

CP Violation In and Beyond The Standard Model: Two Higgs Doublet Model Type II Corrections to Flavour Observables

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ABSTRACT: In this preliminary report, we test the Two Higgs Doublet Model (2HDM) of Type II as an extension of the Standard Model (SM) using indicative flavour observables, with particular focus on leptonic decays of B and D mesons, $B\bar{B}$ mixing, and the $b \rightarrow s\gamma$ radiative decay. Testing the 2HDM parameter space m_{H^\pm} , $\tan\beta$ to find alignment between theoretical calculations and experiment, constraints on the parameters were found for the above flavour phenomena both individually and then as a global fit. Strongly dominated by the $b \rightarrow s\gamma$ branching ratio, the mass of a charged Higgs particle would be expected to have a minimum value of 524 GeV. Discussions on the goals of the study from here are ongoing, likely a further study into the 2HDM and its validity as a SM extension.

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1 Introduction

The Standard Model is one of the most successful theories ever developed, describing the fundamental forces currently observed, excluding gravity, through a quantum field theory Lagrangian,

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{L} = & -\frac{1}{4}F^{\mu\nu}F_{\mu\nu} && \rightarrow \text{gauge term} \\ & +i\bar{\Psi}\not{D}\Psi && \rightarrow \text{Fermion term} \\ & +(D_\mu\Phi)^\dagger(D^\mu\Phi) - V(\phi) && \rightarrow \text{Higgs term} \\ & -Y_{ij}\bar{\Psi}_i\Phi\Psi_j + h.c. && \rightarrow \text{Yukawa term}\end{aligned}\tag{1.1}$$

Throughout the latter half of the 20th century and through the 21st, the Standard Model has found strong agreement with many observed phenomena, while also predicting many other observables that took longer to be observed (most notably, the Higgs boson). However, there are still many observations that do not align with the Standard Model: some more large scale such as unification with gravity or a description of dark matter, some more specific such as some leptonic and semi-leptonic meson decays; for example, the semileptonic decay ratios $\mathcal{R}(K^{(*)})$ notoriously deviate from the Standard Model to approximately 3σ . The modifications and additions to the Standard Model needed for these smaller scale problems could open the door to new phenomena that could bring us closer a complete theory of nature.

1.1 The Standard Model

The Standard Model is a quantum field theory, describing all constituent particles as quantum fields permeating through space-time. There are twenty-five fundamental particles currently described in the Standard Model: twelve fermions (quarks and leptons), four gauge bosons of the electroweak theory (W^\pm, Z, γ), eight gluons of the strong force, and the Higgs boson.

The bases for the Standard Model are the quantum theories of electroweak and strong interactions, and then the symmetry-breaking Higgs mechanism which gives masses to these theories. Both the electroweak and strong theories are non-Abelian gauge theories: the electroweak theory has a gauge symmetry of $SU(2)_L \otimes U(1)_Y$, and the strong theory of $SU(3)_c$ [1]. To formulate the Standard Model Lagrangian, we start with the free Lagrangian of a massless Dirac fermion coupled to a gauge field tensor,

$$\mathcal{L} = i\bar{\psi}\gamma^\mu\partial_\mu\psi - \frac{1}{4}F^{\mu\nu}F_{\mu\nu}. \quad (1.2)$$

The Lagrangian must be formed such that it is invariant for a local gauge transformation of the fermion field, ψ :

$$\psi(x) \rightarrow U(x)\psi(x), \quad \bar{\psi}(x) \rightarrow \bar{\psi}(x)U^\dagger(x), \quad (1.3)$$

where $U(x)$ is the gauge transformation. For $U(1)$ and $SU(N)$ symmetries, we have

$$U_{U(1)} = \exp[i\alpha], \quad U_{SU(N)} = \exp\left[i\alpha^a \frac{T^a}{2}\right]. \quad (1.4)$$

For $SU(N)$ symmetries, the index a is summed from 1 to $N^2 - 1$: this is the number of gauge fields of the group. T^a are the generators of these fields, which are represented by the Pauli matrices for $SU(2)$ and the Gell-Mann matrices for $SU(3)$. For $SU(2)$, there are three gauge fields, which will lead to the three associated bosons (W^\pm, Z) when mixed with $U(1)$; for $SU(3)$, there are eight gauge field, leading to the eight gluons. Clearly for $U(1)$ there is only a single gauge field, which will lead to the photon when mixed with the $SU(2)$ gauge fields. In addition to the definitions in Eq.(1.4), to make Eq.(1.2) gauge invariant, it is necessary to transform the gauge field, as well as introduce the *covariant derivative*, D_μ :

$$A_\mu^a \rightarrow A_\mu^a + \frac{1}{g}\partial_\mu\alpha^a + gf^{abc}\alpha^b A_\mu^c, \quad (1.5)$$

$$\partial_\mu \rightarrow D_\mu = \partial_\mu - igT^a A_\mu^a, \quad (1.6)$$

where g is the relevant gauge coupling parameter. Note that Eqs.(1.5) and (1.6) are the general forms for the $SU(N)$ theories (if considering $U(1)$, these are simplified). The full covariant derivative of the Standard Model is

$$D_\mu = \partial_\mu - ig_1 \frac{Y}{2} B_\mu - ig_2 \frac{\sigma^i}{2} W_\mu^i - ig_3 \frac{\lambda^a}{2} G_\mu^a, \quad (1.7)$$

¹The subscripts of the symmetries describe the "charge" under which particles interact with each gauge theory: c represents the color charge of the strong force, L states that the weak force interacts only with left-handed doublets (through which the weak isospin will be defined analogous to spin), and Y represents the weak hypercharge of $U(1)$ before the spontaneous symmetry breaking of the Higgs mechanism to introduce the electric charge of the electromagnetic force.[2]

combining all constituent gauge groups, with $g_{1,2,3}$ the gauge coupling of $U(1)_Y$, $SU(2)_L$, and $SU(3)_c$ respectively where the gauge field(s) and generator(s) of each group are in the term of their coupling [3]. From these definitions, the gauge invariance of Eq.(1.2) for $U(1)$ symmetry is trivial, and for $SU(N)$ symmetries, it will simply follow after defining a commutation relation between generators:

$$[T^a, T^b] = if^{abc}T^c, \quad (1.8)$$

where f^{abc} are the structure constants which define each $SU(N)$ group [1]. As in many parts of quantum mechanics, it can be useful to define the fermion field ψ into an upper and lower part, such that ψ can be written as a linear combination of component states. This can be done in many ways, but it is important in the formulation of the Standard Model to separate the fermion field into left- and right-handed components; this was suggested in the 1950s by Lee and Yang [4] and then shown experimentally by Wu and collaborators [5], as a description of the parity violation of nature. To this end, we define the operators

$$P_L = \frac{1 - \gamma^5}{2}, \quad P_R = \frac{1 + \gamma^5}{2}, \quad (1.9)$$

where γ^5 is defined in the conventional representation. The left-handed projection of the fermion field ψ would then be

$$\psi_L = P_L \psi. \quad (1.10)$$

Now when forming the $SU(2)$ symmetry of the weak force, there is a difference between the interaction of right- and left-handed fermions: that is, left-handed fermions transform under the $SU(2)$ space, whereas right-handed do not. Considering both quarks and leptons in the traditional three generations, then under the electroweak $SU(2)$ space, each generation forms a left-handed doublet and a right-handed singlet, e.g.

$$\Psi_L = \begin{pmatrix} \nu_e \\ e^- \end{pmatrix}_L, \quad e_R^-, \quad \Psi_{L\alpha} = \begin{pmatrix} u_\alpha \\ d_\alpha \end{pmatrix}_L, \quad u_{R\alpha}, d_{R\alpha}, \quad (1.11)$$

where α represents the colour charge of the quarks under the strong interaction [3]. We can define the weak isospin quantum number T analogous to spin; in the left-handed doublet: up-type quarks and neutrinos have $T_3 = +\frac{1}{2}$, and down-type quarks and charged leptons have $T_3 = -\frac{1}{2}$. Neutrinos only appear in the left-handed doublets and do not form right-handed singlets, or if they do, these do not interact with the rest of the Standard Model. So right- and left-handed fermions are in different $SU(2)$ multiplets; this represents a parity violation in the Standard Model which is also found in nature. This is an important criterion of a theory of nature, as will be discussed more in section 1.2.

Gauge symmetry has thus far yielded a Lagrangian to describe fermions and forces and their interactions, but only for massless particles. This however is not observed in nature. For massive fermions and bosons, the Lagrangian would require terms of the form $m\bar{\psi}\psi$ and $m_A^2 A_\mu A^\mu$ respectively. The fermion mass term would initially seem invariant, but under the electroweak symmetry, it is rewritten as

$$m\bar{\psi}\psi = m(\bar{\psi}_R\psi_L + \bar{\psi}_L\psi_R), \quad (1.12)$$

and so is no longer invariant, due to the mixing of right-handed and left-handed spinors.

To solve this problem, the Higgs mechanism can be introduced as a way to spontaneously break the symmetry of the electroweak force to generate massive bosons [6]. The Lagrangian of the scalar Higgs reads

$$\mathcal{L} = (D^\mu \Phi)^\dagger (D_\mu \Phi) - V(\Phi). \quad (1.13)$$

Consider a complex scalar field under the SU(2) left-handed doublet representation,

$$\Phi = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} \phi_1 + i\phi_2 \\ \phi_0 + i\phi_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \phi^+ \\ \phi^0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (1.14)$$

which has a U(1) hypercharge $Y = +\frac{1}{2}$ [7]. The covariant derivative in Eq.(1.13) is that defined for SU(2)⊗U(1):

$$D_\mu \phi = \left(\partial_\mu + igT^i W_\mu^i + \frac{i}{2}g'B_\mu \right) \phi, \quad (1.15)$$

with W_μ^i and B_μ the gauge fields of SU(2)_L and U(1)_Y, and g and g' the SU(2) and U(1) gauge couplings respectively. The Higgs potential $V(\Phi)$ in Eq.(1.13) is defined as

$$V(\phi) = -\mu^2 \Phi^\dagger \Phi + \lambda(\Phi^\dagger \Phi)^2. \quad (1.16)$$

If $\mu^2 > 0$, then the scalar field will acquire a non-zero vacuum expectation value (VEV), which will spontaneously break the symmetry. The VEV can be defined as

$$\langle \Phi \rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ v \end{pmatrix}. \quad (1.17)$$

To ensure that the symmetry of electromagnetism is not broken, the scalar field ϕ^0 is taken to have charge $Q = 0$. Under this scheme, both the hypercharge Y and the weak isospin T_3 are not conserved, but the specific combination of them which is defined as electric charge, $Q = T_3 + \frac{1}{2}Y$ is conserved, so the electroweak symmetry is spontaneously broken to form a U(1) symmetry of electric charge Q ,

$$SU(2)_L \otimes U(1)_Y \rightarrow U(1)_Q. \quad (1.18)$$

The W^\pm and Z masses can now be generated from this mechanism. In the unitary gauge, the scalar doublet can be written

$$\Phi = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ v + h \end{pmatrix}. \quad (1.19)$$

Through substituting the above into Eq.(1.13), the gauge fields of the real electroweak bosons W^\pm, Z, γ can be found as linear combinations of W_μ^i and B_μ with their mass terms now generated in a gauge invariant form:

$$W_\mu^\pm \equiv \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(W_\mu^1 \mp iW_\mu^2), \quad m_W = \frac{gv}{2}, \quad (1.20)$$

$$Z_\mu \equiv \frac{1}{\sqrt{g^2 + g'^2}}(gW_\mu^3 - g'B_\mu), \quad m_Z = \frac{v}{2}\sqrt{g^2 + g'^2}, \quad (1.21)$$

$$A_\mu \equiv \frac{1}{\sqrt{g^2 + g'^2}}(g'W_\mu^3 + gB_\mu), \quad m_A = 0. \quad (1.22)$$

It can be said that three of component scalar fields in Eq.(1.14) were "eaten" to form the gauge boson masses, and the fourth field goes on to become the Higgs phenomenon [2]. Now the final piece of the puzzle is fermion masses. We consider the final term of Eq.(1.1), the Yukawa Lagrangian. It is split into two terms: the one written and "h.c.", representing the hermitian conjugate of the former. The hermitian conjugate term is required so both up-type quarks, and down-type quarks and charged leptons gain mass [3]. In the unitary gauge, the down-type quark Yukawa term reads

$$-\mathcal{L}_{Yuk}^d = \sum_{a,b} Y_{ab}^{(d)} (\bar{u}_{aL} \bar{d}_{aL}) \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \frac{v}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix} d_{bR} = \sum_{a,b} Y_{ab}^{(d)} \phi_0 \bar{d}_{aL} d_{bR}, \quad (1.23)$$

where ϕ^0 is defined as $\frac{v}{\sqrt{2}}$ through the transformation

$$\Phi = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ v + h \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ v \end{pmatrix} \quad (1.24)$$

from the spontaneous symmetry breaking. So now down-type quarks and charged leptons have gained masses. To generate the masses of the up-type quarks, the hermitian conjugate term is used, where now a second Higgs doublet (not independent of the first, but its charge conjugate) is introduced as

$$\tilde{\Phi} = i\sigma_2 \Phi^* = \begin{pmatrix} \phi^{0*} \\ -\phi^{+*} \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} v + h \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (1.25)$$

The up-type quark Yukawa term is then

$$-\mathcal{L}_{Yuk}^u = \sum_{a,b} Y_{ab}^{(u)} (\bar{u}_{aL} \bar{d}_{aL}) \begin{pmatrix} \frac{v}{\sqrt{2}} \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} u_{bR} = \sum_{a,b} Y_{ab}^{(u)} \phi_0^0 \bar{u}_{aL} u_{bR}. \quad (1.26)$$

The charged lepton masses are generated similarly, and the expressions of masses read

$$m_i = -\frac{Y_i v}{\sqrt{2}}, \quad (1.27)$$

where i will represent the fermions [2]. The question of neutrino mass is at the forefront of some research, and so won't be mentioned in this study, other than that it is now known that neutrinos do have mass, however small.

In Eqs.(1.23) and (1.26), we have formed non-diagonal mass matrices. These can be diagonalised in which the constituent states are the mass eigenstates, e.g. for the quarks, there would be

$$\frac{v}{\sqrt{2}} V_1^\dagger Y_u V_1 = \begin{pmatrix} m_u & & \\ & m_c & \\ & & m_t \end{pmatrix}, \quad \frac{v}{\sqrt{2}} V_2^\dagger Y_d V_2 = \begin{pmatrix} m_d & & \\ & m_s & \\ & & m_b \end{pmatrix}. \quad (1.28)$$

It is possible for these matrices to be diagonalised simultaneously, however, this is not generally expected so we do not start under that assumption. By convention, it is chosen to diagonalise the up-type quarks, and then rotate the down-type quarks between

their weak eigenstates and their mass eigenstates [7]. The famous Cabibbo-Kobayashi-Maskawa (CKM) matrix, defined $V_{CKM} \equiv V_1^\dagger V_2$, is the matrix connecting to mass and weak eigenstates,

$$\begin{pmatrix} d \\ s \\ b \end{pmatrix} = V_{CKM} \begin{pmatrix} d' \\ s' \\ b' \end{pmatrix}, \quad (1.29)$$

as well as describing quark mixing between the up- and down-type quarks. The CKM matrix in its full form is a unitary matrix; it is currently believed to be a 3×3 unitary matrix. This however could be a section of a 4×4 unitary matrix if a fourth generation of fermions existed, meaning the current 3×3 matrix would not necessarily be unitary. The strengths of quark coupling are stored in elements of the CKM matrix as

$$V_{CKM} = \begin{pmatrix} V_{ud} & V_{us} & V_{ub} \\ V_{cd} & V_{cs} & V_{cb} \\ V_{td} & V_{ts} & V_{tb} \end{pmatrix}. \quad (1.30)$$

These individual elements can be found through quark coupling processes. For better understanding of the CKM matrix however, it can be easier to parameterise it. There are many parameterisations that can be used for this, though the two most common are the *standard parameterisation* [8], which is an exact parameterisation, and the *Wolfenstein parameterisation*, which is an approximation [9]. The standard parameterisation follows from extension of the Cabibbo angle for mixing between the first and second generations, where we now use three Cabibbo-like matrices for interactions of two quark generations, and multiply them for the CKM matrix, including a phase required by the formation of a 3×3 unitary matrix:

$$\begin{aligned} V_{CKM} &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos \theta_{23} & \sin \theta_{23} \\ 0 & -\sin \theta_{23} & \cos \theta_{23} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta_{13} & 0 & \sin \theta_{13} e^{i\delta} \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -\sin \theta_{13} e^{i\delta} & 0 & \cos \theta_{13} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta_{12} & \sin \theta_{12} & 0 \\ -\sin \theta_{12} & \cos \theta_{12} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} c_{12}c_{13} & s_{12}c_{13} & s_{13}e^{-i\delta} \\ -s_{12}c_{23} - c_{12}s_{23}s_{13}e^{i\delta} & c_{12}c_{23} - s_{12}s_{23}s_{13}e^{i\delta} & s_{23}c_{13} \\ s_{12}c_{23} - c_{12}c_{23}s_{13}e^{i\delta} & -c_{12}s_{23} - s_{12}c_{23}s_{12}e^{i\delta} & c_{23}c_{13} \end{pmatrix}. \end{aligned} \quad (1.31)$$

The Wolfenstein parameterisation approximates the standard parameterisation as $\lambda = s_{12} \approx 0.22543$, $A\lambda^2 = s_{23}$, and $A\lambda^3(\rho - i\eta) = s_{13}e^{-i\delta}$, and performs a Taylor expansion traditionally to order λ^3 to yield

$$V_{CKM} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 - \frac{\lambda^2}{2} & \lambda & A\lambda^3(\rho - i\eta) \\ -\lambda & 1 - \frac{\lambda^2}{2} & A\lambda^2 \\ A\lambda^3(1 - \rho - i\eta) & -A\lambda^2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} + \mathcal{O}(\lambda^4). \quad (1.32)$$

This parameterisation makes it very easy to see the relative strengths of the coupling.

An important element of the CKM matrix is its complex phase.² The presence of a complex phase allows for CP-violating processes to take place in the Standard Model:

²If its real form were a 4×4 matrix, there would be three phases, implying significantly more CP violation.

the CKM matrix's hermitian conjugate will give the complex conjugated phase, yielding different physics over CP conjugation for complex coupling elements. In the Wolfenstein parameterisation, all CP violation is held with the $\rho - i\eta$ terms. Plotting measurements in the (ρ, η) plane can prove useful in understanding these terms, to which end the unitarity triangle can be formed:

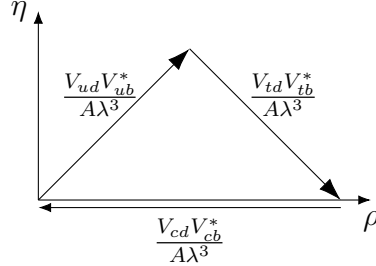


Figure 1: The unitarity triangle from the Wolfenstein parameterisation in (ρ, η) space.

The unitarity triangle can help describe many things in quark mixing, such as CP violation, through the length of its side and its angles. It can also be useful to define a unitarity circle through comparison of experiment and theory in CP-violating processes, and from these and others, many regions in the (ρ, η) plane can be defined to interpret various constants and effects in quark mixing.

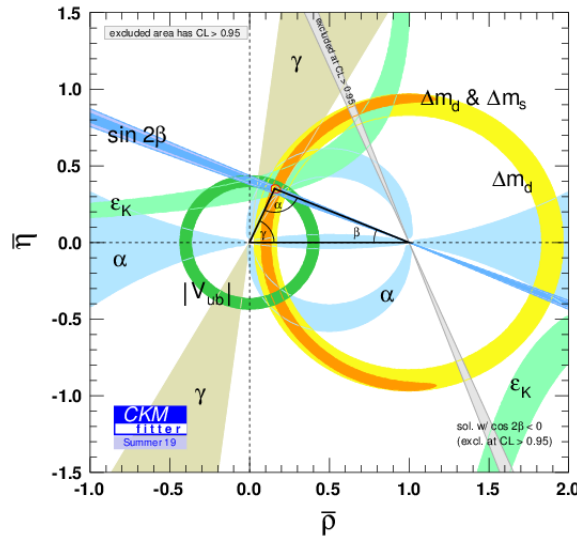


Figure 2: The global CKM fit in the (ρ, η) plane, as of 13/01/20 [10].

1.2 Flavour Physics and CP Violation

One of the big questions about the formulation of our universe is why is there an asymmetry between matter and anti-matter, known as Baryogenesis. Sakharov stated in 1967 three criteria that must have been fulfilled throughout the evolution of the Universe to create the current state of matter-antimatter asymmetry [11]. These are:

1. Baryon Number Violation - this is theorised in sphalerons, though not yet confirmed experimentally [12].

2. C and CP Violation - this is present in the Standard Model, although not to the extent required.
3. A First Order Phase Transition in the early universe - this could have been possible in the Standard Model, but only for $m_h < 60 \text{ GeV}$, whereas we now measure the Higgs mass to be $m_h = 125.1 \pm 0.14 \text{ GeV}$.

A significant focus of flavour physics is the study of CP violation - the violation of CP symmetry (the product of Charge and Parity symmetries) in the Standard Model. CP symmetry was introduced as a candidate for the fundamental symmetry of Standard Model interactions after Parity violation was discovered in 1957 [5]. Not long after, CP violation was also discovered, in 1964 in Kaon mixing [13]. CP violation has since been studied in the b-quark sector and recently discovered as well in the c-quark sector. The necessity of CP violation for the question of baryogenesis is apparent: if left-handed baryons interact differently to right-handed anti-baryons, then one of these can be more prominent than the other. Both the electromagnetic and strong forces appear to conserve CP, the weak force, however, through the chiral nature of its couplings, does not. There are two ways for CP-violating interactions to occur through the weak force: through complex Yukawa couplings in the CKM matrix; and through complex Higgs parameters, such as those in the 2 Higgs Doublet Model to be discussed in section 1.3. There is also a question of whether CP violation can be found in the strong sector, but this will not be discussed here [3].

Currently, there is a significant crux to the study of Sakharov's condition of CP violation: the amount of CP violation currently observed would not be enough to account for the large baryon asymmetry of the universe. This points toward physics beyond the Standard Model to add to the CP violation predicted and perhaps predict where to observe the CP violation needed in nature [7]. There are many proposals for Standard Model extensions which could bridge the gap between theory and experiment, although these extensions would require new particles to be observed to explain their phenomena, none of which have so far been observed.

The Z' boson is a common extension to the Standard Model, which in its simplest application behaves akin to the Z^0 boson but with a higher mass. There are many descriptions of the Z' boson ranging from the introduction of a new U(1) gauge symmetry to the inclusion of string theory [14]. The consideration of a Z' boson to flavour physics is to add extra coupling paths to scattering amplitudes which could better explain flavour observables. An example of how Z' could modify Standard Model decays is given in Figure 3.

$$\Gamma_{\text{Exp}} = B^- \left\{ \begin{array}{c} b \rightarrow s \\ \bar{u} \rightarrow \bar{u} \end{array} \right\} K^- + B^- \left\{ \begin{array}{c} b \rightarrow s \\ \bar{u} \rightarrow \bar{u} \end{array} \right\} K^- \quad (1.33)$$

Figure 3: Proposed Z' extension to $\Gamma[B^- \rightarrow K^- \mu^+ \mu^-]_{SM}$ (without higher-order terms).

It could also be possible that there is a fourth generation of fermions, perfectly replicating the first generation to higher masses as the second and third generations do. The presence of the fourth generation could add extra Feynman diagrams to decays, increasing the resulting decay amplitude. Another interesting implication of a fourth generation would be that the CKM matrix would now be a 4x4 matrix, which could see some alterations to flavour-changing interactions, even some additional complex terms where CP violation would arise. A key indicator on this extension is in the Higgs mechanism.

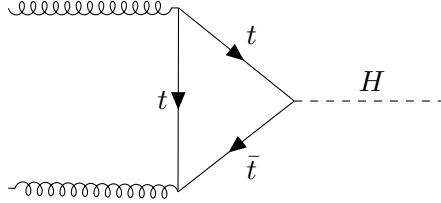


Figure 4: Higgs boson production through the top quark loop.

The Higgs couples more strongly to heavier particles, so the top-Higgs vertex seen in Figure 4 should be replicated with the theoretical t' and b' quarks with increased amplitudes. However, when just considering the SM4 model, the new prediction of the Higgs scattering amplitude is far greater than that observed [15]. It could be possible that the SM4 model is physical, but would also need another extension to resolve its issues, such as the Two Higgs Doublet Model discussed below [16].

1.3 The Two Higgs Doublet Model of Type II

Previously in the Standard Model Higgs mechanism, to generate the masses of the weak gauge bosons and fermions, a single Higgs SU(2) doublet of complex scalar fields was introduced, as in Eq.(1.14). To form masses for both up- and down-type quarks and charged leptons, we introduced the hermitian conjugate doublet in Eq.(1.25), otherwise the Higgs field would only give mass to the down-type quarks. Now two Higgs doublets can be postulated, of the general form

$$\Phi_1 = \begin{pmatrix} \phi_1 + i\phi_2 \\ \phi_0 + i\phi_3 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \Phi_2 = \begin{pmatrix} \phi_5 + i\phi_6 \\ \phi_4 + i\phi_7 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (1.34)$$

These two doublets would have opposite hypercharge so one would couple to up-type quarks, and the other to down-type [17]. Each doublet would have its own VEV, with the quadrature addition of these two VEVs creating the value measured in experiment:

$$\Phi_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ v_1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \Phi_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} v_2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad v_{SM}^2 = v_1^2 + v_2^2. \quad (1.35)$$

Under this model, the masses of the three weak gauge bosons can still be generated in the same way, each eating one of the scalar fields. This time, however, there would be 5 residual scalar fields, and so, five Higgs fields should be found: three neutral Higgs - two scalar H and h (where h is the SM Higgs particle) and one pseudoscalar A . There will also be two charged Higgs H^\pm . The introduction of these new particles requires searching for additional parameters to describe them: the masses of H , A , and H^\pm ; the mixing

angle between h and H ; and the VEV ratio $\tan \beta = v_2/v_1$ [18]. The 2HDM potential can be written in its most general form as

$$V(\Phi_1, \Phi_2) = m_{11}^2 \Phi_1^\dagger \Phi_1 + m_{22}^2 \Phi_2^\dagger \Phi_2 + m_{12}^2 (\Phi_1^\dagger \Phi_2 + \Phi_2^\dagger \Phi_1) + \frac{\lambda_1}{2} (\Phi_1^\dagger \Phi)^2 + \frac{\lambda_2}{2} (\Phi_2^\dagger \Phi)^2 \\ + \lambda_3 \Phi_1^\dagger \Phi_1 \Phi_2^\dagger \Phi_2 + \lambda_4 \Phi_1^\dagger \Phi_2 \Phi_2^\dagger \Phi_1 + \frac{\lambda_5}{2} \left[(\Phi_1^\dagger \Phi_2)^2 + (\Phi_2^\dagger \Phi_1)^2 \right]. \quad (1.36)$$

The two Higgs doublet model (2HDM) described above is the type II version, where Φ_1 couples to down-type quarks and Φ_2 couples to up-type quarks and charged leptons. There are other types of 2HDM where the two Higgs doublets couple in different ways, but the comforting sign from Type II is that it yields a similar expression for the Yukawa Lagrangian to the SM. This in turn yields a similar CKM matrix through which all flavour-changing interactions can be described. The addition of 4 new Higgs fields introduces new interactions, where the charged Higgs fields can replace W fields in flavour-changing charged interactions, as well as additional neutral interactions between the neutral Higgs scalar and pseudoscalar fields [17].

The presence of charged Higgs fields presents the opportunity to bridge the gap between theory and experiment. The charged Higgs particles can mediate weak charged currents in the same way as W^\pm , and the additional contribution of H^\pm to many weak-mediated decays could correct the Standard Model to predict these decay paths [17] more accurately. The important factors to determine whether these charged Higgs could be the answer to the inconsistencies are the relevant parameters from the 2HDM: the charged Higgs mass m_{H^\pm} , and the VEV ratio $\tan \beta$ [18]. Values of these parameters which align theory and observation can indicate where LHC experiments could probe for these theorised new particles. This study considers where regions of the 2HDM Type II parameters can align SM predictions with experiment, giving indication of where they could be found in nature if this model is to be a real extension of the Standard Model.

Finally, it is important to specify what makes the 2HDM Type II an interesting New Physics model to study. As hinted at when discussing the Sakharov criteria, one way of inducing CP violation would be through complex Higgs parameters. There are no such complex parameters in the Higgs sector of the Standard Model, however, as shown above, these are apparent in the 2HDM, and therefore we can introduce additional CP violation to possibly meet Sakharov's criterion. In addition to increased CP violation, the 2HDM also solves the problem of Sakharov's third criterion: under this model, a first order phase transition is present regardless of the value of the Higgs mass.

2 Probing the 2HDM Type II

As mentioned previously, the 2HDM is easy to probe through the charged weak current, where interactions will gain additional pathways replacing a W^\pm with a H^\pm . Studies of these new contributions have been done in the past, though it is interesting to revisit this now as new measurements are found, and SM calculations become more precise. For flavour observables, a study of the most relevant decays for charged Higgs searches was found in [18]. Here, we begin by following [18] closely to find the changes to their results

in the last ten years, before moving on to further additions. The measurements and parameters used for these expressions is given in Tables 1 and 2.

Branching Ratios	Value	Unit	Reference
$\Gamma[K^+ \rightarrow \mu^+ \nu_\mu]/\Gamma[\pi^+ \rightarrow \mu^+ \nu_\mu]$	1.337 ± 0.003		[8]
$\Gamma[\tau^+ \rightarrow K^+ \nu_\tau]/\Gamma[\tau^+ \rightarrow \pi^+ \nu_\tau]$	6.438 ± 0.094	10^{-2}	[8]
$\mathcal{Br}[B^+ \rightarrow \mu^+ \nu_\mu]$	5.3 ± 2.2	10^{-7}	[24]
$\mathcal{Br}[B^+ \rightarrow \tau^+ \nu_\tau]$	1.09 ± 0.24	10^{-4}	[8]
$\mathcal{Br}[D^+ \rightarrow \mu^+ \nu_\mu]$	3.82 ± 0.33	10^{-4}	[8]
$\mathcal{Br}[D_s^+ \rightarrow \mu^+ \nu_\mu]$	5.52 ± 0.16	10^{-3}	[8]
$\mathcal{Br}[D_s^+ \rightarrow \tau^+ \nu_\tau]$	5.48 ± 0.23	10^{-2}	[8]
$\mathcal{Br}[\bar{B} \rightarrow X_s \gamma]$	3.32 ± 0.15	10^{-4}	[22, 25]
$\mathcal{Br}[\bar{B} \rightarrow X_c e \bar{\nu}]$	10.65 ± 0.16	10^{-2}	[8, 25]
$\mathcal{Br}[\bar{B} \rightarrow X_u e \bar{\nu}]$	8.41 ± 0.59	10^{-4}	[26]
$\mathcal{Br}[B_d \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-]$	$1.4_{-1.4}^{+1.6}$	10^{-10}	[8]
$\mathcal{Br}[B_s \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-]$	3.1 ± 0.7	10^{-9}	[25]
Δm_d	0.5064 ± 0.0019	ps^{-1}	[25]
Δm_s	17.757 ± 0.021	ps^{-1}	[25]
$\mathcal{R}(D)$	0.340 ± 0.030		[25]
$\mathcal{R}(D^*)$	0.298 ± 0.014		[25]

Table 1: Branching ratios using in testing parameter space of 2HDM Type II. In the case of normalised ratios, values have been calculated using the constituent measurements taken from reference.

2.1 Leptonic Decays

In the Standard Model, the leptonic decay $M \rightarrow l \nu_l$, where M is a charged meson, has a branching ratio of

$$\mathcal{Br}[M \rightarrow l \nu_l]_{\text{SM}} = \frac{G_F^2 m_M m_l^2}{8\pi} \left(1 - \frac{m_l^2}{m_M^2}\right)^2 |V_{quqd}|^2 f_M^2 \tau_M (1 + \delta_{EM}^{Ml2}), \quad (2.1)$$

where q_u and q_d represent the up- and down-like quarks of the meson, V_{quqd} the CKM element, f_M the M meson's decay constant, and G_F is the Fermi constant, defined as

$$G_F = \frac{g_2^2 \sqrt{2}}{8M_W^2} \approx 1.166 \times 10^{-5} \text{ GeV}^{-2}. \quad (2.2)$$

δ_{EM}^{Ml2} is a corrective factor for electromagnetic radiative corrections. For π and K mesons, the effect is around 2-3% and around 1% for D mesons. For B meson phenomena, the effect is approximated to 0. For the light mesons, kaons and pions, it is easier to determine the ratio of their decay constants f_K/f_π than the individual values. Thus, it is then easier to consider the ratio of their branching fractions as well. In the Standard Model,

$$\frac{\Gamma[K \rightarrow \mu \nu]_{\text{SM}}}{\Gamma[\pi \rightarrow \mu \nu]_{\text{SM}}} = \frac{m_K}{m_\pi} \left(\frac{1 - m_l^2/m_K^2}{1 - m_l^2/m_\pi^2}\right)^2 \left|\frac{V_{us}}{V_{ud}}\right|^2 \left(\frac{f_K}{f_\pi}\right)^2 (1 + \delta_{EM}^{Kl2/\pi l2}). \quad (2.3)$$

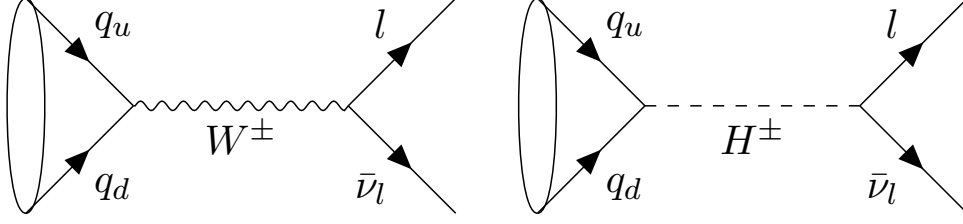


Figure 5: W^\pm and H^\pm pathways for the leptonic decay of a meson (before higher-order terms).

It is also worth considering the ratio of tau decays of kaons to pions:

$$\frac{\Gamma[\tau \rightarrow K\nu]_{\text{SM}}}{\Gamma[\tau \rightarrow \pi\nu]_{\text{SM}}} = \left(\frac{1 - m_K^2/m_\tau^2}{1 - m_\pi^2/m_\tau^2} \right)^2 \left| \frac{V_{us}}{V_{ud}} \right|^2 \left(\frac{f_K}{f_\pi} \right)^2 (1 + \delta_{EM}^{\tau K2/\tau\pi2}). \quad (2.4)$$

These SM branching values will take alterations from the two Higgs doublet model of the form

$$\mathcal{B}r[M \rightarrow l\nu] = \mathcal{B}r[M \rightarrow l\nu]_{\text{SM}}(1 + r_H)^2, \quad (2.5)$$

where r_H is the corrective factor of the two Higgs doublet model:

$$r_H = \left(\frac{m_{q_u} - m_{q_d} \tan^2 \beta}{m_{q_u} + m_{q_d}} \right) \left(\frac{m_M}{m_{H^+}} \right)^2. \quad (2.6)$$

It can still be possible through this method for some leptonic decays to have agreement between the SM predictions and experiment, where $r_H = 0, -2$. $r_H = 0$ is known as the decoupling solution which can be found as m_{H^+} approaches infinity; $r_H = -2$, the fine-tuned solution, is obtained from a linear relationship between m_{H^+} and $\tan \beta$, which will be dependent of the masses of the meson and its constituent quarks, so will vary between mesons.

2.2 Mass mixing

Neutral B meson mixing is a common study in flavour physics, due to the strong dependence on the heavy W exchange. A key observable in the study of B-mixing is the mass

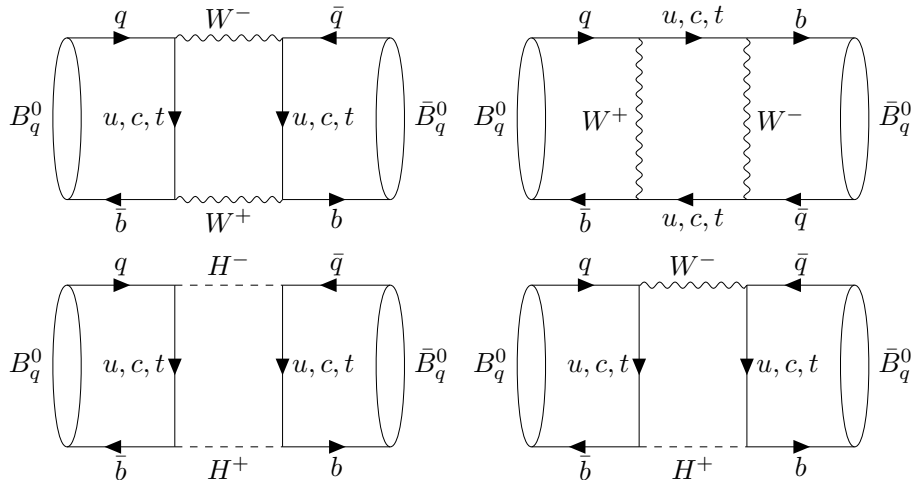


Figure 6: Examples of the box diagrams detailing B_d and B_s meson mixing.

difference Δm_q between the two mass eigenstates $\Delta m_q = M_H^q - M_L^q$, where ‘ H ’ denotes

the ‘heavy’ eigenstate and ‘ L ’ denotes the ‘light’. A thorough description of this process can be found, for example, in [19]. In the 2HDM, the mass difference receives two additional contributions from box diagrams using the heavy charged Higgs in place of both W s or one W . For B_q , where $q = d, s$, this results (to Leading Order) in:

$$\Delta m_q = \frac{G_F^2}{6\pi^2} (V_{tq} V_{tb}^*)^2 \hat{\eta}_B m_B m_W^2 f_{B_q}^2 B_{B_q} (S_{WW} + 2S_{WH} + S_{HH}), \quad (2.7)$$

$$S_{WW} = x_{tW} \left(\frac{1}{4} + \frac{9}{4(1-x_{tW})} - \frac{3}{2(1-x_{tW})^2} - \frac{3x_{tW}^2 \ln(x_{tW})}{2(1-x_{tW})^3} \right), \quad (2.8)$$

$$S_{HH} = \frac{x_{tH} x_{tW}}{4 \tan^4 \beta} \left(\frac{1+x_{tH}}{(1-x_{tH})^2} + \frac{2x_{tH} \ln(x_{tH})}{(1-x_{tH})^3} \right), \quad (2.9)$$

$$2S_{WH} = \frac{x_{tH} x_{tW}}{4 \tan^2 \beta} \left(\frac{(2x_{tW} - 8x_{tH}) \ln(x_{tH})}{(1-x_{tH})^2 (x_{tH} - x_{tW})} + \frac{6x_{tW} \ln(x_{tW})}{(1-x_{tW})^2 (x_{tH} - x_{tW})} - \frac{8 - 2x_{tW}}{(1-x_{tH})(1-x_{tW})} \right). \quad (2.10)$$

where $x_{ij} = m_i^2/m_j^2$, and S_{xy} describes the internal bosonic lines for the two bosons $x, y \in H^\pm, W^\pm$. The current SM predictions for the mass differences are stated in [20] as

$$\Delta m_d^{\text{SM}} = (0.533_{-0.036}^{+0.022}) ps^{-1} = (1.05_{-0.07}^{+0.04}) \Delta m_d^{\text{exp}}, \quad (2.11)$$

$$\Delta m_s^{\text{SM}} = (18.4_{-1.2}^{+0.7}) ps^{-1} = (1.04_{-0.07}^{+0.04}) \Delta m_s^{\text{exp}}. \quad (2.12)$$

2.3 Radiative decay

The radiative decay $b \rightarrow s\gamma$ occurs through the flavour-changing neutral currents of penguin diagrams. The Standard Model calculations of $\bar{B} \rightarrow X_s \gamma$ have been performed up to Next-to-Next Leading Order (NNLO), which yields a complicated expression, so the result is parameterised in line with [18, 21].

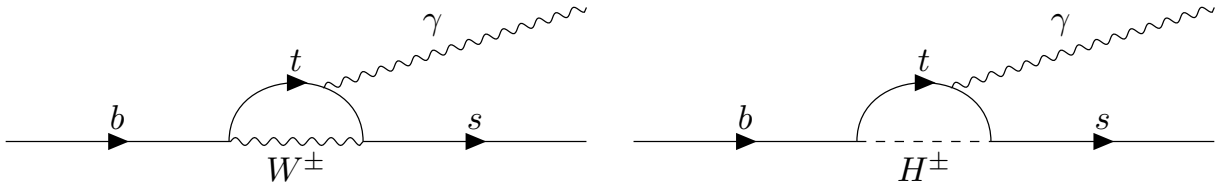


Figure 7: One-loop penguin diagrams for $b \rightarrow s\gamma$ decay.

Similarly to B meson mixing, W can be substituted for a charged Higgs in all the relevant penguin diagrams, giving extra contributions again to the theory. The 2HDM corrections given by these additional contributions are calculated to NLO in [21], so the SM parameters must be limited to NLO. The branching ratio of $\bar{B} \rightarrow X_s \gamma$ is given by

$$\mathcal{Br}[\bar{B} \rightarrow X_s \gamma] = \mathcal{Br}[\bar{B} \rightarrow X_c l \bar{\nu}] \left| \frac{V_{ts}^* V_{tb}}{V_{cb}} \right|^2 \frac{6\alpha_{\text{EM}}}{\pi C} (P + N). \quad (2.13)$$

Here, P represents the perturbative leading contribution in the heavy quark expansion, and N the non-perturbative higher-order contributions of the heavy quark expansion. P and N are parameterised in [18, 21] as

$$P + N = (C_{7,SM}^{\text{eff},(0)} + B\Delta C_{7,H^+}^{\text{eff},(0)})^2 + A, \quad (2.14)$$

Input	Value	Unit	Reference
Decay Constants			
f_K/f_π	1.1932 ± 0.0019		[8]
f_B	190 ± 1.3	MeV	[27]
f_{B_s}	230 ± 1.3	MeV	[27]
f_D	212 ± 0.7	MeV	[27]
f_{D_s}	249.9 ± 0.5	MeV	[27]
Radiative corrections			
$\delta_{EM}^{Kl2/\pi l2}$	-0.0069 ± 0.0017		[8]
$\delta_{EM}^{\tau K2/\tau \pi 2}$	0.003		[18]
B meson mixing			
$f_{B_d}^2 B_{B_d}$	0.0305 ± 0.0011	GeV ²	[20]
$f_{B_s}^2 B_{B_s}$	0.0452 ± 0.0014	GeV ²	[20]
$\hat{\eta}_B$	0.838606		[28]
$\mathbf{b} \rightarrow \mathbf{s}\gamma$ parameters			
m_t^{pole}	173.1 ± 0.9	GeV	[8]
$\alpha_S(m_Z)$	0.1179 ± 0.001		[8]
μ_b	1.095	GeV	

Table 2: Parameters used in the 2HDM fits for decays outlined in Section 2.

where A and B are functions defined in [18], $C_{7,SM}^{\text{eff},(0)}$ is one of the Wilson coefficients of the effective Hamiltonian in the SM, and $\Delta C_{7,H^+}^{\text{eff},(0)}$ holds the charged Higgs contributions to the SM Wilson coefficient. Although these expressions are calculated to NLO, in calculating the above Wilson coefficients, we choose a renormalisation scheme μ_b such that we recover the results of the NNLO calculation.

In Eq.(2.13), C is the non-perturbative phase-space normalisation factor for the difference between the charmed semileptonic branching ratio and $\bar{B} \rightarrow X_s \gamma$. From [22], it is defined as

$$C = \left| \frac{V_{ub}}{V_{cb}} \right|^2 \frac{\Gamma(\bar{B} \rightarrow X_c e \bar{\nu})}{\Gamma(\bar{B} \rightarrow X_u e \bar{\nu})}. \quad (2.15)$$

This factor is important to cancel out the charm contribution we included earlier in $\mathcal{B}r[\bar{B} \rightarrow X_c l \bar{\nu}]$ to return us to the charmless state we consider. For these calculations, we follow the parameterisation of this process laid out in Appendix B of [18].

2.4 Updating The 2HDM Constraints

Before adding to the fit performed in [18], we check that we can replicate their results from 2009 and update this with the most recent input values. All processes mentioned above were used to test the constraints on the 2HDM parameters m_{H^+} and $\tan \beta$. The 2HDM-extended branching ratios were tested in $(m_{H^+}, \tan \beta)$ parameter space to search for regions where a charged Higgs would be allowed by nature. The individual constraints

found for leptonic decays, B meson mixing, and the radiative $b \rightarrow s\gamma$ decay are shown in Figure 8 in a log-log scale. After the constraints on the 2HDM for each individual process were found, they were combined for a global fit shown in Figure 9b (again in a log-log scale), yielding an overall allowed region in $(m_{H^+}, \tan\beta)$ space.

For each constraint, a scan was performed to 2σ to find regions where the parameter space is not excluded at this level. A χ^2 fit was then performed to constrain these regions to where $\Delta\chi^2$ corresponded to 95% CL exclusion, such that each region shown in these Figures shows what is not excluded to 95% CL. For the combined fit, we also show the 1σ confidence region.

To test the validity of these results, we also show what our calculations produce for 2009 inputs, as done in [18]. This fit is shown in Figure 9a, where it is seen to replicate the previous results, finding $m_{H^+} > 316$ GeV at 95% CL. The 2HDM is generally taken to

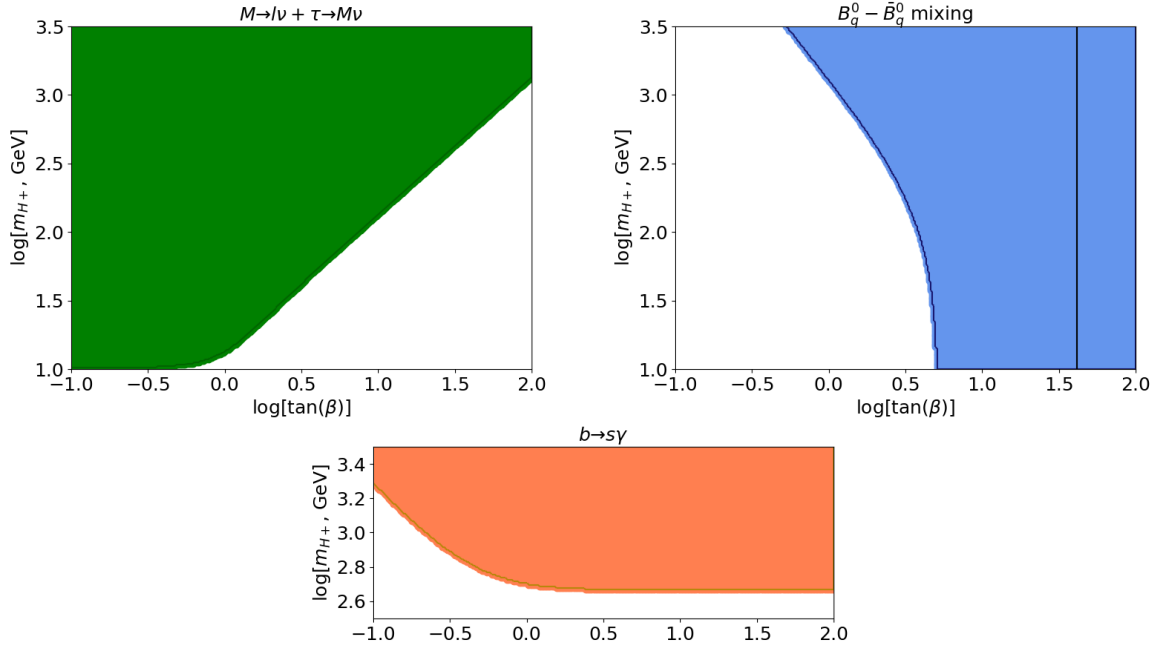


Figure 8: Constraints of $(m_{H^+}, \tan\beta)$ space from leptonic decays (top left), B_d and B_s mixing (top right), and the radiative $b \rightarrow s\gamma$ decay (bottom). The leptonic decays used were $B^+ \rightarrow \tau^+\nu$, $B^+ \rightarrow \mu^+\nu$, $D^+ \rightarrow \mu^+\nu$, $D_s^+ \rightarrow \mu^+\nu$, $D_s^+ \rightarrow \tau^+\nu$, and the ratios $K \rightarrow \mu\nu/\pi \rightarrow \mu\nu$ and $\tau \rightarrow K\nu/\tau \rightarrow \pi\nu$. The solid black vertical line (top right) shows $\tan\beta = m_t/m_b$, as for $\tan\beta$ much greater than this, the formulae for B mixing become invalid. Each region shows what is not excluded to 95% CL, as discussed in the text.

be a decoupling theory. That is, taking the limit $m_{H^+} \rightarrow \infty$ should recover the Standard Model picture of physics. For as far as we scan here, this is reinforced in our results, such that there is no upper bound on m_{H^+} . We also see that for the combined fit, $\tan\beta$ will extend both to smaller and larger values as $m_{H^+} \rightarrow \infty$, such that there is no definitive constraint on $\tan\beta$. There is, however, a clear indication of a minimum allowed value for m_{H^+} , found here as

$$m_{H^+} > \begin{cases} 480 \text{ GeV,} & 95\% \text{ CL,} \\ 750 \text{ GeV,} & 1\sigma. \end{cases} \quad (2.16)$$

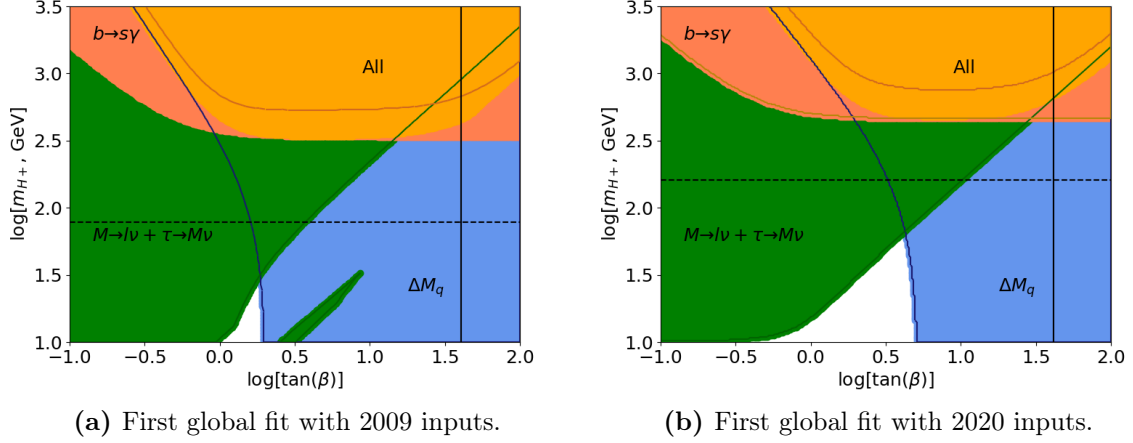


Figure 9: First global fit of constraints on m_{H^+} and $\tan\beta$ from observables considered in [18]. Each region shows what is not excluded for the relevant observables to 95% CL as discussed in the text, then the line within the orange region for all observables marks out the 1σ confidence area. The solid black vertical line shows $\tan\beta = m_t/m_b$, as for $\tan\beta$ much greater than this, the formulae for B mixing become invalid. The dashed horizontal line marks the limit for a charged Higgs from direct searches, at $m_{H^+} > 160$ GeV [23].

2.5 New Observables

Having found agreement with the fit in [18], and updating this with new inputs, we move on to new observables not yet considered. There are some observables discussed in previous works that they did not include in their fit that we discuss here, as well as some that have had improved work in experiment and theory over the last 10 years.

2.5.1 $B^+ \rightarrow \mu^+ \nu$

The heavily CKM- and helicity-suppressed leptonic decay was recently measured by the Belle collaboration [24], and can be added to the fit using the theory for leptonic decays in Section 2.1 for the first time to either reinforce the structure of the leptonic decay region in Figure 8 or to show new sensitivity. This decay is now included in the leptonic fit in Figure 8, and does not constrain the model any more than the other leptonic decays.

2.5.2 $B_{d,s} \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-$

These decays can be particularly sensitive to scalar operator effects in new physics, and as such, are excellent probes for the 2HDM and the additional effects this could have. In the 2HDM, this process is given by (for $q = d, s$)

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{B}r[B_q \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-] = & \frac{G_F^4 M_W^4 s_W^4}{32\pi^5} |V_{tb}^* V_{tq}|^2 f(r^2, r^2) M_{B_q} f_{B_q}^2 (4m_\mu^2) \tau_{B_q} \\ & \times \left\{ \left| \frac{M_{B_q}^2 (C_P^* - C_P')}{(m_q + m_b)(2m_\mu)} - (C_{10}^* - C_{10}') \right|^2 + \left| \frac{M_{B_q}^2 (C_S'^* - C_S^*)}{(m_q + m_b)(2m_\mu)} \right|^2 [1 - 4r^2] \right\}, \end{aligned} \quad (2.17)$$

where we follow [29] for the expressions of the relevant Wilson coefficients and the definitions of $f(x, y)$ and r , and $s_W = \sin\theta_W$ is the weak mixing angle.

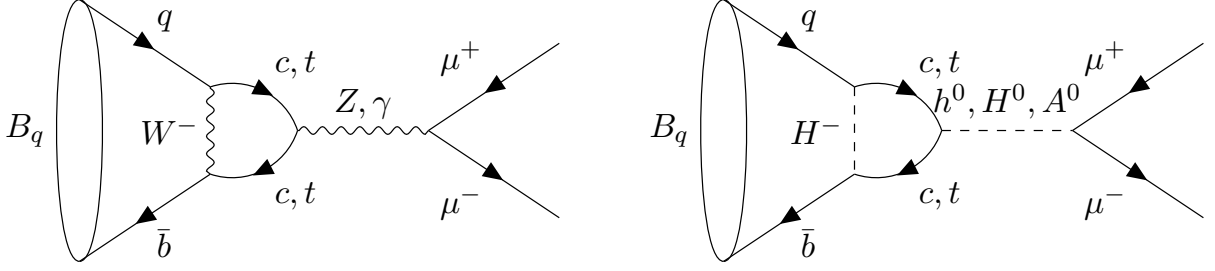


Figure 10: Examples of penguin contributions to $B_q \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-$ operators.

Previous works, see [30], have focused on studying these processes in the large $\tan \beta$ limit ($\tan \beta \gg \sqrt{\frac{m_t}{m_b}}$) where the Yukawa coupling to b quarks is large and there can large effects on B mesons. Working in the large $\tan \beta$ limit is also useful as it reduces the number of 2HDM parameters that this process will depend on. However, in this work, we choose to work with the general expressions, as given by [29], to work with our fit across the whole parameter space we study. Using these general expressions, however, introduces new variables, primarily in the expressions for the trilinear Higgs couplings which we take from [31]. These new variables are: the masses of the neutral h^0, H^0 , the mixing angle α , and the 2HDM potential parameter $M = \frac{m_{12}^2}{\sin \beta \cos \beta}$. These new parameters can all be varied along with m_{H^+} and $\tan \beta$ in a higher-dimensional fit, although it is simpler to fix some of these at set values.

When working in the 2HDM, it is usually assumed that we are working in the *alignment limit*, where the lighter neutral Higgs h^0 is taken to be the SM Higgs, and therefore the mixing angles are aligned such that $\cos(\beta - \alpha) \approx 0$. Using this limit therefore allows us to fix α and m_{h^0} , leaving two additional parameters. Scanning in $(m_{H^+}, \tan \beta)$ space, as for other observables, for fixed values of M and m_{H^0} across a range based on the work in [31] and the direct searches for H^0 in [32], we find that M bears no significance on the constraints, χ_{min}^2 , or p-values of the fit. We therefore fix $M = 750$ GeV as the median value in the range considered. The value of m_{H^0} , however, does change the scan across the range chosen. We show here the impact of different values of m_{H^0} on the allowed region of parameter space at the extremities and the middle of our range. We see that there is

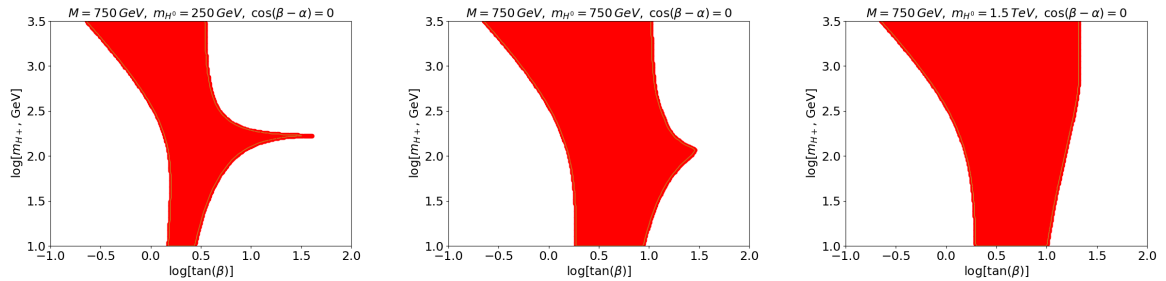


Figure 11: Constraints on $(m_{H^+}, \tan \beta)$ space from $B_{s,d} \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-$ decays, for $M = 750$ GeV, $\cos(\beta - \alpha) = 0$ and varying fixed values of m_{H^0} - 250 GeV (left), 750 GeV (center), 1.5 TeV (right). The red region in each plot indicates allowed parameter space after exclusion at 95% CL.

no specific constraint on m_{H^+} as we move towards ∞ , and these processes by themselves do not give a minimum value of m_{H^+} . We do however now see more significant bounds on

$\tan \beta$ than we had previously. The extent of the constraint on $\tan \beta$ does depend on m_{H^+} as seen in Figure 11. When added to the global constraints, this will restrict larger $\tan \beta$ values depending on m_{H^0} , though we see smaller $\tan \beta$ are still allowed as $m_{H^+} \rightarrow \infty$. Testing across the range of values for m_{H^0} , we find that using $m_{H^0} = 1.5$ TeV minimises χ^2 and maximises the p-value of our fit; see Section ref and Table 3 for details of this fit.

2.5.3 $\mathcal{R}(D)$ and $\mathcal{R}(D^{(*)})$

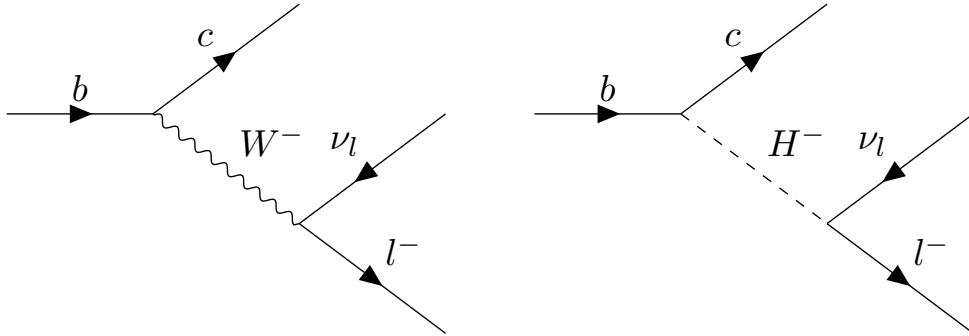


Figure 12: Tree level decay diagrams for the $b \rightarrow cl\nu$ transitions in $B \rightarrow D^{(*)}l\nu$.

These semileptonic decay ratios, defined as

$$\mathcal{R}(D^{(*)}) = \frac{\mathcal{Br}[B \rightarrow D^{(*)}\tau\nu]}{\mathcal{Br}[B \rightarrow D^{(*)}l\nu]}, \quad (2.18)$$

are well-studied anomalies in the Standard Model, deviating from the Standard Model predictions by 1.4σ and 2.5σ respectively [8]. Due to these deviations, these ratios seem well-suited for testing constraints on new physics models. In [18], a 2HDM parameterisation of $\mathcal{R}(D)$ was discussed and was said to align similarly with the leptonic constraints, however, they did not discuss $\mathcal{R}(D^{(*)})$. We follow the expressions for $\mathcal{R}(D^{(*)})$ in the 2HDM found in Section III of [33] and perform a scan as before on these observables. Historically,

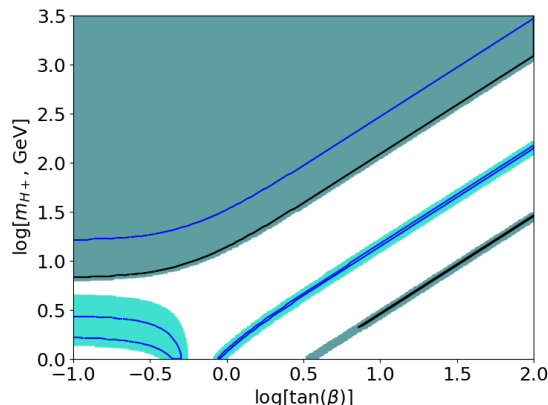


Figure 13: Constraint on $(m_{H^+}, \tan \beta)$ space from $\mathcal{R}(D)$ (blue) and $\mathcal{R}(D^{(*)})$ (turquoise) using a 2σ scan, then χ^2 fitting as described in the text. The black lines for each region outlines the 95% CL region and the blue lines outline the 1σ confidence region.

the 2HDM has struggled to fit both these ratios simultaneously, and it may be a killer

argument for this model if no resolution to this can be found. So far we have implemented 2σ scans, and at this level, $\mathcal{R}(D^*)$ excludes the 2HDM. However, exclusion at this level only means that the 2HDM performs no better than the Standard Model for this observable. We therefore move forward with two approaches to work through this discrepancy: we continue to fit all observables at the 2σ level, excluding $\mathcal{R}(D^*)$ as an anomaly as it is in the Standard Model; and we also scan to higher σ , as $\mathcal{R}(D^*)$ may then agree with the fit to this level, suggesting further new physics to explain its deviation from the 2HDM.

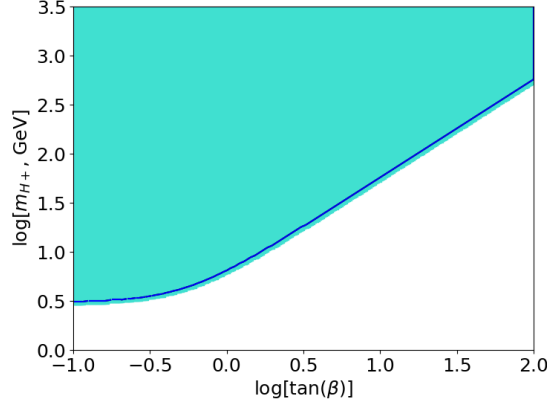


Figure 14: Constraint on $(m_{H^+}, \tan \beta)$ space from $\mathcal{R}(D)$ and $\mathcal{R}(D^*)$ from a 5σ scan. The turquoise region shows what is not excluded for the joint fit of these two observables from the 5σ scan, and the blue line indicates the outline of the 95% CL region.

2.6 Results With James

2.7 SM4x2HDM

3 Conclusion

Model:	$\cos(\beta - \alpha) = 0.465$		$\cos(\beta - \alpha) = 0$	
	Flavour	Flavour + Oblique	Flavour	Flavour + Oblique
m_{H^+} (GeV): 95% CL	> 580	$560 \rightarrow 830$	> 500	$630 \rightarrow 870$
1σ	> 1020	$600 \rightarrow 830$	> 790	$660 \rightarrow 870$
χ^2_{min}	3200	790	3200	810
$\tan \beta$: 95% CL	< 3.7	$1.3 \rightarrow 4.1$	< 10.6	$1.4 \rightarrow 11.1$
1σ	< 3.1	$1.6 \rightarrow 3.5$	< 8.6	$1.8 \rightarrow 9.3$
χ^2_{min}	1.5	2.4	2.9	4.4
χ^2_{min}	10.3	13.9	9.9	12.1
χ^2_ν	0.94	0.99	0.90	0.86
ν	11	14	11	14
p-value	49.5%	54.0%	45.7%	40%

Table 3: Constraints and statistics for various global fits. ‘Flavour’ denotes all of the flavour observables discussed throughout, disregarding $R(D^*)$ for now; ‘Oblique’ denotes adding the three oblique parameters from James’ work, S,T,U. The fits have been done in the wrong-sign limit and the exact alignment limit as shown, and setting the additional parameters at play for now to $M = m_{H^0} = m_{A^0} = 750$ GeV. The 2HDM potential parameter M does not have much impact on the fit as it varies, although through the oblique parameters, m_{H^0} and m_{A^0} will cause our results to vary on their values as these require all new Higgs masses to be approximately equal, thus confining the space tightly near whatever values are chosen for these two masses. More thorough fits, e.g. varying the other parameters as well, to higher σ , or looking at χ^2 and p-values for a fit including $R(D^*)$ to check that validity will be incoming.

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