OpInf-LLM: Parametric PDE Solving with LLMs via Operator Inference

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Abstract

Solving diverse partial differential equations (PDEs) is fundamental in science and engineering. Large language models (LLMs) have demonstrated strong capabilities in code generation, symbolic reasoning, and tool use, but reliably solving PDEs across heterogeneous settings remains challenging. Prior work on LLM-based code generation and transformer-based foundation models for PDE learning has shown promising advances. However, a persistent trade-off between execution success rate and numerical accuracy arises, particularly when generalization to unseen parameters and boundary conditions is required. In this work, we propose OpInf-LLM, an LLM parametric PDE solving framework based on operator inference. The proposed framework leverages a small amount of solution data to enable accurate prediction of diverse PDE instances, including unseen parameters and configurations, and provides seamless integration with LLMs for natural language specification of PDE solving tasks. Its low computational demands and unified tool interface further enable a high execution success rate across heterogeneous settings. By combining operator inference with LLM capabilities, OpInf-LLM opens new possibilities for generalizable reduced-order modeling in LLM-based PDE solving.

1 Introduction

Solving diverse partial differential equations (PDEs) is fundamental in science and engineering, underpinning applications ranging from fluid dynamics and heat transfer to electromagnetics, materials science, and climate modeling (Cai et al., 2021; Oommen et al., 2024; Nohra & Dufour, 2024; Pathak et al., 2022). In practice, modern PDE workflows must accommodate heterogeneous governing equations, parameter regimes, and boundary and initial conditions, often under strict accuracy and robustness requirements. As a result, there is growing interest in automated and generalizable PDE solvers that can flexibly adapt to new problem instances without extensive manual intervention or retraining (Karniadakis et al., 2021; Li et al., 2020; Lu et al., 2019; Sun et al., 2025; Ye et al., 2024; Liu et al., 2024a).

Large language models (LLMs) have recently demonstrated strong capabilities in code generation (Jiang et al., 2024; Huynh & Lin, 2025), symbolic reasoning (Xu et al., 2024; Shojaee et al., 2024), and tool use (Xu et al., 2025b), motivating a new line of work on language-driven scientific computing (Nejjar et al., 2025). In the context of PDEs, prior work on LLM-based code generation and transformer-based foundation models for PDE learning has shown promising advances, including automatic solver synthesis and data-driven surrogate modeling (Li et al., 2025; Gaonkar et al., 2025; Wu et al., 2025; Negrini et al., 2025). However, reliably solving PDEs across heterogeneous settings remains challenging for LLM-based approaches. In particular, a persistent trade-off between execution success rate and numerical accuracy arises, especially when generalization to unseen parameters, boundary conditions, and domain configurations is required (Fig. 1). Code-generation-based methods often suffer from brittle execution and

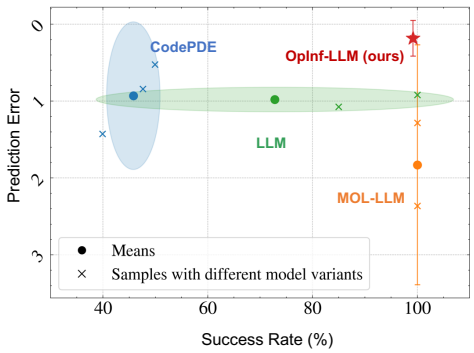

Figure 1: Trade-offs in prediction error and success rate.

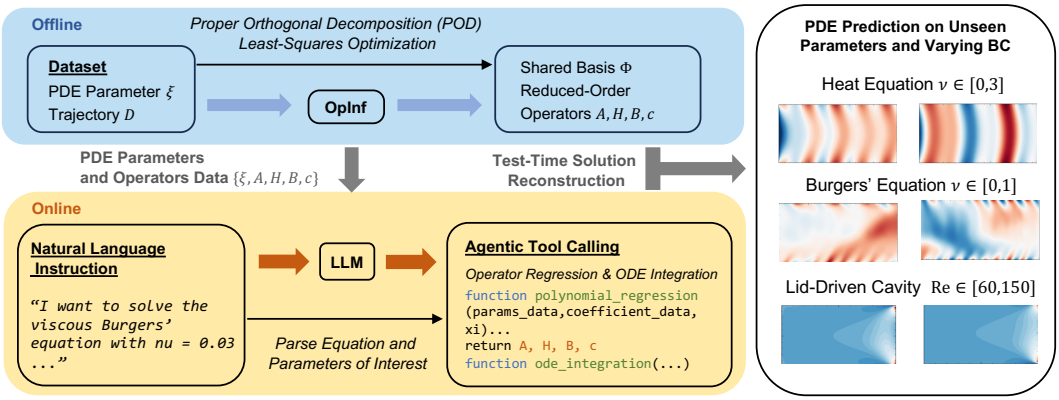

Figure 2: Overall diagram of the OpInf-LLM framework.

solver instability, while purely data-driven neural surrogates can exhibit poor extrapolation and high training costs.

These limitations highlight a fundamental gap between expressive, flexible language-driven interfaces and robust, generalizable numerical solvers. On the one hand, LLMs provide a powerful abstraction layer for specifying PDEs and solver configurations via natural language (Li et al., 2024a). On the other hand, classical reduced-order modeling techniques, such as operator inference, offer principled mechanisms for constructing compact, interpretable, and generalizable dynamical system representations from limited data, but cannot handle diverse PDEs at once with language specifications (Peherstorfer & Willcox, 2016; Kramer et al., 2024). Bridging these two paradigms offers a promising pathway toward reliable, language-driven PDE solving.

In this work, we propose OpInf-LLM, an LLM parametric PDE solving framework via operator inference (Fig. 2). We first leverage operator inference to learn reduced-order models for diverse parametric PDE instances from a small amount of solution data over a finite set of parameter values and configuration settings, yielding a shared reduced basis and parameter-dependent reduced operators. We then integrate large language models to infer and solve new reduced-order models via agentic tool calling, enabling the prediction of PDE solutions for diverse instances, including previously unseen parameters and varying boundary conditions. By construction, the reduced-order model effectively reduces the complexity of PDE generalization to polynomial fitting over learned operators and time integration of a low-dimensional ODE system, resulting in low computational demands at test time and a high execution success rate across heterogeneous PDE settings. Moreover, the use of LLMs naturally admits natural language instructions for specifying PDEs parameters and configurations, providing a flexible and unified interface for diverse PDE-solving tasks. The key advantages of OpInf-LLM are:

- Accurate zero-shot prediction of PDE solutions under unseen parameters and configuration settings.
- Lightweight training with high execution success rates across heterogeneous PDEs and settings.
- Seamless natural language specification and solution of diverse PDEs within a single unified framework.

2 Related Work

Operator Inference. Reduced-order modeling (ROM) (Benner et al., 2015; Brunton & Kutz, 2022) is a class of model reduction techniques that aims to reduce the computational cost of simulating large-scale dynamical systems governed by PDEs by leveraging a low-dimensional latent space. Among model reduction techniques, operator inference (OpInf) (Kramer et al., 2024; Peherstorfer & Willcox, 2016) is a data-driven ROM method that learns structured reduced dynamics consistent with PDE nonlinearities, allowing accurate prediction with improved generalization and lower data requirements compared to black-box approaches. OpInf has been applied to parametric settings (McQuarrie et al., 2023), used to simulate complex physics such as combustion chamber dynamics (McQuarrie et al., 2021; Swischuk et al., 2020), and enhancements have been proposed to account for a wider class of PDE nonlinearities (Qian et al., 2020; 2022) or enhance robustness of the predictions (Sawant et al.,

2023). To the best of our knowledge, ROMs have not been explored for language-model-driven PDE solving or for extending beyond single parametric PDE families. We address this gap by bridging OpInf with expressive LLM interfaces and tool-use capabilities to enable reliable multi-PDE-family solving across diverse instances.

PDE Foundation Models. Recent advances in AI/ML have led to the development of a broad class of data-driven PDE solvers, including physics-informed neural networks (PINNs) (Raissi et al., 2019; Han et al., 2018; Cuomo et al., 2022; Cho et al., 2024; Huang et al., 2022), neural operators (Kovachki et al., 2023; Li et al., 2020; Lu et al., 2019; 2021; 2022; Li et al., 2024b; Goswami et al., 2023), and neural PDE solvers (Brandstetter et al., 2022; Takamoto et al., 2023; Hsieh et al., 2019). More recently, PDE foundation models that learn generalizable representations across diverse equation families have been proposed (Herde et al., 2024; Liu et al., 2024b; Ye et al., 2024; Sun et al., 2025; Shen et al., 2024; Rautela et al., 2025; Zhu et al., 2025; Zhou et al., 2025; Hao et al., 2024; Wiesner et al., 2025). These models aim to solve multiple PDEs with a single pre-trained architecture, reducing the need for equation-specific training. Building on this direction, multimodal approaches have emerged that incorporate language inputs to enhance flexibility and interpretability (Negrini et al., 2025; Bao et al., 2025). In parallel, diffusion-based neural PDE solvers have been developed to support text-conditioned simulation using captions generated by multimodal LLMs (Zhou et al., 2024). Additionally, LLMs have been explored as auxiliary modalities to improve surrogate model performance (Lorsung & Farimani, 2024). Despite this progress, robust generalization to unseen parameters and initial and boundary condition settings remains a significant challenge.

LLMs for Scientific Machine Learning. Large language models have shown promising capabilities in scientific machine learning. Prior works focus on using LLMs to directly generate executable PDE solvers from natural language descriptions (Li et al., 2025; Wu et al., 2025), as well as leveraging LLMs to write code for broader scientific machine learning problems (Gaonkar et al., 2025; Jiang et al., 2025; He et al., 2025). Beyond code generation, Yang et al. (2025) fine-tunes LLMs for in-context operator learning, while Xu et al. (2025a) explores PDE discovery by training generative models with textbook information. LLM-based agents have also adopted agentic workflows for PDE solving (Jiang & Karniadakis, 2025; Liu et al., 2025). In parallel, many efforts have explored LLM-driven autoformalization of PDEs, translating language descriptions into formal mathematical representations (Soroco et al., 2025; Mensfelt et al., 2025), building on broader autoformalization research that maps informal mathematical content into formal, machine-verifiable languages (Wu et al., 2022; Weng et al., 2025). Equation discovery from data has also been explored in Du et al. (2024); Grayeli et al. (2024). Despite these advances, solver reliability and execution robustness remain key challenges.

3 Proposed Method

In this section, we present the proposed OpInf-LLM method. The overall diagram is shown in Fig. 2. The method consists of two stages. In the offline stage, operator inference (OpInf) is used to construct a parametric reduced-order model (ROM) by learning a projection basis and reduced modal dynamics from PDE data with finite parameter coverage. In the online stage, a large language model (LLM) is integrated at test time to enable the prediction of solutions for diverse PDE instances based on natural-language instructions, while generalizing to previously unseen parameters and configurations.

3.1 Operator Inference

We start by introducing OpInf, which is a data-driven model reduction method for PDEs (Kramer et al., 2024; Peherstorfer & Willcox, 2016) and is the key component in the offline stage of the proposed method. Consider a general class of nonlinear parametric PDEs:

$$\frac{\partial y}{\partial t} = \mathcal{F}(\frac{\partial y}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial x^2}, \cdots, s, \xi), \quad x \in \Omega, \quad t \in [0, T], \tag{1}$$

with initial and boundary conditions

$$\mathcal{I}[y](x, 0) = g(x), \quad x \in \Omega, \qquad \mathcal{B}[y](x, t) = u(t), \quad x \in \partial\Omega, \tag{2}$$

where $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ is the spatial domain, s is a known source term, $\xi \in \mathbb{R}$ is the PDE parameter, and $\mathcal{F}$ is the generic nonlinear PDE operator.

OpInf learns a ROM approximating the PDE dynamics within a finite r-dimensional subspace spanned by a set of basis functions $\phi_1(x), \ldots, \phi_r(x)$. Specifically, the PDE state is decomposed as

$$y(x, t, \xi) = \sum_{i=1}^{r} a_i(t, \xi)\phi_i(x), \tag{3}$$

where $a_i(t, \xi)$ are time-dependent modal coefficients. In classical model reduction, the dynamics for these modal coefficients can be derived from the PDE itself using Galerkin projection (Holmes et al., 2012). For PDE operators $\mathcal{F}$ with at most quadratic nonlinearities, which encompass a broad class of PDEs commonly arising in physics (e.g., the diffusion equation modeling heat transfer or the Navier-Stokes equations modeling fluid dynamics), the modal coefficients inherit reduced dynamics of the following form given ξ:

$$\frac{da}{dt} = A(\xi)a + H(\xi)(a \otimes a) + B(\xi)u + c(\xi), \tag{4}$$

where $A \in \mathbb{R}^{r\times r}$ is a linear operator, $H \in \mathbb{R}^{r\times r^2}$ is a quadratic operator, $B \in \mathbb{R}^{r\times d}$ is a control input matrix, and $c \in \mathbb{R}^r$ is an offset vector, with $\otimes$ denoting the Kronecker product. This procedure naturally applies to PDE operators $\mathcal{F}$ with higher-order or non-polynomial nonlinearities, leading to modal dynamics with structures that differ from equation 4, for example through the inclusion of cubic terms (Qian et al., 2022). In this paper, we stick to quadratically nonlinear PDEs with the formulation in equation 4 for clarity.

For a fixed ξ, OpInf composes the following two steps: 1) identify an appropriate basis $\phi_1(x), \ldots, \phi_r(x)$; 2) identify the corresponding reduced-order operators A, H, B, c. These procedures yield a reduced order model defined by equation 3 and equation 4 for solving PDEs with varying boundary conditions. For the rest of this subsection, we consider a single fixed ξ and we omit ξ dependency in the notation for conciseness.

Basis identification. We collect a dataset $\mathcal{D}$, obtained either from physical experiments or numerical simulations of the PDE in equation 1. The dataset consists of time series of the solution and its temporal derivatives over a discretization $\boldsymbol{x}$ of the full spatial domain

$$\mathcal{D} = \{y(\boldsymbol{x}, t_1), \ldots, y(\boldsymbol{x}, t_K)\} \cup \left\{\frac{\partial y}{\partial t}(\boldsymbol{x}, t_1), \ldots, \frac{\partial y}{\partial t}(\boldsymbol{x}, t_K)\right\}. \tag{5}$$

For notational simplicity, equation 5 is written for a single trajectory. In practice, the dataset may include multiple trajectories corresponding to different initial conditions and boundary conditions. Then, for a given reduced-order basis dimension r, OpInf computes the basis functions by conducting a proper orthogonal decomposition (POD) (Chatterjee, 2000) of the concatenated solution values y contained in the dataset $\mathcal{D}$, which yields an optimal basis that maximizes the captured energy. Specifically, $\Phi := [\phi_1(\boldsymbol{x}), \ldots, \phi_r(\boldsymbol{x})]$ are the first r left-singular vectors of the trajectory data matrix $\{y(\boldsymbol{x}, t_1), \ldots, y(\boldsymbol{x}, t_K)\}$, corresponding to the r largest singular values.[1] The number of basis functions r can be tuned based on the desired level of captured energy (Peherstorfer & Willcox, 2016). Ablations on the effects of the basis function number r can be found in Section 4.4.

Operator identification. Once the POD basis has been obtained, we project the dataset $\mathcal{D}$ onto the basis functions to form a reduced-order dataset $\mathcal{A}$ of modal coefficients and their time derivatives. Specifically,

$$\mathcal{A} = \{a(t_1), \ldots, a(t_K)\} \cup \{\dot{a}(t_1), \ldots, \dot{a}(t_K)\}, \tag{6}$$

where

$$a_i(t_j) = \langle y(\boldsymbol{x}, t_j), \phi_i(\boldsymbol{x})\rangle, \qquad \dot{a}_i(t_j) = \left\langle \frac{\partial y}{\partial t}(\boldsymbol{x}, t_j), \phi_i(\boldsymbol{x})\right\rangle, \tag{7}$$

for $i = 1, \ldots, r$ and $j = 1, \ldots, K$. Here $\langle\cdot,\cdot\rangle$ denotes the L_2 inner product. Then, OpInf calculates the operators A, H, B and c such that the reduced dynamics in equation 4 best fits the data in the least-squares sense, which can be formulated as the least-squares problem

$$\min_{A,H,B,c} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \|[Aa + H(a \otimes a) + Bu + c - \dot{a}](t_k)\|_F^2 + \lambda\left(\|A\|_F^2 + \|H\|_F^2 + \|B\|_F^2 + \|c\|_2^2\right), \tag{8}$$

[1]For PDEs with $d > 1$ spatial dimensions, solution snapshots $y(x, t)$ in the trajectory data matrix are vectorized (flattened) before performing the POD.

where $||\cdot||_F$ denotes the Frobenius norm, and λ is a Tikhonov regularization coefficient that prevents model overfitting and is often selected through a line search (Swischuk et al., 2020). Ablations on the effects of the regularization intensity λ can be found in Section 4.4.

During online inference, given any initial condition and boundary conditions of interest, the ROM approximates the PDE solution by first calculating the initial modal coefficients corresponding to the initial condition, then propagating the modal coefficients over time according to the reduced dynamics in equation 4, and reconstructing the full-order solution via equation 3.

3.2 Parametric OpInf and LLM Integration

In the previous section, we discussed how OpInf can learn ROMs for PDEs with a single fixed parameter ξ. In this section, we will discuss how OpInf can be extended to parametric PDEs, and how we integrate it with LLMs to solve diverse equations with natural language instructions.

The key insight behind parametric OpInf is as follows (McQuarrie et al., 2023). First, the ROM can share a common basis Φ within a parametric PDE family. Second, once reduced dynamics operators A, H, B, c have been separately obtained for a set of training parameters $\xi_1, \xi_2, \ldots$, reduced dynamics operators for any unseen ξ can be obtained via polynomial regression among the existing operators. Based on those insights, the proposed OpInf-LLM performs the following procedures to solve diverse parametric PDEs.

Basis identification. We collect a trajectory dataset $\mathcal{D}$ in the form of time series of solutions and time derivatives similar to equation 5, but for multiple parameters ξ

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{D} = &\{y(\boldsymbol{x}, t_1, \xi_1), \ldots, y(\boldsymbol{x}, t_K, \xi_1)\} \cup \{y(\boldsymbol{x}, t_1, \xi_2), \ldots\} \\ &\cdots \cup \left\{\frac{\partial y}{\partial t}(\boldsymbol{x}, t_1, \xi_1), \ldots\right\} \cup \left\{\frac{\partial y}{\partial t}(\boldsymbol{x}, t_1, \xi_2), \ldots\right\} \cdots .\end{aligned} \tag{9}$$

Here equation 9 shows a single trajectory for each ξ_i for notation conciseness, but multiple trajectories can be used. Then, for a given number of basis functions r, the shared basis $\Phi := [\phi_1(\boldsymbol{x}), \ldots, \phi_r(\boldsymbol{x})]$ can be obtained via proper orthogonal decomposition (POD) of all solution data y in equation 9.

Operator identification. Once the POD basis is determined, the reduced-order dataset $\mathcal{A}$ of modal coefficients and their time derivatives can be obtained by projecting equation 7 on equation 9

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{A} = &\{a(t_1, \xi_1), \ldots, a(t_K, \xi_1)\} \cup \{a(t_1, \xi_2), \ldots\} \cdots \\ &\cup \{\dot{a}(t_1, \xi_1), \ldots, \dot{a}(t_K, \xi_1)\} \cup \{\dot{a}(t_1, \xi_2), \ldots\} \cdots .\end{aligned} \tag{10}$$

Then for each ξ_i in the dataset $\mathcal{A}$, we solve the least-squares problem in equation 8 to obtain the reduced operators $A(\xi_i)$, $H(\xi_i)$, $B(\xi_i)$, $c(\xi_i)$.

OpInf-LLM. Once the above procedures are executed, we integrate large language models (LLMs) to admit natural language instructions specifying the target PDE and its configurations, and leverage LLM tool-calling capabilities to infer the reduced operators and perform time integration, enabling parametric PDE solving across diverse settings. Specifically, given a natural language description of a PDE-solving task (e.g., "solve the viscous Burgers' equation with viscosity $\nu = 0.03$..."), the LLM first parses the governing equation and the specified parameters. Based on this information, the LLM calls existing tools to perform polynomial regression to infer the parameter-dependent reduced operators $A(\xi)$, $H(\xi)$, $B(\xi)$, and $c(\xi)$, and then integrates the reduced-order ODE system in equation 4 using the parsed initial and boundary condition specifications. The key features of this integration include: **(i).** Natural language descriptions of diverse PDEs as instructions; **(ii).** Low execution failure rate enabled by moderate polynomial fitting and reduced-order ODE integration demands; **(iii).** Zero-shot generalization to unseen PDE parameters and ICBC configurations from unified ROM structure.

4 Experiments

In this section, we evaluate the performance of the proposed OpInf-LLM framework and compare it against representative baseline methods. While many widely used PDE benchmarks focus on fixed or periodic boundary conditions (Li et al., 2020; Raissi et al., 2019; Takamoto et al., 2022;

Gupta & Brandstetter, 2022), we consider parametric PDEs with varying non-homogeneous boundary conditions to highlight the generalization capabilities of the proposed approach. Full experimental details are provided in Appendix A.

4.1 PDEs of Interest

Heat Equation. We consider the one-dimensional heat equation

$$y_t(x,t) = \nu\, y_{xx}(x,t), \qquad x \in [0,1], \tag{11}$$

subject to Dirichlet boundary conditions $y(0,t) = y(1,t) = u(t)$ and a fixed smooth initial condition $y(x,0) = g(x)$. The boundary input $u(t)$ is a multi-sine signal

$$u(t) = b + \sum_{k=1}^{3} A_k \sin(2\pi f_k t + \phi_k)\,, \tag{12}$$

where the amplitudes A_k, frequencies f_k, phases ϕ_k, and bias b are independently randomized for each trajectory. This construction provides persistent excitation across a range of temporal modes.

Training data are generated over a time horizon $T = 1.0$ using diffusivity values $\nu \in \{0.1,\, 0.5,\, 2.0\}$ with 3 trajectories per parameter. Number of POD modes is set to $r = 6$ for OpInf and regularization $\lambda = 10^{-6}$. Evaluation is performed on 20 trajectories each corresponding to diffusivity values $\nu \in \{0.5,\, 1.0,\, 3.0\}$.

Burgers' Equation. We consider the forced viscous Burgers' equation

$$y_t(x,t) + y\, y_x(x,t) = \nu\, y_{xx}(x,t) + s(x,t), \quad x \in [0,1], \tag{13}$$

with Dirichlet boundary conditions

$$y(0,t) = u_1(t), \qquad y(1,t) = u_2(t). \tag{14}$$

The boundary inputs $u_1(t)$ and $u_2(t)$ represent time-dependent boundary conditions, while $s(x,t)$ denotes an internal source term. Both the boundary inputs and the source term are constructed using multi-sine signals, with a fixed spatial profile used to localize the source term. The initial condition is chosen to be smooth and consistent with the boundary values at $t = 0$.

Training data are generated over a time horizon $T = 2.0$ using viscosity parameters $\nu \in \{0.01,\, 0.02,\, 0.05,\, 0.1\}$ with 100 trajectories per parameter. Number of POD modes is set to $r = 10$ for OpInf and regularization $\lambda = 0.5$. Evaluation is performed on 20 trajectories each corresponding to previously unseen viscosity values $\nu \in \{0.03,\, 0.07\}$, while maintaining the same boundary and forcing input structure.

2D Lid-Driven Cavity Flow. We consider two-dimensional incompressible flow in a square cavity using the vorticity-stream function formulation

$$\omega_t + v_1\, \omega_{p_1} + v_2\, \omega_{p_2} = \frac{1}{\mathrm{Re}}\left(\omega_{p_1 p_1} + \omega_{p_2 p_2}\right), \qquad \Delta\psi = -\omega, \tag{15}$$

where ω is the vorticity, $x = (p_1, p_2) \in [0,1]^2$ denotes the two-dimensional spatial coordinate, subscripts p_1 and p_2 indicate corresponding partial derivatives, and the velocity $v = (v_1, v_2)$ is related to the stream function ψ as

$$v_1 = \psi_{p_2}, \qquad v_2 = -\psi_{p_1}. \tag{16}$$

No-slip boundary conditions are enforced on all cavity walls. The top lid is driven by a spatially varying and time-dependent horizontal velocity

$$v_1(x,t) = h(p_1)\, u(t), \qquad v_2 = 0, \tag{17}$$

where $h(p_1)$ is a fixed, non-symmetric spatial profile, and $u(t)$ is a randomized sinusoidal input.

Training data are generated over a time horizon $T = 2.0$ using Reynolds numbers $\mathrm{Re} \in \{50,\, 75,\, 100,\, 125,\, 150\}$ with 8 trajectories per parameter. The number of POD modes is set to $r = 20$ for OpInf and the regularization strength is fixed to $\lambda = 3$. Model evaluation is carried out on 2 trajectories for each unseen Reynolds numbers $\mathrm{Re} \in \{60,\, 80,\, 90,\, 110,\, 120,\, 140\}$.

4.2 Baselines

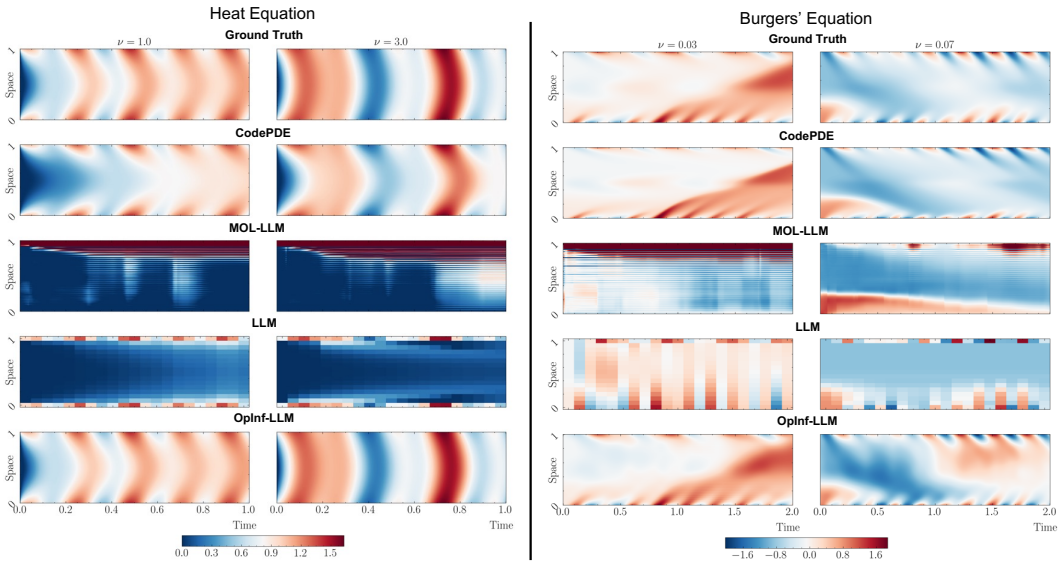

Figure 3: Predictions on Heat and Burgers' equations with varying parameters. Results are shown for CodePDE, LLM and OpInf-LLM with GPT-4.1.

CodePDE (Li et al., 2025). CodePDE represents a class of LLM-based approaches that directly generate executable PDE solvers in a programming language from a textual description of the governing equations, initial conditions, and boundary conditions. It employs a self-debugging mechanism that iteratively refines generated code using execution feedback. We apply test-time scaling with 5 independent solver generation rounds, each allowing 5 debugging trials, and report the best-performing solver.

MOL-LLM (Negrini et al., 2025). MOL-LLM represents multimodal PDE foundation models with language integration, combining a transformer-based PDE foundation model with language inputs. The model takes as input the initial state of the discretized solution, the PDE parameter vector, and boundary condition parameters, together with textual tokens describing the governing equation. Given these inputs, MOL-LLM outputs the full solution trajectory over a fixed time grid.

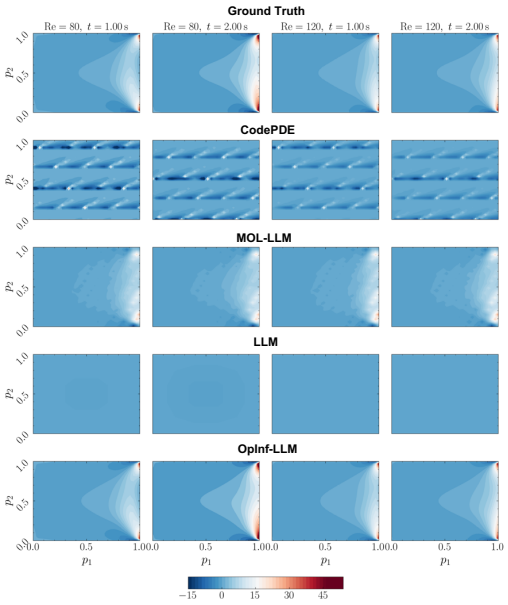

Figure 4: Lid-driven cavity predictions.

MOL-LLM (large dataset). Following the original MOL-LLM work, which is trained on large-scale datasets, we also evaluate a large-data variant of this baseline. In this setting, the same MOL-LLM model and training procedure are used, but the training set is expanded to 5000 trajectories per equation sampled from the same underlying distribution.

LLMs. We directly prompt large language models with the governing PDE, full initial and boundary conditions, external inputs, and a coarse output grid for tractability (heat/Burgers: 16 spatial points $\times$ 41 time steps; cavity: 6×6 spatial points $\times$ 21 time steps), and ask it to return the full spatiotemporal state array in JSON format (3-decimal precision) for a single parameter setting and trajectory. The LLM is treated as a black-box simulator, and its predicted field is compared against downsampled ground truth data using the relative L_2 error. For each parameter instance and equation, the LLM is queried 10 times, and the averaged error over all successful cases is reported. Example prompts are provided in Appendix B.3.

Table 1: Results summary. Average relative L_2 error is reported for each equation. **Bold** denotes the best result, and underline denotes the second best. ↑ higher is better, ↓ lower is better.

Method	Data	Train time (s)	Success rate ↑	Heat ↓	Burgers ↓	Cavity ↓
CodePDE (GPT-4.1)	–	–	49.9%	1.59e−2	**1.50e−1**	1.41e0
CodePDE (GPT-4o)	–	–	39.9%	1.60e−1	1.23e0	2.89e0
CodePDE (Gemini-2.0-flash)	–	–	47.6%	1.74e−2	9.56e−1	1.55e0
MOL-LLM	449	14306	**100.0%**	1.69e0	1.44e0	7.24e−1
MOL-LLM (large dataset)	15000	35915	**100.0%**	4.87e0	1.58e0	6.44e−1
LLM (GPT-4.1)	–	–	**100.0%**	7.79e−1	9.82e−1	1.00e0
LLM (GPT-4o)	–	–	85.0%	9.24e−1	1.30e0	1.00e0
LLM (Gemini-2.0-flash)	–	–	33.3%	9.02e−1	failed	failed
OpInf-LLM (GPT-4.1)	449	30	99.2%	**1.29e−2**	4.91e−1	**4.63e−2**
OpInf-LLM (GPT-4o)	449	30	99.2%	**1.29e−2**	4.91e−1	**4.63e−2**
OpInf-LLM (Gemini-2.0-flash)	449	30	99.2%	**1.29e−2**	4.91e−1	**4.63e−2**

4.3 Results

We report the results of the proposed OpInf-LLM framework and compare them with baseline methods. Table 1 summarizes the number of training samples, training time, code success rate, and the average relative L_2 error over $[0, T]$ for the heat, Burgers', and lid-driven cavity flow equations. Visualizations of prediction results across equation parameters and methods are shown in Fig. 3–4.

It can be seen that CodePDE does not consistently produce high-quality solvers, often resulting in either code failures or inaccurate numerical solutions. MOL-LLM achieves a high execution success rate since it is primarily a transformer-based method, but its prediction error becomes large when generalizing to different parameters and boundary conditions is required, and its training cost is substantially higher than that of the other methods. Direct LLM prediction of PDE solutions remains challenging, as existing LLMs tend to infer boundary conditions correctly but zero out or purely interpolate the interior values, and their success rate is further reduced by shape or format mismatches. In contrast, OpInf-LLM yields accurate predictions across all equations while maintaining a high code execution success rate. It requires only a small amount of training data, accepts natural language instructions, and accurately predicts diverse PDE solutions with varying boundary conditions across different instances and previously unseen parameters and configurations.

4.4 Ablations

Extrapolation in time. We examine the capability of OpInf-LLM to extrapolatively predict solutions beyond the time horizons observed during training. Specifically, we evaluate its performance on the interval $[T, 2T]$ for the three equations considered, following the settings in Section 4.1, and report the relative L_2 error in Table 2. Although the framework has never seen any data on $[T, 2T]$, the prediction error remains consistently low and comparable to that on $[0, T]$, demonstrating strong temporal generalization of the proposed method. Additional visualizations on extended horizons are provided in Fig. 5-8 in the Appendix.

Table 2: Prediction error of OpInf-LLM with extrapolation in time.

LLM model	Equation	Error $[0, T]$	Error $[T, 2T]$
GPT-4o	Heat	1.29e−2	3.60e−2
	Burgers	4.91e−1	6.36e−1
	Cavity	4.63e−2	4.86e−2
Gemini-2.0 flash	Heat	1.29e−2	3.60e−2
	Burgers	4.91e−1	6.36e−1
	Cavity	4.63e−2	4.86e−2

Number of POD modes. We further examine the effect of the number of POD basis modes in the proposed OpInf-LLM method. Specifically, we follow the settings in Section 4.1 and vary the number of POD modes r from 4 to 10 for each equation instance. We report the total energy captured by the POD basis on the training data, along with the prediction errors on test parameters and configurations for both the original and extended time horizons. Table 3 summarizes the results for Burgers' equation with full results available in Table 7 in the Appendix. As expected, increasing the number of POD modes captures more energy in the training data and generally improves prediction accuracy, provided

Table 3: POD basis number (r) ablation.

Equation	r	Energy (%)	Error $[0, T]$
Burgers	4	88.01	3.93e−1
Burgers	5	92.26	3.44e−1
Burgers	6	95.63	4.13e−1
Burgers	7	97.26	3.52e−1
Burgers	8	98.31	3.64e−1
Burgers	9	98.85	4.70e−1
Burgers	10	99.20	4.91e−1

Table 4: Regularization intensity (λ) ablation.

Equation	λ	Norm	Error $[0, T]$
Burgers	0	1730.53	2.25e1
Burgers	10^{-6}	1730.53	2.25e1
Burgers	10^{-4}	1645.28	2.25e1
Burgers	10^{-2}	1377.88	2.96e1
Burgers	10^{-1}	346.36	1.81e1
Burgers	1	76.14	3.31e−1
Burgers	10	33.22	3.34e−1

that the additional modes are not overfitting. In practice, capturing around 99% of the energy serves as a useful guideline for selecting the number of POD modes (Kramer et al., 2024). Overly large POD bases can lead to solver instability, as observed for the heat equation with a large number of modes. Nevertheless, the OpInf-LLM framework remains executable across these settings with 100% code success rate, indicating robustness with respect to the choice of POD dimension.

Regularization intensity. We next examine the effect of the regularization strength λ in equation 8 on the proposed OpInf-LLM scheme. Following the settings in Section 4.1, we vary λ logarithmically from 0 to 10 for each equation instance, and report the averaged operator norm $\sqrt{\|A\|_F^2 + \|H\|_F^2 + \|B\|_F^2 + \|c\|_F^2}$ on the training set, together with the prediction errors on test configurations for both the original and extended time horizons. Table 4 shows the results for Burgers' equation and full results are available in Table 8 in the Appendix. The averaged operator norms decrease as the regularization strength increases, and the best λ for test performance can be identified, which is typically within a range spanning one order of magnitude or more. However, certain regularization values (e.g., $\lambda = 0$ and 10^{-6} for the cavity flow) can lead to failed least-squares optimization due to numerical singularity. In practice, ablations over a range of regularization values are typically performed on a validation set, and the operator norm is jointly considered to determine an appropriate λ, with low validation error and a moderate operator norm being desired (Golub et al., 1979; McQuarrie et al., 2021).

5 Discussion

In this section, we discuss limitations and potential extensions of the proposed OpInf-LLM method. For a given PDE family, the same reduced basis can be reused across different parameter values and configurations, but new bases are usually constructed when introducing new governing equations, although such cost is incurred upfront offline rather than introducing additional computation at inference time. Notably, the OpInf framework does not require explicit knowledge of the full PDE form and only assumes the type of nonlinearity in the reduced dynamics, such as linear or quadratic structure, without needing the specific PDE instance or parameter values, which makes it well suited for settings in which the governing equations are partially unknown or difficult to identify. In addition, although we employ the standard OpInf in our framework (Peherstorfer & Willcox, 2016), extensions of the OpInf framework that improve its robustness and accuracy (Sawant et al., 2023; Geng et al., 2024) can be potentially used to further enhance the performance of OpInf-LLM.

6 Conclusions

In this work, we provide a new perspective on reduced order modeling for LLM-based PDE solving, and propose OpInf-LLM, an LLM parametric PDE solving framework via operator inference. The proposed framework leverages shared reduced-order bases across each PDE family to support accurate, generalizable solutions under varying boundary conditions from limited data. By reformulating parametric PDE solving as polynomial regression in a reduced-order operator space followed by ODE integration, OpInf-LLM is able to solve unseen PDE instances from natural language instructions while achieving improved trade-offs between accuracy and execution success rate. Ablations further show robustness over extended test horizons and different OpInf configurations. Future directions include integrating more advanced operator inference techniques and developing richer language–solver interfaces for scalable scientific computing.

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A EXPERIMENT DETAILS

Below we provide additional details on input signal generation, numerical discretization, dataset construction, and simulation settings for the PDE systems described in Section 4.1.

A.1 HEAT EQUATION

The initial condition for the heat equation is fixed across all trajectories and given by

$$g(x) = \exp\big(\alpha(x-1)\big) + \exp(-\alpha x) - \exp(-\alpha), \qquad \alpha = 100. \tag{18}$$

The Dirichlet boundary input $u(t)$ applied at both ends of the domain is constructed as a three-component multi-sine signal

$$u(t) = b + \sum_{k=1}^{3} A_k \sin(2\pi f_k t + \phi_k)\,, \tag{19}$$

where, for each trajectory, the amplitudes $A_k \sim \mathcal{U}(0.1, 0.5)$, frequencies $f_k \sim \mathcal{U}(0.2, 5.0)$, phases $\phi_k \sim \mathcal{U}(0, 2\pi)$, and bias $b \sim \mathcal{U}(0.8, 1.2)$ are sampled independently. Independent realizations of the boundary input are used for training and test datasets.

The spatial domain $x \in [0, 1]$ is discretized using 1023 uniformly spaced interior points, and the second-order central finite difference scheme is used to generate full-order PDE solution. Training trajectories are sampled at 1001 uniformly spaced time instances over the horizon $T = 1.0$, with BDF integrator. For evaluation, trajectories are generated over the extended horizon $T_{\text{test}} = 2.0$ using 2001 time steps.

A.2 BURGERS' EQUATION

The Burgers' equation includes an internal source term $s(x, t)$ with a fixed spatial profile and a time-dependent amplitude. The spatial component of the source is defined as

$$s_0(x) = \cosh\left(\frac{x - 0.5}{0.05}\right)^{-1}, \tag{20}$$

and the full source term is given by

$$s(x, t) = s_0(x)\,\sigma(t), \tag{21}$$

where the temporal modulation $\sigma(t)$ is generated as a single-component sinusoidal signal

$$\sigma(t) = b_s + A_s \sin(2\pi f_s t + \phi_s)\,. \tag{22}$$

The parameters are sampled independently for each trajectory according to $A_s \sim \mathcal{U}(0.1, 3.0)$, $f_s \sim \mathcal{U}(0.2, 1.0)$, $\phi_s \sim \mathcal{U}(0, 2\pi)$, and $b_s \sim \mathcal{U}(-1.0, 1.0)$.

The system is subject to time-dependent Dirichlet boundary conditions

$$y(0, t) = u_1(t), \qquad y(1, t) = u_2(t), \tag{23}$$

where the boundary inputs $u_1(t)$ and $u_2(t)$ are generated independently as three-component multi-sine signals of the form

$$u_i(t) = b_i + \sum_{k=1}^{3} A_{i,k} \sin(2\pi f_{i,k} t + \phi_{i,k}), \qquad i \in \{1, 2\}. \tag{24}$$

For each trajectory, the amplitudes $A_{i,k} \sim \mathcal{U}(0.1, 1.0)$, frequencies $f_{i,k} \sim \mathcal{U}(0.2, 5.0)$, phases $\phi_{i,k} \sim \mathcal{U}(0, 2\pi)$, and biases $b_i \sim \mathcal{U}(-0.5, 0.5)$ are sampled independently.

The initial condition is constructed to be smooth and consistent with the boundary values at $t = 0$:

$$y(x, 0) = u_2(0) + \frac{1}{2}\big(u_1(0) - u_2(0)\big)\left[1 - \tanh\left(\frac{x - 0.3}{0.1}\right)\right]. \tag{25}$$

The spatial discretization uses Chebyshev collocation with $N = 64$ interior points. For evaluation and visualization, the solution is interpolated onto a uniform grid with 1001 points. Training trajectories span the time horizon $T = 2.0$ with 1001 time steps, while test trajectories span $T_{\text{test}} = 4.0$ with 2001 time steps. All source and boundary signals are sampled independently across trajectories. RK45 integrator is used for full-order solution generation.

A.3 2D LID-DRIVEN CAVITY FLOW

The no-slip boundary conditions enforce zero velocity on all walls except the top lid. The horizontal velocity on the top boundary is prescribed as

$$v_1(x,t) = h(p_1)\,u(t), \qquad v_2(x,t) = 0, \tag{26}$$

where the fixed spatial profile is

$$h(p_1) = 1 + 0.3\sin(2\pi p_1) + 0.2\,p_1. \tag{27}$$

The temporal modulation $u(t)$ is generated as a single-sine signal

$$u(t) = b + A\sin(2\pi f t + \phi), \tag{28}$$

where $b \sim \mathcal{U}(0.7, 1.3)$, $A \sim \mathcal{U}(0.1, 0.4)$, $f \sim \mathcal{U}(0.5, 2.0)$, and $\phi \sim \mathcal{U}(0, 2\pi)$ are sampled independently for each trajectory.

The cavity domain is defined on $x = (p_1, p_2) \in [0,1]^2$ and discretized using a uniform grid with 32 interior points in each spatial direction, resulting in a (34×34) grid including boundary points. The full-order solver uses a fixed time step $\Delta t = 10^{-3}$, with second-order finite difference scheme in space and forward Euler temporal integration. Training data are collected over the horizon $T = 2.0$, with solution snapshots recorded every 0.02 time units, yielding 101 snapshots per trajectory. For evaluation, trajectories are simulated over $T_{\text{test}} = 4.0$ using the same solver and snapshot spacing.

A.4 DATASET CONSTRUCTION

For all PDE systems, training and test datasets are generated using independent random seeds for boundary and forcing inputs. Each dataset consists of multiple trajectories corresponding to different realizations of input signals and, where applicable, different physical parameter values.

All reported results are obtained using identical datasets across methods to ensure fair comparison. Numerical solvers, discretization schemes, and time-stepping parameters are fixed across training and testing, and no test-time information is used during model training.

B IMPLEMENTATION DETAILS

B.1 CODEPDE

We evaluate CodePDE (Li et al., 2025) using 5 rounds of solver generation for each PDE, with 5 debug trials for each round. The test performance is measured using the relative L_2 error over the full time horizon. The best solver for each equation is reported for prediction errors. Success rate is calculated based on trial-level failures. The prompts and solver templates for all equations are shown below.

Prompts:

```
heat_description = '''
The PDE is the 1D heat equation with time-varying Dirichlet boundary
    conditions, given by

\\[
\\begin{{cases}}
\\partial_t u(t, x) = \\nu \\partial_{{xx}} u(t, x), & x \\in (0,1), \;
    t \\in (0,T] \\\\
u(0, x) = u_0(x), & x \\in (0,1) \\\\
u(t, 0) = u_{{bc}}(t), & t \\in (0,T] \\\\
u(t, 1) = u_{{bc}}(t), & t \\in (0,T]
\\end{{cases}}
\\]

where $\\nu$ is the thermal diffusivity coefficient. **Note that the
    boundary conditions are symmetric** (same function at both
    boundaries) and time-varying.
```

```
**Initial Condition (Fixed)**: The initial condition is a fixed
    exponential profile given by
\\[
u_0(x) = e^{{100(x-1)}} + e^{{-100x}} - e^{{-100}}
\\]
This creates steep gradients near the boundaries with approximate zero
    values at both ends.

**Boundary Conditions (Time-varying)**: The boundary value $u_{{bc}}(t)$
    is provided as an input array of shape [batch_size, T+1] containing
    the boundary values at each time step. The same values apply to both
    $x=0$ and $x=1$ (symmetric boundaries).

Given the discretization of the boundary condition values $u_{{bc}}(t)$
    of shape [batch_size, T+1], you need to implement a solver that:
1. Computes the fixed initial condition for the given spatial grid
2. Solves the heat equation forward in time while enforcing the
    time-varying boundary conditions
3. Returns the solution of shape [batch_size, T+1, N] where N=1023
    (interior spatial points)

In particular, your code should be tailored to the case where
    $\\nu={opinf_heat_nu}$, i.e., optimizing it particularly for this
    use case.

**Important implementation notes**:
- Use **1023 interior spatial points** (not including boundaries at x=0
    and x=1)
- The domain is $x \\in [0,1]$ with $dx \\approx 9.766 \\times 10^{{-4}}$
- Time horizon is $T=1.0$ with 1001 time points ($dt = 10^{{-3}}$)
- The boundary conditions must be enforced at every time step
- Consider using implicit methods (e.g., BDF, Crank-Nicolson) for
    stability
- Use finite difference for spatial discretization (2nd order central
    differences recommended)
'''


burgers_description = '''
The PDE is the 1D Burgers equation with asymmetric time-varying
    Dirichlet boundary conditions and a localized source term, given by

\\[
\\begin{{cases}}
\\partial_t u(t, x) + u(t, x) \\partial_x u(t, x) = \\nu
    \\partial_{{xx}} u(t, x) + s(x) \\cdot w_3(t), & x \\in (0,1), \; t
    \\in (0,T] \\\\
u(0, x) = u_0(x), & x \\in (0,1) \\\\
u(t, 0) = w_1(t), & t \\in (0,T] \\\\
u(t, 1) = w_2(t), & t \\in (0,T]
\\end{{cases}}
\\]

where $\\nu$ is the viscosity coefficient, and we have **three
    time-varying input functions** provided as arrays:
- $w_1(t)$: Left boundary condition (shape [batch_size, T+1])
- $w_2(t)$: Right boundary condition (shape [batch_size, T+1])
- $w_3(t)$: Source term temporal modulation (shape [batch_size, T+1])

**Initial Condition (Variable)**: The initial condition depends on the
    boundary values at $t=0$ and must be computed:
\\[
u_0(x) = w_2(0) + 0.5(w_1(0) - w_2(0))(1 - \\tanh((x - 0.3)/0.1))
\\]
```

```
This creates a smooth transition from the left BC to the right BC,
    centered at $x=0.3$ with transition width $0.1$.

**Source Term (Localized)**: The spatial source profile is a narrow
    bell-shaped function centered at $x=0.5$:
\\[
s(x) = \\text{{sech}}^2\\left(\\frac{{x - 0.5}}{{0.05}}\\right) =
    \\frac{{1}}{{\\cosh^2\\left(\\frac{{x - 0.5}}{{0.05}}\\right)}}
\\]
The full source term is $s(x) \\cdot w_3(t)$, where $w_3(t)$ modulates
    the source strength in time (element-wise multiplication for each
    spatial point).

**Boundary Conditions (Asymmetric, Time-varying)**: The left and right
    boundaries have **independent** time-varying values $w_1(t) \\neq
    w_2(t)$.

Given the discretization of the boundary functions $w_1(t)$, $w_2(t)$,
    and source modulation $w_3(t)$ (each of shape [batch_size, T+1]),
    you need to implement a solver that:
1. Computes the initial condition from $w_1(0)$ and $w_2(0)$
2. Evaluates the spatial source profile $s(x)$ on the grid
3. Solves the Burgers equation forward in time with boundary conditions
    and source term
4. Returns the solution of shape [batch_size, T+1, N] where N is the
    number of spatial grid points

In particular, your code should be tailored to the case where
    $\\nu={opinf_burgers_nu}$, i.e., optimizing it particularly for this
    use case.

**Important implementation notes**:
- Spatial discretization: 1001 points uniformly spaced in [0,1]
    (including boundaries) or use spectral methods
- Time horizon is $T=2.0$ with 1001 time points ($dt = 2 \\times
    10^{{-3}}$)
- The source term is localized at the center ($x=0.5$) with very narrow
    width (0.05)
- Boundary conditions are **asymmetric**: $w_1(t) \\neq w_2(t)$
- The nonlinear convection term $u \\partial_x u$ can cause shocks/steep
    gradients at low viscosity
- Consider using explicit methods (e.g., RK45) or spectral methods for
    accuracy
- Pay special attention to handling the localized source term accurately
'''

cavity_description = '''
The PDE is the 2D lid-driven cavity flow in vorticity-streamfunction
    form:

\\[
\\omega_t + u \\omega_x + v \\omega_y = \\frac{{1}}{{Re}}(\\omega_{{xx}}
    + \\omega_{{yy}}), \\quad (x, y) \\in (0,1)^2
\\]
\\[
\\Delta \\psi = -\\omega, \\quad u = \\psi_y, \\quad v = -\\psi_x
\\]

Boundary conditions are no-slip on all walls. The top lid has a
    time-varying velocity:
\\[
u_{{lid}}(x, t) = a(x) f(t), \\quad v=0
\\]
where the fixed spatial profile is:
\\[
```

```
a(x) = 1 + 0.3\\sin(2\\pi x) + 0.2x
\\]
and the input is a scalar function f(t).

Given the discretization of f(t) as an input array of shape [batch_size,
    T+1], you need to implement
a solver that returns the vorticity field \\omega(t, x, y) for all
    times. The solution should be of shape
[batch_size, T+1, N, N] where N=34 (32 interior points plus boundaries).

In particular, your code should be tailored to the case where
    Re={opinf_cavity_re}.

Important implementation notes:
- Initial condition: \\omega(x, y, 0) = 0 and \\psi(x, y, 0) = 0
- Spatial grid: 34x34 uniform grid on [0, 1]^2
- Time step in the full-order model is dt = 0.001 with snapshots every
    0.02
- Use finite differences for spatial derivatives and a Poisson solver
    for \\psi
- Consider small internal time steps for stability
'''
```

Solver templates:

```python

import numpy as np

def solver(u_bc, t_coordinate, nu):
    """Solves the 1D heat equation with time-varying Dirichlet boundary conditions.

    Args:
        u_bc (np.ndarray): Boundary condition values at both x=0 and x=1
            Shape: [batch_size, T+1] where T+1 is the number of time points.
            The same boundary value applies to both boundaries (symmetric).
        t_coordinate (np.ndarray): Time coordinates of shape [T+1].
            It begins with t_0=0 and follows the time steps t_1, ..., t_T.
        nu (float): Thermal diffusivity coefficient.

    Returns:
        solutions (np.ndarray): Shape [batch_size, T+1, N] where N=1023 (interior points).
            solutions[:, 0, :] contains the initial conditions (fixed exponential profile),
            solutions[:, i, :] contains the solutions at time t_coordinate[i].
    """
    # TODO: Implement the solver for the heat equation with time-varying BCs
    #
    # Key implementation steps:
    # 1. Create spatial grid: N=1023 interior points in [0, 1]
    #    x = linspace(0, 1, 1025)[1:-1]  # Interior points only
    #    dx = 1/1024
    #
    # 2. Compute fixed initial condition:
    #    u0 = exp(100*(x-1)) + exp(-100*x) - exp(-100)
    #
    # 3. Set up finite difference matrix for d^2/dx^2 (2nd order central)
    #
    # 4. Time integration loop:
```

```
    #     - Enforce boundary conditions at each time step
    #     - Solve: du/dt = nu * d^2 u/dx^2
    #     - Consider using implicit methods (BDF, Crank-Nicolson) for stability
    #
    # Hints:
    # - Use scipy.integrate.solve_ivp with method='BDF' or implement implicit scheme
    # - Consider using PyTorch or JAX for GPU acceleration
    # - Remember that u_bc has shape [batch_size, T+1] with same values for both boundaries

    return solutions



def solver(w1_bc, w2_bc, source, t_coordinate, nu):
    """Solves the 1D Burgers equation with asymmetric time-varying Dirichlet BCs and source term.

    Args:
        w1_bc (np.ndarray): Left boundary condition values at x=0
            Shape: [batch_size, T+1] where T+1 is the number of time points.
        w2_bc (np.ndarray): Right boundary condition values at x=1
            Shape: [batch_size, T+1]. Note: w1 \neq w2 (asymmetric boundaries).
        source (np.ndarray): Source term temporal modulation w3(t)
            Shape: [batch_size, T+1]. This modulates the spatial source profile s(x).
        t_coordinate (np.ndarray): Time coordinates of shape [T+1].
            It begins with t_0=0 and follows the time steps t_1, ..., t_T.
        nu (float): Viscosity coefficient.

    Returns:
        solutions (np.ndarray): Shape [batch_size, T+1, N] where N is spatial grid points.
            solutions[:, 0, :] contains the initial conditions (computed from w1(0), w2(0)),
            solutions[:, i, :] contains the solutions at time t_coordinate[i].
    """
    # TODO: Implement the solver for Burgers equation with BCs and source term
    #
    # Key implementation steps:
    # 1. Create spatial grid: N=1001 points (including boundaries) or use spectral
    #    x = linspace(0, 1, 1001) for uniform grid
    #    dx = 1/1000
    #
    # 2. Compute spatial source profile s(x):
    #    s_x = 1 / cosh^2((x - 0.5) / 0.05)
    #    This is a narrow bell-shaped function centered at x=0.5
    #
    # 3. Compute initial condition for each batch item:
    #    u0 = w2_bc[:, 0] + 0.5 * (w1_bc[:, 0] - w2_bc[:, 0]) * (1 - tanh((x - 0.3) / 0.1))
    #    Note: u0 depends on boundary values at t=0
    #
    # 4. Time integration loop:
    #    - Enforce boundary conditions at each time step:
    #      u[:, 0] = w1_bc[:, t_idx]  (left)
    #      u[:, -1] = w2_bc[:, t_idx]  (right)
```

```
    #    - Solve: du/dt + u*du/dx = nu*d^2 u/dx^2 + s(x)*source[:, t_idx]
    #    - Consider using RK45 or spectral methods for accuracy
    #
    # Hints:
    # - The source term is localized (narrow width 0.05) - handle carefully
    # - Boundaries are asymmetric: w1(t) \neq w2(t)
    # - Consider using scipy.integrate.solve_ivp with method='RK45'
    # - For spectral methods, use Chebyshev collocation
    # - Nonlinear term u*du/dx can cause shocks at low viscosity

    return solutions


def solver(lid_bc, t_coordinate, re):
    """Solves 2D lid-driven cavity flow in vorticity-streamfunction form.

    Args:
        lid_bc (np.ndarray): Scalar lid velocity modulation f(t).
            Shape: [batch_size, T+1]. The top-wall velocity is a(x) * f(t),
            where a(x) is a fixed spatial profile defined in the spec.
        t_coordinate (np.ndarray): Time coordinates of shape [T+1].
            It begins with t_0=0 and follows the time steps t_1, ..., t_T.
        re (float): Reynolds number.

    Returns:
        solutions (np.ndarray): Shape [batch_size, T+1, N, N] where N=34 (includes boundaries).
            solutions[:, 0, :, :] contains the initial vorticity (zeros),
            solutions[:, i, :, :] contains the vorticity at time t_coordinate[i].
    """
    # TODO: Implement the cavity flow solver in vorticity-streamfunction form.
    #
    # Key implementation steps:
    # 1. Create spatial grid: N=34 (32 interior + 2 boundaries) in [0, 1] x [0, 1]
    # 2. Initialize vorticity omega = 0 and streamfunction psi = 0
    # 3. Enforce no-slip boundaries; top lid velocity: u_lid(x, t) = a(x) * f(t)
    #    with a(x) = 1 + 0.3*sin(2*pi*x) + 0.2*x
    # 4. Time integration loop:
    #    - Solve Poisson: Laplacian(psi) = -omega
    #    - Compute u = psi_y, v = -psi_x
    #    - Advance omega with advection-diffusion: omega_t + u*omega_x + v*omega_y = (1/re) * Laplacian(omega)
    # 5. Return vorticity snapshots over time
    #
    # Hints:
    # - Use finite differences for spatial derivatives (2nd order central)
    # - Consider an explicit time step (dt <= 1e-3) for stability
    # - Use a fast Poisson solver (e.g., FFT or sparse solve) for psi

    return solutions
```

B.2 MOL-LLM

We implement MOL-LLM (Negrini et al., 2025) based on the original implementation, with extensions to support time-varying boundary conditions and 2D PDEs. The model adopts a GPT-2–style

transformer backbone that processes a concatenation of natural-language PDE descriptions and a parallel numeric token stream encoding the initial state, PDE coefficients, and boundary condition (BC) parameters. In addition to the standard coefficient embedding (e.g., viscosity ν or Reynolds number Re), we add the 34-dimensional BC parameter vector that encodes multi-sine boundary or forcing signals in equation 19, equation 24, equation 28 (zero-filled when inactive). This vector is embedded by a dedicated MLP into the same token space and treated as an additional metadata token so the transformer can explicitly attend to BC information. Training is performed over a fixed horizon $[0, T]$ with $t_{\text{len}} = 128$ time points, and solution values are produced by a time-query head conditioned on the initial state and metadata tokens. For the 2D lid-driven cavity equation, the vorticity field is flattened to a one-dimensional vector and downsampled to 128 spatial points to match the model's maximum numeric dimension. Predictions are interpolated back to the original 34×34 grid using inverse-distance weighting for full-order model comparison and visualization. The combined transformer input consists of GPT-2 tokenized text (augmented with number and padding tokens) concatenated with numeric tokens corresponding to the initial state, coefficient vector, and the BC token, enabling unified attention over symbolic PDE descriptions and structured numeric conditioning. The model is trained for 25000 steps as in the original implementation.[2] The text descriptions for each equation used for training is below.

Text Descriptions:

```
{"type": 60, "text": [["The parametric heat equation is ut = nu * uxx
    with time-varying boundary conditions and varying viscosity. We have
    initial condition ="], ["and viscosity coefficient nu ="], ["This
    equation models diffusion with time-varying boundary forcing."]]}
{"type": 60, "text": [["The parametric heat equation is ut = nu * uxx
    with time-varying boundary conditions and varying viscosity. We have
    initial condition ="], ["and viscosity coefficient nu ="], ["The
    viscosity parameter controls the rate of heat diffusion in the
    domain."]]}
{"type": 60, "text": [["The parametric heat equation is ut = nu * uxx
    with time-varying boundary conditions and varying viscosity. We have
    initial condition ="], ["and viscosity coefficient nu ="], ["This
    formulation captures 1D heat transport with parametric viscosity."]]}
{"type": 60, "text": [["The parametric heat equation is ut = nu * uxx
    with time-varying boundary conditions and varying viscosity. We have
    initial condition ="], ["and viscosity coefficient nu ="], ["The
    solution evolves under diffusive dynamics driven by boundary
    inputs."]]}
{"type": 60, "text": [["The parametric heat equation is ut = nu * uxx
    with time-varying boundary conditions and varying viscosity. We have
    initial condition ="], ["and viscosity coefficient nu ="], ["This
    case studies diffusion with parametric viscosity and time-varying
    BCs."]]}

{"type": 61, "text": [["The parametric Burgers equation is ut + u*ux =
    nu*uxx + s(x)*w3(t) with time-varying boundary conditions. We have
    initial condition ="], ["and viscosity coefficient nu ="], ["This
    equation models nonlinear advection-diffusion with a time-dependent
    forcing."]]}
{"type": 61, "text": [["The parametric Burgers equation is ut + u*ux =
    nu*uxx + s(x)*w3(t) with time-varying boundary conditions. We have
    initial condition ="], ["and viscosity coefficient nu ="], ["The
    viscosity controls shock smoothing in the nonlinear transport
    dynamics."]]}
{"type": 61, "text": [["The parametric Burgers equation is ut + u*ux =
    nu*uxx + s(x)*w3(t) with time-varying boundary conditions. We have
    initial condition ="], ["and viscosity coefficient nu ="], ["This
    setup couples boundary driving and interior forcing in 1D flow."]]}
{"type": 61, "text": [["The parametric Burgers equation is ut + u*ux =
    nu*uxx + s(x)*w3(t) with time-varying boundary conditions. We have
    initial condition ="], ["and viscosity coefficient nu ="],
```

[2] https://github.com/enegrini/MOL-LLM

```
    ["Nonlinear advection competes with diffusion and time-varying
    inputs."]]}
{"type": 61, "text": [["The parametric Burgers equation is ut + u*ux =
    nu*uxx + s(x)*w3(t) with time-varying boundary conditions. We have
    initial condition ="], ["and viscosity coefficient nu ="], ["This
    equation demonstrates driven viscous Burgers dynamics."]]}

{"type": 62, "text": [["The 2D lid-driven cavity flow in
    vorticity-streamfunction formulation omega_t + u*omega_x + v*omega_y
    = (1/Re)*(omega_xx + omega_yy) models incompressible viscous flow in
    a square cavity with time-varying spatially-varying lid velocity. We
    have initial condition ="], ["and Reynolds number Re ="], ["The
    Reynolds number controls the relative importance of inertial versus
    viscous effects in the flow."]]}
{"type": 62, "text": [["The 2D lid-driven cavity flow in
    vorticity-streamfunction formulation omega_t + u*omega_x + v*omega_y
    = (1/Re)*(omega_xx + omega_yy) models incompressible viscous flow in
    a square cavity with time-varying spatially-varying lid velocity. We
    have initial condition ="], ["and Reynolds number Re ="], ["This
    equation captures cavity circulation driven by a moving lid."]]}
{"type": 62, "text": [["The 2D lid-driven cavity flow in
    vorticity-streamfunction formulation omega_t + u*omega_x + v*omega_y
    = (1/Re)*(omega_xx + omega_yy) models incompressible viscous flow in
    a square cavity with time-varying spatially-varying lid velocity. We
    have initial condition ="], ["and Reynolds number Re ="], ["Higher
    Reynolds number increases inertial effects in the cavity flow."]]}
{"type": 62, "text": [["The 2D lid-driven cavity flow in
    vorticity-streamfunction formulation omega_t + u*omega_x + v*omega_y
    = (1/Re)*(omega_xx + omega_yy) models incompressible viscous flow in
    a square cavity with time-varying spatially-varying lid velocity. We
    have initial condition ="], ["and Reynolds number Re ="], ["This
    setup models 2D vortical dynamics with time-varying lid motion."]]}
{"type": 62, "text": [["The 2D lid-driven cavity flow in
    vorticity-streamfunction formulation omega_t + u*omega_x + v*omega_y
    = (1/Re)*(omega_xx + omega_yy) models incompressible viscous flow in
    a square cavity with time-varying spatially-varying lid velocity. We
    have initial condition ="], ["and Reynolds number Re ="], ["The
    vorticity-streamfunction form enforces incompressibility in the
    cavity."]]}
```

B.3 LLMs

We directly prompt large language models with the governing PDE, full initial and boundary conditions, external inputs, and a coarse output grid for tractability (heat/Burgers: 16 spatial points $\times$ 41 time steps; cavity: 6×6 spatial points $\times$ 21 time steps), and ask it to return the full spatiotemporal state array in JSON format (3-decimal precision) for a single parameter setting and trajectory. The LLM is treated as a black-box simulator, and its predicted field is compared against downsampled ground truth data using the relative L_2 error. For each parameter instance and equation, the LLM is queried 10 times, and the averaged error over all successful cases is reported. Example prompts are provided below.

Prompts:

```
Heat:

You are given a PDE, full IC/BC specs, parameter values, and input
    signals. Return ONLY a valid JSON object with numeric arrays at 3-
    decimal precision. No extra text, no code fences.
Task: Heat equation u_t = nu * u_xx on x in [0,1].\nBoundary conditions
    : u(0,t)=u(1,t)=u_bc(t).\nParameter: nu = 0.5.\nOutput grid: 16
    spatial points, 41 time steps.\nReturn JSON with fields: equation,
    param, grid_shape, t_steps, x, t, u0, u.\nAll numeric values must
    be rounded to 3 decimals.\nx = [0.001,0.067,0.134,0.200,0.268,0.334
```

```
    ,0.400,0.467,0.533,0.600,0.666,0.732,0.800,0.866,0.933,0.999]\nt =
    [0.000,0.050,0.100,0.150,0.200,0.250,0.300,0.350,0.400,0.450,0.500,
    0.550,0.600,0.650,0.700,0.750,0.800,0.850,0.900,0.950,1.000,1.050,
    1.100,1.150,1.200,1.250,1.300,1.350,1.400,1.450,1.500,1.550,1.600,
    1.650,1.700,1.750,1.800,1.850,1.900,1.950,2.000]\nu0(x) = [0.581,
    0.001,0.000,0.000,0.000,0.000,0.000,0.000,0.000,0.000,0.000,0.000,
    0.000,0.000,0.001,0.581]\nu_bc(t) = [0.581,0.762,0.783,0.686,0.648,
    0.818,1.184,1.564,1.759,1.705,1.527,1.418,1.473,1.605,1.625,1.409,
    1.019,0.655,0.498,0.565,0.705,0.736,0.609,0.452,0.456,0.709,1.109,
    1.442,1.558,1.483,1.391,1.440,1.632,1.804,1.773,1.491,1.099,0.810,
    0.737,0.812,0.848]\nJSON schema:\n{"equation":"heat","param":{"nu
    ":...},"grid_shape":[16],"t_steps":41,"x":[...],"t":[...],"u0
    ":[...],"u":[[...]]}\n


Burgers:

You are given a PDE, full IC/BC specs, parameter values, and input
    signals. Return ONLY a valid JSON object with numeric arrays at 3-
    decimal precision. No extra text, no code fences.
Task: Burgers equation u_t + u*u_x = nu*u_xx + s(x)*w3(t), x in [0,1].\
    nBoundary: u(0,t)=w1(t), u(1,t)=w2(t).\nForcing shape: s(x)=cosh((x
    -0.5)/0.05)^(-1).\nParameter: nu = 0.03.\nOutput grid: 16 spatial
    points, 41 time steps.\nReturn JSON with fields: equation, param,
    grid_shape, t_steps, x, t, u0, w1, w2, w3, u.\nAll numeric values
    must be rounded to 3 decimals.\nx = [0.000,0.067,0.133,0.200,0.267,
    0.333,0.400,0.467,0.533,0.600,0.667,0.733,0.800,0.867,0.933,1.000]\
    nt = [0.000,0.100,0.200,0.300,0.400,0.500,0.600,0.700,0.800,0.900,
    1.000,1.100,1.200,1.300,1.400,1.500,1.600,1.700,1.800,1.900,2.000,
    2.100,2.200,2.300,2.400,2.500,2.600,2.700,2.800,2.900,3.000,3.100,
    3.200,3.300,3.400,3.500,3.600,3.700,3.800,3.900,4.000]\nu0(x) =
    [0.084,0.082,0.077,0.060,0.015,-0.050,-0.095,-0.112,-0.117,-0.119,
    -0.119,-0.119,-0.119,-0.119,-0.119,-0.119]\nw1(t) = [0.084,1.099,
    -1.020,-0.635,-0.467,-1.006,1.104,-0.197,1.551,0.562,0.421,0.978,
    -0.573,1.219,-0.322,0.766,0.327,-0.576,0.454,-1.390,0.491,-0.253,
    0.836,1.754,0.708,2.081,-0.317,0.278,-0.945,-1.321,0.040,-0.923,
    1.531,0.528,1.461,1.244,-0.077,1.020,-0.974,0.595,-0.267]\nw2(t) =
    [-0.119,-0.546,0.115,1.417,0.645,0.414,-0.283,-0.293,0.474,1.305,
    0.912,-0.492,-0.064,0.006,0.848,1.094,0.622,-0.517,-0.451,0.901,
    0.789,0.948,0.092,-0.363,-0.286,1.031,1.299,0.143,0.010,-0.400,
    0.336,0.927,1.299,-0.045,-0.603,0.244,0.519,1.156,0.654,0.035,
    -0.790]\nw3(t) = [-2.453,-1.108,0.170,1.133,1.618,1.573,1.077,0.313
    ,-0.470,-1.018,-1.133,-0.719,0.192,1.447,2.806,3.992,4.757,4.940,
    4.499,3.528,2.232,0.885,-0.234,-0.903,-1.007,-0.566,0.271,1.259,
    2.112,2.570,2.457,1.724,0.465,-1.107,-2.703,-4.019,-4.806,-4.923,
    -4.371,-3.288,-1.923]\nJSON schema:\n{"equation":"burgers","param
    ":{"nu":...},"grid_shape":[16],"t_steps":41,"x":[...],"t":[...],"u0
    ":[...],"w1":[...],"w2":[...],"w3":[...],"u":[[...]]}\n


Cavity:

You are given a PDE, full IC/BC specs, parameter values, and input
    signals. Return ONLY a valid JSON object with numeric arrays at 3-
    decimal precision. No extra text, no code fences.
Task: 2D lid-driven cavity (vorticity/streamfunction).\nEquations:
    omega_t + u*omega_x + v*omega_y = (1/Re)*(omega_xx+omega_yy),
    Laplacian(psi) = -omega, u=psi_y, v=-psi_x.\nNo-slip walls. Lid
    velocity u_lid(x,t)=a(x)*f(t), v=0.\na(x)=1+0.3*sin(2*pi*x)+0.2*x (
    fixed).\nInitial condition: omega=0, psi=0.\nParameter: Re = 120.\
    nOutput grid: 6x6, 21 time steps.\nReturn JSON with fields:
    equation, param, grid_shape, t_steps, x, y, t, u_lid, omega, psi.\
    nAll numeric values must be rounded to 3 decimals.\nx = [0.000,
    0.212,0.394,0.606,0.788,1.000]\ny = [0.000,0.212,0.394,0.606,0.788,
    1.000]\nt = [0.000,0.200,0.400,0.600,0.800,1.000,1.200,1.400,1.600,
```

```
    1.800,2.000,2.180,2.380,2.580,2.780,2.980,3.180,3.380,3.580,3.780,
    3.980]\nu_lid(t) = [0.658,0.728,0.873,0.606,0.826,0.793,0.618,0.890
    ,0.693,0.689,0.891,0.639,0.754,0.856,0.602,0.847,0.767,0.632,0.897,
    0.670,0.714]\nJSON schema:\n{"equation":"cavity","param":{"Re":...}
    ,"grid_shape":[6,6],"t_steps":21,"x":[...],"y":[...],"t":[...],"
    u_lid":[...],"omega":[[[...]]],"psi":[[[...]]]}\n
```

B.4 OpInf-LLM

We collect data and produce reduced-order operators following the settings in Section 4.1, and prompt an LLM to predict reduced-order operators at new parameter values by interpolating or regressing from a set of training parameters with known operators. Specifically, through tool calling, the LLM reasons about whether a query corresponds to interpolation or extrapolation in parameter space, invokes a local interpolation or regression tool to compute the reduced-order operators at the queried parameter value, and optionally validates them via lightweight heuristics. The predicted operators are then used to simulate the reduced-order model (ROM). The key procedures are summarized in Alg. 1. Relative L_2 errors are reported over both the training time horizon and an extended time horizon to assess long-term generalization. System prompts and the provided tools used by OpInf-LLM are listed below.

Algorithm 1 OpInf-LLM

Given: basis number r, regularization intensity λ

Offline:

1: Collect PDE solution data $\mathcal{D}$ as in equation 9 of different parameters ξ, from multiple trajectories with different ICBCs.

2: Identify basis $\Phi := [\phi_1(\boldsymbol{x}), \ldots, \phi_r(\boldsymbol{x})]$ through POD. Specifically, $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{U}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}\mathbf{V}^\top$ with

$$\mathbf{Y} = [y(\boldsymbol{x}, t_1, \xi_1), \ldots, y(\boldsymbol{x}, t_K, \xi_1), y(\boldsymbol{x}, t_1, \xi_2), \ldots, y(\boldsymbol{x}, t_K, \xi_2), \ldots]$$

and $\mathbf{U} = [\phi_1, \cdots, \phi_r, \cdots]$.

3: Identify reduced-order operators A, H, B, c for all parameters ξ in the dataset via equation 8.

Online:

4: Parse natural language PDE solving instruction to obtain parameter ξ and ICBC of interest.

5: Call agentic tools to perform polynomial regression to identify reduced operators A, H, B, c for test parameter ξ.

6: Call agentic tools to integrate ODE to solve reduced dynamics equation 4.

7: Reconstruct full-order solution via equation 3.

Prompts:

```
Parsing:

schema = {
        "equations": ["heat", "burgers", "cavity"],
        "provider": "openai|gemini|deepseek|anthropic|qwen",
        "model_name": "string or null",
        "output_dir": "string or null",
        "save_raw": "true/false",
        "reuse_operators": "true/false",
        "heat_nus": "list of numbers or null",
        "burgers_nus": "list of numbers or null",
        "cavity_res": "list of numbers or null",
    }
    system = (
        "You are a strict parser. Return JSON only. Do not include code
             fences."
    )
    user = (
```

```
        "Parse the prompt into the following JSON keys. Use lowercase
            for equations.\n"
        f"Schema: {json.dumps(schema)}\n"
        f"Prompt: {prompt}"
    )
    messages = [
        {"role": "system", "content": system},
        {"role": "user", "content": user},
    ]

Solving:

**Task**: Predict OpInf operators for a {equation_type} equation at
    parameter \nu = {query_nu}

**Available Data** (already loaded in the system):
- Training parameters: \nu = {nu_train}
- Operators at each \nu: {operator_names}

**Available Tools** (USE THESE IN ORDER):
1. `analyze_parameter_range(nu_train, nu_query)`: Check if \nu={
    query_nu} is interpolation or extrapolation
{step_2}
3. `validate_operators(operators, equation_type)`: Check physical
    constraints

**Instructions**:
1. First, call analyze_parameter_range({nu_train}, {query_nu}) to
    understand the problem
{instruction_2}
3. Finally, call validate_operators with the returned operators and
    equation_type="{equation_type}"

Please solve this step-by-step using the tools.

if method == "regression":
    step_2 = f"2. `simple_linear_regress(nu_query)`: Get regressed
        operators (just pass nu_query={query_nu})"
    instruction_2 = f"2. Then, call simple_linear_regress({query_nu})
        to get the operators"
else:
    step_2 = f"2. `simple_interpolate(nu_query, method)`: Get
        interpolated operators (EASIEST - just pass nu_query={query_nu
        })"
    instruction_2 = f"2. Then, call simple_interpolate({query_nu}, \"
        linear\") to get the operators"

initial_prompt = f"""You are an expert in reduced-order modeling and
    operator inference.
"""
```

Provided tools:

```

# ==============================================================================
# Tool Functions
# ==============================================================================

def interpolate_operators(
    nu_train: List[float],
    operators_train: Dict[str, List[List[float]]],
```

```
    nu_query: float,
    method: Literal["linear", "quadratic", "cubic"] = "linear"
) -> Dict[str, Any]:
    """
    Interpolate OpInf operators to a new parameter value.

    Args:
        nu_train: Training parameter values (e.g., [0.1, 0.5, 2.0])
        operators_train: Dict of operator matrices at each nu_train
                         Format: {"A": [matrix_at_nu1, matrix_at_nu2, ...],
                                  "B": [...], "C": [...]}
        nu_query: Target parameter value
        method: Interpolation method (linear, quadratic, cubic)

    Returns:
        Dict with interpolated operators and metadata
    """
    nu_array = np.array(nu_train)
    operator_names = list(operators_train.keys())

    # Validate method against number of points
    if method == "quadratic" and len(nu_train) < 3:
        method = "linear"
    if method == "cubic" and len(nu_train) < 4:
        method = "quadratic" if len(nu_train) >= 3 else "linear"

    interpolated = {}

    for op_name in operator_names:
        # Stack operator matrices
        op_stack = np.array(operators_train[op_name])  # (n_params, ...)

        # Interpolate element-wise
        interp_func = interp1d(
            nu_array, op_stack, axis=0,
            kind=method,
            fill_value='extrapolate'
        )

        op_interp = interp_func(nu_query)

        interpolated[op_name] = {
            "values": op_interp.tolist(),
            "shape": list(op_interp.shape),
            "norm": float(np.linalg.norm(op_interp)),
            "mean": float(np.mean(op_interp)),
            "std": float(np.std(op_interp)),
            "min": float(np.min(op_interp)),
            "max": float(np.max(op_interp))
        }

    return {
        "operators": interpolated,
        "method": method,
        "nu_query": nu_query,
        "success": True
    }


def linear_regress_operators(
    nu_train: List[float],
    operators_train: Dict[str, List[List[float]]],
    nu_query: float,
) -> Dict[str, Any]:
```

```python
    """
    Linear regression of operators vs normalized nu.
    Fits y = a*z + b per entry, where z = (nu - mean) / std.
    """
    nu_array = np.array(nu_train, dtype=float)
    nu_mean = float(nu_array.mean())
    nu_std = float(nu_array.std()) if float(nu_array.std()) > 1e-12 else 1.0
    z = (nu_array - nu_mean) / nu_std
    z_q = (float(nu_query) - nu_mean) / nu_std

    operator_names = list(operators_train.keys())
    outputs = {}
    for op_name in operator_names:
        op_stack = np.array(operators_train[op_name])  # (n_params, ...)
        flat = op_stack.reshape(len(nu_array), -1)
        X = np.vstack([z, np.ones_like(z)]).T
        coeffs, _, _, _ = np.linalg.lstsq(X, flat, rcond=None)
        a = coeffs[0]
        b = coeffs[1]
        pred_flat = a * z_q + b
        pred = pred_flat.reshape(op_stack.shape[1:])
        outputs[op_name] = {
            "values": pred.tolist(),
            "shape": list(pred.shape),
            "norm": float(np.linalg.norm(pred)),
            "mean": float(np.mean(pred)),
            "std": float(np.std(pred)),
            "min": float(np.min(pred)),
            "max": float(np.max(pred)),
        }

    return {
        "operators": outputs,
        "method": "regression",
        "nu_query": nu_query,
        "success": True,
    }


def linear_regress_operators_batch(
    nu_train: List[float],
    operators_train: Dict[str, List[List[float]]],
    nu_queries: List[float],
) -> Dict[str, Any]:
    """Batch linear regression for multiple nu values."""
    outputs = {}
    for nu_query in nu_queries:
        outputs[str(nu_query)] = linear_regress_operators(nu_train, operators_train, nu_query)
    return {
        "nu_queries": nu_queries,
        "method": "regression",
        "predictions": outputs,
        "success": True,
    }


def analyze_parameter_range(
    nu_train: List[float],
    nu_query: float
) -> Dict[str, Any]:
    """
    Analyze whether query is interpolation or extrapolation.

```

```
    Args:
        nu_train: Training parameter values
        nu_query: Query parameter value

    Returns:
        Analysis of parameter range
    """
    nu_min = min(nu_train)
    nu_max = max(nu_train)

    is_interpolation = nu_min <= nu_query <= nu_max

    # Calculate relative position
    if is_interpolation:
        if nu_max != nu_min:
            relative_position = (nu_query - nu_min) / (nu_max - nu_min)
        else:
            relative_position = 0.5
    else:
        relative_position = None

    # Determine extrapolation distance
    if nu_query < nu_min:
        extrapolation_distance = abs(nu_query - nu_min)
        extrapolation_direction = "below"
    elif nu_query > nu_max:
        extrapolation_distance = abs(nu_query - nu_max)
        extrapolation_direction = "above"
    else:
        extrapolation_distance = 0
        extrapolation_direction = None

    return {
        "nu_train": nu_train,
        "nu_query": nu_query,
        "nu_range": [nu_min, nu_max],
        "is_interpolation": is_interpolation,
        "relative_position": relative_position,
        "extrapolation_distance": extrapolation_distance,
        "extrapolation_direction": extrapolation_direction,
        "confidence": "high" if is_interpolation else "low",
        "recommendation": "Use linear interpolation" if is_interpolation else
                          "Extrapolation detected - results may be less accurate"
    }


def validate_operators(
    operators: Dict[str, Dict],
    equation_type: str = "heat"
) -> Dict[str, Any]:
    """
    Validate physical constraints on operators.

    Args:
        operators: Interpolated operators with 'values' field
        equation_type: Type of equation (heat, burgers, etc.)

    Returns:
        Validation results
    """
    validations = {}

    for op_name, op_data in operators.items():
```

```
        op_array = np.array(op_data["values"])

        checks = {
            "has_nan": bool(np.any(np.isnan(op_array))),
            "has_inf": bool(np.any(np.isinf(op_array))),
            "is_finite": bool(np.all(np.isfinite(op_array))),
            "max_abs_value": float(np.max(np.abs(op_array)))
        }

        # Equation-specific checks
        if equation_type == "heat":
            # For heat equation, A should have negative eigenvalues (stable)
            if op_name == "A" and len(op_array.shape) == 2 and op_array.shape[0] == op_array.shape[1]:
                try:
                    eigvals = np.linalg.eigvals(op_array)
                    checks["max_real_eigenvalue"] = float(np.max(np.real(eigvals)))
                    checks["is_stable"] = checks["max_real_eigenvalue"] < 0
                except:
                    checks["eigenvalue_check"] = "failed"

        elif equation_type == "burgers":
            # For Burgers equation, check H tensor shape
            if op_name == "H":
                checks["shape_info"] = f"H tensor: {op_array.shape}"

        validations[op_name] = checks

    # Overall validation
    all_valid = all(
        not v["has_nan"] and not v["has_inf"] and v["is_finite"]
        for v in validations.values()
    )

    return {
        "is_valid": all_valid,
        "operator_checks": validations,
        "equation_type": equation_type
    }
```

C Additional Results

C.1 Code Generation

While the main text focuses on tool calling for reduced operator prediction at test time, here we explore the feasibility of LLM-based code generation without access to external tools. Specifically, we prompt the LLM to directly generate code for polynomial regression or interpolation to predict reduced operators, as well as an ODE integrator to solve the resulting ROM. Quantitative results using GPT-4o are summarized in Table 5. We observe that, under code generation, the prediction error is comparable to that achieved with tool calling, but the execution success rate is lower. Upon inspecting the generated code, we find that failures primarily arise from data loading and output shape mismatches, as well as formatting issues in data saving, whereas the polynomial regression/interpolation and ODE integration components themselves generally function correctly. Improving interface design and code I/O handling may therefore further increase the success rate in future work.

Prompts used for code generation are shown below.

Prompts:

Table 5: Results for OpInf-LLM with code generation.

Method	Success rate (%) ↑	Heat ↓	Burgers ↓	Cavity ↓
OpInf-LLM (code generation w/ interpolation)	52.2	2.89e−2	3.38e−1	5.03e−2
OpInf-LLM (code generation w/ regression)	44.2	1.33e−2	1.87e−1	1.36e−1
OpInf-LLM (tool calling w/ interpolation)	99.2	1.23e−2	4.57e−1	3.85e−2
OpInf-LLM (tool calling w/ regression)	99.2	1.29e−2	4.91e−1	4.63e−2

```
Heat/Burgers':

COEFFICIENT JSON STRUCTURE (IMPORTANT):
- JSON file at: {coeff_path}
- Top-level keys: equation, n_modes, pod_basis_shape, parameters,
    pod_basis
- parameters is a list; each item has:
  * nu (float)
  * operators: {{A,B,C}} for heat or {{H,A,B,C}} for burgers
  * operators.<name>.values holds the array
- pod_basis.values is the POD basis (space x r) to use as phi

When use_json=True:
- Load operators from the JSON, NOT from per_nu_models in the PKL.
- Use phi from coeff JSON (pod_basis.values).
- Use the PKL model ONLY to read x_grid/x_fine for dx.
"""

    return f"""You are an expert Python programmer.

Generate Python code to:
1) Load model from: {model_path}
2) Load case data from: {data_path}
3) Compute operators for the query parameter using method={method}
4) Integrate the ROM and save output to: {output_path}

USE_JSON={str(use_json)}
{coeff_block}

MODEL STRUCTURE (IMPORTANT):
- pickle with keys: per_nu_models (list of dicts), phi, x_grid or
    x_fine, t_eval
- Each per_nu_models item has keys: "nu", "A", "B", "C" and for Burgers
     also "H"
- There is NO nested "operators" key. Operators are top-level per entry
    .
- Operator shapes (must match exactly): {op_shapes}
- phi shape: {phi_shape} (space x r)

CASE DATA (.npz) contains:
- Y_ref (may be saved as time x space); if Y_ref.shape[0] != phi.shape
    [0], transpose.
- U_ref (may be time x n_inputs); ensure U_ref is (n_inputs x time).
- t_eval (time grid)
- nu (float)

REQUIREMENTS:
- Always read inputs via: case_data = np.load(data_path)
- Always save outputs via this exact call (do not hard-code filenames):
  np.savez(output_path, Y_ref=Y_ref, Y_rom=Y_rom, t_eval=t_eval, nu=
      nu_query)
- Do NOT hard-code any filenames or paths.
- OUTPUT PATH RULE:
```

```
  The runner sets output_path per case/trajectory; you must use
      output_path directly.
  Example only (do NOT hard-code):
    output_path = "codegen/gpt-4o/burgers/regression/
        llm_codegen_burgers_nu0.07_traj12_raw.npz"
- If nu matches a training nu exactly, use that operator without
    regression.
- For method=regression: per-entry linear regression y = a*nu + b
    across training nus.
  Use numpy only (np.linalg.lstsq or closed form). Do NOT use sklearn.
- Regression implementation (stable): flatten operator to shape (
    n_train, n_flat),
  build X = [nu_train, ones], solve X @ coeffs = op_flat using lstsq.
  Then op_query_flat = coeffs[0]*nu_query + coeffs[1], reshape to
      op_shape.
- For method=interpolation: linear interpolation per entry.
  Use flatten-interp-reshape for arrays (np.interp expects 1D values).
- Heat ROM: a' = C + A a + B*u (B is (r,), u is scalar)
- Burgers ROM: a' = C + A a + H(a,a) + B @ u (B is (r x 3), u is 3-
    vector)
- For H(a,a), use: quad = np.einsum('ijk,j,k->i', H, a, a)
- Use solve_ivp(method='BDF', vectorized=False), fallback to RK45; for
    burgers, if needed fallback to LSODA.
- Always use t_eval from CASE DATA (do not use model t_eval).
- Projection: a0 = phi.T @ (Y_ref[:,0] * dx), after ensuring Y_ref is (
    space x time).
- Ensure a is a 1D vector of length r (e.g., a = np.asarray(a).ravel())
     and rom_rhs returns shape (r,).
- In rom_rhs: start with a = np.asarray(a).ravel(); if a.size != r, set
     a = a[:r]; never reshape to (r,1) or (r,r).
- After computing a0, if a0.size != r, set a0 = a0[:r].
- Enforce r = phi.shape[1]; assert A.shape[0] == r and A.shape[1] == r
    before integration.
- Do NOT reference `model` inside helper functions. If a helper needs
    x_grid/dx/phi, pass it as an argument.
- After solve_ivp, set a_rom = sol.y; if a_rom.shape[0] != r, set a_rom
     = a_rom.T.
- Lift: Y_rom = phi @ a_rom.
- Save output with EXACT statement:
  np.savez(output_path, Y_ref=Y_ref, Y_rom=Y_rom, t_eval=t_eval, nu=
      nu_query)
- Do not print large arrays.
- Heat-specific shapes: B is (r,), do NOT reshape it to (r,r).
- Burgers-specific shapes: B is (r,3). u = [w1(t), w2(t), w3(t)].
- If Y_ref time length != len(t_eval), resample each spatial row to
    t_eval using np.interp.
- U_ref handling:
  * If U_ref.ndim == 1, reshape to (1, -1).
  * If U_ref.shape[0] == len(t_eval) and U_ref.shape[1] != len(t_eval),
       transpose.
  * After reshape, enforce U_ref.shape[1] == len(t_eval). If not,
      resample U_ref to t_eval
    using np.interp with a linearly spaced time grid over [t_eval[0],
        t_eval[-1]].
  * For heat, use u = float(np.interp(t, t_eval, U_ref[0])).
  * For burgers, build u vector by interp each row; ensure u has shape
      (3,).

SANITY CHECKS (must pass before saving):
- assert Y_ref.shape[1] == len(t_eval)
- assert Y_rom.shape == Y_ref.shape
- In rom_rhs, return a 1D array (shape (r,)); do NOT return (r,1) or (r
    ,r).

CODE TEMPLATE (use this structure, adjust details):
```

```
1) Load model, extract nu_train and operator arrays per entry.
2) For each operator tensor:
   flat = arr.reshape(-1); stack across nu; interp/regress each entry;
       reshape to op_shapes.
3) Load Y_ref/U_ref; if Y_ref.shape[0] != phi.shape[0] or Y_ref.shape
    [0] == len(t_eval), transpose.
   Ensure U_ref is (n_inputs x time).
4) Integrate ROM; save output.

Return only the complete Python code (no explanations).
"""


Cavity:

Generate Python code to:
1) Load cavity model from: {model_path}
2) Load case data from: {data_path}
3) Compute operators for the query Re using method={method}
4) Integrate ROM with RK4 and save output to: {output_path}

MODEL STRUCTURE (IMPORTANT):
- pickle with keys: per_Re_models (list of dicts), phi, x, y, t_eval
- Each per_Re_models item has keys: "Re", "H", "A", "B", "C"
- There is NO nested "operators" key.
- Operator shapes (must match exactly): {op_shapes}
- phi shape: {phi_shape} (state x r)

CASE DATA (.npz) contains:
- Y_omega (n x time)
- Y_psi (n x time)
- U_lid (time)
- t_eval (time grid)
- Re (float)

REQUIREMENTS:
- Always read inputs via: case_data = np.load(data_path)
- Always save outputs via this exact call (do not hard-code filenames):
  np.savez(output_path, Y_omega_fom=Y_omega, Y_psi_fom=Y_psi,
           Y_omega_rom=Y_omega_rom, Y_psi_rom=Y_psi_rom,
           U_lid=U_lid, x=x, y=y, t_eval=t_eval, Re=Re_query)
- Do NOT hard-code any filenames or paths.
- OUTPUT PATH RULE:
  The runner sets output_path per case/trajectory; you must use
      output_path directly.
  Example only (do NOT hard-code):
    output_path = "codegen/gpt-4o/cavity/regression/
        llm_codegen_cavity_Re120.0_traj2_raw.npz"
- If Re matches a training Re exactly, use that operator without
    regression.
- For method=regression: per-entry linear regression y = a*Re + b.
  Use numpy only (np.linalg.lstsq or closed form). Do NOT use sklearn.
- Regression implementation (stable): flatten operator to shape (
    n_train, n_flat),
  build X = [Re_train, ones], solve X @ coeffs = op_flat using lstsq.
  Then op_query_flat = coeffs[0]*Re_query + coeffs[1], reshape to
      op_shape.
- For method=interpolation: linear interpolation per entry (flatten-
    interp-reshape).
- Modal state dimension is r = phi.shape[1]. Integrate a(t) in R^r.
- Use operators H, A, B, C with quadratic term H(a,a) via einsum:
  quad = np.einsum('ijk,j,k->i', H, a, a)
- Build Y_fom by stacking omega and psi.
- Project with phi.T @ (Y_fom * dA) where dA = dx*dx.
- Integrate with fixed-step RK4 using dt from t_eval.
```

```
- Ensure Y_omega, Y_psi are (n x time) and time length == len(t_eval);
    do NOT downsample.
- If Y_omega/Y_psi time length != len(t_eval), resample each spatial
    row to t_eval using np.interp.
- Save Y_omega_rom/Y_psi_rom with the same shape as Y_omega/Y_psi.
- Save output with EXACT statement:
  np.savez(output_path, Y_omega_fom=Y_omega, Y_psi_fom=Y_psi,
           Y_omega_rom=Y_omega_rom, Y_psi_rom=Y_psi_rom,
           U_lid=U_lid, x=x, y=y, t_eval=t_eval, Re=Re_query)
- Do not print large arrays.
- Use op_shapes exactly; do not reshape to other sizes.
- U_lid handling: if U_lid is not length len(t_eval), resample to
    t_eval using np.interp
  on a linear time grid over [t_eval[0], t_eval[-1]].
- Ensure a is 1D (r,) throughout; do not use column vectors.

SANITY CHECKS (must pass before saving):
- assert Y_omega_rom.shape == Y_omega.shape
- assert Y_psi_rom.shape == Y_psi.shape

CODE TEMPLATE (use this structure, adjust details):
1) Load model, extract Re_train and operator arrays per entry.
2) For each operator tensor:
   flat = arr.reshape(-1); stack across Re; interp/regress each entry;
       reshape to op_shapes.
3) Load Y_omega/Y_psi; build Y_fom; project with phi to get a0 (r x 1).
4) Integrate a(t) with RK4 in r-dim; then Y_rom = phi @ a_traj.
5) Split Y_rom into omega/psi using n = Y_omega.shape[0].
6) Save outputs.

Return only the complete Python code (no explanations).
"""
```

C.2 Full Tables and Visualizations

In this section, we provide full experiment and ablation results. While we consider polynomial regression for predicting reduced operators in the main draft, we additionally consider interpolation methods. Performance for both methods are comparable and the quantitative results are shown in Table 6, with errors in extended time horizon reported. Full ablation results on the number of POD basis and regularization intensity are shown in Table 7 and Table 8, respectively. Additional visualizations are shown in Fig. 5-8.

Table 6: OpInf-LLM full results.

LLM model	Equation	Method	Parameter	Error $[0, T]$	Error $[T, 2T]$	Success rate (%)
GPT-4.1	heat	interpolation	0.5	8.70e−3	5.97e−3	100
GPT-4.1	heat	interpolation	1.0	6.07e−3	5.24e−3	100
GPT-4.1	heat	interpolation	3.0	2.22e−2	1.17e−1	100
GPT-4.1	heat	regression	0.5	8.70e−3	5.97e−3	100
GPT-4.1	heat	regression	1.0	1.02e−2	3.08e−2	100
GPT-4.1	heat	regression	3.0	1.99e−2	7.12e−2	100
GPT-4.1	burgers	interpolation	0.03	4.81e−1	5.96e−1	95
GPT-4.1	burgers	interpolation	0.07	4.33e−1	4.97e−1	100
GPT-4.1	burgers	regression	0.03	4.50e−1	6.56e−1	95
GPT-4.1	burgers	regression	0.07	5.32e−1	6.15e−1	100
GPT-4.1	cavity	interpolation	60	5.74e−2	5.94e−2	100
GPT-4.1	cavity	interpolation	80	3.95e−2	3.54e−2	100
GPT-4.1	cavity	interpolation	90	4.76e−2	4.15e−2	100

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LLM model	Equation	Method	Parameter	Error $[0, T]$	Error $[T, 2T]$	Success rate (%)
GPT-4.1	cavity	interpolation	110	2.51e−2	2.64e−2	100
GPT-4.1	cavity	interpolation	120	4.23e−2	4.34e−2	100
GPT-4.1	cavity	interpolation	140	2.92e−2	2.83e−2	100
GPT-4.1	cavity	regression	60	5.54e−2	5.57e−2	100
GPT-4.1	cavity	regression	80	4.87e−2	5.13e−2	100
GPT-4.1	cavity	regression	90	5.83e−2	5.94e−2	100
GPT-4.1	cavity	regression	110	3.57e−2	4.14e−2	100
GPT-4.1	cavity	regression	120	4.44e−2	4.60e−2	100
GPT-4.1	cavity	regression	140	3.50e−2	3.78e−2	100
GPT-4o	heat	interpolation	0.5	8.70e−3	5.97e−3	100
GPT-4o	heat	interpolation	1.0	6.07e−3	5.24e−3	100
GPT-4o	heat	interpolation	3.0	2.22e−2	1.17e−1	100
GPT-4o	heat	regression	0.5	8.70e−3	5.97e−3	100
GPT-4o	heat	regression	1.0	1.02e−2	3.08e−2	100
GPT-4o	heat	regression	3.0	1.99e−2	7.12e−2	100
GPT-4o	burgers	interpolation	0.03	4.81e−1	5.96e−1	95
GPT-4o	burgers	interpolation	0.07	4.33e−1	4.97e−1	100
GPT-4o	burgers	regression	0.03	4.50e−1	6.56e−1	95
GPT-4o	burgers	regression	0.07	5.32e−1	6.15e−1	100
GPT-4o	cavity	interpolation	60	5.74e−2	5.94e−2	100
GPT-4o	cavity	interpolation	80	3.95e−2	3.54e−2	100
GPT-4o	cavity	interpolation	90	4.76e−2	4.15e−2	100
GPT-4o	cavity	interpolation	110	2.51e−2	2.64e−2	100
GPT-4o	cavity	interpolation	120	4.23e−2	4.34e−2	100
GPT-4o	cavity	interpolation	140	2.92e−2	2.83e−2	100
GPT-4o	cavity	regression	60	5.54e−2	5.57e−2	100
GPT-4o	cavity	regression	80	4.87e−2	5.13e−2	100
GPT-4o	cavity	regression	90	5.83e−2	5.94e−2	100
GPT-4o	cavity	regression	110	3.57e−2	4.14e−2	100
GPT-4o	cavity	regression	120	4.44e−2	4.60e−2	100
GPT-4o	cavity	regression	140	3.50e−2	3.78e−2	100
Gemini-2.0-flash	heat	interpolation	0.5	8.70e−3	5.97e−3	100
Gemini-2.0-flash	heat	interpolation	1.0	6.07e−3	5.24e−3	100
Gemini-2.0-flash	heat	interpolation	3.0	2.22e−2	1.17e−1	100
Gemini-2.0-flash	heat	regression	0.5	8.70e−3	5.97e−3	100
Gemini-2.0-flash	heat	regression	1.0	1.02e−2	3.08e−2	100
Gemini-2.0-flash	heat	regression	3.0	1.99e−2	7.12e−2	100
Gemini-2.0-flash	burgers	interpolation	0.03	4.81e−1	5.96e−1	95
Gemini-2.0-flash	burgers	interpolation	0.07	4.33e−1	4.97e−1	100
Gemini-2.0-flash	burgers	regression	0.03	4.50e−1	6.56e−1	95
Gemini-2.0-flash	burgers	regression	0.07	5.32e−1	6.15e−1	100
Gemini-2.0-flash	cavity	interpolation	60	5.74e−2	5.94e−2	100
Gemini-2.0-flash	cavity	interpolation	80	3.95e−2	3.54e−2	100
Gemini-2.0-flash	cavity	interpolation	90	4.76e−2	4.15e−2	100
Gemini-2.0-flash	cavity	interpolation	110	2.51e−2	2.64e−2	100
Gemini-2.0-flash	cavity	interpolation	120	4.23e−2	4.34e−2	100
Gemini-2.0-flash	cavity	interpolation	140	2.92e−2	2.83e−2	100
Gemini-2.0-flash	cavity	regression	60	5.54e−2	5.57e−2	100
Gemini-2.0-flash	cavity	regression	80	4.87e−2	5.13e−2	100
Gemini-2.0-flash	cavity	regression	90	5.83e−2	5.94e−2	100
Gemini-2.0-flash	cavity	regression	110	3.57e−2	4.14e−2	100
Gemini-2.0-flash	cavity	regression	120	4.44e−2	4.60e−2	100
Gemini-2.0-flash	cavity	regression	140	3.50e−2	3.78e−2	100

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LLM model	Equation	Method	Parameter	Error $[0, T]$	Error $[T, 2T]$	Success rate (%)
Qwen Plus	heat	interpolation	0.5	$8.70\mathrm{e}{-3}$	$5.97\mathrm{e}{-3}$	100
Qwen Plus	heat	interpolation	1.0	$6.07\mathrm{e}{-3}$	$5.24\mathrm{e}{-3}$	100
Qwen Plus	heat	interpolation	3.0	$2.22\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$1.17\mathrm{e}{-1}$	100
Qwen Plus	heat	regression	0.5	$8.70\mathrm{e}{-3}$	$5.97\mathrm{e}{-3}$	100
Qwen Plus	heat	regression	1.0	$1.02\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$3.08\mathrm{e}{-2}$	100
Qwen Plus	heat	regression	3.0	$1.99\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$7.12\mathrm{e}{-2}$	100
Qwen Plus	burgers	interpolation	0.03	$4.81\mathrm{e}{-1}$	$5.96\mathrm{e}{-1}$	95
Qwen Plus	burgers	interpolation	0.07	$4.33\mathrm{e}{-1}$	$4.97\mathrm{e}{-1}$	100
Qwen Plus	burgers	regression	0.03	$4.50\mathrm{e}{-1}$	$6.56\mathrm{e}{-1}$	95
Qwen Plus	burgers	regression	0.07	$5.32\mathrm{e}{-1}$	$6.15\mathrm{e}{-1}$	100
Qwen Plus	cavity	interpolation	60	$6.35\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$6.93\mathrm{e}{-2}$	100
Qwen Plus	cavity	interpolation	80	$3.90\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$3.52\mathrm{e}{-2}$	100
Qwen Plus	cavity	interpolation	90	$4.68\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$4.11\mathrm{e}{-2}$	100
Qwen Plus	cavity	interpolation	110	$2.45\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$2.61\mathrm{e}{-2}$	100
Qwen Plus	cavity	interpolation	120	$4.21\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$4.33\mathrm{e}{-2}$	100
Qwen Plus	cavity	interpolation	140	$2.98\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$3.08\mathrm{e}{-2}$	100
Qwen Plus	cavity	regression	60	$5.54\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$5.57\mathrm{e}{-2}$	100
Qwen Plus	cavity	regression	80	$4.87\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$5.13\mathrm{e}{-2}$	100
Qwen Plus	cavity	regression	90	$5.83\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$5.94\mathrm{e}{-2}$	100
Qwen Plus	cavity	regression	110	$3.57\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$4.14\mathrm{e}{-2}$	100
Qwen Plus	cavity	regression	120	$4.44\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$4.60\mathrm{e}{-2}$	100
Qwen Plus	cavity	regression	140	$3.50\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$3.78\mathrm{e}{-2}$	100
Claude Sonnet 4	heat	interpolation	0.5	$8.70\mathrm{e}{-3}$	$5.97\mathrm{e}{-3}$	100
Claude Sonnet 4	heat	interpolation	1.0	$6.07\mathrm{e}{-3}$	$5.24\mathrm{e}{-3}$	100
Claude Sonnet 4	heat	interpolation	3.0	$2.22\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$1.17\mathrm{e}{-1}$	100
Claude Sonnet 4	heat	regression	0.5	$8.70\mathrm{e}{-3}$	$5.97\mathrm{e}{-3}$	100
Claude Sonnet 4	heat	regression	1.0	$1.02\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$3.08\mathrm{e}{-2}$	100
Claude Sonnet 4	heat	regression	3.0	$1.99\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$7.12\mathrm{e}{-2}$	100
Claude Sonnet 4	burgers	interpolation	0.03	$4.81\mathrm{e}{-1}$	$5.96\mathrm{e}{-1}$	95
Claude Sonnet 4	burgers	interpolation	0.07	$4.33\mathrm{e}{-1}$	$4.97\mathrm{e}{-1}$	100
Claude Sonnet 4	burgers	regression	0.03	$4.50\mathrm{e}{-1}$	$6.56\mathrm{e}{-1}$	95
Claude Sonnet 4	burgers	regression	0.07	$5.32\mathrm{e}{-1}$	$6.15\mathrm{e}{-1}$	100
Claude Sonnet 4	cavity	interpolation	60	$6.35\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$6.93\mathrm{e}{-2}$	100
Claude Sonnet 4	cavity	interpolation	80	$3.90\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$3.52\mathrm{e}{-2}$	100
Claude Sonnet 4	cavity	interpolation	90	$4.68\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$4.11\mathrm{e}{-2}$	100
Claude Sonnet 4	cavity	interpolation	110	$2.45\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$2.61\mathrm{e}{-2}$	100
Claude Sonnet 4	cavity	interpolation	120	$4.21\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$4.33\mathrm{e}{-2}$	100
Claude Sonnet 4	cavity	interpolation	140	$2.98\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$3.08\mathrm{e}{-2}$	100
Claude Sonnet 4	cavity	regression	60	$5.54\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$5.57\mathrm{e}{-2}$	100
Claude Sonnet 4	cavity	regression	80	$4.87\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$5.13\mathrm{e}{-2}$	100
Claude Sonnet 4	cavity	regression	90	$5.83\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$5.94\mathrm{e}{-2}$	100
Claude Sonnet 4	cavity	regression	110	$3.57\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$4.14\mathrm{e}{-2}$	100
Claude Sonnet 4	cavity	regression	120	$4.44\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$4.60\mathrm{e}{-2}$	100
Claude Sonnet 4	cavity	regression	140	$3.50\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$3.78\mathrm{e}{-2}$	100

Table 7: POD modes ablation for OpInf-LLM.

Equation	POD	Method	Error $[0, T]$	Error $[T, 2T]$	Error $[0, 2T]$
Heat	4	interpolation	$3.35\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$5.81\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$4.78\mathrm{e}{-2}$
Heat	4	regression	$1.96\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$2.39\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$2.21\mathrm{e}{-2}$
Heat	5	interpolation	$1.77\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$3.72\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$2.98\mathrm{e}{-2}$
Heat	5	regression	$3.32\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$7.87\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$6.03\mathrm{e}{-2}$
Heat	6	interpolation	$1.23\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$4.27\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$3.16\mathrm{e}{-2}$
Heat	6	regression	$1.29\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$3.60\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$2.72\mathrm{e}{-2}$
Heat	7	interpolation	$7.18\mathrm{e}{-3}$	$1.94\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$1.47\mathrm{e}{-2}$
Heat	7	regression	$2.03\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$6.00\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$4.44\mathrm{e}{-2}$
Heat	8	interpolation	$1.07\mathrm{e}{-3}$	$9.44\mathrm{e}{-4}$	$1.02\mathrm{e}{-3}$
Heat	8	regression	`unstable`	`unstable`	`unstable`
Heat	9	interpolation	$8.72\mathrm{e}{-4}$	$4.52\mathrm{e}{-4}$	$6.74\mathrm{e}{-4}$
Heat	9	regression	`unstable`	`unstable`	`unstable`
Heat	10	interpolation	$7.83\mathrm{e}{-4}$	$2.40\mathrm{e}{-4}$	$5.54\mathrm{e}{-4}$
Heat	10	regression	`unstable`	`unstable`	`unstable`
Burgers	4	interpolation	$4.09\mathrm{e}{-1}$	$5.31\mathrm{e}{-1}$	$4.58\mathrm{e}{-1}$
Burgers	4	regression	$3.93\mathrm{e}{-1}$	$4.99\mathrm{e}{-1}$	$4.36\mathrm{e}{-1}$
Burgers	5	interpolation	$3.72\mathrm{e}{-1}$	$4.83\mathrm{e}{-1}$	$4.15\mathrm{e}{-1}$
Burgers	5	regression	$3.44\mathrm{e}{-1}$	$4.48\mathrm{e}{-1}$	$3.86\mathrm{e}{-1}$
Burgers	6	interpolation	$4.15\mathrm{e}{-1}$	$7.89\mathrm{e}{-1}$	$5.95\mathrm{e}{-1}$
Burgers	6	regression	$4.13\mathrm{e}{-1}$	$9.63\mathrm{e}{-1}$	$6.94\mathrm{e}{-1}$
Burgers	7	interpolation	$3.27\mathrm{e}{-1}$	$4.81\mathrm{e}{-1}$	$3.94\mathrm{e}{-1}$
Burgers	7	regression	$3.52\mathrm{e}{-1}$	$5.41\mathrm{e}{-1}$	$4.38\mathrm{e}{-1}$
Burgers	8	interpolation	$3.63\mathrm{e}{-1}$	$4.54\mathrm{e}{-1}$	$4.08\mathrm{e}{-1}$
Burgers	8	regression	$3.64\mathrm{e}{-1}$	$4.90\mathrm{e}{-1}$	$4.24\mathrm{e}{-1}$
Burgers	9	interpolation	$3.95\mathrm{e}{-1}$	$5.02\mathrm{e}{-1}$	$4.44\mathrm{e}{-1}$
Burgers	9	regression	$4.70\mathrm{e}{-1}$	$6.46\mathrm{e}{-1}$	$5.50\mathrm{e}{-1}$
Burgers	10	interpolation	$4.57\mathrm{e}{-1}$	$5.47\mathrm{e}{-1}$	$5.04\mathrm{e}{-1}$
Burgers	10	regression	$4.91\mathrm{e}{-1}$	$6.36\mathrm{e}{-1}$	$5.67\mathrm{e}{-1}$
Cavity	4	interpolation	$8.24\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$5.73\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$7.16\mathrm{e}{-2}$
Cavity	4	regression	$8.64\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$6.39\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$7.66\mathrm{e}{-2}$
Cavity	5	interpolation	$7.40\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$5.29\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$6.49\mathrm{e}{-2}$
Cavity	5	regression	$8.00\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$6.22\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$7.21\mathrm{e}{-2}$
Cavity	6	interpolation	$7.27\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$5.29\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$6.40\mathrm{e}{-2}$
Cavity	6	regression	$7.79\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$6.17\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$7.07\mathrm{e}{-2}$
Cavity	7	interpolation	$7.12\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$4.92\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$6.18\mathrm{e}{-2}$
Cavity	7	regression	$7.58\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$5.66\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$6.73\mathrm{e}{-2}$
Cavity	8	interpolation	$7.08\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$4.83\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$6.12\mathrm{e}{-2}$
Cavity	8	regression	$7.62\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$5.53\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$6.72\mathrm{e}{-2}$
Cavity	9	interpolation	$7.08\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$4.61\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$6.05\mathrm{e}{-2}$
Cavity	9	regression	$7.68\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$5.53\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$6.77\mathrm{e}{-2}$
Cavity	10	interpolation	$7.35\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$4.93\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$6.34\mathrm{e}{-2}$
Cavity	10	regression	$7.74\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$5.77\mathrm{e}{-2}$	$6.89\mathrm{e}{-2}$

Table 8: Regularization intensity (λ) ablation for OpInf-LLM.

Equation	λ	Method	Error $[0, T]$	Error $[T, 2T]$	Error $[0, 2T]$
Heat	0	interpolation	$1.23\text{e}{-2}$	$4.27\text{e}{-2}$	$3.16\text{e}{-2}$
Heat	0	regression	$1.29\text{e}{-2}$	$3.60\text{e}{-2}$	$2.72\text{e}{-2}$
Heat	10^{-6}	interpolation	$1.23\text{e}{-2}$	$4.27\text{e}{-2}$	$3.16\text{e}{-2}$
Heat	10^{-6}	regression	$1.29\text{e}{-2}$	$3.60\text{e}{-2}$	$2.72\text{e}{-2}$
Heat	10^{-5}	interpolation	$1.23\text{e}{-2}$	$4.27\text{e}{-2}$	$3.16\text{e}{-2}$
Heat	10^{-5}	regression	$1.29\text{e}{-2}$	$3.60\text{e}{-2}$	$2.72\text{e}{-2}$
Heat	10^{-4}	interpolation	$1.23\text{e}{-2}$	$4.27\text{e}{-2}$	$3.16\text{e}{-2}$
Heat	10^{-4}	regression	$1.29\text{e}{-2}$	$3.60\text{e}{-2}$	$2.72\text{e}{-2}$
Heat	10^{-3}	interpolation	$1.23\text{e}{-2}$	$4.27\text{e}{-2}$	$3.16\text{e}{-2}$
Heat	10^{-3}	regression	$1.29\text{e}{-2}$	$3.60\text{e}{-2}$	$2.72\text{e}{-2}$
Heat	10^{-2}	interpolation	$1.25\text{e}{-2}$	$4.4\text{e}{-2}$	$3.25\text{e}{-2}$
Heat	10^{-2}	regression	$1.22\text{e}{-2}$	$3.33\text{e}{-2}$	$2.54\text{e}{-2}$
Heat	10^{-1}	interpolation	$4.00\text{e}{-2}$	$4.43\text{e}{-1}$	$3.07\text{e}{-1}$
Heat	10^{-1}	regression	$3.44\text{e}{-2}$	$1.09\text{e}{-1}$	$7.97\text{e}{-2}$
Heat	1	interpolation	$4.37\text{e}3$	$4.43\text{e}9$	$3.01\text{e}9$
Heat	1	regression	$5.67\text{e}{-2}$	$8.61\text{e}{-2}$	$7.3\text{e}{-2}$
Heat	10	interpolation	$3.73\text{e}{-1}$	$1.52\text{e}0$	$1.12\text{e}0$
Heat	10	regression	$2.71\text{e}{-1}$	$3.16\text{e}{-1}$	$2.96\text{e}{-1}$
Burgers	0	interpolation	$1.34\text{e}0$	$9.17\text{e}{-1}$	$1.14\text{e}0$
Burgers	0	regression	$2.25\text{e}1$	$2.92\text{e}1$	$2.5\text{e}1$
Burgers	10^{-6}	interpolation	$1.34\text{e}0$	$9.17\text{e}{-1}$	$1.14\text{e}0$
Burgers	10^{-6}	regression	$2.25\text{e}1$	$2.92\text{e}1$	$2.5\text{e}1$
Burgers	10^{-5}	interpolation	$1.34\text{e}0$	$9.17\text{e}{-1}$	$1.14\text{e}0$
Burgers	10^{-5}	regression	$2.25\text{e}1$	$2.92\text{e}1$	$2.5\text{e}1$
Burgers	10^{-4}	interpolation	$1.34\text{e}0$	$9.17\text{e}{-1}$	$1.14\text{e}0$
Burgers	10^{-4}	regression	$2.25\text{e}1$	$2.92\text{e}1$	$2.5\text{e}1$
Burgers	10^{-3}	interpolation	$1.34\text{e}0$	$9.17\text{e}{-1}$	$1.14\text{e}0$
Burgers	10^{-3}	regression	$2.26\text{e}1$	$2.94\text{e}1$	$2.51\text{e}1$
Burgers	10^{-2}	interpolation	$1.31\text{e}0$	$8.91\text{e}{-1}$	$1.12\text{e}0$
Burgers	10^{-2}	regression	$2.96\text{e}1$	$3.90\text{e}1$	$3.32\text{e}1$
Burgers	10^{-1}	interpolation	$8.72\text{e}{-1}$	$6.82\text{e}{-1}$	$7.85\text{e}{-1}$
Burgers	10^{-1}	regression	$1.81\text{e}1$	$5.42\text{e}1$	$3.74\text{e}1$
Burgers	1	interpolation	$3.67\text{e}{-1}$	$6.48\text{e}{-1}$	$5.02\text{e}{-1}$
Burgers	1	regression	$3.31\text{e}{-1}$	$5.53\text{e}{-1}$	$4.33\text{e}{-1}$
Burgers	10	interpolation	$3.52\text{e}{-1}$	$4.92\text{e}{-1}$	$4.12\text{e}{-1}$
Burgers	10	regression	$3.34\text{e}{-1}$	$4.53\text{e}{-1}$	$3.83\text{e}{-1}$
Cavity	0	interpolation	failed	failed	failed
Cavity	0	regression	failed	failed	failed
Cavity	10^{-6}	interpolation	failed	failed	failed
Cavity	10^{-6}	regression	failed	failed	failed
Cavity	10^{-5}	interpolation	$9.98\text{e}3$	$1.09\text{e}4$	$1.05\text{e}4$
Cavity	10^{-5}	regression	$2.14\text{e}{-1}$	$2.83\text{e}{-1}$	$2.5\text{e}{-1}$
Cavity	10^{-4}	interpolation	$9.98\text{e}3$	$1.09\text{e}4$	$1.05\text{e}4$
Cavity	10^{-4}	regression	$2.14\text{e}{-1}$	$2.83\text{e}{-1}$	$2.5\text{e}{-1}$
Cavity	10^{-3}	interpolation	$9.98\text{e}3$	$1.07\text{e}4$	$1.03\text{e}4$
Cavity	10^{-3}	regression	$2.14\text{e}{-1}$	$2.82\text{e}{-1}$	$2.5\text{e}{-1}$
Cavity	10^{-2}	interpolation	$1.01\text{e}4$	$1.2\text{e}4$	$1.11\text{e}4$
Cavity	10^{-2}	regression	$1.95\text{e}{-1}$	$2.56\text{e}{-1}$	$2.27\text{e}{-1}$
Cavity	10^{-1}	interpolation	$4.29\text{e}{-2}$	$3.90\text{e}{-2}$	$4.11\text{e}{-2}$
Cavity	10^{-1}	regression	$9.56\text{e}3$	$1.03\text{e}4$	$1.08\text{e}4$

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Equation	λ	Method	Error $[0, T]$	Error $[T, 2T]$	Error $[0, 2T]$
Cavity	1	interpolation	4.01e−2	3.88e−2	3.95e−2
Cavity	1	regression	8.35e−2	9.60e−2	9.00e−2
Cavity	10	interpolation	2.21e−1	1.51e−1	1.96e−1
Cavity	10	regression	2.37e−1	1.66e−1	2.08e−1

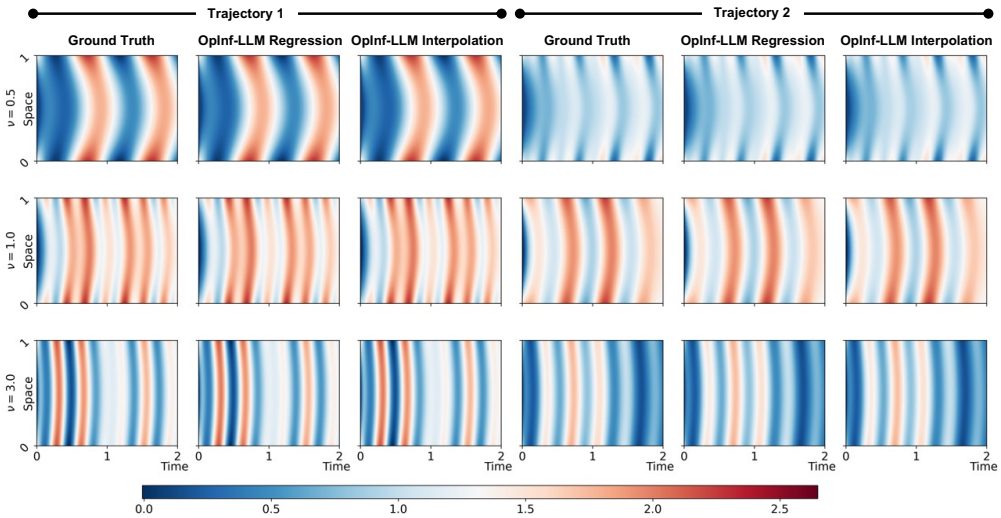

Figure 5: Heat equation predictions of different ν.

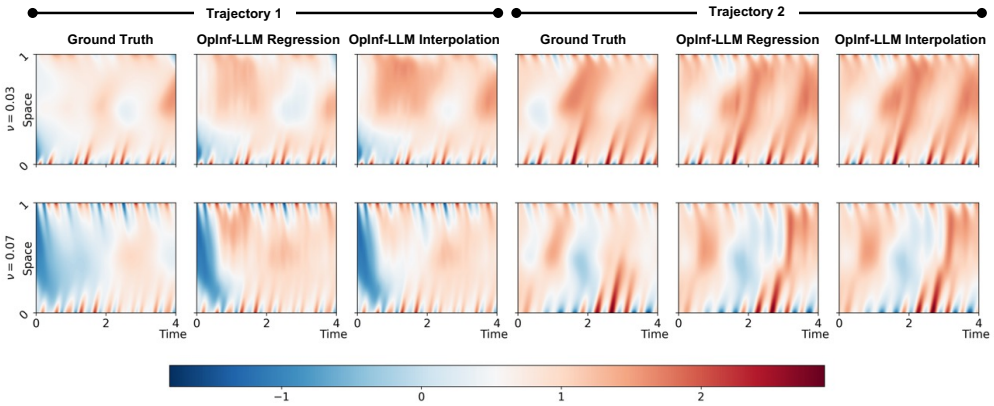

Figure 6: Burgers' equation predictions of different ν.

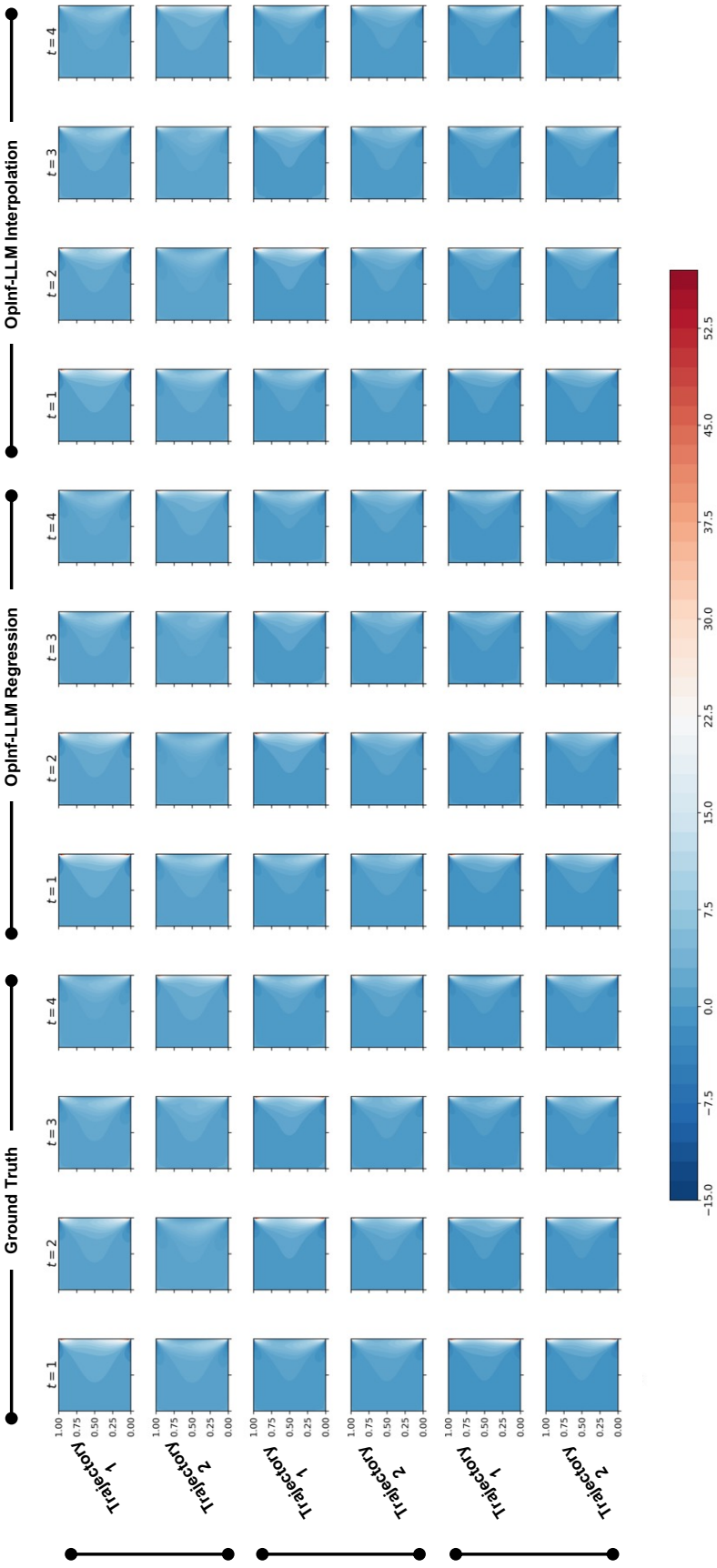

Figure 7: Cavity results across Reynolds numbers.

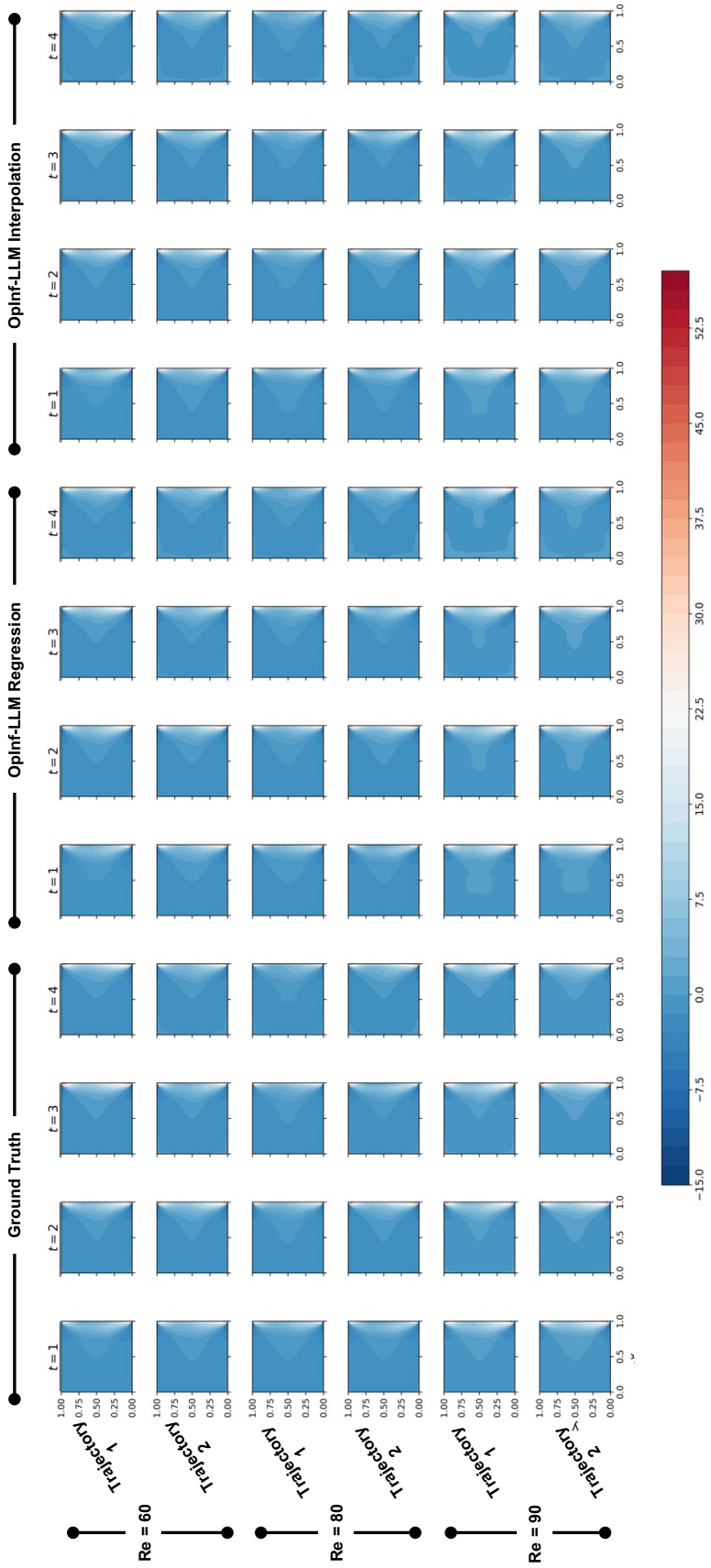

Figure 8: Cavity results across Reynolds numbers.