

Gaussian Process

Machine Learning for Observable Interpolation and Data Analysis

Ryan Ferguson

r.ferguson.3@research.gla.ac.uk

Why are we doing this?

Why?

• Information from hadron data is limited by incomplete and potentially inconsistent datasets.



What can machine learning do?

- A Gaussian Process (GP) can be used to predict the mean and standard deviation of other, unknown, datapoints.
- This can be used to build a more consistent, accurate and complete dataset.
- Datasets from different experiments of the same variable can be compared and checked using some statistical measures.
- The GP could provide significantly improved datasets which theorists can use to test models and check for significant areas of divergence between the GP fit and theoretical models.

How does it work?

Mathematical Process I

Assume that we have *n* known datapoints of the form (\vec{x}_i, y_i) with known errors e_i used to define the expression form $\vec{y} = f(X)$. Here \vec{x}_i is a vector of the kinematic variables (e.g. energy, scattering angle, etc.).

Assume that \vec{y} is drawn from a Multivariate Gaussian of the form $p(\vec{y}|X) \sim \mathcal{N}(\vec{0}, K)$, where $K = \kappa(X, X) + \vec{e}^2 I_n$ is the $n \ge n$ covariance matrix and κ is some kernel function that is used to measure the covariance. Here $K_{ab} = \kappa(\vec{x}_a, \vec{x}_b) + \delta_{ab} e_a^2$, where \vec{x}_a, \vec{x}_b are rows of the matrix X.

Mathematical Process II

Assume that there are *m* known datapoints of the form outlined previously, with known $\vec{x_{*i}}$ with unknown scalars y_{*i} , which are correlated to the *n* known datapoints.

A matrix X_* can then be generated whose rows are the vectors $\vec{x_*}$.

As $\vec{y_*}$ is correlated to \vec{y} , they are drawn from the same multivariate Gaussian:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \vec{y} \\ \vec{y_*} \end{bmatrix} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\underline{0}, \begin{bmatrix} K & K_* \\ K_*^T & K_{**} \end{bmatrix}\right)$$

where $K_* = \kappa(X, X_*), K_{**} = \kappa(X_*, X_*).$

Mathematical Process III

By using the conditional of a multivariate Gaussian, a prediction for $\vec{y_*}$ can be obtained:

$$p(\overrightarrow{y_*}|X_*, X, \overrightarrow{y}) \sim N(\overrightarrow{\mu_*}, \Sigma_*) \text{ where}$$
$$\overrightarrow{\mu_*} = K_*^T K^{-1} \overrightarrow{y}$$
$$\Sigma_* = K_{**} - K_*^T K^{-1} K_*$$

Thus, the GP now has a prediction for the mean and covariance matrix, and thus the standard deviation, of $\vec{y_*}$. ⁵

Example











How do we know it works?

3 Tests

A 2D known surface is generated, some points are selected and given appropriate noise and error bars. This is pseudodata which can be used to test the GP is performing as intended.

We can perform 3 tests on this:

- Unbiased Pulls
- Number of points in different confidence intervals
- Unbiased Pull of Fitted coefficients

Unbiased Pull

- Calculate pull: $pull = \frac{y_{func} y_{fit}}{e_{fit}}$
- For each surface, check the pull distribution mean and variance, which should be 0 and 1, respectively.
- Check the pull distribution of the GP fit at the same energies and angles as the "known" datapoints.
- Calculate the mean and variance of both pull distributions for every generating surface.



Unbiased Pull



Points within confidence intervals

- Calculate pull: $pull = \frac{y_{func} y_{fit}}{e_{fit}}$
- $|pull| \le 1 \Rightarrow y_{func} \in [y_{fit} e_{fit}, y_{fit} + e_{fit}]$, i.e., the predicted point is within its uncertainty of the actual point.
- From this the total percentage of points within different confidence intervals can be calculated by scaling e_{fit} as required and repeat.

Points within confidence intervals

Confidence interval	Expected percentage of points within confidence interval (%)	Mean percentage of points within confidence interval (%)	
0.67σ	50	84.5	
1σ	68.3	94.6	
1.96σ	95	99.7	

The functional form of the 2D surface can be fitted to some datapoints, using a least squares method, shown below:



A Gaussian Process fit is then performed on the same datapoints:



The GP datapoints are used to fit the functional form of the 2D surface:



This can be further verified by finding the pull distribution of each of the surface coefficients which should be Gaussians centred at 0 with width 1. An example of one coefficient, μ_3 , is shown below:



What does real data look like?

Data from CLAS

The GP has been used on data recently submitted for publication by the CLAS collaboration at Jefferson Lab, specifically 5 polarisation observables (Σ , P, T, O_x and O_z) of the K⁰ Σ ⁺ reaction.² Example plots for Σ :





GP 1D Projections for Σ





GP 1D Projections for $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$





Conclusion

- A Gaussian Process is an extremely useful machine learning tool to expand existing, limited datasets, requiring only 3 simple assumptions to operate.
 - Some kernel function can be used to measure the covariance between known datapoints.
 - This same kernel function can predict the covariance of other, unknown datapoints.
 - The style of posterior distribution is known (e.g., smoothness, continuity, periodicity, monotonically increasing, etc.).
- The GP has been demonstrated to work on pseudodata modelled on 2D polarisation observables.
- Work is ongoing to expand to other physics quantities and to higher dimensions (e.g. DVCS of pions in 5D) and to develop a metric for testing if 2 datasets are consistent with one another.

Thanks for listening

References

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Back-up Slides

Pseudodata

We can test the GP using some suitable pseudodata. Thus, define a 2D surface of the form, modelled on polarisation observables:

$$y_{func} = f(E_{\gamma}, \cos \theta) = \sum_{l=0}^{n} c_l * g_l(E_{\gamma}) * P_l(\cos \theta)$$

With

- $c_l \in [-1,1]$ is some weight
- $g_l(E_{\gamma}) \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_l, \sigma_l^2)$
- $P_l(\cos \theta)$ is an ordinary Legendre polynomial

In our case n=3 so we have 12 parameters.

Note also that $|y_{func}| \leq 1$.

Radial Basis Function Kernel

Various kernels can be used depending on the desired output, e.g. smoothness, periodicity, etc. Here the simplest kernel, the radial basis function (RBF), is tested:

$$\kappa(\underline{a},\underline{b}) = \exp\left[\sum_{i=0}^{p-1} \frac{-d(a_i,b_i)^2}{2l_i^2}\right]$$

Where:

- <u>*a*</u>, <u>*b*</u> are some vectors of length *p* (e.g. have *p* parameters)
- $d(\cdot, \cdot)$ is the Euclidean distance.
- <u>*l*</u> is a hyperparameter called the length scale. For this kernel, it is a measure of how smooth the function is.

Convex Hull

- It was found in testing that the GP performs well at interpolating but not at extrapolating.
- As such a set of discrete points of the convex hull¹ of the known datapoints is the space that the GP gives a prediction for (with resolution in each dimension chosen by the user).



Generating Pseudodata I

A generated asymmetry datapoint is based on the effective number of counts measured. This can be expressed as

$$A = \frac{N_{+} - N_{-}}{N_{+} + N_{-}}$$

where N_+ , N_- are used to describe the 2 different states which are used to estimate the effective count. These take into account beam polarisation, recoils, target dilution and other such factors. These random variables are generated from "true" values: $N \sim \text{Pois}(n_+)$

where $n_{\pm} = \frac{1}{2}n_e[1 \pm f(w, \cos \theta)]$. Here n_e is defined as the effective number of events and is in the range [200,1000] which is estimated based on real data.

Generating Pseudodata II

By using standard propagation of errors, the error on A is given by: $\delta A = \frac{2}{(N_+ + N_-)^2} \sqrt{N_+ N_- (N_+ + N_-)}$

Length Scale Calculation - Energy

The mean distance between adjacent measured energy levels. This is mathematically expressed as (assuming n measured energy levels):

$$L_{E_{\gamma}} = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} \left[e_{j-1} - e_j \right]$$

Length Scale Calculation - Angle

For each measured energy level calculate the mean distance between adjacent measured, degenerate datapoints. Take the resulting mean of these values. This is expressed mathematically as (where m_j is the number of datapoints measured at the *j*-th energy level):

$$L_{\cos \theta} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \left(\frac{1}{m_j - 1} \sum_{i=1}^{m_j - 1} \left[a_{j,i+1} - a_{j,i} \right] \right)$$

Coefficient	Mean of pull distribution from known datapoints fit	Variance of pull distribution from known datapoints fit	Mean of pull distribution from GP datapoints fit	Variance of pull distribution from GP datapoints fit
<i>c</i> ₀	0.04	0.91	0.06	0.92
μ_0	-0.04	0.82	-0.05	0.84
σ_0^2	0.0	0.77	-0.01	0.79
<i>c</i> ₁	0.04	0.89	0.04	0.91
μ_1	-0.03	0.74	-0.02	0.73
σ_1^2	-0.1	0.77	-0.09	0.78
<i>c</i> ₂	-0.06	1.01	-0.06	1.05
μ ₂	-0.05	0.73	-0.05	0.75
σ_2^2	-0.17	0.82	-0.17	0.83
<i>c</i> ₃	-0.06	0.95	-0.07	0.96
μ ₃	-0.02	0.73	-0.04	0.74
σ_3^2	-0.07	0.73	-0.07	0.76

Comparing Datasets

- Additional work is also ongoing to develop a methodology to check the consistency between different datasets of the same variable.
- This will enable theorists to use an expanded datasets to test theories, build more rigorous models, etc.

Expanding to Higher Dimensions

- Testing is underway to expand the GP to higher dimensions, ensuring it still passes the 3 tests shown here.
- Current testing is in 5 dimensions, based on data of Deeply Virtual Compton Scattering (DVCS) of the pion, but other physics quantities are planned.



Photomeson Production in 2D.³



DVCS in 5D.⁴