

# Search for Weak Scale Supersymmetric Particles in Compressed Scenarios

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Justin Anguiano

B.S. Engineering Physics, University of Kansas, 20XX

M.S. Computational Physics and Astronomy, University of Kansas, 20XX

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Graham Wilson, Chairperson

---

Alice Bean, Co-Chair

Committee members

---

Christopher Rogan

---

Ian Lewis

---

Zsolt Talata, External Reviewer

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The Dissertation Committee for Justin Anguiano certifies  
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Graham Wilson, Chairperson

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# Abstract

This is the abstract

# Acknowledgements

Thanks everybody

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# Chapter 1

## The Standard Model and Supersymmetry

### 1.1 Introduction

The fundamental building blocks of matter and their interactions expressed through three of the four fundamental forces of nature via the Standard Model (SM). The fourth force, or gravity, is left to General Relativity. The SM is the culmination of over a century of work by many scientists, and has its roots in the late 19th century. The first force is based on the theory of strong interactions, formulated as quantum chromodynamics by Murray Gell-Mann and others in the 1960s, which provides a description of how protons and neutrons are held together in the nucleus of an atom. The theory describing weak interactions was developed by Enrico Fermi in the 1930s, which was then combined with electromagnetic interactions in electroweak theory by Sheldon Glashow, Abdus Salam, and Steven Weinberg in the 1960s. In this chapter, concepts of the Standard Model are introduced, including the fundamental particles, fields, and their basic properties and interactions. Then expanding from the core SM we will discuss an extension of the Standard Model with supersymmetry, which proposes a new symmetry between fermions and bosons. Finally, we delve into the specifics of simplified models of supersymmetry and the challenges associated with detecting these models experimentally.



## 1.2 The Standard Model

The Standard Model is a collection of adhoc theories used to predict and reproduce experimental data. The theory itself incorporates four major concepts: Quantum Field theory (QFT), the Dirac equation, the gauge principle, and the Higgs mechanism. These four principles are constrained by physical data and describe the set of elementary particles, known as fermions and bosons. The SM generally refers to the SM Lagrangian, an equation with different sectors that describe different subsets of particles, fields, and their interactions. The SM Lagrangian itself consists of 26 free parameters which are input by hand. These parameters are: the masses of the 12 fermions, 3 coupling constants that describe gauge interactions:  $g, g', g_s$ , 2 parameters to describe the Higgs potential i.e. the higgs mass  $m_h$  and the vacuum expectation value (vev), and 9 mixing angles which describe the PMNS and CKM matrices or the mixing of different fermionic fields. The 12 fermion parameters are subdivided by three neutrinos  $m_{\nu_i}$ , three charged leptons  $m_{\ell_i}^\pm$ , and six quarks  $m_{q_i}$ ;

QFT provides a description for both known and theoretical particles by combining quantum theory, the field concept, and relativity (cite peskin). The gauge theory aspect describes the exact nature of QFT interactions and provides the mechanisms for the electromagnetic, strong, and weak forces. We know of three gauge fields:  $\vec{G}$  which transforms under  $SU(3)$  and govern strong interactions,  $\vec{W}$  and  $B$  which transform under  $SU(2)_L \times U(1)$  and govern electromagnetic and weak interactions. The combination of the gauge fields and fermion fields along with the Dirac equation yields eigenstates that represent fermionic matter particles. These particles would be massless if not for the inclusion of the complex scalar Higgs field. The spontaneous symmetry breaking of the Higgs field, due to the Yukawa coupling, creates the non-zero vev responsible for generating the masses of the electroweak gauge bosons. Additionally, the interaction between the fermionic fields and the non zero-vev generates the masses of SM fermions.

The set of standard model elementary particles is divided into two subgroups: fermions and

bosons. The fermions consist of both charged and neutral leptons as well as fractionally charged quarks. There are three flavors of charged leptons ( $\ell$ ), the electron ( $e$ ), the muon ( $\mu$ ), and the tau ( $\tau$ ). Each charged lepton has a flavor pairing neutral neutrino  $\nu_\ell$ . The  $e$  and  $\mu$  are also generally considered as "light" leptons due to their small mass relative to the  $\tau$ . The term lepton, depending on context, often refers to only the charged particles. As for the quarks, there are also three generations of pairs of quarks.. The lightest set of quarks are the up ( $u$ ) and down ( $d$ ) quarks, followed by the charm ( $c$ ) and strange ( $s$ ), and lastly the bottom ( $b$ ) and extremely massive top quark ( $t$ ). The bosons are the force carrying particles which represent the gauge fields. They are comprised of the vector bosons - the photon ( $\gamma$ ), gluon ( $g$ ), the  $W^\pm$ , and the  $Z^0$  - along with the singular scalar boson the Higgs ( $h$ ). The elementary particles masses, generations, and spins are summarized in Figure 1.1.

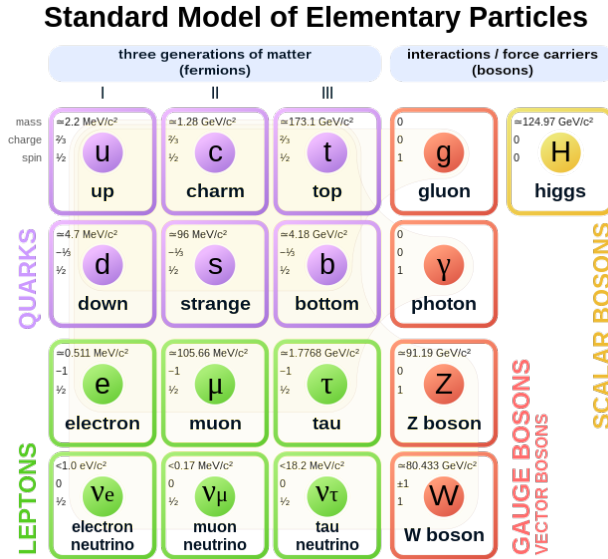


Figure 1.1: particles figure cite wiki

The SM is an asymmetric chiral theory, combining three groups  $SU(3)_L \times SU(2)_L \times U(1)$ . The  $L$ , or left handed, subscript indicates that mirrored fields (with different chiralities) transform differently under the Lorentz group and the EW gauge group (cite slides). The consequence of chirality is that the possible combinations between interaction vertices is limited (cite thompson). This peculiar property shows up with the  $W$  boson, which only

couples to left handed particles or right handed antiparticles. Extensions of the standard model also often extend chiral or symmetrical properties.

### 1.3 Supersymmetry

Supersymmetry (SUSY) is an extension of the standard model. It adds a generator that rotates the spin between bosons and fermions. This then introduces a bosonic degree of freedom for every fermionic degree of freedom (cite run2 susy paper) which generates a super partner for each particle with spin differing by a half integer. The resulting set of mirrored elementary particles are referred to as sparticles. Each bosonic sparticle carries the same name as its fermion partner but with an "s" prefix e.g. sfermion, squark, selectron. As for the bosons, with the gauge fields  $B$  and  $\vec{W}$ , these are accompanied by three super symmetric fields - the Higgsino  $\tilde{H}$ , Bino  $\tilde{B}$ , and Wino  $\tilde{W}$ . The mixture of the  $B$  and  $\vec{W}$  SM fields can be represented by particle matrix. One can obtain the mass eigenstates representing the SM particles  $\gamma$ ,  $Z$ ,  $W^\pm$  through the diagonalization of particle matrix. Similarly, the Higgsino, Bino, and Wino mix to produce four neutral and two charged eigenstates, the neutralinos ( $\tilde{\chi}_1^0, \tilde{\chi}_2^0, \tilde{\chi}_3^0, \tilde{\chi}_4^0$ ) and charginos ( $\tilde{\chi}_1^\pm, \tilde{\chi}_2^\pm$ ) (cite erich's 43 susy matrix eigenstates). SUSY also requires an additional Higgs doublet to give mass to up-type and down-type fermions, (cite this run 2 paper.. reference chasing) leading to five higgs boson states consisting of two charged Higgs and three neutral Higgs. The lightest neutral higgs of the three neutral options represents the SM Higgs boson. The full set of SM particles alongside their SUSY partners are illustrated in Figure ???. The addition of another higgs doublet also introduces a second vev. The ratio between the two vev's is commonly denoted as  $v_1/v_2 = \tan \beta$  and is an important parameter in experimental searches. Another important bookkeeping parameter, similar to lepton number or baryon number conservation, is R-parity. This parameter tallies the total number of SM particles (+1) and sparticles (-1) and expects the net total between particles to be conserved in the initial and final states. R-parity conservation then requires

sparticles to be produced in pairs. If R-parity is violated, the common consequence is that the lightest supersymmetric particle (LSP) is unstable.

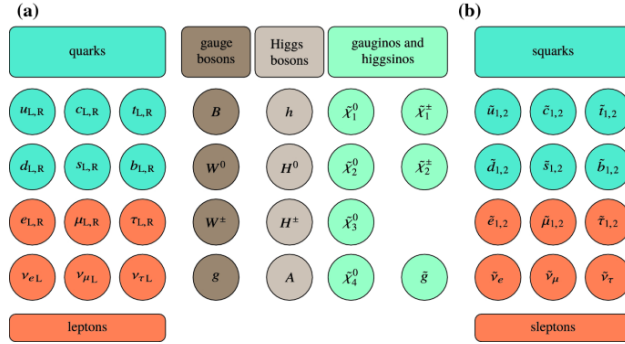


Figure 1.2: stolen from this springer thesis book, probably make my own figure later [https://link.springer.com/chapter/10.1007/978-3-030-25988-4\\_4](https://link.springer.com/chapter/10.1007/978-3-030-25988-4_4)

Supersymmetry is an extremely expansive model and intractable to experimentally test without significant well motivated simplifications. The most experimentally common simplified SUSY model is the Minimally Super Symmetric Standard Model (MSSM). The MSSM contains the smallest number of new particle states and new interactions which are consistent with phenomenology (cite howie direct weak scale book). The MSSM is still experimentally inaccessible due to the presence of over 100 parameters, where small changes in parameter space can completely morph the model structure and experimental signatures. To reduce the problem's dimensionality, further simplification is needed, resulting in a popular simplified model: the phenomenological MSSM (pMSSM). The pMSSM contains 19 parameters which include the masses of each generation of squark and slepton, parameters to control the mixing of  $\tilde{H}$ ,  $\tilde{W}$ ,  $\tilde{B}$ , and dials for the higgs doublet (cite what wiki cites). The pMSSM is still borderline too complicated to attack directly, so, the pMSSM is boiled down into a simplified model of four parameters  $M_1, M_2, \mu$ , and  $\tan \beta$ .  $M_1$  and  $M_2$  are the gaugino mass parameters,  $\mu$  is the Higgsino mass parameter, and  $\tan \beta$  is the previously mentioned vev ratio (cite Fuks paper). A model point from this four parameter space is referred to as Realistic simplified gaugino-higgsino model, and targets specific regions of MSSM parameter space and experimental topologies.

To effectively grasp the structure of SUSY and various models, either in the pMSSM or simplified models, there are a couple key elements to consider. The first element is the mass scale of the relative SUSY sectors i.e. how massive are the gauginos versus sleptons versus squarks. If the mass scales are well separated, the sectors are effectively decoupled. If the mass scales are similar then it may introduce complicated cross-talk between sectors. In an electroweak SUSY search with a 4 parameter simplified model, the model can be further simplified by assuming squarks and slepton masses sit at the several TeV scale while the targeted electroweak-inos are at detectable TeV and sub-TeV scale. By decoupling sectors outside the sector-of-interest we remove the interaction between these groups, so, if sleptons are decoupled from the gauginos complicated dependencies, like cascading decays are avoided. The other key element is the composition of the LSP, typically  $\tilde{\chi}_1^0$ . Each unique model point is composed of a specific mixing of  $\tilde{H}, \tilde{W}, \tilde{B}$  with an LSP that reflects that mixing. The model point is denoted by the field that dominates the overall mix, so a Higgsino model has an LSP composed of mostly  $\tilde{H}$  (cite mixing atlas paper?). The characteristic take away from simplified model types is that H,W,B can control the nature of the model by governing the overall cross sections for sparticles, the topological infrastructure, and how the sparticles interact and amongst themselves and SM particles. Two pMSSM examples comparing the mass structure between two arbitrary mass points of a Wino model versus Higgsino model is shown in Figure 1.3. For both models the Higgs and slepton sectors are decoupled at a multi-TeV scale while the squark and gaugino sectors are at an accessible TeV and sub-TeV scale. Note that small changes in pMSSM model space results in differing LSP content and large variations in the relative mass structure and orderings. The difference in cross sections between the same two model points for gaugino pair production combinations are shown in Figure 1.4. This relative difference in cross section illustrates that the same tweak in parameter space can induce order of magnitude changes sparticle production.

In addition to the mass structure and cross sections, the decay nature of H/W/B models also varies. The variation in decay modes has a significant impact on the experimental

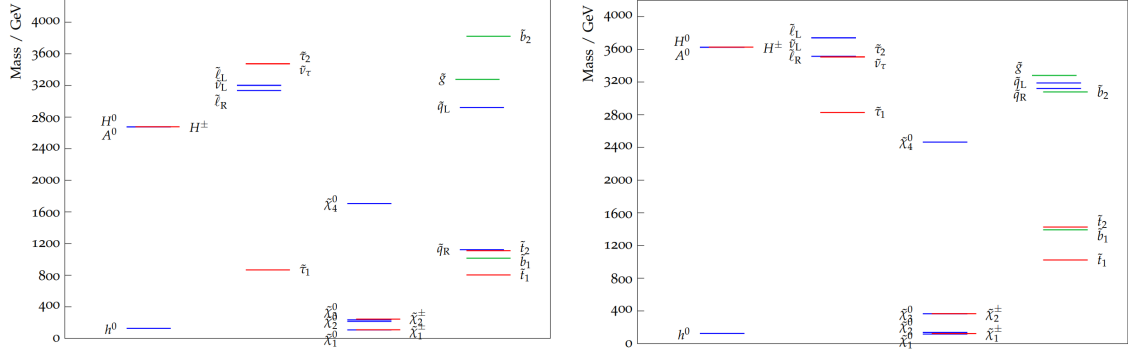


Figure 1.3: mass structure wino vs higgsino modelpoints

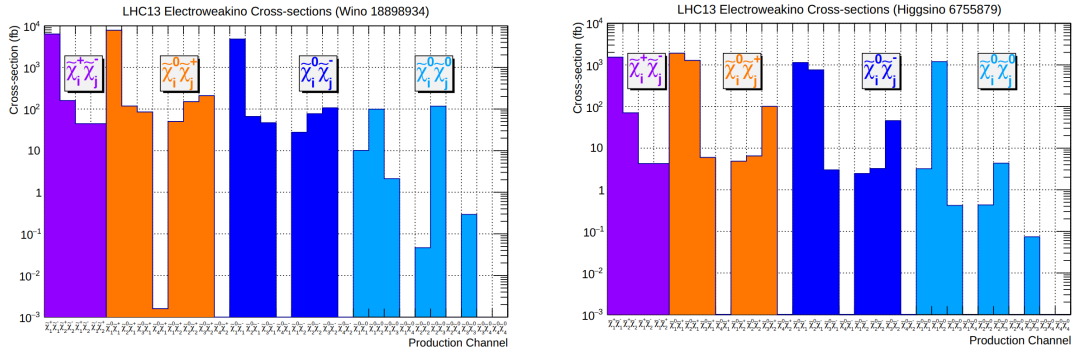


Figure 1.4: xsec strcutre wino vs higgsino modelpoints

channels and signatures of interest. In an experimental search we would expect the heavier sparticles to decay to both SM particles along with the LSP. If the LSP happens to be close in mass to its parent, say  $O(100)$  GeV or less, the model would be considered as a compressed scenario. This scenario is considered compressed because the observable energy of the SM particle involved in a sparticle decay is compressed to a very small amount due to the majority of the available energy being used by the rest mass of the sparticles. Of the 3 types of models, the most likely candidates for compression are the Higgsino-like and Bino-like models. Wino models by far have the largest cross sections but are the least likely to have compressed states. Particularly interesting topologies for these compressed models involve decay signatures of processes like  $\tilde{\chi}_2^0 \rightarrow Z^* \tilde{\chi}_1^0$ ,  $\tilde{\chi}_2^0 \rightarrow \tilde{\chi}_1^\pm \tilde{\chi}_1^0$ ,  $\tilde{\chi}_1^\pm \rightarrow W^\pm \tilde{\chi}_1^0$ ,  $\tilde{t} \rightarrow t \tilde{\chi}_1^0$ ,  $\tilde{\ell} \rightarrow \ell \tilde{\chi}_1^0$ . The nature of sparticle decay is not only dependent on the H/W/B nature of the model but also on the degree of compression. Figure 1.5 shows the average decay modes for H W or B from a selection of pMSSM models (cite atlas pmssm paper).

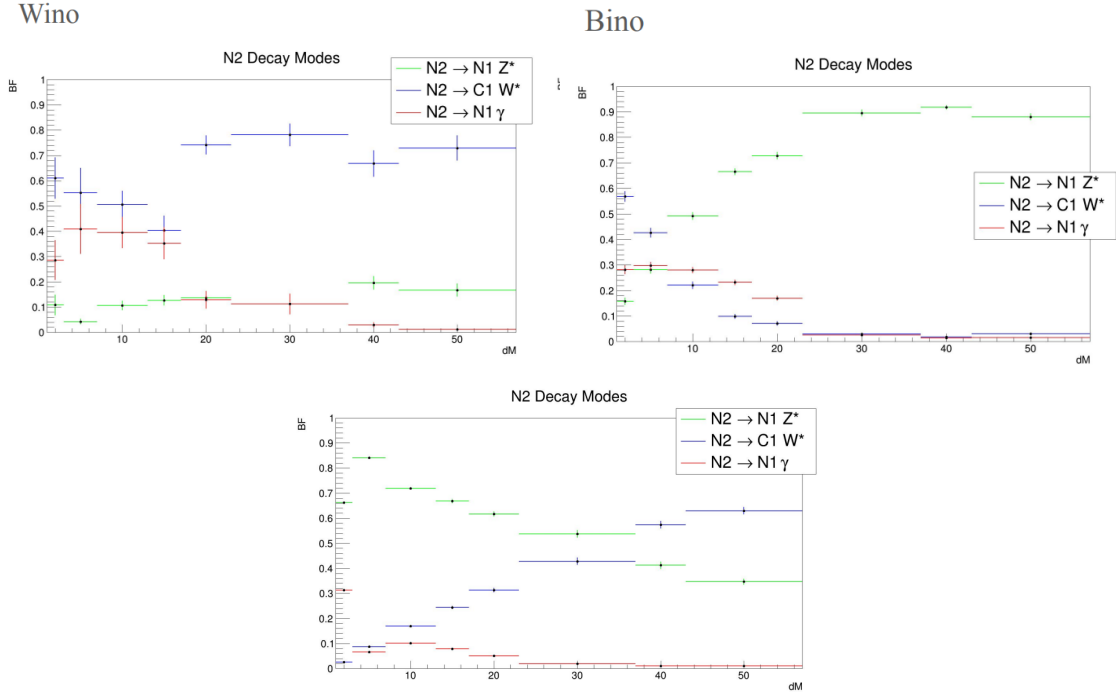


Figure 1.5: N2 BFs

Note that between each model type in Figure 1.5 the  $Z^*$  and  $W^\pm$  modes can be highly

suppressed or enhanced. In some cases even, specific modes like  $\tilde{\chi}_2^0 \rightarrow \tilde{\chi}_1^\pm W^\mp$  can be either kinematically forbidden, or excluded to streamline MC production and enhance the statistical power of different targeted final states. Alongside the decay specific complications, the phase space of the final state particles is model dependent. For instance, in the case of  $\tilde{\chi}_2^0 \rightarrow Z^* \tilde{\chi}_1^0$  the shape of  $Z$  dilepton mass distribution  $m_{\ell\ell}$  changes depending on the sign of the gaugino eigenstates. Experimentally this problem is divided into two possible scenarios: cases where the eigenstates are the same sign and cases where the eigenstates are the opposite sign. The distribution that showcases the  $m_{\ell\ell}$  differences under two different model interpretations is shown in Figure 1.6. Overall, with the complications of model dependent decays, inherently rare production, varying mass orderings, and relative scale between sectors, the search for SUSY is an extraordinary challenge. To discover SUSY one should design a search to encompass a large generalized model space and target generic features rather than highly specific corners.

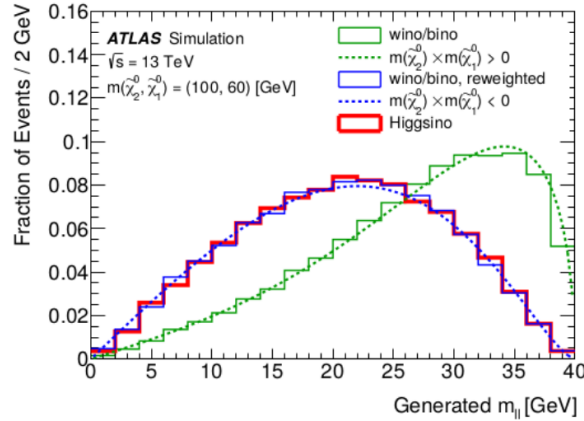


Figure 1.6:  $m_{\ell\ell}$  reweight with w/b or H interpretations from atlas paper in grahams talk



## Chapter 2

### Motivating the Search for SUSY

#### 2.1 Introduction

The SM is a remarkable theory which describes a wide variety of sub-atomic phenomenon that has consistently held up to tests over many orders of magnitude in energy. The SM, however, is not a perfect theory in such that there are a few experimental and theoretical problems that the SM can not yet explain. Some of the largest issues are how to incorporate gravity, how can we explain for neutrino mass and generational mass orderings, why is the universe made up of matter and not antimatter? Observations of from the relic microwave background suggest the existence of cold dark matter (cite DM observation) but there are currently no SM particles which make a suitable dark matter candidate. SUSY offers many attractive solutions to SM and physics problems with the introduction of new particles, the gravitino which could mediate gravitational interactions and massive invisible particles which can serve as dark matter candidates. For example, the neutralino  $\chi_1^0$  can handle the DM problem with models capable of producing the expected relic DM density of the universe. In fact, the DM relic density is used to constrain the SUSY model space and simplify searches. Aside from these leading motivations, other more detailed motivations will be discussed in this chapter, the first being a “naturalness problem” with its theoretically aesthetic improvement by adding a symmetry to protect against divergent terms in the perturbative expansion of the Higgs mass, next is an explanation to the significant deviation observed of the muon  $(g-2)$  factor from recent FNAL result, and lastly the congruency of SUSY with the deviation

observed in the W mass at CDF. It should be noted that the divergent higgs mass - known as the hierarchy problem - satisfies most SUSY topologies up to the few TeV scale, but, the two latter experimental measurements motivate searching for SUSY in compressed scenarios.

### 2.1.1 Stabilizing the Higgs mass

A commonly pursued aesthetic attribute of theoretical models is naturalness, typically we expect a model to function "naturally" if the ratio of free parameters in a model are of  $O(1)$ , large swings in parameters would be considered "fine tuning". Fine tuning is only an aesthetic problem, but could indicate issues with the underlying theory. We would expect with some improved theory with new physics one would balance out finel tuned parameters providing a natural solution to whatever is being modeled. One such fine tuning arises in the hierarchy problem, from Higgs self interaction terms. This self interaction is illustrated in equation Xbelow with the SM Higgs Lagrangian.

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{gm_h}{4M_W}H^3 - \frac{g^2m_h^2}{32M_W^2}H^4 \quad (2.1)$$

$H$  represents the scalar higgs field,  $m_h$  the higgs mass, and  $m_W$  the W mass. A correction to the higgs mass can be calculated using standard perturbation theory by evaluating the second term of the Higgs Lagrangian. (cite baer)

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta m_h^2 &= \langle H | \frac{g^2m_h^2}{32M_W^2}H^4 | H \rangle = 12 \frac{g^2m_h^2}{32M_W^2} \int \frac{d^4k}{(2\pi)^2} \frac{i}{k^2 - m_h^2} \\ &= 12 \frac{g^2m_h^2}{32M_W^2} \frac{1}{16\pi^2} (\Lambda^2 - m_h^2 \log \frac{\Lambda^2}{m_h^2} + O(\frac{1}{\Lambda^2})) \end{aligned} \quad (2.2)$$

Here the intergal term is the propagator (cite propagator stuff??) for the exchange of a virtual Higgs and integrated phase space. The  $\Lambda$  is known as the scale cutoff parameter and should be interpreted as the scale at which the SM breaks down, possibly near the planck scale  $O(10^{19})\text{GeV}$ . Notice the leading term  $\Lambda^2$  which indicates a that the expansion

is quadratically divergent. This divergence means there would need to be extremely large finely tuned cancellations, around 20 orders of magnitude, to maintain  $\Delta m_h \propto O(m_h)$ . This divergent phenomenon can also be observed with fermion masses, but, chiral symmetry protects the fermion mass from divergence by cancelling out high order  $\Lambda$  terms. SUSY offers a similar protection to the Higgs mass by introducing a symmetry with the additional fermionic and bosonic degrees of freedom leading to natural structure for the Higgs boson.

### 2.1.2 The Muon Anomalous Magnetic Moment

A very interesting experimental motivation for SUSY lies within the measurement of the muon anomalous magnetic moment, multiple measurements at two different labs BNL and FNAL have shown significant disagreement with the standard model. These experiments measure the muon  $g$  factor or specifically its deviation from two,  $(g - 2)_\mu$ . The  $g$  factor is related to the electromagnetic coupling of charged particles to a photon. The factor largely depends on the tree level lepton-photon coupling but gets small quantum corrections from higher order loops, the largest being the single photon loop or Schwinger term shown in Figure X. The SM calculation of the  $g$  factor includes three types of corrections – QED, Electroweak, and Hadronic. Corrections due to the Higgs are neglected due to the mass disparity  $m_h \gg m_{e,\mu}$  and the mass dependence in the Higgs coupling which has effects that are smaller than what is experimentally observable. To first order in QED, the  $g$ -factor is exactly 2, when accounting for quantum corrections the  $g$ -factor deviates very slightly from 2. Experimentally the deviations from 2 are the most interesting, and are written in the form  $a_\ell = \frac{g-2}{2}$  and referred to as  $(g - 2)_\ell$ . These small contributions are interesting because they encapsulate the current theory and provide a test bed for our current understanding. If observations were to deviate from the SM prediction, it would be an indication of new and unaccounted physics interactions with the SM leptons. The  $g$  factor can be extracted by measuring the anomalous magnetic moment of any generation of charged lepton. The current best candidate to both test the SM and search for new

physics is by measuring  $(g - 2)_\mu$  or  $a_\mu$  because of experimental precision potential. The electron measurement is already known to the highest precision and is expected to have the smallest contributions from new physics (cite youtube citation). The  $(g - 2)_\tau$  is not yet experimentally tractable competitive precision to  $\mu$  or  $e$ . The currently accepted best SM prediction of  $a_\mu$  from (CITE g-2 collab) includes QED, Electroweak(EW) and Hadronic contributions and is reported as  $a_\mu^{SM} = a_\mu^{QED} + a_\mu^{EW} + a_\mu^{Hadronic} = 116591810(43) \times 10^{-11}$ . For each of the  $a_\mu$  components, the QED component enters at the  $O(10^{-3})$  and is known to  $O(10^{-11})$ . the EW component enters the sum at  $O(10^{-9})$  and is known to  $O(10^{-10})$ . Finally the most complicated component, hadronic, contributes at  $O(10^{-8})$  and is known up to  $O(10^{-9})$ , the main sub components that contribute to the  $a_\mu^{Hadronic}$  is the Hadronic vacuum polarization and light by light scattering, diagrams illustrated in Figure X. The hadronic precision is constrained by data driven measurements and computation approaches – QCD lattice theory, this error dominates the overall uncertainty of  $a_\mu$ . The BNL measurement of  $a_\mu$  yields a difference with the SM prediction of  $\Delta a_\mu := a_\mu^{BNL} - a_\mu^{SM} = 279(76) \times 10^{-11}$  which is a significance of  $3.7\sigma$ . The most recent  $a_\mu$  measurement from FNAL confirms the BNL measurement within  $1\sigma$  and the combined experimental average increases the SM deviation with a significance of  $4.2\sigma$ . The standard model is a consistent and remarkable theory that holds over many orders of magnitude in energy

What could this deviation mean? The  $4.2\sigma$  significance is a compelling sign for potential new physics, but can be somewhat explained by improvements in QCD lattice calculations of the HVP and LBL contributions. There is also a calculation which resolves this tension up to  $1.2\sigma$  (cite BMW). The more interesting explanation is that the tension could be due to effects of new particles. There are several models which can quantify the  $a_\mu$  SM deviation, those being Super Symmetry, Dark Matter (DM mediator Dark photon), Lepto quarks, 2 Higgs doublet models.

### 2.1.3 W mass measusremnt

the most recent w mass measurement yielded a heavy W, this higher mass is more favorable for light higgsino and compressed susy models

What is the W boson The W boson is an very important and peculiar particle, it is the electrically charged boson that mediates flavor change but only with left handed particles. The mass of the W-boson underpins many important parameters in the SM. In fact,  $m_W$  is related to the vacuum expectation value  $v$  of the Higgs, this implies that scale of mass depedent coupling of the higg field to all particles is tuned by the mass of the W. Similary the W mass is related to the  $g$  factor from  $(g - 2)_\ell$

What is the current status of the W boson? Since there is interdependence of many paramters such as  $v$ ,  $m_z$  there is no exact SM prediction of the W mass, rather a value that is constrained by experimatally measured parameters. at tree level  $m_W$  can be parameterized with  $m_Z$  which can be precisely measured in the visible leptonic and hadronic modes,  $G_F$  or the fermi constant which is also related to  $v$  and can be measured precisely with muon lifetime, and  $\alpha$  the fine structure constant (cite sm w paper). The most recent expereimental measurment of  $m_W$  was performed by CDF II at the tevatron. The mass was obtained by fitting the kinematic distributions from light leptonic decays recoiling against a system of jets. This measurement is 50% more precise than the previous measurement by ATLAS (cite atlas) and heavier than the SM prediction. The combination deviation and precision results in a  $7\sigma$  significance with the SM (cite CDFII).

What could this deviation mean? Possible early sign of new physics would be slight inconsistencies between measurements and different SM obervables, and the  $7\sigma$  deviation of the W mass, if correct, is a very strong indicator of new physics. There are a slew of SUSY models that could explain the excessive mass of the W boson. (CDF lightsusy) In general, a slightly heavier W favors light SUSY models. This means electro weak scale SUSY particles in the cases of light wino/bino and higgsino models, many of which favor compressed mass

scenarios. Due to the interdependence of  $m_W$  and  $(g-2)_\mu$ , these parameters both constraint compressed SUSY and spotlight a critical area to search. An example of model points of sleptons and gaugino models which satisfy the newest  $g-2$  and  $W$  mass constraints is shown in FIGURE Z (cite Wmass and g-2 sven paper)

## 2.2 The current status of SUSY

drop the most recent limits here, start with multi TeV excluded gluino and squark models which leaves the a good place to search in the weak scale sector with electroweakinos. Talk about electroweak limits and how alot of these are excluded already one of the remaining places to search is the compressed corridor where mass splittings are small. link this limit motivation with how both g-2 and  $W$  mass favor compressed scenarios

There have been many searches for SUSY particles from starting with LEP and still ongoing at the LHC today. As of yet there is no evidence for SUSY particles but there is still plenty of room to keep searching. The currently most stringent limits are in the gluino/squark sector because of large expected cross sections compared to gauginos/sleptons. These simplified models have been excluded up to X GeV masses. The most recent limits are shown in fig XYZ. The current best slepton and electroweak limits are shown in Figure ZYZ. Note that the electro weak limits are just reaching the TeV scale while SUSY remains valid at the few TeV level. Specifically the weakest limits are in the compressed regions for electroweakinos and sleptons.