

# Automated detector simulation and reconstruction parametrization using machine learning

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## Abstract

Rapidly applying the effects of detector response to physics objects (e.g. electrons, muons, showers of particles) is essential in high energy physics. Currently available tools for the transformation from truth-level physics objects to reconstructed detector-level physics objects involve manually defining resolution functions. These resolution functions are typically derived in bins of variables that are correlated with the resolution (e.g. pseudorapidity and transverse momentum). This process is time consuming, requires manual updates when detector conditions change, and can miss important correlations. Machine learning offers a way to automate the process of building these truth-to-reconstructed object transformations and can capture complex correlation for any given set of input variables. Such machine learning algorithms, with sufficient optimization, could have a wide range of applications: improving phenomenological studies by using a better detector representation, allowing for more efficient production of Geant4 simulation by only simulating events within an interesting part of phase space, and studies on future experimental sensitivity to new physics.

## 9 I. INTRODUCTION

10 A cornerstone of particle collision experiments is the Monte Carlo (MC) simulation of  
11 physics processes resulting from collisions of high-energy particles, followed by the simula-  
12 tion of detector responses and object reconstruction. The MC simulation produces final-state  
13 particles (hadrons, leptons, photons) with properties (four momenta, flavor) which entirely  
14 depend on the physics processes occurring. These particles, as well as more complex de-  
15 rived objects (such as jets), are commonly referred to as “truth” objects. These objects  
16 are altered by interactions with the detector and are reconstructed with experimental al-  
17 gorithms. Such objects, that have undergone a transformation due to detector interactions  
18 and reconstruction will be referred to as “reco” objects in this paper.

19 With the increased complexity of high-energy collider experiments, such as those at the  
20 Large Hadron Collider (LHC), the detector simulations become increasing complex and time  
21 consuming. Parameterized detector simulations, such as Delphes [1], have been proven to  
22 be a vital tool for physics performance and phenomenological studies (i.e. to estimate the  
23 sensitivity of an experiment to a new physics model). Producing an approximation of the  
24 detector in Delphes is a laborious process as developers must manually define resolution  
25 functions based on additional studies that involve analyses of experimental data or complex  
26 detector simulations used by experiments. An approximation of the detector responses and  
27 experimental object reconstruction can, however, also be performed with machine learning  
28 (ML) by training a neural network (NN) using the Geant4-based simulations that have gone  
29 through an experiment’s reconstruction algorithm. Such an NN could then automatically  
30 learn the transformation functions from truth MC objects (jets and particles) to objects  
31 modified by a detector and experimental reconstruction algorithms.

32 The main advantage of a detector parametrization based on ML, as compared to a  
33 manually-constructed analytic parametrization such as Delphes, is that a neural network  
34 can automatically learn the features introduced by detailed full simulations avoiding the  
35 need to handcraft parameters to represent resolutions and inefficiencies. An NN trained  
36 using realistic detector simulation could learn the transformation from the truth to the reco  
37 quantities without dedicated studies of resolution functions and could automatically be up-  
38 dated when there are changes to the detector or the reconstructions algorithms. Another  
39 advantage is that the NN approach can introduce a complex interdependence of variables

40 which is currently difficult to implement in parameterized simulations.

41 The organization of this paper is as follows. In Section II, the traditional method of  
 42 parametrizing detector and reconstruction effects are described. Section III contains a de-  
 43 scription of the samples used to train the NN. The details of the NNs structure and param-  
 44 eters are reported in Sections IV. Finally, the results from the trained NN are presented in  
 45 Section V.

## 46 II. TRADITIONAL PARAMETERIZED FAST SIMULATIONS

47 In abstract terms, a typical variable  $\xi_i^{\text{reco}}$  that characterizes a reconstructed particle/jet,  
 48 such as transverse momentum ( $p_T^{\text{reco}}$ ) or pseudorapidity ( $\eta^{\text{reco}}$ ), can be viewed as the result  
 49 of a multivariate transform,  $F$ , of the original variable  $\xi_1^{\text{truth}}$  at truth level:

$$\xi_1^{\text{reco}} = F(\xi_1^{\text{truth}}, \xi_2^{\text{truth}}, \xi_3^{\text{truth}}, \dots, \xi_N^{\text{truth}}).$$

50 Generally, such a transform depends on several other variables  $\xi_2^{\text{truth}} \dots \xi_N^{\text{truth}}$  characterizing  
 51 this (or other) objects at truth level. For example, the extent at which jet transverse  
 52 momentum,  $p_T$  is modified by a detector depends on the original truth-level transverse  
 53 momentum ( $\xi_1^{\text{truth}} = p_T^{\text{truth}}$ ), pseudorapidity ( $\xi_2^{\text{truth}} = \eta^{\text{truth}}$ ), and other effects that can be  
 54 inferred from truth quantities. Similarly, if particular detector regions in the azimuthal angle  
 55 ( $\phi$ ) have low efficiency, this would introduce an additional dependence of this transform on  
 56  $\phi$ .

57 Typical parameterized simulations ignore the full range of correlations between the truth-  
 58 level variables. In most cases, the above transform is reduced to a single variable, or two  
 59 (as in the case of Delphes simulations where the energy resolution of clusters depends on  
 60 the original energies of particles and their positions in  $\eta$ ). In order to take into account  
 61 correlations between multiple parameters characterizing transformations to reconstruction  
 62 objects, a grid in the hypercube with the dimension  $N_b^k$ , where  $k=1,2,3,\dots$  is the number of  
 63 correlated variables describing truth-level objects and  $N_b$  is the number of histogram bins  
 64 for the distributions  $(\xi^{\text{reco}} - \xi^{\text{truth}})/\xi^{\text{truth}}$ , representing the “resolution”, must be created.  
 65 This methodology results in a large number of histograms when there are many correlated  
 66 variables that affect the resolution.

67 It should be pointed out that the calculation speed for parameterized simulations of one

variable that depends on  $N$  other variables at the truth level is proportional to  $N_b^k$  since each object at the truth level should be placed inside the grid defined by  $N_b$  bins. Therefore, complex parameterisations of resolutions and efficiencies for  $N > 2$  becomes computationally intensive.

### III. MONTE CARLO SIMULATED EVENT SAMPLES

Monte Carlo events used for this analysis were produced using the Madgraph generator [2]. The simulated processes are a combination of equal event samples with top pair production ( $t\bar{t}$ ) and photons produced in association with jets ( $\gamma$ +jets), which give a high rate of jets in different environments. Hadronic jets were reconstructed with the FASTJET package [3] using the anti- $k_t$  algorithm [4] with a distance parameter of 0.4. The detector simulation was performed with the Delphes package with a detector geometry which is similar to the ATLAS geometry. The event samples used for the following study are available from the HepSim database [5]. In this paper, only the transformation of  $p_T$  from truth jets (which have truth particle constituents) to reconstructed jets (which have calorimeter cell constituent) was performed. However, the methodology should be object and parameter agnostic. Only truth jets which are matched to a reconstructed Delphes jet are considered in this study. For the matching criteria the reconstructed jet that has the smallest  $\Delta R \equiv \sqrt{\Delta\phi^2 + \Delta\eta^2}$ , where  $\Delta\phi \equiv \phi^{\text{truth}} - \phi^{\text{reco}}$  and  $\Delta\eta \equiv \eta^{\text{truth}} - \eta^{\text{reco}}$ , with respect to the truth jet is chosen. If this minimum  $\Delta R$  is greater than 0.2, the truth jet is discarded. No other requirements are made on truth and reconstructed Delphes jets other than the  $p_T > 15$  GeV requirement in Delphes. Only matched jets are used since the aim of the study is to test whether an NN can learn changes in detector resolution as a function of kinematic properties of the jet (e.g.  $p_T$ ,  $\eta$ ,  $\phi$ ,  $m$ ). The final number of training jets used is two million while 500,000 jets were used as an independent test sample. The distributions of quantities used as the input for the NN,  $p_T$ ,  $\eta$ ,  $\phi$ ,  $m$ , are shown in Figure 1.

To facilitate training and to smooth the hypersurface formed by the input variables, the input variables are scaled to be in the range [0,1]. This avoids the  $p_T$  and the mass from having a disproportional affect on the training of the NN. The output variable,  $(p_T^{\text{reco}} - p_T^{\text{truth}})/p_T^{\text{truth}}$ , is also scaled to have values between 0 and 1. Only jets that are within the 1<sup>st</sup> and 99<sup>th</sup> percentile of the  $(p_T^{\text{reco}} - p_T^{\text{truth}})/p_T^{\text{truth}}$  distribution are considered.

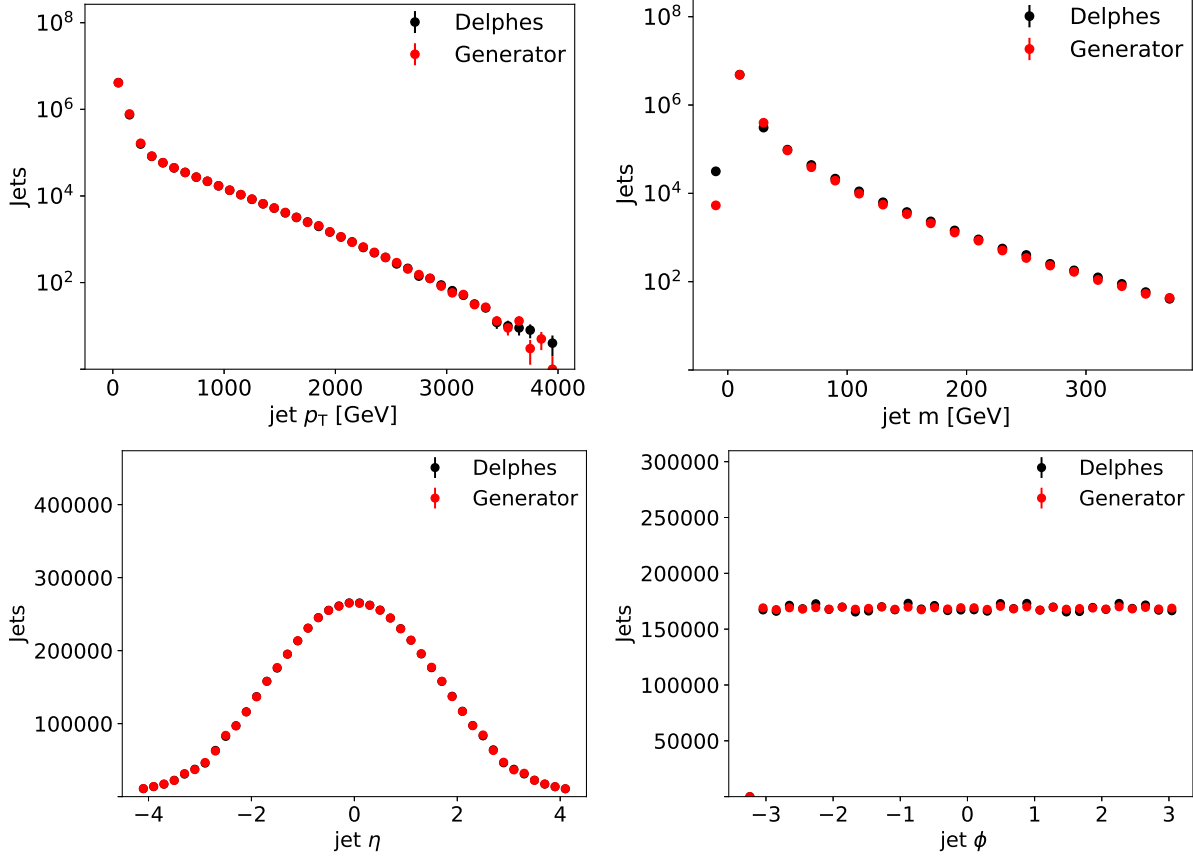


FIG. 1. Distributions for input variables for truth (red) and reco quantities (black).

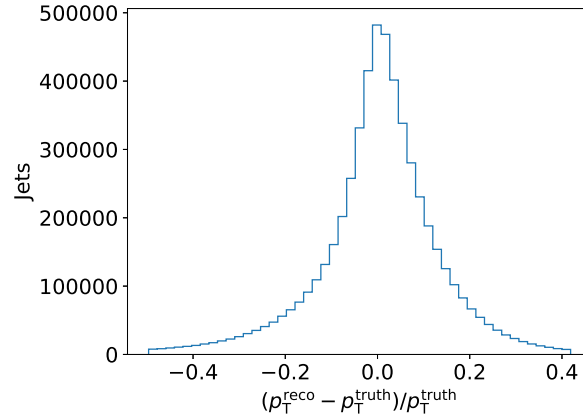


FIG. 2. Resolution of the  $p_T$  (relative differences between truth and reco  $p_T$ ).

#### 98 IV. JET TRUTH-TO-RECO TRANSFORMATION WITH ML

99 To test the viability of using ML to transform truth objects to reco objects, we studied  
 100 the truth-to-reco transformation for jets. Jet truth-level quantities, such as jet  $p_T$ ,  $\eta$ ,  $\phi$  and

jet mass ( $m$ ) are used as training inputs to an NN while the output is an array of nodes that represent the binned probability density function (PDF) of the resolution for a single variable (such as jet  $p_T$ ). Additional input can consist of any variable that can influence the resolution of a jet, such as jet flavor at the truth level, jet radius, etc. Figure 3 shows a schematic representation of the NN architecture for modelling the detector response for a single output variable. The aim is to have the NN learn the shape of the resolution PDF, for example for the  $p_T$ , depending on other input variables such as the  $\eta$  of the object. A binned output (multi-categorization) was used so that the precision of the resolution PDF modelling can be chosen.

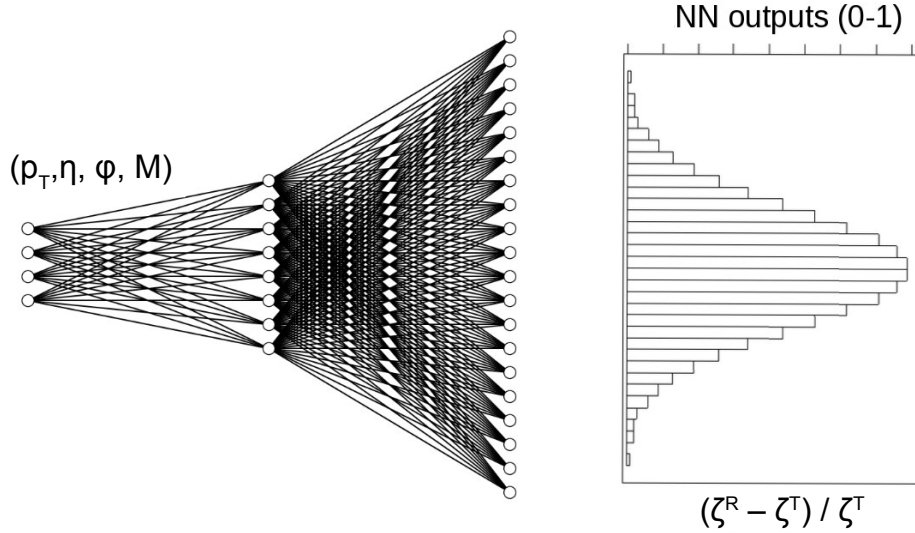


FIG. 3. A schematic representation of the NN architecture for modelling the detector response and affect of reconstruction algorithms on truth-level input variables. The output nodes of this NN represent a binned PDF for the resolution of single variable, e.g.  $(p_T^{\text{reco}} - p_T^{\text{truth}})/p_T^{\text{truth}}$ , while other variables such  $\eta$ ,  $\phi$ , mass ( $m$ ) are auxiliary variables that affect  $(p_T^{\text{reco}} - p_T^{\text{truth}})/p_T^{\text{truth}}$ .

As a first step towards parameterized detector simulations with ML, it is instructive to investigate how a transformation from the truth to reco objects can be performed, leaving aside the question of introducing objects that are created by misreconstructions or objects that are lost due to inefficiencies. As far as the authors are aware, this is the first attempt at using an NN to learn the transformation of truth physics objects into reco objects.

An NN is trained with four input parameters, the scaled jet  $p_T$ ,  $\eta$ ,  $\phi$ , and  $m$ . The NN consists of five fully connected layers with 100 nodes each, with each node having a rectifier

linear unit (ReLU) activation function. The output layer has 400 nodes and a softmax activation function. The NN is trained using the Adam [6] optimizer with a learning rate of  $10^{-4}$  and is implemented using Keras with a TensorFlow [7] backend. Finally, categorical cross-entropy is used as the loss function.

To optimize the NN, several output layer configurations are tested by varying the number of output nodes from 50 to 500, all with a softmax activation function. The configuration with 400 output nodes resulted in the best performance, measured by how well the NN could mimic the Delphes  $p_T$  spectrum and resolution (see below for details), with the least number of total NN parameters. The figure of merit for choosing the number of output nodes was the maximal deviation of the ratio between the  $p_T$  spectrum produced by the NN and the  $p_T$  spectrum produced by Delphes (see the bottom panel of Figure 5 for the final ratios). The configuration with the smallest maximal deviation with the least number of nodes was chosen (the deviation didn't improve when going to 500 nodes).

Additionally, for the NN training, several batch-size and number-of-epoch combinations are probed to test whether these parameters cause a change in sensitivity to small subsamples (specifically, forward jets) of the training sample. Changing the batch size without modifying the number of epochs would result in a change in the total number updates to the NN parameters during back propagation. To avoid this, the number of backpropagations ( $N_{bp}$ ) are held constant by keeping the ratio of the number of epochs ( $N_e$ ) and batch size ( $N_b$ ) constant since  $N_{bp} = \frac{N_t}{N_b} N_e$  where  $N_t$  is the number of training jets. The performance of the resulting NNs is evaluated by comparing the Kolmogorov-Smirnov (KS) test statistic for the  $(p_T^{\text{reco}} - p_T^{\text{truth}})/p_T^{\text{truth}}$  of forward jets in Delphes and for the NN-produced jets. Batch size and number of epochs of 5, 10, 20, 100, 200, 1000 are tested resulting negligible differences in the KS test statistic for the different NNs.

Finally, the loss function for both the training (2 million jets) and test sample (500,000 jets) is evaluated for each epoch. The values of the loss function for the training and testing sample are found to be within 1% of each other at the end of training.

## V. RESULTS

After the NN has been trained to learn the PDF of  $(p_T^{\text{reco}} - p_T^{\text{truth}})/p_T^{\text{truth}}$ , the resulting learned PDF is compared to the Delphes PDF using the test sample in Figure 4a. Good

147 agreement is observed between the Delphes and NN PDFs, showing that the NN has learned  
 148 the bulk distribution.

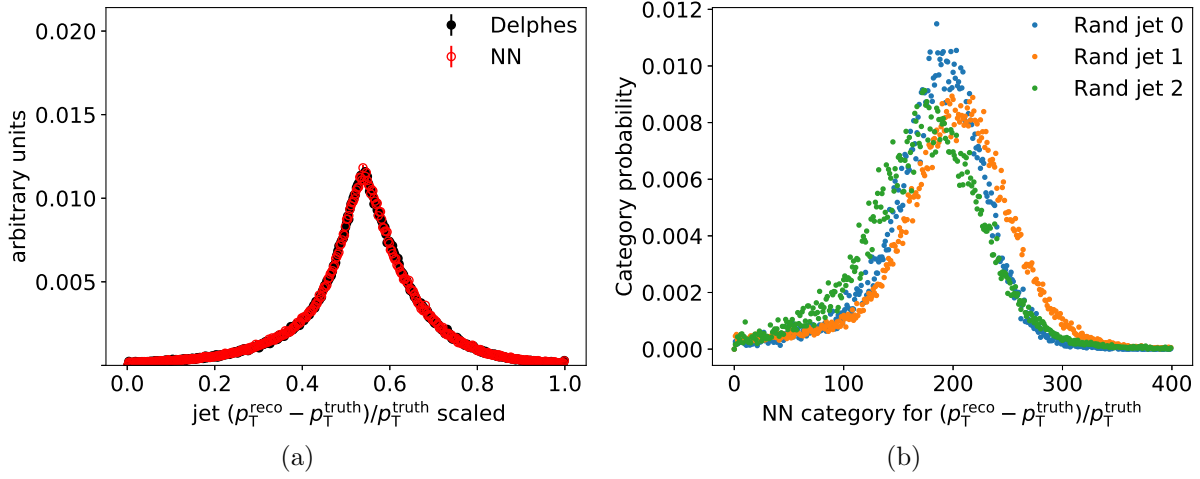


FIG. 4. NN-generated jet  $(p_T^{\text{reco}} - p_T^{\text{truth}})/p_T^{\text{truth}}$  compared to Delphes reco jet  $(p_T^{\text{reco}} - p_T^{\text{truth}})/p_T^{\text{truth}}$   
 (a). Representative values of the NN output after training for three randomly selected truth jets  
 which have different input values (b).

149 The NN output represents a binned PDF for each jet based on its input parameters (i.e.  
 150  $p_T$ ,  $\phi$ ,  $\eta$ , and  $m$ ). The PDFs for a set of three randomly selected jets are shown in Figure 4b  
 151 which features shapes expected for typical resolution function with variations due to changes  
 152 in jet input parameters. These PDFs are then randomly sampled to produce an NN jet that  
 153 mimics the reco jet. A comparison of the NN-generated and Delphes jet  $p_T$  distribution for  
 154 the test sample is shown in Figure 5. The NN reproduces the jet  $p_T$  distribution of Delphes  
 155 within 5% for reconstructed jets with  $p_T > 20$  GeV.

156 To test whether the NN learned correlations between input parameters and the  $p_T$  res-  
 157 olution, the jets were divided into central ( $|\eta| < 3.2$ ) and forward ( $|\eta| > 3.2$ ) jets. The  $p_T$   
 158 resolution is then compared between the two regions for both the Delphes jets as well as the  
 159 NN-generated jets. These two regions in the detector simulation have different calorimeter  
 160 responses which results in different jet  $p_T$  resolutions in these two  $|\eta|$  regions. The resulting  
 161 resolutions for both regions are shown in Figure 6 using the training sample. The training  
 162 sample was chosen for this comparison because forward jets make up a small subsample of  
 163 all jets, as can be seen in Figure 1.

164 The mean and standard deviation of the resolution (demonstrated in Figure 4) as a



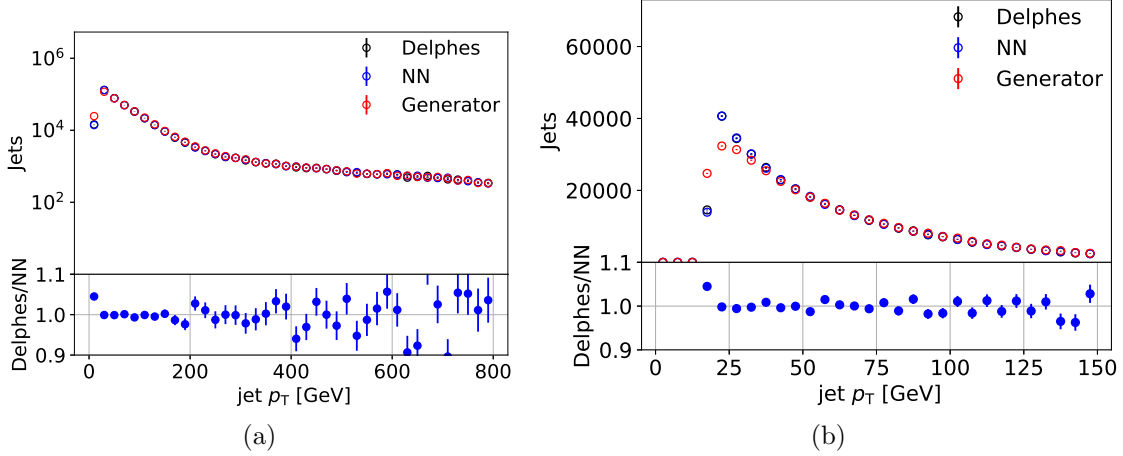


FIG. 5. Delphes and NN-generated jet  $p_T$  distributions for a wide (a) and narrow (b)  $p_T$  range.

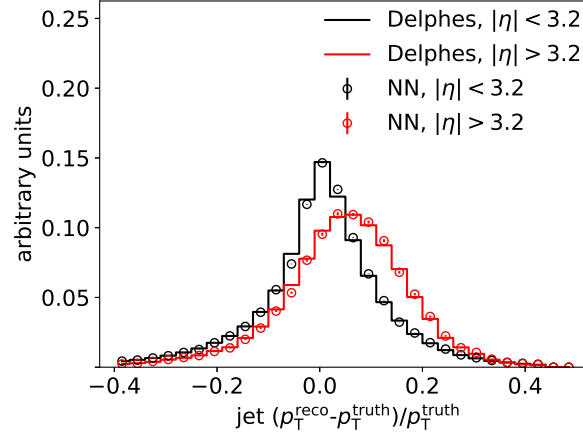


FIG. 6. Jet  $p_T$  resolution for the training sample for both the central and forward region.

function of  $p_T$  is shown in Figure 7. The mean of the resolution for the NN is systematically higher than the resolution for Delphes. This difference between the means has a small effect on truth-to-reco transformation due to its small size relative to the width of the resolution. The standard deviation of the resolutions, however, are the same for the NN and Delphes across the  $p_T$  range showing that the NN accurately predicts the resolutions for a large range in  $p_T$ .

In order to produce an NN with optimal performance and a minimal amount of parameters, a genetic algorithm (GA) is used to optimize the NN hyperparameters. GAs are commonly used for NN hyperparameter optimizations [8] but are not commonly used in high energy physics. The number of layers, number of neurons in each layer, and choice of

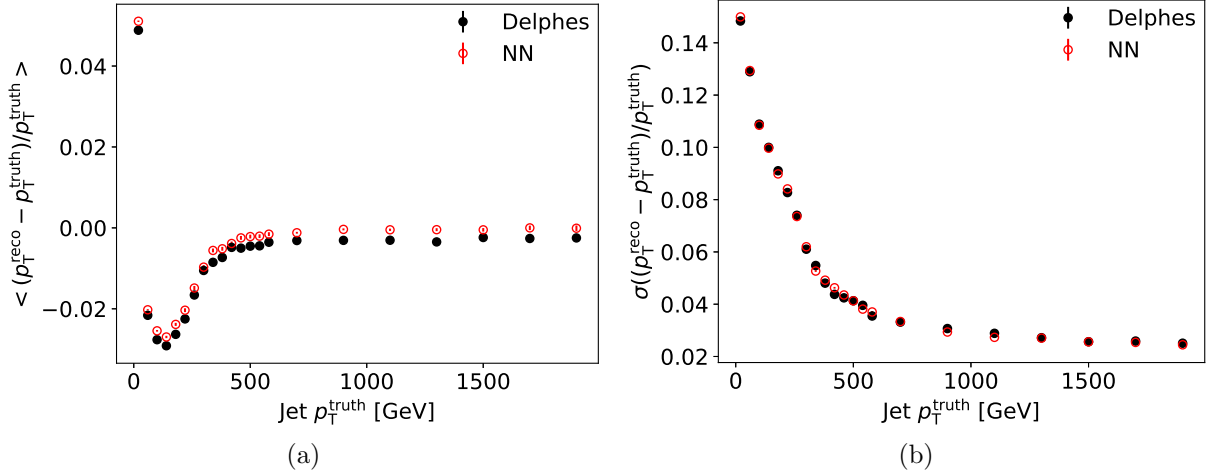


FIG. 7. The mean (a) and standard deviation of the jet  $p_T$  resolution for Delphes and NN-generated as a function truth jet  $p_T$ .

the learning rate are scanned to find the optimal configuration. The GA utilized is an evolutionary algorithm that mimics the process of natural selection and which was previously used in the determination of the parameters of a complex force field [9, 10]. During the optimization, the sets of parameters are ranked by their value of categorical accuracy. The final set of parameters selected by the GA had similar performance to the initial configuration. This is expected due to the small scale of our problem and because Delphes using Gaussian approximations of the resolution functions. The GA is tested in this scenario to prepare it for future studies where an NN will be optimized to learn non-linear and non-gaussian resolution functions typically seen in Geant4 simulations.

## VI. CONCLUSION

A truth-level to reconstruction-level transformation using an NN classifier is presented. This approach does not require the determination of analytic resolution functions since an NN can automatically learn the resolutions during the training procedure. The jet  $p_T$  distribution produced by the NN is within 5% of the  $p_T$  distribution from Delphes for jets with  $15 < p_T < 400$  GeV. The NN also effectively learned the truth-to-reconstruction transformation without requiring manual binning to capture the differences in resolutions of particular subsamples (i.e. central and forward jets). Finally, the NN was able to learn the both the mean and width of the resolution over a wide range of jet  $p_T$  (15 GeV to 2 TeV).

193 This automatic learning of correlations between the input variables (i.e.  $p_T$  and  $\eta$ ) and the  
194 resolution is one of the attractive features of using an ML-based transformation, allowing  
195 for rapid deployment of detector parametrizations.

196 This method can be extended and improved by including more information about the  
197 objects (e.g. whether a  $b$ -quark is present in a jet, kinematic information from other objects  
198 in the event) potentially making this method more robust. This method could be extendable  
199 to additional reconstructed quantities and could be used to automatically model the ATLAS  
200 and CMS detectors. Another improvement left for future studies is the use of mixture density  
201 networks [11] to estimate resolution functions as a combination of Gaussians. The method  
202 described in this paper allows for automated detector parametrization which can facilitate  
203 phenomenological studies, efficient truth event selection, and upgrade studies.

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