expressions generated by $\langle \text{add} \rangle$. According to differentiation rule, $\partial_x \frac{a}{b-c} = \frac{\partial_x a(b-c) - a \partial_x (b-c)}{(b-c)^2}$. According to Lemma 1, $(b-c)^2$ is an expression generated by $\langle \text{sub} \rangle$. According to the differentiation rule and basic laws of multiplication, the numerator is an expression generated by $\langle \text{sub} \rangle$. Thus, $\frac{\partial e}{\partial x}$ can be subsumed by a set $H' \subset H$. □

Proof of Theorem 1. We use structural induction to prove Theorem 1.

1. **Base Case:** For each expression term s with zero operator, there exists a term $h \in H$ such that $s = h$.
This case is obviously true.
2. **Inductive Hypothesis:** Assume that for each expression term s with no greater than n operators, there exists a subset of $H' \subset H$ such that H' subsumes s .
3. **Inductive Step:** Show that for each expression term s with $n + 1$ operators, there exists a subset of $H' \subset H$ such that H' subsumes s .

If s is an addition or subtraction, according to the inductive hypothesis, the conclusion is obviously true.

If s is a multiplication, assume $s = a \times b$, according to the inductive hypothesis, a and b can be subsumed by two sets $H_a \subset H$ and $H_b \subset H$ respectively. Without loss of generality, we assume each element of H_a and H_b are all expressions generated by $\langle \text{div} \rangle$. According to the distributive law of multiplication and Lemma 2, the conclusion holds.

If s is a division, let $s = a/b$, according to the inductive hypothesis, a and b can be subsumed by two sets $H_a \subset H$ and $H_b \subset H$ respectively. Without loss of generality, we assume each element of H_a and H_b are all expressions generated by $\langle \text{div} \rangle$. Then, we only need to prove $\frac{c+d}{e+f}$ can be subsumed by a set $H' \subset H$, where c, d, e , and f are all expressions generated by $\langle \text{div} \rangle$. Other cases are all degenerated cases. According to Lemma 3, $\frac{c+d}{e+f}$ can be rewrite as $\frac{g/h}{j/k}$, where g, h, j , and k are all expressions generated by $\langle \text{sub} \rangle$. According to Lemma 1, it's obvious that there exists a set $H' \subset H$ subsumes $\frac{gk}{jh}$.

If s is a partial derivative, let $s = \partial e$. According to the inductive hypothesis, e can be subsumed by a set $H_e \subset H$. According to the linearity of differentiation, we can assume e is a single element of H . Without loss of generality, we assume e is an expression generated by $\langle \text{div} \rangle$. According to Lemma 4, the conclusion holds.

4. **Conclusion:** By the principle of mathematical induction, Theorem 1 holds.

E.2 Proof of Theorem 2

Proof. Let F_1^* be a subset of F with cardinality k_1 that realizes the k_1 -level margin, such that $\text{LevelMargin}_F(k_1) = \text{Margin}_F(F_1^*)$.

Since $k_1 < k_2 \leq |F|$, we can construct a new set F_2' by adding $k_2 - k_1$ arbitrary terms from $F \setminus F_1^*$ to F_1^* . By construction, $F_1^* \subseteq F_2'$ and $|F_2'| = k_2$.

The minimal residual is found by solving a linear least-squares problem. The solution space for the coefficients ξ corresponding to the terms in F_1^* is a subspace of that for the terms in F_2' . Therefore, the minimal residual over the larger set F_2' cannot be greater than the minimal residual over its subset F_1^* :

$$\|\text{Res}^*(\text{NN}_\theta, F_1^*)\|_2 \geq \|\text{Res}^*(\text{NN}_\theta, F_2')\|_2.$$

From the definition of Margin (Definition 4), this directly implies that:

$$\text{Margin}_F(F_1^*) \geq \text{Margin}_F(F_2').$$

Furthermore, by the definition of k -Level Margin (Definition 5), the k_2 -level margin is the minimum margin over all subsets of size k_2 . The margin of our constructed subset F_2' must therefore be greater than or equal to this minimum:

$$\text{Margin}_F(F_2') \geq \text{LevelMargin}_F(k_2).$$

Combining these inequalities, we arrive at the desired result:

$$\text{LevelMargin}_F(k_1) = \text{Margin}_F(F_1^*) \geq \text{Margin}_F(F_2') \geq \text{LevelMargin}_F(k_2).$$

This completes the proof. □

F More Experimental Details

F.1 Equation Form

Table 3: Summary of Governing Equations

Equation	Form
Burgers' Equation	$\partial_t u = -u \partial_x u + \left(\frac{0.01}{\pi}\right) \partial_{xx} u$
Schrödinger Equation	$\begin{cases} \partial_t u = -0.5 \partial_{xx} v - v(u^2 + v^2) \\ \partial_t v = 0.5 \partial_{xx} u + u(u^2 + v^2) \end{cases}$
Navier-Stokes Equation	$\begin{cases} \partial_t u = -u \partial_x u - v \partial_y u - \partial_x p + 0.01(\partial_{xx} u + \partial_{yy} u) \\ \partial_t v = -u \partial_x v - v \partial_y v - \partial_y p + 0.01(\partial_{xx} v + \partial_{yy} v) \end{cases}$

F.2 L2 Relative Error

Definition 8 (L2 Relative Error). Let $f = [f_1, f_2, \dots, f_n]$ be a vector of true values and $\hat{f} = [\hat{f}_1, \hat{f}_2, \dots, \hat{f}_n]$ be a vector of approximations. The L2 Relative Error (L2RE) is defined as:

$$\text{L2RE} = \frac{\|f - \hat{f}\|_2}{\|f\|_2} = \frac{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n |f_i - \hat{f}_i|^2}}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n |f_i|^2}}.$$

Please note that for coefficient estimation, the L2RE is simplified as follows:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{|\xi_i - \hat{\xi}_i|}{|\xi_i|}.$$

The benefit of using this metric is that errors in large coefficients do not dominate and obscure errors in small coefficients.

F.3 Network Architecture and Training Details

Our model’s architecture is a multilayer perceptron (MLP) composed of 8 hidden layers. For the Burgers’ Equation, each layer has 20 neurons. This architecture is adapted for the Schrödinger Equation by modifying the output layer to predict two variables (the real and imaginary parts of the solution). For the more complex Navier-Stokes Equations, we increase the network’s width to 40 neurons per hidden layer.

The training data consists of 1×10^4 (40%), 2×10^4 (40%), and 2×10^5 (20%) measurement points for the Burgers’, Schrödinger, and Navier-Stokes experiments, respectively. We hold out 20% of the training data as a validation set, which is used to select the derivative computation weights and the hyperparameter λ . The networks are pre-trained for 5,000 epochs for the Burgers’ and Schrödinger equations, and 100,000 epochs for the Navier-Stokes equations. Across all tasks, we use a consistent initial sparsity of 10 and a margin threshold of 0.05. During consistency optimization, MSS is applied every 1,000 epochs to refine the discovered equation. The values for λ are selected based on validation error and are summarized in Table 4. All experiments were conducted on a server equipped with four NVIDIA A6000 GPUs, each with 48 GB of memory.

Table 4: Hyperparameter λ settings.

Method	Burgers’ Equation	Schrödinger Equation	Navier-Stokes Equations
ABL-PDE (w/o FEM)	0.05	0.5	1
ABL-PDE	5	5	200

G More Experimental Results

G.1 Details of Redundant Terms

Table 5 details the specific redundant terms for the dagger-marked (\dagger) results presented in Table 2.

Table 5: Redundant terms of the dagger-marked results in Table 2.

Method	Equation	Noise Level	Redundant Terms
ABL-PDE (w/o CO)	Schrödinger Eq.	All Levels	$u_t: u_{xx}, u, uv, u^3, v$ $v_t: -$
		0%	$u_t: -$ $v_t: v_x$
DL-PDE++	Navier-Stokes Eq.	5%	$u_t: p^2u, vv_x$ $v_t: p_yu, pu_y$
		10%	$u_t: p^2u, vv_x, p^3, p^2$ $v_t: p_yu, pu_y, v_x$

G.2 Test Error

Table 6 presents the detailed results of test errors on three benchmarks. The area of the shaded circles in Figure 3 is proportional to the square root of the standard deviation. We use the square root to improve the visibility of the standard deviation of ABL-PDE.

Table 6: Test error comparison results on three benchmarks. The evaluation metric is the sum of L2RE (%) on each dependent variable. Results of ABL-PDE (w/o FEM) and ABL-PDE are the mean and standard deviation of 5 experiments with different hyperparameters.

Method	Burgers' Equation			Schrödinger Equation			Navier-Stokes Equation		
	0	5%	10%	0	5%	10%	0	5%	10%
ABL-PDE (w/o CO)	1.79	1.83	1.92	2.25	2.37	3.93	2.85	3.38	4.70
ABL-PDE (w/o FEM)	1.04 ± 0.11	1.06 ± 0.11	1.08 ± 0.19	1.67 ± 0.40	1.74 ± 0.38	1.84 ± 0.36	3.06 ± 0.22	3.44 ± 0.25	4.02 ± 0.24
ABL-PDE	0.68 ± 0.01	0.72 ± 0.02	0.85 ± 0.03	1.22 ± 0.01	1.36 ± 0.01	1.75 ± 0.01	2.64 ± 0.05	3.17 ± 0.04	3.88 ± 0.06

G.3 Redundancy Reduction

Table 7 presents the detailed number of candidate terms.

Table 7: Number of candidate terms w.r.t. operator number limit.

Number	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Full	105	44205	7.8E+9	2.4E+20	2.4E+41	2.3E+83	2.1E+167	1.7E+335	1.2E+671
Canonical	39	143	510	1784	6141	20849	69948	234789	764761
ABL-PDE	11	29	69	165	387	879	1955	4254	9053

G.4 Comparison with D-CIPHER

Discovery of Closed-Form Partial Differential Equations (D-CIPHER) [16] is a recent study aims at going beyond the linear combination assumption that exists in most PDE discovery methods. While allowing for more flexible forms of the derivative-free part, D-CIPHER comes at the cost of a harder optimization process. As stated by its authors, D-CIPHER exhibits difficulty in learning coupled PDE systems. Consequently, it was not suitable for our experiments on the Schrödinger and Navier-Stokes equations discussed in the main text.

Despite this limitation, we evaluated D-CIPHER on its original Burgers' and Heat Equation datasets. Adhering to their hyperparameter settings (10 datasets, 10 trials), we report the best results using their RMSE metric in Table 8.

It is crucial to note that the setup for their Burgers' Equation experiment differs significantly from our benchmark. The coefficient of the u_{xx} term in their study is 0.2, substantially larger than the $0.01/\pi$ used in our work. This larger coefficient corresponds to a higher-viscosity regime, which naturally dampens the formation of sharp shock waves. In this context, the strong performance of both methods is readily achievable, particularly in the absence of noise.

Table 8: Comparison Results with D-CIPHER.

Method	Burgers' Equation			Heat Equation		
	0	5%	10%	0	5%	10%
D-CIPHER	1.61×10^{-2}	8.13×10^{-2}	1.49×10^{-1}	4.37×10^{-4}	1.87×10^{-2}	2.62×10^{-2}
ABL-PDE	1.77×10^{-3}	4.17×10^{-3}	7.11×10^{-3}	4.04×10^{-4}	5.03×10^{-5}	1.17×10^{-4}

G.5 Comparison with SPL

Symbolic Physics Learner (SPL) [25] presents a novel approach that uses Monte Carlo Tree Search (MCTS) to discover governing equations. Its primary focus is on identifying fundamental physical laws that are often expressed as algebraic equations, and systems of Ordinary Differential Equations

(ODEs). This scope, which does not include the PDEs central to our work, makes a direct application to our benchmarks non-trivial. To establish a point of comparison, we therefore adapted our method to the ODE setting and evaluated it on the Lorenz system with 5% Gaussian noise, a benchmark used in SPL’s experiments. For our method, we used the same hyperparameters as in our main experiments: an initial sparsity of 10 and a margin threshold of 0.05. For the loss weighting parameter λ , we simply used a trick to rescale the supervised loss and the physics loss to similar magnitudes for all experiments: $\text{loss} = \text{loss}_1 + \frac{\text{loss}_2}{\text{loss}_2/\text{loss}_1 + 1e-8}$. We present the discovered equations in Table 9.

Table 9: Comparison of discovered equations with SPL.

Method	Discovered Equations
Ground Truth	$\dot{x} = -10x + 10y$ $\dot{y} = 28x - y - xz$ $\dot{z} = -\frac{8}{3}z + xy$
SPL [25]	$\dot{x} = -9.966x + 9.964y$ $\dot{y} = 27.764x - 0.942y - 0.994xz$ $\dot{z} = -2.655z + 0.996xy$
ABL-PDE (w/o CO)	$\dot{x} = -9.807x + 9.956y + 0.0323xy - 0.0185yz$ $\dot{y} = 27.72x - 0.976y - 0.989xz$ $\dot{z} = -2.698z + 0.950xy + 0.0238yz$
ABL-PDE	$\dot{x} = -10.003x + 10.002y$ $\dot{y} = 27.869x - 0.976y - 0.995xz$ $\dot{z} = -2.667z + 0.999xy$

The results in Table 9 highlight two key advantages of ABL-PDE. First, compared to SPL, ABL-PDE achieves higher precision in coefficient estimation, with its discovered parameters being notably closer to the ground truth values. Second, the comparison with the ablation model, ABL-PDE (w/o CO), underscores the effectiveness of our consistency optimization process. The ablation model incorrectly includes several superfluous terms (e.g., xy and yz in the \dot{x} equation), whereas ABL-PDE successfully prunes these, recovering the correct symbolic form for the whole system.

G.6 Comparison with SGA-PDE

Symbolic Genetic Algorithm for open-form PDE Discovery (SGA-PDE) [8] is a prominent asynchronous method that utilizes a genetic algorithm to discover PDEs. It represents candidate equations with a flexible binary tree structure, which allows for a wide range of possible equation forms. However, this flexibility makes it challenging to impose structural constraints. As the official implementation of SGA-PDE does not support the discovery of coupled PDE systems, and our primary benchmarks are systems, we conducted a comparison on their original, noise-free PDE datasets to ensure a fair evaluation. For our method, we used the same hyperparameters as in our main experiments: an initial sparsity of 10 and a margin threshold of 0.05. The loss weighting parameter λ adopts the same trick as in the SPL comparison. The discovered equations are presented in Table 10.

A key difference in the experimental setup is that SGA-PDE calculates derivatives via numerical differentiation on a full mesh grid. In contrast, our method operates on sparsely sampled data. Specifically, for the Burgers’ equation, we used 25% points of the data; for the Chafee-Infante equation, we used 50% points of the data; and for the KdV equation, we used 20% points of the data. The results in Table 10 show that ABL-PDE achieves a comparable level of accuracy to SGA-PDE while using significantly less data. The comparison with the ablation model, ABL-PDE (w/o CO), underscores the effectiveness of our consistency optimization process in improving the robustness of the discovery process to hyperparameter selection.

G.7 Large Scale Hyperparameter Sensitivity Study

To further investigate the robustness of our method, we conduct a sensitivity analysis over a wider range of hyperparameters, focusing on the challenging scenario with 10% noise. We vary the loss

Table 10: Comparison of discovered equations with SGA-PDE.

Method	Discovered Equation
Burgers' Equation	
Ground Truth	$u_t = -uu_x + 0.1u_{xx}$
SGA-PDE [8]	$u_t = -1.0011uu_x + 0.1024u_{xx}$
ABL-PDE (w/o CO)	$u_t = -0.83uu_x + 0.096u_{xx} - 0.026u + 0.038u^3$
ABL-PDE	$u_t = -0.999uu_x + 0.10002u_{xx}$
KdV Equation	
Ground Truth	$u_t = -0.0025u_{xxx} - uu_x$
SGA-PDE [8]	$u_t = -0.0025u_{xxx} - 1.0004uu_x$
ABL-PDE (w/o CO)	$u_t = -0.00237u_{xxx} - 0.988uu_x$
ABL-PDE	$u_t = -0.00249u_{xxx} - 0.995uu_x$
Chafee-Infante Equation	
Ground Truth	$u_t = u_{xx} - u + u^3$
SGA-PDE [8]	$u_t = 1.0002u_{xx} - 1.0008u + 1.0004u^3$
ABL-PDE (w/o CO)	$u_t = 0.843u_{xx} - 0.852u + 0.916u^3 - 0.0619uu_x + 0.182u_x$
ABL-PDE	$u_t = 0.994u_{xx} - 0.987u + 0.996u^3$

weight λ by an order of magnitude (0.1λ , λ , 10λ) and the margin threshold (0.01, 0.05, 0.1). The results for ABL-PDE and its ablation variant, ABL-PDE (w/o CO), on all three PDE benchmarks are summarized in Tables 11 to 13.

Analysis The results demonstrate that ABL-PDE is highly robust to variations in λ . Specifically, with the margin threshold set to 0.05, our method consistently discovers the correct equations, or ones with minimal errors (e.g., 3(1) for Burgers' and 7(1) for Schrödinger's), across all tested λ values.

The choice of the margin threshold is crucial, and our experiments suggest that 0.05 is an effective value. A threshold that is too small (e.g., 0.01) tends to introduce numerous redundant terms. Although the consistency optimization process is designed to prune such terms, an excessive amount of incorrect physical information can trap the optimization in a local minimum. Restarting the consistency optimization or employing a solver-based verification could potentially address this issue, which we leave as future work. Conversely, a threshold that is too large (e.g., 0.1) requires the algorithm to identify and add missing terms to the initial discovery, a task that is empirically more difficult than pruning redundant ones. Therefore, we empirically favor a relatively small margin threshold.

Table 11: Hyperparameter sensitivity analysis for Burgers' Equation with 10% noise. Each cell shows the number of discovered terms (sum of redundant and missing terms in parentheses). Entries in red denote correctly identified equations.

Model	λ	Margin Threshold		
		0.01	0.05	0.1
ABL-PDE (w/o CO)	0.1λ	4(2)	2(0)	2(0)
	λ	4(2)	2(0)	2(0)
	10λ	4(2)	2(0)	2(0)
ABL-PDE	0.1λ	3(1)	3(1)	4(2)
	λ	5(3)	2(0)	2(0)
	10λ	4(2)	2(0)	2(0)

Table 12: Hyperparameter sensitivity analysis for Schrödinger Equation with 10% noise.

Model	λ	Margin Threshold		
		0.01	0.05	0.1
ABL-PDE (w/o CO)	0.1 λ	16(10)	11(5)	8(2)
	λ	16(10)	11(5)	8(2)
	10 λ	16(10)	11(5)	8(2)
ABL-PDE	0.1 λ	15(9)	7(1)	6(0)
	λ	14(8)	6(0)	6(0)
	10 λ	12(6)	6(0)	6(0)

Table 13: Hyperparameter sensitivity analysis for Navier-Stokes Equations with 10% noise.

Model	λ	Margin Threshold		
		0.01	0.05	0.1
ABL-PDE (w/o CO)	0.1 λ	16(5)	10(0)	8(2)
	λ	16(5)	10(0)	8(2)
	10 λ	16(5)	10(0)	8(2)
ABL-PDE	0.1 λ	11(0)*	10(0)	8(2)
	λ	14(3)	10(0)	8(2)
	10 λ	15(4)	10(0)	8(2)

*Note: Under the margin threshold of 0.01, the discovered equation for u_t includes both uu_x and uv_y . Due to the continuity equation, these terms are equivalent. Although uv_y is not in the standard form, we do not classify it as a redundant term, resulting in 11 discovered terms with 0 error.