



Machine Learning in Nuclear Theory: Bayesian Inference and Surrogate Emulators

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第四届全国核物理及核数据中的机器学习应用研讨会,
衡阳, 10.31-11.2, 2025

Outline

- Introduction
- Uncertainty quantification and Bayesian inference
 - Bayesian parameter estimation
 - Bayesian model averaging and selection
- Surrogate emulators
 - Gaussian process
 - Reduced basis method & Eigenvector continuation
 - Parametric matrix model
- Summary

Machine learning in nuclear theory

1. Inverse modeling and UQ

Infer model parameters or physical information from data

- Bayesian parameter estimation
- Bayesian model averaging/selection

2. Computational acceleration

Replace or approximate expensive calculations

- Gaussian process
- Eigenvector continuation

3. Nuclear property prediction

Predict unmeasured observables

- Mass
- Radius

4. Structure/mechanism discovery

Identify latent physical patterns

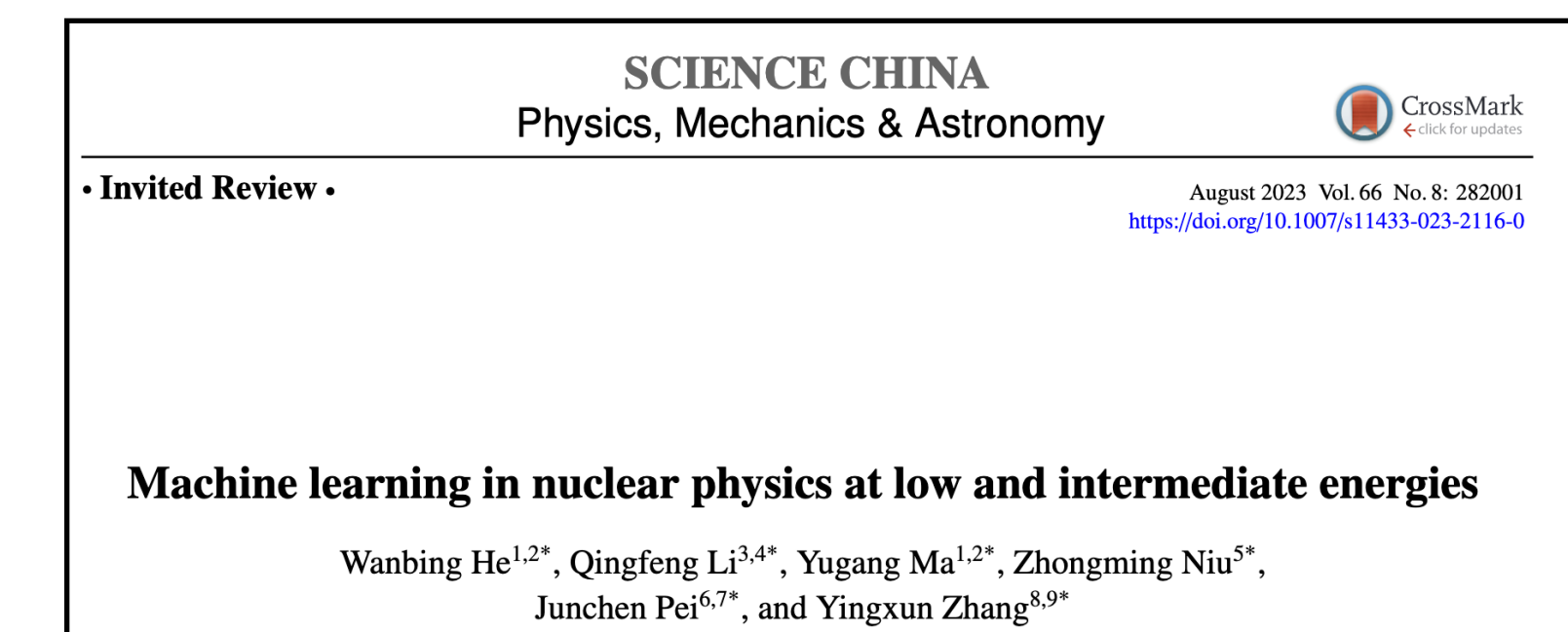
- Phase-transition
- Clustering

5. Model construction

Learn or refine models/functionals

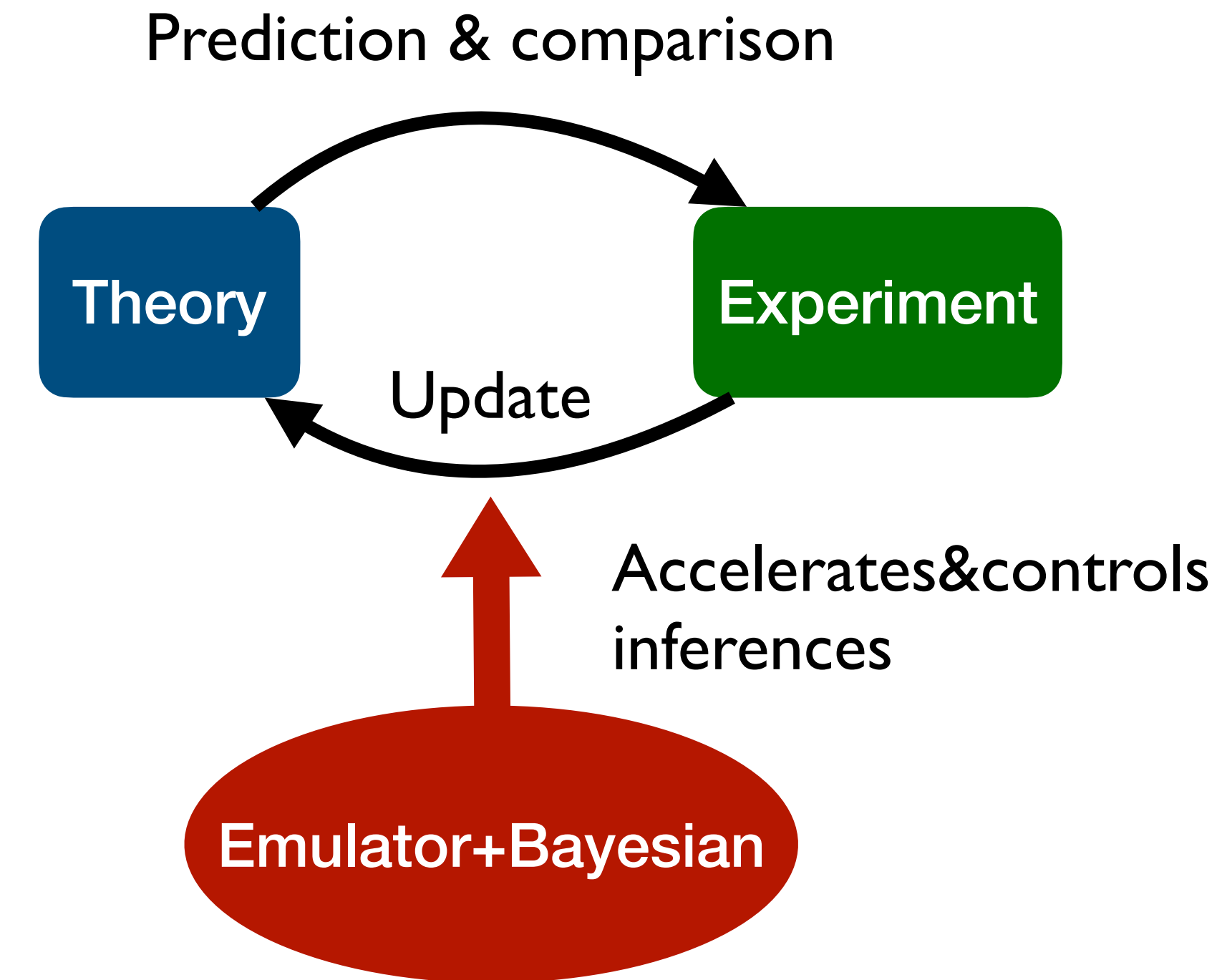
- Neural-network quantum state
- Symbolic machine learning

◆ In this talk, I will focus on **emulator+Bayesian inference**



Emulator + Bayesian: an external accelerator for nuclear theory

- Traditional loop:
Build theory → compute observables → compare with data
→ refine model
 - computationally costly, slow feedback.
- Emulator + Bayesian provides an external, plug-in-style acceleration:
 - Emulators replace computational expensive model evaluations.
 - Bayesian inference quantifies uncertainty and extracts physics from data.
 - Together they accelerate theory-data iteration **without changing the underlying physical model.**



Uncertainty quantification and Bayesian inference

- Statistical and systematic uncertainties.
- UQ with Bayesian approach
- Tools: (Python package)
 - Surmise (PCA+GP+MCMC)
 - PyMultiNest (Nest sampling)
 - Pymc
 -

Inverse problems in nuclear physics

Lattice QCD

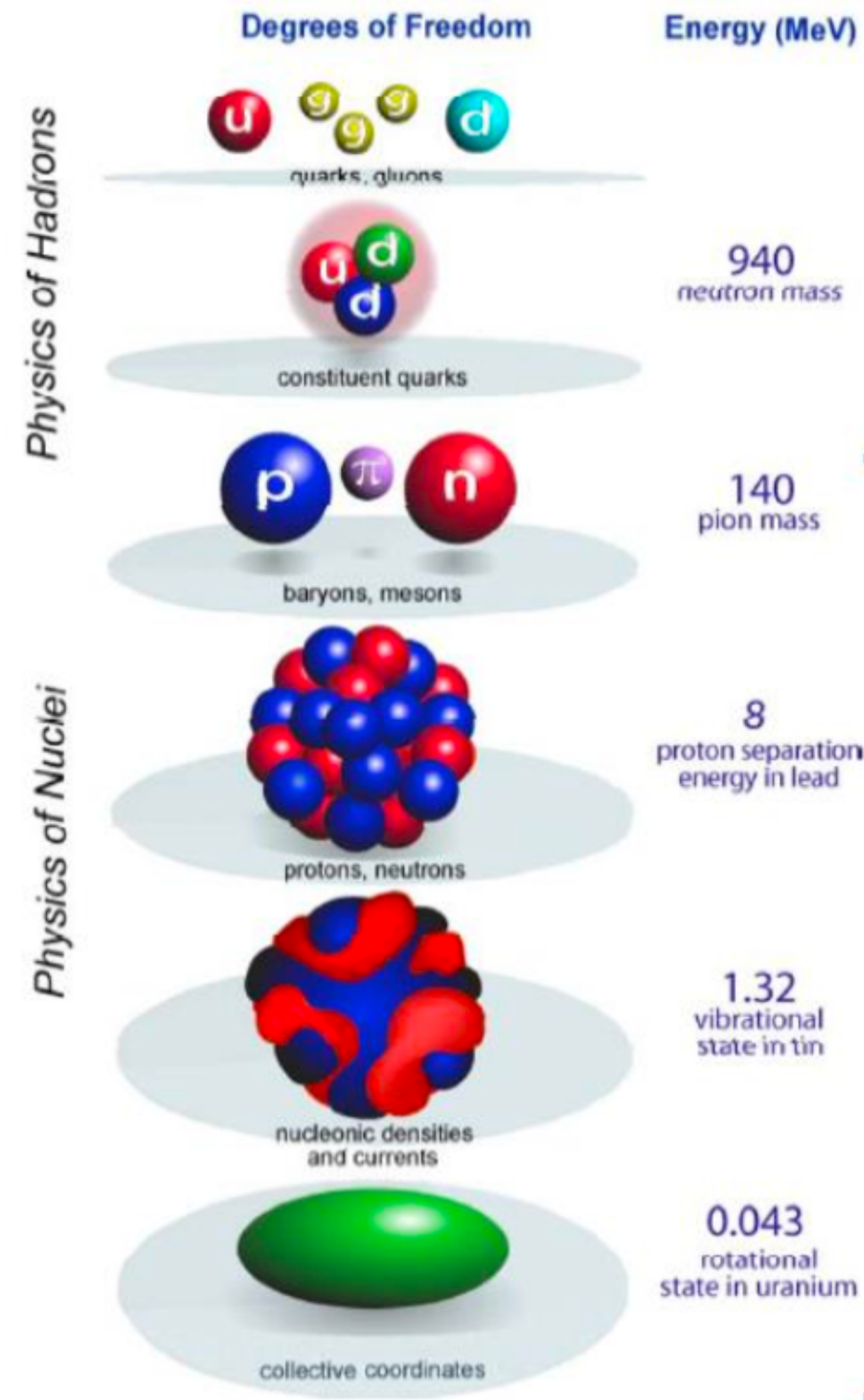
Quark model

Ab initio

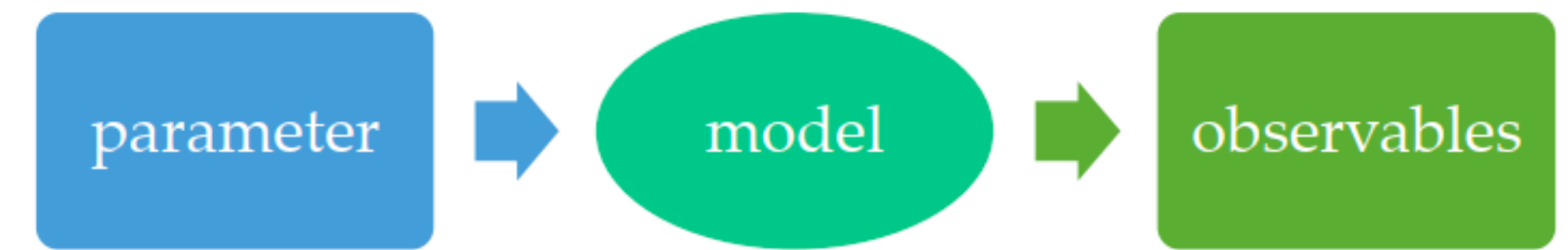
Configuration interaction

Energy density functional theory

collective models

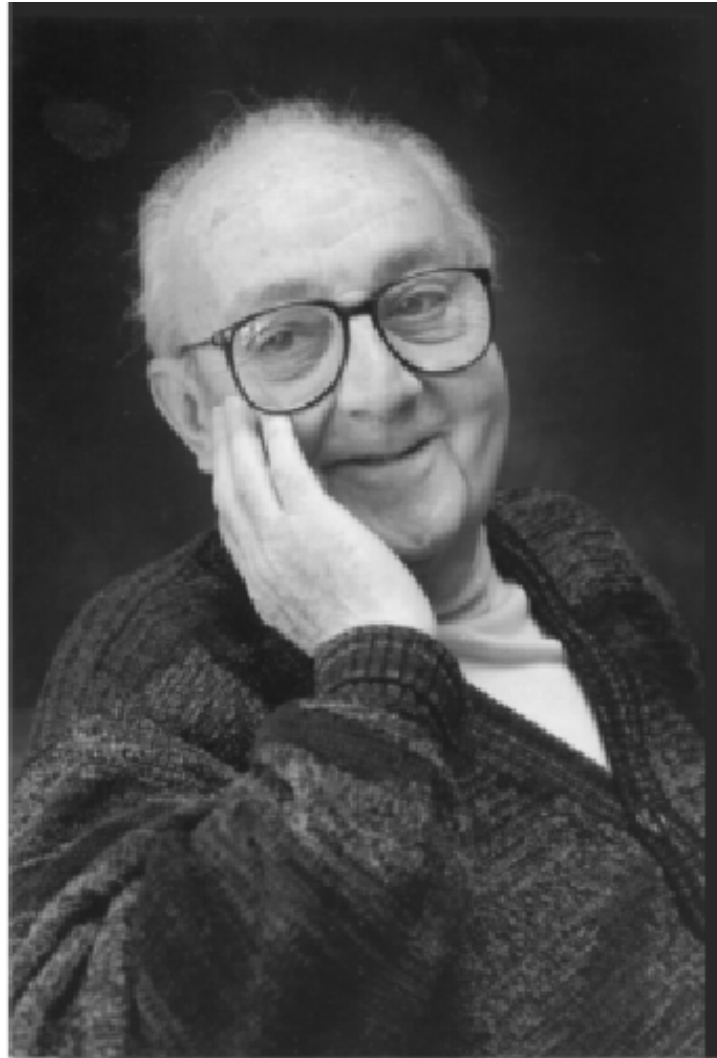


◆ Owing to the lack of a well-settled ab initio starting point, a considerable number of effective theories or models have been developed with parameters determined by fitting empirical knowledge or experimental data .



Inverse problem

Uncertainty quantification



George E.P. Box:

Box and Draper, 1987 Empirical Model Building and Response Surfaces

- ✦ All models are wrong, but some are useful.
- ✦ The practical question is how wrong do they have to be to not be useful.

PRA editorial:

Phys. Rev.A 83, 040001 (2011)

There is a broad class of papers where estimates of theoretical uncertainties can and should be made. Papers presenting the results of theoretical calculations are expected to **include uncertainty estimates for the calculations whenever practicable,...**

Sources of uncertainty

- **Statistical error**

- Uncertainty propagation:



- Numerical uncertainty (e.g., Monte Carlo)

- ◆ **Systematic error** from imperfect modeling.

- Inter-model uncertainties and model dependence.

- Could be estimated by compare different models.

Dobaczewski, Nazarewicz and Reinhard, JPG4I (2014) 074001



Large statistical error:



Large systematic error:



Why Bayesian?

Frequentist vs Bayesian

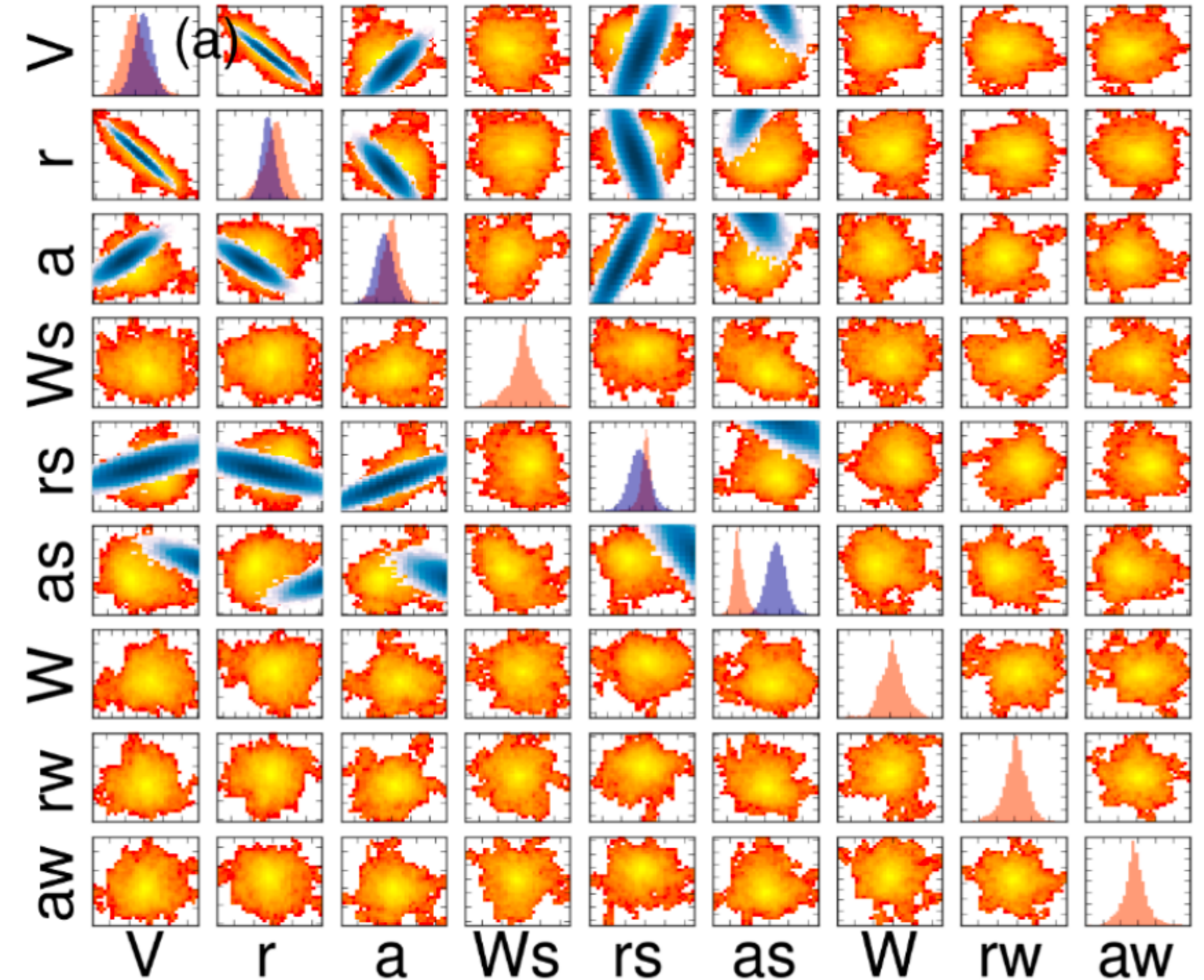
Frequentist

- Local minimum or global minimum?
- Errors and correlations are determined by $\partial^2 \chi^2 / \partial p_i \partial p_j$ at minimum point.
(reliable for a well-constrained model)

Bayesian

- More flexible in exploring parameter space.
- More reliable uncertainties and correlations.
- Prior knowledge can be easily taken into account.

King et al., PRL 122, 232502 (2019).



Bayes' theorem

- Conditional probability

$P(A \mid B)$: probability of event A occurring, given event B

- Product rule:

$$P(A, B) = P(A \mid B)P(B) = P(B \mid A)P(A)$$

$$P(A \mid B) = \frac{P(B \mid A)P(A)}{P(B)}, \quad P(B) = P(B \mid A)P(A) + P(B \mid \bar{A})P(\bar{A})$$

- Bayes' rule (discrete case):

$$P(A_i \mid B) = \frac{P(B \mid A_i)P(A_i)}{\sum_i P(B \mid A_i)P(A_i)}$$

- Bayes' rule (continuous case):

$$p(A \mid B) = \frac{p(B \mid A)p(A)}{\int p(B \mid A)p(A)dA}$$



Thomas Bayes
(1702-1761)

Bayesian parameter estimation

1. **Prior** $\pi(\theta)$: knowledge or assumptions about the parameters before seeing data.

- Usually Uniform or Gaussian with large width

2. **Likelihood function** $L(y | \theta)$: probability of observed data y given parameters

- Usually Gaussian: $\propto \exp(-\chi^2/2)$, with $\chi^2 = \sum_i (y_i - y_i^{\text{th}})^2 / \sigma_i^2$

3. Apply Bayes' rule:

$$p(\theta | y) = \frac{L(y | \theta)\pi(\theta)}{p(y)} \propto L(y | \theta)\pi(\theta)$$

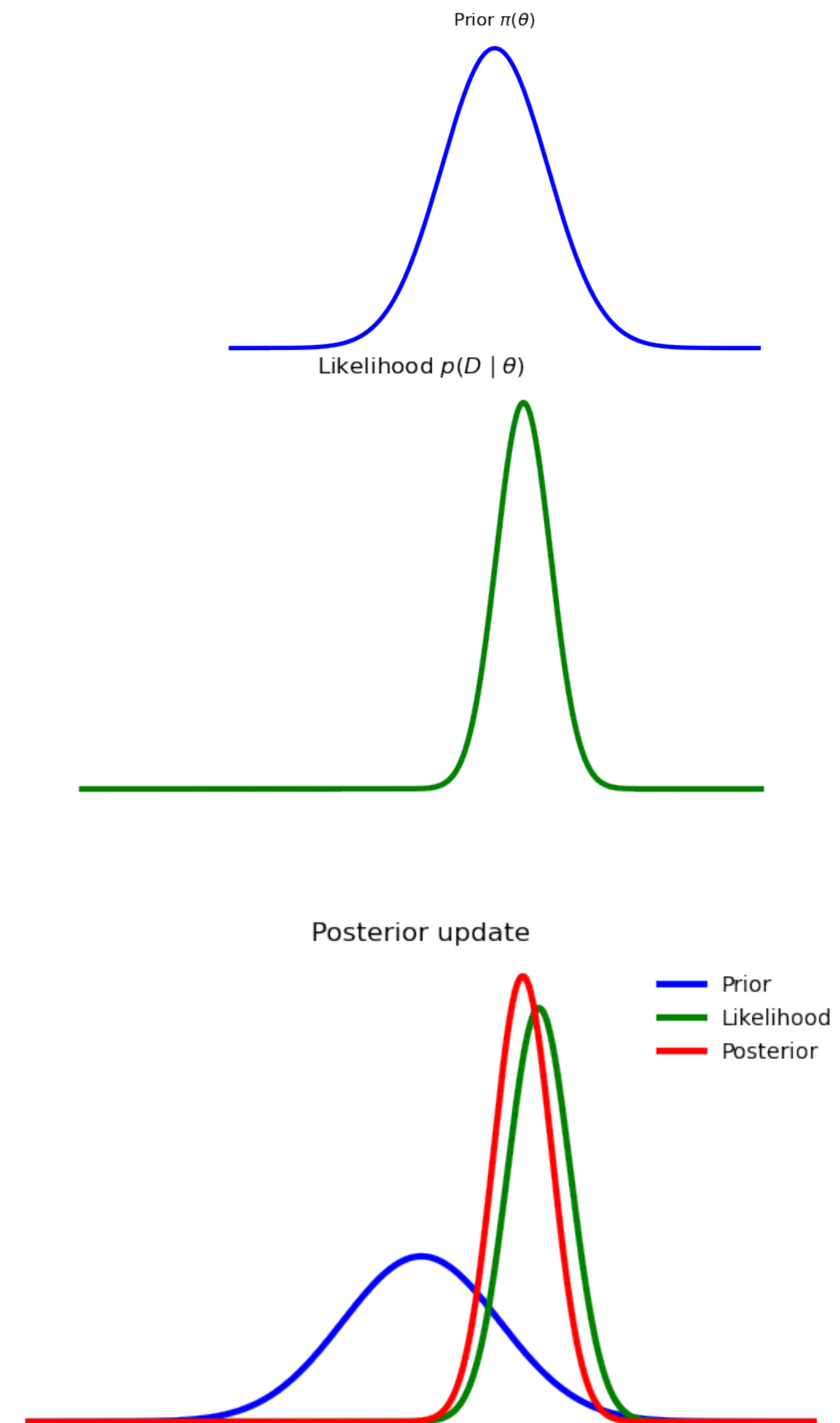
$$\text{Posterior} \propto \text{Prior} \times \text{Likelihood}$$

- **Posterior** $p(\theta | y)$: probability distribution of parameters given observed data

- **Evidence** $p(y) = \int L(y | \theta)\pi(\theta)d\theta$:

4. Make prediction for observable O :

$$p(O | y) = \int L(O | \theta)p(\theta | y)d\theta$$



Technique difficulties

$$p(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \mathbf{y}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{y} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta})p(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\int p(\mathbf{y} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta})p(\boldsymbol{\theta})d\boldsymbol{\theta}}$$

Difficulties

- ☐ Non-analytical
- ☐ High-dimensional (many-parameters)

- ☐ Slow model

Solutions

- ☒ Variational inference
- ☒ Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC)

- ☒ Emulators (GP, EC, ...)

Metropolis-Hastings Algorithm

- **Metropolis-Hastings algorithm** (Metropolis et al. 1953, Hastings 1970):

Construct a Markov Chain for θ by employing an auxiliary distribution that is easy to sample from.

- **Steps:**

1. Choose a starting value $\theta^{(i)}$ ($i = 0$);
2. Produce a candidate value θ^* according to a **proposal distribution** $q(\theta^* | \theta^{(i)})$;
3. Calculate the **acceptance probability**

$$a(\theta^{(i)}, \theta^*) = \min \left\{ 1, \frac{p(\theta^* | \mathcal{D}) q(\theta^{(i)} | \theta^*)}{p(\theta^{(i)} | \mathcal{D}) q(\theta^* | \theta^{(i)})} \right\}$$

Ratio independent of the normalization factor

4. Generate $u \sim U(0,1)$,
If $u < a$, let $\theta^{(i+1)} = \theta^*$, else $\theta^{(i+1)} = \theta^i$.
5. $i=i+1$, go to the 2nd step.

- The Markov Chain converges to the stationary distribution $p(\boldsymbol{\theta} | \mathcal{D})$

Random-walk Metropolis-Hastings

- Take $q(\theta^*|\theta^{(i)})$ to be **symmetric**, i.e.,

$$q(\theta^*|\theta^{(i)}) = q(\theta^{(i)}|\theta^*) = q(|\theta^* - \theta^{(i)}|).$$

Popular choices are (multivariate) Gaussians or t-distributions.

- Draw $\epsilon \sim q$, $\theta^* = \theta^{(i)} + \epsilon$
- **Acceptance probability**

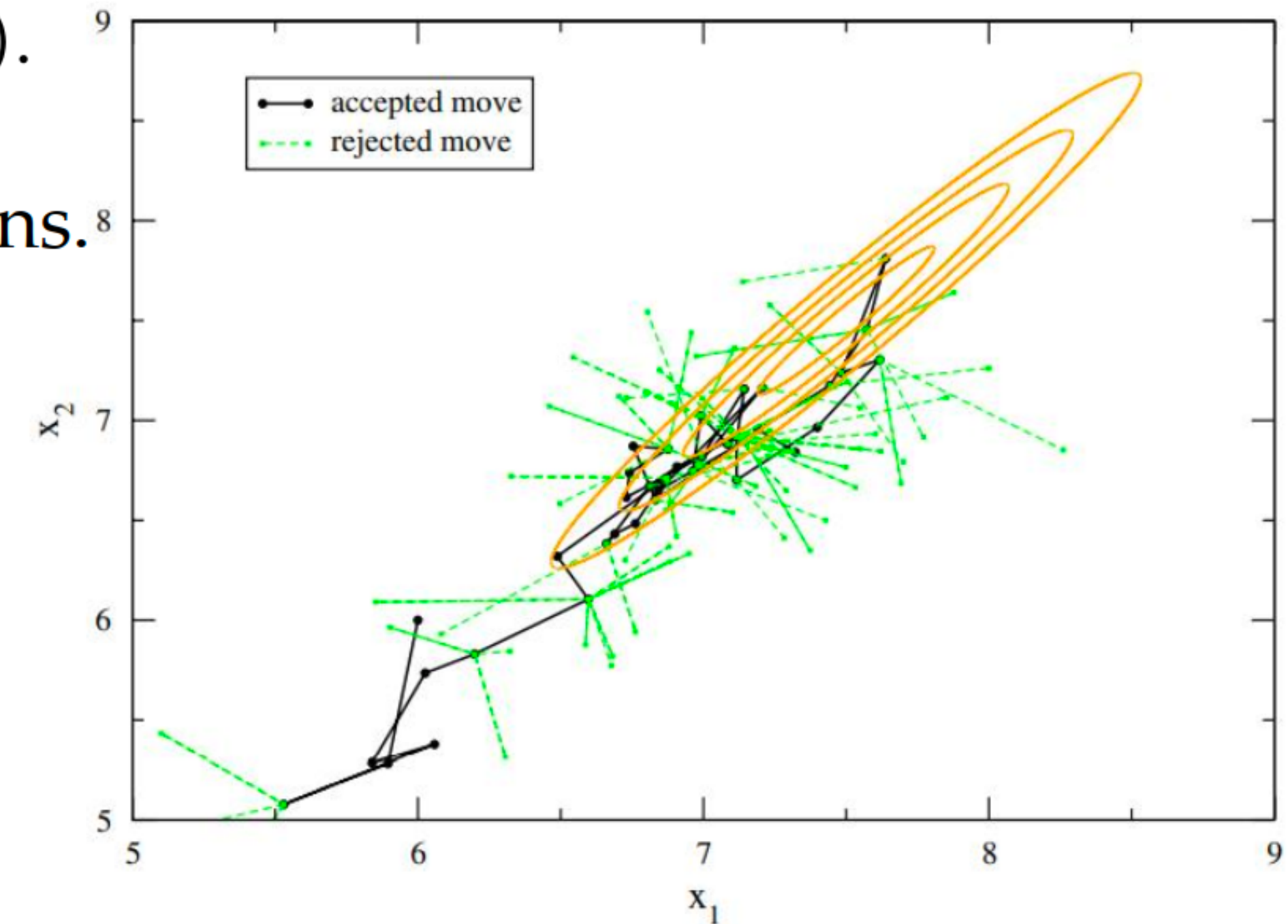
$$a(\theta^{(i)}, \theta^*) = \min \left\{ 1, \frac{p(\theta^* | \mathcal{D})}{p(\theta^{(i)} | \mathcal{D})} \right\}$$

- **Scale parameter** controls the acceptance rates.

- **Q: convergency? Autocorrelation?**

[Interactive MCMC Sampling Visualizer](https://chi-feng.github.io/mcmc-demo) by Chi Feng

<https://chi-feng.github.io/mcmc-demo>



U. von Toussaint, Rev. Mod. Phys. 83. 943 (2011)

Uncertainty quantification & correlation analysis

- 边缘分布 (marginal distribution)

$$p(\theta_i | \mathbf{y}) = \frac{\int p(\boldsymbol{\theta} | \mathbf{y}) d\Pi_{j \neq i} \theta_j}{\int p(\boldsymbol{\theta} | \mathbf{y}) d\Pi_j \theta_j}$$

- 可信区间 (credible interval)

$$P(a \leq \theta_i \leq b) = \int_a^b p(\theta_i | \mathcal{D}) dx_i = 1 - \alpha$$

$$P(\theta_i < a) = P(\theta_i > b) = \alpha/2$$

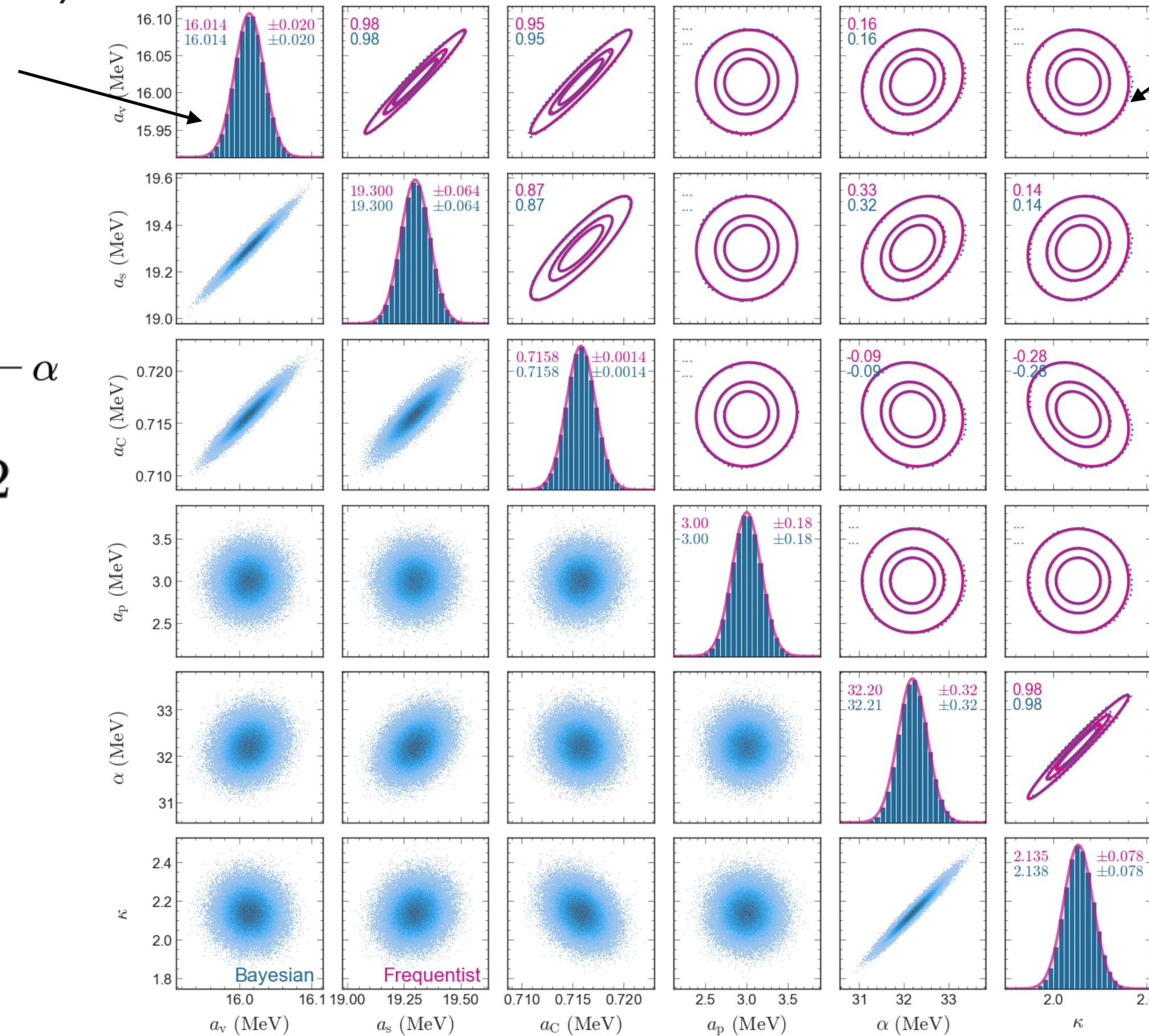
- 平均值 (mean value)

$$\langle \theta_i \rangle = \int \theta_i p(\theta_i | \mathbf{y}) d\boldsymbol{\theta}$$

- 中位数 (median value)

$$P(\theta_i < U) = 0.5$$

- 最大后验(MAP)估计



- 联合分布 (joint distribution)

$$p[(\theta_i, \theta_j) | \mathbf{y}] = \frac{\int p(\boldsymbol{\theta} | \mathbf{y}) d\Pi_{k \neq i, j} \theta_k}{\int p(\boldsymbol{\theta} | \mathbf{y}) d\Pi_k \theta_k}$$

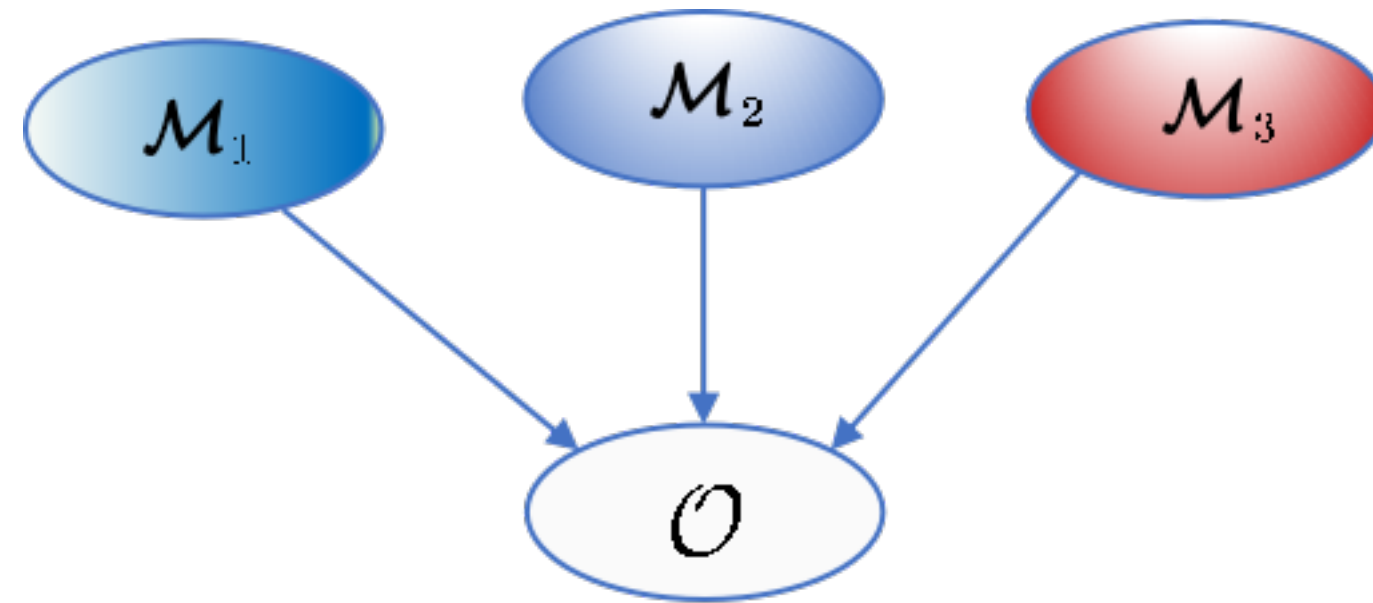
- 协方差(covariance)

$$\text{Cov}(\theta_i, \theta_j) = \int (\theta_i - \langle \theta_i \rangle) (\theta_j - \langle \theta_j \rangle) p[(\theta_i, \theta_j) | \mathbf{y}] d\theta_i d\theta_j$$

- 相关系数 (correlation coefficient)

$$R = \frac{\text{Cov}(\theta_i, \theta_j)}{\sigma_i \sigma_j}$$

Inter-model uncertainty



Which model should we trust?

Determine a weighting factor ω_i for each model.

- **Model selection:** identify the best model(s) with the largest ω_i
- **Model averaging:** averaging model predictions by

$$\mathcal{O}_{MA} = \frac{\sum_i \mathcal{O}_i \omega_i}{\sum_i \omega_i}$$

Burnham & Anderson, Model Selection and Multimodel Inference: A Practical Information Theoretic Approach

How to determine ω_i ?

Udo von Toussaint, Rev. Mod. Phys. 83, 943 (2011)

Bayesian evidence

- ◆ **Evidence** (a larger evidence indicates a better model)

$$Z \equiv p(\mathbf{y} \mid M) = \int d\boldsymbol{\theta} L(\mathbf{y} \mid M, \boldsymbol{\theta}) \pi(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid M)$$

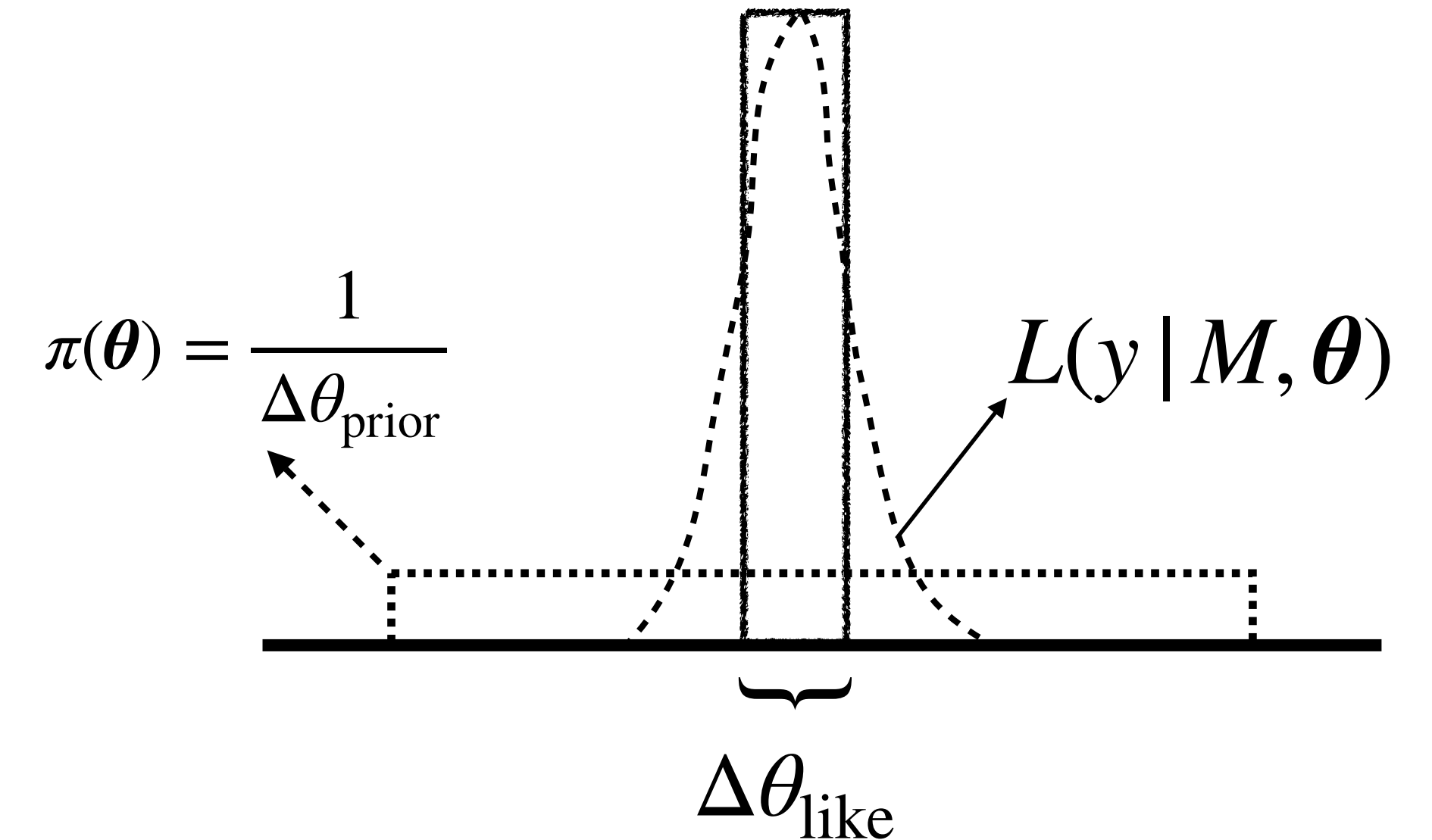
$$\approx L(\mathbf{y} \mid M, \boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text{ML}}) \left(\Delta\theta_{\text{like}} / \Delta\theta_{\text{prior}} \right)^{N_{\theta}}$$

Maximum likelihood

No. of parameter,
model complexity

Udo von Toussaint, Rev. Mod. Phys. 83, 943 (2011)

17



- ◆ **posterior predictive distribution:**

$$Z_i^{\text{pseu}} \equiv \int L(\mathbf{y}_{\text{ev}} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}, M_i) p(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \mathbf{y}, M_i) d\boldsymbol{\theta}$$

- Model calibration and evaluation use different data sets.
- Select $\mathbf{y}_{\text{ev}}$ that are closely related to the target observables.
- Posterior from calibration $\rightarrow$ Prior for evaluation/prediction.

Neufcourt et al., PRL 122, 062502 (2019)

Neufcourt et al., PRC 101, 014319 (2020)

Kejzlar et al., JPG 47, 094001 (2020)

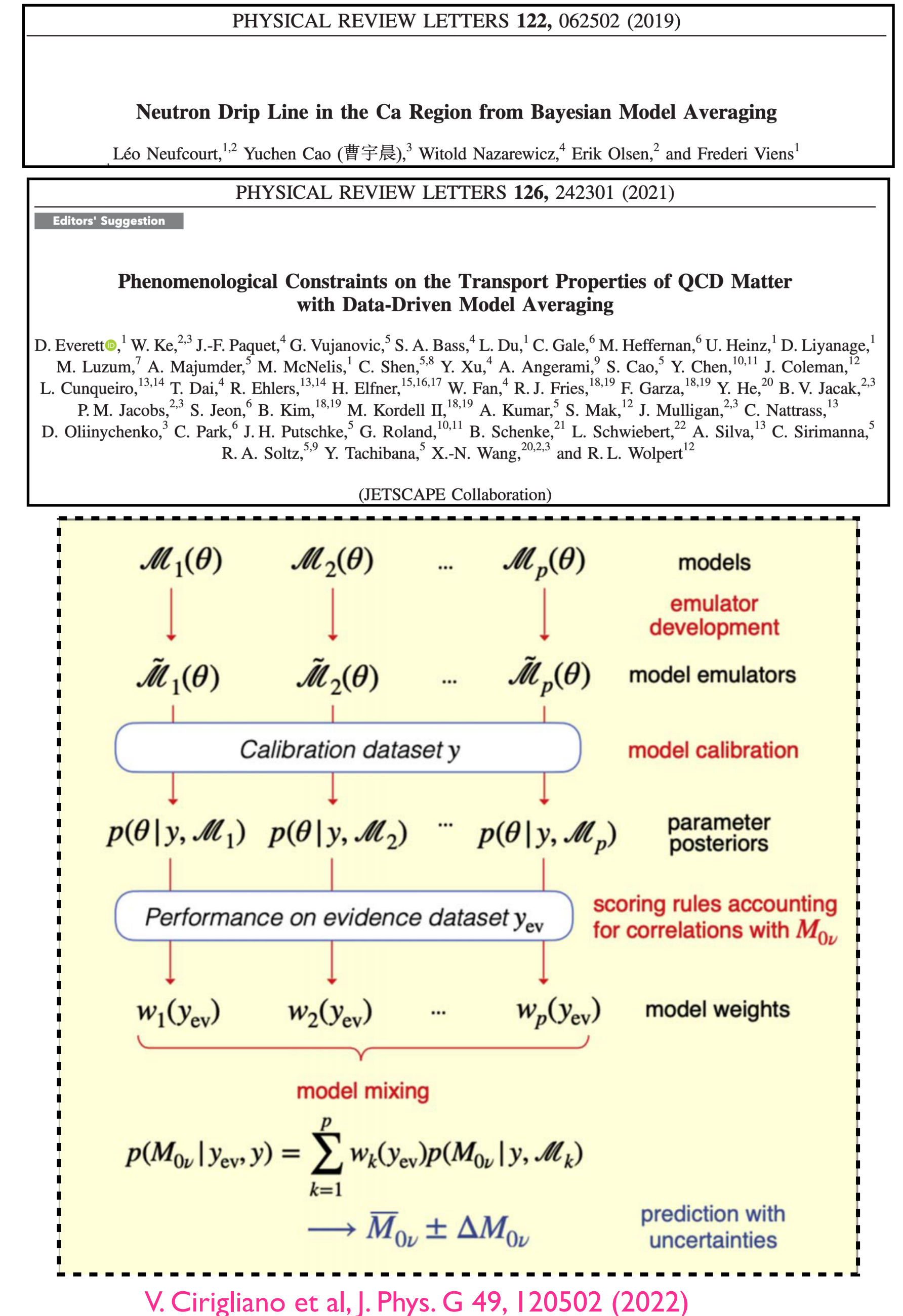
Cirigliano et al., JPG 49, 120502 (2022)

Bayesian model averaging

- ◆ Model prior $\pi(M_i)$:
our preference on M_i before seeing the data.
- ◆ Model likelihood:
(pseudo-)evidence $Z_i = p(\mathbf{y} | M_i)$ ($Z_i^{\text{pseu}} = p(y_{\text{ev}} | y, M_i)$)
- ◆ Model posterior:

$$p(M_i | \mathbf{y}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{y} | M_i) \pi(M_i)}{\sum_j p(\mathbf{y} | M_j) \pi(M_j)}$$
- ◆ $p(M_i | y_{\text{ev}}) = \frac{p(y_{\text{ev}} | y, M_i) \pi(M_i)}{\sum_j p(y_{\text{ev}} | y, M_j) \pi(M_j)}$
- ◆ Model averaging for observable $\mathcal{O}$:

$$p(\mathcal{O} | \mathbf{y}) = \sum_i p(\mathcal{O} | \mathbf{y}, M_i) p(M_i | \mathbf{y})$$



Bayesian model averaging

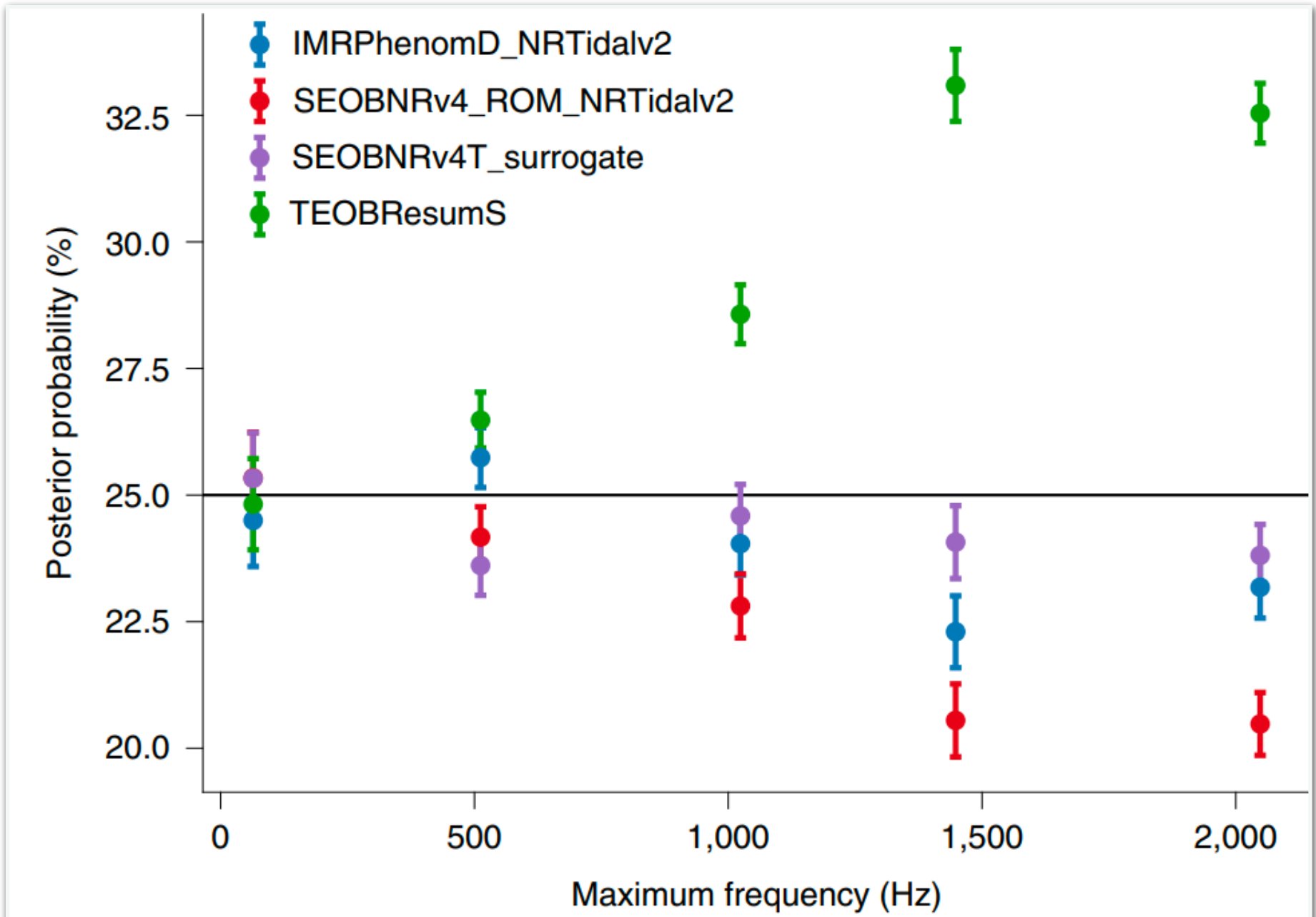


Fig. 1 | The evolution of the posterior probability of each waveform for GW170817 as the maximum frequency of the analysis data is varied. The error bars indicate the Bernoulli standard error of the mean; a horizontal black line is drawn at 25% where all the models are a posteriori equivalent.

nature
astronomy

ARTICLES

<https://doi.org/10.1038/s41550-022-01707-x>

Check for updates

The use of hypermodels to understand binary neutron star collisions

Gregory Ashton^{1,2}✉ and Tim Dietrich^{3,4}

Comparing gravitational waveform models for binary black hole mergers through a hypermodels approach

[Anna Puecher](#)^{1,2}, [Anuradha Samajdar](#)^{2,3}, [Gregory Ashton](#)⁴, [Chris Van Den Broeck](#)^{1,2}, and [Tim Dietrich](#)^{3,5}

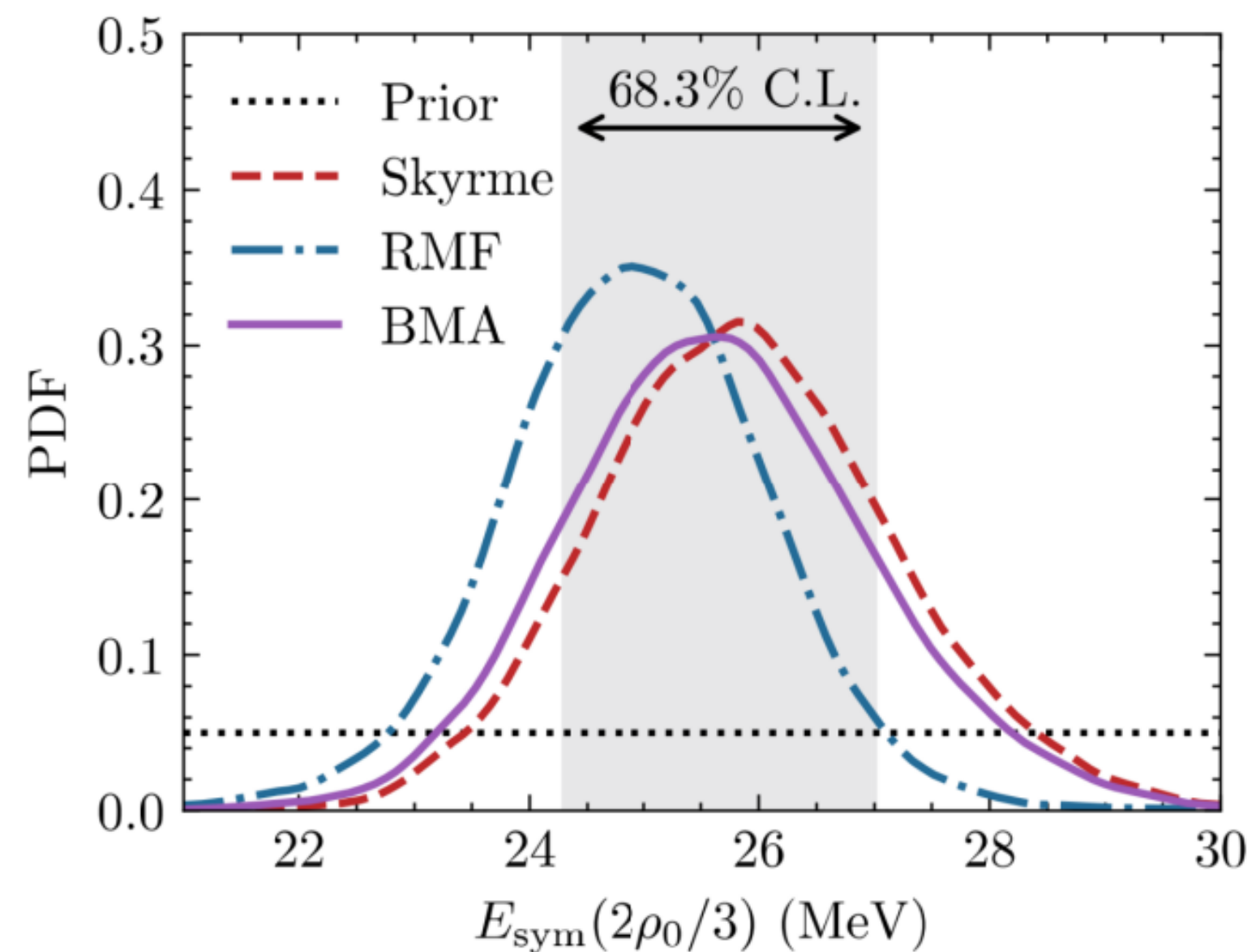
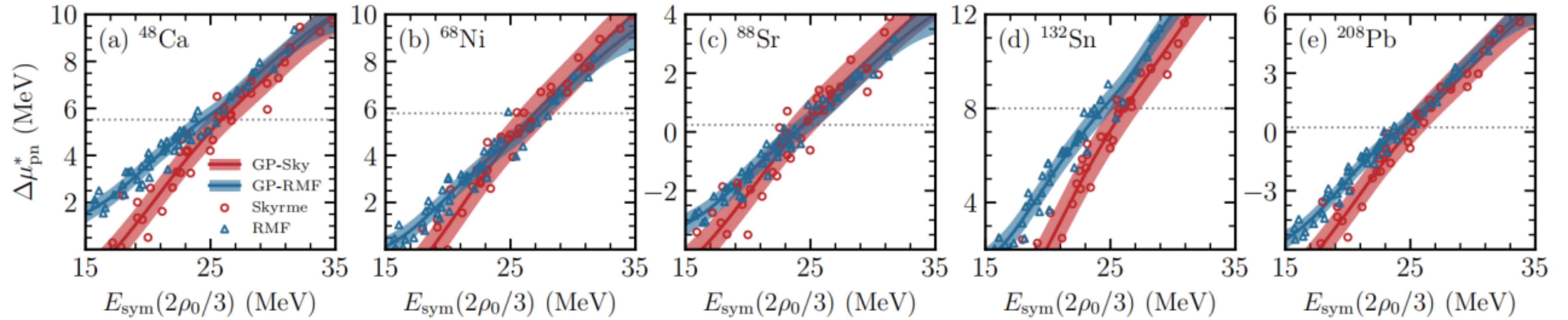
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Phys. Rev. D **109**, 023019 – Published 11 January, 2024

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1103/PhysRevD.109.023019>

BMA for nuclear symmetry energy

$$\Delta\mu_{\text{pn}}^* = \frac{1}{4}[B(N, Z+2) - B(N, Z-2) - B(N+2, Z) + B(N-2, Z)]$$



M. Qiu, B.-J. Cai, L.-W. Chen, C.X. Yuan and ZZ, PLB 849, 138435 (2024)

Bayesian model selection

◆ Bayes' factor :

$$B_{12} = \frac{Z_1}{Z_2}$$

Jeffreys' Scale (rule of thumb)

- $B_{12} < 1$: support for M_2 .
- $1 < B_{12} < 3$: barely worth mentioning.
- $3 < B_{12} < 10$: moderate evidence for M_1 .
- $10 < B_{12} < 100$: strong evidence.
- > 100 : decisive evidence.

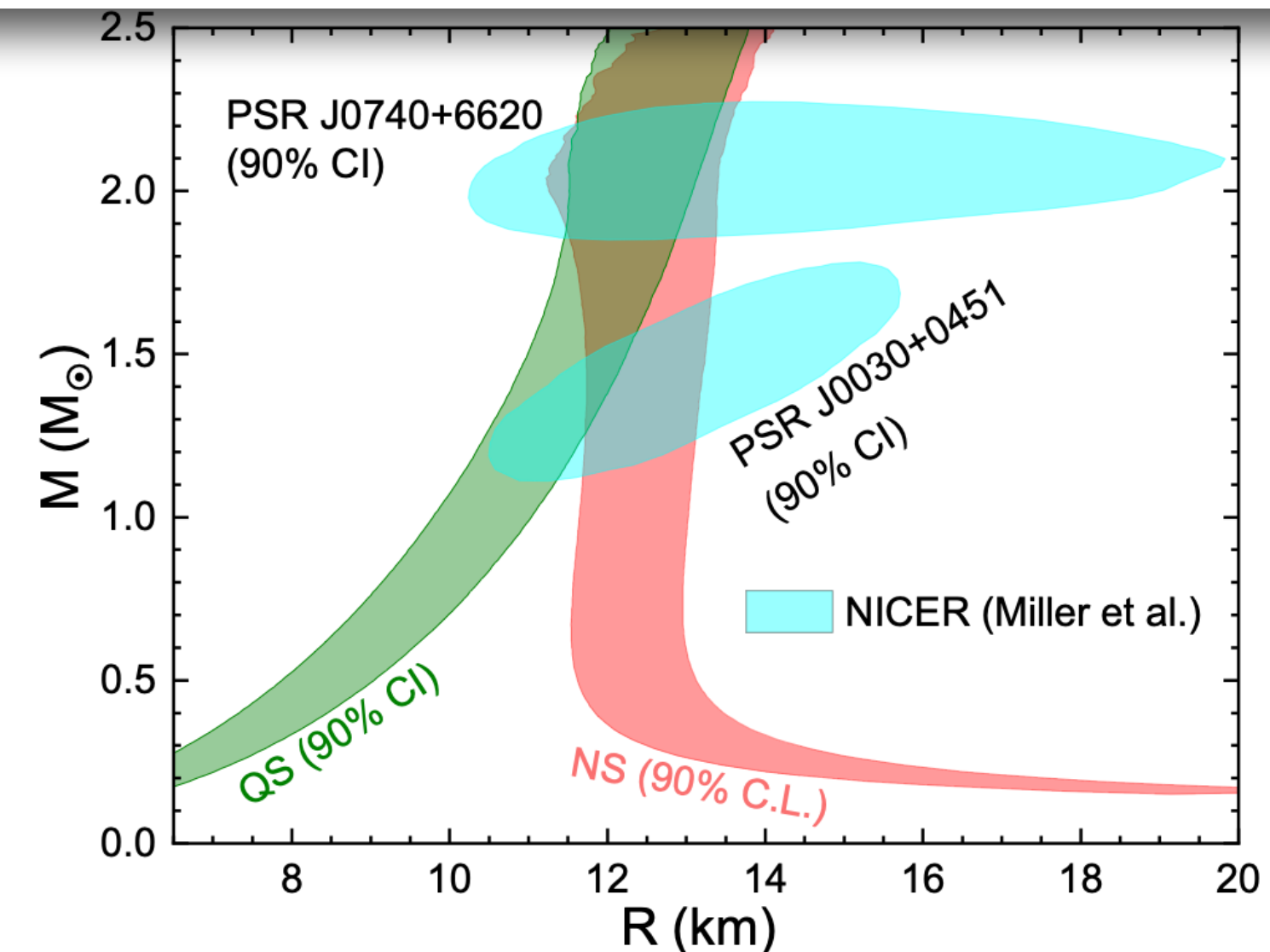
arXiv > astro-ph > arXiv:2308.16783

Astrophysics > High Energy Astrophysical Phenomena

[Submitted on 31 Aug 2023]

Neutron Star vs Quark Star in the Multimessenger Era

Zheng Cao, Lie-Wen Chen



arXiv > nucl-th > arXiv:2507.11394v1

Search...

Help | Ad

Nuclear Theory

[Submitted on 15 Jul 2025]

Bayesian Model Selection and Uncertainty Propagation for Beam Energy Scan Heavy-Ion Collisions

Syed Afrid Jahan, Hendrik Roch, Chun Shen

Nested sampling

Code	Methods	Dynamic	Languages	Field	Pub. Year
CosmoNest [60, 61]	ellipsoid	fixed	Fortran	Cosmology	2006
MultiNest [48, 84]	multi-ellipsoid	fixed	Fortran, C/C++, Python	Cosmology	2008
DIAMONDS [249]	multi-ellipsoid	fixed	C++	Astrophysics	2015
nestle [250]	ellipsoid, multi-ellipsoid	fixed	Python	Astrophysics	2015
nessai [90, 91]	normalising flow ellipsoid	fixed	Python	Gravitational waves	2021
(dy)PolyChord [53, 65]	slice	dynamic	Fortran, C/C++, Python	Cosmology	2015
LALInferenceNest [180]	random walk, ensemble, differential evolution	fixed	C	Gravitational waves	2015
Nested_fit [104, 257, 258]	random walk	fixed	Fortran	Atomic physics	2016
cpnest [259]	slice, differential evolution, Gauss, Hamiltonian, ensemble	fixed	Python	Gravitational waves	2017
pymatnest [44]	random walk, Galilean, symplectic Hamiltonian	fixed	Python	Materials	2017
NNest [261]	normalising flow random walk	fixed	Python	Cosmology	2019
DNest5 [55]	user-defined, random walk	diffusive	C++	Astrophysics	2020
BayesicFitting [263]	random walk, slice, Galilean, Gibbs	fixed	Python	Astronomy	2021
dynesty [52]	ellipsoid, multi-ellipsoid, MLFriends & Gauss, slice, Hamiltonian	dynamic	Python	Astrophysics	2020
UltraNest [92]	MLFriends + ellipsoid & Gauss, hit-and-run, slice	reactive	Python, Julia, R, C/C++, Fortran	Astrophysics	2020
jaxns [266]	multi-ellipsoid & slice	fixed	jax	Astronomy	2021

Table 2 | **Comparison of NS codes.** The first two groups are region samplers and step samplers, respectively, whereas the third group offers both. Dynamic implementations allow the number of live points to be changed during a run. We show the language in which the NS code was written followed by any additional languages for which interfaces exist, and the field from which the code originated (though most are general purpose codes).

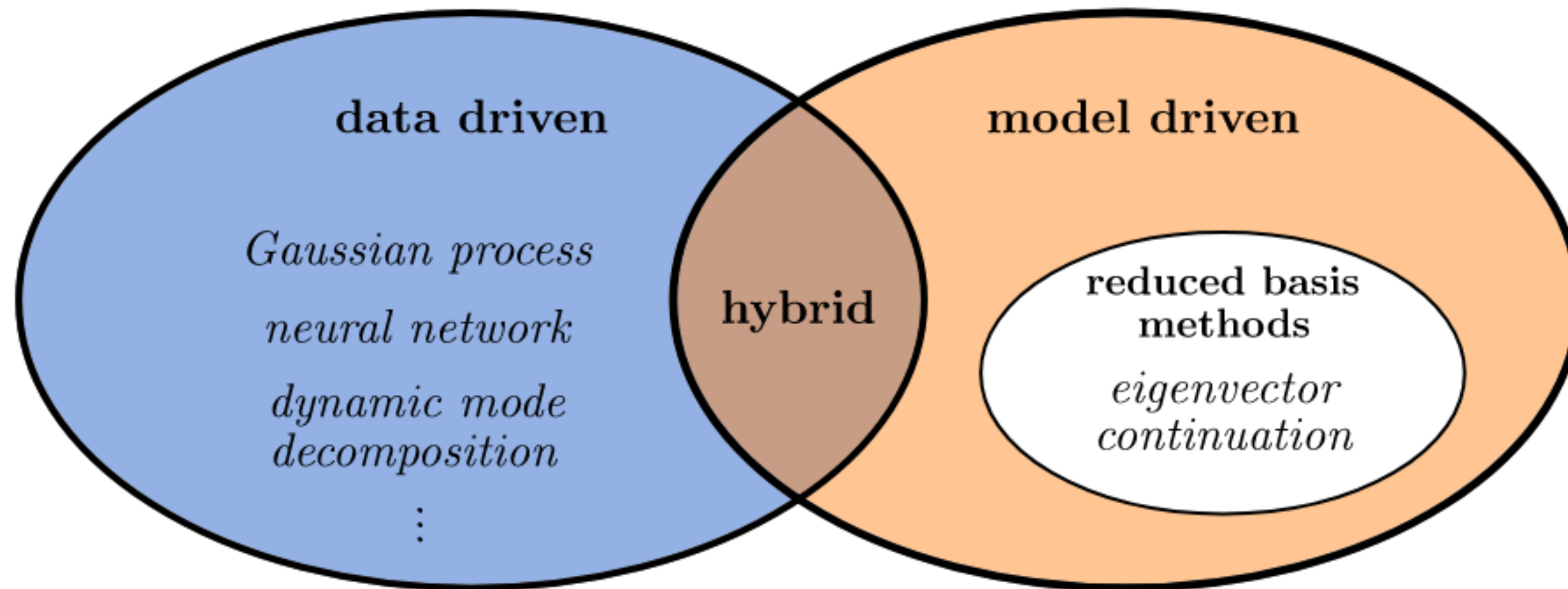
Ashton et al., Nat Rev Methods Primers 2, 39 (2022)

Surrogate Emulators

- Gaussian process (GP)
- Reduced basis method (RBM)
- Parametric Matrix Model (PMM)

Emulator

reduced order models



T. Duguet, et al., Rev. Mod. Phys. 96, 031002 (2024)

Gaussian process

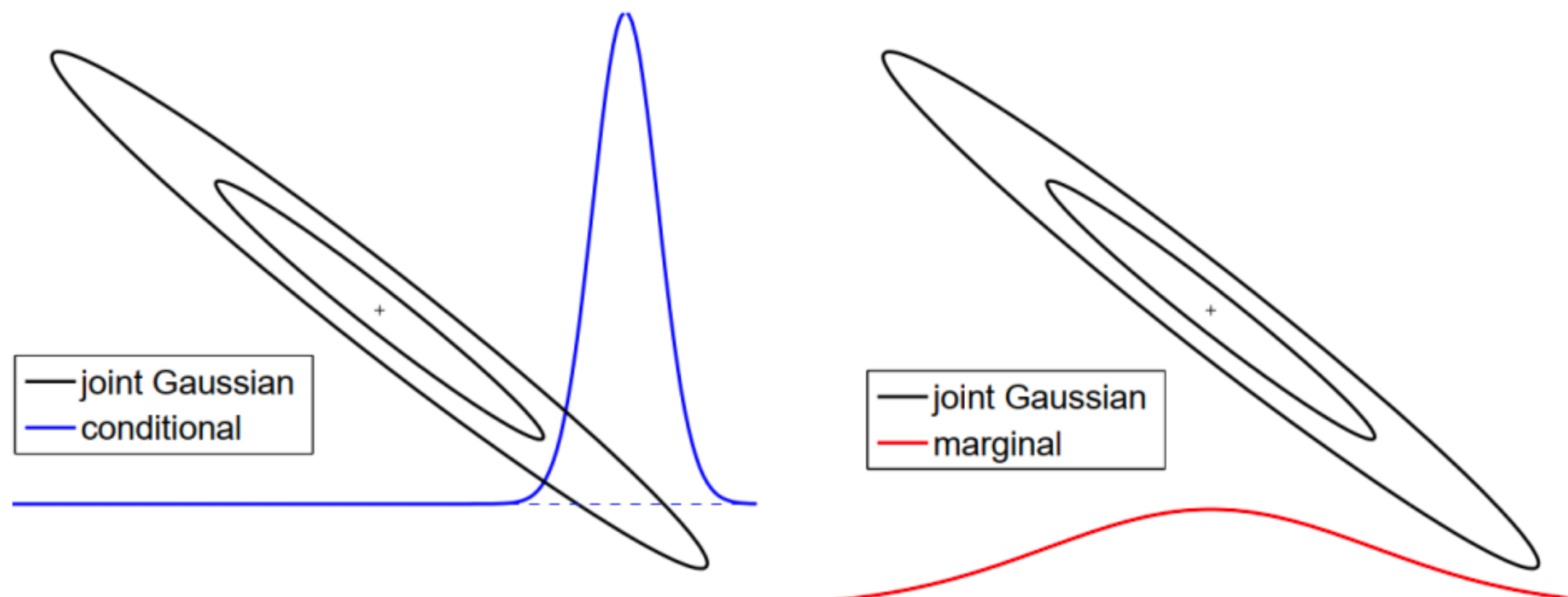
- **Definition:** *A Gaussian process is a collection of random variables, any finite number of which have a joint Gaussian distribution.*

Rasmussen and Williams, *Gaussian Processes for Machine Learning*, MIT Press, 2006

- **Multivariate Gaussian distribution**

$$p(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\mu}, \Sigma) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{d/2} |\Sigma|^{1/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^T \Sigma^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right)$$

where $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ is the mean vector and Σ is the covariance matrix.



Conditional and **marginal** distributions of a multivariate Gaussian are gaussian

The Gaussian Processes Web Site
<http://www.gaussianprocess.org>

Gaussian process emulator

- GP can serve as a **fast surrogate** of a slow model.

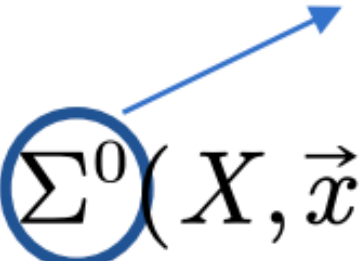
Given **training data** from model calculations, a GP can guess model prediction y_* at x_* .

$$X = (\vec{x}_1, \dots, \vec{x}_m), \mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_m)$$

- Considering $\mathbf{y}$ and y_* as **random variables**, seek for **$p(y_* | \mathbf{y})$** .
 - y_* and $\mathbf{y}$ should be correlated and the correlation depends on $|x_* - x_i|$.

- **Prior:**

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{y} \\ y_* \end{bmatrix} \sim \mathcal{N} \left(\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma^0(X, X) & \Sigma^0(X, \vec{x}_*) \\ \Sigma^0(\vec{x}_*, X) & \Sigma^0(\vec{x}_*, \vec{x}_*) \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

Covariance matrix 

- **Conditional distribution:**

$$y_* | \mathbf{y} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_*, \sigma_*^2)$$

$$\mu_* | \mathbf{y} = \Sigma^0(x_*, X) \Sigma^0(X, X)^{-1} \mathbf{y}$$

$$\sigma_*^2 = \sigma(x_*, x_*) - \Sigma^0(x_*, X) \Sigma^0(X, X)^{-1} \Sigma^0(X, x_*)$$

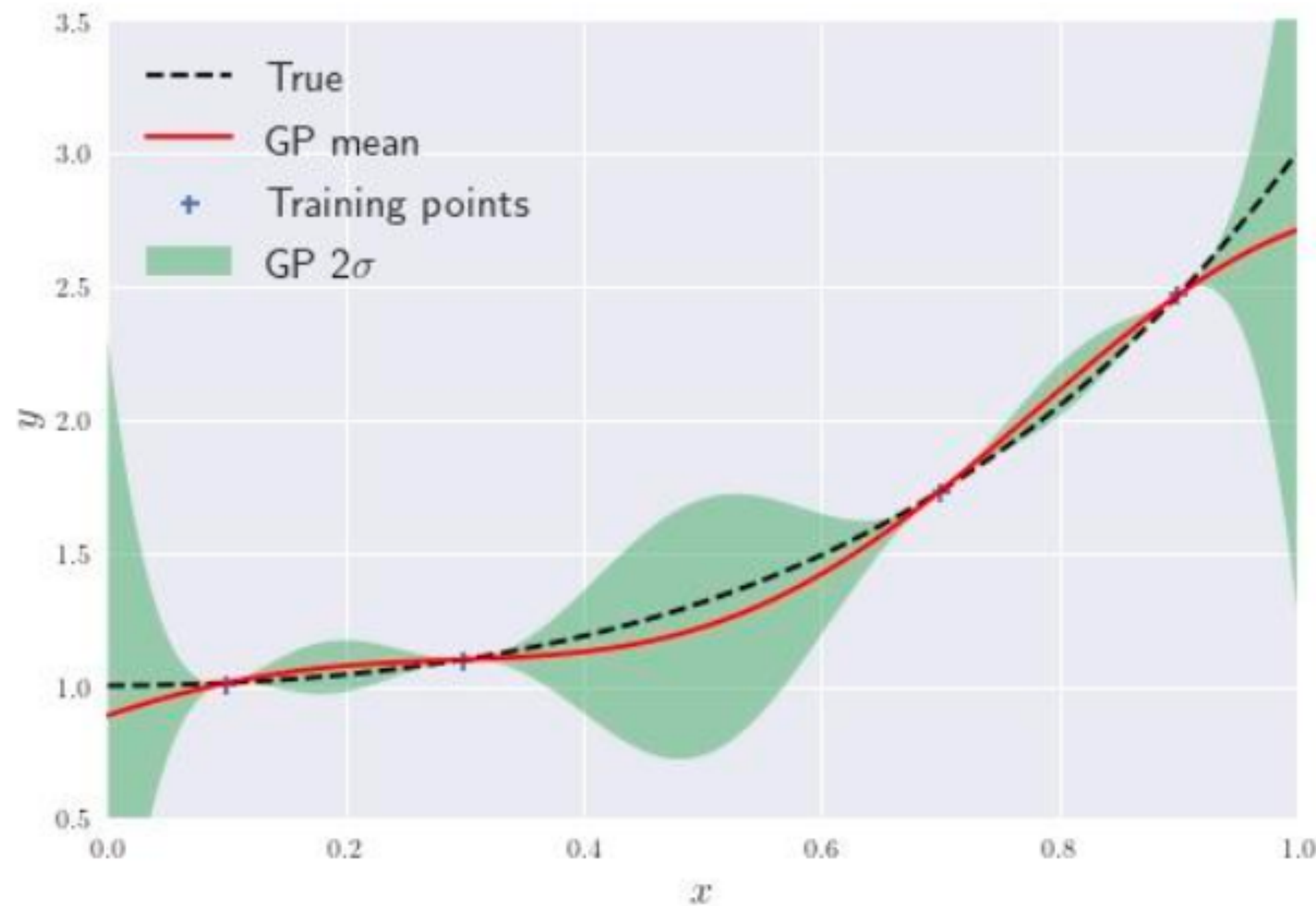
A typical covariance function:

$$\Sigma^0(X, X) = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma(\vec{x}_1, \vec{x}_1) & \cdots & \sigma(\vec{x}_1, \vec{x}_m) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \sigma(\vec{x}_m, \vec{x}_1) & \cdots & \sigma(\vec{x}_m, \vec{x}_m) \end{pmatrix}, \quad \sigma(\vec{x}_i, \vec{x}_j) = \sigma_{\text{GP}}^2 \exp\left(-\sum_k \frac{(x_{i,k} - x_{j,k})^2}{2l_k^2}\right) + \sigma_n^2 \delta_{ij}$$

Decrease with distance

Hyper-parameters:

- Noise σ_n = uncertainty of a stochastic model
- Amplitude σ_{GP} only affects σ_* but not affect μ_* if $\sigma_n=0$
- length scale l_k : usually μ_* is relatively insensitive to l_k



- Reproduce the training points without noise
- Make predictions with statistical uncertainties

1. How to determine the hyper parameters?
2. How to choose training data?
3. How to treat multiple observables?

Hyper-parameters in GP

- Log marginal likelihood :

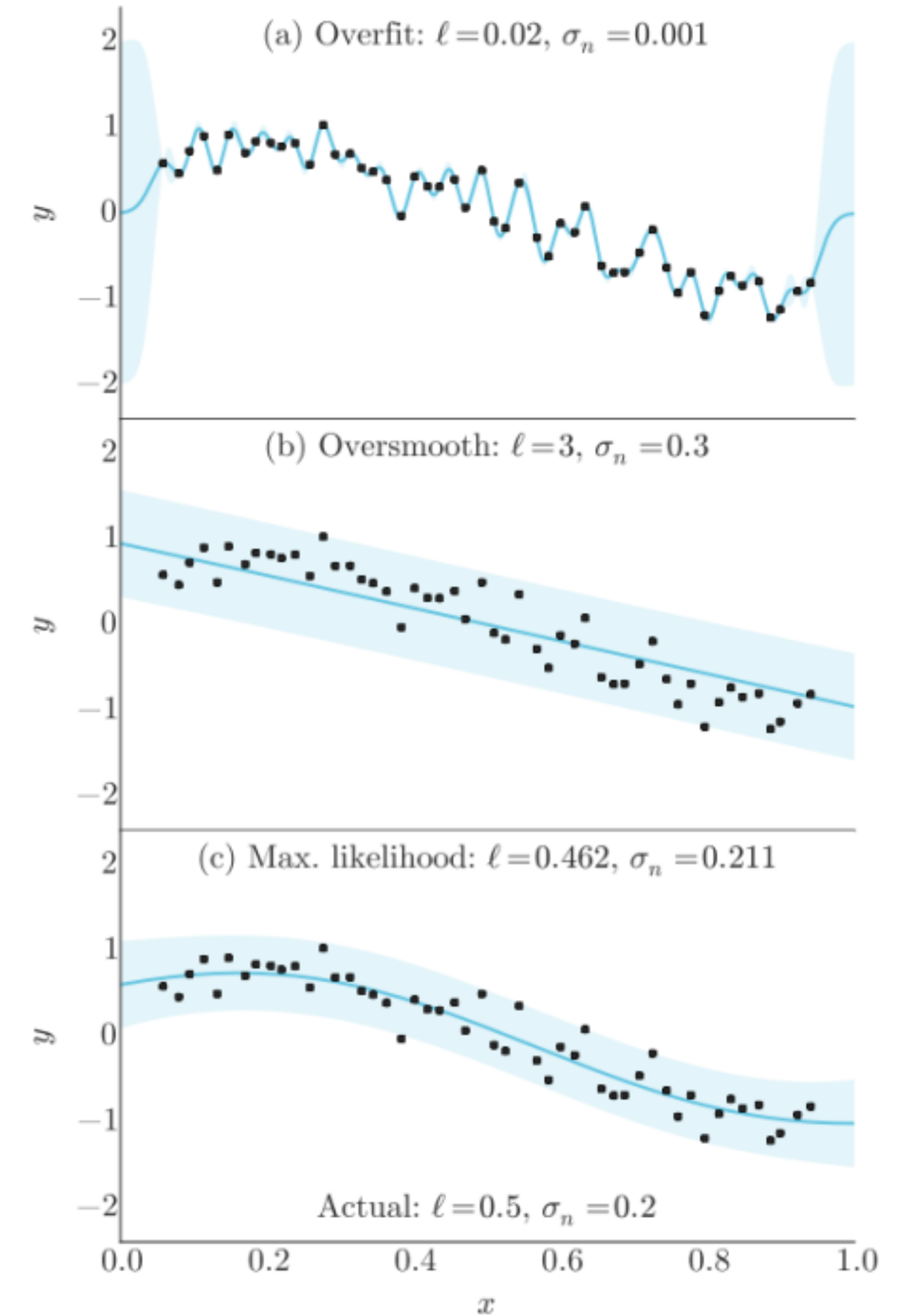
$$\log P(\mathbf{y} | X, \theta) = -\frac{1}{2} \mathbf{y}^\top (\Sigma^0)^{-1} \mathbf{y} - \frac{1}{2} \log |\Sigma^0| - \frac{m}{2} \log 2\pi$$

- Hyper-parameters can be determined by maximizing the marginal likelihood

- Example:

$$\sigma(x, x') = \exp\left(-\frac{|x - x'|^2}{2\ell^2}\right) + \sigma_n^2 \delta_{xx'}$$

Bernhard et al., PRC 91, 054910 (2015)



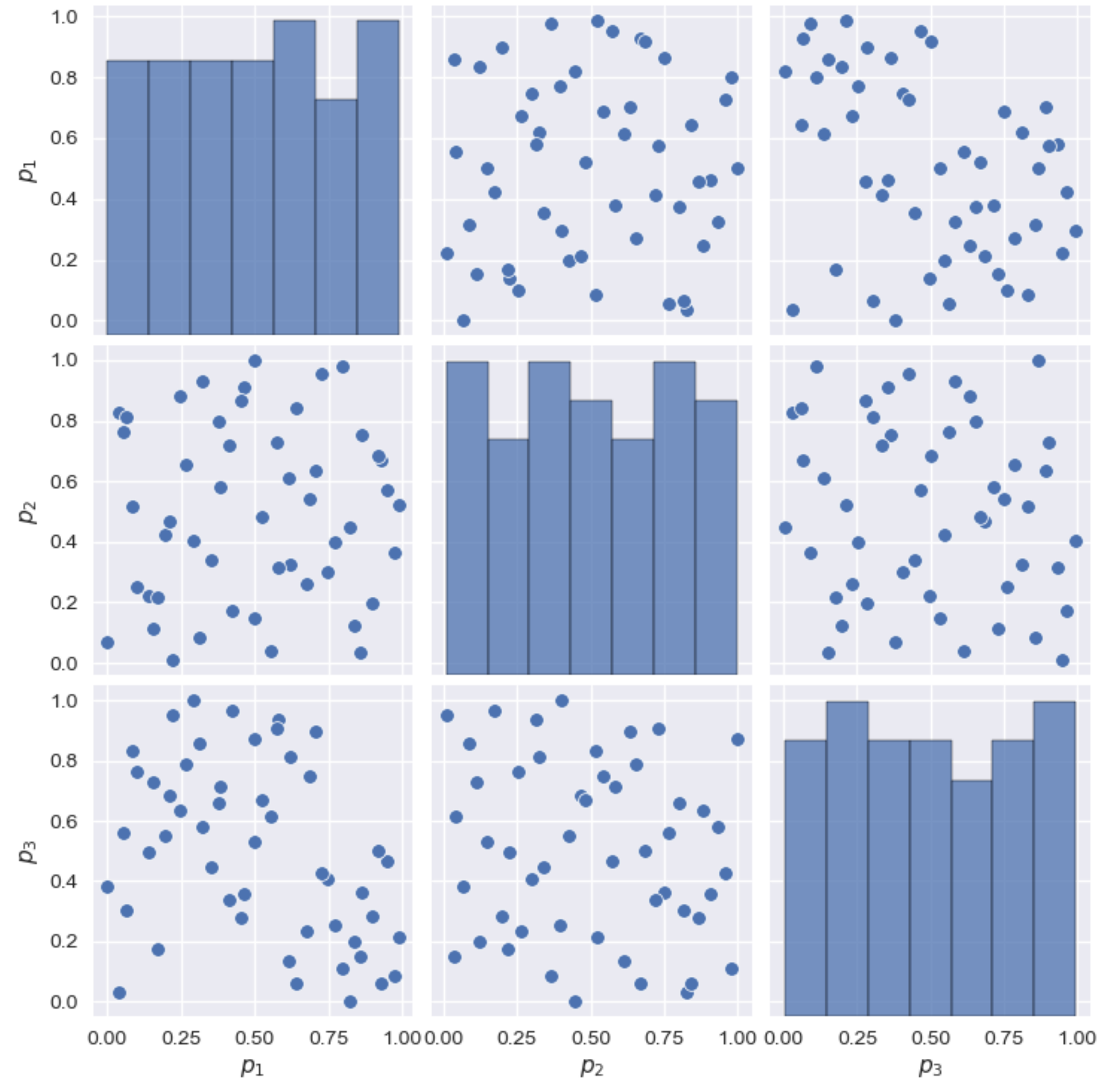
How to choose training points

- Latin Hypercube sampling

```
from scipy.stats import qmc
sampler = qmc.LatinHypercube(d=3)
sample = sampler.random(n=50)
```

- Greedy approach

C. E. Rasmussen & C. K. I. Williams,
Gaussian Processes for Machine Learning, the MIT Press, 2006,



Principal component analysis (PCA)

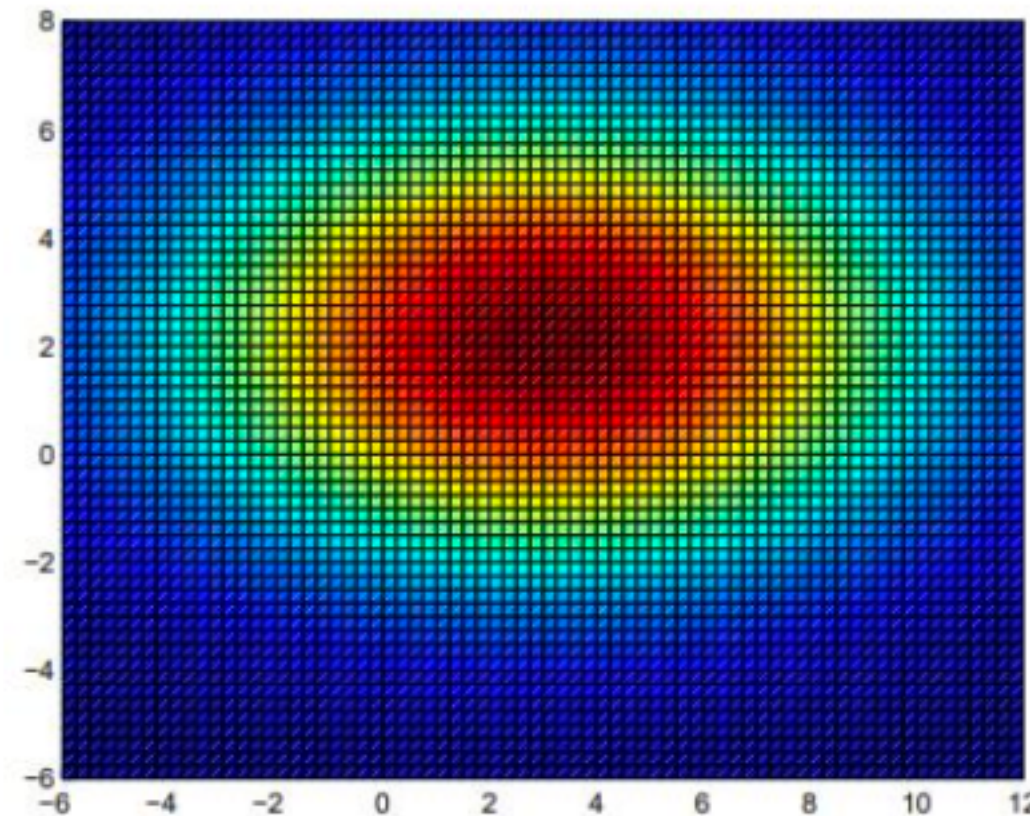
- How to treat multiple observables?

The central idea of principal component analysis is to **reduce the dimensionality** of a data set in which there are a large number of **interrelated variables**, while retaining as much as possible of the variation present in the data set. This reduction is achieved by **transforming to a new set of variables, the principal components, which are uncorrelated**, and which are ordered so that the first few retain most of the variation present in all of the original variables.

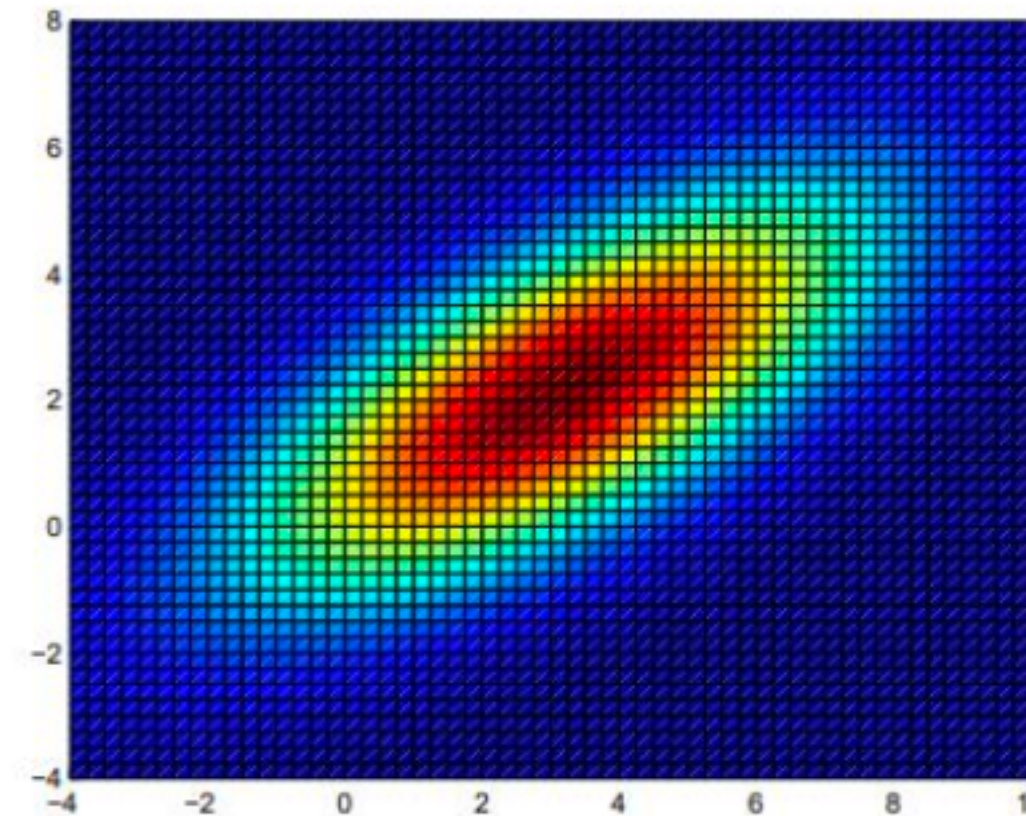
I.T. Jolliffe, *Principal Component Analysis*, Second Edition

uncorrelated

$$\mathcal{N}\left(\mu = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}, \Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 25 & 0 \\ 0 & 9 \end{bmatrix}\right)$$



correlated



$$\mathcal{N}\left(\mu = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}, \Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 10 & 5 \\ 5 & 5 \end{bmatrix}\right)$$

PCA procedure

- m correlated observables/model output o_i
- o_i are functions of model parameters, but linear combinations of o_i may be independent of parameters.

$$\tilde{o}_i = \frac{o_i - \langle o_i \rangle}{\sigma_i} \quad \text{average over training data}$$

- Covariance matrix:

$$M = \langle \tilde{o}_i \tilde{o}_j \rangle, \quad (\langle \tilde{o}_i \rangle = \langle \tilde{o}_j \rangle = 0)$$

- Eigenvalue decomposition

$$M = U \Lambda U^T$$

$$\Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & & \\ & \lambda_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \lambda_m \end{bmatrix}$$

Eigenvalue

$$U = (\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_m)$$

Normalized Eigenvectors

PCA

$$M = U \Lambda U^T$$

$$UU^T = I$$

Covariance Matrix

Physics output	Principal component
$\tilde{\mathbf{o}}$	$\mathbf{z} = \tilde{\mathbf{o}}U$
$\langle \tilde{\mathbf{o}} \rangle = 0$	$\langle \mathbf{z} \rangle = 0$
$\langle \tilde{o}_i \tilde{o}_j \rangle = M$	$\langle z_i z_j \rangle = U^T \langle \tilde{o}_i \tilde{o}_j \rangle U = \Lambda$
Correlated	Uncorrelated

$$\mathcal{L} \propto \exp \left[- \sum_i \frac{(o_i - o_i^{\text{exp}})^2}{2\sigma_i^2} \right]$$

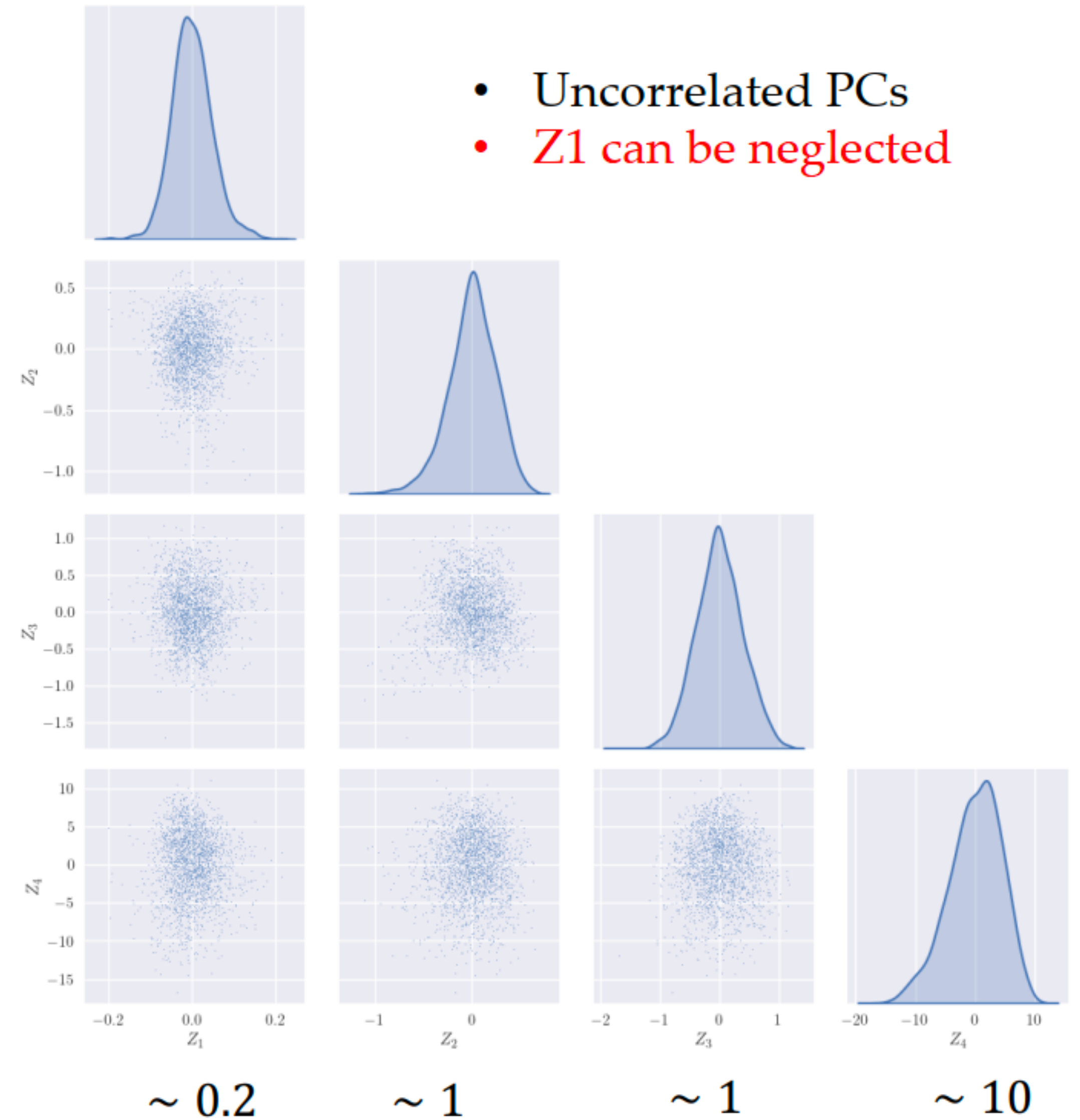
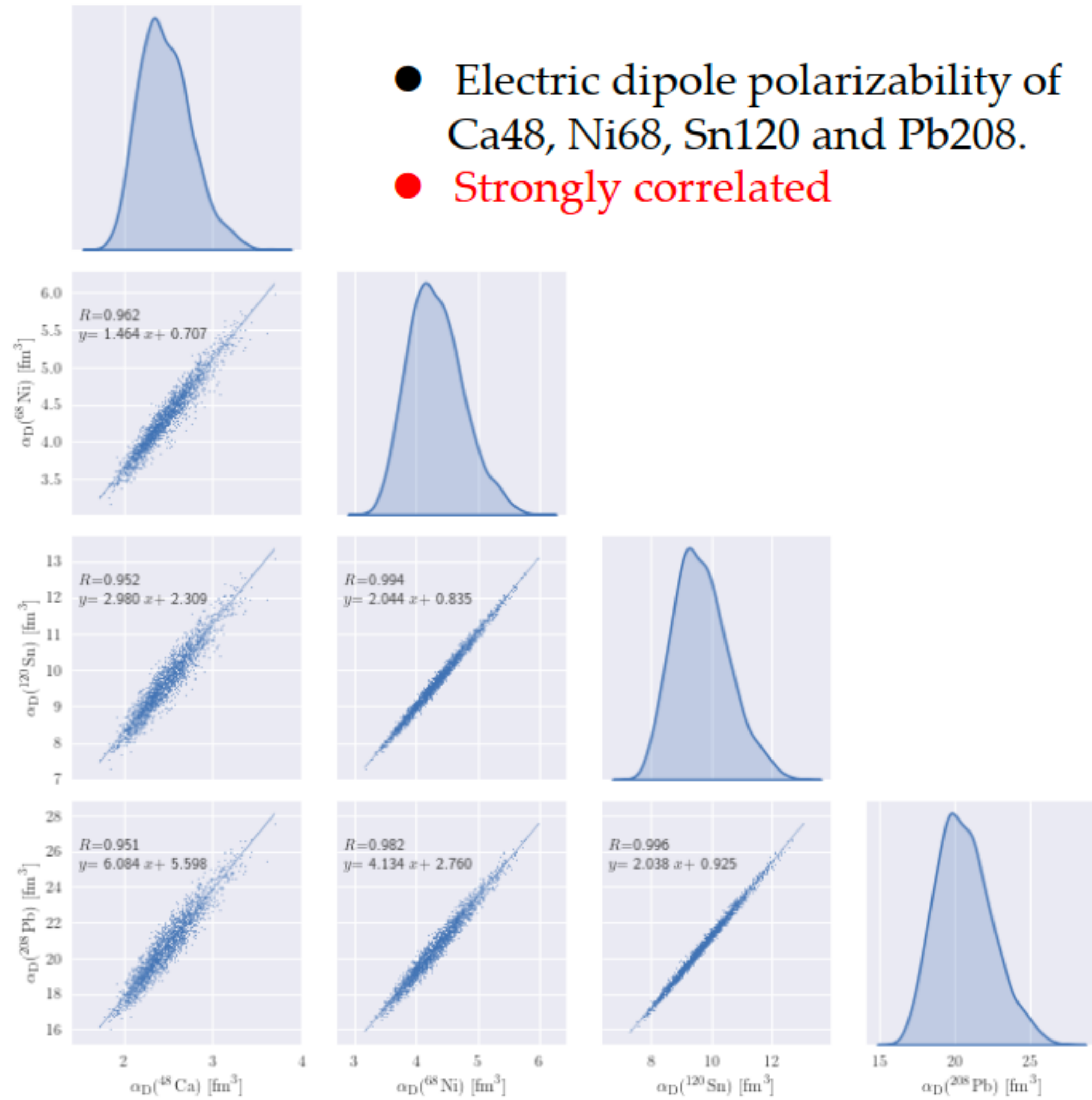
$$= \exp \left[- \frac{1}{2} \sum_i (\tilde{o}_i - \tilde{o}_i^{\text{exp}})^2 \right]$$

$$= \exp \left[- \frac{1}{2} \sum_i (z_i - z_i^{\text{exp}})^2 \right]$$

- λ_i is the variance of z_i .
- Retain the first q PCs with the largest eigenvalues.
- m correlated outputs $\rightarrow q$ uncorrelated PCs.

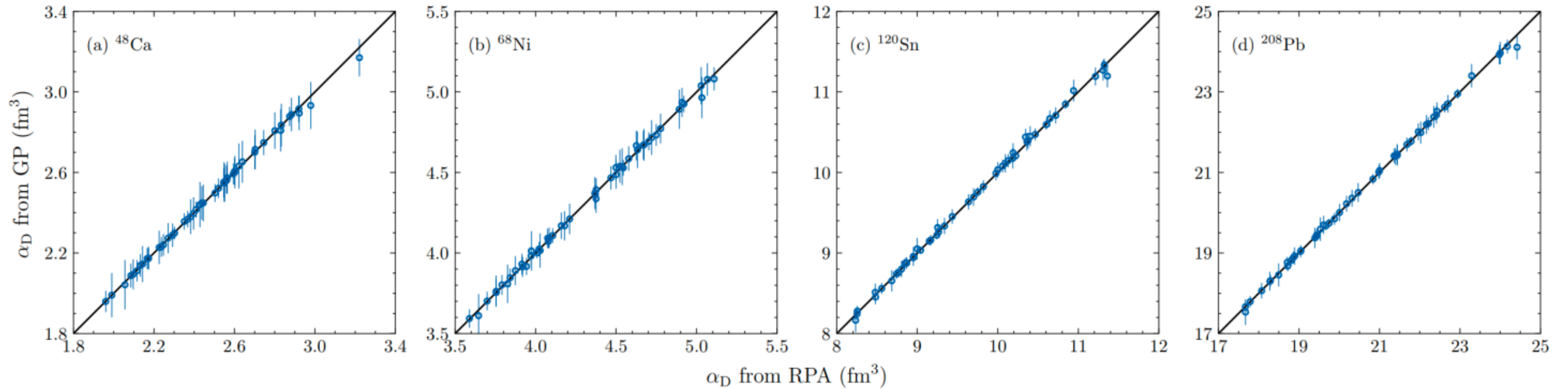
$$\sum_{i=1}^q \lambda_i / \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i \leq V$$

PCA example



PCA+GP

GP vs Model



- ◆ Tune GPs for dominant PCs instead of all model outputs.
- ◆ PCA+GPs => a **multivariate** emulator.

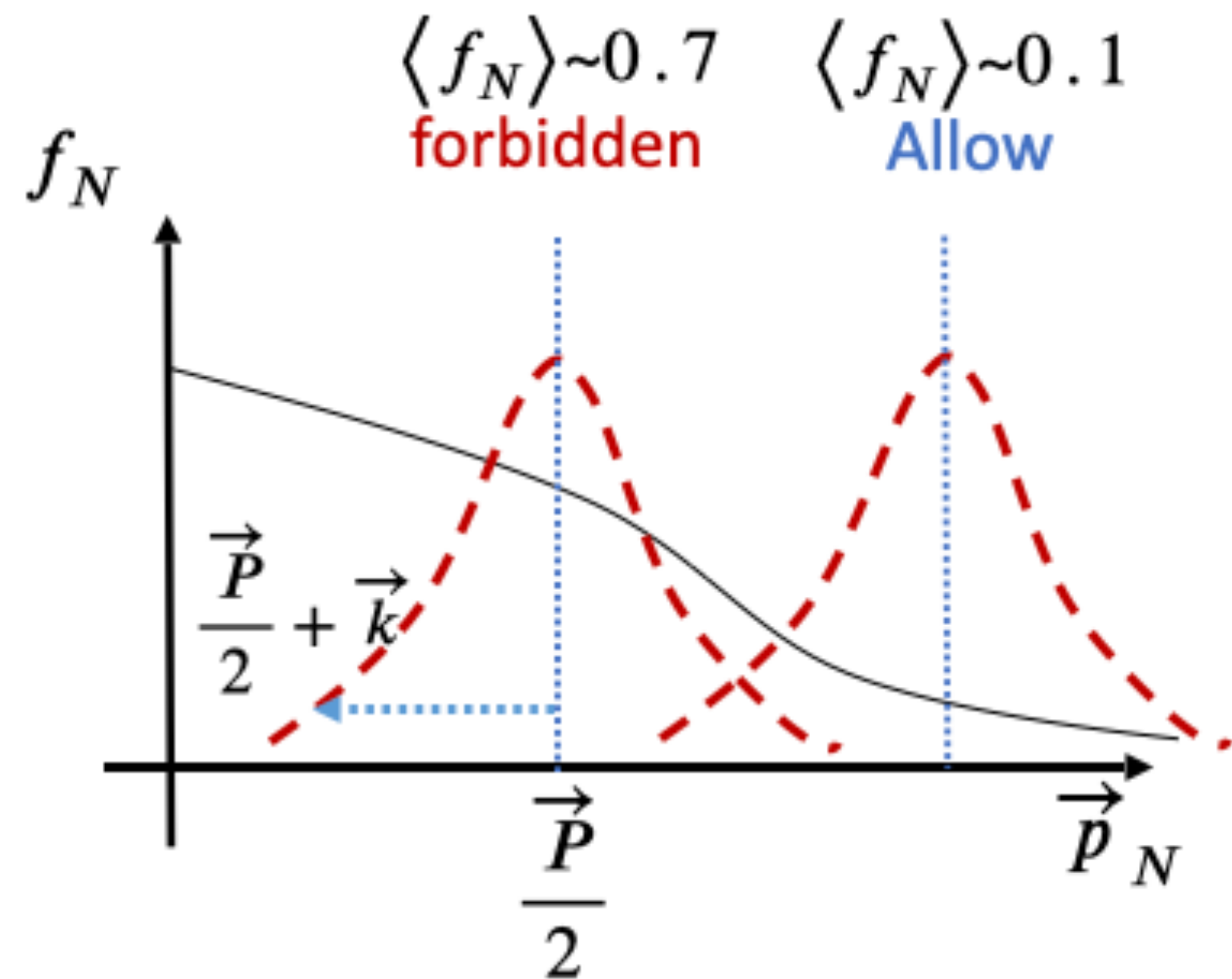
Example: Bayesian analysis of light-nuclei production in HICs

Model: LBUU transport model

R. Wang, **ZZ**, L.-W. Chen & Y.-G. Ma, Front. Phys. 8:330 (2020)
R. Wang et al., PRC108, L031601 (2023)

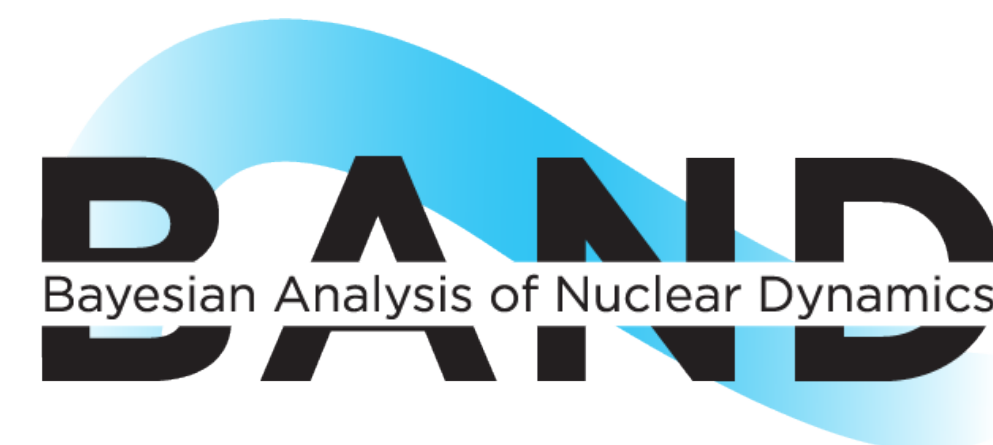
Parameters: $f_{A=2,3,4}^{\text{cut}}$

$$\langle f_N \rangle_i(\vec{P}) \equiv \int f_N^{\text{tot}} \left(\frac{\vec{P}}{A_i} + \vec{p} \right) \left| \phi_i(\vec{p}) \right|^2 d\vec{p} \leq f_{A=A_i}^{\text{cut}}$$



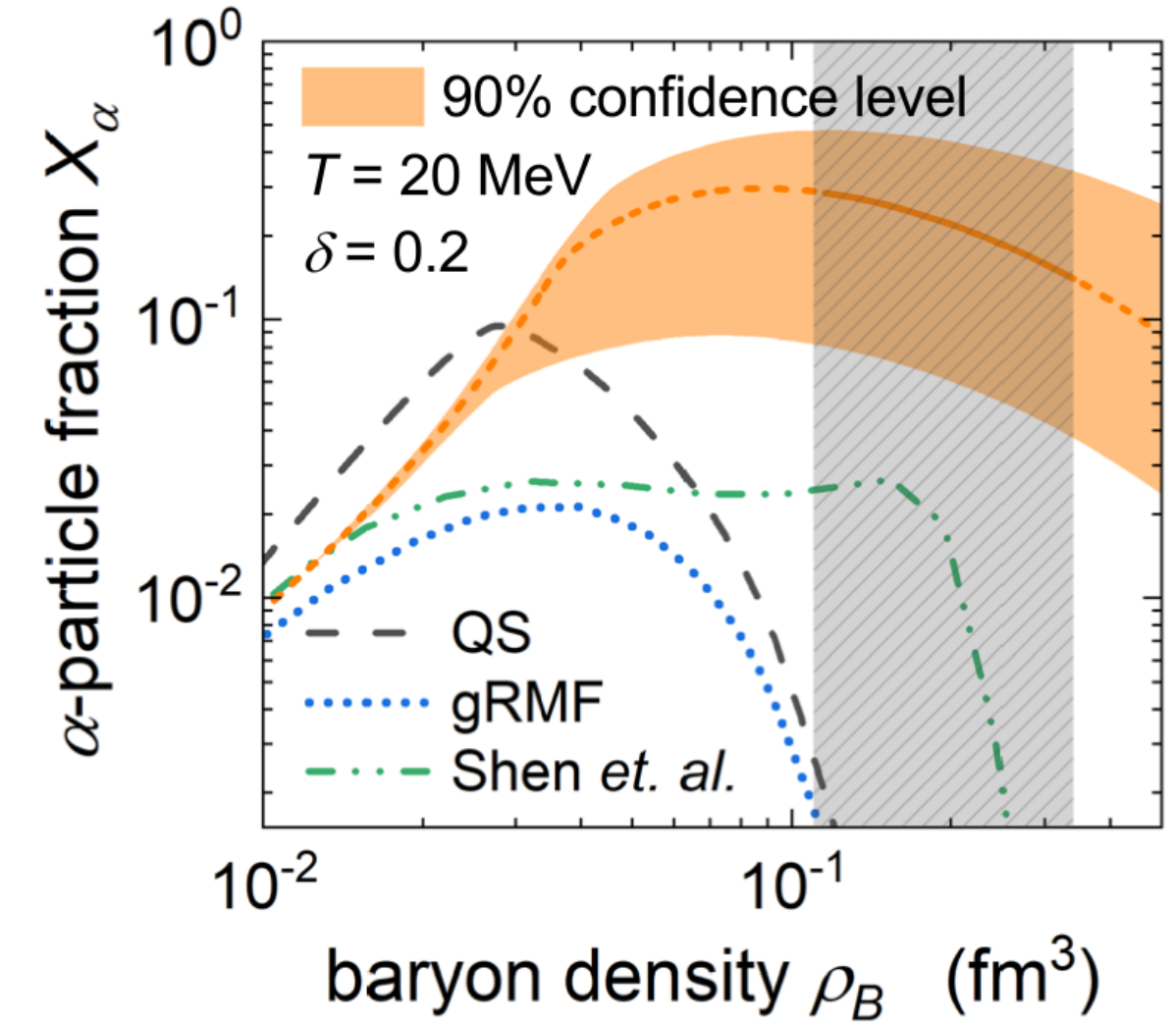
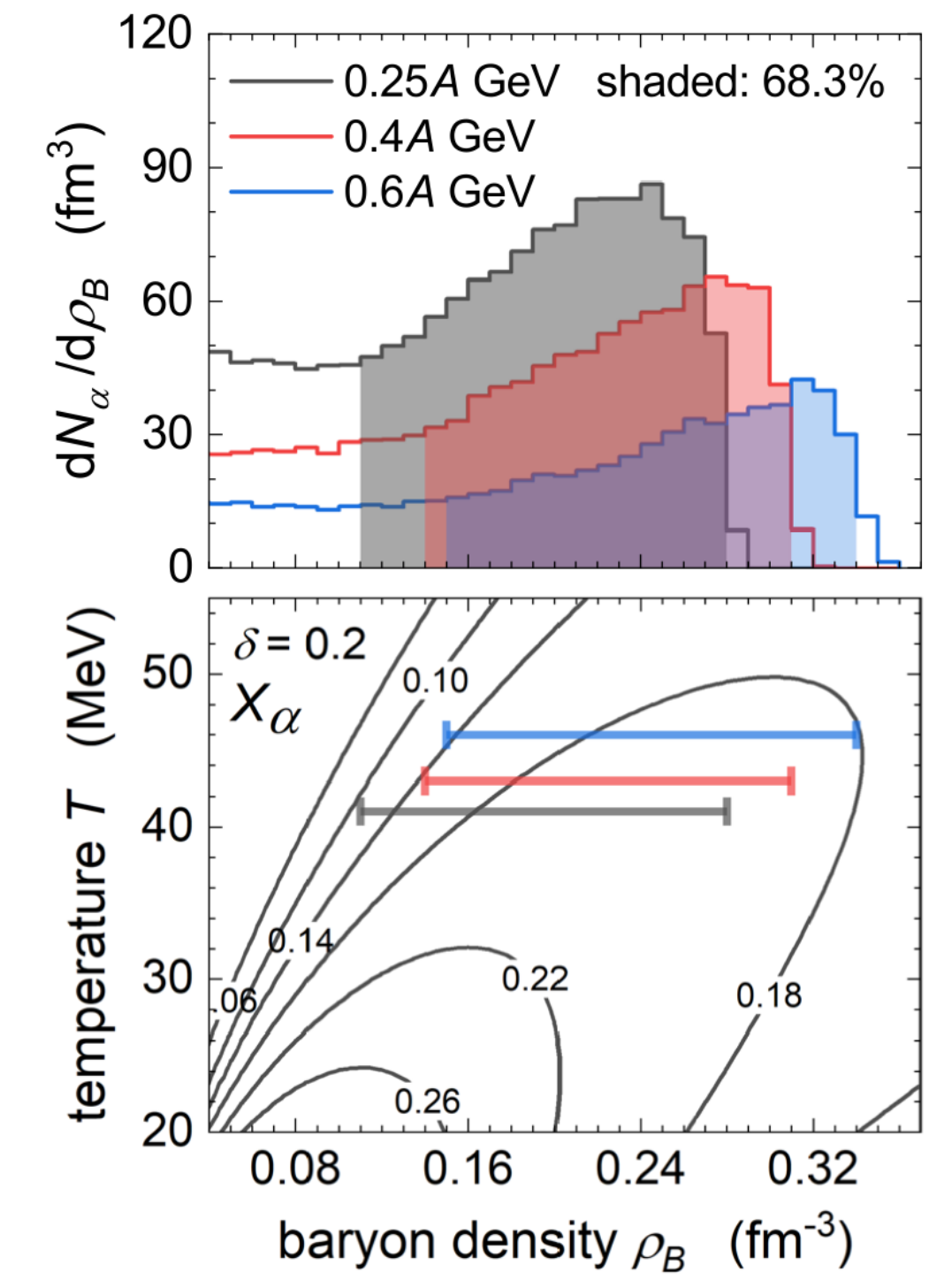
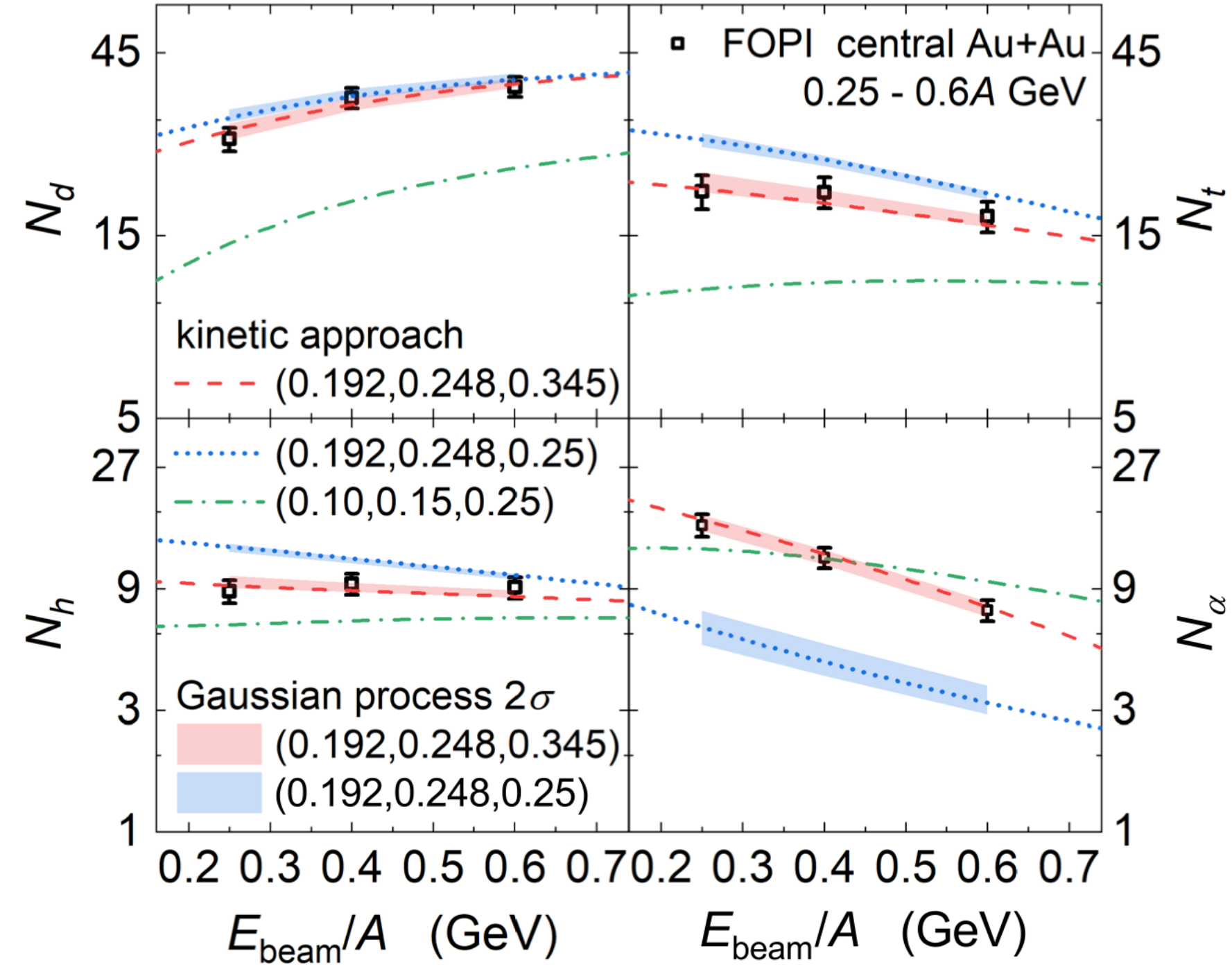
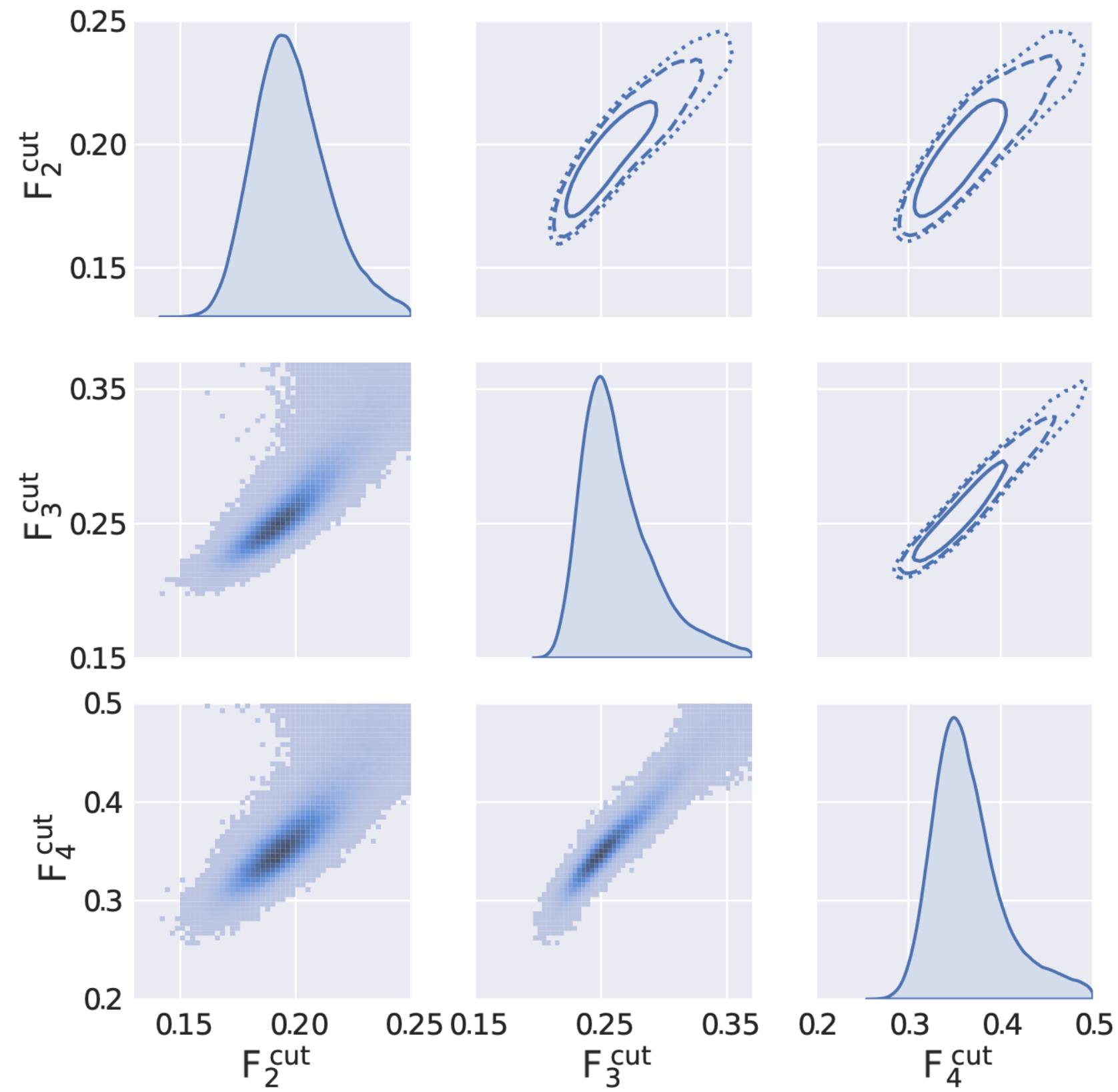
Data: d, t, h, α yields in Au+Au central collisions at energies of 0.25 - 0.6A GeV.

- 30 parameter sets from **Latin Hypercube Sampling**
- **Emulator:** Principal component analysis + Gaussian process
- Metropolis-Hastings (MH) algorithm for **MCMC**



surmise 0.2.1

`pip install surmise`

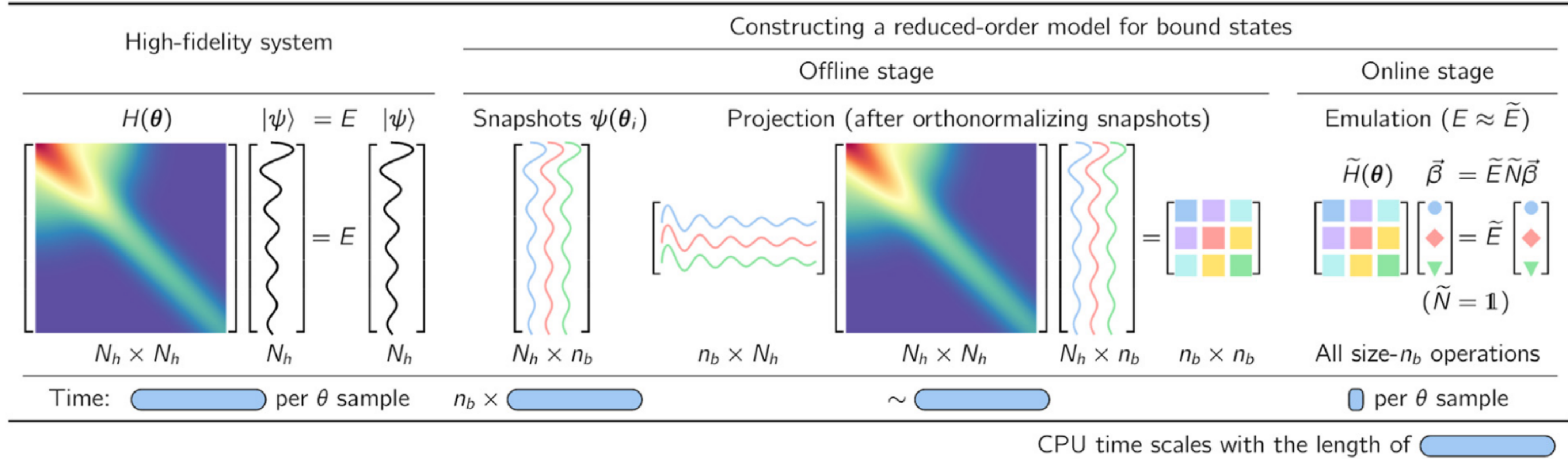


◆ Unexpectedly abundant α clustering in hot and dense nuclear matter.

R. Wang, **ZZ**, et al., arXiv:2507.16613

Reduced basis method (RBM)

C. Drescher et al., Front. Phys. 10, 1092931 (2022)



高维(N_h) 问题

$$H(\theta) |\psi\rangle = E |\psi\rangle$$

- 3D finite difference $n_h \sim 100^3$

Off-line 阶段

对 n_b 个参数 θ_i 严格求解得到 $\psi_i(\text{snapshots})$

降维 ($N_h \longrightarrow N_b$)

- 正交化 ψ_i 得到低维基矢 $V = \phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_{n_b}$
- 投影 $H_{N_h \times N_h} \rightarrow \tilde{H}_{n_b \times n_b}$
- 可用PCA 进一步降维
- EC 通常不做正交化

Online阶段

- 在 ϕ_i 或 ψ_i 为基矢的子空间中求解

$$\tilde{H}(\theta)\vec{\beta} = \tilde{E}(\theta)\tilde{N}\vec{\beta}$$
- 用 $\tilde{E}$ 近似 E
- 对于 ϕ_i , $\tilde{N}$ 为单位矩阵
- For ψ_i

$$\tilde{N}_{ij} = \langle \psi_i | \psi_j \rangle$$

Eigenvector continuation (EC) approaches are a subset of RBMs.

D. Frame et al., Phys. Rev. Lett. 121, 032501 (2019).

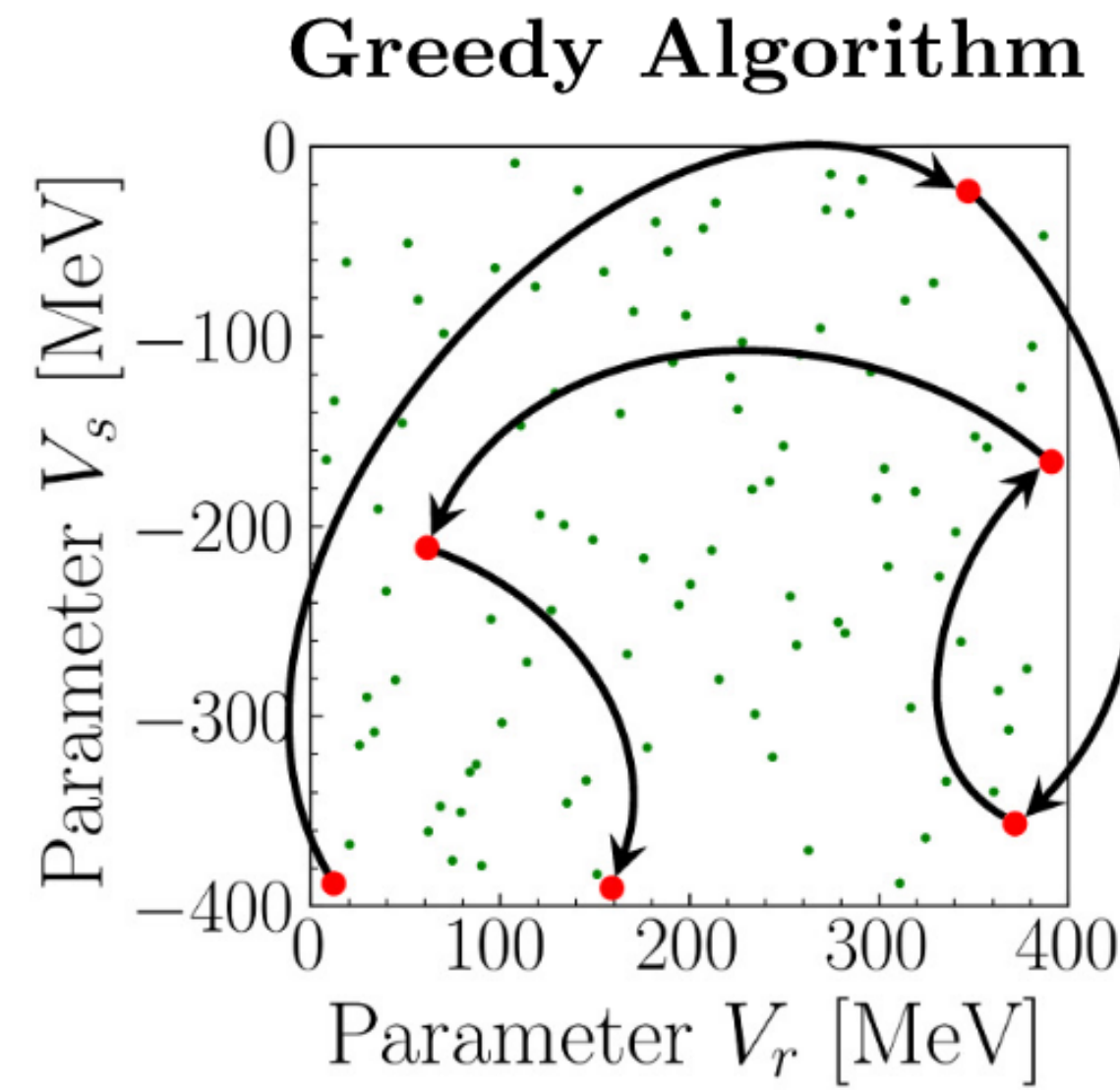
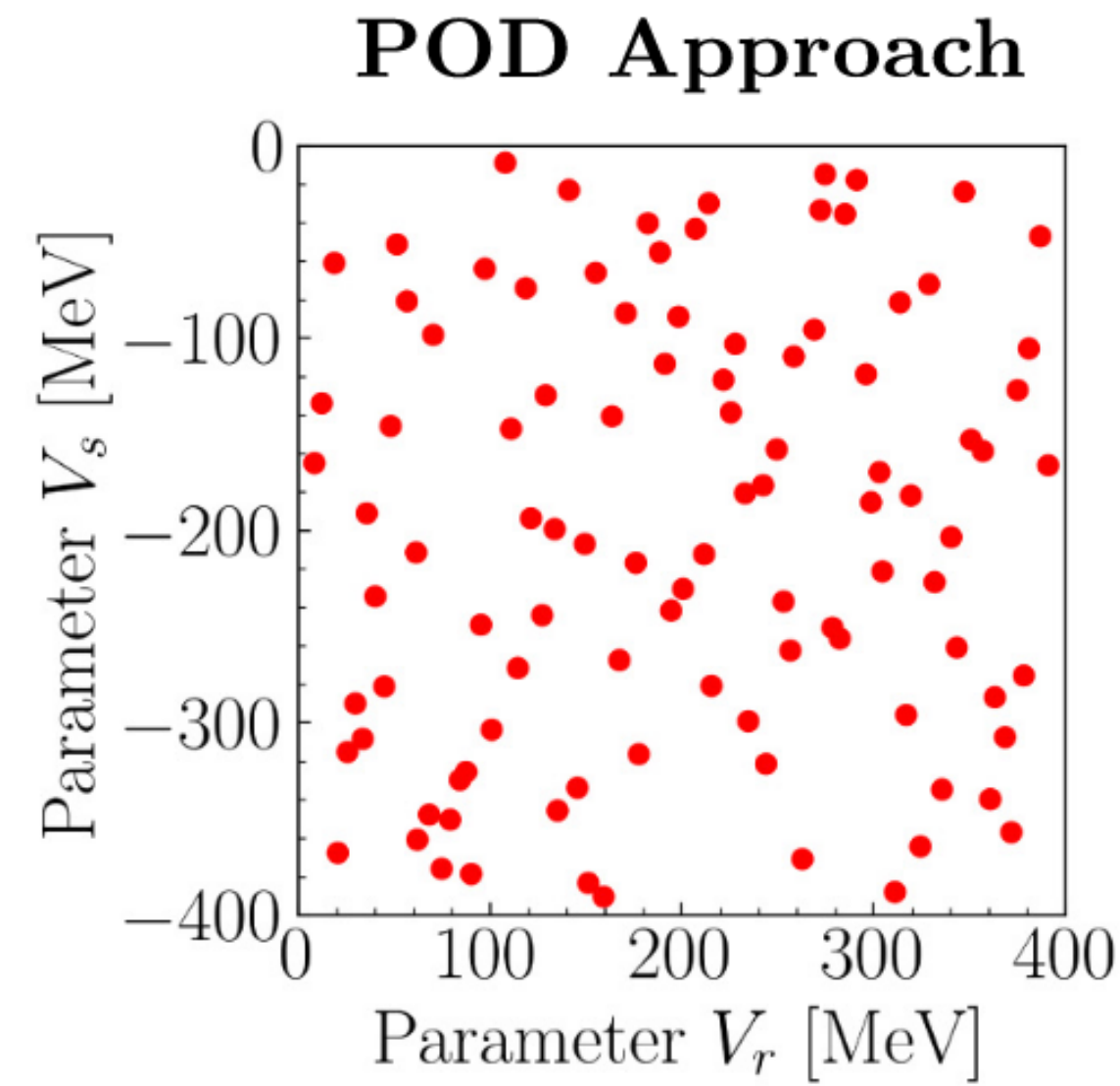
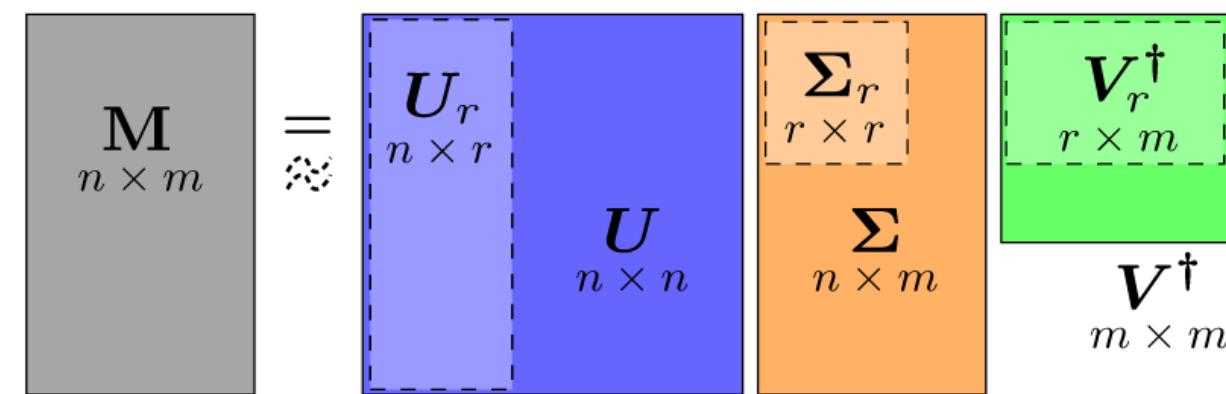
T. Duguet et al., Rev. Mod. Phys. 96, 031002 (2024)

How to choose the snapshots?

1. 利用LHC方法在参数空间抽样得到 n_d 组参数 θ_i .

2. 利用参数 θ_i 求解得到 ψ_i .

3. 奇异值分解(SVD), 并按奇异值截断, 得到 $n_b \leq n_d$ 个Emulator basis.



Truncated SVD
(100 FOM samples)

Orthonormalization
(6 FOM samples)

Emulator Basis
($n_b = 6$)

1. 利用LHC方法在参数空间抽样得到 n_d 组参数 θ_i .

2. 利用参数 θ_i 求解得到 ψ_i .

3. 选择起始点构建emulator

4. for $n_b = 1, 2, \dots$
 计算emulator在 θ_i 处误差
 加入误差最大点($n_b = n_b + 1$)
 构建 n_b 个基矢的emulator

J. M. Maldonado PRC 112, 024002 (2025)

Applications of RBM

- No-core shell-model

Konig, S., et al., Phys. Lett. B 810, 135814 (2020).

Wesolowski, S., et al., Phys. Rev. C 104, 064001 (2021).

Djarv, T., et al, Phys. Rev. C 105, 014005 (2022).

- Coupled cluster

Ekstrom, A., and G. Hagen, Phys. Rev. Lett. 123, 252501 (2019).

Hu, B., et al., Nat. Phys. 18, 1196–1200 (2022).

Jiang, W. G., et al, Phys. Rev. C 109, 064314 (2024).

- Quantum Monte Carlo

Frame, D. et al. Phys. Rev. Lett. 121, 032501 (2018)

Sarkar, A et al. Phys. Rev. Lett. 131, 242503 (2023)

- Phenomenological shell model

Yoshida, S., and N. Shimizu, Prog.Theor. Exp. Phys. 053D02 (2022)

O. C. Gorton & K. Kravvaris, Phys.Rev.C 112 (2025) 1, 014302

- Energy density functional

P. Giuliani et al., Front. Phys. 10:1054524.

X. Zhang et al., Phys.Rev.C 112 (2025) 2, L021302

- Quantum scattering

Furnstahl, R. J, et al, Phys. Lett. B 809, 135719 (2020).

Drischler, C, Phys. Lett. B 823, 136777 (2021)

Garcia, A. J, Phys. Rev. C 107, 054001 (2023)

J. Liu, J. Lei & Z. Ren, Phys. Lett. B 858 (2024) 139070

K. Hagino et al., Phys.Rev.C 112 (2025) 2, 024618

- Resonances

Yapa, N et al, Phys. Rev. C 107, 064316 (2023).

Yapa, N., and S. Konig, Phys. Rev. C 106, 014309 (2022).

.....

ROSE: A reduced-order scattering emulator for optical models

[D. Odell](#)^{1,*}, [P. Giuliani](#) ^{2,3,†}, [K. Beyer](#) ^{4,‡}, [M. Catacora-Rios](#)^{2,5}, [M. Y.-H. Chan](#) ^{6,§}, [E. Bonilla](#) ^{7,||}, [R. J. Furnstahl](#) ^{8,¶}, [K. Godbey](#)^{2,#}, and [F. M. Nunes](#)^{2,5,**}

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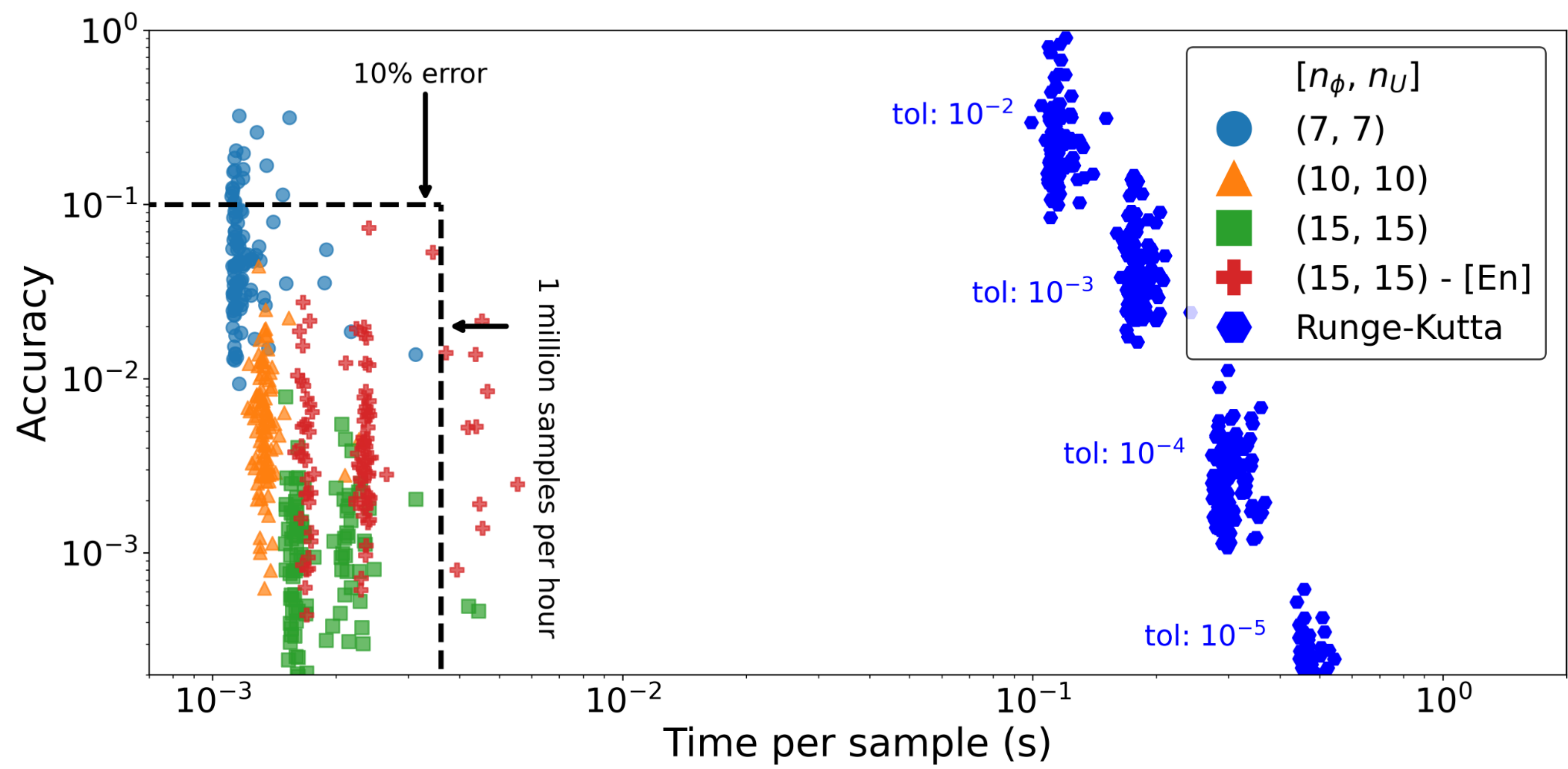
nuclear-rose 1.1.7

```
pip install nuclear-rose
```

Phys. Rev. C **109**, 044612 – Published 11 April, 2024

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1103/PhysRevC.109.044612>

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GP vs RBM

Gaussian process

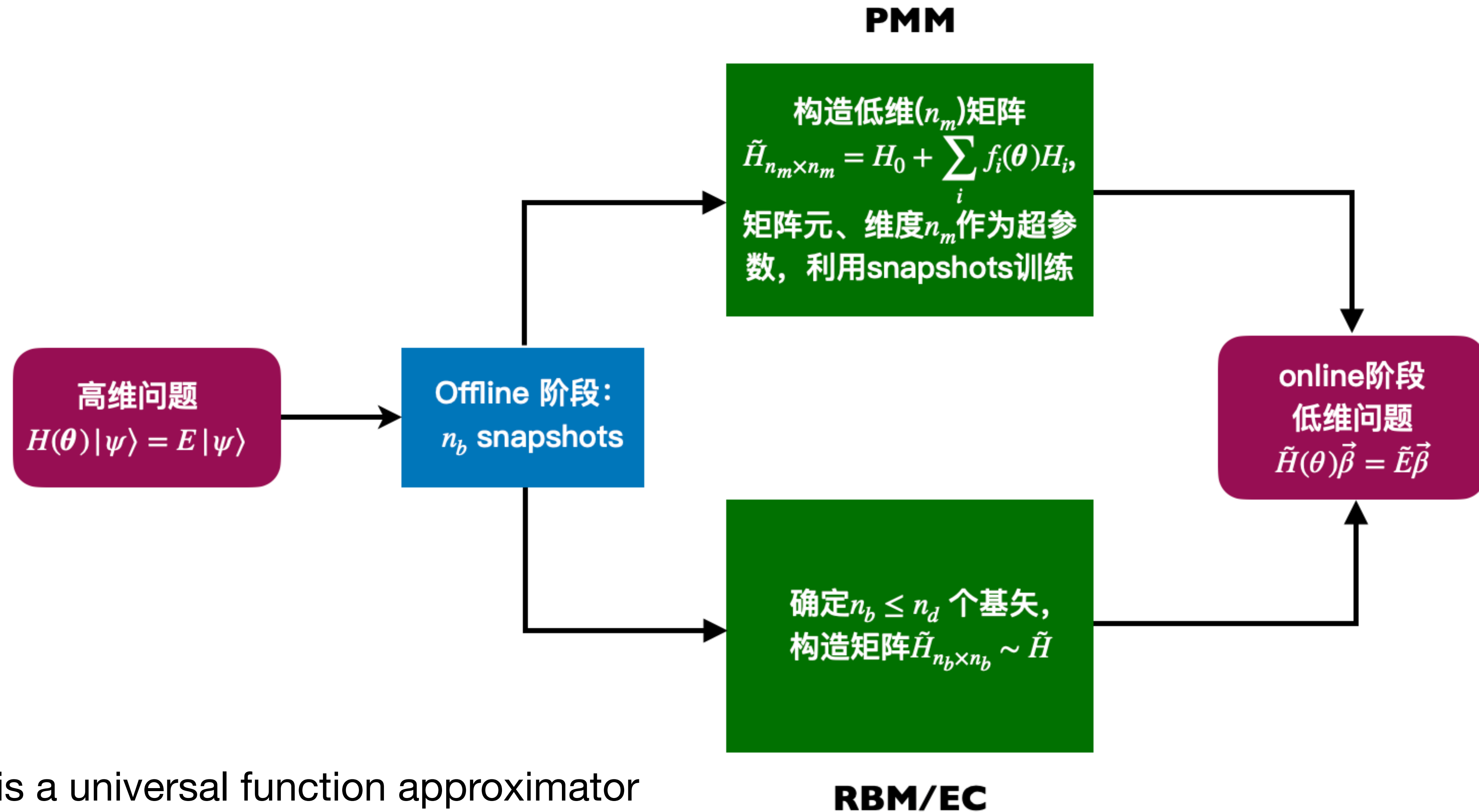
- Data-driven
 - 易用、通用
- 预测带误差

Reduced Basis method

- Model-driven
 - 需要根据具体问题/模型构建
- 精度高
 - 误差随 n_b 指数衰减
- 外推能力强

A. Sarkar & D. Lee, PRL 126, 032501 (2021)

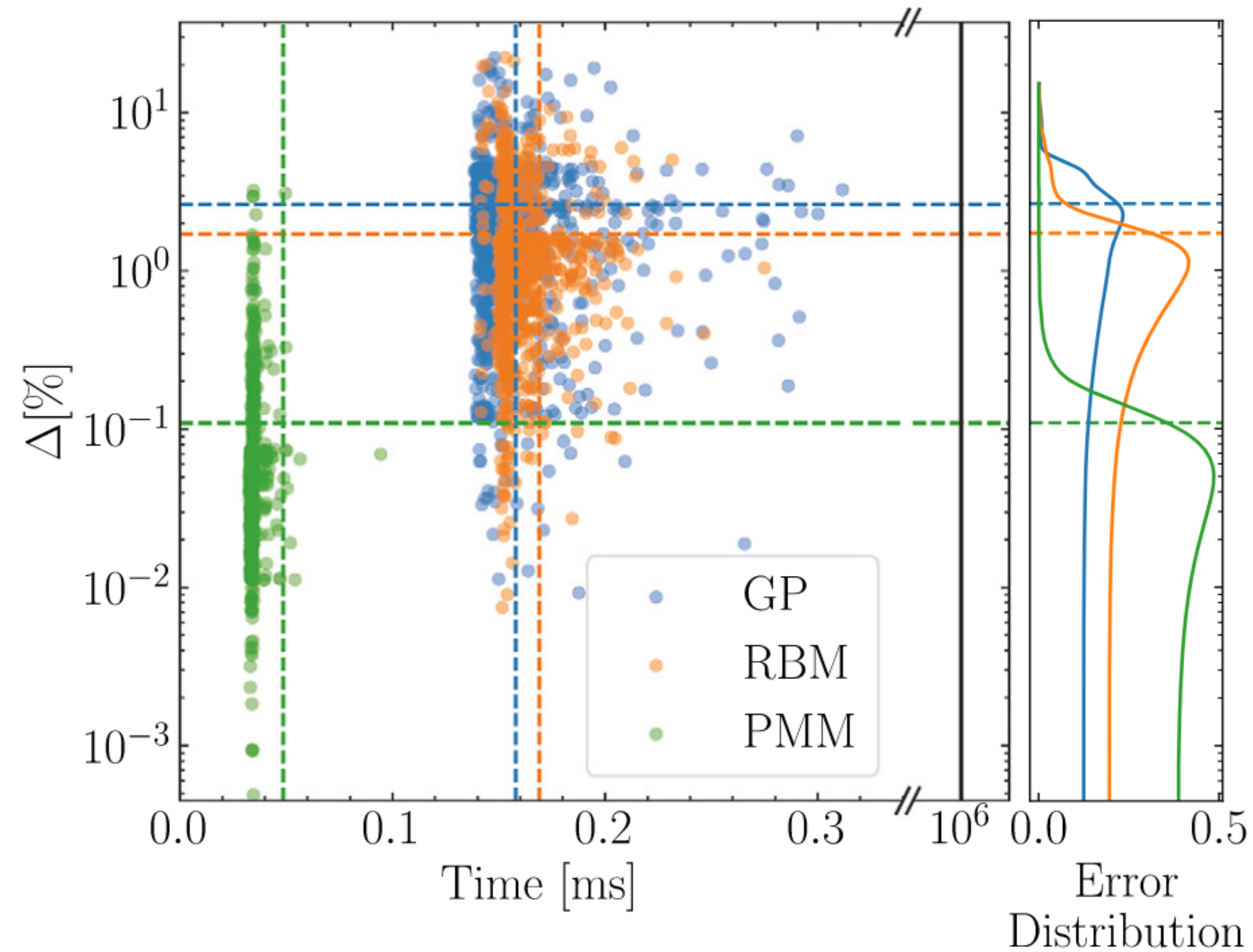
Parametric matrix model (PMM)



◆PMM is a universal function approximator

Applications of PMM

AFDMC calculations for Deuteron



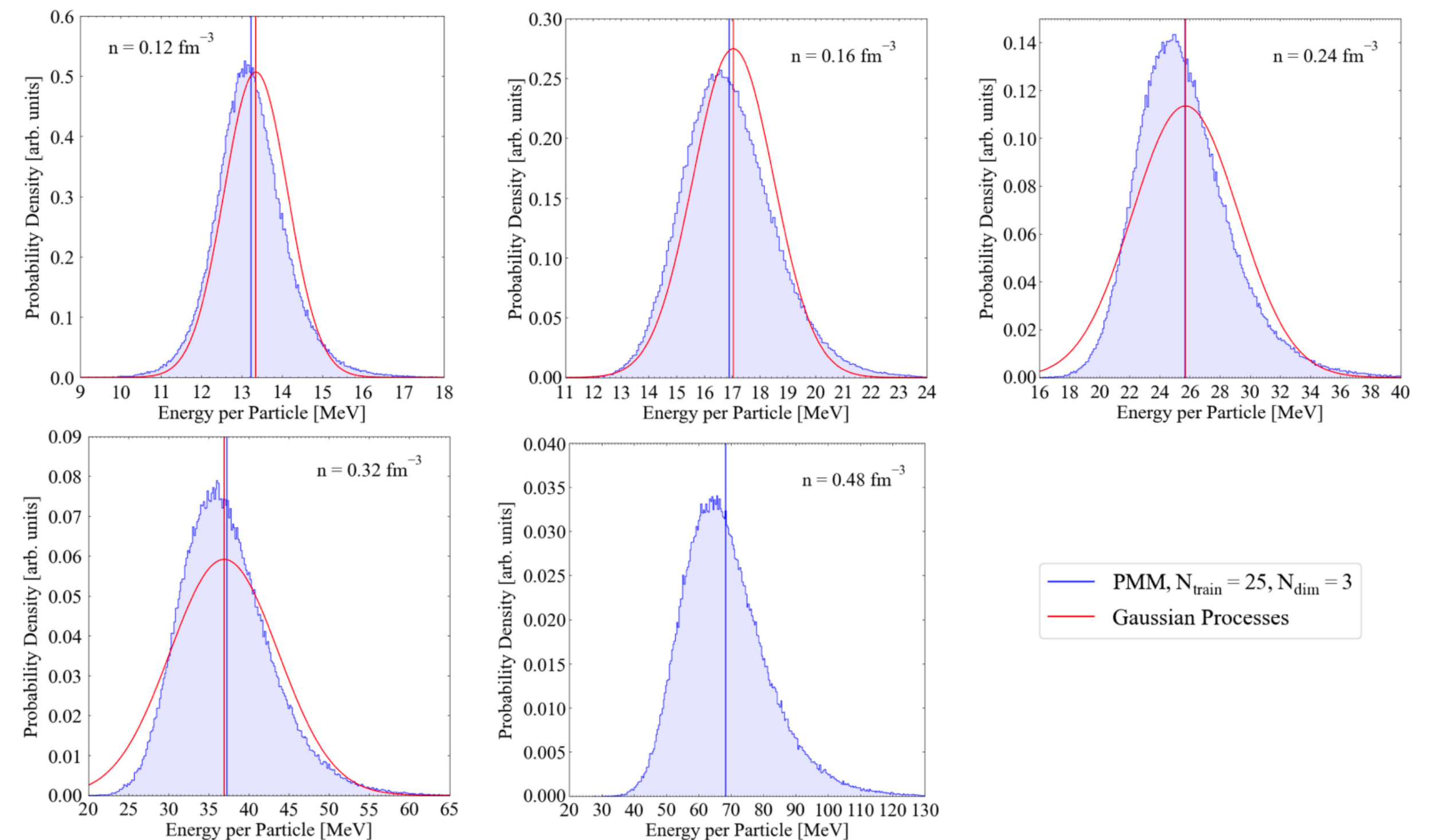
emulator errors of only $\approx 0.1\%$
speed-up factors of $\approx 10^7$

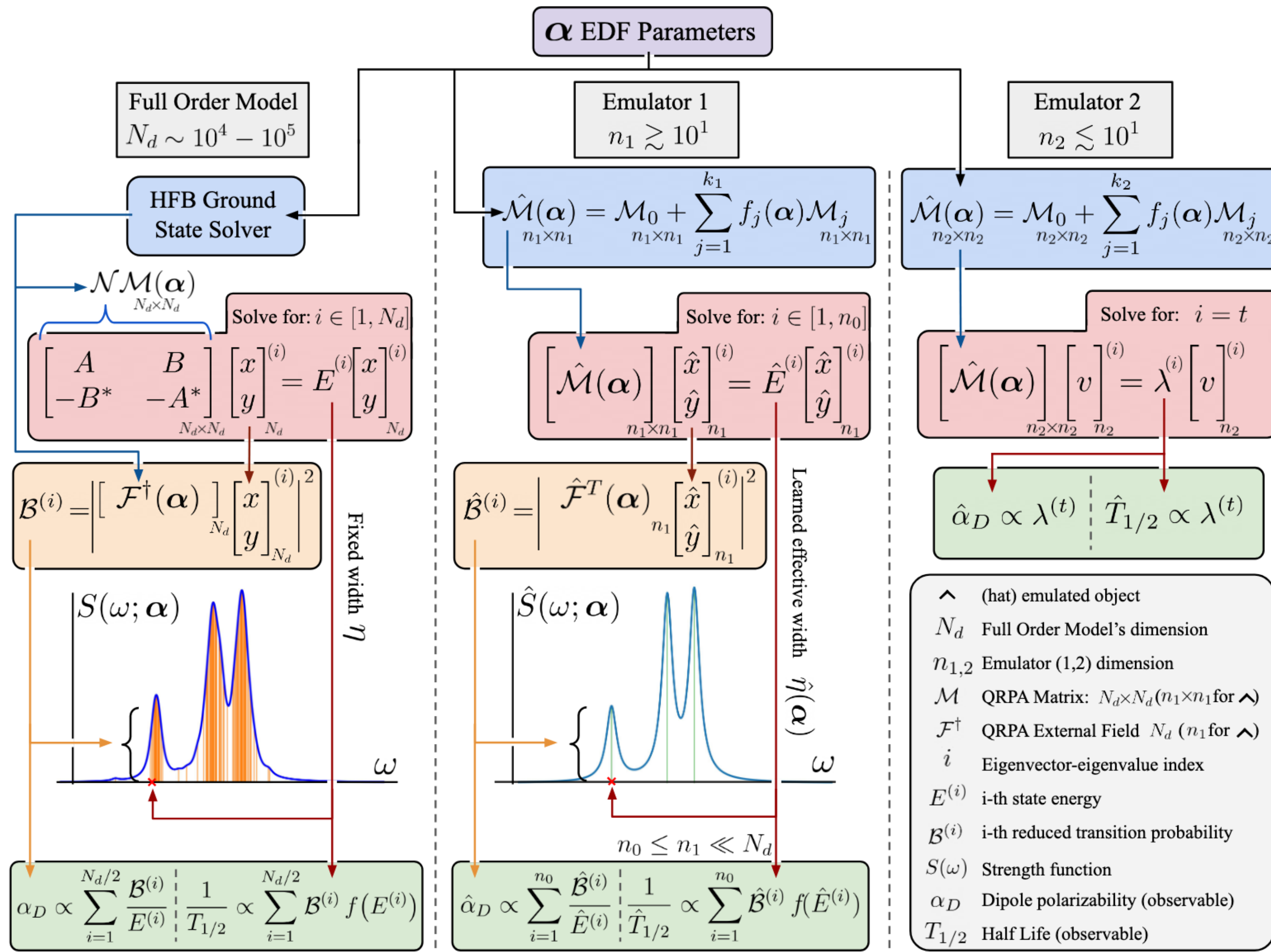
R. Somasundaram et al., Phys. Lett. B 866 (2025) 139558

PHYSICAL REVIEW LETTERS 135, 142501 (2025)

Emulators for Scarce and Noisy Data: Application to Auxiliary-Field Diffusion Monte Carlo for Neutron Matter

Cassandra L. Armstrong¹, Pablo Giuliani², Kyle Godbey², Rahul Somasundaram^{3,4}, and Ingo Tews^{3,*}





PMM for linear response

L. Jin et al. arXiv:2510.13989

Summary

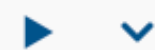
- ◆ **Emulator+Bayesian inference form a fast, external, and uncertainty-aware accelerator for modern nuclear theory.**
- ◆ Other approaches besides emulator?

Fast Parameter Inference on Pulsar Timing Arrays with Normalizing Flows

PDF

[David Shih](#) ¹, [Marat Freytsis](#)², [Stephen R. Taylor](#)³, [Jeff A. Dror](#)^{4,5}, and [Nolan Smyth](#)⁵

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Acknowledgments

Collaborators:

- Lie-Wen Chen (SJTU)
- Bao-Jun Cai, Yu-Gang Ma, Kai-Jia Sun (FDU)
- Mengying Qiu, Cen-Xi Yuan, Jun Zeng (SYSU)
- Che-Ming Ko (TAMU)
- Rui Wang (INFN)

Thanks for your attentions