FFTJet: A Package for Multiresolution Particle Jet Reconstruction in the Fourier Domain

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Abstract

This article describes the FFTJet software package designed to perform jet reconstruction in the analysis of high energy physics (HEP) experimental data. A two-stage approach is adopted in which pattern recognition is performed first, utilizing multiresolution filtering techniques in the frequency domain. Jet energy reconstruction follows, conditional upon the choice of signal topology. The method is efficient, global, collinear and infrared safe, and allows the user to identify and avoid the event topology bifurcation points when energy reconstruction is performed.

Key words: jet algorithms, FFT, multiresolution, fuzzy clustering

PACS: 13.87.-a, 29.85.-c

PROGRAM SUMMARY

Authors: I. Volobouev
Program Title: FFTJet
Program URL: http://projects.hepforge.org/fftjet/
Journal Reference:
Catalogue identifier:
Licensing provisions: MIT License
Programming language: C++
Computer: Any computer with a modern C++ compiler
Operating system: UNIX, Linux
Classification: 11.9
External routines/libraries: FFTW, OpenDX (optional)
Nature of problem: Particle jet reconstruction in high energy physics collider data

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Preprint submitted to Elsevier July 2, 2009
**Solution method:** The task is split into two distinct stages: pattern recognition and jet energy reconstruction. Multiresolution filtering techniques in the Fourier domain are utilized at the pattern recognition stage. Energy reconstruction is accomplished using weights generated by cluster membership functions. Both crisp and fuzzy clustering is supported.

**Running time:** Variable, depends on the event occupancy and algorithm used.

1. **Introduction**

   The problem of jet reconstruction is ubiquitous in the analysis of particle physics experimental data. The celebrated asymptotic freedom of partons at high energies [1] leads to a description of particle interactions in which there is little or no interference between the hard scattering and the hadronization stages. The kinematic properties of parent partons are imprinted on jets, and this allows the experimentalists to reconstruct the physics at the characteristic scales of a few fermi (10^{-15} m) from the large-scale energy deposition structures observed in a particle detector.

   The FFTJet software package described in the current article allows its users to implement a variety of jet reconstruction scenarios following the same basic two-stage approach: first, pattern recognition is performed whereby "preclusters" are found in the $\eta$-$\varphi$ space\(^1\) and then jet energies are reconstructed using preclusters as initial approximate jet locations. This approach has several important advantages over the cone and $k_T$ jet reconstruction algorithms [2] used at currently operating hadron collider experiments:

   - The techniques used to determine jet energies are not necessarily optimal for determining the event topology (i.e., the number of jets). These problems are distinct and should be solved separately. The tasks of defining "what is a jet", locating jets, selecting the event topology, and reconstructing jet energies are cleanly separated.

   - The knowledge of the jet shape asymmetry in the $\eta$-$\varphi$ space can be effectively utilized which results in a superior algorithm performance in the presence of a magnetic field.

\(^1\eta\) and $\varphi$ are the variables which define the direction of the energy deposit. $\varphi$ is the azimuthal angle, while the meaning of $\eta$ is user-selectable (typically, rapidity or pseudo-rapidity).
Provisions can be made for efficient suppression of the detector noise both at the pattern recognition and at the energy reconstruction stages.

The computational complexity of the pattern recognition stage is $O(SN \ln N)$, where $N$ is on the order of the number of towers in the detector calorimeter and $S$ is the user-selectable number of angular resolution scales (cone and $k_T$ algorithms use only one resolution scale). This complexity is independent from the detector occupancy and thus allows for predictable execution times which can be important for online use. The computational complexity of the jet energy reconstruction stage is $O(JM)$ where $J$ is the number of jets found and $M$ is the number of objects (4-vectors) used to describe the event energy flow ($M \leq N$).

The main computational engine behind the pattern recognition stage is Discrete Fast Fourier Transform (DFFT). The FFTJet package is designed to take advantage of widespread availability of DFFT implementations. The pattern recognition code can be easily adapted to run on a variety of hardware platforms including Digital Signal Processors (DSPs) and Graphics Processing Units (GPUs).

2. **Emphasis on Pattern Recognition**

The necessity of improving pattern recognition capabilities of jet reconstruction algorithms has been recognized both in the context of multijet, high occupancy events and in the cases when massive particles decaying hadronically via electroweak interaction ($W$ and $Z$ bosons, top quarks) are sufficiently boosted so that the energy flow of their decay products can not be partitioned into well-separated jets. Due to software availability, LHC-targeted studies of particle physics processes of this kind utilized predominantly sequential recombination techniques (see Ref. [3] for a recent review). The FFTJet package is designed to provide advanced pattern recognition performance in a global algorithm.

The jet reconstruction model implemented in FFTJet was originally inspired by Refs. [4] and [5] and initially proposed in [6]. The study by Cheng [4] establishes an important connection between the iterative cone clustering and pattern recognition schemes have been introduced in various disciplines, e.g., [7, 8, 9, 10]. Early influential works include [11, 12, 13].

\[2\]
algorithm and kernel density estimation (KDE) [15]. Cheng proves that the locations of stable cone centers correspond to modes (peaks) of the energy density built in the $\eta$-$\phi$ space using kernel density estimation with the Epanechnikov kernel. That is, all such centers can be found by convolving the empirical energy density

$$\rho_{\text{emp}}(\eta, \phi) = \sum_i \varepsilon_i \delta^2(\eta - \eta_i, \phi - \phi_i)$$

with the function

$$\text{Epanechnikov}(\eta, \phi) = \begin{cases} 
1 - (\phi^2 + \eta^2)/R^2, & \phi^2 + \eta^2 < R^2 \\
0, & \phi^2 + \eta^2 \geq R^2
\end{cases}$$

and then funding all local maxima of the convolution. Here, $\varepsilon$ is an energy variable whose precise meaning is user-defined (typically, transverse momentum or transverse energy of a particle, calorimeter tower, etc.), $\delta^2(\eta, \phi)$ is the two-dimensional delta function, and the sum is performed over all energy deposits expected to be jet constituents (typically, leptons and photons produced in the hard scattering process are excluded). $R$ is the cone radius in the $\eta$-$\phi$ space.

The connection between the iterative cone algorithm and KDE immediately suggests an efficient implementation of a seedless cone algorithm: one should discretize the calorimeter signals (or MC particles) on a regular grid in the $\eta$-$\phi$ space, perform the convolution by DFFT, and find the peaks. This approach, however, does not address an important problem inherent in the cone-based jet reconstruction. This problem manifests itself as the pattern recognition ambiguity illustrated in Figure 1. Two energy deposits of similar magnitude separated by a distance larger than $R$ but smaller than $2R$ produce three stable cone centers whose positions are shown with the arrows at the bottom of the figure. In various implementations of cone-based jet reconstruction procedures, this problem is usually addressed by the “split-merge” stage which happens after the stable cone locations are determined. During this stage, jets are merged if the energy which falls into the common region

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3 The iterative cone algorithm is known as the “mean shift” algorithm [14] in the pattern recognition literature.

4 The reader familiar with the concept of “Snowmass potential” [2] will recognize that this potential reproduces such a convolution up to a negative constant factor.

5 Other, less common techniques are “split-drop” and “progressive removal” [3].
exceeds a predefined fraction of the energy of the jet with smaller magnitude. Even if the search for stable cones is performed in the infrared and collinear safe manner, the outcome of the split-merge stage is often unstable because the decision on whether to merge the two jets depends on the minute details of the energy deposition structure.

Another way to look at this problem and a possible solution is illustrated in Figure 2. The third stable cone center between the two energy deposits happens because the sum of two Epanechnikov kernels placed at the locations of the deposits has a spurious peak in the middle. However, there is a variety of kernels which do not suffer from this problem. In particular, the Gaussian kernel produces either two (narrow kernel) or one (wide kernel) peaks, as shown. Even though one still has to address the question of choosing the kernel width, the Gaussian kernel has a very important advantage: the whole split-merge stage is no longer necessary.

An intelligent choice of the kernel width (or the $R$ parameter in the
In fact, optimal choice will be different for different signals. For example, a data analysis which searches for high energy dijet events with two well-separated jets is likely to make very different assumptions about jets from a data analysis which looks for $t\bar{t}$ events in the all-hadronic, 6-jet mode. Moreover, the optimal width is not necessarily the same for every jet in an event, as low momentum jets tend to have wider angular profiles, especially in the presence of magnetic field. Because of this, it is interesting to look at the jet structure of an event using a variety of kernel width (cone radius, etc.) choices. In the limit of continuous kernel width we arrive to a description of event energy flow known as “mode tree” in the nonparametric statistics literature or “scale-space image representation” in the computer vision theory. The information contained in such a description permits multiple optimization strategies for jet reconstruction which will be discussed in section 4.4.

The FFTJet approach differs significantly from the majority of jet reconstruction algorithms in the following way: no attempt is made to define outright what is a jet and how particle jets should look like. Instead, the package user introduces an operational jet definition by selecting the pattern recognition kernel and the jet membership function which describes the jet shape. Given this definition, the code efficiently searches for jet-like structures in the event energy flow pattern. The rationale for this view of jet reconstruction comes from the realization that, in practice, there is no single optimal jet definition for different particle processes. Also, the instrumental effects (nonlinear response and finite energy resolution of the calorimeter, presence of the magnetic field in the detector, material in front of the calorimeter, pile-up, noise, etc.) must be taken into account, and will almost surely dominate the systematic error of any precision measurement based on jets. Therefore, a unified algorithmic definition of “what is a jet” can not be achieved across different measurements in a variety of experimental setups.

3. Top-Level Steps of the Algorithm

The users of the FFTJet package are expected to reconstruct jets using the following sequence of steps:

Step 1. The event energy flow is discretized using a grid in the $\eta$-$\varphi$ space.
Step 2. The discretized energy distribution is convolved with a kernel function $K(\eta, \varphi, s)$, where $s$ is the resolution scale parameter which de-
terminates the width and, possibly, the shape of the kernel. Many standard kernel functions are included in the FFTJet package, and user-defined kernels can be seamlessly added as well. The convolution is performed by DFFT.

Step 3. The peaks of the convolved energy distributions are found. These are potential “preclusters”.

Step 4. Preclusters with small magnitudes are eliminated in order to suppress the calorimeter noise\(^6\).

Step 5. Steps 2 through 4 are repeated as many times as necessary using different values of \(s\). The resulting preclusters are arranged in the “clustering tree” structure.

Step 6. Using the clustering tree information and assumptions about the signal spectrum, a decision is made about the event topology by choosing a set of preclusters. These preclusters are passed to the jet energy reconstruction stage.

Step 7. Jet constituents are determined as follows. The event is viewed as a collection of energy deposits characterized by their direction \((\eta, \varphi)\) and energy variable \(\varepsilon\). Depending on the environment in which the code is used, these deposits can originate from detector calorimeter cells, reconstructed tracks, Monte Carlo particles, etc. A cluster membership function \(M_j(\eta - \eta_j, \varphi - \varphi_j, \varepsilon, s_j)\) is associated with each precluster \(j\) at angular coordinates \((\eta_j, \varphi_j)\) and scale \(s_j\). There is also a membership function for the unclustered energy/underlying event. The cluster membership functions are evaluated for every energy deposit in the event. In the “crisp” clustering scenario, an energy deposit is assigned to the jet whose membership function for this deposit is the largest. In the “fuzzy” scenario, the deposit is split between all jets with weights proportional to their respective membership function values (the sum of all weights is normalized to 1 to ensure energy conservation).

Step 8. Jet energies are calculated according to one of the standard recombination schemes using weights determined in the previous step.

This sequence will work well for a wide variety of HEP data analyses. Yet, if necessary, the balance between the code speed and the precision of jet energy

\(^6\)Even in the absence of such noise, fake preclusters will be detected due to the presence of round-off errors in the DFFT procedure.
determination can be shifted in either direction. For example, to speed things up, the pattern recognition can be performed at a single predefined scale \( s_0 \). Alternatively, to further improve the jet energy resolution, the last two steps of the algorithm can be applied iteratively. In such a procedure, the jet directions \((\eta_j, \varphi_j)\) and the membership function scales \( s_j \) are updated at each iteration using reconstructed jets from the previous iteration until some convergence criterion is satisfied.\(^7\)

4. Algorithm Details

The FFTJet package is designed with the goals of flexibility and extensibility in mind. The code is written in the standard C++ programming language. Most of the FFTJet classes are either templates or they inherit from abstract base classes. This freedom of choice allows the user to tailor FFTJet easily to the needs of a particular data analysis and software environment, but it can also be daunting at the beginning. The intent of this section is to provide helpful guidelines for making important decisions about algorithm details and to explain how these details may affect the algorithm performance.

4.1. Energy Discretization

The purpose of the energy discretization step is to create a grid equidistant in the \( \eta-\varphi \) space and to populate this grid with the observed energy values. Several typical use cases are envisioned:

- The analysis is using calorimeter data collected by an experiment (or any other data with intrinsic granularity). In this case the cell sizes in \( \eta \) and \( \varphi \) should be chosen in such a way that they reflect the spacing of the calorimeter towers. At the same time, the number of bins should allow for subsequent efficient DFFT of the gridded data, so that exact powers of two are preferred. In case the calorimeter granularity is not constant throughout the full \( \eta \) acceptance range or if the calorimeter towers are not rectangular, the FFTJet package includes regridding facilities which can aid in mapping the data onto rectangular equidistant grid with minimal loss of information.

\(^7\)This iterative procedure is known as “generalized mean shift” or “expectation maximization” algorithm [16, 17].
• The event energy flow representation includes tracking data obtained by particle flow analysis or by other similar means. In this case the grid is filled in a manner which preserves the $\eta$-$\varphi$ centroid of each energy deposit. The grid size should be chosen in such a way that the binning effects do not prevent the user from seeing the smallest interesting detail. A good rule of thumb (based on the Nyquist sampling theorem) is that in each direction the discretization grid granularity should be two times finer than the typical size of such a detail.

• Monte Carlo particle data are analyzed, and the user wants to simulate binning effects of a realistic calorimeter. In this case the FFTJet gridding code can function as a histogram with cylindrical topology.

4.2. Pattern Recognition Kernel

Pattern recognition is performed in FFTJet by convolving the discretized event energy flow with a kernel function and then finding the peaks of the obtained smoothed energy distribution. Peak coordinates are determined with subcell precision: the smoothed energy flow shape is fitted in a $3 \times 3$ rectangle near each local maximum with a two-dimensional quadratic polynomial by least squares method. The location of the polynomial maximum is then used as the peak position or the peak is discarded if the Hessian matrix of the fitted polynomial is not negative definite.

The optimal choice of the pattern recognition kernel will depend on the analysis strategy and the amount of information the user has about the signal and the background at the time pattern recognition is performed. The typical role which kernel plays is that of the low-pass spatial filter in the $\eta$-$\varphi$ space: it is supposed to enhance jet-like structures present in the event and it has to suppress higher spatial frequency random noise present due to fluctuations in the showering and hadronization processes, instrumental noise, etc. If signal and background properties are well understood, the filter can be designed to provide optimal pattern recognition for the process of interest (Wiener filtering [16]). This, however, is not a typical usage for a jet clustering algorithm in a HEP experiment. Instead, it is often more desirable to cluster jets in a generic manner consistent with a wide variety of signal and background hypotheses.

The FFTJet package can aid the user in implementing several different pattern recognition strategies. A fast and efficient jet finding can be
performed at a single resolution scale (which is similar to using jets reconstructed at one cone radius). Here, a proper kernel choice allows not only to avoid the split-merge stage but also to take into account the nonsymmetrical jet shape in the presence of a magnetic field. Indeed, at sufficiently high values of transverse momenta (above $p_T = 10 \text{ GeV}/c$ or so) the width of the transverse jet energy profile scales inversely proportional to jet $p_T$. At the same time, the angular distance between the direction of the jet axis and the location where charged particles hit the calorimeter in the magnetic field also scales in the inverse proportion to particle’s $p_T$.$^8$ This leads to a situation in which the jets have a characteristic $\eta$ to $\varphi$ width ratio which remains stable through a wide range of jet energies.

Modern HEP experiments often employ cone and $k_T$ algorithms for jet reconstruction using several different values of the $R$ parameter which determines characteristic jet width. The FFTJet package takes this strategy to its logical conclusion and allows the user to view the energy flow in the event as a collection of jet structures reconstructed using a continuous range of angular resolution scales. In order to locate patterns which correspond to actual physics processes in this “scale space” view of jet reconstruction, it becomes essential to establish hierarchical relationships between structures found at larger and smaller scales. If we want to establish these relationships in a meaningful way, the number of jets found should decrease when the resolution scale increases. This places an important technical requirement on the kernel or sequence of kernels used at different scales: the number of peaks found after convolving the kernel with the event energy structure should decrease with increasing scale, no matter how the event energy flow looks like.

It turns out that, in the form stated above, this requirement is very strict. It is not known at this time whether such a kernel or a sequence of kernels can actually be constructed.$^9$ Nevertheless, the Gaussian kernel comes very close to fulfilling this requirement for all practical purposes.$^{10}$ In general,

$^8$More precisely, $\sin(\Delta \varphi)$ is inversely proportional to particle’s radius of gyration and, therefore, inversely proportional to particle’s $p_T$ as well.

$^9$Gaussian kernel satisfies this requirement in one dimension. There are reasons to believe that it is impossible to satisfy this requirement in a multidimensional space [13]. However, to the author’s knowledge, this impossibility has not been strictly proven.

$^{10}$In more than one dimension, situations in which the number of peaks increases with increasing scale do arise, albeit infrequently. For example, three energy deposits of equal
an optimal choice of a pattern recognition kernel should result both in good
local properties of the reconstructed jets (robustness with respect to small
variations in jet energy flow and resistance to noise) and in good scaling
properties: the event topology should vary naturally in the scale space.
Perhaps, the most useful general-purpose multiresolution kernel imple-
mented in the FFTJet package is the Gaussian kernel corrected for the en-
ergy flow discretization effects. This kernel is the Green’s function of the
two-dimensional anisotropic diffusion equation with the discretized Laplacian
operator (the rationale for this approach and the formula for the isotropic
diffusion case is given in [19]). Unlike the standard Gaussian kernel which is
strongly affected by binning effects when its width becomes comparable to
the grid bin size, the corrected kernel behaves meaningfully at small scales,
and gracefully converges to the discrete delta function at the zero scale limit.
The kernel is defined by its Fourier transform representation:
\[
\text{Re}(F(u, v)) = \exp \left( \frac{\sigma^2}{(\Delta \eta)^2} (\cos(u) - 1) + \frac{\sigma^2}{(\Delta \varphi)^2} (\cos(v) - 1) \right),
\]
\[
\text{Im}(F(u, v)) = 0,
\]
where
\[ u = \frac{2\pi k}{N_\eta}, \quad k \in \{0, 1, ..., N_\eta - 1\} \] is the \( \eta \) frequency.
\[ v = \frac{2\pi m}{N_\varphi}, \quad m \in \{0, 1, ..., N_\varphi - 1\} \] is the \( \varphi \) frequency.
\[ \Delta \eta = \frac{2\pi}{N_\eta} \] is the effective width of the grid cells in \( \eta \) (scaled so that the
full \( \eta \) range of the grid is \( 2\pi \)).
\[ \Delta \varphi = \frac{2\pi}{N_\varphi} \] is the width of the grid cells in \( \varphi \).
\( \sigma_\eta \) is the effective kernel width parameter in \( \eta \). In the limit of small cell
sizes and when \( \sigma_\eta \ll 2\pi \), it corresponds to the standard deviation of the
Gaussian kernel.
\( \sigma_\varphi \) is the kernel width parameter in \( \varphi \).
In addition to its excellent performance in the multiresolution context, the
Gaussian kernel has another useful feature. For well-separated, symmetric
jets the peak magnitude dependence on the resolution scale, \( m(s) \), is the
Laplace transform of the transverse energy profile.\footnote{A proper selection of the kernel \( \eta \) to \( \varphi \) width ratio makes it a good approximation
even in the presence of a strong magnetic field.} Therefore, a reasonable

\footnote{A proper selection of the kernel \( \eta \) to \( \varphi \) width ratio makes it a good approximation
even in the presence of a strong magnetic field.}
estimate of the jet transverse energy can be obtained from

\[ E_{T,0} = A \lim_{s \to \infty} s^2 m(s), \]

where \( A \) is a proper normalization constant which depends on the binning of the energy discretization grid.\(^{12}\) This initial estimate can be used by the energy recombination stage of the algorithm.

### 4.3. The Clustering Tree

The clustering tree represents the agglomeration of peaks (preclusters) found by multiresolution spatial filtering into a single hierarchical structure. The tree is constructed using a distance function. A precluster found at some resolution scale \( s_i \) is assigned a parent from the previous (larger) resolution scale \( s_{i-1} \) as follows: the distance between the precluster at the scale \( s_i \) is calculated to all preclusters at the scale \( s_{i-1} \). The precluster at the scale \( s_{i-1} \) with the smallest such distance becomes the parent. This simple agglomeration strategy follows the approach of Ref. [5] and has the advantage that the obtained tree structure can also be utilized as a balltree [20]. Other agglomeration strategies are possible (see [10] and references therein) and may be implemented in the future FFTJet releases.

The choice of the function which defines the distance between the preclusters is up to the user of the package. The implementation must at least ensure that the distance can never be negative, the distance from any precluster to itself is zero, the distance is symmetric for preclusters found at the same resolution scale, and that the triangle inequality is satisfied for any three preclusters.\(^{13}\) The package itself provides one such distance function defined as

\[ d = \sqrt{\left( \frac{\Delta \phi}{h_\phi} \right)^2 + \left( \frac{\Delta \eta}{h_\eta} \right)^2}, \]

independent from peak magnitudes and resolution scales used. The bandwidth values \( h_\eta \) and \( h_\phi \) are typically chosen so that \( h_\eta/h_\phi = r \) and \( h_\eta h_\phi = 1 \), and then \( r \) is the only parameter needed to define the distance function.

Once the parent/daughter relationships are established between preclusters found at different resolution scales, dependence of various precluster

\(^{12}\)In the actual code which evaluates the limit one can exchange the parameter \( s \) with the parameter \( \alpha = s^p, p < 0 \), and then extrapolate towards \( \alpha = 0 \).

\(^{13}\)That is, for each resolution scale precluster variables must form a pseudometric space. For different scales, the commutativity requirement of the distance function can be dropped because the preclusters are naturally ordered by scale.
characteristics on the scale parameter can be analyzed. By default, FFTJet calculates the following precluster properties:

- The speed with which the peak magnitude changes as the function of scale. This is an approximate value of \( \frac{d \log(m(s))}{d \log(s)} \).
- The speed with which the precluster location drifts in the scale space. If the distance between preclusters is defined by the angular distance \( d \) described above, this becomes \( \frac{|d \vec{r}|}{d \log(s)} \), with \( \vec{r} = (\frac{\phi}{h_\phi}, \frac{\eta}{h_\eta}) \).
- Precluster lifetime in the scale space. It is computed as \( \log(s_{\text{max}}) - \log(s_{\text{min}}) \) where \( s_{\text{max}} \) and \( s_{\text{min}} \) define the range of resolution scales for which the precluster exists as a distinct feature of the energy distribution. Typically, the lifetime is traced from the smallest scale in the clustering tree to the scale where the precluster becomes a part of a larger precluster. If the tree is constructed using a pattern recognition kernel which generates spurious preclusters, this quantity can be used for trimming such preclusters.
- Distance to the nearest neighbor precluster at the same resolution scale.

Together with the precluster locations, scales, and peak magnitudes, these quantities are collected in a single class which describes precluster properties in FFTJet. Each node of the clustering tree is associated with one object of this class.

The FFTJet package contains facilities for visualizing clustering trees with the OpenDX scientific visualization system [21]. Various precluster properties can be mapped into the size and color of OpenDX glyphs, while the precluster location in the \( \eta - \varphi \) space and the precluster resolution scale are mapped into the glyph coordinates in a three-dimensional scene. An OpenDX view of a clustering tree is shown in Figure 3. On a computer screen, this view can be interactively shifted, scaled, and rotated with a virtual trackball.

4.4. Choosing the Event Topology

To determine the event topology, the user must introduce some assumptions about the signal properties. The clustering tree functionality allows for an efficient implementation of a variety of pattern recognition strategies tuned to locate precluster patterns consistent with the properties of the expected signal. A few possible strategies are listed below.
Figure 3: An example clustering tree image generated by OpenDX for a four-jet event. Here, the quantity $s^2 m(s)$, where $m(s)$ is the precluster magnitude, is mapped into the glyph size and the scale-normalized Hessian blob detector \cite{23} is mapped into the glyph color. The $\varphi$ variable wraps around so that 0 and $2\pi$ correspond to the same location. This is why you see several connections apparently ending at $\varphi = 0$: they actually “tunnel” from the right side of the image to the left and continue towards the cluster near $\varphi = 2\pi$.

- The traditional approach consists in choosing the single best resolution scale according to some optimization criterion. For example, the fraction of events in which the number of reconstructed jets equals the number of partons produced at the leading order perturbation theory is maximized for the signal of interest. In the multiscale reconstruction paradigm, this approach can be improved upon by avoiding situations in which the chosen resolution scale is close to a bifurcation point — the scale at which two smaller preclusters form a bigger one. Near the
bifurcation point the locations of the affected preclusters become very sensitive to small changes in the event energy flow.\textsuperscript{14} This problem results in an increased uncertainty of jet energy and direction determination. The bifurcation points can be avoided by detecting them in the scale space with the clustering tree, and by using slightly modified resolution scales in case such points are found.

- For each event, one can choose a scale for which the number of clusters, $J$, corresponds to the number of jets expected in the signal. In order to make sure that this jet configuration indeed represents a salient feature of the event energy flow, some characterization of the configuration stability must be provided. This stability can be described by the configuration “lifetime” in the scale space. A reasonable lifetime function is $\log(s_{\text{max}}(J)/s_{\text{min}}(J))$, where $s_{\text{max}}(J)$ and $s_{\text{min}}(J)$ are, respectively, the maximum and the minimum resolution scales for which the tree has exactly $J$ clusters.\textsuperscript{15}

- Scale-space differential blob detectors [23] can potentially be used to identify jets.

- Nontrivial clustering patterns are identified in the signal, and similar patterns are searched for in the clustering tree. For example, boosted resonances, such as $W$ bosons or top quarks, are expected to produce one wide jet at higher resolution scales which has a prominent substructure at lower scales.

- The scale is chosen separately for each jet, in a manner consistent with the expected event topology. For example, if the cluster does not split across a range of scales and its position in the $\eta$-$\varphi$ space remains

\textsuperscript{14}Bifurcation points are present in every jet reconstruction algorithm, including those which are normally considered to be infrared and collinear safe. Most algorithms do not have the capability to detect these points. A more detailed discussion (albeit using different terminology) can be found in [22] where bifurcation points manifest themselves as multiple and/or shallow minima in the optimization of the jet configuration.

\textsuperscript{15}If you are interested in comparing jet configurations with different values of $J$ then the appropriate lifetime function should also depend on $J$. For example, $J^\alpha \log(s_{\text{max}}(J)/s_{\text{min}}(J))$ could be a good choice, with $\alpha$ chosen empirically depending on the process under study ($0 < \alpha < 1$). More complicated, powerful definition of the lifetime in the scale space is proposed in [24].
stable, it will be advantageous to use a $p_T$-dependent jet shape model for energy determination.

4.5. Membership Functions

The name “membership function” is borrowed from the fuzzy sets theory [25]. The FFTJet membership functions serve a similar purpose: they reflect the probabilities of energy deposits to belong to jets. However, the range of FFTJet membership function values is not limited to the interval $[0, 1]$, instead any non-negative real value is allowed. The jet membership functions employed by FFTJet have a continuous scale parameter which will be called “recombination scale” for the remainder of this paper.

A membership function is associated with each precluster $j$ located at angular coordinates $(\eta_j, \varphi_j)$: $M_j(\eta - \eta_j, \varphi - \varphi_j, \varepsilon, s_j)$. Here, $\varepsilon$ is the magnitude of the transverse energy (or momentum) of the energy deposit located at angular coordinates $(\eta, \varphi)$. The recombination scale $s_j$ may or may not coincide with the precluster resolution scale. Defined in this manner, the membership function is invariant with respect to shifts in the $\eta$ and $\varphi$ coordinates but not with respect to changing the recombination scale or permuting the jets. The noise/unclustered energy membership function $U(\eta, \varphi, \varepsilon)$ has no characteristic scale.

Two recombination modes are supported by the FFTJet code: “crisp” and “fuzzy”. In the “crisp” mode, each energy deposit is assigned to the jet (or noise/unclustered energy) whose membership function value evaluated for that deposit is the highest. In the “fuzzy” mode, each energy deposit is distributed among all jets and the unclustered energy with weights calculated for jet number $j$ as

$$w_j(\eta, \varphi) = \frac{M_j(\eta - \eta_j, \varphi - \varphi_j, \varepsilon, s_j)}{U(\eta, \varphi, \varepsilon) + \sum_k M_k(\eta - \eta_k, \varphi - \varphi_k, \varepsilon, s_k)}$$

and for the noise/unclustered energy as

$$w_u(\eta, \varphi) = \frac{U(\eta, \varphi, \varepsilon)}{U(\eta, \varphi, \varepsilon) + \sum_k M_k(\eta - \eta_k, \varphi - \varphi_k, \varepsilon, s_k)}.$$ 

The weights calculated in this manner are normalized by

$$w_u(\eta, \varphi) + \sum_k w_k(\eta, \varphi) = 1$$

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16 Use of fuzzy clustering for jet reconstruction has been advocated earlier in [22, 26].
for each $\eta, \varphi$ which ensures that energy and momentum can be conserved during the recombination procedure.

The choice of the jet membership function and the recombination mode is up to the user of the package. It is expected that the most precise determination of jet energies will be achieved by using detailed jet shape models which will be called “detector-level jet fragmentation functions”. Such jet models are defined by

$$M_j(\eta, \varphi, \varepsilon, s) = \left\langle \frac{\partial^3 N(p_T)}{\partial \eta \partial \varphi \partial \varepsilon} \right\rangle$$

where $N$ is the number of energy discretization grid cells into which a jet deposits its energy, $p_T$ is the actual jet $p_T$, the jet direction is shifted to $(\eta_j, \varphi_j) = (0, 0)$, and angular brackets stand for averaging over a large number of jets. It is natural in this case to set the recombination scale $s$ to $1/p_T$. The functions $M_j(\eta, \varphi, \varepsilon, s)$ defined in this manner are normalized by

$$\int M_j(\eta, \varphi, \varepsilon, s) d\eta d\varphi d\varepsilon = N(p_T)$$

and

$$\int \varepsilon M_j(\eta, \varphi, \varepsilon, s) d\eta d\varphi d\varepsilon = E_T \text{ (or } p_T\text{)}.$$ 

It is unlikely that in practice one will be able to represent these jet models by simple parametrized functional expressions. FFTJet provides a solution to this problem in the form of multidimensional interpolation tables. Construction and serialization of such tables is discussed in the FFTJet package user manual [27].

Within the FFTJet framework it is possible to associate different jet membership functions with different preclusters, so the user can take advantage of even more detailed jet models which can depend, for example, on the assumed jet flavor, electromagnetic energy fraction, separation from other jets, etc. On the other hand, simpler models will be less susceptible to systematic errors and model misspecifications, and can potentially result in simplified calibration procedures. For example, the recombination behavior of the cone algorithm can be reproduced within FFTJet by using crisp clustering with the Epanechnikov kernel used as the jet membership function. Note that in this case the membership function is not unique: in the crisp mode identical jets will be generated by any membership function which depends only
on $r = \sqrt{\varphi^2 + \eta^2}$ and which decreases monotonically from a positive value when $r = 0$ to zero when $r = R$. For use with the cone-like algorithm, it is sufficient to specify $U(\eta, \varphi, \varepsilon) = \varepsilon$, where $\varepsilon$ is a very small positive constant.

Within FFTJet, energy resolution performance of the cone algorithm\textsuperscript{17} can be easily improved upon in two ways: by introducing different bandwidth values for $\eta$ and $\varphi$ variables (as illustrated in Section 5 of this paper), and by choosing the $R$ parameter separately for each jet, in a manner consistent with the event topology discovered during the pattern recognition stage. It may also be interesting to apply cone-like recombination stage iteratively, using a procedure in which the cone radius for the next iteration depends on the jet $p_T$ determined during the previous iteration.\textsuperscript{18}

4.6. Jet Energy Recombination Schemes

At the time of this writing, three energy recombination schemes are supported by FFTJet code. The first two are straightforward weighted modifications of the schemes commonly employed at the hadron collider experiments. The third one sets the jet direction to the precluster direction. The latter definition can potentially be useful for high occupancy/high noise events or when pattern recognition is performed with filters optimized for some specific signal and background processes.

Scheme 1. Weighted 4-vector recombination scheme (often called $E$-scheme):

$$P_j = \sum_{\eta, \varphi} w_j(\eta, \varphi) P(\eta, \varphi),$$

where $P(\eta, \varphi)$ is the 4-vector associated with the energy deposit at $(\eta, \varphi)$. For “crisp” clustering, all weights $w_j(\eta, \varphi)$ for jet number $j$ are either 0 or 1.

\textsuperscript{17}The pattern recognition performance of the cone algorithm can be reproduced exactly by using the Epanechnikov kernel at the pattern recognition stage. Of course, in practice you will want to make better pattern recognition kernel choices.

\textsuperscript{18}For example, one can choose $R \propto p_T^\alpha$, $\alpha < 0$ ( $\alpha$ must be negative to ensure convergence). The optimal choice of $\alpha$ will depend on the balance of uncertainties due to event occupancy, calorimeter noise and energy resolution, pileup, out-of-cone leakage, etc. The simple choice of $\alpha = -1$ can be advocated on the basis of kinematic arguments alone [28].
Scheme 2. Weighted Original Snowmass scheme (also called $E_T$ or $p_T$ centroid scheme):

$$
\varepsilon_j = \sum_{\eta, \phi} w_j(\eta, \phi) \varepsilon(\eta, \phi), \quad \eta_j = \frac{\sum_{\eta, \phi} w_j(\eta, \phi) \varepsilon(\eta, \phi) \eta}{\varepsilon_j},
$$

$$
\phi_j = \phi_{\text{precluster},j} + \frac{\sum_{\eta, \phi} w_j(\eta, \phi) \varepsilon(\eta, \phi) \Delta \phi_j}{\varepsilon_j}.
$$

The variable $\varepsilon$ is chosen by the user. Normally, this should be either $E_T$ (if $\eta$ represents pseudorapidity) or $p_T$ (if $\eta$ represents rapidity). $\Delta \phi_j$ is defined as $\phi - \phi_{\text{precluster},j}$ moved to the interval from $-\pi$ to $\pi$. This recombination scheme can potentially outperform the 4-vector scheme when jets are reconstructed using calorimeter towers, and a strong magnetic field is present in the detector.

Scheme 3. Precluster direction scheme:

$$
\varepsilon_j = \sum_{\eta, \phi} w_j(\eta, \phi) \varepsilon(\eta, \phi), \quad \eta_j = \eta_{\text{precluster},j}, \quad \phi_j = \phi_{\text{precluster},j}
$$

The energy recombination step can be performed using as input either a collection of 4-vectors or the discretized energy flow in the $\eta$-$\phi$ space. The latter approach may be convenient for reconstructing jets from calorimeter data.

4.7. Implementation

The details of the algorithm mapping into C++ classes and the user API are described in the FFTJet package user manual distributed together with the code [27]. The package comes with several top-level driver classes which combine multiple steps of the algorithm into convenient API units. Example executables are provided. These examples illustrate package usage with both single-scale and multiresolution pattern recognition stages.

5. Performance

This section illustrates FFTJet performance with a cone-like, easy to calibrate jet model and a simple synthetic dataset. It is assumed that jets are reconstructed with a projective geometry calorimeter placed in a 3.8 T magnetic field. The width of each calorimeter tower in $\eta$ and $\phi$ is taken to
be $2\pi/64 \approx 0.10$. Two distinct, independent light quark jets per event are generated using PYTHIA 6.4 [29] single jet gun, using default PYTHIA tune. The $p_T$ of the first jet is fixed at 50 GeV/$c$ and its direction is randomized across the face of one of the calorimeter towers near $\eta = 0$. The second jet is directed inside a circle around the first jet in such a manner that the distribution of $\Delta r = \sqrt{(\Delta \eta)^2 + (\Delta \phi)^2}$ is flat and the orientation of the $(\Delta \eta, \Delta \phi)$ vector is uniform and random. The $p_T$ spectrum of the second jet is flat between 1 and 100 GeV/$c$. The 4-momenta of these jets are defined as the sum of the 4-momenta of all stable particles within the jet except neutrinos.

Stable charged particles are propagated along helical trajectories to the assumed calorimeter radius of 2.0 m, while the neutral particles fly straight. The energies are accumulated for each tower separately. Neutrinos and the charged particles which do not have enough transverse momentum to reach the calorimeter do not contribute. The shower development in the calorimeter is not modeled. The calorimeter is assumed to have ideal energy response and a noise of $\sigma_n = 0.15$ GeV per tower. The tower threshold of $2.5\sigma_n$ is applied before the jet reconstruction is performed. In this virtual setup, the calorimeter granularity, noise, magnetic field, and tower threshold are not far from the values actually used in real particle detectors, while the ideal energy response permits characterization of the jet energy resolution performance of different algorithms without having to disentangle the detector effects.

The jet reconstruction algorithms compared are:

- **FFTJet-1:** the FFTJet package is configured to use a single-scale pattern recognition stage. The pattern recognition kernel is the Gaussian kernel corrected for the energy flow discretization effects, as described in section 4.2. The parameter $\sigma_\eta$ is set to 0.1, $\sigma_\phi$ is set to 0.3, the peak magnitude cutoff is 0.4. Crisp clustering is used, with jet membership function represented by the elliptical cone:

$$M(\eta, \phi, \varepsilon, s) = \begin{cases} 1 - \sqrt{\left(\frac{\eta}{R_\eta}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\phi}{R_\phi}\right)^2}, & \left(\frac{\eta}{R_\eta}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\phi}{R_\phi}\right)^2 < 1 \\ 0, & \left(\frac{\eta}{R_\eta}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\phi}{R_\phi}\right)^2 \geq 1 \end{cases}$$

with $R_\eta = 0.2887$ and $R_\phi = 3R_\eta$. The area of the base of such a cone is the same as the area of the circle with $R = 0.5$. In this configuration, the jet membership function has no dependence on $\varepsilon$, $s$, or jet number. The background membership function is a small constant.
• **SISCone**: the SISCone algorithm [30] is configured with \( R = 0.5 \), the minimal \( p_T \) for protojets 0.5 GeV/c, and unlimited number of passes. The overlap parameter for the split-merge stage is set to 0.75. The standalone algorithm implementation is used [31].

• **\( k_T \)**: the \( k_T \) algorithm is used with \( R = 0.5 \) and minimal \( p_T \) for protojets 0.5 GeV/c.

• **Anti-\( k_T \)**: the anti-\( k_T \) algorithm [32] is used with \( R = 0.5 \) and minimal \( p_T \) for protojets 0.5 GeV/c. Both \( k_T \) and anti-\( k_T \) algorithms implementations are taken from the FastJet package [33].

The 4-vector recombination scheme is used with all algorithms. Similar jet size parameters are chosen so that the conclusions of this study are not expected to change with the inclusion of uncertainty contributions from the calorimeter energy resolution and pileup.

Figures 4 and 5 compare the event reconstruction efficiencies and the relative \( p_T \) reconstruction uncertainties for these algorithms. These characteristics are presented as functions of \( \Delta r \) between the two generated jets and the generated transverse momentum of the second jet, \( p_{T,\text{gen}} \) (flat spectra in \( \Delta r \) and \( p_{T,\text{gen}} \) were chosen precisely in order to simplify construction and interpretation of these plots). On average, \( 1.1 \times 10^3 \) events were generated per each \( p_{T,\text{gen}}, \Delta r \) bin plotted. To determine the efficiency, the reconstructed jets are matched to the generated jets in the \( \eta-\varphi \) space. First, the pair of jets with the smallest value of \( \Delta R_{ij} = \sqrt{(\eta_{\text{reco},i} - \eta_{\text{gen},j})^2 + (\varphi_{\text{reco},i} - \varphi_{\text{gen},j})^2} \) is determined and removed from subsequent consideration. Then the best match is determined for the remaining generated jet. The efficiency is defined as the fraction of events in which both \( \Delta R_{ij} \) values are below 0.3. The relative \( p_T \) reconstruction uncertainty is defined as the width of the \( p_{T,\text{reco}}/p_{T,\text{gen}} \) distribution in each \( p_{T,\text{gen}}, \Delta r \) bin (using only events which satisfy the \( \Delta R_{ij} < 0.3 \) requirement), where \( p_{T,\text{reco}} \) is the transverse momentum of the reconstructed jet matched to the second generated jet. The width is calculated as one half of the difference between 84.13\(^{\text{th}}\) and 15.87\(^{\text{th}}\) percentiles. For the Gaussian distribution, this robust estimate of the width coincides with the standard deviation. The distributions are corrected in each bin so that the median is exactly 1 (i.e., \( p_{T,\text{reco}} \) values are multiplied by a constant calculated separately for each bin). In the plots, the width estimate is shown only for the bins for which the reconstruction efficiency defined in the above manner exceeds 50% (at lower efficiencies the width is dominated by mismatched jets).
Figure 4: Jet reconstruction efficiency for different algorithms.

Figure 6 presents the uncertainty ratios in which the relative $p_T$ reconstruction uncertainties for different algorithms are in the numerator and the FFTJet-1 uncertainty is in the denominator. The division is performed bin-by-bin, and the result is set to zero if either the numerator efficiency or the denominator efficiency for that bin is less than 50%. Median uncertainty ratios (using non-zero bins only) are listed in Table 1. The table also shows the average fake rate which is defined for the purpose of this study as the fraction of events which have a reconstructed jet with $p_T > 10$ GeV/$c$ not matched to a generated jet (i.e., there are two other reconstructed jets which produce better matches).

Due to a more appropriate jet shape model (elliptical instead of circular), FFTJet-1 outperforms all other algorithms used in this study by a significant margin. The intrinsic jet $p_T$ resolution uncertainties of other algorithms are larger than the FFTJet-1 uncertainty by $\approx 30\%$. It is clear from Fig. 4 that
the $SISCone$ algorithm performance is significantly hampered by the split-merge stage which creates a complicated efficiency dependence on $\Delta r$ and $p_{T,\text{gen}}$ and results in a reduced efficiency overall. Because of this problem,
Table 1: Summary of the results within the $\Delta r < 1.5$ and $p_{T,\text{gen}} < 100 \text{ GeV}/c$ limits. These numbers can be viewed as an approximate guide for ordering jet algorithms according to their performance in a strong magnetic field.

| Quantity                        | FFTJet-1 | SISCone | $k_T$ | Anti-$k_T$ |
|---------------------------------|----------|---------|-------|-----------|
| Average efficiency, %           | 65       | 51      | 64    | 64        |
| Average fake rate, %            | 0.1      | 0.3     | 0.7   | 0.2       |
| Median $p_T$ uncertainty ratio  | 1.00     | 1.29    | 1.27  | 1.32      |

*SISCone* can not be recommended for reconstructing multijet, high occupancy events. It can also be argued that, compared to $k_T$ and Anti-$k_T$, the efficiency pattern exhibited by FFTJet-1 can potentially be more useful. FFTJet-1 remains efficient at smaller $\Delta r$ values instead of the low $p_{T,\text{gen}}$ region where reliable jet reconstruction is prevented by poor jet $p_T$ resolution.

6. Acknowledgements

The author thanks the Jet Algorithms Group of the CMS collaboration for comments and discussions. The development of the FFTJet package was supported in part by the US Department of Energy grant DE-FG02-95ER40938.

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