



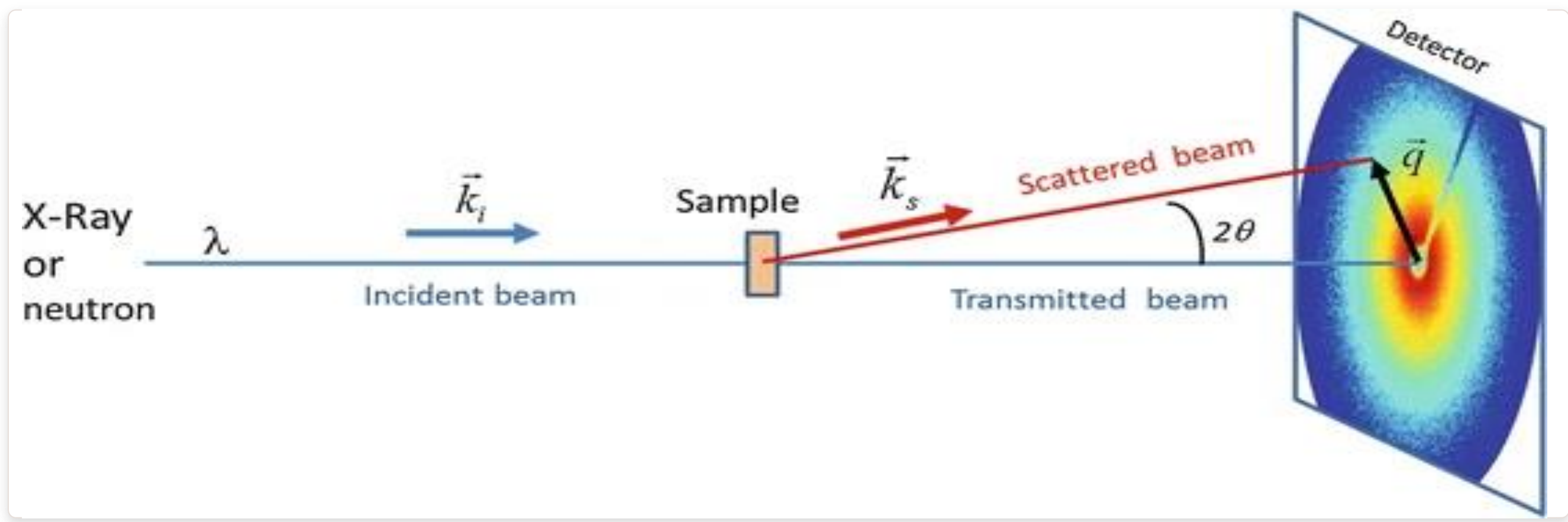
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Generating Pair Distance Distributions from SAXS Data Using Machine Learning

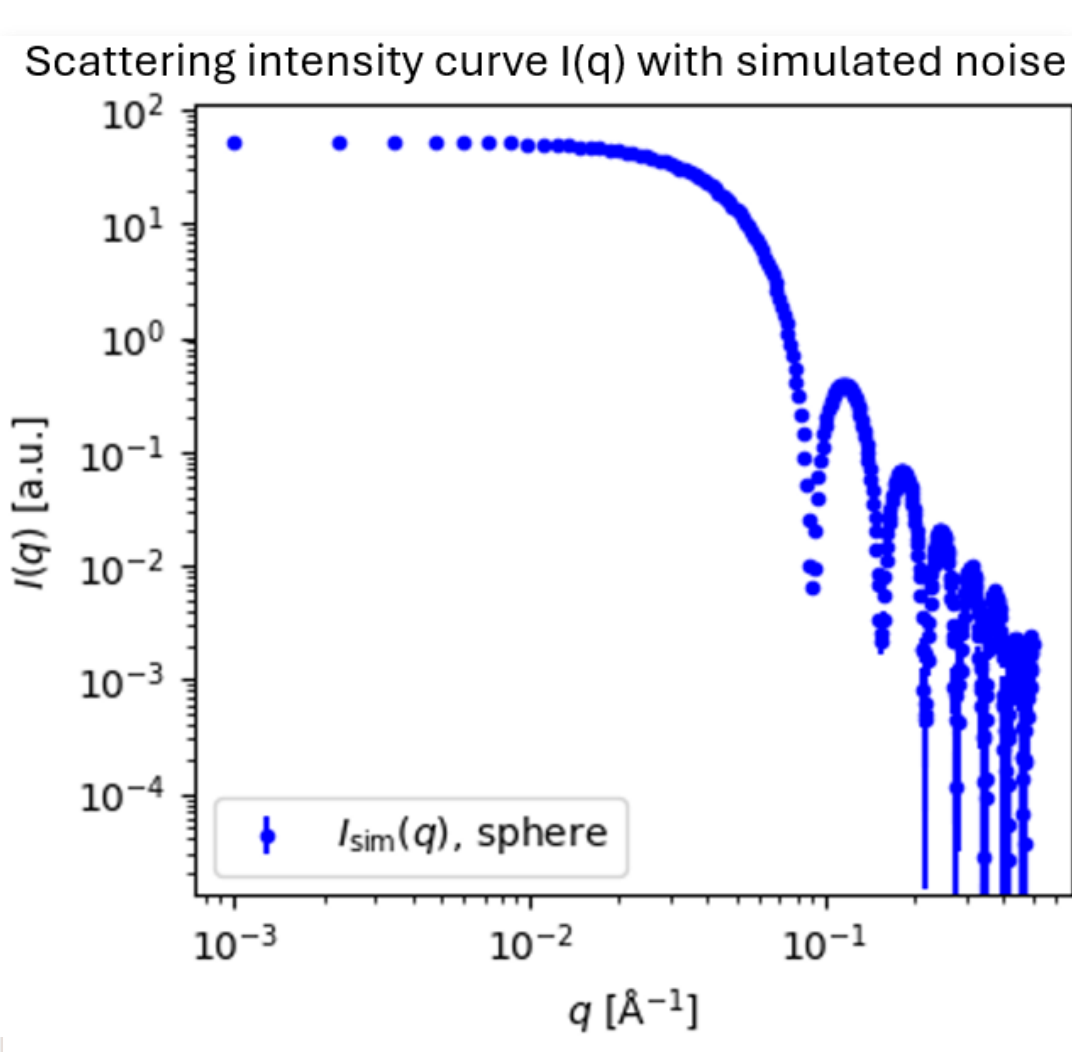
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Ali Hussein

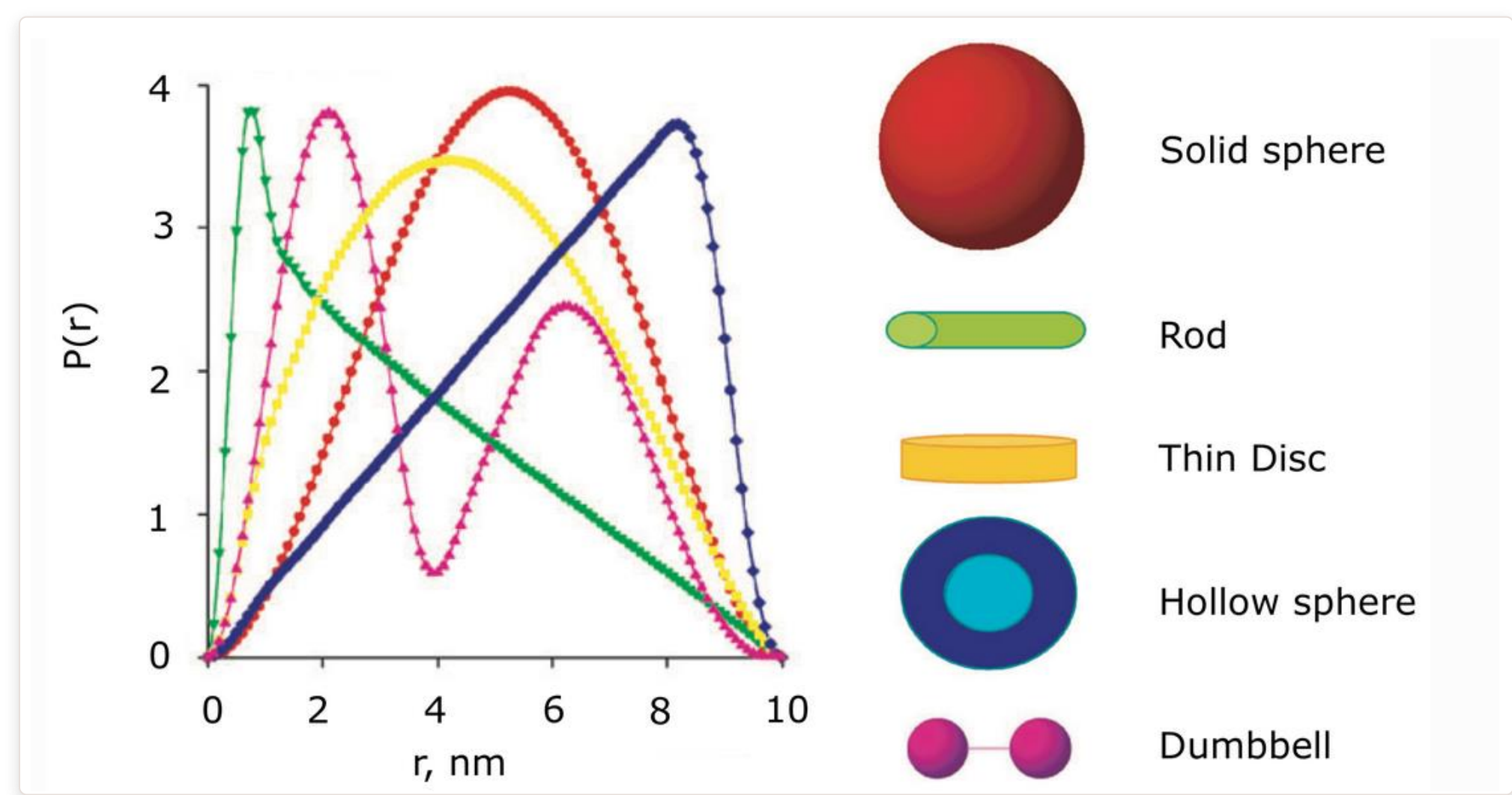
1 SAXS Experiment



- A collimated, monochromatic X-ray beam hits the sample; most photons pass straight through, while a small fraction scatter elastically off electron clouds in the sample.
- The scattered signal is recorded by a 2D detector, then azimuthally averaged into the 1D intensity curve $I(q)$.
- Small-angle X-ray scattering (SAXS) probes the nanometer-scale structure of proteins, nanoparticles, and polymers in solution.



2 Pair Distance Distribution



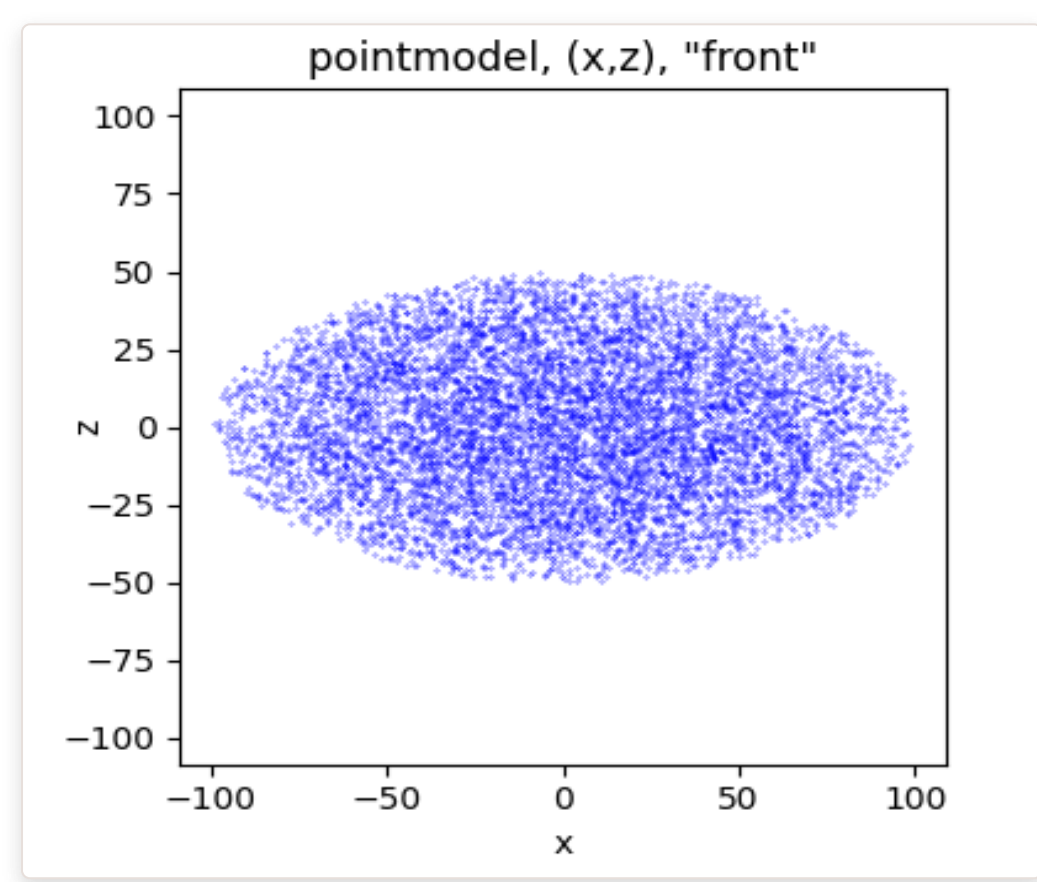
Characteristic $p(r)$ fingerprints: solid sphere (smooth bell), rod (sharp peak + tail), thin disc, hollow sphere (steep rise/fall), dumbbell (double peak) — shape can often be read off the curve almost by eye.

- From intensity $I(q)$ to pair distance distribution $p(r)$: $I(q) = 4\pi \int p(r) \sin(qr)/(qr) dr$, integrated from $r = 0$ to $D_{\max}$
- The pair distance distribution $p(r)$, recovered from the scattering curve $I(q)$, encodes particle size, shape, and maximum dimension $D_{\max}$, radius of gyration
- Recovering $p(r)$ normally requires an Indirect Fourier Transform (IFT): an ill-posed inversion that needs iterative regularization.
- A valid $p(r)$ is smooth, positive, and falls to zero at $r = 0$ and $r = D_{\max}$
- Neural networks can already predict single structural numbers — R_g , $D_{\max}$, molecular weight — directly from $I(q)$, near-instantly once trained.
- This project asks: can a network reconstruct the entire $p(r)$ curve from $I(q)$, and how does that depend on model choice and shape complexity?

3 Methods

Data generation

- Shape2SAS builds 3-D point-cloud particles for 12 geometric shapes (1–4 free shape parameters) and computes matching $I(q)$ and ground-truth $p(r)$.
- Stratified sampling covers each parameter range evenly; a noise model adds a realistic noise to $I(q)$ here using the naming convention $I_{\text{sim}}(q)$.



Preprocessing

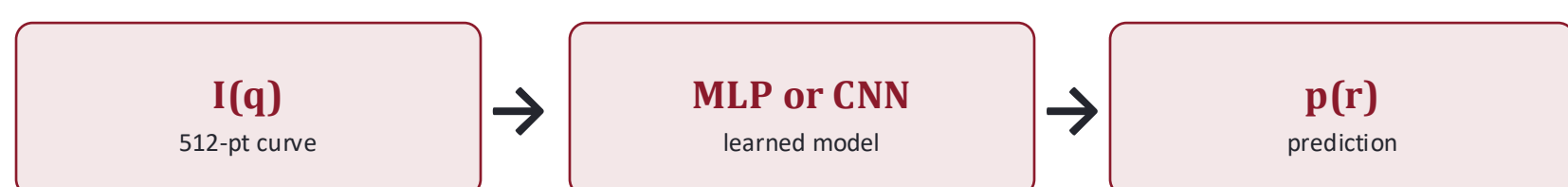
- Fixed 512-point q -grid, max-intensity normalization, and a log transform to emphasize the weak high- q signal.

Models

- MLP — up to 3 hidden layers $\times$ 1024 units, ReLU, dropout — treats all 512 q -points as independent features.
- 1D CNN — up to 3 conv. blocks (64→128→256 ch.), kernel 3 or 5, max-pooling — exploits locality along the curve.

Training & evaluation

- 70% / 15% / 15% train / validation / test split; MSE loss; Adam optimizer.
- Grid search over depth/width, dropout {0, 0.1}, learning rate {1e-3, 3e-4}, and weight decay {0, 1e-5} for both architectures.



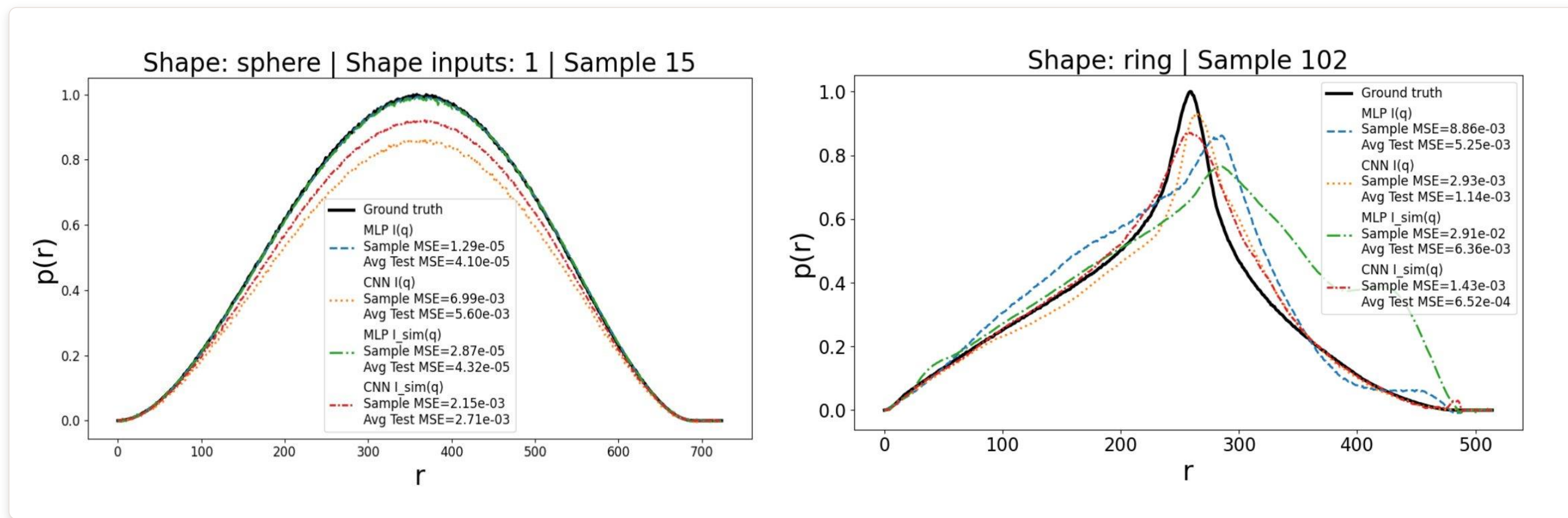
5 Discussion & Conclusion

What we have learned

- Both the MLP and 1D CNN learn a physically meaningful $I(q) \rightarrow p(r)$ mapping. After training, inference is near-instantaneous compared with iterative IFT fitting although more accurate results are still achieved that way.
- The CNN's local receptive fields and weight sharing preserve sharp, asymmetric features; the MLP — combined with ReLU, MSE loss, and Adam — tends to smooth and average, favoring simple, symmetric shapes.
- On the combined dataset, larger networks with little or no regularization performed best: the task was capacity-limited, not overfitting-limited.

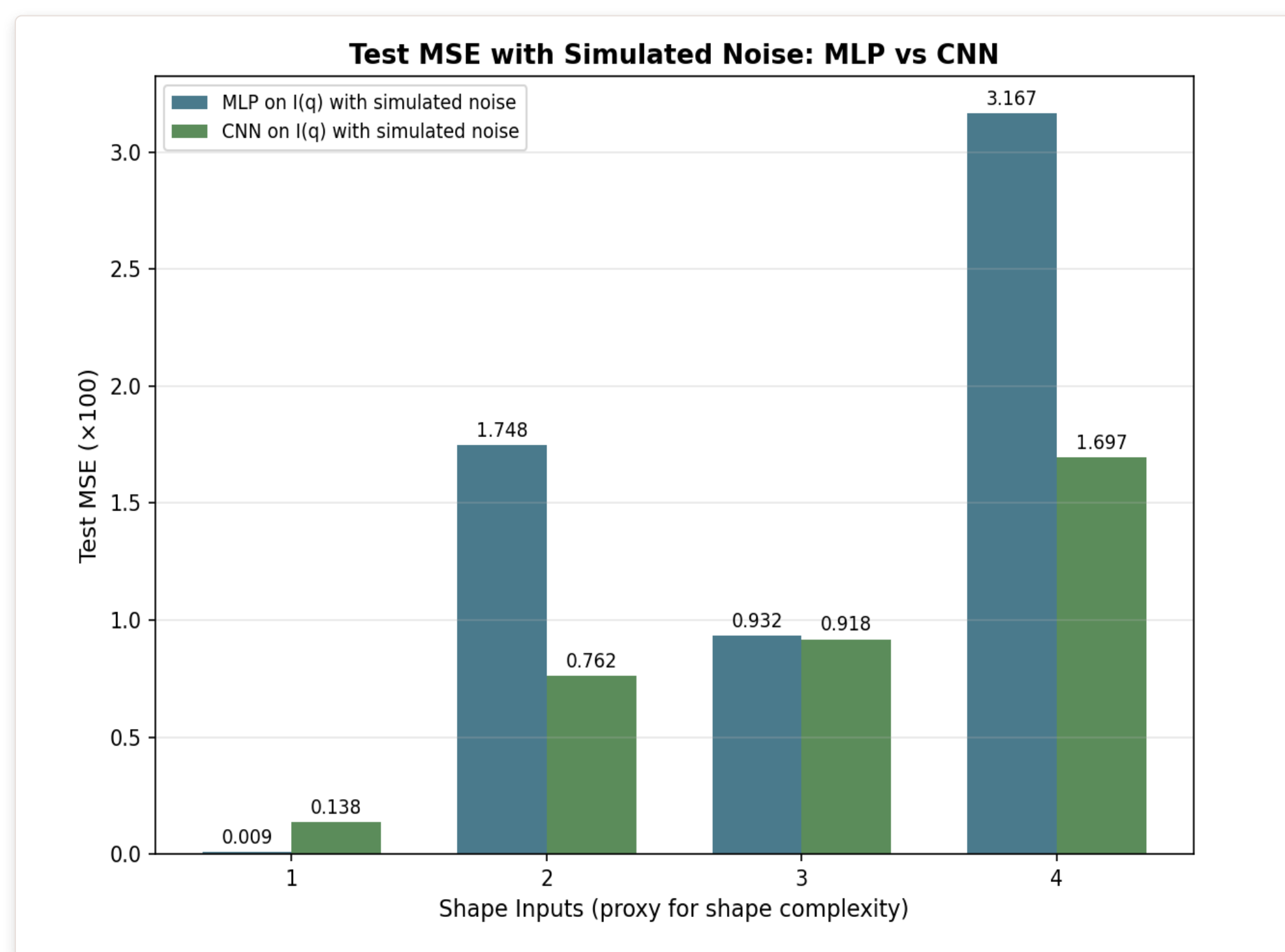
4 Results

4a · Prediction accuracy vs. shape complexity



Predicted vs. ground-truth $p(r)$, the two figures show predictions of a sphere (left) with 1 degree of freedom, and an ellipsoid (right) with 3 degrees of freedom.

- As the number of shape parameters grows from 1 to 4, test-set error rises for both models, and predicted peaks become noticeably smoother than the ground truth.
- The MLP is most accurate on simple, smooth shapes such as spheres; the CNN better preserves sharp or asymmetric peaks on complex shapes such as the hollow sphere and superellipsoid.



4b · More training data helps the CNN

- Expanding the superellipsoid training set from 1,000 to 9,000 samples cut test-set MSE substantially for both architectures on this hardest, 4-parameter shape:

28–35%

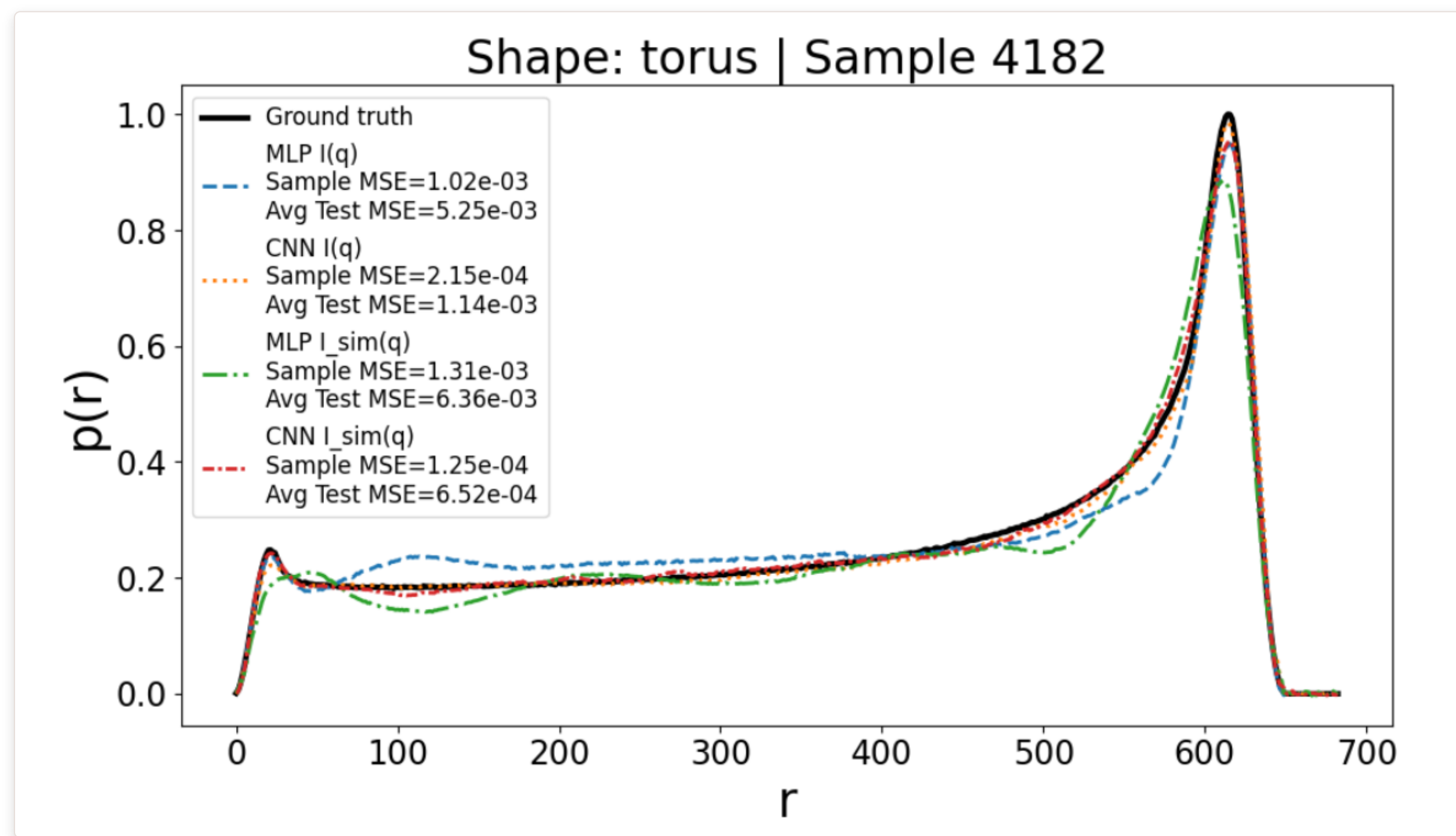
lower test MSE — MLP

77–81%

lower test MSE — CNN

- The CNN's convolutional inductive bias appears to need more data to pay off fully — but scales far better once it has it.

4c · Best model on the full combined-shape dataset



Best MLP/CNN predictions on unseen ring, torus, and hollow-cube samples from the 12-shape combined training set (predicted vs. ground-truth $p(r)$, left; reconstructed $I_{\text{sim}}(q)$, right).

- Grid search: the deepest / widest networks with no dropout won for both architectures — capacity, not overfitting, was the limiting factor.
- The CNN (64, 128, 256 channels, kernel 5) reached the lowest test MSE for both $I(q)$ and $I_{\text{sim}}(q)$ — roughly 5–10× lower than the best MLP.

Model	Architecture	Best hyperparameters	Test MSE
MLP · $I_{\text{sim}}(q)$	(1024,1024,1024)	dropout 0 · lr 1e-3 · wd 1e-5	0.00636
CNN · $I_{\text{sim}}(q)$	(64,128,256), k=5	dropout 0 · lr 3e-4 · wd 0	0.00065

Limitations & future work

- Only idealized geometric shapes were used, not real experimental data.
- No $D_{\max}$ estimation: $p(r)$ was scaled using the ground-truth $D_{\max}$, which makes the reported errors optimistic.
- The hyperparameter grid search was limited to a single GPU ($\approx$ 6 h on a free Google Colab T4).
- Next steps: real SAXS data (SASBDB, Simple Scattering), joint $D_{\max}$ prediction, larger architectures, and a shape-classifier that routes each curve to whichever model suits it best.

Machine learning can recover physically meaningful pair distance distributions directly from SAXS intensity curves — a fast, promising complement to conventional indirect Fourier transform analysis, with 1D CNNs offering the strongest balance of accuracy and robustness for this inverse problem.