
SACLA Timing Tool Calibration Based on Neural Network Algorithm

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Abstract

We calibrated SACLA timing tool using neural network algorithm and was able to correct the problems caused by traditional calibration method. We trained two neural networks, the first is used to filter cases where timing tool physically fails, the second returns the value we need for time tool calibration. This is a more user friendly scheme as it does not require user to switch between models and tune the parameters. It also retains more data points because and could potentially help us improve time resolution.

1 Introduction

SACLA timing tool uses the "spatial encoding" method to calibrate the jitter between ultrashort X ray pulse and optical pulse. The X ray pulse decreases the transmission of optical pulse through GaAs crystal. Therefore when two beams overlap in space and time, certain parts on the image taken of the transparent GaAs crystal turn darker than it would be without two beams overlapped. The shot by shot jitter between the two pulses is encoded in the position of an identifiable edge between dark part and bright part of this timing tool image [1](see 1 (a)). The goal is to first to distinguish between cases where this jitter information is physically encoded/not encoded, and second, if it is encoded, return the edge position as a number which will later be translated into timing jitter.

2 Related work

Traditional timing tool analyzer program will filter out images that are not physically encoded and then perform fitting algorithm on images that are successfully encoded.

The cases of physically failed encoding can be categorized into X-ray caused, laser caused or other, see [1]. Important cases include, weak X ray pulse, low laser intensity, saturated laser intensity, temporal overlap out of range, lack of edge, and false edge. The paper published for the earliest commissioning of the calibration tool indicates that these cases in total only contribute 0.5% of the total shots, see [1]. In our experience, long term use of the machine causes damage spots. Furthermore due to temperature fluctuations (such as night to day) experimental conditions produced by the 1 kilometer long laser may change. It is important to develop a more robust method.

For successfully encoded images, the user program first takes the input image(see 1 (a)) and integrates over vertical axis to project on horizontal axis(see 1 (b)). The orange trace is projected from reference image with no X ray, and blue trace is projected from a successfully encoded X ray

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on images, which shows a clear rising edge. Dividing the X ray on image with the X ray off image yields 1 (c). This preprocessed curve is then passed to an edge fitting algorithm chosen by user, including 1) edge fitting with an erf function, 2)smoothing and taking the maximum of its derivative to find the edge. These algorithms suffer from high failure rate when there is intensity dependent damage spot. In practice, this fitting scheme relies on the edge preserving an ideal shape across the experiment. Therefore when machine drifts on year scale and damage spots occur, users need to fine tune the fitting/smoothing parameters, as well as region of interest(ROI) to make the classification and edge finding work. This becomes very user unfriendly, and is a great distraction from other beam time tasks.

We believe that the deep learning algorithm will be a solution to the problems. We can train neural networks to address drifting conditions through data from multiple days and experiments. The task can be classified as image discrimination(returns a True/False label) and image regression(returns the encoded value). For the second task we refer to [2].

3 Dataset and Features

Throughout the beamtime we have on the order of $1e7$ images. Each raw image is cropped into (1920, 110).

For training the discriminator, we use the raw images. We can easily get images where we know X ray laser is off(X ray laser status is recorded in the data stream), and call it M1-Dataset1, we then hand label the images where the traditional algorithm returns a NaN(not a number) . These include images where the algorithms fails but still have identifiable edges(encoding is good), and images where the X ray could be on but the encoding is bad. We call it M1-Dataset2. M1-Dataset1 includes $5e3$ images and M1-Dataset2 includes only $5e2$ images. We use both datasets for training, and preserve a portion of them for test and development.

For training the image regression machine, we use raw image divided by reference X ray off image. Note that a damage spot which does not exist in the original commissioning report[1] shows up for some shots but not the others. The eventual "label" Y will be a scalar representing the pixel value of the edge. We create M2-Dataset1 using the encoded value as output by SACL user timing tool analyzer, which is of size $1e6$. We also create a smaller M2-Dataset2 by supervising the peak finding, this one is of size $5e2$. We split M2-Dataset1 for training set and development set. The data size of training set for our basic algorithm is approximately $2 * 10^5$ images and the dev set is $5 * 10^4$ images. We use M2-Dataset2 for test set.

4 Methods

The Discriminator flattens the image and put it into 4 dense layers. The neuron numbers of each layer are 3, 10, 10, 10 separately. The loss function is binary cross entropy with L2 regularization on weights and bias. The optimizer is Adam.

The image regression machine uses 3 convolutional neural nets followed by three densely connected neural nets. The filter sizes of the 2D ConvNets are (3,3,13),(3,3,21),(3,3,33),(3,3,44), and the densely connected layers contain 40, 10, and 1 neurons separately. The loss function is mean absolute error plus regularization on weights and bias. The optimizer is Adam. The last two layers are trained through transfer learning.

The architectures of these two neural nets are shown in figure2. Code may be seen at the github repository https://github.com/vikrapivin/timetool_edge_finding.

5 Experiments/Results/Discussion

We trained 1 epoch of the algorithm for a set of approximately 10^5 , load a new image set and continue training until we have trained through our entire training set(in total 10^7). The reason for this is that a particular dataset in our field is typically saved as an hdf5 file from the experiment, and loading minibatches allows for training the neural network without overflowing memory.

For hyperparameter tuning, we tried a range of convolutional filter sizes for each layer, regularization penalty, dense layer sizes, and optimizer parameters including learning rate. This is done in a systematic way, in combination with several choices of loss function. We randomize

the choices and train neural nets for a while for each choice, save several metrics for each training scheme, and compare the results to find out which is the best choice. And then we decide on the hyper parameter that we want to use.

Primary metric we use is mean absolute error as this metric produced better results on the whole data set. Additionally, the best model using either the mean absolute error metric or mean squared error metric produces similar results. The training process showing loss function vs epoch number is shown in figure3.

To visualize the results of the binary classifier we output a confusion matrix, see Table5. False means the data is successfully encoded. True means the data encoding is bad. The model is improvement in the sense that it recycled runs from the thrown shots, as the **entire test data set** was sampled from images that were previously classified as bad images(NaNs). But meanwhile it predicts a lot of bad shots as valid encoded, and the edge finding on False positive tends to result in larger error.

To visualize the results of the image regression, see figure4. (a) is the histogram for labels and predictions. The prediction of the models are reasonable although it does not entirely fit the distribution of labeled edge position. (b) is the absolute error value histogram, it counts the typical error event distribution of the neural nets. Ideally we would want it to be sharply clustered around 0 but it spreads to more than 15, so there are a lot outliers. (c) average error distribution in terms of edge position. It is clear that main error comes from the region from 700-950 where the damage spot screwed up the SACL A user analyzer. We did not really circumvent this physical problem with neural nets. The damage spot is a damage spot after all. The large error around 1200 is due to the few number of shots there. In figure5 the damage spot(very bright and sharp next to the darker region) is clearly visible in the false positive crystal image. This explains why the average error distribution between 700 -950 are bad although shots that land the edge in that region are abundant. The normalized intensity profile of the same false positive image is displayed on the right panel of figure5, with the labeled edge and predicted edge off by more than 30, from figure4 it is clearly in the outlier region. It shows indeed that the false negative produced by the discriminator tend to behave bad on the regression neural nets.

TABLE 1: Confusion Matrix

	True Label	False Label
True Prediction	35	67
False Prediction	5	283

6 Conclusion/Future Work

We obtained two trained neural networks that could be used to calibrate timing jitter between X ray pulse and laser pulse at SACL A, a discriminator for good and bad encoding, and a regression machine that returns the edge position pixel number. The false negative out of the discriminator tends to behave bad in the edge finding step, so in the future we need to reduce its proportion by increasing false labeled data. In terms of image regression, the profiles affected by damage spot should be reconsidered more carefully if high time resolution is desired. As we get more beamtimes, we can always use the same working pipeline to continue training the neural network as the machine possibly drifts on the year scale. This would allow us to focus on more nontrivial beamtime tasks and benefit other users.

7 Contributions

Yijing Huang: Data processing and labeling, analysis. Viktor Krapivin: Hyper parameter tuning , implementation on AWS server, analysis. Both group members contributed equally to model design.

References

- [1]K. Nakajima, Y. Joti, T. Katayama, S. Owada, T. Togashi, T. Abe, T. Kameshima, K. Okada, T. Sugimoto, M. Yamaga, T. Hatsui, and M. Yabashi, J Synchrotron Rad 25, 592 (2018).
- [2] N. Slater, Github (2016).
<https://gist.github.com/neilslater/40201a6c63b4462e6c6e458bab60d0b4>

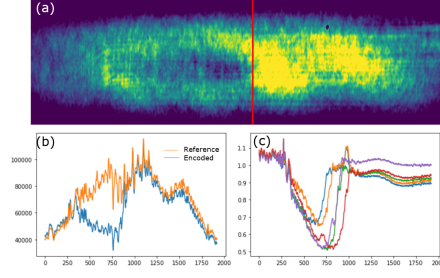


Figure 1: (a) Typical image of a successfully encoded shot. Red line shows the edge position. (b) Intensity projection of 2D image onto horizontal direction, here shows X ray on curve (orange) and the X ray off curve (blue). Dividing the X ray on trace with X ray off trace, and we get normalized intensity projection as shown in (c) for several different images. The sharp rise is then fit with an error function.

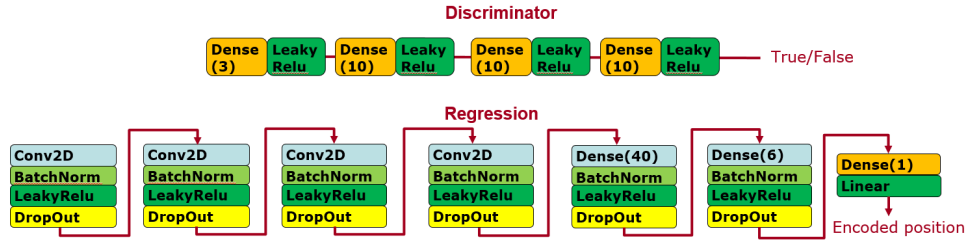


Figure 2: The Discriminator flattens the image and put it into 4 dense layers. The image regression machine uses 3 convolutional neural nets followed by three densely connected neural nets.

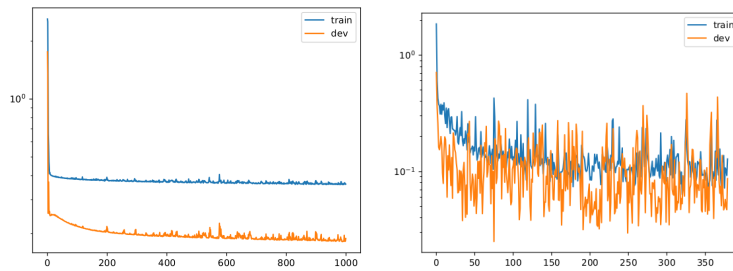


Figure 3: Left: This is the loss from the training of the transfer discriminator. Right: loss function of the edge position regression.

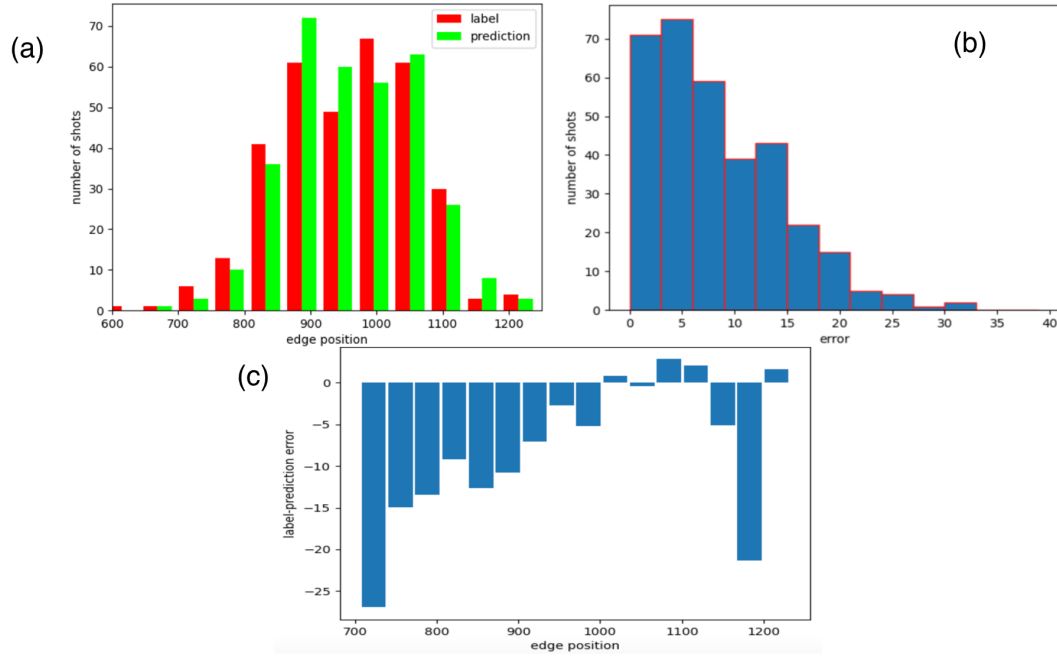


Figure 4: (a) histogram of edge position labeled and predicted. (b) distribution of absolute error between prediction and label. The error above 25 is rare. But considering that SACLA initial commissioning was aiming for error between two algorithm as small as 1 pixel, this is not ideal. This comparison included recycled images. (c) prediction error(label value -prediction value) as a function of edge position.

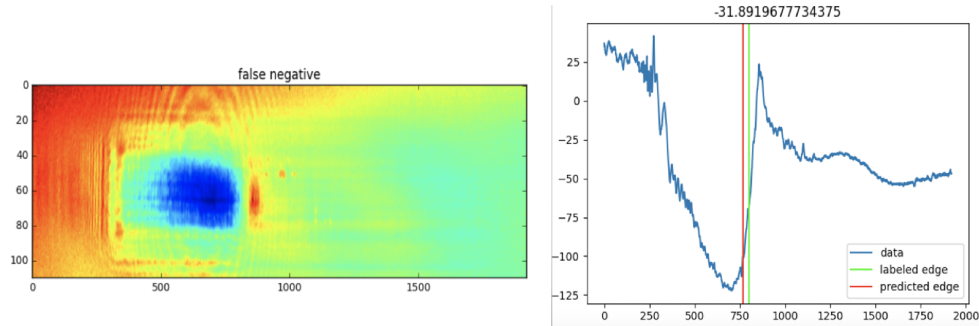


Figure 5: Left: This matrix indicates the type of errors that the transfer trained discriminator outputs. Right: this is a histogram of predictions of the transfer trained model versus the original labels.