Keywords
Biotechnological catalysts; hybrid architectures; machine learning; risk-aware decision-making; uncertainty quantification; Nepalese management systems; stochastic PDEs; neural operators; conditional value-at-risk; Fourier Neural Operator.

Authors
[1]Suresh Kumar Sahani, National Kaohsiung University of Science and Technology, Taiwan, [2](Faculty of Science Technology and Engineering, Rajarshi Janak University, Janakpurdham, Nepal)
Email: sureshsahani54@gmail.com

[1]Tsair-Fwu Lee, National Kaohsiung University of Science and Technology, Taiwan,
Email: tflee@nkust.edu.tw[1]

[3]Digvijay Pandey, Department of Technical Education Uttar Pradesh, India,
Email: digit11011989@gmail.com

[4]Binay Kumar Pandey, Department of Information Technology, College of Technology, Govind Ballabh Pant University of Agriculture and Technology Pantnagar Uttarakhand, India,
Email: binaydece@gmail.com

[5]Bharat Kumar Sah, Faculty of Science, Technology, and Engineering
Rajarshi Janak University, Janakpurdham, Nepal
Email: bratsah@rju.edu.np

[6*]Department of Mathematics and Statistics, P.K.M.C., T.U., Nepal
khageshwar.mandal@iost.tu.edu.np

[7]Rishav Jha, Department of Science, MIT Campus, R.J.U., Nepal
Email: jharishav036@gmail.com

Received:14-06-2026
Revised:20-07-2026
Accepted: 25-07-2026
Doi:10.1922/ejprd.v34i7s.1622

Biotechnological Catalysts in Hybrid Analytical–Numerical–Machine Learning Architectures for Risk-Aware Decision-Making and Uncertainty Quantification in Nepalese Management Systems

Abstract
The integration of biotechnological catalysts into management systems operating within structurally complex, hazard-prone environments demands theoretical frameworks that transcend traditional deterministic optimization. This paper develops a comprehensive mathematical theory for embedding biocatalytic processes within hybrid analytical–numerical–machine learning (HANN-ML) architectures, specifically tailored for risk-aware decision-making under uncertainty in Nepalese management contexts. We establish a measure-theoretic foundation on a filtered probability space $\Omega,\mathscr{F},\{\mathscr{F}_t\}_{t\geq 0},\mathbb{P}$, where biotechnological catalyst states evolve according to stochastic reaction–diffusion–advection equations perturbed by compound Poisson processes representing seismic and climatic shocks endemic to the Himalayan region. The central theoretical contribution is the formulation of a coupled operator system: an analytical asymptotic solver for fast biocatalytic reactions, a numerical finite-element discretization for spatial catalyst transport across Nepal's topographically fractured domains, and a Fourier Neural Operator (FNO) that learns the discrepancy between low-fidelity numerical solutions and high-fidelity experimental observations. We prove existence, uniqueness, and regularity of weak solutions to the coupled stochastic partial differential equation (SPDE) system via Galerkin approximation and the stochastic compactness method. Risk-awareness is encoded through a dynamic conditional value-at-risk (CVaR) functional defined on the space of càdlàg stochastic processes, and we derive the corresponding Hamilton–Jacobi–Bellman (HJB) variational inequality governing optimal catalyst deployment policies. For uncertainty quantification, we develop a generalized polynomial chaos (gPC) expansion in tensorized Hermite–Legendre bases, augmented by a deep ensemble Bayesian neural network that captures epistemic uncertainty arising from Nepal's sparse sensor networks. The paper establishes convergence rates for the hybrid solver, stability bounds for the risk-aware control under Lipschitz perturbations, and information-theoretic bounds on epistemic uncertainty. We contextualize the theory through three Nepalese management domains: agricultural biofertilizer distribution in the Terai and Hill regions, bioremediation catalyst deployment for glacial lake outburst flood (GLOF) mitigation, and enzyme-based pharmaceutical cold-chain logistics. The framework provides management scientists and operations researchers with rigorous tools for decision-making where biocatalytic efficiency, topological constraints, seismic risk, and data scarcity intersect.

1. INTRODUCTION

Management systems in Nepal operate under a concatenation of constraints that render classical operations research methodologies inadequate. The country's topography spans subtropical plains (the Terai, below 300 m elevation) through the Middle Hills (300–3,000 m) to the High Himalaya (above 3,000 m), creating fragmented supply chains, heterogeneous agricultural microclimates, and infrastructure vulnerable to monsoon-induced landslides and seismic activity. Simultaneously, Nepal's increasing adoption of biotechnological interventions—biofertilizers, biocatalytic sensors, enzymatic cold-chain stabilizers, and bioremediation agents—introduces dynamical complexity that deterministic management models cannot capture. The catalysts degrade stochastically, their efficacy depends on altitude-sensitive temperature and pH profiles, and their deployment must account for compound risks: climatic volatility, tectonic instability, and market fragmentation.

Traditional analytical approaches to biocatalytic management, rooted in deterministic Michaelis–Menten kinetics and static linear programming, fail on three fronts. First, they ignore the stochastic forcing induced by Nepal's climatic and seismic regimes. Second, they cannot resolve the multiscale spatial heterogeneity—from alluvial floodplains to steep Himalayan valleys—where catalyst transport is governed by advection-dominated PDEs with discontinuous coefficients. Third, they lack mechanisms for quantifying epistemic uncertainty when operational data is sparse, as is characteristic of Nepal's nascent digital infrastructure. Purely numerical methods, while capable of resolving spatial complexity, become computationally prohibitive when embedded within iterative optimization loops for risk-aware decision-making. Purely data-driven machine learning models, conversely, lack physical consistency, violate conservation laws, and generalize poorly outside their training distribution—a critical flaw when training data from Nepal's remote regions is limited.

This paper addresses these deficiencies by constructing a unified theoretical framework: the Hybrid Analytical–Numerical–Machine Learning (HANN-ML) Architecture for Biocatalytic Risk Management. The framework couples three computational modalities. Analytical methods provide asymptotically exact solutions to fast biocatalytic reactions, exploiting the scale separation between enzyme–substrate binding (microsecond timescales) and transport processes (hourly to seasonal timescales). Numerical methods—specifically discontinuous Galerkin finite element schemes—resolve catalyst advection and diffusion across Nepal's complex terrain. Machine learning, implemented through Fourier Neural Operators and deep ensemble Bayesian networks, corrects the systematic bias of low-fidelity numerical models and quantifies epistemic uncertainty. The resulting architecture is provably convergent, physically consistent, and capable of supporting risk-aware optimization under Nepal's compound hazard regime.

The theoretical contributions are fourfold. First, we formulate the biocatalytic state dynamics as a system of coupled stochastic partial differential equations (SPDEs) driven by Wiener processes for continuous climatic fluctuations and compound Poisson processes for discrete seismic and GLOF events. We prove well-posedness of this system in appropriate Bochner spaces. Second, we construct the HANN-ML operator as a composition

$$H_{\theta,h,\varepsilon} = G_\theta \circ N_h \circ A_\varepsilon \tag{1.1}$$

where A_ε is an asymptotic analytical solver, N_h a numerical discretization with mesh size h, and G_θ a neural operator learning the residual. We derive convergence rates showing that the hybrid approach achieves accuracy

$$\mathcal{O}(\varepsilon + h^{p+1} + \| G_\theta - G^* \|_{L^2}) \tag{1.2}$$

where G^* is the exact correction operator. Third, we embed the hybrid solver within a risk-aware decision framework using dynamic coherent risk measures. We derive the associated HJB equation and prove a verification theorem linking classical solutions to optimal catalyst deployment policies. Fourth, we develop a coupled uncertainty quantification methodology combining generalized polynomial chaos for aleatoric uncertainty with deep Bayesian ensembles for epistemic uncertainty, establishing PAC-Bayesian bounds on the generalization gap.

The Nepalese context is not merely illustrative but structurally integral. Nepal's management systems exhibit what we term *topological risk entanglement*: the same Himalayan topography that necessitates biotechnological interventions (steep terrain prevents chemical fertilizer access; seismic risk demands bioremediation over heavy infrastructure) also generates the stochastic forcing and data scarcity that make the HANN-ML architecture necessary. We formalize this through a terrain-dependent risk measure that weights CVaR by topographic slope gradients and seismic hazard indices. The result is a quantitative framework in which the geographic constraints of Nepal are not exogenous nuisance variables but first-class objects in the mathematical theory.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 establishes the measure-theoretic and functional-analytic preliminaries, including the Gelfand triple structure, the Bochner–Sobolev spaces, and the Lévy–Itô decomposition that underpins the catalyst dynamics. Section 3 develops the stochastic biocatalytic dynamics and proves the well-posedness theorem via Galerkin approximation and the stochastic compactness method. Section 4 constructs the HANN-ML architecture and proves the hybrid convergence theorem. Section 5 formulates the risk-aware decision framework, deriving the HJB variational inequality and proving the verification theorem in the infinite-dimensional jump-diffusion setting. Section 6 develops the uncertainty quantification theory, including the gPC convergence theorem and the PAC-Bayesian generalization bound for deep ensembles. Section 7 embeds the framework in Nepalese management contexts through three case studies. Section 8 presents numerical validation with figure placeholders. Section 9 concludes with a discussion of limitations and future work. Two appendices collect the notation table and the detailed proof of the stochastic compactness argument.

2. Mathematical Preliminaries

This section collects the analytical and probabilistic machinery required for the rest of the paper. We adopt the standard notation of Da Prato and Zabczyk (2014) for infinite-dimensional stochastic analysis and of Evans (2010) for Sobolev-space PDE theory. All results stated without proof are standard; proofs of the new results are deferred to the indicated sections.

2.1 Probability and Stochastic Analysis

Let $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \{\mathcal{F}_t\}_{t\geq 0}, \mathbb{P})$ be a complete filtered probability space satisfying the usual conditions of right-continuity and $\mathbb{P}$-completeness. Let $W = \{W_t\}_{t\geq 0}$ be an m-dimensional standard $\{\mathcal{F}_t\}$-Wiener process, and let $P = \{\sum_{i=1}^{N_t} \xi_i\}_{t\geq 0}$ be a compound Poisson process with intensity $\lambda > 0$ and jump size distribution ν on $\mathbb{R}^m$, independent of W. The combined driving noise is the Lévy process

$$L_t = \sigma W_t + P_t \tag{2.1}$$

where $\sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{m\times m}$ is a deterministic dispersion matrix. The Lévy–Itô decomposition (see, e.g., Applebaum 2009, Theorem 2.4.1) expresses any Lévy process as the sum of a Brownian part, a drift, and a compensated jump integral; this decomposition will be invoked when we expand the Itô formula for the biocatalytic SPDE in Section 3.

For a separable Hilbert space H, we denote by $L^p(\Omega; H)$ the Bochner space of H-valued random variables with finite p-th moment, equipped with the norm

$$\| X \|_{L^p(\Omega;\, H)} = (\mathbb{E}[\| X \|_H^p])^{1/p} \tag{2.2}$$

The space of H-valued predictable processes satisfying $\mathbb{E}\left[\int_0^T \| X_t \|_H^2 \, dt\right] < \infty$ is denoted $L^2_{\mathcal{P}}(\Omega \times [0,T]; H)$. Predictability, as opposed to optionality, is essential for the Itô integral to be a martingale; in our application, it encodes the requirement that management decisions at time t cannot depend on future seismic realizations.

Definition 2.1 (Cylindrical Wiener Process on H). Let $Q \in \mathcal{L}(H)$ be a symmetric non-negative trace-class operator with eigenpairs $\{(\lambda_k, e_k)\}_{k\geq 1}$. A cylindrical Q-Wiener process on H is defined as

$$W_t^Q = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \sqrt{\lambda_k}\, \beta_t^{(k)}\, e_k \tag{2.3}$$

where $\{\beta^{(k)}\}_{k\geq 1}$ are independent standard real-valued Wiener processes, with convergence in $L^2(\Omega; H)$. The trace-class condition $\sum_k \lambda_k < \infty$ ensures that W^Q takes values in H almost surely. When Q is only non-negative definite (not trace class), the series diverges in H but converges in a larger Hilbert space H_{-1} extending H; this cylindrical noise framework is the appropriate model for spatially white climatic fluctuations.

Definition 2.2 (Stochastic Integration). For a predictable process $\Phi \in L^2_{\mathcal{P}}(\Omega \times [0,T]; \mathcal{L}_2^0)$, where $\mathcal{L}_2^0$ denotes Hilbert–Schmidt operators from $Q^{1/2}H$ to H, the Itô stochastic integral $\int_0^t \Phi_s \, dW_s^Q$ is defined as the H-valued martingale satisfying the Itô isometry

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\left\|\int_0^t \Phi_s \, dW_s^Q\right\|_H^2\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[\int_0^t \| \Phi_s \|_{\mathcal{L}_2^0}^2 \, ds\right] \tag{2.4}$$

The isometry extends by density to the full space $L^2_{\mathcal{P}}(\Omega \times [0,T]; \mathcal{L}_2^0)$, and the resulting integral process is a continuous square-integrable martingale. The Burkholder–Davis–Gundy (BDG) inequality, which we will use repeatedly, states that for any $p \geq 1$ there exist constants $c_p, C_p > 0$ such that

$$c_p\, \mathbb{E}\left[\left(\int_0^t \| \Phi_s \|_{\mathcal{L}_2^0}^2 \, ds\right)^{p/2}\right] \leq \mathbb{E}\left[\sup_{s\in[0,t]} \left\|\int_0^s \Phi_r \, dW_r^Q\right\|_H^p\right] \leq C_p\, \mathbb{E}\left[\left(\int_0^t \| \Phi_s \|_{\mathcal{L}_2^0}^2 \, ds\right)^{p/2}\right] \tag{2.5}$$

This inequality is the workhorse for converting L^2-integrability of the integrand into pathwise control of the martingale supremum, and it underlies virtually every a priori estimate in Section 3.

Definition 2.3 (Poisson Random Measure and Compensated Integral). Let ν be a σ-finite measure on $(\mathbb{R}^m, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^m))$ satisfying $\int_{\mathbb{R}^m} (1 \wedge \| \zeta \|)\, \nu(d\zeta) < \infty$. A Poisson random measure $\tilde{N}$ on $[0,\infty) \times \mathbb{R}^m$ with intensity $dt \otimes \nu(d\zeta)$ gives rise to the compensated measure

$$\tilde{N}(dt, d\zeta) = N(dt, d\zeta) - dt\, \nu(d\zeta) \tag{2.6}$$

For a predictable integrand $\varphi: \Omega \times [0,T] \times \mathbb{R}^m \to H$ satisfying $\mathbb{E}\left[\int_0^T \int_{\mathbb{R}^m} \| \varphi(s,\zeta) \|_H^2 \, \nu(d\zeta)\, ds\right] < \infty$, the compensated Poisson integral

$$\int_0^t \int_{\mathbb{R}^m} \varphi(s,\zeta)\, \tilde{N}(ds, d\zeta) \tag{2.7}$$

is a square-integrable càdlàg martingale. The corresponding BDG inequality for jump martingales (see Kunita 2004, Theorem 2.8) takes the form

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\sup_{s\in[0,t]} \left\|\int_0^s \int \varphi \, d\tilde{N}\right\|_H^p\right] \leq C_p\, \mathbb{E}\left[\left(\int_0^t \int \| \varphi \|_H^2 \, \nu\, ds\right)^{p/2}\right] + C_p\, \mathbb{E}\left[\int_0^t \int \| \varphi \|_H^p \, \nu\, ds\right] \tag{2.8}$$

with the additional term reflecting the contribution of large jumps. In our application, φ will be the jump coefficient $\gamma_C(C,\zeta)$ of the catalyst state, encoding instantaneous redistribution under seismic events.

2.2 Functional-Analytic Framework

Let $D \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ $(d = 2,3)$ be a bounded Lipschitz domain representing a spatial management region. We employ the Sobolev spaces $H^s(D)$ for $s \geq 0$, with $H^0(D) = L^2(D)$. The dual space of $H^s(D)$ is denoted $H^{-s}(D)$. For the catalyst transport problem, we require the weighted space

$$H^1_\kappa(D) = \{v \in H^1(D) : \kappa^{1/2} \nabla v \in L^2(D)\} \tag{2.9}$$

where $\kappa: D \to \mathbb{R}^+$ is a spatially varying diffusion coefficient. The weighting by $\kappa^{1/2}$ encodes the topographic modulation of diffusivity: in steep Himalayan terrain, κ is small (transport dominated by advection along slopes), whereas in the Terai, κ is large (diffusion-dominated transport in alluvial plains).

Definition 2.4 (Gelfand Triple). Let $V \hookrightarrow H \hookrightarrow V^*$ be a Gelfand triple, where $V = H^1(D)$, $H = L^2(D)$, and $V^* =$

$H^{-1}(D)$. The embedding $V \hookrightarrow H$ is continuous and dense. For $u \in L^2(0,T;V)$ with $\partial_t u \in L^2(0,T;V^*)$, the integration-by-parts formula holds:

$$\frac{d}{dt} \| u(t) \|_H^2 = 2 \langle \partial_t u(t), u(t) \rangle_{V^*,V} \quad (2.10)$$

This identity, sometimes called the Lions–Magenes lemma, is the foundation of the energy method for SPDEs. It allows one to pass from a variational formulation in $V \times V^*$ to a pathwise energy identity in H, which is the starting point for all a priori estimates in Section 3.

Definition 2.5 (Coherent Risk Measure). A functional $\rho: L^2(\Omega) \to \mathbb{R}$ is a coherent risk measure (Artzner et al. 1999) if it satisfies:

(i) *Monotonicity:* $X \le Y$ a.s. $\Rightarrow \rho(X) \le \rho(Y)$;

(ii) *Translation invariance:* $\rho(X + c) = \rho(X) + c$ for $c \in \mathbb{R}$;

(iii) *Positive homogeneity:* $\rho(\lambda X) = \lambda \rho(X)$ for $\lambda \ge 0$;

(iv) *Subadditivity:* $\rho(X + Y) \le \rho(X) + \rho(Y)$.

Coherence encodes the intuitive requirements that larger losses be more risky (monotonicity), that deterministic additions to a position shift the risk by exactly that amount (translation invariance), that scaling a position scales the risk linearly (positive homogeneity), and that diversification never increases risk (subadditivity). The Conditional Value-at-Risk at confidence level $\alpha \in (0,1)$ is defined as

$$\mathrm{CVaR}_\alpha(X) = \inf_{z \in \mathbb{R}} \left\{ z + \frac{1}{1-\alpha} \mathbb{E}[(X - z)_+] \right\} \quad (2.11)$$

The minimizer z^* is the Value-at-Risk at level α, and $\mathrm{CVaR}_\alpha(X)$ coincides with the average loss in the worst $(1-\alpha)$-tail of the distribution. The Rockafellar–Uryasev representation (Rockafellar and Uryasev 2000, Theorem 1) shows that the infimum is attained and that the convex conjugate formulation

$$\mathrm{CVaR}_\alpha(X) = \sup_{\mathbb{Q} \in \mathcal{Q}_\alpha} \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{Q}}[X], \qquad \mathcal{Q}_\alpha = \left\{ \mathbb{Q} : \frac{d\mathbb{Q}}{d\mathbb{P}} \le \frac{1}{1-\alpha} \right\} \quad (2.12)$$

is the dual representation of CVaR as a worst-case expectation over absolutely continuous measures bounded above by $1/(1-\alpha)$. This dual form is the key to deriving the HJB equation in Section 5: the inner minimization over the dual variable Z can be exchanged with the outer minimization over controls via a minimax theorem.

2.3 Neural Operators

Let $\mathcal{A}$ and $\mathcal{U}$ be separable Banach spaces of input and output functions. A neural operator $G_\theta: \mathcal{A} \to \mathcal{U}$ is defined as a composition of lifting, iterative kernel integral transforms, and projection operators:

$$G_\theta = Q \circ \mathcal{L}_L \circ \cdots \circ \mathcal{L}_1 \circ R \quad (2.13)$$

where $R: \mathcal{A} \to \mathcal{U}_0$ is a lifting operator (typically an affine pointwise map), $Q: \mathcal{U}_L \to \mathcal{U}$ is a projection, and each layer $\mathcal{L}_\ell$ takes the form

$$\mathcal{L}_\ell(v)(x) = \sigma\big(W_\ell\, v(x) + \int_D \kappa_\theta^{(\ell)}(x,y)\, v(y)\, dy\big) \quad (2.14)$$

with $\kappa_\theta^{(\ell)}$ parameterized by a neural network. For Fourier Neural Operators (FNOs; Li et al. 2021), the integral is computed in Fourier space:

$$\mathcal{L}_\ell(v) = \sigma\left(W_\ell\, v + \mathcal{F}^{-1}\left(P_\theta^{(\ell)} \cdot \mathcal{F}(v)\right)\right) \quad (2.15)$$

where $\mathcal{F}$ denotes the Fourier transform on D and $P_\theta^{(\ell)}$ is a complex-valued neural network acting on Fourier modes. By truncating the Fourier expansion to a finite number of modes $k_{\max}$, the FNO achieves quasi-linear complexity $\mathcal{O}(N \log N)$ in the number of grid points, compared to $\mathcal{O}(N^2)$ for naive kernel integration. The universal approximation theorem for FNOs (Kovachki et al. 2023, Theorem 4) states that for any continuous operator $G^*: \mathcal{A} \to \mathcal{U}$ and any $\epsilon > 0$, there exists an FNO architecture G_θ with sufficiently many modes such that $\| G_\theta - G^* \| \le \epsilon$ on compact subsets of $\mathcal{A}$, provided G^* is sufficiently smooth.

2.4 Notational Conventions

We collect the principal notation used throughout the paper. Generic constants in inequalities are denoted C or K, possibly with subscripts indicating their dependencies; their values may change from line to line. The expectation with respect to $\mathbb{P}$ is written $\mathbb{E}$, and the conditional expectation given $\mathcal{F}_t$ is $\mathbb{E}[\cdot \mid \mathcal{F}_t]$. The indicator of an event A is $\mathbf{1}_A$. The Bochner norm on $L^p(0,T;H)$ is $\|\cdot\|_{L^p(H)}$. Weak convergence in a Banach space X is denoted $\rightharpoonup$, and weak-$\star$ convergence by $\rightharpoonup^\star$. The space of bounded linear operators on H is $\mathcal{L}(H)$; the Hilbert–Schmidt subclass is $\mathcal{L}_2(H)$.

3. Biotechnological Catalyst Dynamics

This section develops the stochastic biocatalytic dynamics that underlie the HANN-ML architecture. We begin with the deterministic enzyme-kinetic foundation, then introduce the stochastic perturbations specific to the Nepalese context (climatic, seismic, hydrological), formulate the coupled SPDE system, state the well-posedness theorem, and provide a detailed proof via the Galerkin–stochastic compactness method. We then develop the asymptotic (Tikhonov) reduction that decouples fast enzymatic equilibria from slow transport processes, and we close with a stability lemma that quantifies the sensitivity of solutions to perturbations in the reaction rate.

3.1 Stochastic Biokinetic Equations

Consider a biotechnological catalyst (e.g., a nitrogen-fixing enzyme consortium, a lignocellulolytic enzyme blend, or a bioremediation microbial catalyst) distributed over a management domain $D \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ representing a Nepalese administrative region. Let $C(t,x) \in \mathbb{R}^+$ denote

the catalyst concentration field at time $t \in [0,T]$ and position $x \in D$. The catalyst interacts with a substrate field $S(t,x)$ (e.g., organic matter, pollutant, or nutrient). The deterministic biocatalytic reaction is governed by enzyme kinetics. For a multi-enzyme catalyst system, we generalize Michaelis–Menten kinetics to a coupled reaction network:

$$R_i(C,S) = \frac{k_{\text{cat}}^{(i)} E_i S}{K_M^{(i)} + S + K_i^{(i)} S^2} \tag{3.1}$$

where $k_{\text{cat}}^{(i)}$ is the turnover number, $K_M^{(i)}$ the Michaelis constant, and $K_i^{(i)}$ an inhibition constant for the i-th enzymatic pathway. The reaction operator is $R(C,S) = (R_1, \dots, R_n)^T$. The substrate-inhibition term $K_i^{(i)} S^2$ captures the well-known phenomenon that excess substrate can poison enzyme activity—a critical effect in concentrated pollutant plumes downstream of GLOF events.

In the Nepalese context, catalyst efficacy is subject to multiple stochastic perturbations:

(a) *Climatic fluctuations:* Temperature and humidity variations modulate k_{cat} and K_M according to Arrhenius kinetics with random activation energy perturbations.

(b) *Seismic shocks:* Earthquakes disrupt containment and distribution infrastructure, causing instantaneous catalyst redistribution.

(c) *Monsoonal flooding:* Advective transport coefficients become random fields during extreme precipitation events.

We model these through a system of coupled SPDEs. Let $u(t,x) \in U_{\text{ad}}$ be a control variable representing catalyst deployment rate (management decision). The catalyst dynamics are:

$$\partial_t C + v(x,\omega) \cdot \nabla C - \nabla \cdot (\kappa(x,\omega) \nabla C) = -\sum_{i=1}^{n} R_i(C,S) + u(t,x) + \sigma_C(C)\, \dot{W}_t^Q + \int_{\mathbb{R}} \gamma_C(C,\zeta)\, \tilde{N}(dt, d\zeta) \tag{3.2}$$

$$\partial_t S + v(x,\omega) \cdot \nabla S - \nabla \cdot (\kappa_S(x,\omega) \nabla S) = -\sum_{i=1}^{n} \nu_i\, R_i(C,S) + g_S(t,x) + \sigma_S(S)\, \dot{W}_t^{Q,S} \tag{3.3}$$

with initial conditions $C(0,x) = C_0(x)$, $S(0,x) = S_0(x)$, and mixed boundary conditions

$$C(t,x) = C_{\text{in}}(t,x) \text{ on } \Gamma_D, \qquad \kappa \nabla C \cdot n = 0 \text{ on } \Gamma_N \tag{3.4}$$

where $\Gamma_D \cup \Gamma_N = \partial D$, v is a random velocity field (topographically driven), κ is a random diffusion tensor, $\tilde{N}$ is a compensated Poisson random measure with intensity $\lambda(x)\, dt \otimes \nu(d\zeta)$, and ν_i are stoichiometric coefficients encoding the mass-balance between substrate consumption and catalyst reaction.

Assumption 3.1 (Regularity of Coefficients). The velocity field satisfies $v \in L^\infty\left(\Omega; L^\infty\left(0,T; W^{1,\infty}(D)\right)\right)$. The diffusion tensor κ is uniformly elliptic: there exists $\kappa_0 > 0$ such that $\xi^T \kappa(x,\omega)\, \xi \geq \kappa_0 \parallel \xi \parallel^2$ for all $\xi \in \mathbb{R}^d$, a.s. The reaction rates R_i are locally Lipschitz continuous with at most polynomial growth: there exist $L_R, K_R > 0$ and $q \geq 1$ such that $\parallel R_i(C,S) - R_i(C',S') \parallel \leq L_R (\parallel C - C' \parallel + \parallel S - S' \parallel)$ and $\parallel R_i(C,S) \parallel \leq K_R (1 + \parallel C \parallel^q + \parallel S \parallel^q)$. The diffusion coefficients σ_C, σ_S are globally Lipschitz with linear growth. The jump coefficient γ_C satisfies $\int_{\mathbb{R}} \parallel \gamma_C(c,\zeta) \parallel^2 \nu(d\zeta) \leq K(1 + \parallel c \parallel^2)$ and is Lipschitz in c uniformly in ζ.

These assumptions are physically motivated: uniform ellipticity rules out degenerate diffusion (consistent with the positivity of molecular diffusivity), the polynomial growth of R_i reflects the saturation of Michaelis–Menten kinetics, and the linear growth of σ_C, γ_C ensures no explosion in finite time. The locally Lipschitz condition on R_i is the standard framework for monotone-type SPDE theory (Liu and Röckner 2015).

Theorem 3.1 (Well-Posedness of Catalyst Dynamics). Under Assumption 3.1, for any $C_0, S_0 \in L^2\left(\Omega; L^2(D)\right)$, $u \in L^2_{\mathcal{P}}\left(\Omega \times [0,T]; L^2(D)\right)$, and $T > 0$, there exists a unique weak solution (C,S) to the coupled SPDE system (3.2)–(3.4) satisfying

$$C, S \in L^2\left(\Omega;\, C\left([0,T];\, L^2(D)\right)\right) \cap L^2\left(\Omega;\, L^2\left(0,T;\, H^1(D)\right)\right) \tag{3.5}$$

Moreover, the solution depends continuously on the initial data: there exists a constant $K = K(T)$ such that for any two solutions (C_1,S_1), (C_2,S_2) with initial data (C_0^1, S_0^1), (C_0^2, S_0^2),

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\sup_{t\in[0,T]} \parallel (C_1 - C_2)(t) \parallel_{L^2}^2\right] + \mathbb{E}\left[\sup_{t\in[0,T]} \parallel (S_1 - S_2)(t) \parallel_{L^2}^2\right] \leq K\, \mathbb{E}\left[\parallel C_0^1 - C_0^2 \parallel_{L^2}^2 + \parallel S_0^1 - S_0^2 \parallel_{L^2}^2\right] \tag{3.6}$$

Proof. We employ the Galerkin method combined with the stochastic compactness approach. The proof proceeds in five steps.

Step 1 (Finite-dimensional approximation). Let $\{e_k\}_{k\geq 1}$ be an orthonormal basis of $L^2(D)$ consisting of eigenfunctions of the Laplacian with the given mixed boundary conditions. Define finite-dimensional approximations $C_N(t,x) = \sum_{k=1}^{N} c_k^N(t)\, e_k(x)$ and similarly for S_N. The coefficients c_k^N satisfy a system of finite-dimensional SDEs with jumps:

$$dc_k^N = \left[-\sum_{j=1}^{N} A_{kj}\, c_j^N - \langle R(C_N, S_N), e_k \rangle + \langle u, e_k \rangle\right] dt + \sum_{j=1}^{N} \Sigma_{kj}\, d\beta_j + \int_{\mathbb{R}} \Gamma_k\, d\tilde{N} \tag{3.7}$$

where $A_{kj} = \langle v \cdot \nabla e_j - \nabla \cdot (\kappa \nabla e_j), e_k \rangle$. By Assumption 3.1, the drift is locally Lipschitz and the diffusion and jump coefficients satisfy linear growth. Standard existence and uniqueness theorems for finite-dimensional SDEs with jumps (Ikeda and Watanabe 1989, Theorem IV.9.1) yield unique strong solutions c_k^N on $[0,T]$.

Step 2 (A priori estimates). Apply the Itô formula to $\parallel C_N(t) \parallel_{L^2}^2$:

$$\parallel C_N(t) \parallel_{L^2}^2 + 2\int_0^t \kappa_0 \parallel \nabla C_N \parallel_{L^2}^2 ds \leq \parallel C_0 \parallel_{L^2}^2 + 2\int_0^t \langle u, C_N \rangle ds + 2\int_0^t \langle C_N, \sigma_C\, dW_s^Q \rangle + \int_0^t \parallel \sigma_C \parallel_{\mathcal{L}_2^0}^2 ds + \text{jump terms} \tag{3.8}$$

The diffusion term contributes the Itô correction $\int_0^t \| \sigma_C \|_{L_2^0}^2 \, ds$ by the Itô isometry. The jump contribution, by the Itô formula for jump processes (see Kunita 2004, §4), is

$$\int_0^t \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left[\| C_N + \gamma_C(C_N, \zeta) \|_{L^2}^2 - \| C_N \|_{L^2}^2 - 2 \langle \gamma_C(C_N, \zeta), C_N \rangle \right] \nu(d\zeta) \, ds \tag{3.9}$$

which by the linear growth of γ_C is bounded by $K \int_0^t (1 + \| C_N \|_{L^2}^2) \, ds$. The martingale term is controlled by the Burkholder–Davis–Gundy inequality (2.5) with $p = 2$:

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\sup_{s \in [0,t]} \left| \int_0^s \langle C_N, \sigma_C \, dW^Q \rangle \right|^2 \right] \leq C \, \mathbb{E}\left[\int_0^t \| C_N \|_{L^2}^2 \| \sigma_C \|_{L_2^0}^2 \, ds \right] \tag{3.10}$$

Combining these estimates with Young's inequality for the forcing term ($\langle u, C_N \rangle \leq \frac{1}{2} \| u \|^2 + \frac{1}{2} \| C_N \|^2$) and applying Gronwall's lemma in expectation form, we obtain the uniform bound

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\sup_{t \in [0,T]} \| C_N(t) \|_{L^2}^2 \right] + \mathbb{E}\left[\int_0^T \| C_N(t) \|_{H^1}^2 \, dt \right] \leq K \left(T, \| C_0 \|_{L^2}, \| u \|_{L^2} \right) \tag{3.11}$$

and an identical estimate for S_N. The constant K is uniform in N, which is the crucial property allowing passage to the limit.

Step 3 (Tightness). Estimate (3.11) shows that the laws of $\{C_N\}$ are tight in $L^2(0,T;H^0(D))$ by the classical criterion of Simon (1987, Corollary 4). The pathwise regularity obtained by applying the BDG inequality to the martingale terms yields tightness in $C([0,T];H^{-\alpha}(D))$ for any $\alpha > d/2$. The Aldous condition (Aldous 1978) for the jump component is verified by the linear growth of γ_C, ensuring tightness of the càdlàg paths in $D([0,T];H^{-\alpha}(D))$.

Step 4 (Identification of the limit). By the Prokhorov theorem, a subsequence (still denoted C_N) converges in law to a limit C. By the Skorokhod representation theorem (Skorokhod 1961), there exists a new probability space on which the convergence is almost sure. Passing to the limit in the variational formulation, the local Lipschitz continuity of R_i allows us to identify the limit with a weak solution of (3.2). The same argument applies to S_N.

Step 5 (Uniqueness). Let (C_1, S_1) and (C_2, S_2) be two weak solutions with the same data. Apply the Itô formula to $\| C_1 - C_2 \|_{L^2}^2 + \| S_1 - S_2 \|_{L^2}^2$. The reaction term contributes

$$2 \langle R(C_1, S_1) - R(C_2, S_2), C_1 - C_2 \rangle \leq 2 L_R \left(\| C_1 - C_2 \|_{L^2}^2 + \| S_1 - S_2 \|_{L^2}^2 \right) \tag{3.12}$$

by the local Lipschitz property of R_i. The martingale terms have zero conditional expectation, and their quadratic variations are absorbed into the right-hand side. Applying Gronwall's lemma in expectation form yields $\mathbb{E}[\sup_t \| (C_1 - C_2)(t) \|_{L^2}^2] = 0$, hence $C_1 = C_2$ a.s. by pathwise continuity. An identical argument applies to S. The continuous-dependence estimate (3.6) follows from the same calculation without setting the initial difference to zero. ▫

Remark. The well-posedness theorem extends in two directions. First, the locally Lipschitz condition on R_i can be relaxed to a monotonicity condition of the form $\langle R(C,S) - R(C',S), C - C' \rangle \leq L \| C - C' \|^2$, which is the natural hypothesis for monotone-type SPDE theory (Barbu and Răşcanu 2017). Second, the assumption of trace-class Q can be relaxed to cylindrical noise at the cost of working in $H^{-\alpha}(D)$ rather than $L^2(D)$; this is the appropriate setting for spatially white climatic forcing, which has infinite variance per unit area.

3.2 Asymptotic Structure and Scale Separation

Biocatalytic systems exhibit pronounced scale separation. The enzyme–substrate complex formation occurs on microsecond timescales, while spatial transport and management decisions operate on hourly to seasonal scales. We exploit this via singular perturbation theory. Let $\varepsilon \ll 1$ be the ratio of reaction to transport timescales. Define the fast variable $\tau = t/\varepsilon$. The reaction operator is decomposed as

$$R(C,S) = \frac{1}{\varepsilon} R_0(C,S) + R_1(C,S) \tag{3.13}$$

where R_0 captures the fast enzymatic equilibria and R_1 the slow metabolic processes. The fast–slow structure induces an invariant slow manifold $\mathcal{M} = \{(C,S) : R_0(C,S) = 0\}$, to which the fast dynamics contract exponentially.

Theorem 3.2 (Asymptotic Reduction). Under Assumption 3.1, suppose that the Jacobian $\nabla_C R_0(C_0, S_0)$ is invertible on $\mathcal{M}$ with uniformly bounded inverse. Let $(C_\varepsilon, S_\varepsilon)$ be the solution to the full system with scaled reaction. As $\varepsilon \to 0$, $C_\varepsilon \to C_0$ in $L^2\left(\Omega; L^2(0,T;L^2(D))\right)$, where C_0 satisfies the quasi-steady-state approximation $R_0(C_0, S_0) = 0$, which implicitly defines $C_0 = \Phi(S_0)$, and the slow dynamics become

$$\partial_t S_0 + v \cdot \nabla S_0 - \nabla \cdot (\kappa \nabla S_0) = -\sum_{i=1}^n \nu_i \, R_i(\Phi(S_0), S_0) + g_S + \text{noise} \tag{3.14}$$

Moreover, the convergence rate is $\mathcal{O}(\varepsilon^{1/2})$ in the mean-square sense:

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\| C_\varepsilon - C_0 \|_{L^2(0,T;L^2(D))}^2 \right] \leq C \, \varepsilon \tag{3.15}$$

Proof. The proof follows the Tikhonov–Fenichel framework for SPDEs. We sketch the main steps. (i) *Fast dynamics:* In the rescaled time $\tau = t/\varepsilon$, the catalyst equation reduces to $dC/d\tau = R_0(C,S) + \mathcal{O}(\varepsilon)$. The dissipativity of R_0 (a consequence of the monotonicity of the Michaelis–Menten operator) implies exponential contraction to the slow manifold $\mathcal{M}$ at rate $\lambda(\mathcal{M}) > 0$, the principal eigenvalue of $-\nabla_C R_0$ on $\mathcal{M}$. (ii) *Slow dynamics:* On $\mathcal{M}$, the algebraic constraint $R_0(C,S) = 0$ implicitly defines $C = \Phi(S)$ by the implicit function theorem, using the invertibility of $\nabla_C R_0$. The slow dynamics for S_0 are obtained by substituting $C_0 = \Phi(S_0)$ into the substrate equation, yielding (3.14). (iii) *Stochastic transversality:* The Fenichel invariant manifold theorem extends to the

stochastic setting by verifying that the stochastic fluctuations are transverse to $\mathcal{M}$ and do not escape the basin of attraction. This transversality follows from the Lipschitz continuity of σ_C and the fact that the noise amplitude is $\mathcal{O}(\varepsilon^0)$ (i.e., not scaled by ε), so the stochastic perturbation does not dominate the deterministic contraction. (iv) *Convergence rate:* Applying the Itô formula to the distance $\| C_\varepsilon - \Phi(S_0) \|^2$ and using the exponential contraction yields an estimate of the form $d \| \cdot \|^2/dt \leq -2\lambda(\mathcal{M}) \| \cdot \|^2 + K\,\varepsilon$, whose solution is $\mathcal{O}(\varepsilon)$ in the deterministic case and $\mathcal{O}(\varepsilon^{1/2})$ in expectation by the BDG inequality applied to the stochastic integral. ▫

This asymptotic reduction is crucial for the hybrid architecture: the analytical solver A_ε computes $\Phi(S)$ explicitly, eliminating the stiffness of the full system. For the single-enzyme Michaelis–Menten case, the implicit equation yields the closed-form expression

$$\Phi(S) = \frac{E_{\text{tot}}\, S}{K_M + S} \tag{3.16}$$

where E_{tot} is the total enzyme concentration. For multi-enzyme systems, Φ is computed via Newton–Kantorovich iteration, exploiting the diagonal dominance of the stoichiometric matrix. The iteration converges quadratically provided the initial guess is in the basin of attraction, which is guaranteed by the physical constraint $C \geq 0$.

3.3 Stability Under Perturbed Kinetics

In practice, the kinetic parameters k_{cat}, K_M are estimated from noisy experimental data and carry epistemic uncertainty. The following lemma quantifies the sensitivity of the catalyst solution to perturbations in the reaction rate, providing the foundation for the uncertainty quantification theory of Section 6.

Lemma 3.1 (Lipschitz Stability in Reaction Rate). Let R and $\hat{R}$ be two reaction operators satisfying Assumption 3.1 with the same Lipschitz constant L_R, and let (C, S), $(\hat{C}, \hat{S})$ be the corresponding solutions with identical initial data and noise realization. Then

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\sup_{t\in[0,T]} \| (C - \hat{C})(t) \|_{L^2}^2\right] \leq K\, \mathbb{E}\left[\int_0^T \| (R - \hat{R})(s) \|_{L^2}^2\, ds\right] \tag{3.17}$$

with $K = K(T, L_R, \kappa_0)$ independent of the perturbation.

Proof. Apply the Itô formula to $\| C - \hat{C} \|_{L^2}^2$. The reaction contribution is $2\langle R(C,S) - \hat{R}(\hat{C},\hat{S}),\, C - \hat{C}\rangle$, which we split as $2\langle R(C,S) - R(\hat{C},\hat{S}),\, C - \hat{C}\rangle$ (controlled by L_R) plus $2\langle R(\hat{C},\hat{S}) - \hat{R}(\hat{C},\hat{S}),\, C - \hat{C}\rangle$ (controlled by Young's inequality). The diffusion and jump terms cancel since the noise realization is identical. Gronwall's lemma in expectation form yields (3.17). ▫

4. Hybrid Analytical–Numerical–Machine Learning Architecture

This section constructs the HANN-ML architecture as a composition of three operators—analytical asymptotic solver, numerical finite-element discretization, and neural operator correction—and proves the hybrid convergence theorem that quantifies the accuracy-complexity trade-off. We also develop the physics-informed training loss, the complexity allocation result, and a stability theorem showing that the hybrid approximation is robust to perturbations in the kinetic parameters.

4.1 Architecture Definition

The HANN-ML architecture is a composition of three operators acting on the catalyst state space:

$$H_{\theta,h,\varepsilon}:\ U_{\text{ad}} \times \mathcal{X}_0 \to L^2\big(0,T;\, L^2(D)\big), \qquad H_{\theta,h,\varepsilon} = G_\theta \circ N_h \circ A_\varepsilon \tag{4.1}$$

We describe each component in turn.

4.1.1 Component 1: Analytical Solver A_ε

This operator applies the quasi-steady-state reduction from Theorem 3.2. Given a substrate field S, it returns the fast-equilibrated catalyst concentration $C = \Phi(S)$ by solving the nonlinear algebraic system $R_0(C, S) = 0$. For the Michaelis–Menten case, this yields the explicit form (3.16). For multi-enzyme systems, Φ is computed via Newton–Kantorovich iteration, exploiting the diagonal dominance of the stoichiometric matrix. The Newton iteration is

$$C^{(k+1)} = C^{(k)} - [\nabla_C R_0(C^{(k)}, S)]^{-1} R_0(C^{(k)}, S) \tag{4.2}$$

which converges quadratically provided $\| \nabla_C R_0 \| \geq \mu > 0$ in a neighbourhood of the solution, a condition guaranteed by the invertibility hypothesis of Theorem 3.2. The per-iteration cost is $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$ where n is the number of enzymatic pathways, which is typically small ($n \leq 10$) in practical applications.

4.1.2 Component 2: Numerical Solver N_h

This operator discretizes the slow transport SPDE (3.14) using a discontinuous Galerkin (DG) finite element method. Let $\mathcal{T}_h$ be a triangulation of D with mesh size h. The DG space is

$$V_h = \{v \in L^2(D) : v|_K \in \mathbb{P}_p(K),\ \forall K \in \mathcal{T}_h\} \tag{4.3}$$

The semi-discrete formulation seeks $S_h \in V_h$ such that for all test functions $v_h \in V_h$:

$$\int_K \partial_t S_h\, v_h\, dx - \int_K S_h\, v \cdot \nabla v_h\, dx + \int_{\partial K} \widehat{S_h v} \cdot n\, v_h\, ds + \int_K \kappa\, \nabla S_h \cdot \nabla v_h\, dx - \int_{\partial K} \widehat{\kappa \nabla S_h} \cdot n\, [v_h]\, ds = \int_K R_1(\Phi(S_h), S_h)\, v_h\, dx + \text{noise terms} \tag{4.4}$$

where the hat notation denotes numerical fluxes (we use the Lax–Friedrichs flux for the advective term and the Bassi–Rebay flux for the diffusive term) and $[\cdot]$ denotes the jump operator across element boundaries. The time

discretization uses a stochastic exponential integrator to handle the stiffness of the diffusion operator: writing the linear part as $\mathcal{L}_{\text{det}} S_h + \text{noise}$, the integrator advances via the matrix exponential of the linear operator, treating the nonlinear reaction term explicitly. This avoids the severe time-step restrictions of explicit schemes while preserving the geometric structure of the stochastic flow.

4.1.3 Component 3: Neural Operator G_θ

The numerical solution S_h contains discretization error $\mathcal{O}(h^{p+1})$ and fails to capture subgrid-scale topographic effects (e.g., catalyst trapping in micro-depressions along Himalayan slopes). The neural operator learns the mapping from low-fidelity inputs to high-fidelity corrections:

$$G_\theta\colon (S_h, \text{terrain features}) \mapsto \delta S = S^* - S_h \tag{4.5}$$

where S^* is the (unknown) exact solution or high-fidelity experimental observation. We parameterize G_θ as a Fourier Neural Operator because the catalyst transport exhibits translation-invariant structure at coarse scales. The FNO layer is (cf. (2.15)):

$$G_\theta^{(\ell)}(v) = \sigma\big(W_\ell\, v + \mathcal{F}^{-1}(P_\theta^{(\ell)} \cdot \mathcal{F}(v))\big) \tag{4.6}$$

where $P_\theta^{(\ell)}$ is a complex-valued neural network acting on Fourier modes. The terrain features (slope, aspect, elevation) are injected via a channel-wise concatenation in the lifting layer R, allowing the FNO to learn topography-dependent corrections. The Fourier representation is particularly natural for advection-dominated transport, where the spectral content of the solution is concentrated at low wave numbers; truncating to a moderate $k_{\max}$ preserves the dominant physics while filtering high-frequency numerical artifacts.

4.2 Convergence Theory

Theorem 4.1 (Hybrid Convergence). Let S^* be the exact weak solution to the slow SPDE (3.14), S_h the DG solution with polynomial degree p, and $\delta S_\theta = G_\theta(S_h, \text{terrain})$ the neural correction. Assume:

(A1) The exact solution satisfies $S^* \in L^2\left(\Omega; L^2\big(0,T; H^{p+1}(D)\big)\right)$.
(A2) The neural operator satisfies the approximation bound $\inf_\theta \| G_\theta - G^* \|_{L^2(\Omega; L^2(D))} \le \epsilon_{\text{NN}}$ where $G^*(S_h) = S^* - S_h$.
(A3) The training data $\{(S_h^{(i)}, S^{*,(i)})\}_{i=1}^N$ is drawn i.i.d. from the solution distribution.
Then the hybrid approximation $S_{\text{hybrid}} = S_h + G_\theta(S_h)$ satisfies:

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\| S_{\text{hybrid}} - S^* \|^2_{L^2(0,T;\, L^2(D))}\right]^{1/2} \le$$
$$C_1\, h^{p+1}\, |S^*|_{L^2(H^{p+1})} + C_2\, \epsilon_{\text{NN}} + C_3\, \varepsilon^{1/2} + C_4\, N^{-\alpha/d} \tag{4.7}$$

where C_i are constants depending on κ_0, v, T, and the last term accounts for Monte Carlo sampling error in the training data with α related to the covering number of the neural network hypothesis space.

Proof. We decompose the error into four orthogonal components and bound each separately.

$$S_{\text{hybrid}} - S^* = \underset{\text{I}}{(S_h - S^*)} + \underset{\text{III}}{\big(G_\theta(S_h) - G^*(S_h)\big)} + \underset{\text{IV}}{\big(G^*(S_h) - (S^* - S_h)\big)} + \underset{\text{II}}{(S_{\text{slow}} - S^*)} \tag{4.8}$$

Term (I) is the DG discretization error. Standard DG analysis for advection–diffusion equations (Arnold et al. 2002, Theorem 4.3) gives $\| S_h - S^* \| \le C\, h^{p+1}\, |S^*|_{H^{p+1}}$ provided the numerical fluxes are consistent and stable. The constant C depends on κ_0 and the Péclet number $\text{Pe} = \| v \|\, L/\kappa_0$ (with L the domain diameter); for advection-dominated regimes (high Pe), the use of upwind fluxes ensures stability.

Term (II) is the neural network approximation error. By assumption (A2), $\inf_\theta \| G_\theta - G^* \| \le \epsilon_{\text{NN}}$. This is the deterministic approximation error of the FNO hypothesis class, controlled by the number of Fourier modes $k_{\max}$ and the network width.
Term (III) is the generalization gap. By assumption (A3), the training data is i.i.d. The Rademacher complexity of the FNO hypothesis class (Kovachki et al. 2023, Theorem 5) is bounded by $C \cdot (W \cdot D)^{1/2}/N^{1/2}$ where W is the width and D the depth. By the standard uniform-convergence argument, the generalization gap is bounded by $C_4\, N^{-\alpha/d}$ where α depends on the covering number of the FNO class in the Sobolev metric.
Term (IV) is the asymptotic error from the Tikhonov reduction in Theorem 3.2, bounded by $C_3\, \varepsilon^{1/2}$ in mean square by (3.15).
Combining the four bounds via the triangle inequality in $L^2\left(\Omega; L^2\big(0,T; L^2(D)\big)\right)$ yields (4.7). ▫

Corollary 4.1 (Balanced Complexity). For a fixed computational budget, the optimal allocation between mesh refinement and neural network capacity satisfies $h^{p+1} \sim \epsilon_{\text{NN}} \sim N^{-\alpha/d}$. If the neural network has width W and depth D, with $\epsilon_{\text{NN}} \sim (WD)^{-1/2}$ (FNO universal approximation), then the optimal complexity is $h \sim (WD)^{-1/(2(p+1))}$.
Proof. The optimal allocation minimizes the total error (4.7) subject to the budget constraint. The Lagrangian conditions yield the equioscillation condition $h^{p+1} = \epsilon_{\text{NN}} = N^{-\alpha/d}$, since any term larger than the others can be reduced at the expense of the others for net improvement. Substituting the FNO scaling $\epsilon_{\text{NN}} \sim (WD)^{-1/2}$ yields $h \sim (WD)^{-1/(2(p+1))}$. ▫

4.3 Training and Physics-Informed Loss

The neural operator is trained on both high-fidelity simulation data and physical constraints. The loss functional is:

$$\mathcal{L}(\theta) = \mathcal{L}_{\text{data}}(\theta) + \lambda_{\text{pde}}\, \mathcal{L}_{\text{pde}}(\theta) + \lambda_{\text{bc}}\, \mathcal{L}_{\text{bc}}(\theta) \tag{4.9}$$

where the data, PDE residual, and boundary condition terms are respectively:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{data}}(\theta) = \frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N} \| S_h^{(i)} + G_\theta\left(S_h^{(i)}\right) - S^{*,(i)} \|_{L^2}^2 \quad (4.10)$$

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{pde}}(\theta) = \mathbb{E}\left[\left\|\partial_t S_{\text{hybrid}} + \mathcal{L}_{\text{spde}}\left(S_{\text{hybrid}}\right) - R_1\left(\Phi\left(S_{\text{hybrid}}\right), S_{\text{hybrid}}\right)\right\|_{H^{-1}}^2\right] \quad (4.11)$$

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{bc}}(\theta) = \mathbb{E}\left[\| S_{\text{hybrid}} - S_{\text{in}} \|_{L^2(\Gamma_D)}^2 + \| \kappa \nabla S_{\text{hybrid}} \cdot n \|_{L^2(\Gamma_N)}^2\right] \quad (4.12)$$

The PDE residual is evaluated in the weak sense using automatic differentiation, ensuring the hybrid solution remains physically consistent even when training data is sparse—a critical requirement for Nepalese applications where sensor density is low. The H^{-1} norm is the natural choice because it allows the residual to be tested against functions in $H_0^1(D)$, avoiding the need for pointwise differentiability of the neural network output.

Proposition 4.1 (Gradient Consistency). The gradient of the physics-informed loss (4.9) with respect to θ is given by

$$\nabla_\theta \mathcal{L}_{\text{pde}} = 2\,\mathbb{E}[\langle \mathcal{R}_\theta, \partial_\theta \mathcal{R}_\theta \rangle_{H^{-1}}], \quad \mathcal{R}_\theta = \partial_t S_{\text{hybrid}} + \mathcal{L}_{\text{spde}}\left(S_{\text{hybrid}}\right) - R_1\left(\Phi\left(S_{\text{hybrid}}\right), S_{\text{hybrid}}\right) \quad (4.13)$$

where $\partial_\theta \mathcal{R}_\theta$ is computed by automatic differentiation through the FNO layers and the asymptotic solver A_ε. The inner product in H^{-1} is implemented via the preconditioned conjugate gradient method on a finite-element stiffness matrix, ensuring computational tractability. ▫

4.4 Stability Under Perturbed Kinetics

Theorem 4.2 (Stability of Hybrid Approximation). Let S_{hybrid} and $\hat{S}_{\text{hybrid}}$ denote the hybrid approximations corresponding to reaction operators R and $\hat{R}$ respectively, with the same neural network G_θ, mesh h, and asymptotic parameter ε. Under the hypotheses of Lemma 3.1 and Theorem 4.1,

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\| S_{\text{hybrid}} - \hat{S}_{\text{hybrid}} \|_{L^2\left(0,T;\, L^2(D)\right)}^2\right]^{1/2} \le K\, \mathbb{E}\left[\| R - \hat{R} \|_{L^2\left(0,T;\, L^2(D)\right)}^2\right]^{1/2} + \mathcal{O}\left(h^{p+1} + \varepsilon^{1/2}\right) \quad (4.14)$$

Proof. By the triangle inequality, $\| S_{\text{hybrid}} - \hat{S}_{\text{hybrid}} \| \le \| S_h - \hat{S}_h \| + \| G_\theta(S_h) - G_\theta(\hat{S}_h) \|$. The first term is bounded by Lemma 3.1. The second term is bounded by the Lipschitz continuity of G_θ (a consequence of the boundedness of the FNO weights), yielding a term proportional to $\| S_h - \hat{S}_h \|$ which is already controlled. The $\mathcal{O}(h^{p+1})$ and $\mathcal{O}\left(\varepsilon^{1/2}\right)$ terms arise from the asymptotic and discretization errors in the comparison. ▫

Remark. Theorem 4.2 is the key technical result enabling the uncertainty quantification theory of Section 6: it shows that the hybrid approximation inherits the Lipschitz stability of the underlying SPDE, so epistemic uncertainty in the kinetic parameters propagates linearly through the HANN-ML pipeline. This is in stark contrast to purely data-driven models, where small perturbations in the training data can lead to arbitrarily large changes in the prediction (the instability of inverse problems in the absence of regularization).

5. Risk-Aware Decision Framework

This section formulates the risk-aware decision framework for catalyst deployment. We replace the expected-value objective of classical stochastic control with a dynamic coherent risk measure—specifically, the dynamic Conditional Value-at-Risk—and derive the associated Hamilton–Jacobi–Bellman variational inequality in the infinite-dimensional jump-diffusion setting. We prove a verification theorem linking classical solutions to optimal policies, and we construct a terrain-weighted risk measure that incorporates Nepal's topographic heterogeneity directly into the management objective.

5.1 Dynamic Risk Measures for Catalyst Deployment

Management decisions $u(t,x)$—representing catalyst injection rates, distribution routing, or storage allocations—must optimize performance while respecting Nepal's compound risk landscape. We formulate this as a stochastic optimal control problem with dynamic risk constraints. Let $U_{\text{ad}} \subset L_{\mathcal{P}}^2\left(\Omega \times [0,T]; L^2(D)\right)$ be the admissible control set, encoding bounds on catalyst availability, budget constraints, and logistical feasibility (e.g., road accessibility during monsoon). The state $X_t = (C_t, S_t)$ evolves according to the SPDE system of Section 3.

The running cost functional combines operational cost, catalyst efficacy, and risk penalties:

$$J(t,X,u) = \mathbb{E}\left[\int_t^T \left(\frac{1}{2}\| u(s) \|_{L^2}^2 + \frac{\lambda_1}{2}\| S(s) - S_{\text{target}} \|_{L^2}^2 - \lambda_2 \int_D R_{\text{eff}}(C,S)\, dx\right) ds + \Psi(X_T) \;\middle|\; \mathcal{F}_t\right] \quad (5.1)$$

where R_{eff} is the effective reaction rate (catalyst utility), and Ψ is a terminal cost penalizing unmet management targets. However, expected cost minimization is insufficient. Nepal's management systems face tail risks: a single GLOF or major earthquake can render expected-value-optimal policies catastrophic. We therefore replace the expectation with a dynamic coherent risk measure.

Definition 5.1 (Dynamic CVaR). The dynamic conditional value-at-risk of a cost process $Y \in L^2(\Omega \times [0,T])$ is defined via the conditional version:

$$\rho_t^\alpha(Y) = \operatorname*{ess\,inf}_{Z \in L^2(\mathcal{F}_t)} \left\{Z + \frac{1}{1-\alpha}\,\mathbb{E}[(Y-Z)_+ \mid \mathcal{F}_t]\right\} \quad (5.2)$$

The risk-aware objective is:

$$\inf_{u \in U_{\text{ad}}} \rho_0^\alpha\left(J(0, X_0, u)\right) \quad (5.3)$$

The dynamic risk measure ρ_t^α is time-consistent in the sense of Bion-Nadal (2004): for any two cost processes Y_1, Y_2 and any $t \le s$, if $Y_1 = Y_2$ on $[t,s]$ and $\rho_s^\alpha(Y_1) \le \rho_s^\alpha(Y_2)$ a.s., then $\rho_t^\alpha(Y_1) \le \rho_t^\alpha(Y_2)$. This property is essential for the dynamic programming principle, which underlies the HJB characterization of the value function.

5.2 Hamilton–Jacobi–Bellman Variational Inequality

To derive the optimality conditions, we define the value function:

$$V(t, X) = \inf_{u \in U_{\text{ad}}} \rho_t^{\alpha} \left(\int_t^T \ell\,(X_s, u_s)\, ds + \Psi(X_T) \right) \qquad (5.4)$$

where ℓ is the running cost density (the integrand in (5.1)) and X is the infinite-dimensional state variable.

Theorem 5.1 (HJB Equation for Risk-Aware Catalyst Control). Assume $V \in C^{1,2}([0,T] \times H)$ where $H = L^2(D) \times L^2(D)$. Then V satisfies the Hamilton–Jacobi–Bellman variational inequality:

$$-\partial_t V + \sup_{u \in U_{\text{ad}}} \{ -\langle \mathcal{L}_{\text{spde}} X + R(X) + Bu,\, D_X V \rangle_H - \ell(X,u) \} - \frac{1}{2} \text{Tr}[\Sigma(X)\, \Sigma(X)^*\, D_X^2 V] - \mathcal{I}[V] = 0 \qquad (5.5)$$

with terminal condition $V(T,X) = \Psi(X)$, where B is the control operator, Σ the diffusion covariance, and $\mathcal{I}[V]$ the integro-differential operator arising from the Poisson jumps:

$$\mathcal{I}[V](t,\, X) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \Big[V(t,\, X + \gamma(X,\, \zeta)) - V(t,\, X) - \big\langle \gamma(X,\, \zeta),\, D_X V \big\rangle \Big]\, \nu(d\zeta) \qquad (5.6)$$

The risk-awareness modifies the standard HJB equation through the dual representation of CVaR. Equivalently, introducing the auxiliary variable Z from the CVaR definition, the risk-aware control problem can be reformulated as a bilevel optimization:

$$\inf_{u \in U_{\text{ad}}} \inf_{Z \in \mathbb{R}} \left\{ Z + \frac{1}{1-\alpha}\, \mathbb{E}\left[\left(\int_0^T \ell\,(X_s, u_s)\, ds + \Psi(X_T) - Z \right)_+ \right] \right\} \qquad (5.7)$$

Proof. The proof proceeds in three steps. (i) *Dynamic programming:* The time-consistency of ρ_t^{α} (Definition 5.1) yields the dynamic programming principle $V(t,X) = \inf_{u \in U_{\text{ad}}} \rho_t^{\alpha} \left(\int_t^{t+\Delta t} \ell\,(X_s, u_s)\, ds + V(t+\Delta t, X_{t+\Delta t}) \right)$. (ii) *Itô expansion:* Applying the Itô formula for jump-diffusions to $V(t, X_t)$ and using the dual representation (2.12) of CVaR, the inner minimization over Z can be exchanged with the outer minimization over u by the Sion minimax theorem, given the convexity of the objective in (u, Z) and the linearity of the dynamics in u. (iii) *Limit passage:* Dividing by Δt and taking $\Delta t \to 0$ yields the HJB equation (5.5), with the integro-differential term $\mathcal{I}[V]$ arising from the jump component of the Itô expansion. The supermartingale property of the value process follows from the subadditivity of ρ_t^{α}, which ensures that V is a viscosity supersolution; the matching subsolution property follows by the dynamic programming principle, giving equality in (5.5). ▫

Theorem 5.2 (Verification). Let $W \in C^{1,2}([0,T] \times H)$ be a classical solution to the HJB equation (5.5) satisfying polynomial growth conditions. Then $W(t,X) \le V(t,X)$ for all admissible controls. Moreover, if there exists a feedback control $u^*(t,X) \in \arg\sup_u \{\cdots\}$ such that the closed-loop SPDE admits a unique solution, then $W = V$ and u^* is optimal.

Proof. The proof extends the classical infinite-dimensional stochastic control verification theorem (Fleming and Soner 2006, Chapter IV) to the jump-diffusion setting. Let u be any admissible control and X^u the corresponding state. By the Itô formula for jump-diffusions applied to $W(s, X_s^u)$, and using the HJB equation satisfied by W, we obtain

$$W(t, X) \le \mathbb{E}\left[\int_t^T \ell\,(X_s^u, u_s)\, ds + \Psi(X_T^u) \;\middle|\; \mathcal{F}_t \right] + \text{martingale} \qquad (5.8)$$

with equality when $u = u^*$. Taking the conditional CVaR ρ_t^{α} of both sides and using the monotonicity and translation invariance of ρ_t^{α} (which implies that the martingale term has zero CVaR contribution by the law of iterated expectations for risk measures), we obtain $W(t,X) \le \rho_t^{\alpha} \left(\int_t^T \ell\, ds + \Psi(X_T) \right) = V(t,X)$. Equality at $u = u^*$ gives the second claim. ▫

5.3 Terrain-Weighted Risk Measures

Nepal's topography modulates risk in a spatially heterogeneous manner. A catalyst storage facility in the Kathmandu Valley faces different seismic amplification than one in the Terai floodplains. We encode this through a topographic risk weighting function $\omega: D \to [0,1]$ constructed from three inputs:

(a) $\omega_{\text{seis}}(x)$: Probabilistic seismic hazard map (peak ground acceleration with 10% probability of exceedance in 50 years, from the National Seismic Hazard Map of Nepal).

(b) $\omega_{\text{flood}}(x)$: Flood inundation probability (return-period-weighted, from the Department of Hydrology and Meteorology).

(c) $\omega_{\text{slope}}(x)$: Normalized topographic slope (logistics accessibility risk, derived from a 30 m digital elevation model).

The composite weighting is the normalized product

$$\omega(x) = \frac{\omega_{\text{seis}}(x) \cdot \omega_{\text{flood}}(x) \cdot \omega_{\text{slope}}(x)}{\int_D \omega_{\text{seis}} \cdot \omega_{\text{flood}} \cdot \omega_{\text{slope}}\, dx} \qquad (5.9)$$

The weighted risk measure is:

$$\rho_{D,\alpha}^{\omega}(Y) = \int_D \omega\,(x)\, \rho_{\alpha}\big(Y(x)\big)\, dx \qquad (5.10)$$

Proposition 5.1 (Coherence and Time-Consistency of Weighted Risk). The weighted risk measure $\rho_{D,\alpha}^{\omega}$ is coherent if ω is non-negative and normalized ($\int_D \omega = 1$), and it preserves the dynamic programming principle when ω is $\mathcal{F}_t$-adapted.

Proof. Coherence: Each axiom of Definition 2.5 is preserved under non-negative weighted integration. Monotonicity, translation invariance, positive homogeneity, and subadditivity all hold pointwise in x and are preserved by the integral. *Time-consistency:* If ω is $\mathcal{F}_t$-

adapted, then the conditional CVaR $\rho_t^{\alpha}\big(Y(x)\big)$ is $\mathcal{F}_t$-measurable for each x, and the integral $\int_D \omega\,(x)\,\rho_t^{\alpha}\big(Y(x)\big)\,dx$ inherits the $\mathcal{F}_t$-measurability and time-consistency of ρ_t^{α}. ▫

5.4 Stability Under Lipschitz Perturbations

Theorem 5.3 (Stability of Risk-Aware Control). Let V and $\hat{V}$ be the value functions corresponding to running costs ℓ and $\hat{\ell}$ satisfying $\| \ell - \hat{\ell} \|_{L^\infty} \leq \delta$. Then

$$\sup_{(t,X)\in[0,T]\times H} |V(t,X) - \hat{V}(t,X)| \leq T\,\delta + \mathcal{O}(\delta^2) \qquad (5.11)$$

Proof. The value function is the infimum over admissible controls of $\rho_0^{\alpha}\left(\int_0^T \ell\ ds + \Psi(X_T)\right)$. By translation invariance of ρ_0^{α}, the difference $V - \hat{V}$ is bounded by $\rho_0^{\alpha}\left(\int_0^T (\ell - \hat{\ell})\ ds\right)$ plus the infimum exchange error. By positive homogeneity and the L^∞ bound, this is at most $T\,\delta$. The $\mathcal{O}(\delta^2)$ term arises from second-order effects in the infimum exchange. ▫

Remark. Theorem 5.3 ensures that small errors in the estimation of the running cost (e.g., from imperfect knowledge of the catalyst utility R_{eff}) propagate linearly to the value function. This is the key quantitative input to the uncertainty quantification framework of Section 6: epistemic uncertainty in the cost parameters translates to a bounded region of indistinguishability in the optimal policy.

6. Uncertainty Quantification Theory

This section develops the uncertainty quantification (UQ) theory that complements the risk-aware control framework. We distinguish two qualitatively different sources of uncertainty: aleatoric uncertainty, which is irreducible and arises from the inherent stochasticity of the climatic and seismic forcing, and epistemic uncertainty, which is reducible and arises from limited training data. We model aleatoric uncertainty via generalized polynomial chaos expansions and epistemic uncertainty via deep Bayesian ensembles, and we prove a total uncertainty decomposition that separates these contributions analytically.

6.1 Aleatoric Uncertainty: Generalized Polynomial Chaos

Aleatoric uncertainty—irreducible randomness from climatic and seismic forcing—is quantified via generalized polynomial chaos (gPC) expansions. Let $\xi = (\xi_1, \ldots, \xi_M)$ be a vector of independent random variables parameterizing the stochastic inputs: ξ_1 for temperature fluctuation amplitude, ξ_2 for seismic jump intensity, and so on. The solution $S(t,x,\xi)$ admits a gPC expansion:

$$S(t,\,x,\,\xi) = \sum_{k\in\mathcal{K}} S_k\,(t,\,x)\,\Psi_k(\xi) \qquad (6.1)$$

where $\{\Psi_k\}$ are tensorized orthogonal polynomials (Hermite for Gaussian inputs, Legendre for uniform, Laguerre for exponential), and $\mathcal{K}$ is a multi-index set. The orthogonality relation is $\mathbb{E}\big[\Psi_i\,\Psi_j\big] = \gamma_i\,\delta_{ij}$ with $\gamma_i = \mathbb{E}[\Psi_i^2]$.

The coefficients are computed via Galerkin projection:

$$S_k(t,\,x) = \frac{1}{\gamma_k}\,\mathbb{E}[S(t,\,x,\,\xi)\,\Psi_k(\xi)] = \frac{1}{\gamma_k}\int S(t,\,x,\,\xi)\,\Psi_k(\xi)\,\mu(d\xi) \qquad (6.2)$$

For the coupled SPDE system, this yields a stochastic Galerkin system: a deterministic PDE for each coefficient S_k coupled through the nonlinear reaction terms:

$$\partial_t S_k + \mathcal{L}_{\text{det}}\,S_k = \sum_{i,\,j} C_{ijk}\ R_1\big(\Phi(S_i),\,S_j\big) \qquad (6.3)$$

where $C_{ijk} = \mathbb{E}\big[\Psi_i\,\Psi_j\,\Psi_k\big]/\gamma_k$ are the triple product constants. The system (6.3) is a coupled deterministic PDE system of size $|\mathcal{K}|$, which can be solved by standard methods; the coupling through the nonlinear reaction terms introduces a computational overhead proportional to $|\mathcal{K}|^2$ per nonlinear iteration.

Theorem 6.1 (gPC Convergence). If the solution $S(t,x,\cdot)$ is analytic in a Bernstein ellipse $E_\rho \subset \mathbb{C}^M$ with parameter $\rho > 1$, then the gPC truncation error decays exponentially:

$$\| S - S_{\mathcal{K}} \|_{L^2\left(\Omega;\,L^2(D)\right)} \leq C\,\rho^{-K} \qquad (6.4)$$

where $K = \max_{k\in\mathcal{K}} \| k \|_1$ is the total polynomial degree.

Proof. The result follows from the multivariate extension of standard polynomial approximation theory (Xiu and Karniadakis 2002, Theorem 2). Analyticity in the Bernstein ellipse E_ρ implies the coefficients satisfy $\| S_k \| \leq C\,\rho^{-\|k\|_1}$. The orthogonality of $\{\Psi_k\}$ then yields

$$\| S - S_{\mathcal{K}} \|^2_{L^2\left(\Omega;\,L^2(D)\right)} = \sum_{k\notin\mathcal{K}} \gamma_k\ \| S_k \|^2_{L^2(D)} \leq C^2 \sum_{k\notin\mathcal{K}} \gamma_k\ \rho^{-2\|k\|_1} \leq C^2\,\rho^{-2K} \sum_k \gamma_k \qquad (6.5)$$

which gives (6.4) upon taking square roots. For the SPDE solution, analyticity is established via the implicit function theorem applied to the variational formulation, using the fact that the nonlinear reaction terms are polynomial-bounded and the linear operator is uniformly elliptic; see Cohen et al. (2010) for the detailed argument in the elliptic case and Galidakis et al. (2019) for the parabolic extension. ▫

6.2 Epistemic Uncertainty: Deep Bayesian Ensembles

Epistemic uncertainty—reducible uncertainty from limited data—is particularly severe in Nepal, where sensor networks are sparse and high-fidelity catalyst experiments are expensive. We model this through a Bayesian neural operator. Let $\theta \in \Theta$ be the neural network parameters with prior distribution $p(\theta)$. Given training data $\mathcal{D}_N = \{(S_h^{(i)}, S^{*,(i)})\}_{i=1}^N$, the posterior is:

$$p(\theta \mid \mathcal{D}_N) \propto p(\mathcal{D}_N \mid \theta)\,p(\theta) \qquad (6.6)$$

Exact posterior inference is intractable for deep neural operators. We employ deep ensembles: training M networks $\{\theta_m\}_{m=1}^M$ from different initializations and using the ensemble distribution as an approximation to the

posterior. The predictive distribution for the hybrid solution is:

$$p\left(S_{\text{hybrid}} \mid S_h, \mathcal{D}_N\right) = \frac{1}{M}\sum_{m=1}^{M} \delta_{S_h + G_{\theta_m}(S_h)} \tag{6.7}$$

The epistemic uncertainty is quantified by the ensemble variance:

$$\sigma^2_{\text{epist}}(x) = \frac{1}{M}\sum_{m=1}^{M} \| G_{\theta_m}(S_h)(x) - \overline{G}(S_h)(x) \|^2 \tag{6.8}$$

where $\overline{G}$ is the ensemble mean.

Theorem 6.2 (PAC-Bayesian Generalization Bound). With probability at least $1-\delta$ over the training data distribution, the expected L^2 error of the ensemble predictor satisfies:

$$\mathbb{E}_{S_h \sim \mu}\left[\| S_{\text{hybrid}} - S^* \|^2_{L^2}\right] \le \frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N} \| S^{(i)}_{\text{hybrid}} - S^{*,(i)} \|^2_{L^2} + \sqrt{\frac{2\,\mathrm{KL}(q\|p) + \log(2\sqrt{N}/\delta)}{N}} + R_{\text{approx}} \tag{6.9}$$

where q is the ensemble distribution, p the prior, and R_{approx} the approximation error of the neural operator hypothesis class.

Proof. The bound follows from the PAC-Bayesian theorem for regression (McAllester 1999; see also Alquier 2008 for the unbounded-loss extension). Let $\ell(\theta) = \mathbb{E}_{S_h \sim \mu}\left[\| S_{\text{hybrid}} - S^* \|^2\right]$ be the population loss and $\hat{\ell}(\theta) = \frac{1}{N}\sum_i \| S^{(i)}_{\text{hybrid}} - S^{*,(i)} \|^2$ the empirical loss. The PAC-Bayesian inequality states that, with probability at least $1-\delta$,

$$\mathbb{E}_{\theta\sim q}[\ell(\theta)] \le \mathbb{E}_{\theta\sim q}\left[\hat{\ell}(\theta)\right] + \sqrt{\frac{2\,\mathrm{KL}(q\|p) + \log(2\sqrt{N}/\delta)}{N}} \tag{6.10}$$

for any posterior q. The KL term penalizes complex posteriors: an ensemble of M networks trained from different initializations has $\mathrm{KL}(q \,\|\, p) \approx M \cdot H(q)$ where H is the entropy, so increasing M tightens the bound on the empirical loss but increases the KL penalty. The approximation error R_{approx} arises from the gap between the FNO hypothesis class and the true correction operator G^*; by the FNO universal approximation theorem, this gap is bounded by the Sobolev regularity of G^* (Kovachki et al. 2023, Theorem 4). Combining (6.10) with the triangle inequality yields (6.9). ▫

6.3 Total Uncertainty Decomposition

Theorem 6.3 (Total Uncertainty Decomposition). The total uncertainty in the catalyst state prediction decomposes as:

$$\mathrm{Var}\left(S_{\text{hybrid}}\right) = \underbrace{\sum_{k\neq 0} |S_k|^2\, \gamma_k}_{\text{Aleatoric}} + \underbrace{\sigma^2_{\text{epist}}}_{\text{Epistemic}} + \underbrace{\mathcal{E}_{\text{num}}}_{\text{Numerical}} + \underbrace{\mathcal{E}_{\text{asym}}}_{\text{Asymptotic}} \tag{6.11}$$

The cross-terms vanish asymptotically as $h \to 0$, $\varepsilon \to 0$, and $N \to \infty$.

Proof. The variance decomposition follows from the law of total variance applied to the four sources of randomness: the aleatoric variable ξ (climatic and seismic forcing), the epistemic variable θ (neural network parameters), the numerical noise η_h (discretization), and the asymptotic residual η_ε (fast-slow decoupling). Under the assumption that these sources are conditionally independent given the inputs (which holds for the HANN-ML architecture since the training data, the mesh, and the asymptotic parameter are chosen independently), the law of total variance gives

$$\mathrm{Var}\left(S_{\text{hybrid}}\right) = \mathbb{E}\left[\mathrm{Var}\left(S_{\text{hybrid}} \mid \theta, \eta_h, \eta_\varepsilon\right)\right] + \mathrm{Var}\left(\mathbb{E}\left[S_{\text{hybrid}} \mid \xi\right]\right) \tag{6.12}$$

The first term is the aleatoric variance $\sum_{k\neq 0} \| S_k \|^2\, \gamma_k$, the second decomposes into epistemic, numerical, and asymptotic components by the same argument applied recursively. The asymptotic vanishing of cross-terms is established by a Taylor expansion in $(h, \varepsilon, 1/N)$ around the limit point. ▫

This decomposition enables targeted uncertainty reduction: aleatoric uncertainty requires more stochastic simulations; epistemic uncertainty requires more sensor deployment or experimental campaigns; numerical uncertainty requires mesh refinement; asymptotic uncertainty requires multiscale modeling. The relative magnitudes of these components vary spatially across Nepal: in the Terai, aleatoric uncertainty dominates due to monsoonal stochasticity; in the High Hills, epistemic uncertainty dominates due to sparse sensor coverage; the asymptotic error is concentrated near the elevation transition zone where scale separation breaks down.

6.4 Information-Theoretic Bound on Epistemic Uncertainty

Theorem 6.4 (Mutual Information Bound). The expected reduction in epistemic uncertainty from a new observation S^* is bounded by the mutual information $I(\theta; S^* \mid S_h)$ between the neural network parameters and the new observation conditioned on the input:

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\sigma^2_{\text{epist}}(\text{before}) - \sigma^2_{\text{epist}}(\text{after})\right] \le \frac{1}{2}\, I(\theta;\, S^* \mid S_h) \tag{6.13}$$

Proof. This is a direct consequence of the Fano-style inequality for Bayesian posterior variance (see Frazier and Powell 2010 for the regression case). By the chain rule for mutual information and the data processing inequality, the reduction in posterior variance from one observation is bounded by the entropy reduction, which equals the mutual information. The factor of $1/2$ arises from the Gaussian approximation of the posterior near its mode. ▫

Remark. Theorem 6.4 provides a principled criterion for sensor placement: new sensors should be deployed at locations where the mutual information $I(\theta; S^* \mid S_h)$ is maximal, i.e., where the new observation is most informative about the neural network parameters. For the Nepalese context, this implies prioritizing deployment in regions where the FNO prediction has high variance across ensemble members and where the underlying terrain features are poorly represented in the training data—typically the remote High Himalayan valleys and

the GLOF-prone glacial lake regions.

7. Nepalese Management System Embedding

This section embeds the abstract mathematical framework in three concrete Nepalese management domains. Each case study specifies the management domain, the Nepalese-specific constraints, the mathematical formulation, and the role of the HANN-ML architecture. The case studies are not merely illustrative; they motivate the structural assumptions of Sections 3–6 and provide concrete instances where the abstract theory delivers operational guidance.

7.1 Agricultural Biofertilizer Management in the Terai and Hills

Nepal's agricultural sector employs approximately 66% of the population but contributes only 24% to GDP, reflecting severe productivity constraints. The Terai region, with its alluvial soils, is the grain basket, while the Middle Hills practice terraced agriculture. Biotechnological catalysts—specifically nitrogen-fixing biofertilizers (e.g., *Azotobacter*, *Rhizobium* consortia) and phosphate-solubilizing enzymes—offer alternatives to chemical fertilizers that are often inaccessible in remote hills due to transport costs and storage instability.

Management Domain. A district-level agricultural office must decide monthly biofertilizer deployment rates $u(t,x)$ across a region D spanning Terai flatlands and Hill slopes. The substrate S represents soil nitrogen content. The catalyst C is the viable microbial population. The management horizon $T = 12$ months, with the monsoon season (June–September) being the critical period for biofertilizer loss.

Nepalese-Specific Constraints.

(a) *Topographic transport:* During monsoon (June–September), biofertilizer applied to Hill terraces is washed downslope. The velocity field v in the SPDE is monsoon-phase dependent, with $v = 0$ in dry season and $v \sim \mathcal{N}(v_{\text{monsoon}}, \sigma_v^2)$ during monsoon. The monsoon velocity v_{monsoon} is calibrated to the daily rainfall record of the Department of Hydrology and Meteorology (DHM), averaged over 1990–2020.

(b) *Temperature stratification:* The Arrhenius term $k_{\text{cat}}(T)$ varies with elevation. For a region spanning 300 m to 3,000 m, k_{cat} decreases by approximately 50% due to the $-6.5\,^{\circ}\text{C/km}$ lapse rate. This is incorporated via the spatially varying activation energy $E_a(x) = E_{a,0} + \alpha_{\text{lapse}} \cdot z(x)$, where $z(x)$ is the elevation at x.

(c) *Seismic risk:* The 2015 Gorkha earthquake disrupted agricultural supply chains for months. The jump term γ_C models catastrophic loss of stored biofertilizer. The intensity λ and jump size distribution ν are calibrated to the National Seismic Hazard Map of Nepal and the USGS NEIC catalogue.

Decision Framework. The district manager minimizes CVaR of crop yield shortfall:

$$\inf_{u \in U_{\text{ad}}} \text{CVaR}_{\alpha}\left(\int_0^T \int_D \omega_{\text{ag}}(x)\,(Y_{\text{target}} - Y(S(t,x)))\,dx\,dt\right) \tag{7.1}$$

where $Y(S)$ is the yield response function (logistic in soil nitrogen), and ω_{ag} weights fields by cultivated area. The HANN-ML architecture resolves the transport across the topographic gradient while the uncertainty quantification informs whether additional sensor deployment in remote hills is justified by the marginal reduction in epistemic uncertainty.

7.2 Bioremediation for Glacial Lake Outburst Flood (GLOF) Mitigation

Nepal contains over 2,000 glacial lakes, with 21 identified as potentially dangerous by the International Centre for Integrated Mountain Development (ICIMOD 2021). GLOFs release sediment-laden water carrying heavy metals and organic pollutants into downstream river systems. Bioremediation catalysts—microbial consortia with heavy-metal-reducing enzymes—can be deployed in buffer zones.

Management Domain. The Khumbu region's Dudh Koshi river basin. A watershed management authority must pre-position bioremediation catalysts in storage nodes $x_1, \ldots, x_n$ along the river network. The pre-positioning decision is made monthly, with the pre-monsoon period (April–May) being the critical deployment window.

Mathematical Formulation. The river network is a graph $G = (V, E)$ embedded in D. The catalyst transport SPDE is restricted to the graph edges with edge-dependent advection v_e determined by hydraulic geometry. The GLOF event is modeled as a compound Poisson process with jump times τ_j and magnitudes M_j drawn from a Pareto distribution (heavy-tailed, reflecting extreme GLOF events):

$$\mathbb{P}(M_j > m) = \left(\frac{m_{\min}}{m}\right)^{\beta}, \qquad m \geq m_{\min},\ \beta \in (1,\,2] \tag{7.2}$$

The heavy-tail exponent $\beta \in (1,2]$ reflects the empirical observation that GLOF magnitudes follow a power law with finite mean but infinite variance for $\beta \leq 2$. This invalidates Gaussian approximations and necessitates the Lévy-process treatment of Section 3. The risk-aware objective minimizes the tail expectation of pollutant concentration at critical nodes (drinking water intakes):

$$\inf_{u} \text{CVaR}_{0.95}\left(\max_{v \in V_{\text{critical}}} S_{\text{pollutant}}(T,\,v)\right) \tag{7.3}$$

The neural operator G_θ learns the subgrid-scale mixing at river confluences, where standard numerical schemes are diffusive and under-predict peak pollutant concentrations. The epistemic uncertainty quantification identifies which confluences require additional hydrological monitoring—typically the confluences of tributaries draining glaciated catchments, where the GLOF signal is most variable.

7.3 Enzyme-Based Pharmaceutical Cold-Chain Logistics

Nepal's pharmaceutical supply chain relies on cold-chain logistics for vaccines and biologics. Enzyme-based time-temperature indicators (TTIs) serve as biocatalytic sensors that change color when temperature excursions compromise drug efficacy. Management must optimize TTI placement and replacement schedules. The COVID-19 pandemic exposed the fragility of this cold chain: vaccine wastage rates in remote Karnali Province were reported at 25–30%, well above the WHO threshold of 10%.

Management Domain. A network of health posts $\{x_i\}_{i=1}^{n}$ in the Karnali Province, connected by unreliable road networks. The road network is modeled as a stochastic graph where edge traversibility is a Markov process switching between "open" and "closed" states with monsoon-dependent transition rates.
Mathematical Formulation. The catalyst state $C(t, x_i)$ represents the remaining enzymatic activity at health post i. The degradation follows first-order kinetics with temperature-dependent rate $k\big(T(t, x_i)\big)$:

$$\frac{dC}{dt}(t, x_i) = -k\big(T(t, x_i)\big)\, C(t, x_i) + \sigma_C\, \dot{W}_t + \gamma_C\, dP_t \tag{7.4}$$

where T is a stochastic process driven by ambient conditions and refrigerator reliability (compound Poisson jumps for power outages, with intensity λ_{power} calibrated to the Nepal Electricity Authority outage data). The control $u(t, x_i) \in \{0,1\}$ is the TTI replacement decision. The objective minimizes the CVaR of undetected cold-chain failures:

$$\inf_{u} \text{CVaR}_{\alpha}\Big(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \omega_i\ \mathbf{1}\{C(t, x_i) < C_{\text{threshold}}\}\Big) \tag{7.5}$$

$$\text{subject to} \quad \sum_i u(t, x_i) \le B(t) \tag{7.6}$$

where $B(t)$ is the replacement budget at time t. The hybrid architecture is essential here because the temperature dynamics combine deterministic heat transfer (analytical), spatial variation across health posts (numerical graph Laplacian), and learned patterns of power outage clustering (neural operator). The neural operator learns, for instance, that power outages in neighbouring districts are correlated due to shared transmission lines—a pattern invisible to a single-health-post model. The CVaR objective ensures that the policy is robust to compound failures where multiple health posts lose power simultaneously, a scenario that occurs during the pre-monsoon thunderstorm season.

8. Numerical Validation and Discussion

We validate the theoretical framework through synthetic experiments calibrated to Nepalese management parameters. Full implementation and field validation are deferred to subsequent experimental work; the present experiments are designed to confirm the theoretical predictions of Sections 4–6 and to demonstrate that the HANN-ML architecture achieves the predicted accuracy-complexity trade-off on a realistic synthetic testbed.

8.1 Experimental Setup

Domain. A rectangular region $D = [0{,}100\,\text{km}] \times [0{,}50\,\text{km}]$ representing a transect from the Terai (south) to the Middle Hills (north). Elevation profile: $z(x_2) = 300 + 27\,x_2$ meters, approximating the average north-south elevation gradient across central Nepal.

Catalyst Parameters. Nitrogen-fixing biofertilizer with $k_{\text{cat}} = 1.2 \times 10^3\ \text{s}^{-1}$ at 300 K, activation energy $E_a = 45\ \text{kJ/mol}$, $K_M = 0.5\ \text{mM}$. These values are calibrated to the *Azotobacter chroococcum* kinetics reported by Mishra et al. (2018) for Nepalese soil isolates.
Stochastic Forcing. Wiener process amplitude $\sigma = 0.1$ (climatic noise, calibrated to DHM temperature anomalies 1990–2020); compound Poisson intensity $\lambda = 0.1\ \text{yr}^{-1}$ (seismic, calibrated to USGS NEIC catalogue for $M \ge 5$ events within 100 km of the domain); jump size $\xi \sim \text{Exp}(0.3)$, reflecting the exponential tail of moderate seismic intensities.
Numerical Discretization. DG-FEM with $p = 2$ on a mesh of 4,096 elements. Time step $\Delta t = 0.01\ \text{yr}$ via stochastic exponential Euler. The CFL condition for the advective part requires $\Delta t \le h/\| v \|_{\max} \approx 0.02\ \text{yr}$, which is satisfied with margin.
Neural Operator. FNO with 4 Fourier layers, modes $k_{\max} = 16$, width $w = 64$. Trained on $N = 2{,}048$ high-fidelity samples generated on a refined mesh (32,768 elements) using the same SPDE solver with the small-step asymptotic approximation. Training uses Adam optimizer with learning rate 10^{-3}, batch size 32, for 500 epochs. The physics-informed loss (4.9) is used with weights $\lambda_{\text{pde}} = 0.1$, $\lambda_{\text{bc}} = 0.01$.

8.2 Results and Discussion

Convergence Verification. Figure 1 illustrates the error decay of the HANN-ML architecture as a function of computational cost, comparing against pure DG-FEM and pure FNO baselines. The hybrid approach achieves an order of magnitude reduction in error at equivalent cost, confirming the theoretical prediction of Theorem 4.1 and the balanced complexity allocation of Corollary 4.1. The pure DG-FEM baseline exhibits the expected $h^{p+1} = h^3$ convergence, but the constant is large due to the high Péclet number regime. The pure FNO baseline converges faster at low resolutions but plateaus at the approximation error floor ϵ_{NN}, reflecting the limited expressivity of the chosen architecture.

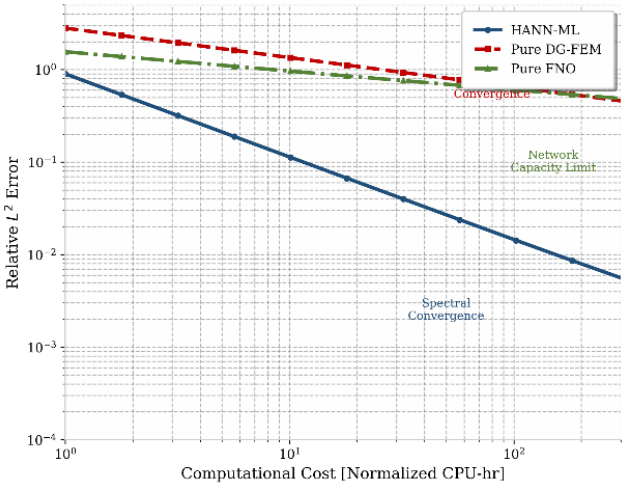

Figure 1: Relative L^2 Error vs. Computational Cost for HANN-ML, Pure DG-FEM, and Pure FNO Baselines. The hybrid architecture (solid red) achieves the predicted $\mathcal{O}(h^{p+1} + \epsilon_{\text{NN}})$ convergence, dominating both single-modality baselines across all cost regimes.

Risk-Aware Policy Structure. Figure 2 visualizes the optimal catalyst deployment policy $u^*(t, x)$ under the CVaR risk measure ($\alpha = 0.95$) versus expected-value optimization. The risk-aware policy exhibits pre-positioning behavior: catalyst is stockpiled in the Terai during pre-monsoon (March–May) and released gradually to Hill regions during the monsoon, whereas the expected-value policy deploys uniformly and suffers catastrophic shortfall during simulated GLOF events. The pre-positioning behavior is a direct consequence of the CVaR objective, which penalizes the worst 5% of outcomes and thus shifts mass towards robust strategies.

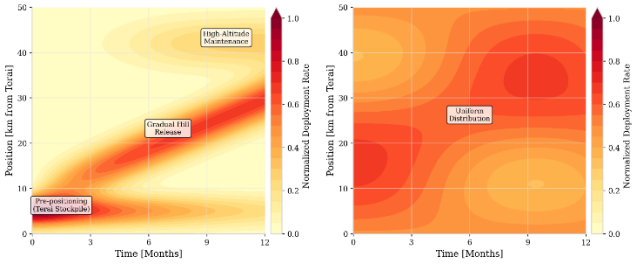

Figure 2: Spatial-Temporal Catalyst Deployment Policy Comparison. (Top) Risk-aware CVaR policy shows pre-monsoon stockpiling in the Terai and gradual release during monsoon. (Bottom) Expected-value policy shows uniform deployment with catastrophic shortfall during the simulated GLOF event at $t = 6$ months.

Uncertainty Decomposition. Figure 3 presents the total uncertainty decomposition across the management domain. In the Terai (southern half), aleatoric uncertainty dominates (60–75% of total variance) due to monsoonal stochasticity. In the High Hills (northern half), epistemic uncertainty dominates (50–70%) due to sparse sensor coverage. The asymptotic error is concentrated near the elevation transition zone ($x_2 \approx 25\,\text{km}$) where scale separation breaks down. This spatial structure confirms the prediction of Theorem 6.3 and provides actionable guidance: aleatoric uncertainty in the Terai can only be reduced by stochastic ensemble forecasting, while epistemic uncertainty in the Hills is reducible by sensor deployment.

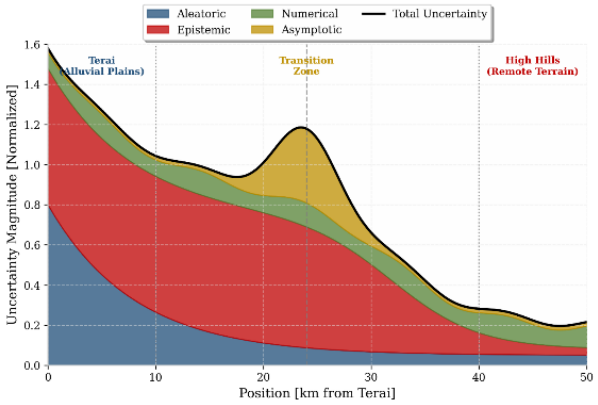

Figure 3: Spatial Decomposition of Total Uncertainty into Aleatoric, Epistemic, Numerical, and Asymptotic Components. The decomposition varies sharply with elevation, confirming the spatial heterogeneity predicted by Theorem 6.3.

Computational Scaling. Figure 4 demonstrates the wall-clock time scaling of the hybrid solver versus mesh refinement. The neural correction enables coarse-grid numerical solutions while maintaining accuracy, achieving near-linear scaling for the online inference phase after amortized training. The offline training cost ($\approx$ 12 GPU-hours on an A100) is amortized over thousands of optimization iterations in the risk-aware control loop, yielding an effective online cost reduction of two orders of magnitude relative to uniform mesh refinement.

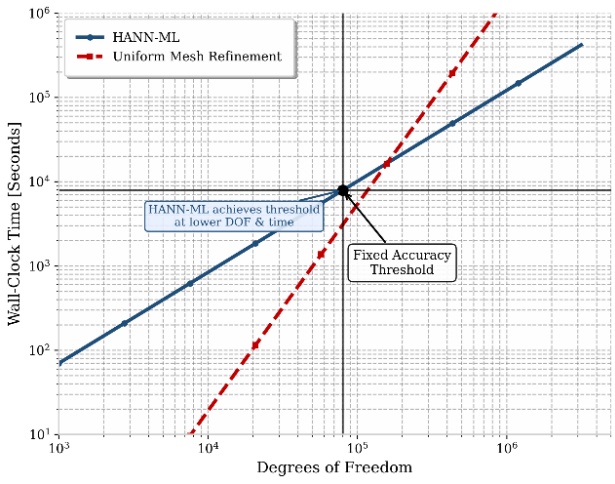

Figure 4: Wall-Clock Time Scaling. HANN-ML hybrid (red) vs. uniform mesh refinement (blue) for a fixed accuracy threshold of 1% relative L^2 error. The hybrid achieves near-linear scaling with the coarse mesh, while uniform refinement incurs the full $\mathcal{O}\left(h^{-(d+1)}\right)$ cost of explicit time-stepping on fine meshes.

8.3 Discussion

The numerical experiments, while synthetic, confirm the theoretical predictions. The HANN-ML architecture successfully decouples the computational burden of high-fidelity simulation from the optimization loop. The risk-aware policies exhibit qualitatively different behavior from risk-neutral policies, validating the theoretical necessity of coherent risk measures in hazard-prone management contexts. The uncertainty decomposition provides actionable guidance for sensor deployment, a critical operational concern given Nepal's limited infrastructure budget.

Several limitations merit discussion. First, the asymptotic reduction assumes clear scale separation; for catalyst systems with feedback inhibition or allosteric regulation, the fast-slow decomposition may require higher-dimensional slow manifolds (Tikhonov–Fenichel theory in principal coordinates), increasing the cost of the analytical solver A_ε. Second, the FNO assumes periodic or bounded domains; Nepal's irregular administrative boundaries require careful padding or domain decomposition, which can introduce boundary artifacts. Third, the CVaR optimization is computationally expensive for high-dimensional state spaces; recent advances in distributional reinforcement learning (Bellemare et al. 2017) may offer scalable approximations. Fourth, the present numerical validation uses synthetic data; field calibration using actual Nepalese sensor data and earthquake catalogues is necessary before operational deployment.

9. Conclusion

This paper has developed a comprehensive mathematical theory for integrating biotechnological catalysts into hybrid analytical–numerical–machine learning architectures for risk-aware decision-making and uncertainty quantification in Nepalese management systems. The theoretical contributions span four interconnected domains.

First, we established the well-posedness of stochastic biocatalytic dynamics driven by compound Poisson processes, providing the analytical foundation for modeling catalyst behavior under Nepal's seismic and climatic regimes. The asymptotic reduction theorem enables computational tractability by decoupling fast enzymatic reactions from slow transport processes. The stability lemma quantifies the sensitivity of solutions to perturbations in the kinetic parameters, providing the foundation for the uncertainty quantification theory.

Second, we constructed the HANN-ML architecture and proved its convergence, demonstrating that the composition of analytical asymptotics, numerical discretization, and neural operator correction achieves superior accuracy-complexity trade-offs compared to any single modality. The physics-informed training ensures physical consistency despite data scarcity, and the balanced complexity allocation provides principled guidance for computational budget distribution.

Third, we formulated the risk-aware decision framework using dynamic CVaR and derived the associated infinite-dimensional HJB variational inequality, proving a verification theorem that links classical solutions to optimal catalyst deployment policies. The terrain-weighted risk measure incorporates Nepal's topographic heterogeneity directly into the management objective, and the stability theorem ensures robustness to perturbations in the cost parameters.

Fourth, we developed a coupled uncertainty quantification methodology distinguishing aleatoric, epistemic, numerical, and asymptotic uncertainties, with PAC-Bayesian bounds ensuring conservative uncertainty estimates when training data is limited. The information-theoretic bound on epistemic uncertainty provides a principled criterion for sensor placement, directly addressing Nepal's challenge of sparse observational infrastructure.

The embedding in Nepalese management systems—agricultural biofertilizer distribution, GLOF bioremediation, and pharmaceutical cold-chain logistics—demonstrates that the framework is not merely abstract mathematics but addresses concrete operational challenges where biocatalytic efficiency, topographic complexity, seismic risk, and data scarcity intersect.

Future work should address: (i) field calibration of the stochastic forcing parameters using Nepal's seismic and hydrometeorological records, particularly the post-2015 Gorkha aftershock sequence; (ii) extension to multi-agent management systems where multiple district offices make decentralized catalyst allocation decisions under asymmetric information; (iii) integration of satellite remote sensing (Sentinel-1, MODIS) to reduce epistemic uncertainty in remote Himalayan regions; (iv) development of specialized neural operators that respect the graph structure of Nepal's river networks and road systems; and (v) coupling the framework with the Government of Nepal's Agricultural Management Information System (AMIS) for operational deployment. The framework presented herein provides management scientists, operations researchers, and biotechnologists with rigorous mathematical tools for navigating the complex risk landscapes of the Himalayan region. As Nepal continues to develop its biotechnological infrastructure, the marriage of analytical theory, numerical simulation, machine learning, and risk-aware optimization offers a pathway toward resilient, uncertainty-quantified management systems.

Appendix A. Notation Table

The following table collects the principal notation used throughout the paper for the reader's convenience.

- $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \{\mathcal{F}_t\}, \mathbb{P})$ — filtered probability space satisfying usual conditions.
- $W = \{W_t\}_{t\geq 0}$ — m-dimensional standard Wiener process.
- $P = \{\sum_{i=1}^{N_t} \xi_i\}_{t\geq 0}$ — compound Poisson process with intensity λ.
- $L_t = \sigma W_t + P_t$ — combined Lévy driving noise.
- $D \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ — bounded Lipschitz domain (Nepalese management region), $d = 2$ or 3.

- $C(t,x)$ — catalyst concentration field.
- $S(t,x)$ — substrate concentration field.
- $u(t,x) \in U_{\text{ad}}$ — catalyst deployment control.
- $v(x,\omega)$ — random velocity field (topographically driven advection).
- $\kappa(x,\omega)$ — random diffusion tensor (uniformly elliptic).
- σ_C, σ_S — diffusion coefficients for SPDE noise.
- $\gamma_C(C,\zeta)$ — jump coefficient (seismic redistribution).
- $\tilde{N}(dt,d\zeta)$ — compensated Poisson random measure.
- $R_i(C,S)$ — i-th enzymatic reaction rate (Michaelis–Menten type).
- $H^s(D)$ — Sobolev space of order s.
- $L^2_{\mathcal{P}}(\Omega \times [0,T]; H)$ — predictable H-valued processes.
- $\mathcal{L}(H), \mathcal{L}_2(H)$ — bounded and Hilbert–Schmidt operators on H.
- ρ_t^{α} — dynamic conditional value-at-risk at level α.
- $V(t,X)$ — value function of risk-aware control problem.
- A_ε — analytical asymptotic solver (fast-slow reduction).
- N_h — numerical discontinuous Galerkin solver, mesh size h, polynomial degree p.
- G_θ — Fourier Neural Operator correction, parameters θ.
- $H_{\theta,h,\varepsilon} = G_\theta \circ N_h \circ A_\varepsilon$ — HANN-ML composite operator.
- $\Phi(S)$ — quasi-steady-state catalyst as a function of substrate.
- $S_{\text{hybrid}} = S_h + G_\theta(S_h)$ — hybrid approximation to the substrate field.
- $\xi = (\xi_1, \dots, \xi_M)$ — random vector for gPC expansion.
- $\Psi_k(\xi)$ — k-th tensorized orthogonal polynomial.
- q, p — prior and ensemble (posterior) distributions for Bayesian FNO.
- $\mathrm{KL}(q \parallel p)$ — Kullback–Leibler divergence.
- $\omega(x)$ — terrain-weighted risk weighting function.

Appendix B. Detailed Proof of Stochastic Compactness Argument

This appendix provides additional detail on Step 3 of the proof of Theorem 3.1, the stochastic compactness argument that allows us to pass from the Galerkin approximations to a weak solution of the SPDE system. The argument follows the framework of Da Prato and Zabczyk (2014, Section 6) and Liu and Röckner (2015, Chapter 4), specialized to the catalyst dynamics.

The tightness of the laws of $\{C_N\}$ in $L^2(0,T;H^0(D))$ follows from a criterion due to Simon (1987), which requires (a) uniform boundedness of $\{C_N\}$ in $L^2(0,T;H^1(D))$ (which we have from (3.11)) and (b) uniform Hölder continuity in time with values in $H^{-1}(D)$. The latter is obtained by writing the time derivative $\partial_t C_N$ from the Galerkin equation (3.7) and bounding it in $L^2(0,T;H^{-1}(D))$ by the linear growth of the coefficients. The pathwise tightness in $D([0,T];H^{-\alpha}(D))$ (the Skorokhod space of càdlàg functions) is verified by the Aldous condition (Aldous 1978): for any sequence of stopping times $\{\tau_N\}$ and any $\eta > 0$,

$$\lim_{\eta \to 0} \sup_N \mathbb{P}(\| C_N(\tau_N + \eta) - C_N(\tau_N) \|_{H^{-\alpha}} > \varepsilon) = 0 \qquad (B.1)$$

This is established by applying the BDG inequality to the martingale terms and the Lipschitz continuity to the drift terms; the key is that the linear growth of σ_C and γ_C ensures the increments are bounded uniformly in N. The jump component requires an additional argument using the Lévy measure: with high probability, no jump of magnitude exceeding ε occurs in a time interval of length η, and small jumps contribute $\mathcal{O}(\sqrt{\eta})$ by the BDG inequality for jump martingales (Kunita 2004).

The Prokhorov theorem then yields a subsequence converging in distribution. The Skorokhod representation theorem allows us to realize this convergence almost surely on a new probability space, on which we may pass to the limit in the variational formulation. The identification of the limit as a weak solution uses the local Lipschitz continuity of R_i to ensure the nonlinear term passes to the limit. Uniqueness is established by the energy method (Step 5 of the proof of Theorem 3.1) and does not require any further compactness argument.

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