

**Search for Supersymmetry in opposite-sign  
same-flavour dilepton events with the CMS  
detector in proton-proton collisions at**

$$\sqrt{s} = 8 \text{ TeV}$$

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## **Zusammenfassung**

### **Abstract**



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# Contents

Zusammenfassung . . . . .	i
Abstract . . . . .	i
<b>1 Introduction</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>2 The Standard Model and its extension to Supersymmetry</b>	<b>3</b>
2.1 The Standard Model of particle physics . . . . .	3
2.2 Motivation for extending the Standard Model and Supersymmetry . . . . .	3
2.3 Production of lepton pairs in supersymmetric models . . . . .	3
2.4 Kinematic edges in the dilepton invariant mass spectrum . . . . .	3
<b>3 Experimental setup</b>	<b>5</b>
3.1 The CERN Large Hadron Collider . . . . .	5
3.2 The CMS detector . . . . .	6
3.2.1 The tracking system . . . . .	7
3.2.2 The electromagnetic calorimeter . . . . .	8
3.2.3 The hadron calorimeter . . . . .	10
3.2.4 The muon system . . . . .	12
3.3 Trigger and data acquisition . . . . .	14
<b>4 Data analysis and event selection</b>	<b>17</b>
4.1 Trigger and event processing . . . . .	17
4.2 Object reconstruction . . . . .	17
4.2.1 Electron reconstruction . . . . .	17
4.2.2 Particle Flow . . . . .	17
4.3 Datasets . . . . .	17
4.4 Event selection . . . . .	17
<b>5 Estimation of Standard Model backgrounds</b>	<b>19</b>
5.1 Flavour-symmetric backgrounds . . . . .	19
5.2 Backgrounds containing a Z boson . . . . .	19
5.3 Investigation of possible further backgrounds . . . . .	19
5.4 Search for a kinematic edge with a fit . . . . .	19
<b>6 Results</b>	<b>21</b>
6.1 Result of the counting experiment . . . . .	21
6.2 Result of the search for a kinematic edge . . . . .	21
<b>7 Interpretation in simplified models</b>	<b>23</b>
7.1 Simplified Models for Supersymmetric Signatures . . . . .	23
7.2 The T6bbledge and T6bbslepton model . . . . .	23
7.3 Interpretation of the counting experiment in simplified models . . . . .	23

<b>8 Outlook to LHC Run II</b>	<b>25</b>
<b>9 Conclusion</b>	<b>27</b>

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# **1 Introduction**



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## **2 The Standard Model and its extension to Supersymmetry**

**2.1 The Standard Model of particle physics**

**2.2 Motivation for extending the Standard Model and Supersymmetry**

**2.3 Production of lepton pairs in supersymmetric models**

**2.4 Kinematic edges in the dilepton invariant mass spectrum**



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## 3 Experimental setup

### 3.1 The CERN Large Hadron Collider

The Large Hadron Collider (LHC) [1], located at CERN near Geneva and stretching far into the french countryside, is capable of colliding protons and lead ions at higher energies than any of its predecessors. Also the instantaneous luminosity delivered to the experiments exceeds that of any previous machine at the energy frontier. It was constructed in the tunnel formerly inhabited by the LEP electron-positron collider in 100 m depths below the surface with a circumference 27 km. It was designed to collide protons at a centre-of-mass energy of  $\sqrt{s} = 14 \text{ TeV}$  with instantaneous luminosities of  $10^{34} \text{ s}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-2}$ .

The LHC consists of eight arcs, as shown in Figure 3.1, where superconducting dipole magnets are used to provide a magnetic field of up to 8.3 T at the highest planned energies to bend the charged particles along the curvature of the tunnel, while quadrupole and other specialised magnets are used to focus the beams. In straight segments between these arcs, LHC infrastructure and the experiments are located. The infrastructure components include the cooling facilities necessary to reach a temperature of 1.9 K around the ring, the superconducting cavities in which the protons are accelerated by standing electromagnetic waves, collimators for beam cleaning and the beam dump, where the beam is ejected from the LHC at the end of fills. In the other four straight segments the beam is brought into collisions, which are studied by the four large experiments at the LHC. Of these, CMS [2] and ATLAS [3] are multi-purpose detectors with a diverse physics program, while ALICE [3] and LHCb [4] are more narrowly focused on heavy ion collisions and flavour physics, respectively.

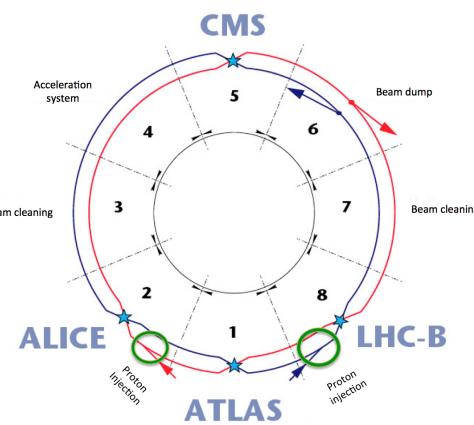


Figure 3.1: Schematic view of the LHC with its eight arcs. The four interaction points, where the experiments are located, are marked with blue stars. Other important parts of the LHC infrastructure are also indicated [5].

The protons circulating the LHC are injected at an energy of 450 GeV after running through a chain of pre-accelerators, the Linac2, the Proton Synchrotron Booster (PSB), the Proton Synchrotron (PS) and the Super Proton Synchrotron (SPS). The proton beams are separated into bunches of about  $10^{11}$  particles. Though being 25 ns by design, corresponding to up to 2808 bunches in the LHC, the smallest spacing between bunches in time was 50 ns throughout the running in 2012 and most of 2011. In these running conditions, after three years of running in the years 2010 to 2012, constituting the so called Run I of the LHC, a centre-of-mass energy of  $\sqrt{s} = 8$  TeV has been reached. The instantaneous luminosities delivered to the experiments reached a maximum of  $7.7 \cdot 10^{33} \text{ s}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-2}$  in late 2012, as can be seen on the left side of Figure 3.2. The integrated luminosity delivered to the CMS experiments in 2012 was  $23.3 \text{ fb}^{-1}$ , exceeding that of 2011 by almost a factor of four [6], as shown on the right side of Figure 3.2.

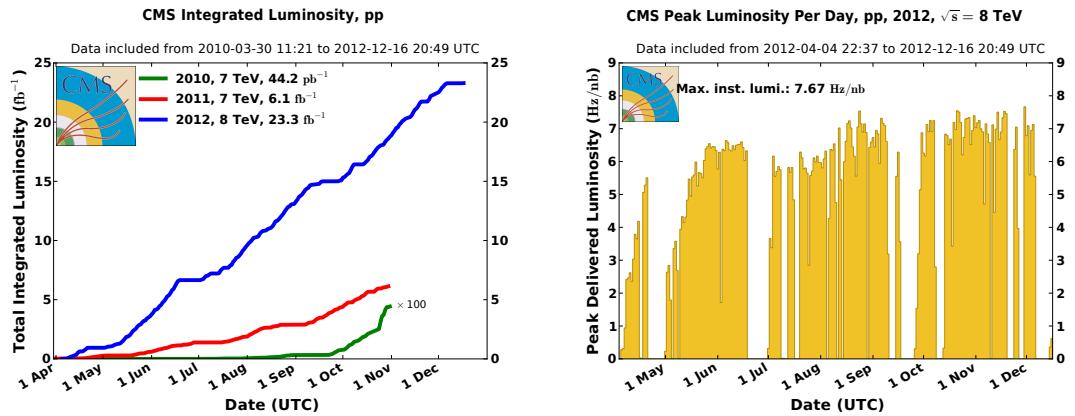


Figure 3.2: Development of instantaneous (left) and integrated (right) luminosity delivered to the CMS experiment. The left plots shows the results for all three years of data taking, while the right one only shows the 2012 data taking.

## 3.2 The CMS detector

Located in one of the four intersections of the LHC beams, the CMS detector is designed to measure the resulting collisions to high precision. Key ingredients are a high precision measurements of the properties of single particles as well as a good coverage of the  $4\pi$  solid angle. The central element of the CMS detector is a superconducting solenoid. Cooled to 4.45 K, it is able to produce a homogeneous magnetic field of 3.8 T, which allows to measure the momentum of charged particle by bending their trajectories. As shown in Figure 3.3, the different components of the detector are layered in cylindrical shapes around the interaction point. The magnet encompasses most of the main subdetectors, namely the tracking system which measures the trajectories of charged particles and the electromagnetic and hadron calorimeters, designed to measure the energy of particles. Located outside of the volume of the solenoid are the iron return yoke and muon detectors. This cylindrical structure is complemented on both sides by endcaps, which close the solid angle in the direction of the beams and are partly located outside the volume of the solenoid. The different components are described in more detail in the following.

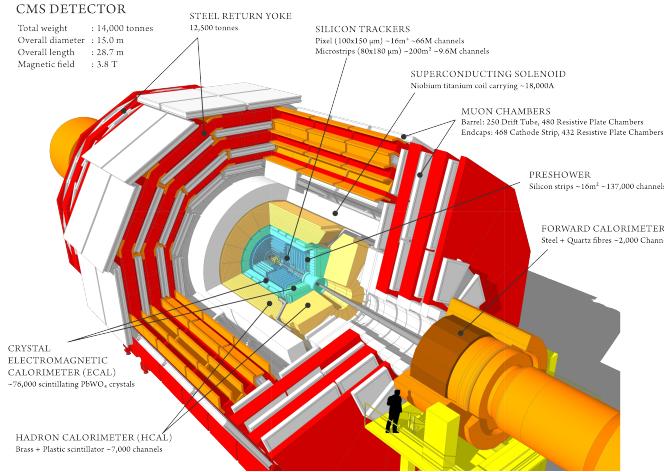


Figure 3.3: Schematic view of the CMS detector [7]. From the inside out, the tracking system is shown in blue, the electromagnetic calorimeter in green, the hadron calorimeter in light yellow, the superconducting solenoid in white, the return yoke in red and the muon system again in white.

### 3.2.1 The tracking system

The trajectory of charged particles can be determined by measuring the signal of the ionization they cause when traversing matter. The tracking system of the CMS detector consists of many layers of silicon pixels and strips. Combining the points at which a charged particle traverses the different layers, the trajectory of this particle can be measured. The bending of this trajectory under the influence of the magnetic field allows to determine the momentum of the particle. The tracking system has a diameter of 2.5 m and a length of 5.8 m, corresponding to a geometric coverage of  $|\eta| < 2.5$ . The tracking detector consists, as shown in Figure 3.4, of the pixel detector (PIXEL) surrounded by various components of the silicon strip tracker.

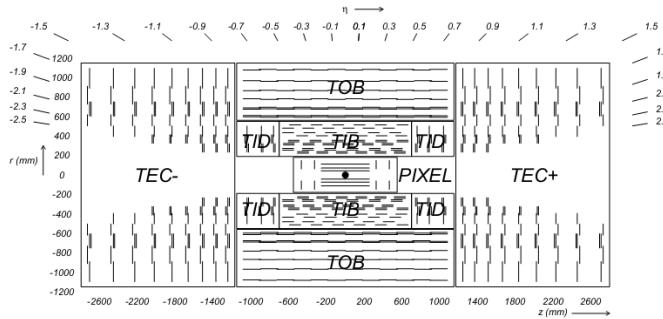


Figure 3.4: Schematic view of the CMS tracking detector. The innermost part shows the pixel detector (PIXEL), surrounded by the tracker inner barrel (TIB) and tracker inner discs (TID). The outermost parts of the tracking detector are the tracker outer barrel (TOB) and the two tracker endcaps (TEC+ and TEC-).

### The silicon pixel detector

The innermost part of the tracking system in the pixel detector, which consists of three layers in the barrel region at radii between 4.4 cm and 10.2 cm, complemented by two discs perpendicular to the beam axis, located at  $|z| = 34.5$  cm and  $|z| = 46.5$  cm. As the particle density is highest close to the interaction point, a high granularity is needed to maintain a low occupancy of the pixel detector. Therefore the pixel detector consists of roughly 66 million pixels with a combined active area of about  $1\text{ m}^2$ . Each pixel has a size of  $150 \times 100 \mu\text{m}^2$ . The analogue readout of the pixels allows to combine the measurements of neighbouring pixels, bringing the spatial resolution down to 15 to 20  $\mu\text{m}$ . This is especially important for the reconstruction of the interaction vertices and the tagging of the secondary vertices from the decay of b-hadrons.

### The silicon strip detector

Further away from the interaction point, between 20 cm and 116 cm, the granularity of the tracking system is reduced. Silicon strip detectors are used, structured in four layers of the tracker inner barrel (TIB), complemented on each side with three discs of the tracker inner discs (TID). All this is surrounded by the six layers of the tracker outer barrel (TOB). The tracker endcaps (TECs) consist of nine discs each. The individual strips have a length of about 10 cm and a pitch between 80  $\mu\text{m}$  in the two inner layers of the TIB and 183  $\mu\text{m}$  in the four inner layers of the TOB. The single point resolution in TIB and TOB depends on the layout of the specific layer and varies between 23  $\mu\text{m}$  and 53  $\mu\text{m}$ .

Stereo modules, constructed by placing two modules back to back, rotated by 100 mrad, are placed in the first two layers of both TIB and TOB, the first two discs of TID and the first two and the fifth discs of the TECs. These allow for 2-D measurements, with a precision of the  $z$  position measurement of 230  $\mu\text{m}$  in TIB and 530  $\mu\text{m}$  in TOB.

For high momentum tracks of about 100 GeV in the region of  $|\eta| < 1.6$  a  $p_T$  resolution of 1-2% is achieved, while the impact parameter of these tracks can be measured with a resolution of about 10  $\mu\text{m}$ .

Compared to other tracking technologies, an all silicon tracking system as used in CMS consists of significantly more material. The material budget lies between 0.4 and 1.8 radiation length  $X_0$ , as shown in Figure 3.5. For light charged particles such as electrons this leads to a significant probability to emit bremsstrahlung in while traversing the tracking detector, which has to be taken into account in the reconstruction of particles.

#### 3.2.2 The electromagnetic calorimeter

The electromagnetic calorimeter (ECAL) measures the energy of electrons and photons. It uses lead tungstate ( $\text{PbWO}_4$ ) crystals both as absorber and active material. The electromagnetic shower induced by the electron or photon leads to the emission of scintillation light in the crystal, which is measured at the end of the crystals by avalanche photo diodes (APDs) in

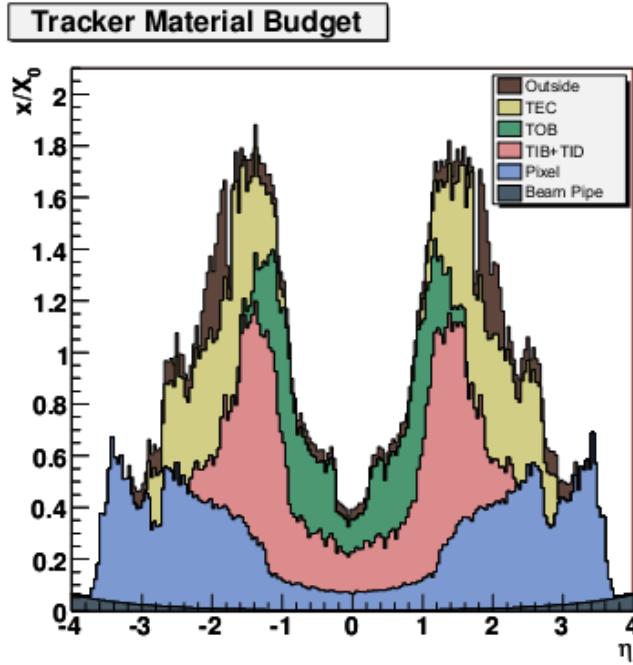


Figure 3.5: Material budget of the CMS tracking detector in units of radiation length  $X_0$  as a function of  $\eta$ .

the barrel segment of the ECAL and more radiation hard vacuum photo triodes (VTPs) in the endcap region. The choice of lead tungstate was driven by the need for a material that is at the same time dense ( $8.28 \text{ g/cm}^3$ ), has a small Molière radius (2.2 cm) and is fast. About 80% of the scintillation light is emitted after 25 ns, which is the time between two LHC bunch crossing under design conditions. The structure of the ECAL is shown in Figure 3.6. The ECAL barrel (EB) covers the region of  $|\eta| < 1.479$  and consists of 61200 crystals. They have a size of  $2.2 \times 2.2 \text{ cm}^2$  at the front and  $2.6 \times 2.6 \text{ cm}^2$  at the back, with a length of 23 cm, corresponding to  $25.8 X_0$ . In the ECAL endcaps (EE), consisting of 7324 crystal each, they are slightly larger ( $2.862 \times 2.862 \text{ cm}^2$  to  $3.0 \times 3.0 \text{ cm}^2$ ) and shorter (22 cm, corresponding to  $24.7 X_0$ ). The EEs extend the geometric coverage of the ECAL to  $|\eta| = 3.0$ .

In the region of  $1.653 < |\eta| < 2.6$  a preshower detector, consisting of two layers of silicon strips and two layers of lead absorber, is installed to distinguish between prompt photons and those from the decay  $\pi^0 \rightarrow \gamma\gamma$ . The strips, oriented perpendicular to each other, have a pitch of 2 mm, allowing to resolve the two showers of the photons from the  $\pi^0$ .

The production of scintillation photons per energy deposit is temperature depend. Therefore the ECAL is kept at a temperature of  $18 \pm 0.05^\circ\text{C}$ , where it is about 4.5 photons per MeV.

The typical resolution of the ECAL is parametrized as

$$\left(\frac{\sigma}{E}\right)^2 = \left(\frac{2.8\%}{\sqrt{E}}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{0.12}{E}\right)^2 + (0.30\%)^2, \quad (3.1)$$

with three terms describing different sources of uncertainty. The first term includes statistical

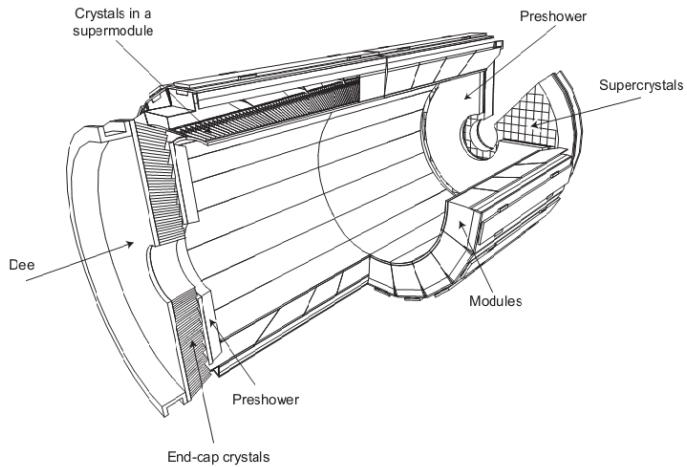


Figure 3.6: Schematic view of the CMS ECAL.

fluctuation in the production of scintillation light as well as the energy distribution over several crystals. The second term covers such sources of noise as electronic noise or pileup. The constant term accounts for other sources of uncertainties such as calibration errors. The size of the different contributions has been confirmed in test beam measurements [8].

### 3.2.3 The hadron calorimeter

The hadron calorimeter (HCAL) measures the energy of charged and neutral hadrons. In the barrel region of the detector it is situated between the back face of the ECAL and the coil of the solenoid, at radii between 1.7 m and 2.95 m, limiting the amount of material that can be used in its construction. Therefore additional detectors are placed outside of the volume of the magnet, forming the hadron outer calorimeter (HO). The HCAL barrel (HB) is complemented on each side by a HCAL endcap (HE) and the geometric coverage is extended to high values of  $|\eta|$  by dedicated forward calorimeters (HF). The placement of these subdetectors relative to the other components of CMS are shown in Figure 3.7.

#### The HCAL barrel and outer detectors (HB and HO)

The HB covers the geometric region  $|\eta| \leq 1.3$ . It is constructed as a sandwich calorimeter, consisting of plastic scintillator as the active material. For the absorber material, the fourteen inner layers of the HB are made from brass, while steel is used for the front and back plates of the HB to increase the stability of the construction. The scintillator is divided in 144 segments in  $\phi$  and 32 segments in  $\eta$ , resulting in a spatial granularity of 0.087 in both  $\eta$  and  $\phi$ . The scintillation light produced in the active material is transported to hybrid photo diodes using scintillating fibres. As all layers of one tower in  $\eta$  and  $\phi$  are read out by the same photo diode, there is no segmentation in the readout in  $r$ , except for the two towers closest to the HE on each side. The material of the ECAL in front of the HB corresponds to about 1.1

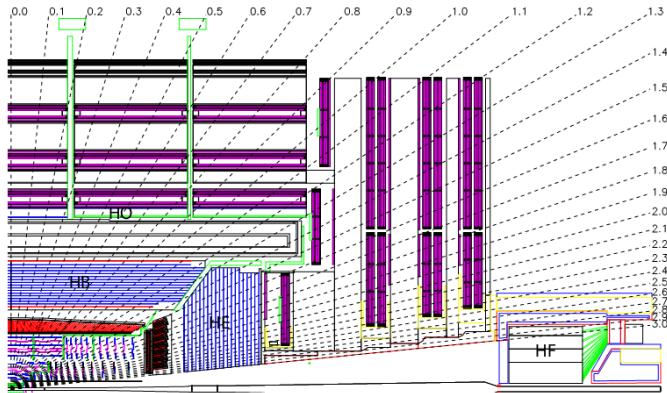


Figure 3.7: Schematic view of the CMS HCAL.

interaction length  $\lambda_i$ . The absorber material of the HB itself amounts to only  $5.82 \lambda_i$  at  $\eta = 0$ , which increases to  $10.6 \lambda_i$  at  $|\eta| = 1.3$ . To measure the energy of jets not contained in the HB, the HO is placed outside the vacuum containment of the solenoid. It consists of one additional layer of scintillator, with the magnet acting as absorber, except for most central part of the detector, where one additional layer of steel absorber and scintillator are installed. Hereby the material budget of the HCAL is increased to at least  $10 \lambda_i$  over the whole barrel region.

### The HCAL endcaps (HE)

The HE extends the geometric coverage of the HCAL up to  $|\eta| = 3.0$ , coinciding with that of the EEs. It is constructed from the combination of brass absorber and plastic scintillator as the HB and for the region  $1.3 \leq |\eta| \leq 1.6$  also retains the  $\Delta\eta \times \Delta\phi = 0.087 \times 0.087$  granularity in  $\eta$  and  $\phi$ . For  $|\eta| \geq 1.6$  the segmentation is coarser, resulting a granularity of  $\Delta\eta \times \Delta\phi \approx 0.17 \times 0.17$ . This structure again corresponds to about  $10 \lambda_i$ . The longitudinal segmentation of the readout of the towers differs based on the location of the tower. The two towers closest to the beam line are read out in three segments, while most others are read out in two segments. The two towers overlapping with HB are read out without longitudinal segmentation. Multipixel hybrid photo diodes have been chosen for the readout due to their low sensitivity to magnetic fields.

### The hadron forward calorimeter (HF)

Of all subdetectors of CMS, the HF covers the highest values of  $|\eta|$ , reaching up to values of  $|\eta| = 5.2$ . This close to the beam pipe radiation hardness is the key feature of the design, as nearly 90% of the energy deposited in the detector as the result of a proton-proton interaction is allotted to the HF. It is constructed as two 3.5 m long cylinders with a radius of 1.3 m, located at  $|z| = 11.2$  m. The first 1.65 m consist of plates of steel with a thickness of 5 mm, again

corresponding to about  $10 \lambda_i$ . The active material are quartz fibres, which are inserted into grooves in the steel plates. The particles created in showers in the absorber emit Cherenkov radiation in the fibres, which is detected by photomultiplier tubes at the end of the fibres. As the Cherenkov threshold is lowest for electrons, at 190 keV, the HF is more sensitive towards electromagnetic than hadronic showers. To separate the two, half of the fibres start only at a depth of 22 cm inside the absorber. As the electromagnetic shower develop faster, they deposit most of their energy before this point, which distinguishes them from hadronic showers.

### 3.2.4 The muon system

Muons are in general not stopped by any of the subdetectors of the CMS detector inside the solenoid. Therefore they can be measured with high precision in a clean environment outside of it. The muon detectors are therefore placed inside the return yoke of the magnet, both for the muon barrel (MB), covering up to  $|\eta| = 1.2$  and muon endcap (ME) detectors, placed between  $|\eta| = 0.9$  and  $|\eta| = 2.4$ . Being placed so far away from the interaction point, the muon detector have to cover a large area, which requires them to be rather inexpensive compared to other technologies used in the construction of CMS. Three different types of gaseous detectors are used to provide at the same time identification,  $p_T$  measurement and triggering for muons. In the barrel region, drift tubes (DT) are used as the main muon detectors, while in the endcaps cathode strip chambers (CSC) are used because they are faster and better equipped to deal with the larger and inhomogeneous magnetic field in this region of the detector. To provide a very fast muon tagging for the trigger, resistive plate chamber (RPC) complement the other two technologies in both the barrel and the endcaps.

#### Drift tubes (DT)

In the barrel, the TD chambers, each made of 2 or 3 super layers, which in turns are made up of four layers of TDs, are grouped together into four muon stations. Of these the first three contain 2 groups of 4 layers of chambers measuring in the  $r - \phi$  plane and one group measuring the  $z$  coordinate. In the last muon station only the groups measuring in  $r - \phi$  are present. The chambers in each chamber are offset by half of the width of a cell with respect to the next layer to not leave dead spots in the geometric coverage. The DT system consists of about 172000 sensitive wires. The drift tubes are filled with a mixture of 85% Ar and 15%  $CO_2$ , and their structure is shown in Figure 3.8. The  $r\phi$  resolution of a single layer of DT is about 250  $\mu m$ , so that one chamber reaches a precision of 100  $\mu m$ .

#### Cathode strip chambers (CSC)

The CSC are multiwire proportional chambers, consisting of 6 planes of anode wires interleaved with 7 panels of cathode strips. The chambers have trapezoidal shape and are arranged in four discs around the beam axis, each further segmented into two or three rings. The cathode strips measure the  $\phi$  coordinate while the anode wires measure the radial coordinate. Figure 3.9

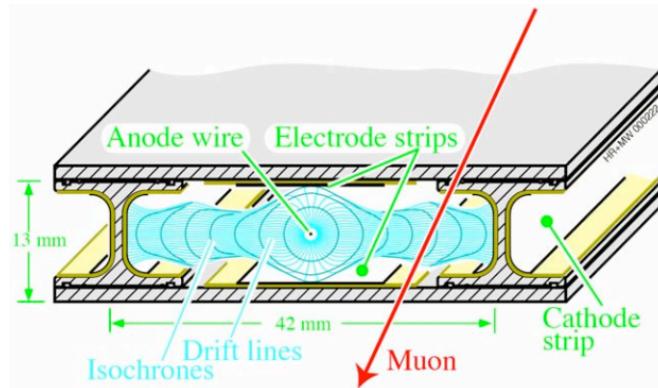


Figure 3.8: Schematic view of one DT.

shows the structure of one chamber on the left side and the creation of a signal due to a amplification of the initial ionization in an avalanche close to the anode wire.

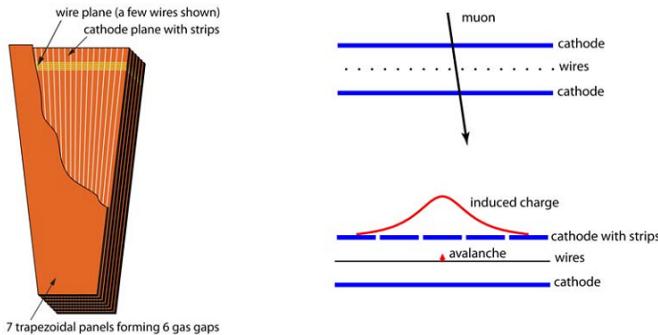


Figure 3.9: Schematic view of one CSC (left) and the creation of a signal (right).

### Resistive plate chambers (RPC)

The RPCs consist of three layers of Bakelite, which form two small gas filled gaps and between which high voltage is applied. The amplification of the initial signal is very fast in this configuration, with drift times of about 5 ns. Therefore this technology is well suited to associate muon candidates to the LHC bunch crossings. In the barrel region six layers of RPCs are installed, while three layers are used in the endcaps for  $|\eta| \leq 1.6$ .

### Momentum resolution

The  $p_T$  resolution of the muon system alone was expected to be about 10% for muons with  $p_T$  up to 200 GeV. Combined with the information from the inner tracking system, a resolution of about 1% was expected to be achieved in the central region of  $|\eta| \leq 0.8$  for a  $p_T$  of 10 GeV, increasing to about 2% for a  $p_T$  of 200 GeV.

The  $p_T$  resolution for muons has been measured using data collected in 2010 [9]. Using the muon system alone, resolutions better than 10% have been found for the barrel region for muons with  $p_T > 15 \text{ GeV}$ . The muon resolution improves when combining the information from the muon system with those from the inner tracking system. The precision of the tracking system dominates for a wide  $p_T$  range and averaging over  $\eta$  and  $\phi$  resolutions of  $(1.8 \pm 0.3(\text{stat.}))\%$  at  $p_T = 30 \text{ GeV}$  to  $(2.3 \pm 0.3(\text{stat.}))\%$  at  $p_T = 50 \text{ GeV}$  have been achieved.

### 3.3 Trigger and data acquisition

If the LHC is operated at the design bunch spacing of 25 ns, bunch crossings occur with a rate of about 40 MHz in the interactions points. Even if this has been reduced by at least factor of two during Run I of the LHC because of the increased bunch spacing, event rates of this magnitude can not be handled by the available means of data processing. The total event rate is therefore reduced by a factor of about  $10^6$  by two subsequent trigger systems. The Level-1 (L1) trigger consists of programmable electronics, allowing for a coarse reconstruction of physics objects in the calorimeters and the muon system. This system reduces the event rate to a maximum of 100 kHz. Following an L1 accept (L1A), the CMS data acquisition system (DAQ) collects the event information from the readout of the different subdetectors and passes it one to the High-Level trigger (HLT). The HLT is a software trigger and has access to the full detector readout [10]. It can perform a full reconstruction of the events to apply approximate versions of the algorithms used in offline data analysis. It accepts events at a rate of a few  $10^2 \text{ Hz}$ .

#### Level-1 trigger (L1)

The output of the different subdetectors are stored in pipelined buffers inside the readout electronics. This limits the time between the bunch crossing and the distribution of the L1 accept to the subsystems to  $3.2 \mu\text{s}$ . The L1 is therefore constructed from mostly custom-built programmable electronics either directly inside the detector or located close by in the underground facilities. As the readout of the tracker and track reconstruction are feasible on this time scale only calorimeter and muon system information are used. The L1 system is divided into local, regional and global components, as shown in Figure 3.10.

The calorimeter trigger the local component are the Trigger Primitive Generators (TPGs). For  $|\eta| \leq 1.74$  they have an  $(\eta, \phi)$ -coverage of  $0.087 \times 0.087$ , corresponding to one HCAL tower and a  $5 \times 5$  matrix of ECAL crystals in front of it. The TPGs communicate the energy deposits in the trigger tower and the number of the bunch crossing to the Regional Calorimeter Trigger. One calorimeter region consists of  $4 \times 4$  trigger towers. Candidates for electrons or photons ( $e/\gamma$ ) are formed by selecting the towers with the highest  $E_T$  in the ECAL. Based on information about the energy distribution inside the ECAL tower, the ratio of energy in ECAL and HCAL in the trigger tower and the overall distribution of energy in the neighbouring trigger towers the candidates are classified as isolated or non-isolated. Per region four isolated and four non-isolated  $e/\gamma$  candidates, the transverse energy sums of the trigger towers and information to

identify  $\tau$  leptons and muons via their minimum ionizing particle (MIP) signature and isolation are passed to the Global Calorimeter Trigger (GCT). The GCT performs a simple jet clustering algorithm and is able to calculate per event observables such as the number of jets, the total and missing transverse energy and sum of the transverse energy of all jets above a certain threshold ( $H_T$ ). These information are delivered to the global trigger

In the muon trigger all three detector components (DT,CSC, and RPC) contribute. In the local trigger, the DT chambers deliver track segments in the  $\phi$ -projection and hit patterns in the  $\eta$ -projection, while the CSCs produce three-dimensional track segments. Both use timing information to associate this information with the bunch crossing. In the regional trigger, DT and CSC information are processed in separate track finders, which produce muon candidates. These are ordered as a function of  $p_T$  and track quality and up to four candidates are delivered to the global muon trigger from each track finder. The RPCs also deliver muon candidates. With their excellent timing resolution of about 1 ns they deliver an unambiguous association of the muon candidates to the correct bunch crossing. The global muon trigger receives up to four muon candidates each from the DTs, the CSCs and the barrel and endcap RPCs. The information consists of  $p_T$ ,  $\eta$ ,  $\phi$  and information on the quality of the muon reconstruction. Candidates from the RPCs are matched with the ones from DT and CSC and, if matches are found, merged into single candidates. Unmatched candidates with low quality are suppressed. The track of the candidates is extrapolated back into the calorimeters to add the MIP and isolation information from the regional calorimeter trigger. The four best muon candidates are forwarded to the global trigger.

The global trigger collects the information from the global muon and global calorimeter trigger. Up to 128 trigger algorithms can be performed on the trigger objects at the same time, the most basic being simple  $p_T$  thresholds. If the criteria of one of the algorithms is met by the event, it is accepted by the L1 trigger and a signal is sent to the DAQ to read out the event.

## Data acquisition system (DAQ)

Following an L1 accept the DAQ receives the information from the different subdetectors split in about 650 data sources, each delivering about 2 kB of data. These event fragments are assembled into whole events by the event builder. The event is then sent to one Filter Unit in the Event Filter, where the HLT software is running. The DAQ has to deal with input rates of up to 100 kHz and consists of 8 nearly independent slices, each able to take input at a rate of 12.5 kHz. The DAQ includes a back-pressure system, which automatically throttles the L1 trigger in the case where the input rate exceeds what can be processed by the DAQ. This introduces dead times in the detector readout but prevents data corruption and buffer overflows. To fully utilize the capacities of the trigger system and the DAQ, trigger thresholds can be adapted during data taking. The shortest time scale on which the thresholds are kept constant is called lumi section and is defined as  $2^{20}$  LHC orbits, corresponding to about 93 s. The structure of the DAQ is shown in Figure 3.10.

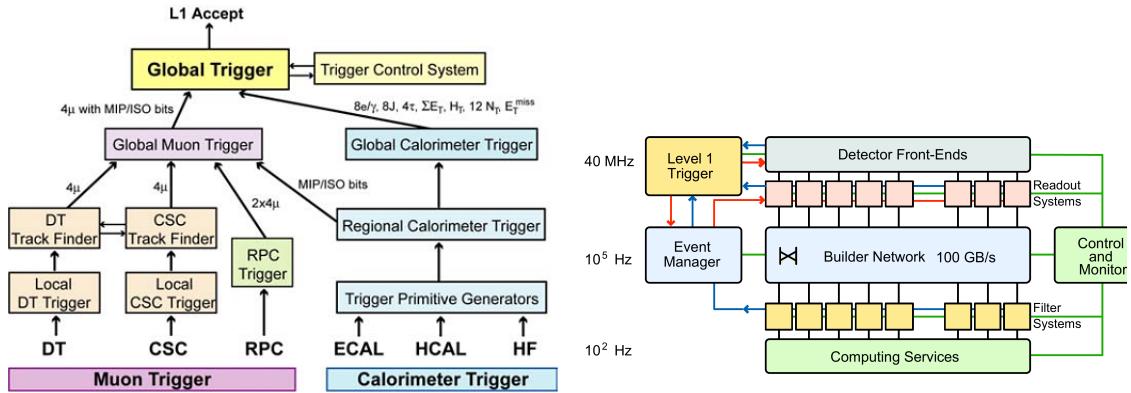


Figure 3.10: Structure of the CMS Level-1 trigger (left) and data acquisition system (DAQ) (right)

### High level trigger (HLT)

The HLT software is run on a dedicated computing element, the Event Filter Farm, located in the CMS service caverns. During the data taking in 2012 it consisted of about 13200 processor cores [11], allowing for a processing time of about 150 ms at a input rate of 100 kHz. The HLT system reduces input data rates of up to 100 GB/s to several hundred MB/s, which are sent to the CERN computer centre for storage. As a full event reconstruction can be performed at HLT level, even if it is often restricted to small regions of the detector for timing reasons, much more complex quantities can be used to separate potentially interesting signatures from the large backgrounds. However, approximate methods have to be used sometimes to maintain an acceptable processing time per event. Also, some calibration and alignment methods can only be performed after the data taking, making the HLT less precise compared to the offline reconstruction. While a large variety of triggers is used by CMS to select different kinds of events, this description will focus on the ones most relevant to this analysis.

The most important signal and control samples are collected with dilepton triggers. In general, they select events that contain two leptons (electrons or muons), of which one is required to have a reconstructed transverse momentum  $p_T$  of at least 17 GeV, while for the second this is relaxed to 8 GeV. In general, the lepton with the higher (lower)  $p_T$  is referred to as the leading (trailing) lepton. While the algorithms employed to reconstruct muons and electrons are the same among all possible combinations of leptons, the triggers used for preselection at L1 level differ in their thresholds [12]. The dielectron HLT is based on the so called L1 seed L1\_DoubleEG\_13\_7 and the dimuon on a logical OR of L1\_DoubleMu\_10\_Open and L1\_DoubleMu\_10\_3p5. To select events with an electron and a muon, two HLTs are employed, one with the electron and one with the muon as the leading lepton. The L1 seeds are a logical OR of L1\_Mu3p5\_EG12 and L1\_MuOpen\_EG12, and L1\_Mu12\_EG7, respectively. The numbers refer to the  $p_T$  or  $E_T$  thresholds of the muon and e/γ candidates in GeV, while Open indicates a threshold of 0 GeV. As the algorithms to reconstruct physics objects at HLT level are so similar to those used offline, no dedicated description is given here.

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## 4 Data analysis and event selection

### 4.1 Trigger and event processing

### 4.2 Object reconstruction

The physics objects relevant to this analysis are electrons, muons, jets and the missing transverse energy  $E_T^{miss}$ . Here the reconstruction of these objects from the information provided by the CMS detector is described. While the electron and muon candidates used here are reconstructed independent of each other with dedicated algorithms, jets and  $E_T^{miss}$  are provided by the particle flow (PF) algorithm. It combines information from all subdetectors to achieve a consistent description of the full event.

#### 4.2.1 Electron reconstruction

The signature of an electron in the CMS detector is a track reconstructed by the tracking detectors that leads to a matching cluster of energy reconstructed in the ECAL. In practice this is complicated by the large material budget of the tracking detectors, resulting in a high probability of an electron to loose energy in form of bremsstrahlung. About 35% of all electrons loose more than 70% of their energy and for 10% the energy loss exceeds 95% [13]. The reconstruction is further complicated by the large solenoidal magnetic field, which bends the electron's trajectory away from the radiated photons. This has been taken into account both in the tracking algorithms and the clustering of the energy deposits in the ECAL.

##### ECAL energy clustering

#### 4.2.2 Particle Flow

##### The algorithm

### 4.3 Datasets

### 4.4 Event selection



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## **5 Estimation of Standard Model backgrounds**

**5.1 Flavour-symmetric backgrounds**

**5.2 Backgrounds containing a Z boson**

**5.3 Investigation of possible further backgrounds**

**5.4 Search for a kinematic edge with a fit**



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## **6 Results**

### **6.1 Result of the counting experiment**

### **6.2 Result of the search for a kinematic edge**



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## **7 Interpretation in simplified models**

**7.1 Simplified Models for Supersymmetric Signatures**

**7.2 The T6bbledge and T6bbslepton model**

**7.3 Interpretation of the counting experiment in simplified models**



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## **8 Outlook to LHC Run II**



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## **9 Conclusion**



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