

Applications of deep learning to relativistic hydrodynamics

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Relativistic hydrodynamics is a powerful tool to simulate the evolution of the quark-gluon plasma in relativistic heavy-ion collisions. Using 10 000 initial and final profiles generated from (2+1)-dimensional relativistic hydrodynamics VISH2+1 with Monte Carlo Glauber (MC-Glauber) initial conditions, we train a deep neural network based on the stacked U-net, and use it to predict the final profiles associated with various initial conditions, including MC-Glauber, MC Kharzeev-Levin-Nardi (MC-KLN), a multiphase transport (AMPT) model, and the reduced thickness event-by-event nuclear topology (TRENTo) model. A comparison with the VISH2+1 results shows that the network predictions can nicely capture the magnitude and inhomogeneous structures of the final profiles, and creditably describe the related eccentricity distributions $P(\epsilon_n)$ ($n = 2, 3, 4$). These results indicate that a deep learning technique can capture the main features of the nonlinear evolution of hydrodynamics, showing its potential to largely accelerate the event-by-event simulations of relativistic hydrodynamics.

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I. INTRODUCTION

In recent years deep learning [1–3] has achieved great success in both daily life and in sciences. In particular, deep learning methods have been implemented in various research areas in physics, including the search for gravitational lenses [4,5], identifying and classifying the phases of the Ising model [6–9], solving the quantum many-body problem [10,11], etc. In high-energy physics, it has been applied to the search for Higgs and exotic particles [12,13], the classification of jet structures [14–16], etc. In the field of relativistic heavy-ion collisions, machine learning and deep neural networks have been employed to attack the problems of identifying the equation of state (EOS) of hot QCD matter [17], jet-flavor classification in heavy-ion collisions [18], distinguishing between spinodal and Maxwell first-order phase transitions [19], detecting nuclear shape deformations [20], Bayesian extraction of transport properties of the hot QCD matter [21–24], the phase diagram of two-dimensional complex scalar field theory [25], and principal component analyses of collective flow [26–32].

In this paper, we will apply deep learning to relativistic hydrodynamics, which is a useful tool to simulate the macroscopic evolution of relativistic systems in high-energy nuclear physics and astrophysics [33]. Relativistic hydrodynamics solves the transport equations of the energy momentum ten-

sor and charge currents based on the conservation laws. In relativistic heavy-ion collisions, it has nicely described and predicted various flow data of the quark-gluon plasma (QGP), which played an important role in the discovery of the strongly coupled QGP and its nearly perfect fluid nature [21–24,34–46]. However, traditional hydrodynamic simulations are time consuming. For example, the calculation of various flow harmonics requires ~ 1000 event-by-event hydrodynamic simulations, which takes ~ 500 and $\sim 10\,000$ cpu hours for the typical (2+1)-dimensional (2+1D) and (3+1)-dimensional (3+1D) simulations, respectively [38–40,47]. Basically, relativistic hydrodynamics translates the initial conditions into final profiles through solving a set of nonlinear differential equations. In this work, we will explore whether the deep neural network could capture the main features of the nonlinear evolution of 2+1D hydrodynamics, and the possibilities to accelerate the related event-by-event simulations. Close to this work are Bayesian emulators [24,48], which are powerful in constraining the equation of states and transport coefficients, yet are not designed to predict the whole profiles of the energy density and flow velocity.

It is worthwhile to mention that the interdisciplinary contributions of this work are twofold: From the physics perspective, we speed up hydrodynamic simulations time with a deep neural network, while still capturing the details for the final profiles of the expanding QGP. On the other hand, from the machine learning angle, we highlight the expressive power of the stacked U-net model, as well as its ability to approximate the partial differential equation (PDE) in this particular task of relativistic hydrodynamics.

The paper is organized as follows: In Sec. II, we introduce the relativistic hydrodynamics and network design. In Sec. III,

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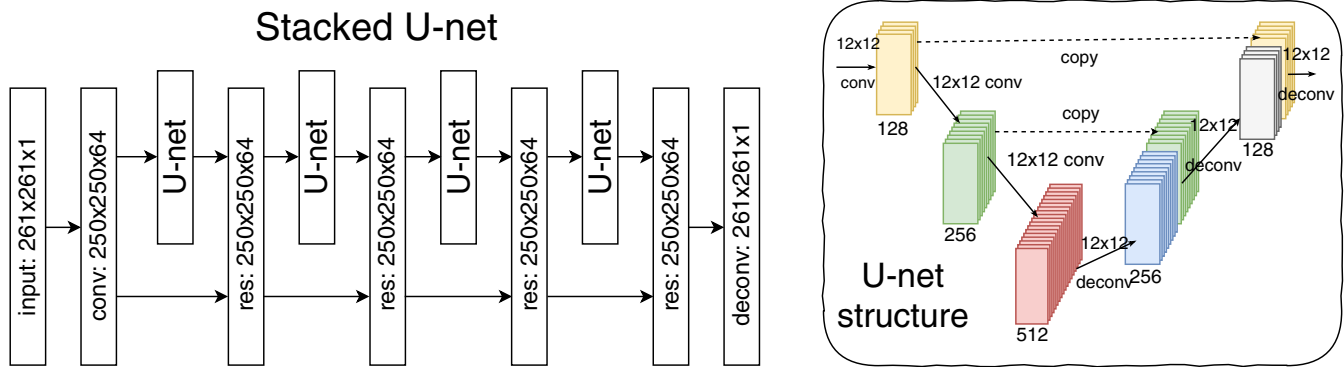


FIG. 1. An illustration of the encoder-decoder network, stacked U-net, which consists of the input convolutional layers and the output deconvolutional layers and four residual U-net blocks. The right figure shows the U-net structure, and the depth of the hidden layer is written on the top of them.

we show the results obtained from the network, followed by discussions and conclusions in Sec. IV.

II. MODELS

A. Relativistic hydrodynamics

In this paper, we focus on relativistic ideal hydrodynamics with zero viscosity and charge densities, which solves the transport equations of the energy momentum tensor $T^{\mu\nu}$:

$$\partial_\mu T^{\mu\nu} = 0, \quad (1)$$

where $T^{\mu\nu} = (e + p)u^\mu u^\nu - pg^{\mu\nu}$, e is the energy density, p is the pressure, and u^μ is the four-velocity with $u^\mu u_\mu = 1$. With an assumption of longitudinal boost invariance, we solve the 2+1D hydrodynamic equations with an ideal EOS $p = \frac{e}{3}$, using the code VISH2+1 [47,49] [50]. The initial energy density profiles can be generated by some initial condition models, such as the Monte Carlo Glauber (MC-Glauber) [51,52], MC Kharzeev-Levin-Nardi (MC-KLN) [52–54], a multiphase transport (AMPT) [55–57], and the reduced thickness event-by-event nuclear topology (TRENT0) [58] with zero initial transverse flow velocity. We run VISH2+1 with three selected fixed evolution times $\tau - \tau_0 = 2.0, 4.0, \text{ and } 6.0 \text{ fm}/c$ ($\tau_0 = 0.6 \text{ fm}/c$) to obtain the energy momentum tensor $T^{\tau\tau}(\tau, x, y)$, $T^{\tau x}(\tau, x, y)$, and $T^{\tau y}(\tau, x, y)$ profiles at these times. For numerical accuracy, the time step and grid sizes of the simulations are set to $d\tau = 0.04 \text{ fm}/c$ and $dx = dy = 0.1 \text{ fm}$, within a fixed transverse area of $13 \text{ fm} \times 13 \text{ fm}$ that have been used to describe the typical QGP expansion in relativistic heavy-ion collisions.

B. Network design

For deep learning, the initial and final energy momentum tensor $T^{\tau\tau}$, $T^{\tau x}$, $T^{\tau y}$ profiles from hydrodynamics are treated as initial and final image sets with 261×261 pixels. In practice, we first run the event-by-event hydrodynamic simulations to obtain 10 000 initial and final image sets, then use them to train the deep neural network, which aims at achieving nice predictions of the final energy density and flow velocity profiles for other input initial conditions.

The related network we adopted in this work is the stacked U-net (sU-net) [59], which is a variation of the traditional encoder-decoder network that could enhance gradient flow in the deeper part of the network during back propagation. Figure 1 presents an intuitive view of the network structure. It consists of four serially connected U-net blocks with residual connections between them. Each U-net block has three convolution layers and three deconvolution layers. In each U-net block, the outputs of the first two convolution layers are also fed into the last two deconvolution layers respectively by concatenating the feature maps along the channel dimension. The activation function for all layers except for the output one is *Leaky ReLU* $f(x) = \max\{x, 0.03x\}$, while that for the output layer is *softplus* $f(x) = \ln(1 + e^x)$ for $T^{\tau\tau}$ mapping and $f(x) = x$ for $T^{\tau x}$ and $T^{\tau y}$ mapping. To make the network focus more on local patterns, we set the kernel size of all convolution and deconvolution layers to 3×3 . The loss function of the network is *normalized mean absolute error (MAE) loss* $\text{Loss} = \frac{|y_1 - y_0|}{|y_0|}$, where y_1 is the output of the network and y_0 is the ground truth. We use the standard minibatch stochastic gradient descent algorithm for optimization. The batch size for training is 16 and the learning rate exponentially decays from 10^{-3} to 10^{-5} . Each weight is randomly initialized from the uniform distribution on $[-0.001, 0.001]$ and each bias is set to zero. Our code is built with TENSORFLOW and the training process runs for about 1 day on a machine with a single NVIDIA Tesla P40 graphics processing unit (GPU), using 10 000 “initial” and “final” profiles from VISH2+1 hydrodynamic simulations.

We have noticed that, although one trained sU-net can make nice predictions for a shorter hydrodynamic evolution, it fails to accurately predict the final profiles of longer evolution times ($\tau - \tau_0 > 4.0 \text{ fm}/c$) from the initial profiles at τ_0 . Considering that the evolving QGP system is highly nonlinear and tends to smear out its initial structures during a longer evolution, we divide the whole evolution time $\tau - \tau_0$ into n parts with an equal time interval $\Delta\tau$: $\tau - \tau_{n-1} \cdots \tau_2 - \tau_1, \tau_1 - \tau_0$. For each evolution part, we train an individual sU-net using the corresponding initial and final profiles from hydrodynamics. To predict the final profiles at τ from initial profiles at τ_0 , we first use the trained sU-net-1 to predict the profiles at time τ_1 and then use them as the initial conditions for sU-net-2

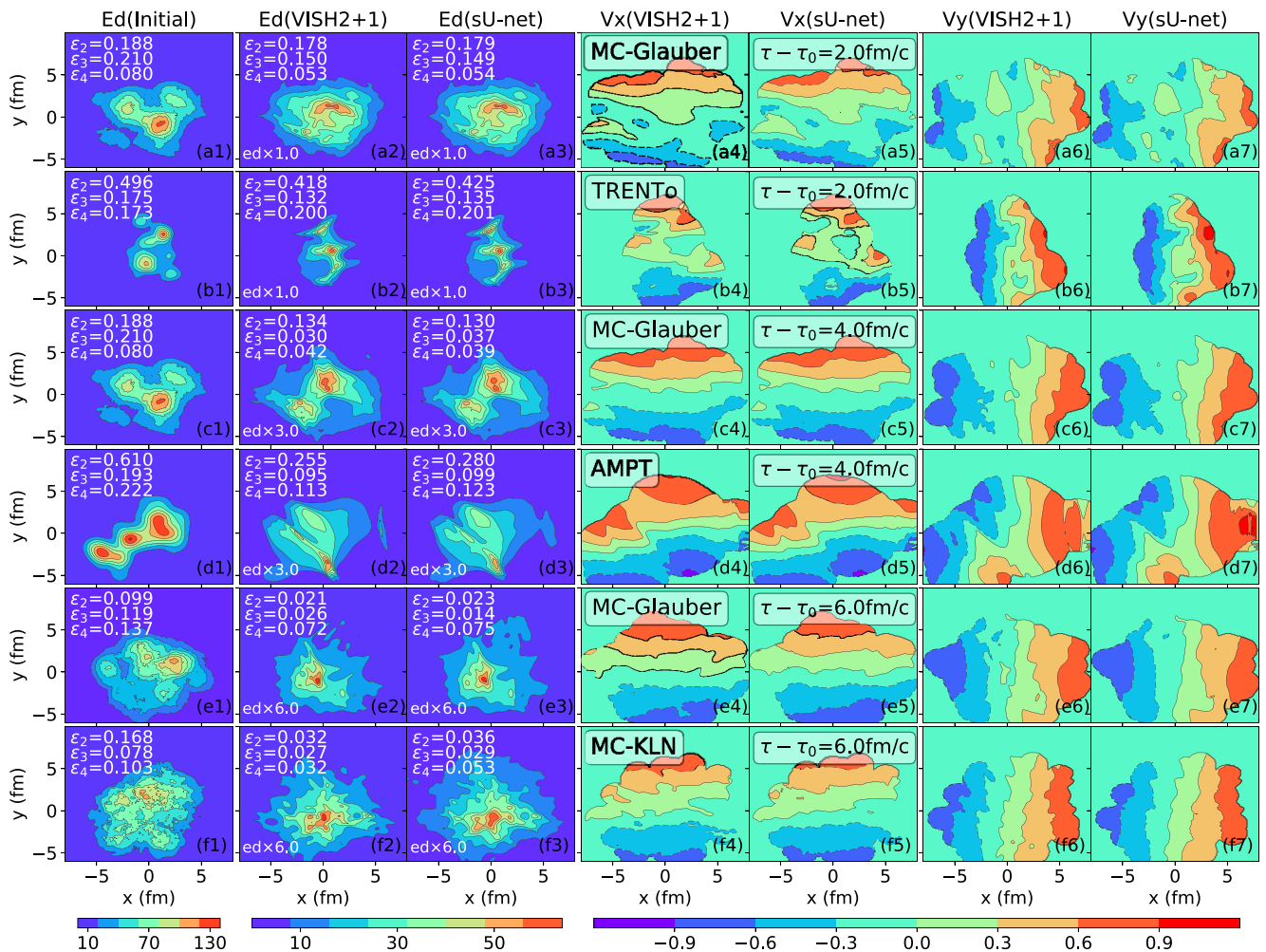


FIG. 2. Energy density and flow velocity profiles at $\tau - \tau_0 = 2.0, 4.0,$ and 6.0 fm/c, calculated from VISH2+1 and predicted by the network for six test cases with initial profiles generated from MC-Glauber, MC-KLN, AMPT, and TRENTo.

to predict the profiles at time τ_2 and so on. In this way, the combined sU-net series ($i = 1 \dots n$) mimic the hydrodynamic evolution with a much larger time step $\Delta\tau$ that cannot be managed by a traditional hydrodynamic algorithm (in more detail, for the following evolution with $\tau - \tau_0 = 6.0$ fm/c, we set $n = 3$ with $\Delta\tau = 2.0$ fm/c). Note that sU-net-1, sU-net-2, and sU-net-3 are not identical since the initial and final profiles are generated by VISH2+1, which implements the 2+1D hydrodynamic equations explicitly depended on τ [49,60].

III. RESULTS

As explained in the above text, we first use 10 000 initial and final image sets from VISH2+1 with MC-Glauber initial conditions to train the combined stacked U-net, and then use the trained network to predict the final profiles from the initial profiles generated from MC-Glauber, MC-KLN, AMPT, and TRENTo as tests. Figure 2 presents a comparison between the results from VISH2+1 hydrodynamic evolution and the predictions from the network at $\tau - \tau_0 = 2.0, 4.0,$ and 6.0 fm/c for six selected test cases. It shows that a well-designed and trained network could nicely predict the final states, which captures the structures of the contour plots for both the fi-

nal energy density and flow velocity. It is impressive that, although the network is trained with the initial and final image sets associated with the MC-Glauber initial conditions, it could still creditably predict the final profiles of other initial conditions with different fluctuation patterns, as shown in Figs. 2(b), 2(d) and 2(f).

To further evaluate the predictive power of the network, we further calculate the eccentricity coefficients

$$\epsilon_n = \frac{\int r dr d\phi r^n e(r, \phi) e^{in\phi}}{\int r dr d\phi r^n e(r, \phi)} \quad (n = 2, 3, 4) \quad (2)$$

for the initial and final energy density $e(r, \phi)$ profiles, which are quantities commonly used to evaluate the deformation and inhomogeneity of the QGP fireball in relativistic heavy-ion collisions [38–40,47]. These values of ϵ_n ($n = 2, 3, 4$) for these six selected test cases are written in Figs. 2(a)–2(f). From Fig. 2 and the calculated values of ϵ_n ($n = 2, 3, 4$), we have also noticed that differences between the hydrodynamic results and the network predictions increase for a longer evolution time since the combined sU-net series tend to accumulate errors with more sU-net added.

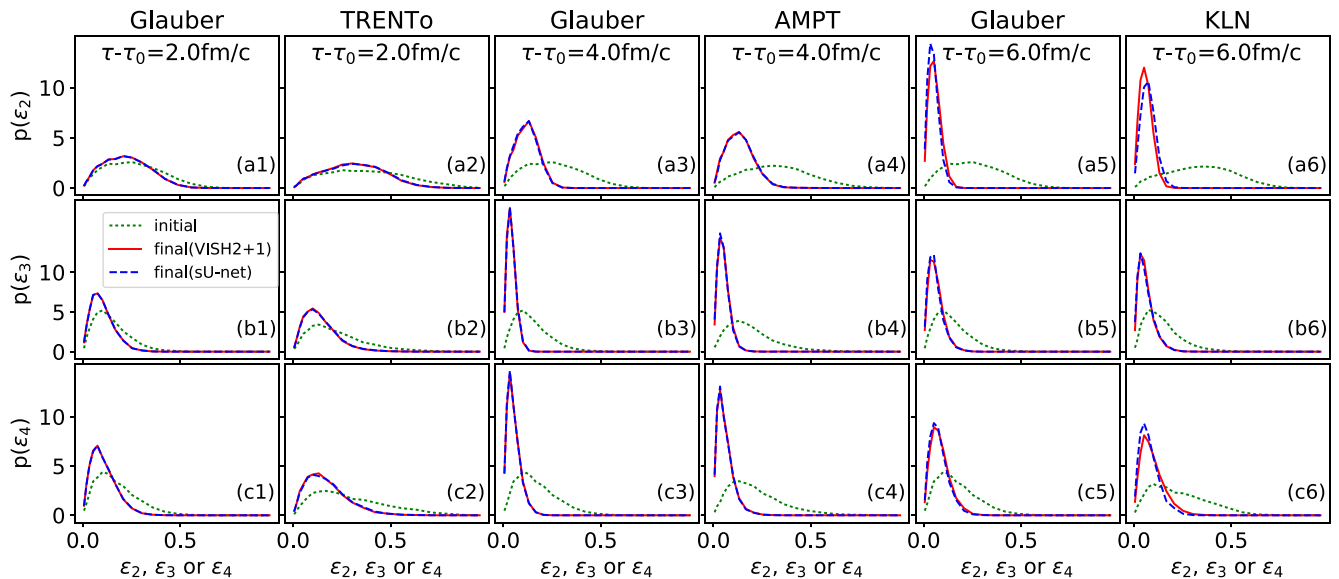


FIG. 3. Eccentricity distribution $P(\epsilon_n)$ ($n = 2, 3, 4$), at $\tau - \tau_0 = 2.0, 4.0$, and 6.0 fm/c, calculated from VISH2+1 and predicted by the network for 10 000 tested initial profiles generated from MC-Glauber, MC-KLN, AMPT, and TRENTo.

Figure 3 presents the eccentricity distributions $P(\epsilon_n)$ for the energy density profiles at evolution times $\tau - \tau_0 = 2.0, 4.0$, and 6.0 fm/c, calculated from VISH2+1 and predicted from the network for 10 000 tested initial profiles generated from MC-Glauber, MC-KLN, AMPT, and TRENTo. For all these tested cases, the final eccentricity distributions $P(\epsilon_n)$ ($n = 2, 3, 4$) from the network almost overlap with the ones from VISH2+1, which also obviously deviate from the initial eccentricity distributions $P_0(\epsilon_n)$. In Fig. 4, scatter plots show event-by-event comparisons between true eccentricities of the “final” profiles and predicted ones, and histograms of the errors are plotted in the inset figure.

We also find that, with the well-trained network, the final state profiles can be speedily generated from the initial profiles. Compared with the 10–20 min calculation time with a traditional CPU for a single-event hydrodynamic evolution, the network takes several seconds to directly generate the final profile for different types of initial profiles with the P40 GPU, which shows the potential to accelerate the realistic event-by-event hydrodynamic simulations in the near future. However, given the fact that a $50\text{--}100\times$ speedup of hydrodynamic simulations can be already achieved by switching from CPU to GPU [61,62], we believe there is still much room to improve our proof-of-concept first step in further studies.

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Using 10 000 initial and final energy momentum tensor profiles from VISH2+1 hydrodynamics with MC-Glauber initial conditions, we successfully trained a deep neural network based on stacked U-net, and use it to predict the final profiles for different initial conditions, including MC-Glauber, MC-KLN, AMPT, and TRENTo. A comparison with the VISH2+1 results showed that the network predictions could nicely capture the magnitude and inhomogeneous structures of the final profiles, which also creditably describe the related eccentricity distributions $P(\epsilon_n)$ ($n = 2, 3, 4$). These results in-

dicate that deep learning could capture the main feature of the nonlinear evolution of hydrodynamics, which also shows the potential of largely accelerating the realistic event-by-event hydrodynamic simulations in relativistic heavy-ion collisions.

In order to outline the highlights, as well as point out the limitations of this work, we further explain the following characteristics that mark good works and provide guidelines for future studies.

Universality. Deep learning might not learn the realistic physics underlying the data set. By contrast, sometimes its predictions are based on nonphysical features in the data set, as has been pointed out in Ref. [63]. In this work, we exclude such an undesirable possibility by training our deep model on MC-Glauber initial conditions and test on results for other initial models including MC-KLN, AMPT, and TRENTo.

Causality. Due to the speed of light as an upper bound for all physical speeds, our neural network should satisfy such causal relations, otherwise it will produce nonphysical results. The joint use of convolutional layers and the stacked structure elegantly handles this issue by allowing one pixel to influence its neighborhoods only. Such causality in convolutional layers is known as the receptive field [64] in the machine learning literature. More concretely, supposing our convolutional neural network (CNN) has L layers with the i th layer using convolutional filters of size $(2n_i + 1) \times (2n_i + 1)$, then it is reasonable to match the size of the receptive field $R_r = (\sum_i n_i) \Delta x$ (Δx is the grid length) with the size of the light cone $R_l = c(\tau - \tau_0)$. If $R_r < R_l$, the expressivity of the neural network is bottlenecked. If $R_r > R_l$, the neural network is unnecessarily expressive, which might lead to a longer training time.

Utility. One limitation of this work is the fixed time output. Future works will consider more flexible architectures (e.g., a physics-informed neural network in Ref. [65]) to obtain the energy-momentum tensor at the freeze-out surface with a more realistic implementation in heavy-ion collisions.

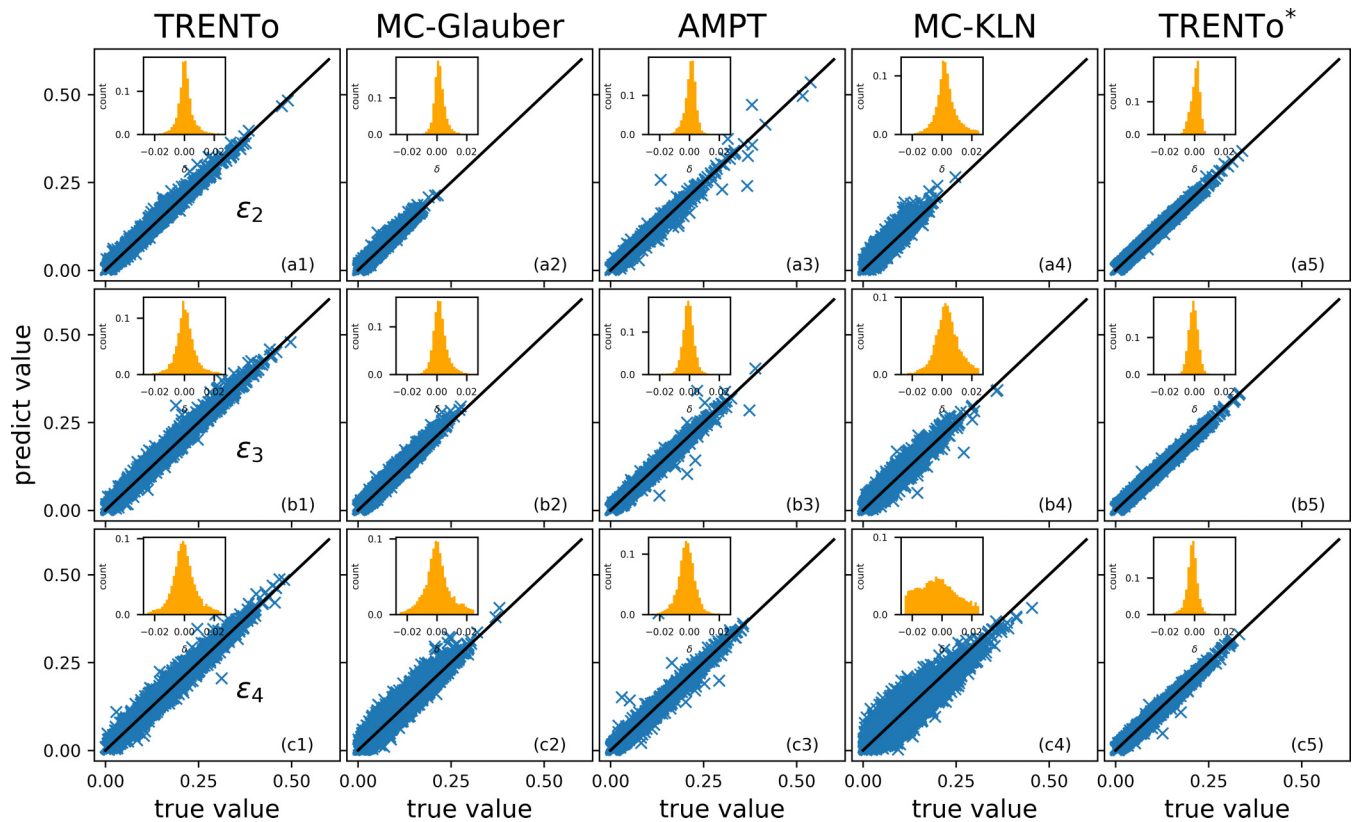


FIG. 4. Event-by-event comparisons of eccentricities ε_n ($n = 2, 3, 4$) at $\tau - \tau_0 = 6.0$ fm/c, calculated from vish2+1 and predicted by the network for 10 000 tested initial profiles generated from MC-Glauber, AMPT, MC-KLN, and TRENTo (with two sets of parameters distinguished by *).

Interpretability. Another minor limitation of the stacked U-net model lies in the lack of interpretability. In future works, we will investigate the possibilities of encoding physics explicitly in the network design, as in Ref. [65]. Efforts on gaining interpretability of deep learning in heavy-ion collisions include Refs. [17,20].

In summary, our current investigations mainly focus on mimicking (2+1)-dimensional hydrodynamic evolution with a fixed evolution time, using the deep learning technique. On the one hand, for a more realistic implementation to relativistic heavy-ion collisions, it is worthwhile to explore the possibilities of mapping the initial profiles to the final profiles on the freeze-out surface with a fixed energy density as well

as extending the related investigations to (3+1)-dimensional simulations. On the other hand, it is also worthwhile to develop computational tools that are more transparent for scientific evaluations, where a possible way is to encode the physical features (the functional form of the PDE, boundary conditions, etc.) into the network architecture.

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