

Normalizing Flows for Physics Data Analysis

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Introduction

- LHC produces **big data**
- MC and analysis need to follow
- Can generative models be used to support physics modeling?
- This talk: developing new analysis ideas with generative ML
- Focus on LHC *final* event simulation with **normalizing flows**:
 - 1. fast and precise once trained
 - 2. can be trained on combination of MC and actual data
 - 3. constructed to be easily invertible



Generative models

• Learn true $p_{\text{data}}(\boldsymbol{x})$ from $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{D}$ with approximate $p_{\text{model},\boldsymbol{\Theta}}(\boldsymbol{x}) \approx p_{\text{data}}(\boldsymbol{x})$



- **Problem**: do not know the true generating data distribution
- But have access to an empirical distribution through a finite amount of observations *x* (*events*)
- **Objective**: approximate $p_{data}(x)$ to enable infinite sampling

Normalizing flows (invertible neural networks)

- Two pieces:
 - 1. base distribution $p_u(\mathbf{u})$, typically something simple like $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})$
 - 2. differentiable transformation $\mathbf{x} = T(\mathbf{u})$ with an inverse $\mathbf{u} = T^{-1}(\mathbf{x})$
- Construct <u>a flow</u> by composing together many transformations:

 $T = T_K \circ \ldots \circ T_1$ and $T^{-1} = T_1^{-1} \circ \ldots \circ T_K^{-1}$

- Transformations T are (invertible) neural networks with parameters ${f \varphi}$
- Generative process:

 $\boldsymbol{x} = T(\boldsymbol{u}) \approx p_x(\boldsymbol{x})$ with sampling $\boldsymbol{u} \sim p_u(\boldsymbol{u})$

• Density evaluation (using change of variables formula):

$$p_x(\boldsymbol{x}) = p_u(T^{-1}(\boldsymbol{x})) \left| \det \frac{\partial T^{-1}(\boldsymbol{x})}{\partial \boldsymbol{x}} \right|$$

Change of variables trick

- Transformations expand the support of the distribution ⇒ we need to scale densities to preserve the volume of probability mass
- For a 1D random variable X = f(Z) with $Z = f^{-1}(X)$ we have:

$$p_X(x) = p_Z(f^{-1}(x)) \left| \frac{d}{dx} f^{-1}(x) \right|$$

• This comes from volume preservation constraint:

$$\int p_Z(z)dz = \int p_Z(z)\frac{dx}{dx}dz = \int p_Z(z) \left|\frac{dz}{dx}\right| dx = \int p_Z(f^{-1}(x)) \left|\frac{d}{dx}f^{-1}(x)\right| dx = 1$$



Jacobians and determinants

- For non-linear transformations *f*, the linearized *change in volume* is given by the determinant of the Jacobian of *f*
- For $\mathbf{x} = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]$ and $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = [f_1(\mathbf{x}), f_2(\mathbf{x}), \dots, f_m(\mathbf{x})]$ the Jacobian is

$$J_{f}(\boldsymbol{x}) = rac{\partial f}{\partial \boldsymbol{x}} = egin{bmatrix} rac{\partial f_{1}}{\partial x_{1}} & \cdots & rac{\partial f_{1}}{\partial x_{n}} \ dots & \ddots & dots \ rac{\partial f_{m}}{\partial x_{1}} & \cdots & rac{\partial f_{m}}{\partial x_{n}} \end{bmatrix}$$
 or $J_{ij} = rac{\partial f_{i}}{\partial x_{j}}$

- This generalizes the gradient to multi-variate functions
- Change of variables in a general case for X = f(Z) with $Z = f^{-1}(X)$:

$$p_X(\boldsymbol{x}) = p_Z(\boldsymbol{f}^{-1}(\boldsymbol{x})) \left| \det \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{f}^{-1}(\boldsymbol{x})}{\partial \boldsymbol{x}} \right|$$

- Computational complexity for determinant of $n \times n$ matrix is $O(n^3)$
- Flows are designed to have triangular Jacobians to simplify this

Summary of the ingredients

- What do we need?
- 1. Base distribution that we know how to sample from $\boldsymbol{u} \sim p_u(\boldsymbol{u})$
- 2. NN invertible transformation $\mathbf{x} = T(\mathbf{u})$ with $\mathbf{u} = T^{-1}(\mathbf{x})$ with parameters $\mathbf{\Phi}$
- 3. Triangular Jacobian matrix for efficient determinant computation

$$J_{ij} = \frac{\partial T_i}{\partial x_j} = \begin{cases} \frac{\partial T_i}{\partial x_j} & ; i \ge j \\ 0 & ; i < j \end{cases}$$

- What can we do with this?
 - 1. Generation of new events

$$\boldsymbol{u} \sim p_u(\boldsymbol{u}) \rightarrow \boldsymbol{x} = T(\boldsymbol{u})$$

2. Density estimation

$$p_{\mathbf{x}}(\boldsymbol{x}) = p_{u}(T^{-1}(\boldsymbol{x})) |\det J_{T^{-1}}(\boldsymbol{x})|$$

• Idea: *learn* a transformation T that maps a simple distribution to a complex one

Forward and inverse directions

- Forward direction: $\mathbf{z}_k = T_k(\mathbf{z}_{k-1})$ for k = 1, ..., K with $\mathbf{z}_0 = \mathbf{u}$ (infer)
- Inverse direction: $\mathbf{z}_{k-1} = T_k^{-1}(\mathbf{z}_k)$ for $k = K, \dots, 1$ with $\mathbf{z}_K = \mathbf{x}$ (train)
- The log-determinant of a flow is



• Similar to autoencoder: forward mode \Leftrightarrow decoder, backward mode \Leftrightarrow encoder

Loss function

- Use maximum likelihood estimation
- Fit a parametric flow model $T = p_x(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{\Theta})$ to a target distribution $p_x(\mathbf{x})$
- Use average log-likelihood over N data points

$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \log p_x(\boldsymbol{x}_n; \boldsymbol{\theta}).$$

- Density evaluation gives us log-likelihood of input data!
- Loss function has two terms (**log-likelihood + log-determinant**):

$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\Theta}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left[\log p_u \left(T^{-1}(\boldsymbol{x}_n; \boldsymbol{\Phi}); \boldsymbol{\psi} \right) + \log |\det J_{T^{-1}}(\boldsymbol{x}_n; \boldsymbol{\Phi})| \right]$$

• Use gradient descent to get best parameters

$$\hat{\mathbf{ heta}} = \operatorname*{argmin}_{\mathbf{ heta}} \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{ heta})$$
, $\mathbf{ heta} \equiv \{\mathbf{\Phi}, \mathbf{\psi}\}$
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Coupling layer

- A coupling layer splits input vector $\pmb{x} \in \mathbb{R}^D$ into two (usually equal) parts
- Transforms the second part as a function of the first part
 Affine transformation: τ(z_i; h_i) = s_iz_i + t_i, h_i = {s_i, t_i}
- Active upper lane and passive lower lane
- Forward direction:
 - $z_{\leq d} = x_{\leq d}$ $z_{>d} = x_{>d} \cdot \exp(s(x_{\leq d})) + t(x_{\leq d})$



• Inverse direction:

$$\mathbf{x}_{\leq d} = \mathbf{z}_{\leq d}$$

$$\mathbf{x}_{>d} = (\mathbf{z}_{>d} - t(\mathbf{z}_{\leq d})) \cdot \exp(-s(\mathbf{z}_{\leq d}))$$

$$\mathbf{x}_{d}$$

$$\mathbf{x}_{d/2}$$

$$\mathbf{z}_{d/2}$$

$$\mathbf{z}_{d/2}$$

• Does not require computing inverses of s and $t \Rightarrow$ arbitrarily complex NN!

Coupling flow

• Jacobian is lower triangular with block like structure

$$J = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{o} \\ \mathbf{L} & \mathbf{D} \end{bmatrix}$$

• Only relevant part is $\mathbf{D} \Rightarrow \mathcal{O}(d)$ time complexity for determinant!

$$\mathbf{D} = \text{diag}\left[\exp(s(\mathbf{z}_{\leq d}))\right] \quad \text{with} \quad \log|\text{det}J(\mathbf{z})| = \sum_{j} s(\mathbf{z}_{\leq d})_{j}$$

• Binary masks **b** for splitting and joining (*permutations*):

 $\boldsymbol{z} = \boldsymbol{b} \cdot \boldsymbol{x} + (1 - \boldsymbol{b}) \cdot (\boldsymbol{x} \cdot \exp(s(\boldsymbol{b} \cdot \boldsymbol{x})) + t(\boldsymbol{b} \cdot \boldsymbol{x}))$ $\boldsymbol{x} = \boldsymbol{b} \cdot \boldsymbol{z} + (1 - \boldsymbol{b}) \cdot (\boldsymbol{z} - t(\boldsymbol{b} \cdot \boldsymbol{z})) \cdot \exp(-s(\boldsymbol{b} \cdot \boldsymbol{z}))$ $/_{\mathbf{x}_{:d/2}}$ $\mathbf{z}_{:d/2}$ $/_{\mathbf{z}_{:d/2}}$ $\mathbf{x}_{:d/2}$ $\mathbf{x}_{:d/2}$ \mathbf{x}_d \mathbf{x}_d \mathbf{Z}_d tP $\mathbf{x}_{d/2}$ $\mathbf{x}_{d/2}$: $\mathbf{Z}_{d/2}$ \mathbf{Z}_{d} 11/28

Autoregressive models

- Output at *time-step i* is conditioned on all the previous outputs
- Autoregressive model: $p_x(\mathbf{x}) = \prod_{i=1}^{D} p_x(x_i | \mathbf{x}_{< i}) \Rightarrow$ chain rule of probability
- Forward direction:

$$oldsymbol{z}_i = au(oldsymbol{z}_i;oldsymbol{h}_i) \quad ext{with} \quad oldsymbol{h}_i = c_i(oldsymbol{x}_{< i};oldsymbol{\Phi})$$

$$oldsymbol{x}_i = au^{-1}(oldsymbol{z}_i;oldsymbol{h}_i) \quad ext{with} \quad oldsymbol{h}_i = c_i(oldsymbol{x}_{< i};oldsymbol{\Phi})$$



• Each \mathbf{z}_i does not depend on $\mathbf{x}_{>i} \Rightarrow \frac{\partial \mathbf{z}_i}{\partial \mathbf{x}_j} = 0$ for $j > i \Rightarrow$ triangular Jacobian

Masked conditioners

- The most popular technique for implementing autoregressive flows
- Output \hat{x}_i only depends on the previous inputs $x_{< i}$ and not on the $x_{\ge i}$
- Multiply each weight matrix with a binary matrix \Rightarrow remove connections



- ¹ 1. Assign each unit in each hidden layer an *integer degree* d_k^l
- 2. Connect a unit to previous units whose degrees do not exceed its own
- 3. Do this with *masking* matrices:

$$\mathbf{W}_{ij}^{l} = egin{cases} 1 & ext{if } d_{i}^{l} \geqslant d_{j}^{l-1} \ 0 & ext{otherwise} \ \mathbf{V}_{ij}^{L} = egin{cases} 1 & ext{if } d_{i}^{L} > d_{j}^{L-1} \ 0 & ext{otherwise} \ \end{bmatrix}$$

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Masked autoregressive flow

- Autoregressive model with Gaussian conditionals
- The *i*-th conditional is given by

 $p(\boldsymbol{z}_i|\boldsymbol{z}_{< i}) = \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{z}_i; \boldsymbol{\mu}_i, (\exp \, \boldsymbol{\alpha}_i)^2) \quad \text{with} \quad \boldsymbol{\mu}_i = f_{\boldsymbol{\mu}}(\boldsymbol{z}_{< i}) \quad \text{and} \quad \boldsymbol{\alpha}_i = f_{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}(\boldsymbol{z}_{< i})$

• Forward direction:

- Inverse direction:
- $\begin{aligned} \boldsymbol{z}_i &= \boldsymbol{u}_i \cdot \exp \boldsymbol{\alpha}_i + \boldsymbol{\mu}_i \\ \text{with} \quad \boldsymbol{u}_i &\sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1) \end{aligned} \qquad \boldsymbol{u}_i &= (\boldsymbol{z}_i \boldsymbol{\mu}_i) \cdot \exp \left(-\boldsymbol{\alpha}_i\right) \end{aligned}$
- Due to the autoregressive structure, the Jacobian is lower triangular

$$\log \left| \det \frac{\partial T^{-1}}{\partial z} \right| = -\sum_{i=1}^{D} \alpha_{i}$$

• f_{μ} and f_{α} are implemented as masked neural networks

Summary of normalizing flows

- Normalizing flow $T_K^{-1} \circ \ldots \circ T_1^{-1}$ takes samples from $p_x(\mathbf{x})$ and transforms (normalizes) them into samples from the prescribed base distribution $p_u(\mathbf{u})$
- Loss function has two terms (log-likelihood + log-determinant)
- Main goal: build efficient and expressive transformations using neural networks
- Examples: coupling layers (RealNVP) and masked autoregressive flows (MAF)



HIGGS dataset benchmark

- Publicly available dataset with 11M events and 28 variables
- Binary classification problem: signal (BSM) vs. background (*tī*)
- 21 low-level and 7 high-level variables
- **Task**: train ML model to generate *new background events*





Feature scaling

- Reduce the modeling complexity that is required by the flow
- Gradient descent converges much faster with feature scaling
- Continuous features $\pmb{x} \in \mathbb{R}^N$
 - 1. min-max normalization

$$\mathbf{x} = \frac{\mathbf{x} - \min(\mathbf{x})}{\max(\mathbf{x}) - \min(\mathbf{x})} \in [0, 1]$$

$$x = \frac{x + \epsilon}{\max(x) + 1} \in [0, 1]$$

2. clip values for numerical stability

$$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}(1-\beta) + \frac{1}{2}\beta \in (0,1)$$
 where $\beta = 10^{-6}$

3. logit transformation with standardization

$$x = \log \frac{x}{1-x} \in (-\infty,\infty)$$
 and $x = \frac{x-\mu(x)}{\sigma(x)}$

• Can get back to the original feature space with inverse functions

Learning event distributions



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Learning variable correlations



- Correlations for two variables in leptonic *W* decay
- Check generated event invariance to variable cuts

Classification with density estimation

- Idea: train flow on background events and estimate density for signal events
- Unsuperivsed learning (need only background) \Rightarrow anomaly detection
- Can be used as a classifier with *density score* as the output



Two-sample testing

- How to tell if the generative model is any good?
- Have: two sets of samples X and Y from unknown distributions P and Q
- **Goal**: answer the question are *P* (*MC*) and *Q* (*ML*) the same?
- Two-sample test: determining if the samples come from the same distribution



f-divergence

Compare distributions with density ratios r(x) = p(x)/q(x) using

$$D_f(p||q) = \int p(\mathbf{x}) f\left(rac{p(\mathbf{x})}{q(\mathbf{x})}
ight) d\mathbf{x}$$

- $D_f(p||q) \ge 0$ and $D_f(p||p) = 0$
- KL divergence:

$$D_{\mathit{KL}}(p||q) = \int p(oldsymbol{x}) \log rac{p(oldsymbol{x})}{q(oldsymbol{x})} doldsymbol{x}$$

• χ^2 distance:

$$\chi^{2}(p,q) = \frac{1}{2} \int \frac{(p(\boldsymbol{x}) - q(\boldsymbol{x}))^{2}}{q(\boldsymbol{x})} d\boldsymbol{x}$$



Classifier two sample test

- Idea: accuracy of a binary classifier will be 50:50 if we train it on two samples coming from the same distribution
- 1. Construct a dataset with binary labels from two samples $X \sim P$ and $Y \sim Q$

$$\mathcal{D} = \{(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \mathbf{0})\}_{i=1}^n \cup \{(\boldsymbol{y}_i, \mathbf{1})\}_{i=1}^n = \{\boldsymbol{z}_i, \boldsymbol{l}_i\}_{i=1}^{2n}$$

- 2. Shuffle \mathcal{D} and split it into training and holdout sets $\mathcal{D} = \mathcal{D}_t \cup \mathcal{D}_h$
- 3. Train a binary classifier $D_{\theta}(\mathbf{z}_i) \approx p(\mathbf{l}_i = 1 | \mathbf{z}_i)$ on \mathcal{D}_t to predict \mathbf{l}_i from \mathbf{z}_i
- 4. Return classification accuracy on \mathcal{D}_h

$$\hat{t} = \frac{1}{n_h} \sum_{(\boldsymbol{z}_i, \boldsymbol{l}_i) \in \mathcal{D}_h} \mathbb{I}\left[\mathbb{I}\left(D_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\boldsymbol{z}_i) > \frac{1}{2} \right) = \boldsymbol{l}_i \right]$$

5. Use \hat{t} as a test statistic for testing the null hypothesis $H_{\circ}: P = Q$

Training a confused classifier



- Train a small NN binary classifier on the two-sample dataset
- Use binary cross-entropy loss with sigmoid output activation



Density ratio estimation trick

- Where does the generative model fail?
- We can extract *density ratio* $r(\mathbf{x}) = P(\mathbf{x})/Q(\mathbf{x})$ from the binary classifier
- Look at events where $r(\mathbf{x})$ is large/small \Rightarrow generative model failure modes
- By Bayes' rule with a prior $p(y = 1) = \pi = \frac{1}{2}$ we have:

$$\begin{aligned} r(\mathbf{x}) &= \frac{P(\mathbf{x})}{Q(\mathbf{x})} = \frac{p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y}=1)}{p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y}=0)} = \frac{p(\mathbf{y}=1|\mathbf{x})p(\mathbf{x})}{p(\mathbf{y}=1)} / \frac{p(\mathbf{y}=0|\mathbf{x})p(\mathbf{x})}{p(\mathbf{y}=0)} \\ &= \frac{p(\mathbf{y}=1|\mathbf{x})}{p(\mathbf{y}=0|\mathbf{x})} \frac{\pi}{1-\pi} = \frac{p(\mathbf{y}=1|\mathbf{x})}{1-p(\mathbf{y}=1|\mathbf{x})} = \exp\left[\log\frac{p(\mathbf{y}=1|\mathbf{x})}{1-p(\mathbf{y}=1|\mathbf{x})}\right] \\ &= \exp\left\{\sigma^{-1}\left[p(\mathbf{y}=1|\mathbf{x})\right]\right\} \approx \exp\left\{\sigma^{-1}\left[D_{\theta}(\mathbf{x})\right]\right\} \end{aligned}$$

• What does this mean? Density ratio is given by the exponential of the inverse sigmoid function of the classifier output trained on the two-sample dataset using binary cross-entropy loss

Generative model failure modes

- Cut on the density ratio distribution *r*(*x*) tails
- Look at the coresponding events
- Anomaly detection on the generative model





Conclusion

- HEP data is complex and high-dimensional
- Machine learning is a huge field with many applications that can be used in HEP
- Talked only about a very small part of generative modeling: *normalizing flows*
- Flows are a powerful tool for the type of data we have:
 - 1. Precise with both sampling and density estimation
 - 2. Fast to train and evaluate on MC or data
 - 3. Interpretable with likelihoods and Jacobians
- Need to be very careful with generative models and not use them as a black box

Thank you!