A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF NEURAL ODE AND UNIVERSAL ODE MODELS IN SOLVING CHANDRASEKHAR'S WHITE DWARF EQUATION

Raymundo Vazquez Martinez National Autonomous University of Mexico raymundo.vm@ciencias.unam.mx

Rajat Dandekar Vizuara AI Labs Purdue University (prior) rajatdandekar@vizuara.com Raj Abhijit Dandekar Vizuara AI Labs Massachusetts Institute of Technology (prior) raj@vizuara.com

Sreedath Panat Vizuara AI Labs Massachusetts Institute of Technology (prior) sreedath@vizuara.com

Abstract

In this study, we explore the application of two pillars of Scientific Machine Learning-Neural Ordinary Differential Equations (Neural ODEs) and Universal Differential Equations (UDEs)-to a cornerstone of astrophysical theory: the Chandrasekhar White Dwarf Equation (CWDE). The CWDE is fundamental for understanding the life cycle of a star and describes the relationship between the density of the white dwarf and its distance from the core. Despite the growing importance of SciML, the systematic exploration of these techniques in astrophysics, particularly in modeling complex ODEs like the CWDE, remains largely unexplored. In this study, we bridge that gap by demonstrating how Neural ODEs and UDEs can be employed for both accurate prediction and reliable long-term forecasting of the CWDE. Furthermore, we introduce the "forecasting breakdown point"-the time at which forecasting fails for both Neural ODEs and UDEs. Through rigorous hyperparameter optimization testing, we assess neural network architectures, activation functions, and optimizer configurations to determine the best performance. This study offers a new lens to understand the physics of white dwarfs and paves the way for future research on using SciML frameworks for forecasting tasks across a range of scientific domains.

1 Introduction

Scientific Machine Learning (Scientific ML) is a growing field with a wide range of applications in various fields such as epidemiology, gene expression, optics, circuit modeling, quantum circuits and fluid mechanics [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14]. This field of Scientific ML leverages the interpretability of scientific structures like ODEs/PDEs along with the expressivity of neural networks. Broadly, the rise of Scientific Machine Learning can be attributed to three popular methodologies:

• Neural Ordinary Differential Equations: The entire forward pass of an ODE/PDE is replaced with neural networks. We perform backpropagation through the neural network augmented ODE/PDE. In doing so, we find the optimal values of the neural network parameters. [15, 16, 17, 18]

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- Universal Differential Equations (UDEs): In contrast to Neural ODEs, only certain terms of the ODE/PDEs are replaced with neural networks. We then discover these terms by optimizing the neural network parameters. Universal Differential Equations can be used to correct existing underlying ODEs/PDEs as well as to discover new, missing physics. [19, 20, 21, 22]
- Physics Informed Neural Networks (PINNs): PINNs are predominantly used as an alternative to traditional ODE/PDE solvers to solve an entire ODE/PDE. We replace the function variable with a neural network and the loss function is determined by the ODE/PDE solution and the boundary conditions. When we minimize the loss function, we automatically find the optimum solution to the ODE/PDE. [23, 24, 25, 26]

Despite the advances of Scientific ML in various fields, there is a lack of applying Scientific ML methods in the field of astronomy. Although there are a few studies aimed at applying Neural ODEs to astronomy problems [27, 28, 29], there is no study investigating the application of Universal Differential Equations (UDEs) to astronomy or astrophysics problems.

In particular, the following questions are still unanswered:

- In the spirit of UDEs, can we replace certain terms of an astronomical ODE system with neural networks and recover them?
- How does the Neural ODE prediction compare with the UDE prediction?
- Can we do forecasting on the system of ODEs with Neural ODEs and UDEs?
- Are UDEs better at forecasting than Neural ODEs?

We aim to answer these questions by looking at a foundational ODE in astronomy and astrophysics: the Chandrasekhar White Dwarf Equation (CWDE) [30, 31]. The CWDE describes the relationship between the density of the white dwarf and it's distance from the center [30, 31]. This equation is fundamental for understanding the life cycle of a star. Using this equation, we can potentially predict when the star will collapse and transform into a supernova.

We use the advanced Scientific Machine Learning libraries provided by the Julia Programming Language [32, 33, 34, 35]. Through a robust hyperparameter optimization testing, we provide insights on the neural network architecture, activation functions and optimizers which provide the best results. We show that both Neural ODEs and UDEs can be used effectively for both prediction as well as forecasting of the Chandrasekhar's white dwarf ODE system. More importantly, we introduce the "forecasting breakdown point" - the time at which forecasting fails for the Neural ODE and UDE models. This provides an insight into the applicability of Scientific Machine Learning frameworks in forecasting tasks.

The paper is structured as follows. We start by presenting the methodology and detailed description for Neural ODEs and UDEs. Subsequently, we present the prediction and forecasting results for the Neural ODEs and UDEs. Finally, we conclude with a detailed discussion of our results, and the future scope of applying Scientific ML methods in astronomy and astrophysics.

2 Methodology

According to Chandrasekhar the equation that governs the structure of degenerate matter in gravitational equilibrium is given by the second-order ordinary differential equation [36]

$$\frac{1}{\eta^2} \frac{d}{d\eta} \left(\eta^2 \frac{d\varphi}{d\eta} \right) + \left(\varphi^2 - C \right)^{3/2} = 0 \tag{1}$$

with initial conditions

$$\varphi(0) = 1, \quad \varphi'(0) = 0$$

This equations is one of Emden type, and therefore a solution exists in the neighborhood of $\eta = 0$ [37]. This equation exhibits the density φ of the white dwarf as a function of the dimensionless radius η . Particularly, the variables η and φ are expected to take real values due to their physical meaning. From this fact, we can entail more restrictions on the behavior of φ and η such as their bounds

$$1 \le \varphi \le \sqrt{C},$$

 $0 \le \eta \le \eta_{\infty}$

Moreover, the density function is decreasing and tends to the lower bound \sqrt{C} , i.e.

$$\lim_{\eta \to \infty} \varphi(\eta) = \sqrt{C} \tag{2}$$

For the computational implementations, the constant C was set to 0.01. The ODE (1) was reformulated as a system of first order ODEs

$$\frac{d\varphi}{dn} = \theta \tag{3a}$$

$$\frac{d\theta}{d\eta} = -\frac{2}{\eta}\theta - (\varphi^2 - C)^{3/2}$$
(3b)

The finite-length η interval in which Chandrasekhar's white dwarf equation is solvable was obtained by implementing a numerical approach in the Julia programming language. For this C value, the set of valid values obtained for η was $D_f = \{\eta \in \mathbb{R} : 0.05 \le \eta \le 5.325\} = [0.05, 5.325]$. Subsequently, the domain D_f was discretized into 100 equally spaced η values. For these η points, the values for both φ and φ' were saved from the numerical calculation of the ODE, resulting in synthetic data characterizing the white dwarf for this fixed C. Additionally, noise was induced into the synthetic data with varying standard deviations, resulting in different training datasets. Specifically, the standard deviations for the added noise were 7% and 35% regarding the synthetic data. These datasets were labeled as moderate-noise data and high-noise data, respectively, while the synthetic data without any added noise was labeled as no-noise data. For the training routines different subsets of these datasets were used to test the forecasting capability of the neural network models. Particularly, the training routines were implemented with the entire, 90%, 80%, 40%, 20%, and 10% of the mentioned datasets.

2.1 Neural ODEs

Neural Ordinary Differential Equations (Neural ODEs) are a class of models that represent continuousdepth neural networks. Introduced by [15], Neural ODEs have opened up new possibilities in modelling continuous processes by using ordinary differential equations (ODEs) to define the evolution of hidden states in neural networks. Neural ODEs are a subset of the broader spectrum of Scientific Machine Learning and Physics Informed Machine Learning. The key idea behind Neural ODEs is to use a neural network to approximate the solution of an ODE, thereby allowing for flexible modelling of continuous-time dynamics [38, 39, 40, 41, 42, 43].

In a traditional neural network, hidden states are updated using discrete layers. In contrast, Neural ODEs use a continuous transformation defined by an ordinary differential equation:

$$\frac{dh}{dt} = f(h(t), t, \theta) \tag{4}$$

Where, h(t) is the hidden state at time t, f is a neural network parameterized by θ and the hidden state evolves according to the function f.

In this work, the selection of the parameters of the Neural ODE model were obtained after a robust search over a range of possible values specific to the training data used.¹ Regarding the entire no-noise dataset, the selected hyperparameters for the Neural ODE model are shown in table 1.

¹Review Appendix A for the specific hyperparameters used for each training dataset employed in this work.

Hyperparameter Values Search Range (0.05, 5.325) $t_{\rm span}$ (0,0.5)-(0,10.0)ReLU, tanh, sigmoid, RBF kernel Activation Function tanh **Optimization Solver** Adam & BFGS Adam, RAdam, BFGS Learning Rate Adam: 0.1 & BFGS: 0.01 0.01,0.02,0.2,0.05,0.1,0.005, 0.006 Hidden units 160 15, 25, 50, 100, 160, 240 Number of Epochs Adam: 80 & BFGS: 100 50-4000 (0,0.2) Loss 4.11e-4

Table 1: Neural ODE range of hyperparameters on training data (no-noise). Hyperparameters for the training routine with the entire available data.

2.2 UDEs

UDEs (Universal Differential Equations) introduced by [19], combine traditional differential equations with machine learning models, such as neural networks, to create a more flexible and powerful tool for modelling complex systems. This approach integrates the robustness of classical differential equations with the adaptability of neural networks, allowing for more accurate and efficient modelling of systems with unknown or partially known dynamics. UDEs offer improved predictive power by combining data-driven approaches with physical laws [44, 45, 46, 47]. This is particularly useful in scenarios where purely data-driven models might overfit or fail to generalize. The physical laws embedded in UDEs constrain the learning process, ensuring that the model adheres to known scientific principles. Compared to purely data-driven models, UDEs often require fewer data points to achieve high accuracy. The known differential equations provide a strong prior that guides the learning process, reducing the amount of data needed for training. This efficiency makes UDEs suitable for applications with limited data availability. The UDE model for the Chandrasekhar's white dwarf equation defined in this work, employed the linear θ terms in (3) as the ground truth model or physical law, as shown in equation (5)

$$\frac{d\varphi}{d\eta} = \theta + NN_1(P, U) \tag{5a}$$

$$\frac{d\theta}{d\eta} = -\frac{2}{\eta}\theta + NN_2(P, U) \tag{5b}$$

Where P are the parameters of the Neural Network (NN) architecture, and $U = (\varphi(\eta), \varphi'(\eta))$ are the input parameters.

The performance of the trained UDE model can be observed further from the recovered interaction or missing term in the original ODE model (3), i.e $NN_1(P_{trained}, U)$ and $NN_2(P_{trained}, U)$

Hyperparameter tuning is a crucial aspect of the UDE model (and machine learning models in general). In this work, the model's parameters were selected after a robust search over a range of possible values specific to the dataset used for training. Regarding the entire no-noise dataset, the selected hyperparameters for the UDE model are shown in table 2.

Table 2: UDE range of hyperparameters on training data (no-noise). Hyperparameters for the training routine with the entire available data.

Hyperparameter	Values	Search Range
$t_{\rm span}$	(0.05, 5.325)	(0,0.5)-(0,10.0)
Activation Function	RBF kernel	ReLU, tanh, sigmoid, RBF kernel
Optimization Solver	Adam & BFGS	Adam, RAdam, BFGS
Learning Rate	Adam: 0.2 & BFGS: 0.01	0.01,0.2,0.001,0.1,0.006, 0.5
Hidden units	15	15,25,50,100
Number of Epochs	Adam: 300 & BFGS: 1000	50-4000
Loss	7.43e-8	(0,0.2)

3 Results

Six cases, corresponding to different percentages of the available datasets (no-noise, moderate-noise at 7% standard deviation, and high-noise at 35% standard deviation), were used for training the deep learning-based models. The results for the Neural ODE and UDE models trained on the full datasets and on 80% of the data available are presented in the main text, along with the breakpoints for the no-noise fraction. Additionally, summary tables are provided for the results across the three dataset fractions: no-noise, moderate-noise, and high-noise. A detailed view of the performance and breaking points of the Neural ODE and UDE models for all data sets is available in Appendix B.

3.1 Training in the full domain (100 η points)

First, the implementation of the Neural ODE and UDE models for the Chandrasekhar's White Dwarf equation (CWDE) were performed in the full domain. The three datasets were implemented: no-noise, moderate-noise and high-noise data. The results for the Neural ODE for these training sets are shown in figure 1:

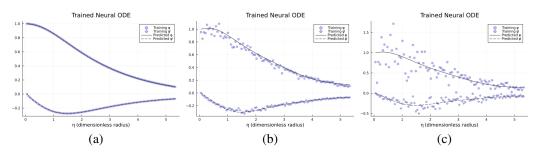


Figure 1: Comparison of the Neural ODE approximation for the Chandrasekhar's white dwarf model. The training of the Neural ODE was performed with varying noise added to the synthetic data in the full solution domain. These training datasets encompassed the values for φ and φ' at the 100 equally spaced η points with varied noise addition. Each figure shows the results for the different training sets: (a) No-noise data (synthetic data) obtained numerically from the white dwarf ordinary differential equation (1). (b) Moderate-noise dataset with a standard deviation of 7%. (c) High-noise dataset with a standard deviation of 35%.

We can observe from the graphs in Figure 1 that the Neural ODE learns the behavior of the Chandrasekhar's white dwarf equation for both φ and φ' . Even with the addition of moderate and high noise into the dataset, the Neural ODE is still capable of effectively learning the behaviour of the density and its derivative function. However, for the high-noise dataset, the Neural ODE misses the decreasing behaviour of the white dwarf's density function, and it predicts values larger than the initial condition $\varphi(0) = 1$. One distinctive aspect of Chandrasekhar's white Dwarf model is the convergence of the density function φ to the square root of the parameter C when η approaches the limit where it is defined (5.325 for our training dataset). This convergence is replicated by the Neural ODE approximation for these three datasets.

The UDE implementation for the Chandrasekhar's model is presented in figure 2. In this figure, we can observe that the trained UDE model approximates perfectly the training data for the synthetic set, even with the addition of moderate data (standard deviation of 7%), the UDE model can express precisely the behaviour of φ and φ' . For the addition of high-noise in the data (standard deviation of 35%), the UDE seems to overfit the training data, leading to a misinterpretation of the φ and φ' functions for $\eta \in (0, 1)$. In spite of this, the UDE recovers the converging nature of the density φ to the square root of C at the bounding η value.

The performance of the UDE can be observed further from the recovered interaction or missing term in the original ODE model. In this case, the missing term happens to be $-(\varphi^2 - C)^{3/2}$ and was recovered from UDE model after training.²

²The recovered term was specific of the dataset used to trained the model. It may not be exact to the analytical expression for the missing term, since the neural network component is learning it out of noisy or partial data. Visit Appendix B to review plots (Neural ODE and UDE approximation, forecasting, and missing term recovered plots) obtained for all datasets in this work.

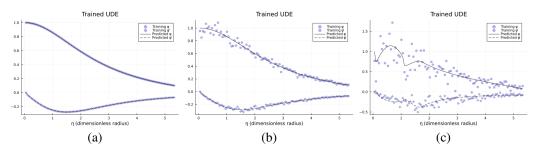


Figure 2: Comparison of the UDE approximation for the Chandrasekhar's white dwarf equation. The training of the UDE model was performed with varying noise added to the synthetic data in the full solution domain. These training datasets encompassed the values for φ and φ' of the 100 equally spaced η points with varied noise addition: (a) No-noise data (synthetic data) obtained numerically from the white dwarf ordinary differential equation (1). (b) Moderate-noise dataset with standard deviation of 7%. (c) High-noise dataset with standard deviation of 35%.

3.2 Training with 80% of the full available data and forecasting

The Neural ODEs and UDEs were trained with smaller data subsets to further evaluate their forecasting capabilities. The previous subsets of no-noise, moderate-noise, and high-noise training datasets were trimmed, forming new training subsets including the φ and φ' values corresponding to the first 80 η points of the full domain. The results for the Neural ODE can be seen in the graphics in figure 3. The trained Neural ODE approximates the training φ data perfectly, but it is slightly off in forecasting the convergence of the density to \sqrt{C} . For the moderate-noise data, the Neural ODE successfully reproduces the behaviour of the φ function and its convergence to the square root of C. Finally, for the high-noise data, the Neural ODE manages to recover the shape of the φ function and its convergence out of this noisy training data.

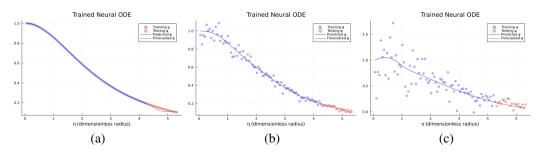


Figure 3: Comparison of the Neural ODE approximation and forecasting for the Chandrasekhar's white dwarf model. The Neural ODE was trained with varying levels of noise added to the synthetic data. These training data subsets included the values for φ and φ' with different noise levels for the first 80 equally spaced η points of the solution domain. The forecasted φ corresponding to the remaining 20% of the η points are shown against the testing data. Each figure shows the results for the different datasets: (a) No-noise data (synthetic data) obtained numerically from the white dwarf ordinary differential equation (1). (b) Moderate-noise dataset with a standard deviation of 7%. (c) High-noise dataset with a standard deviation of 35%.

In figure 4, we observe that the UDE accurately approximates the training data and forecasts the unseen data for the no-noise dataset. Similarly, the UDE model performs perfectly for the moderate-noise dataset. However, with the addition of high-noise to the dataset, there is a noticeable breakdown in UDE performance. The UDE tends to overfit abruptly the training data and fails forecasting the unseen values (testing data).

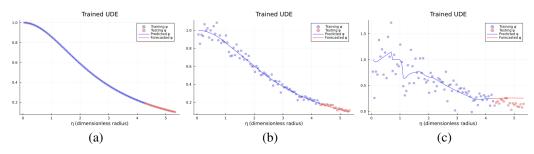


Figure 4: Comparison of the UDE approximation and forecasting for the Chandrasekhar's white dwarf model. The UDE was trained with varying levels of noise added to the synthetic data. These training data subsets included the values for φ and φ' with different noise levels for the first 80 equally spaced η points of the solution domain. The forecasted φ corresponding to the remaining 20% of the η points are shown against the testing data. Each figure shows the results for the different datasets: (a) No-noise data (synthetic data) obtained numerically from the white dwarf ordinary differential equation (1). (b) Moderate-noise dataset with a standard deviation of 7%. (c) High-noise dataset with a standard deviation of 35%.

3.3 Breaking points

The forecasting performance of the models (Neural ODEs and UDEs) were explored further when trained with less data identifying their breaking points for the no-noise datasets. The Neural ODE failed forecasting the unseen data when trained with 40% of the entire no-noise data, while the UDE foracasted well with as little as 20% of the no-noise data available. However, the UDE collapsed when trained with 10% of the data. It is important to point out that both models failed in forecasting when trained with noisy (moderate and high) data percentages before the 40% threshold. The breaking points for no-noise datasets can be observed in figure 5, while the models' performance and breaking point plots for the three datasets fractions are available in Appendix B.

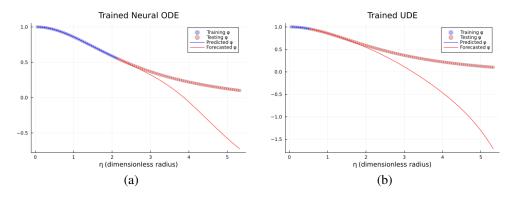


Figure 5: Comparison of the models' breaking point, corresponding to the training data percentage at which the model fails predicting unseen data. a) Neural ODE breaking point occurred when training with (40%) of the available no-noise data. b) UDE breaking point occurred when training with (10%) of the available no-noise data.

3.4 Tables summarizing results

Table 3: Summary of performance for the neural network-based models for the CWDE employed in this work. These results correspond to the null-noise fraction of the datasets (synthetic data).

Method	Neural ODE	UDE
Training loss for the full dataset	4.11e-4	7.43e-8
Forecasting breakdown data subset	40% of the data	10% of the data
Forecasting breakdown η point	2.13	0.53
Training loss at breakdown point	7.09e-5	2.77e-11
Minimum training loss obtained	1.35e-5	5.29e-13

Table 4: Summary of performance for the neural network-based models for the CWDE employed in this work. These results correspond to the moderate-noise (7% standard deviation) fraction of the datasets.

Method	Neural ODE	UDE
Training loss for the full dataset	0.19	0.19
Forecasting breakdown data subset	40% of the data	40% of the data
Forecasting breakdown η point	2.13	2.13
Training loss at breakdown point	0.12	0.15
Minimum training loss obtained	0.03	0.02

Table 5: Summary of performance for the neural network-based models for the CWDE employed in this work. These results correspond to the high-noise (35% standard deviation) fraction of the datasets.

Method	Neural ODE	UDE
Training loss for the full dataset	4.65	3.88
Forecasting breakdown data subset	40% of the data	40% of the data
Forecasting breakdown η point	2.13	2.13
Training loss at breakdown point	4.39	3.96
Minimum training loss obtained	1.04	0.20

4 Conclusion

We successfully approximated the underlying data for Chandrasekhar's white dwarf equation (CWDE) with a fixed parameter C using a trained Neural Ordinary Differential Equation (Neural ODE) model with both noiseless and noisy data. A comprehensive study was conducted to identify favorable hyperparameters and neural network architectures. Ultimately, the combination of ADAM and BFGS optimizers, the tanh or RBF kernel activation function, and a streamlined neural network architecture synergistically contributed to a significant improvement of the models' performance (loss reduction). For all datasets (no-noise, moderate-noise, and high-noise), the Neural ODE model effectively approximated the training data. In terms of forecasting, the model performed well in predicting unseen data when trained with at least 80% of the available data. However, the Neural ODE model to 40% of the available datasets, indicating that while Neural ODEs offer easier modeling without relying on physical knowledge, they require a substantial amount of data to maintain forecasting reliability.

UDEs demonstrated superior performance in data-scarce situations, successfully forecasting for all testing values of the dimensionless radius η even when trained with just 20% of the noiseless available data. This capability is particularly valuable in astrophysics and astronomy where large datasets can be challenging or expensive to obtain. It also offers an advantage due to the efficiency in

computational resources. Furthermore, astrophysical data often contain noise from different sources such as instrumental errors, atmospheric disturbances, cosmic rays, and background light. While most of this noise is impossible to avoid, UDE models can be employed in future investigations to model such noise, encoding it using their neural network component. This capability could lead to the identification of noise sources and uncover unknown interactions within the astrophysical system.

The UDE model's ability to recover missing interactions or contributions from the training data in this project highlights its potential in the data-driven discovery of missing physics. This capability is crucial in astrophysics and astronomy, where the exact form of governing equations might not be fully known due to incomplete theories or observational limitations. In this regard, UDEs also provide a valuable tool for theoretical advancements, refining physical laws, and testing hypotheses, therefore offering a new way to investigate the physics of the cosmos. Beyond their modeling capabilities, The UDE demonstrated strong forecasting power for the CWDE. This suggests that UDEs can enhance the accuracy of predictive models in astrophysics research by leveraging both physical laws (in the form of differential equations) and data-driven corrections (via neural networks). This hybrid approach could improve forecasts of astrophysical events and behaviors, such as stellar evolution, black hole dynamics, or the behavior of neutron stars and white dwarfs. Although the UDE model failed when noise was added in the data-scarce scenario (40% of the available datasets), its performance with noise-free data suggests that it can be highly effective in controlled experimental settings or simulations, even with low data availability.

Applications beyond white dwarfs can be explored, including modeling cosmic ray propagation, understanding galactic dynamics, and simulating accretion processes around black holes. Their versatility makes them a powerful tool for exploring various unsolved problems in astrophysics, offering computational efficiency and effectiveness when data is limited. Overall, the efficiency of UDEs in learning from data and refining model parameters suggests their broad applicability across various scientific and engineering domains, especially those where acquiring data or processing is computationally expensive.

In conclusion, while both Neural ODEs and UDEs effectively capture and predict complex dynamics over shorter intervals, their accuracy and reliability can decline over extended time spans. This underscores the need for continuous model validation and potential adjustments or enhancements to improve long-term forecasting capabilities. The Neural ODE approach offers a black-box-like solution for forecasting and phenomenological modeling when no ground truth is known, but this advantage is contrasted by its need for larger data availability. The UDE model overcomes the problem of extensive data requirement but necessitates a well-known physical model to leverage its learning power. Looking ahead, as scientific machine learning methods are further investigated, a significant focus needs to be placed on forecasting. Most studies in the literature are aimed towards predictions. While the predictive power of SciML methods has been reliably demonstrated, as shown in this study, there are still uncertainties about reliable long-term forecasting. In future work, we will modify the employed SciML models to ensure better forecasting performance, and apply symbolic regression to the recovered terms to discover the symbolic formulations of the terms recovered.

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A Hyperparameters employed for the training datasets

A.1 Case 1: Training with 100% of the available data.

Hyperparameter	Values	Search Range
$t_{\rm span}$	(0.05, 5.325)	(0, 0.5) - (0, 10.0)
Activation Function	tanh	ReLU, tanh, sigmoid, RBF kernel
Optimization Solver	Adam & BFGS	Adam, RAdam, BFGS
Learning Rate	Adam: 0.1 & BFGS: 0.01	0.01, 0.02, 0.2, 0.05, 0.1, 0.005, 0.006
Hidden units	160	15, 25, 50, 100, 160, 240
Number of Epochs	Adam: 80 & BFGS: 100	50 - 4000
Loss	4.11e-4	(0, 0.2)

Table 6: Neural ODE range of hyperparameters on training data (no-noise)

Hyperparameter	Values	Search Range
$t_{\rm span}$	(0.05, 5.325)	(0, 0.5) - (0, 10.0)
Activation Function	tanh	ReLU, tanh, sigmoid, RBF kernel
Optimization Solver	Adam & BFGS	Adam, RAdam, BFGS
Learning Rate	Adam: 0.1 & BFGS: 0.01	0.01, 0.02, 0.2, 0.05, 0.1, 0.005, 0.006
Hidden units	160	15, 25, 50, 100, 160, 240
Number of Epochs	Adam: 80 & BFGS: 100	50 - 4000
Loss	0.19	(0,0.2)

Table 7: Neural ODE range of hyperparameters on training data (moderate-noise)

Table 8: Neural ODE range of hyperparameters on training data (high-noise)

Hyperparameter	Values	Search Range
$t_{\rm span}$	(0.05, 5.325)	(0, 0.5) - (0, 10.0)
Activation Function	tanh	ReLU, tanh, sigmoid, RBF kernel
Optimization Solver	Adam & BFGS	Adam, RAdam, BFGS
Learning Rate	Adam: 0.1 & BFGS: 0.01	0.01, 0.02, 0.2, 0.05, 0.1, 0.005, 0.006
Hidden units	160	15, 25, 50, 100, 160, 240
Number of Epochs	Adam: 80 & BFGS: 100	50 - 4000
Loss	4.65	(0,5.0)

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Table 9: UDE range of hyperparameters on training data (no-noise)

Hyperparameter	Values	Search Range
$t_{\rm span}$	(0.05, 5.325)	(0,0.5) - (0,10.0)
Activation Function	RBF kernel	ReLU, tanh, sigmoid, RBF kernel
Optimization Solver	Adam & BFGS	Adam, RAdam, BFGS
Learning Rate	Adam: 0.2 & BFGS: 0.01	0.01, 0.2, 0.001, 0.1, 0.006, 0.5
Hidden units	15	15, 25, 50, 100
Number of Epochs	Adam: 300 & BFGS: 1000	50 - 4000
Loss	7.43e-8	(0,0.2)

Table 10: UDE range of hyperparameters on training data (moderate-noise)

Hyperparameter	Values	Search Range
$t_{\rm span}$	(0.05, 5.325)	(0, 0.5) - (0, 10.0)
Activation Function	RBF kernel	ReLU, tanh, sigmoid, RBF kernel
Optimization Solver	Adam & BFGS	Adam, RAdam, BFGS
Learning Rate	Adam: 0.1 & BFGS: 0.01	0.01, 0.2, 0.001, 0.1, 0.006, 0.5
Hidden units	15	15, 25, 50, 100
Number of Epochs	Adam: 80 & BFGS: 100	50 - 4000
Loss	0.19	(0,0.2)

Hyperparameter	Values	Search Range
$t_{\rm span}$	(0.05, 5.325)	(0,0.5) - (0,10.0)
Activation Function	RBF kernel	ReLU, tanh, sigmoid, RBF kernel
Optimization Solver	Adam & BFGS	Adam, RAdam, BFGS
Learning Rate	Adam: 0.2 & BFGS: 0.006	0.01, 0.2, 0.001, 0.1, 0.006, 0.5
Hidden units	15	15, 25, 50, 100
Number of Epochs	Adam: 300 & BFGS: 1000	50 - 4000
Loss	3.88	(0,5.0)

Table 11: UDE Range of hyperparameters on training data (high-noise)

A.2 Case 2: Training with 90% of the available data and forecasting.

Table 12: Neural ODE range of hyperparameters on training data (no-noise)

Hyperparameter	Values	Search Range
$t_{\rm span}$	(0.05, 5.325)	(0, 0.5) - (0, 10.0)
Activation Function	tanh	ReLU, tanh, sigmoid, RBF kernel
Optimization Solver	Adam & BFGS	Adam, RAdam, BFGS
Learning Rate	Adam: 0.1 & BFGS: 0.01	0.01, 0.02, 0.2, 0.05, 0.1, 0.005, 0.006
Hidden units	160	15, 25, 50, 100, 160, 240
Number of Epochs	Adam: 80 & BFGS: 100	50 - 4000
Loss	1.68e-4	(0,0.2)

Table 13: Neural ODE range of hyperparameters on training data (moderate-noise)

Hyperparameter	Values	Search Range
$t_{\rm span}$	(0.05, 5.325)	(0, 0.5) - (0, 10.0)
Activation Function	tanh	ReLU, tanh, sigmoid, RBF kernel
Optimization Solver	Adam & BFGS	Adam, RAdam, BFGS
Learning Rate	Adam: 0.1 & BFGS: 0.01	0.01, 0.02, 0.2, 0.05, 0.1, 0.005, 0.006
Hidden units	160	15, 25, 50, 100, 160, 240
Number of Epochs	Adam: 80 & BFGS: 100	50 - 4000
Loss	0.19	(0,0.2)

Table 14: Neural ODE range of hyperparameters on training data (high-noise)

Hyperparameter	Values	Search Range
$t_{\rm span}$	(0.05, 5.325)	(0, 0.5) - (0, 10.0)
Activation Function	tanh	ReLU, tanh, sigmoid, RBF kernel
Optimization Solver	Adam & BFGS	Adam, RAdam, BFGS
Learning Rate	Adam: 0.1 & BFGS: 0.01	0.01, 0.02, 0.2, 0.05, 0.1, 0.005, 0.006
Hidden units	160	15, 25, 50, 100, 160, 240
Number of Epochs	Adam: 80 & BFGS: 100	50 - 4000
Loss	4.58	(0,5.0)

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Hyperparameter	Values	Search Range
$t_{\rm span}$	(0.05, 5.325)	(0, 0.5) - (0, 10.0)
Activation Function	RBF kernel	ReLU, tanh, sigmoid, RBF kernel
Optimization Solver	Adam & BFGS	Adam, RAdam, BFGS
Learning Rate	Adam: 0.2 & BFGS: 0.01	0.01, 0.2, 0.001, 0.1, 0.006, 0.5
Hidden units	15	15, 25, 50, 100
Number of Epochs	Adam: 300 & BFGS: 1000	50 - 4000
Loss	4.06e-8	(0,0.2)

Table 15: UDE range of hyperparameters on training data (no-noise)

Table 16: UDE range of hyperparameters on training data (moderate-noise)

Hyperparameter	Values	Search Range
$t_{\rm span}$	(0.05, 5.325)	(0, 0.5) - (0, 10.0)
Activation Function	RBF kernel	ReLU, tanh, sigmoid, RBF kernel
Optimization Solver	Adam & BFGS	Adam, RAdam, BFGS
Learning Rate	Adam: 0.2 & BFGS: 0.01	0.01, 0.2, 0.001, 0.1, 0.006, 0.5
Hidden units	15	15, 25, 50, 100
Number of Epochs	Adam: 300 & BFGS: 1000	50 - 4000
Loss	0.13	(0,0.2)

Table 17: UDE Range of hyperparameters on training data (high-noise)

Hyperparameter	Values	Search Range
$t_{\rm span}$	(0.05, 5.325)	(0, 0.5) - (0, 10.0)
Activation Function	RBF kernel	ReLU, tanh, sigmoid, RBF kernel
Optimization Solver	Adam & BFGS	Adam, RAdam, BFGS
Learning Rate	Adam: 0.2 & BFGS: 0.01	0.01, 0.2, 0.001, 0.1, 0.006, 0.5
Hidden units	15	15, 25, 50, 100
Number of Epochs	Adam: 300 & BFGS: 1100	50 - 4000
Loss	4.49	(0,5.0)

A.3 Case 3: Training with 80% of the available data and forecasting.

Table 18: Neural	ODE range of	hyperparameters on	training data (no-noise)

Hyperparameter	Values	Search Range
$t_{\rm span}$	(0.05, 5.325)	(0, 0.5) - (0, 10.0)
Activation Function	tanh	ReLU, tanh, sigmoid, RBF kernel
Optimization Solver	Adam & BFGS	Adam, RAdam, BFGS
Learning Rate	Adam: 0.1 & BFGS: 0.01	0.01, 0.02, 0.2, 0.05, 0.1, 0.005, 0.006
Hidden units	160	15, 25, 50, 100, 160, 240
Number of Epochs	Adam: 80 & BFGS: 150	50 - 4000
Loss	1.82e-4	(0,0.2)

Hyperparameter	Values	Search Range
$t_{\rm span}$	(0.05, 5.325)	(0, 0.5) - (0, 10.0)
Activation Function	tanh	ReLU, tanh, sigmoid, RBF kernel
Optimization Solver	Adam & BFGS	Adam, RAdam, BFGS
Learning Rate	Adam: 0.1 & BFGS: 0.01	0.01, 0.02, 0.2, 0.05, 0.1, 0.005, 0.006
Hidden units	160	15, 25, 50, 100, 160, 240
Number of Epochs	Adam: 80 & BFGS: 100	50 - 4000
Loss	0.18	(0,0.2)

Table 19: Neural ODE range of hyperparameters on training data (moderate-noise)

Table 20: Neural ODE range of hyperparameters on training data (high-noise)

Hyperparameter	Values	Search Range
$t_{\rm span}$	(0.05, 5.325)	(0, 0.5) - (0, 10.0)
Activation Function	tanh	ReLU, tanh, sigmoid, RBF kernel
Optimization Solver	Adam & BFGS	Adam, RAdam, BFGS
Learning Rate	Adam: 0.1 & BFGS: 0.01	0.01, 0.02, 0.2, 0.05, 0.1, 0.005, 0.006
Hidden units	160	15, 25, 50, 100, 160, 240
Number of Epochs	Adam: 80 & BFGS: 150	50 - 4000
Loss	4.54	(0,5.0)

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Table 21: UDE range of hyperparameters on training data (no-noise)

Hyperparameter	Values	Search Range
$t_{\rm span}$	(0.05, 5.325)	(0, 0.5) - (0, 10.0)
Activation Function	RBF kernel	ReLU, tanh, sigmoid, RBF kernel
Optimization Solver	Adam & BFGS	Adam, RAdam, BFGS
Learning Rate	Adam: 0.2 & BFGS: 0.01	0.01, 0.2, 0.001, 0.1, 0.006, 0.5
Hidden units	15	15, 25, 50, 100
Number of Epochs	Adam: 300 & BFGS: 1000	50 - 4000
Loss	6.85e-9	(0,0.2)

Table 22: UDE range of hyperparameters on training data (moderate-noise)

Hyperparameter	Values	Search Range
$t_{\rm span}$	(0.05, 5.325)	(0, 0.5) - (0, 10.0)
Activation Function	RBF kernel	ReLU, tanh, sigmoid, RBF kernel
Optimization Solver	Adam & BFGS	Adam, RAdam, BFGS
Learning Rate	Adam: 0.2 & BFGS: 0.01	0.01, 0.2, 0.001, 0.1, 0.006, 0.5
Hidden units	15	15, 25, 50, 100
Number of Epochs	Adam: 300 & BFGS: 1300	50 - 4000
Loss	0.18	(0,0.2)

Hyperparameter	Values	Search Range
$t_{\rm span}$	(0.05, 5.325)	(0,0.5) - (0,10.0)
Activation Function	RBF kernel	ReLU, tanh, sigmoid, RBF kernel
Optimization Solver	Adam & BFGS	Adam, RAdam, BFGS
Learning Rate	Adam: 0.2 & BFGS: 0.01	0.01, 0.2, 0.001, 0.1, 0.006, 0.5
Hidden units	15	15, 25, 50, 100
Number of Epochs	Adam: 300 & BFGS: 1100	50 - 4000
Loss	3.85	(0,4.0)

Table 23: UDE range of hyperparameters on training data (high-noise)

A.4 Case 4: Training with 40% of the available data and forecasting.

Table 24: Neural ODE range of hyperparameters on training data (no-noise)

Hyperparameter	Values	Search Range
$t_{\rm span}$	(0.05, 5.325)	(0, 0.5) - (0, 10.0)
Activation Function	tanh	ReLU, tanh, sigmoid, RBF kernel
Optimization Solver	Adam & BFGS	Adam, RAdam, BFGS
Learning Rate	Adam: 0.02 & BFGS: 0.01	0.01, 0.02, 0.2, 0.05, 0.1, 0.005, 0.006
Hidden units	160	15, 25, 50, 100, 160, 240
Number of Epochs	Adam: 150 & BFGS: 150	50 - 4000
Loss	7.09e-5	(0,0.2)

Table 25: Neural ODE range of hyperparameters on training data (moderate-noise)

Hyperparameter	Values	Search Range
$t_{\rm span}$	(0.05, 5.325)	(0, 0.5) - (0, 10.0)
Activation Function	tanh	ReLU, tanh, sigmoid, RBF kernel
Optimization Solver	Adam & BFGS	Adam, RAdam, BFGS
Learning Rate	Adam: 0.05 & BFGS: 0.01	0.01, 0.02, 0.2, 0.05, 0.1, 0.005, 0.006
Hidden units	160	15, 25, 50, 100, 160, 240
Number of Epochs	Adam: 150 & BFGS: 300	50 - 4000
Loss	0.12	(0,0.2)

Table 26: Neural ODE range of hyperparameters on training data (high-noise)

Hyperparameter	Values	Search Range
$t_{\rm span}$	(0.05, 5.325)	(0, 0.5) - (0, 10.0)
Activation Function	tanh	ReLU, tanh, sigmoid, RBF kernel
Optimization Solver	Adam & BFGS	Adam, RAdam, BFGS
Learning Rate	Adam: 0.2 & BFGS: 0.01	0.01, 0.02, 0.2, 0.05, 0.1, 0.005, 0.006
Hidden units	160	15, 25, 50, 100, 160, 240
Number of Epochs	Adam: 150 & BFGS: 300	50 - 4000
Loss	4.39	(0, 5.0)

Hyperparameter	Values	Search Range
$t_{\rm span}$	(0.05, 5.325)	(0, 0.5) - (0, 10.0)
Activation Function	RBF kernel	ReLU, tanh, sigmoid, RBF kernel
Optimization Solver	Adam & BFGS	Adam, RAdam, BFGS
Learning Rate	Adam: 0.1 & BFGS: 0.01	0.01, 0.2, 0.001, 0.1, 0.006, 0.5
Hidden units	15	15, 25, 50, 100
Number of Epochs	Adam: 300 & BFGS: 1000	50 - 4000
Loss	3.49e-10	(0,0.2)

Table 27: UDE range of hyperparameters on training data (no-noise)

Table 28: UDE range of hyperparameters on training data (moderate-noise)

Hyperparameter	Values	Search Range
$t_{\rm span}$	(0.05, 5.325)	(0, 0.5) - (0, 10.0)
Activation Function	RBF kernel	ReLU, tanh, sigmoid, RBF kernel
Optimization Solver	Adam & BFGS	Adam, RAdam, BFGS
Learning Rate	Adam: 0.1 & BFGS: 0.01	0.01, 0.2, 0.001, 0.1, 0.006, 0.5
Hidden units	15	15, 25, 50, 100
Number of Epochs	Adam: 300 & BFGS: 1500	50 - 4000
Loss	0.15	(0.0.2)

Table 29: UDE range of hyperparameters on training data (high-noise)

Hyperparameter	Values	Search Range
$t_{\rm span}$	(0.05, 5.325)	(0,0.5) - (0,10.0)
Activation Function	RBF kernel	ReLU, tanh, sigmoid, RBF kernel
Optimization Solver	Adam & BFGS	Adam, RAdam, BFGS
Learning Rate	Adam: 0.2 & BFGS: 0.1	0.01, 0.2, 0.001, 0.1, 0.006, 0.5
Hidden units	15	15, 25, 50, 100
Number of Epochs	Adam: 300 & BFGS: 200	50 - 4000
Loss	3.96	(0,5.0)

A.5 Case 5: Training with 20% of the available data and forecasting.

Table 30: Neural	ODE range of	hyperparameters on	training data (no-noise)

Hyperparameter	Values	Search Range
$t_{\rm span}$	(0.05, 5.325)	(0, 0.5) - (0, 10.0)
Activation Function	tanh	ReLU, tanh, sigmoid, RBF kernel
Optimization Solver	Adam & BFGS	Adam, RAdam, BFGS
Learning Rate	Adam: 0.02 & BFGS: 0.005	0.01, 0.02, 0.2, 0.05, 0.1, 0.005, 0.006
Hidden units	160	15, 25, 50, 100, 160, 240
Number of Epochs	Adam: 150 & BFGS: 125	50 - 4000
Loss	6.75e-5	(0,0.2)

Hyperparameter	Values	Search Range
$t_{\rm span}$	(0.05, 5.325)	(0, 0.5) - (0, 10.0)
Activation Function	tanh	ReLU, tanh, sigmoid, RBF kernel
Optimization Solver	Adam & BFGS	Adam, RAdam, BFGS
Learning Rate	Adam: 0.05 & BFGS: 0.01	0.01, 0.02, 0.2, 0.05, 0.1, 0.005, 0.006
Hidden units	160	15, 25, 50, 100, 160, 240
Number of Epochs	Adam: 150 & BFGS: 100	50 - 4000
Loss	0.09	(0,0.2)

Table 31: Neural ODE range of hyperparameters on training data (moderate-noise)

Table 32: Neural ODE range of hyperparameters on training data (high-noise)

Hyperparameter	Values	Search Range
$t_{\rm span}$	(0.05, 5.325)	(0, 0.5) - (0, 10.0)
Activation Function	tanh	ReLU, tanh, sigmoid, RBF kernel
Optimization Solver	Adam & BFGS	Adam, RAdam, BFGS
Learning Rate	Adam: 0.1 & BFGS: 0.001	0.01, 0.02, 0.2, 0.05, 0.1, 0.005, 0.006
Hidden units	160	15, 25, 50, 100, 160, 240
Number of Epochs	Adam: 100 & BFGS: 100	50 - 4000
Loss	1.46	(0,5.0)

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Table 33: UDE range of hyperparameters on training data (no-noise)

Hyperparameter	Values	Search Range
$t_{\rm span}$	(0.05, 5.325)	(0,0.5) - (0,10.0)
Activation Function	RBF kernel	ReLU, tanh, sigmoid, RBF kernel
Optimization Solver	Adam & BFGS	Adam, RAdam, BFGS
Learning Rate	Adam: 0.2 & BFGS: 0.01	0.01, 0.2, 0.001, 0.1, 0.006, 0.5
Hidden units	15	15, 25, 50, 100
Number of Epochs	Adam: 300 & BFGS: 1000	50 - 4000
Loss	5.29e-13	(0,0.2)

Table 34: UDE range of hyperparameters on training data (moderate-noise)

Hyperparameter	Values	Search Range
$t_{\rm span}$	(0.05, 5.325)	(0, 0.5) - (0, 10.0)
Activation Function	RBF kernel	ReLU, tanh, sigmoid, RBF kernel
Optimization Solver	Adam & BFGS	Adam, RAdam, BFGS
Learning Rate	Adam: 0.2 & BFGS: 0.001	0.01, 0.2, 0.001, 0.1, 0.006, 0.5
Hidden units	15	15, 25, 50, 100
Number of Epochs	Adam: 300 & BFGS: 1500	50 - 4000
Loss	0.09	(0,0.2)

Hyperparameter	Values	Search Range
$t_{\rm span}$	(0.05, 5.325)	(0, 0.5) - (0, 10.0)
Activation Function	RBF kernel	ReLU, tanh, sigmoid, RBF kernel
Optimization Solver	Adam & BFGS	Adam, RAdam, BFGS
Learning Rate	Adam: 0.2 & BFGS: 0.01	0.01, 0.2, 0.001, 0.1, 0.006, 0.5
Hidden units	15	15, 25, 50, 100
Number of Epochs	Adam: 300 & BFGS: 1100	50 - 4000
Loss	2.15	(0,5.0)

Table 35: UDE Range of hyperparameters on training data (high-noise)

A.6 Case 6: Training with 10% of the available data and forecasting.

Table 36: Neural ODE range of hyperparameters on training data (no-noise)

Hyperparameter	Values	Search Range
$t_{\rm span}$	(0.05, 5.325)	(0, 0.5) - (0, 10.0)
Activation Function	tanh	ReLU, tanh, sigmoid, RBF kernel
Optimization Solver	Adam & BFGS	Adam, RAdam, BFGS
Learning Rate	Adam: 0.02 & BFGS: 0.005	0.01, 0.02, 0.2, 0.05, 0.1, 0.005, 0.006
Hidden units	160	15, 25, 50, 100, 160, 240
Number of Epochs	Adam: 150 & BFGS: 125	50 - 4000
Loss	1.35e-5	(0,0.2)

Table 37: Neural ODE range of hyperparameters on training data (moderate-noise)

Hyperparameter	Values	Search Range
$t_{\rm span}$	(0.05, 5.325)	(0, 0.5) - (0, 10.0)
Activation Function	tanh	ReLU, tanh, sigmoid, RBF kernel
Optimization Solver	Adam & BFGS	Adam, RAdam, BFGS
Learning Rate	Adam: 0.05 & BFGS: 0.01	0.01, 0.02, 0.2, 0.05, 0.1, 0.005, 0.006
Hidden units	160	15, 25, 50, 100, 160, 240
Number of Epochs	Adam: 150 & BFGS: 100	50 - 4000
Loss	0.03	(0,0.2)

Table 38: Neural ODE range of hyperparameters on training data (high-noise)

Hyperparameter	Values	Search Range
$t_{\rm span}$	(0.05, 5.325)	(0, 0.5) - (0, 10.0)
Activation Function	tanh	ReLU, tanh, sigmoid, RBF kernel
Optimization Solver	Adam & BFGS	Adam, RAdam, BFGS
Learning Rate	Adam: 0.1 & BFGS: 0.001	0.01, 0.02, 0.2, 0.05, 0.1, 0.005, 0.006
Hidden units	160	15, 25, 50, 100, 160, 240
Number of Epochs	Adam: 100 & BFGS: 100	50 - 4000
Loss	1.04	(0,5.0)

Hyperparameter	Values	Search Range
$t_{\rm span}$	(0.05, 5.325)	(0, 0.5) - (0, 10.0)
Activation Function	RBF kernel	ReLU, tanh, sigmoid, RBF kernel
Optimization Solver	Adam & BFGS	Adam, RAdam, BFGS
Learning Rate	Adam: 0.2 & BFGS: 0.01	0.01, 0.2, 0.001, 0.1, 0.006, 0.5
Hidden units	15	15, 25, 50, 100
Number of Epochs	Adam: 300 & BFGS: 1000	50 - 4000
Loss	2.77e-11	(0,0.2)

Table 39: UDE range of hyperparameters on training data (no-noise)

Table 40: UDE range of hyperparameters on training data (moderate-noise)

Hyperparameter	Values	Search Range
t _{span}	(0.05, 5.325)	(0,0.5) - (0,10.0)
Activation Function	RBF kernel	ReLU, tanh, sigmoid, RBF kernel
Optimization Solver	Adam & BFGS	Adam, RAdam, BFGS
Learning Rate	Adam: 0.2 & BFGS: 0.001	0.01, 0.2, 0.001, 0.1, 0.006, 0.5
Hidden units	15	15, 25, 50, 100
Number of Epochs	Adam: 300 & BFGS: 1500	50 - 4000
Loss	0.02	(0,0.2)

Table 41: UDE range of hyperparameters on training data (high-noise)

Hyperparameter	Values	Search Range
$t_{\rm span}$	(0.05, 5.325)	(0, 0.5) - (0, 10.0)
Activation Function	RBF kernel	ReLU, tanh, sigmoid, RBF kernel
Optimization Solver	Adam & BFGS	Adam, RAdam, BFGS
Learning Rate	Adam: 0.2 & BFGS: 0.01	0.01, 0.2, 0.001, 0.1, 0.006, 0.5
Hidden units	15	15, 25, 50, 100
Number of Epochs	Adam: 300 & BFGS: 200	50 - 4000
Loss	0.20	(0,4.0)

B Approximation and forecasting performance for all training datasets

B.1 Case 1: Training in the full domain (100 η points)



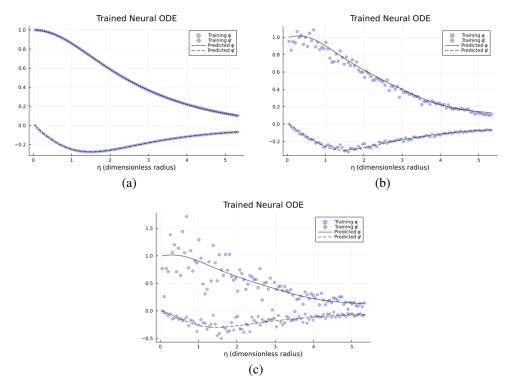


Figure 6: Comparison of the Neural ODE approximation for the Chandrasekhar's white dwarf model. The training of the Neural ODE was performed with varying noise added to the synthetic data in the full solution domain. These training datasets encompassed the values for φ and φ' at the 100 equally spaced η points with varied noise addition. Each figure shows the results for the different training sets: (a) No-noise data (synthetic data) obtained numerically from the white dwarf ordinary differential equation (1). (b) Moderate-noise dataset with a standard deviation of 7%. (c) High-noise dataset with a standard deviation of 35%.

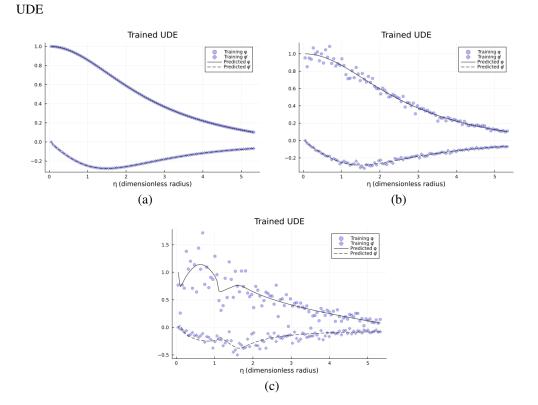


Figure 7: Comparison of the UDE approximation for the Chandrasekhar's white dwarf equation. The training of the UDE model was performed with varyng noise added to the synthetic data in the full solution domain. These training datasets encompassed the values for φ and φ' of the 100 equally spaced η points with varied noise addition: (a) No-noise data (synthetic data) obtained numerically from the white dwarf ordinary differential equation (1). (b) Moderate-noise dataset with standard deviation of 7%. (c) High-noise dataset with standard deviation of 35%.

Missing term recovered

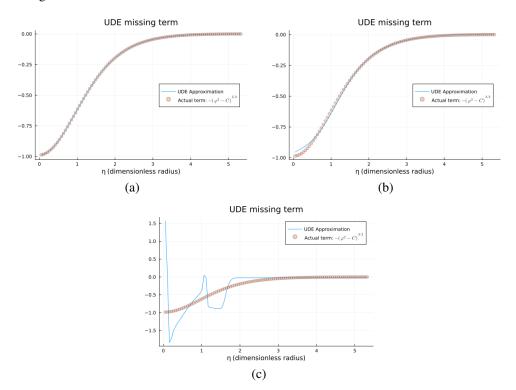


Figure 8: Comparison of the approximated missing term in the Chandrasekhar's white dwarf UDE model for the different training datasets: (a) No-noise dataset (synthetic data) set encompassing the numerically obtained values for φ and φ' within the solution domain $(0, \eta_{\infty})$. (b) Moderate-noise dataset with standard deviation of 7% added directly to the synthetic data. (c) High-noise dataset with standard deviation of 35% added directly to the synthetic data.

B.2 Case 2: Training with 90% of the full available data and forecasting



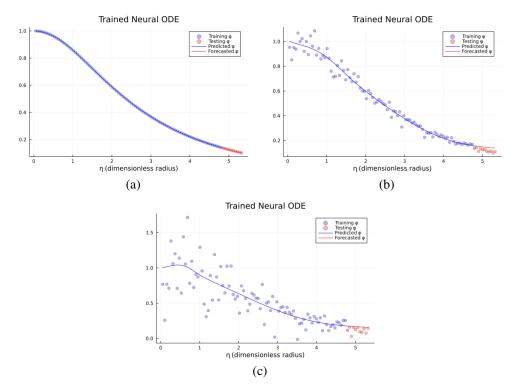


Figure 9: Comparison of the Neural ODE approximation and forecasting for the Chandrasekhar's white dwarf model. The training of the Neural ODE was performed with varying noise added to the synthetic data. These training data subsets encompassed the values for φ and φ' with varied noise levels added to the first 90 equally spaced η points of the solution domain. The forecasted φ corresponding to the remaining 10% of the η points are shown against the testing data. Each figure shows the results for the different datasets: (a) No-noise data (synthetic data) obtained numerically from the white dwarf ordinary differential equation (1). (b) Moderate-noise dataset with a standard deviation of 35%.

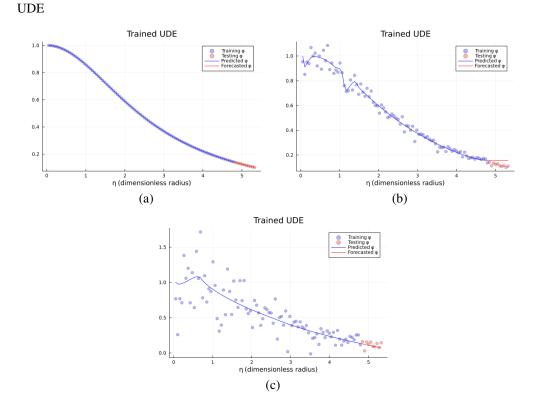


Figure 10: Comparison of the UDE approximation and forecasting for the Chandrasekhar's white dwarf model. The training of the UDE was performed with varying noise added to the synthetic data. These training data subsets encompassed the values for φ and φ' with varied noise addition for the first 90 equally spaced η points of the solution domain. The forecasted φ corresponding to the remaining 10% of the η points are shown against the testing data. Each figure shows the results for the different datasets: (a) No-noise data (synthetic data) obtained numerically from the white dwarf ordinary differential equation (1). (b) Moderate-noise dataset with a standard deviation of 7%. (c) High-noise dataset with a standard deviation of 35%.

Missing term recovered

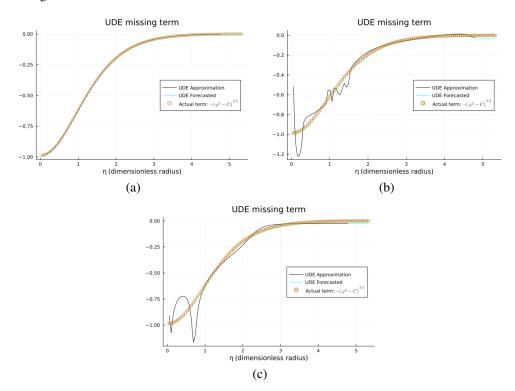


Figure 11: Comparison of the approximated missing term in the Chandrasekhar's white dwarf UDE model trained with 90% of the full available datasets: (a) No-noise data (synthetic data). (b) Moderate-noise dataset with a standard deviation of 7% added directly to the synthetic data. (c) High-noise dataset with a standard deviation of 35% added directly to the synthetic data.

B.3 Case 3: Training with 80% of the full available data and forecasting

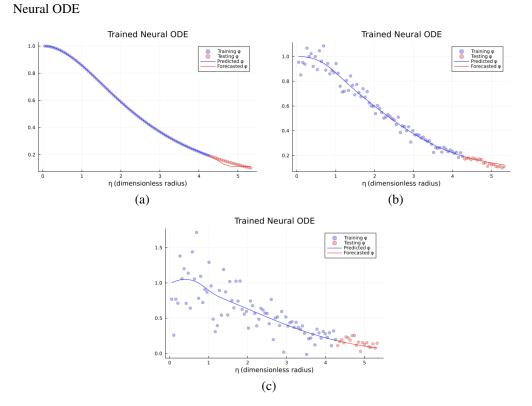


Figure 12: Comparison of the Neural ODE approximation and forecasting for the Chandrasekhar's white dwarf model. The Neural ODE was trained with varying levels of noise added to the synthetic data. These training data subsets included the values for φ and φ' with different noise levels for the first 80 equally spaced η points of the solution domain. The forecasted φ corresponding to the remaining 20% of the η points are shown against the testing data. Each figure shows the results for the different datasets: (a) No-noise data (synthetic data) obtained numerically from the white dwarf ordinary differential equation (1). (b) Moderate-noise dataset with a standard deviation of 7%. (c) High-noise dataset with a standard deviation of 35%.

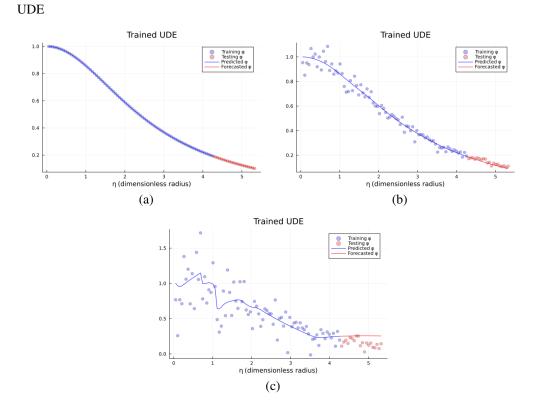


Figure 13: Comparison of the UDE approximation and forecasting for the Chandrasekhar's white dwarf model. The UDE was trained with varying levels of noise added to the synthetic data. These training data subsets included the values for φ and φ' different noise levels for the first 80 equally spaced η points of the solution domain. The forecasted φ corresponding to the remaining 20% of the η points are shown against the testing data. Each figure shows the results for the different datasets: (a) No-noise data (synthetic data) obtained numerically from the white dwarf ordinary differential equation (1). (b) Moderate-noise dataset with a standard deviation of 7%. (c) High-noise dataset with a standard deviation of 35%.

Missing recovered term

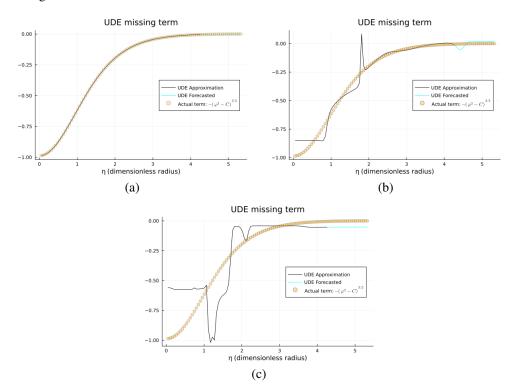


Figure 14: Comparison of the approximated missing term in the Chandrasekhar's white dwarf UDE model trained with 80% of the full available datasets: (a) No-noise data (synthetic data). (b) Moderate-noise dataset with a standard deviation of 7% added directly to the synthetic data. (c) High-noise dataset with a standard deviation of 35% added directly to the synthetic data.

B.4 Case 4: Training with 40% of the full available data and forecasting



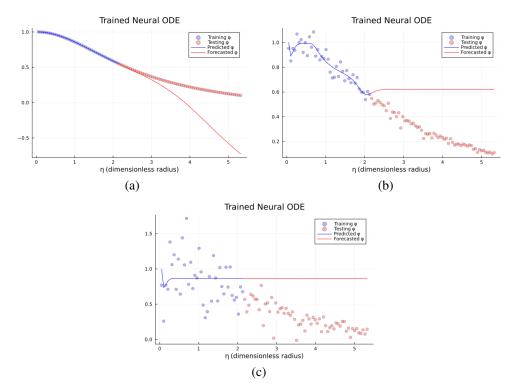


Figure 15: Comparison of the Neural ODE approximation and forecasting for the Chandrasekhar's white dwarf model. The Neural ODE was trained with varying levels of noise added to the synthetic data. These training data subsets included the values for φ and φ' with different noise levels for the first 40 equally spaced η points of the solution domain. The forecasted φ values corresponding to the remaining 60% of the η points are shown against the testing data. Each figure shows the results for the different datasets: (a) No-noise data (synthetic data) obtained numerically from the white dwarf ordinary differential equation (1). (b) Moderate-noise dataset with a standard deviation of 7%. (c) High-noise dataset with a standard deviation of 35%.

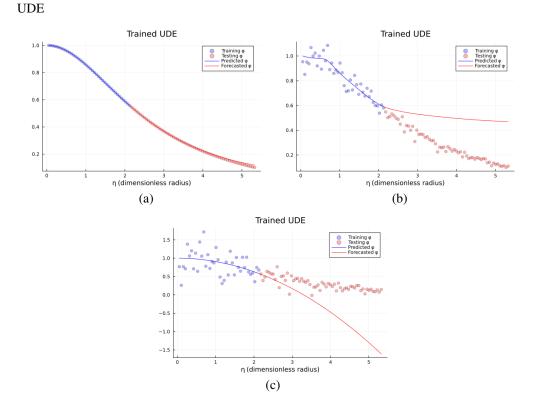


Figure 16: Comparison of the UDE approximation and forecasting for the Chandrasekhar's white dwarf model. The UDE was trained with varying levels of noise added to the synthetic data. These training datasets included the values for φ and φ' with different noise levels for the first 40 equally spaced η points of the solution domain. The forecasted φ values corresponding to the remaining 60% of the η points are shown against the testing data. Each figure shows the results for the different datasets: (a) No-noise data (synthetic data) obtained numerically from the white dwarf ordinary differential equation (1). (b) Moderate-noise dataset with a standard deviation of 7%. (c) High-noise dataset with a standard deviation of 35%.

Missing term recovered

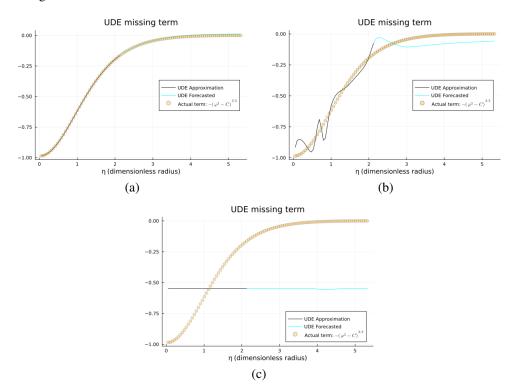


Figure 17: Comparison of the approximated missing term in the Chandrasekhar's white dwarf UDE model trained with 40% of the full available datasets: (a) No-noise data (synthetic data). (b) Moderate-noise dataset with a standard deviation of 7% added directly to the synthetic data. (c) High-noise dataset with a standard deviation of 35% added directly to the synthetic data.

B.5 Case 5: Training with 20% of the full available data and forecasting

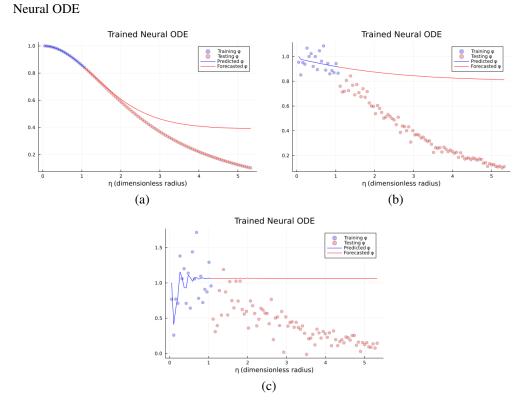


Figure 18: Comparison of the Neural ODE approximation and forecasting for the Chandrasekhar's white dwarf model. The Neural ODE was trained with varying levels of noise added to the synthetic data. These training datasets included the φ and φ' values with different noise levels for the first 20 equally spaced η points of the solution domain. The forecasted φ values for the remaining 80% of the η points are shown against the testing data. Each figure shows the results for the different datasets: (a) No-noise data (synthetic data) obtained numerically from the white dwarf ordinary differential equation (1). (b) Moderate-noise dataset with a standard deviation of 7%. (c) High-noise dataset with a standard deviation of 35%.

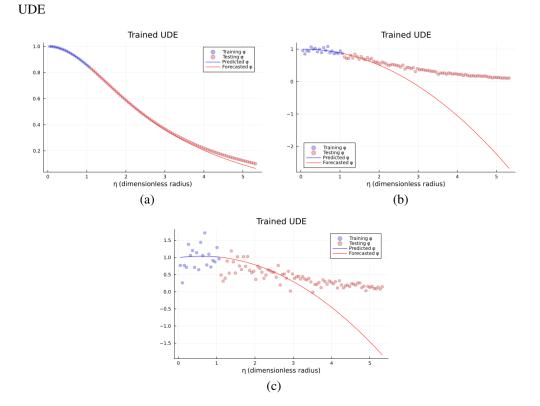


Figure 19: Comparison of the UDE approximation and forecasting for the Chandrasekhar's white dwarf model. The UDE was trained with varying levels of noise added to the synthetic data. These training datasets included the φ and φ' values with different noise levels for the first 20 equally spaced η points of the solution domain. The forecasted φ values corresponding to the remaining 80% of the η points are shown against the testing data. Each figure shows the results for the different datasets: (a) No-noise data (synthetic data) obtained numerically from the white dwarf ordinary differential equation (1). (b) Moderate-noise dataset with a standard deviation of 7%. (c) High-noise dataset with a standard deviation of 35%.

Missing term recovered

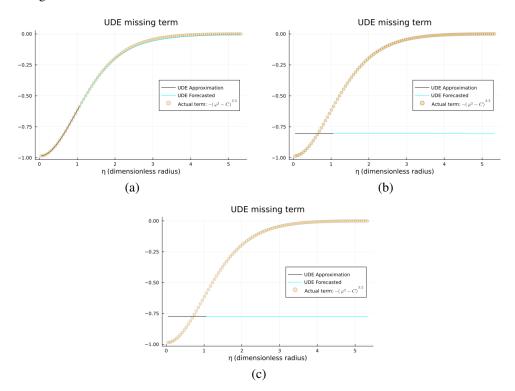


Figure 20: Comparison of the approximated missing term in the Chandrasekhar's white dwarf UDE model trained with 20% of the full available datasets: (a) No-noise data (synthetic data). (b) Moderate-noise dataset with a standard deviation of 7% added directly to the synthetic data. (c) High-noise dataset with a standard deviation of 35% added directly to the synthetic data.

B.6 Case 6: Training with 10% percent of the full available data and forecasting Neural ODE

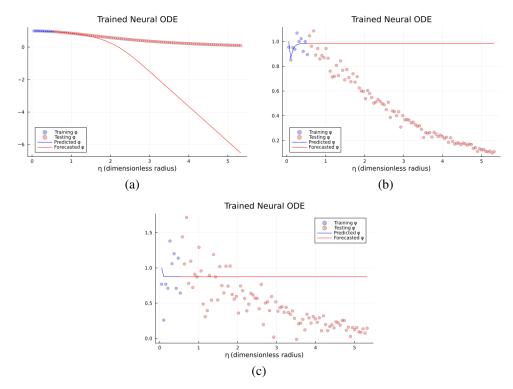


Figure 21: Comparison of the Neural ODE approximation and forecasting for the Chandrasekhar's white dwarf model. The Neural ODE was trained with varying levels of noise added to the synthetic data. These training datasets included the φ and φ' values with different noise levels for the first 10 equally spaced η points of the solution domain. The forecasted φ values corresponding to the remaining 90% of the η points are shown against the testing data. Each figure shows the results for the different datasets: (a) No-noise data (synthetic data) obtained numerically from the white dwarf ordinary differential equation (1). (b) Moderate-noise dataset with a standard deviation of 7%. (c) High-noise dataset with a standard deviation of 35%.

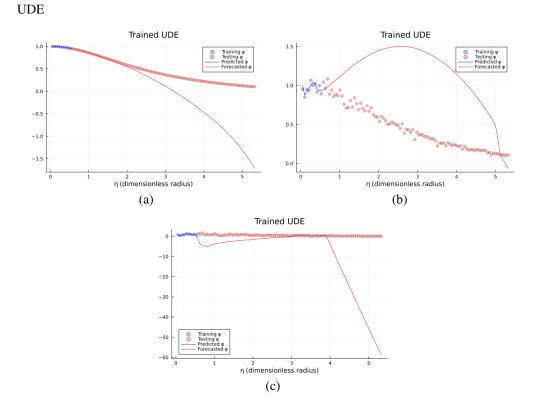


Figure 22: Comparison of the UDE approximation and forecasting for the Chandrasekhar's white dwarf model. The UDE was trained with varying levels of noise added to the synthetic data. These training datasets included the φ and φ' values with different noise levels for the first 10 equally spaced η points of the solution domain. The forecasted φ values corresponding to the remaining 90% of the η points are shown against the testing data. Each figure shows the results for the different datasets: (a) No-noise data (synthetic data) obtained numerically from the white dwarf ordinary differential equation (1). (b) Moderate-noise dataset with a standard deviation of 7%. (c) High-noise dataset with a standard deviation of 35%.

Missing term

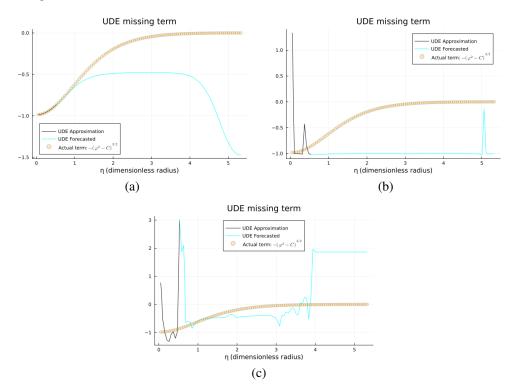


Figure 23: Comparison of the approximated missing term in the Chandrasekhar's white dwarf UDE model trained with 10% of the full available datasets: (a) No-noise data (synthetic data). (b) Moderate-noise dataset with a standard deviation of 7% added directly to the synthetic data. (c) High-noise dataset with a standard deviation of 35% added directly to the synthetic data.