

University of California
Santa Barbara

Search for R-parity violating supersymmetry at the 13 TeV LHC

A dissertation submitted in partial satisfaction
of the requirements for the degree

Doctor of Philosophy
in
Physics

by

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Professor Harry Nelson
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June 2018

The Dissertation of Rohan Bhandari is approved.

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Professor David Stuart, Committee Chair

Defense Month 2018

Search for R-parity violating supersymmetry at the 13 TeV LHC

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Dedication here

Acknowledgements

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Curriculum Vitæ

Rohan Bhandari

Education

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20XX	M.A. in Physics, University of California, Santa Barbara.
20XX	etc

Publications

Publications.

Abstract

Search for R-parity violating supersymmetry at the 13 TeV LHC

by

Rohan Bhandari

Abstract text.

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Chapter 0

Introduction for Non-technical Readers

0.1 Section Title

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Part I

Context

Chapter 1

Introduction

The standard model (SM) of particle physics is one of the most successful theories in all of science. It has unified the electromagnetic, strong, and weak forces together into one framework, describing the interactions of electrons, gluons, quarks, and the other fundamental particles of the universe.

1.1 Permissions and Attributions

1. The content of chapter 2 and appendix A is the result of a collaboration with Alice and Bob, and has previously appeared in the (Journal) (paper citation). It is reproduced here with the permission of (Institution): <http://>.

Chapter 2

Theory

2.1 Section Title

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2.2 Section Title

[1, 2]. Figure 2.1.

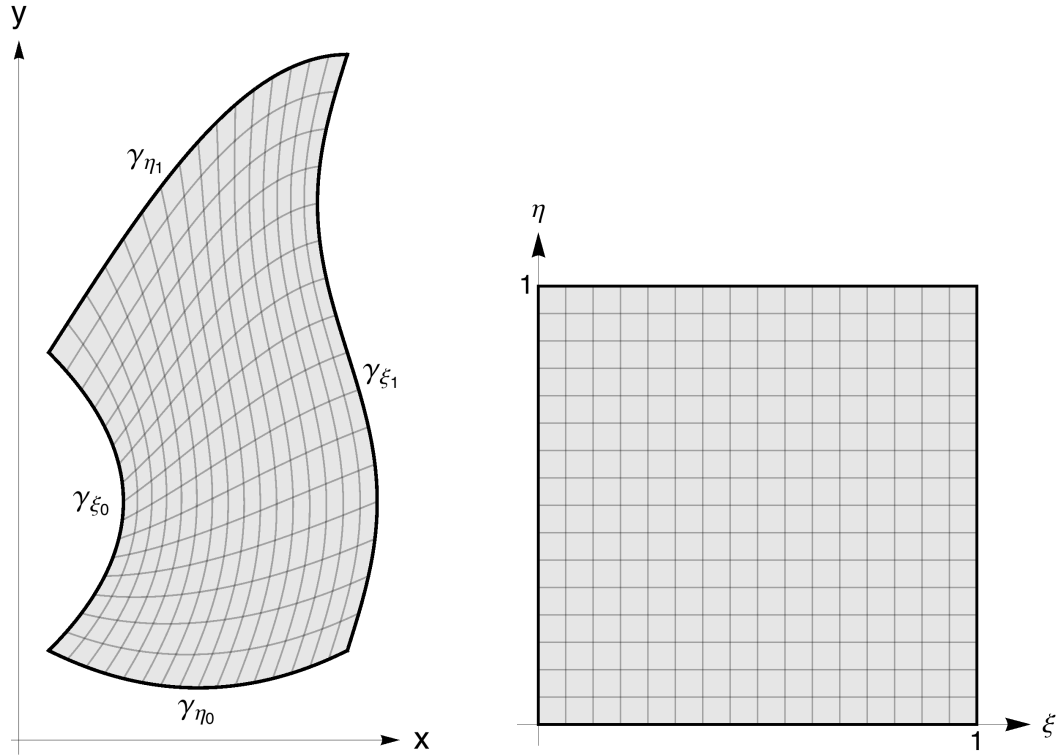


Figure 2.1: Figure Captions.

Part II

Experimental Apparatus

Chapter 3

Experimental Apparatus

While the Large Hadron Collider was approved over 20 years ago, much of its design was influenced by the needs of searches for physics beyond the Standard Model (BSM). The two most important properties of a collider, for a BSM search, are its center-of-mass energy and its (instantaneous) luminosity, both of which were designed to be higher than any previous experiment. The designed center-of-mass energy (\sqrt{s}) of 14 *TeV* allows for the production of particles heavier than ever previously, while the designed luminosity of $10^{34} \text{ cm}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$ allows BSM searches to probe very rare processes.

In the same way, the design of the Compact Muon Solenoid (CMS) detector reflects the needs of BSM searches. In particular, to fully search the uncovered parameter space of new physics an all-purpose, hermitic detector that can precisely measure a variety of particles and reliably determine the MET in an event is needed to cover the many (un)theorized new physics models.

This chapter summarizes in more detail the major features of both the LHC and CMS. A complete description of both can be found in Refs.[include].

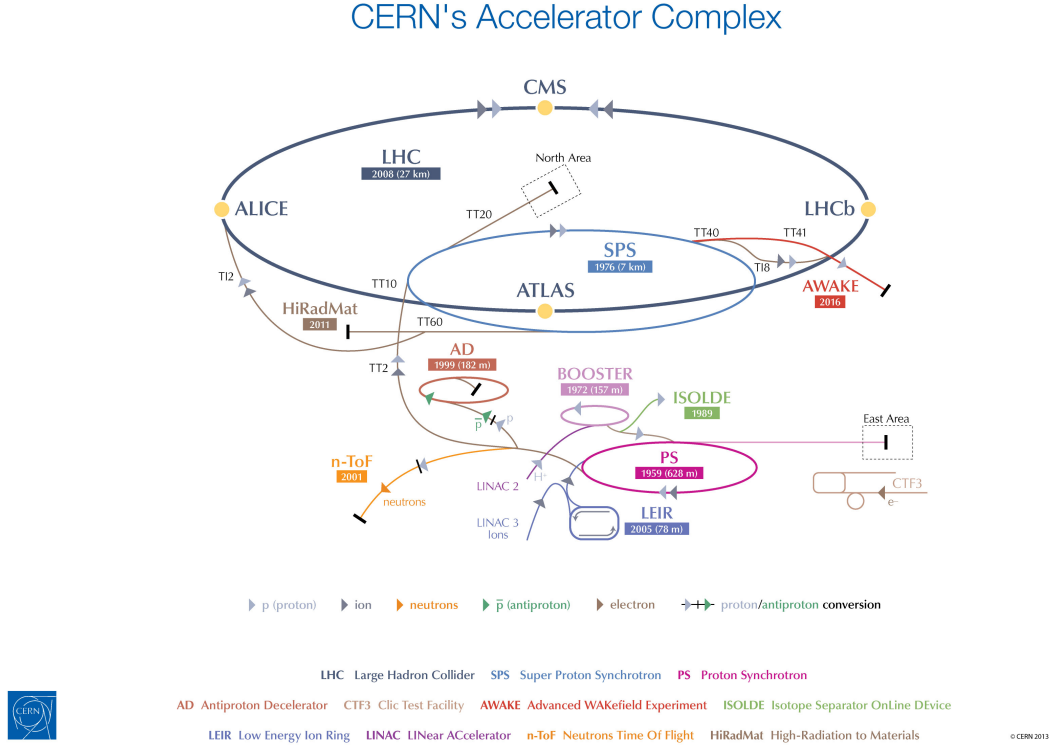


Figure 3.1: A schematic of the CERN LHC accelerator complex.

3.1 The Large Hadron Collider

The LHC since 2015 has been colliding protons together at $\sqrt{s} = 13 \text{ TeV}$, slightly below the designed specifications but still at an unsurpassed energy. In order to reach this center-of-mass energy, the LHC uses a large accelerator complex consisting of a succession of many smaller particle accelerators, which is necessary to produce protons and bring them up to a speed such that they can be injected into the LHC ring. A diagram of the CERN accelerator complex is shown in Figure 3.1.

This process first begins with a simple bottle of hydrogen gas, which are ionized by an electric field to produce the needed protons. These resulting protons are then fed into LINAC 2, the first accelerator in the chain, which accelerates them up to 50 MeV ,

creating a beam of protons. The proton beam is then passed successively to the Proton Synchrotron Booster, Proton Synchrotron, and Super Proton Synchrotron, where the beam reaches energies of 1.4 GeV , 25 GeV and 450 GeV , respectively. At the Proton Synchrotron, the beams are additionally split into “bunches”, each consisting of $O(10^{11})$ protons and separated in time by 25 ns. Finally, the protons can be injected into the two beam pipes of the LHC, each circulating in opposite directions. These beams continue to be accelerated until they reach their final energy of 6.5 TeV, allowing for collisions at $\sqrt{s} = 13 \text{ TeV}$. At this point, the proton beams are focused and fine-tuned at several stages in order to increase the luminosity. In 2016, the LHC was able to collide protons with an instantaneous luminosity of $1.4 \times 10^{34} \text{ cm}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$, exceeding its designed specification, and deliver a record-high integrated luminosity of 41.07 fb^{-1} .

These improvements from previous generations of colliders greatly increase the reach of searches for new, heavy particles. Since the center-of-mass energy of the actual colliding partons ($\sqrt{\hat{s}}$) is typically much less than the overall center-of-mass energy, raising the collider’s energy can greatly increase the production cross-section of heavy particles, especially of those around the TeV scale. For example, Figure 3.2, which depicts the ratio of parton luminosities at $\sqrt{s} = 13 \text{ TeV}$ and 8 TeV as a function of the characteristic mass scale of the event, shows that a 2000 GeV gluino will be produced through gg scattering processes $\sim 15\times$ more often with less than a doubling of the collider energy. Increasing a collider’s energy, however, is not always a practical option, involving new technologies, expensive upgrades, or even a new collider. When this is the case, the best alternative to continue to probe rare processes is to simply take more data, more quickly, which a high luminosity collider like the LHC allows for.

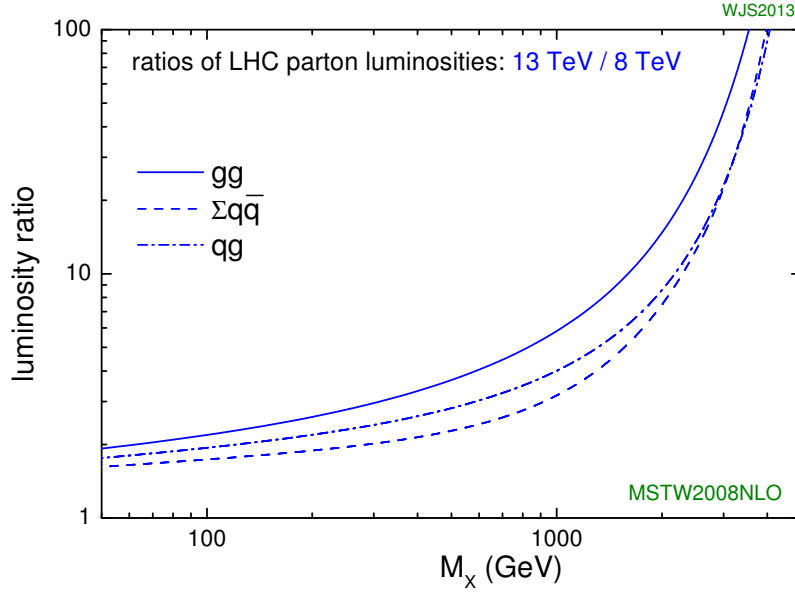


Figure 3.2: Ratio of parton luminosities at $\sqrt{s} = 13$ and 8 TeV .

3.2 Compact Muon Solenoid

Along the tunnels of the LHC, below Cessy, France, sits the CMS detector where the proton-proton collisions are recorded. The overall shape of the detector is cylindrical with a length of 21.6 m and radius of 7.3 m , while weighing roughly 14,000 metric tons. The CMS detector is sometimes called a cylindrical onion, as this shape is constructed through layers of specialized detectors, each designed to provide precise measurements for a particular particle type. Peeling back the layers from the outside-in, the first sub-detector is the muon system. Next is a superconducting solenoid of 6 m internal diameter that produces a magnetic field of 3.8 T , and perhaps most importantly provides the “S” in CMS. Placed within the solenoidal magnet, is the rest of the CMS detector, namely the Hadronical Calorimeter (HCAL), Electromagnetic Calorimeter (ECAL), and a silicon tracker. The design of fitting most of the detector components within the solenoid is

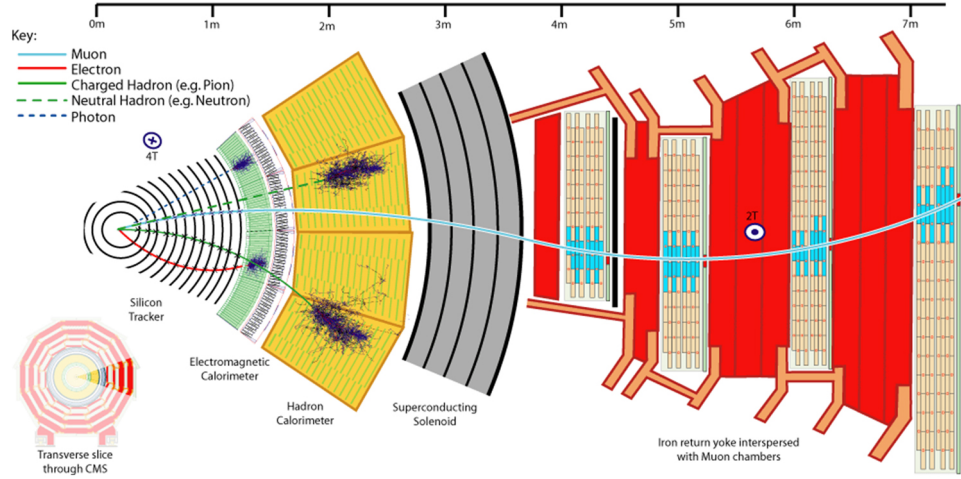


Figure 3.3: A diagram showing the various sub-detectors of the CMS detector

responsible for the “C” in CMS. A diagram of the layout of the CMS detector can be seen in Figure 3.3.

At the center of the silicon tracker is Interaction Point 5, the beam crossing which provides the proton-proton collisions to the CMS detector, and is the nominal origin of CMS’s coordinate system. The x -axis is defined to point towards the center of the LHC ring and the y -axis is defined to point up towards the surface, both of which are transverse to the proton beam. The z -axis points along the beamline with the positive direction given by the right-hand rule relative to the x - and y -axes. Due to CMS detector shape, it is often useful to convert the cartesian coordinates to a cylindrical coordinate system. In this system, the azimuthal angle, ϕ , is measured from the x -axis in the xy -plane, and the polar angle, θ , is measured from the z -axis. The polar angle, however, is often replaced by pseudorapidity, defined as $\eta = -\ln(\theta/2)$. Thus, any point in the CMS coordinate system can be represented by (z, η, ϕ) . A diagram showing both the cartesian and cylindrical coordinate systems can be seen in Figure 3.4.

The remainder of this section briefly describes the main features of the various CMS

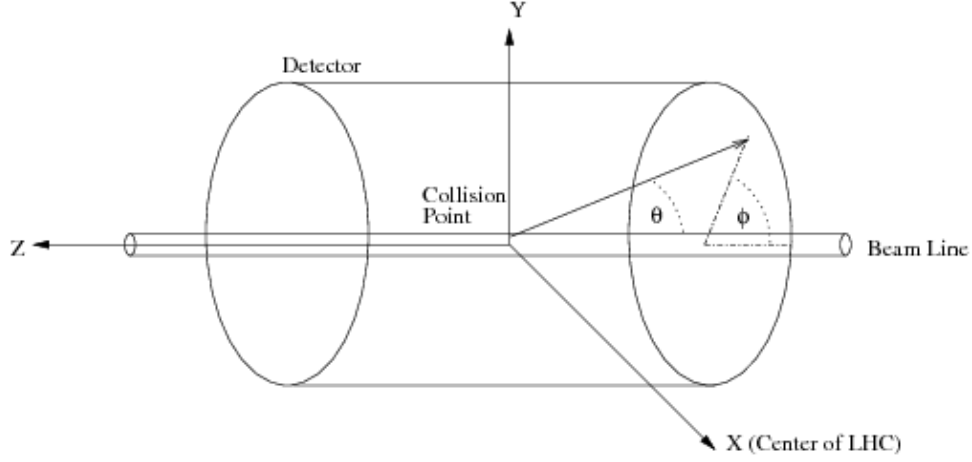


Figure 3.4: A diagram of the cartesian and cylindrical coordinate systems used by CMS.

sub-detectors.

3.2.1 Inner Tracking System

The tracking system is used for precise measurements of the trajectories of charged particles, as well as reconstruction of secondary vertices. As the tracking system is the closest subdetector to the interaction point, it faces a very large particle flux rate and so must be able to provide both high granularity and fast response, as well be able to survive operating in those conditions with an expected lifetime of 10 years. At the same time, these features must be balanced with minimizing the amount of material in order to reduce unwanted interactions with the detector, such as multiple scattering, photon conversion, and nuclear interactions. These requirements lead to a tracking system composed entirely of silicon technology.

The CMS tracking system is actually composed of two parts. The first is the pixel detector, which surrounds the interaction point, and is composed of 3 barrel layers at radii between 4.4 and 10.2 *cm* and 2 endcap layers that extend the acceptance up to

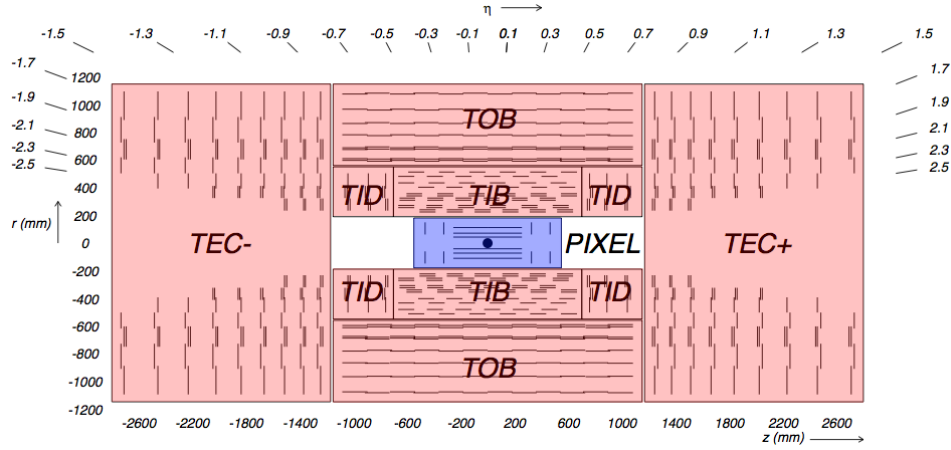


Figure 3.5: Layout of the CMS tracking system, showing both the pixel detector (blue) and the strips detector (red).

$|\eta| < 2.5$. In total, the pixel detector covers an area of roughly 1 m^2 with 66 million pixels and achieves a resolution of roughly 10 and 20 microns in the directions transverse and longitudinal to the beam line, respectively.

The second part of the tracking system is the strips detector which sits just outside the pixel detector. The strips detector is composed of 4 parts: the tracker inner barrel (TIB), tracker inner disks (TID), tracker outer barrel (TOB), and the tracker endcaps (TEC). The TIB and TID extend up to 55 cm in radius and are composed of 4 and 3 layers, respectively, while the TOB, which surrounds the TIB and TID, extends out to 116 cm and is composed of 6 layers. Lastly, the TEC which sits next to the other strip detector components, covers a radius of 22.5 to 113.5 cm and is composed of 9 disks. In total, the strips detector covers an area of 198 m^2 with 9.3 million strips. A layout of the tracking system including the pixel and strips detector is shown in Figure 3.5.

3.2.2 Electromagnetic Calorimeter

The primary purpose of the electromagnetic calorimeter (ECAL) is to measure the energy of electrons and photons. The ECAL is a hermetic, homogenous detector made up of a barrel part, covering the $|\eta| < 1.479$ region, and two endcap parts that cover $1.566 < |\eta| < 3.0$. Both the barrel and endcap sections are comprised of lead tungstate ($PbWO_4$) crystals with 61,200 in the barrel and 7,324 in each of the endcaps. The use of the $PbWO_4$ crystals was motivated by their high density, short radiation length, small Molière radius, and radiation hardness, all of which allow for a fine granularity, radiation resistant, compact calorimeter.

The lead tungstate crystals act as scintillators, which produce an amount of light that is proportional to the energy of an incident particle. This light is then converted to an electrical signal by silicon photodetectors (avalanche photodetectors in the barrel and vacuum hototriodes in the endcaps), which is used for the final energy measurement. The resulting resolution on the energy measurements is given by

$$\frac{\sigma}{E} = \frac{S}{\sqrt{E}} \oplus \frac{N}{E} \oplus C \quad (3.1)$$

where S is the stochastic term, N the noise term, C the constant term, and E is in units of GeV . Typical values for S , N , and C , as measured in electron beam tests, are 2.8%, 12%, and 0.30%, respectively.

In addition to the ECAL barrel and endcaps is a preshower detector, which sits in front of the endcaps, covering $1.653 < |\eta| < 2.6$. The main purpose of the preshower detector is to identify neutral pions by improving the granularity, so as to be able resolve photon pairs from the decay of high energy pions that otherwise would be mis-measured as single photons. The preshower detector also provides improved position resolution for electrons and photons and helps identify electrons from minimum ionizing particles.

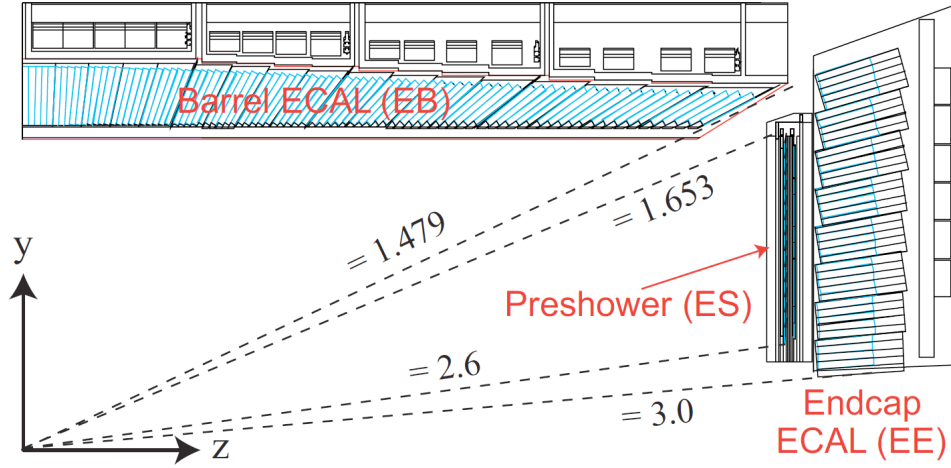


Figure 3.6: A cross section of the ECAL, showing its geometry and layout

The full layout of the ECAL is shown in Figure 3.6.

3.2.3 Hadronic Calorimeter

The primary purpose of the hadronic calorimeter (HCAL) is to measure the energy of hadrons, which can pass through the ECAL as they primarily interact through the strong force. The HCAL is a sampling calorimeter made up of either brass, iron, or steel absorbers and uses plastic scintillator tiles as the sampling material, which measures the energy of hadrons through scintillation, similarly to the ECAL: As a hadron reaches through the HCAL, it interacts with one of the absorber layers, which results into a “shower” of particles that produces light in the scintillator tiles as the resulting particles pass through the sampling layers. These light pulses are converted to electrical signals by optical fibers, which when summed have an amplitude proportional to the hadron’s energy.

The HCAL is separated into 4 components: the hadron barrel (HB), hadron endcap (HE), hadron forward (HF), and hadron outer (HO), the layouts of which are shown

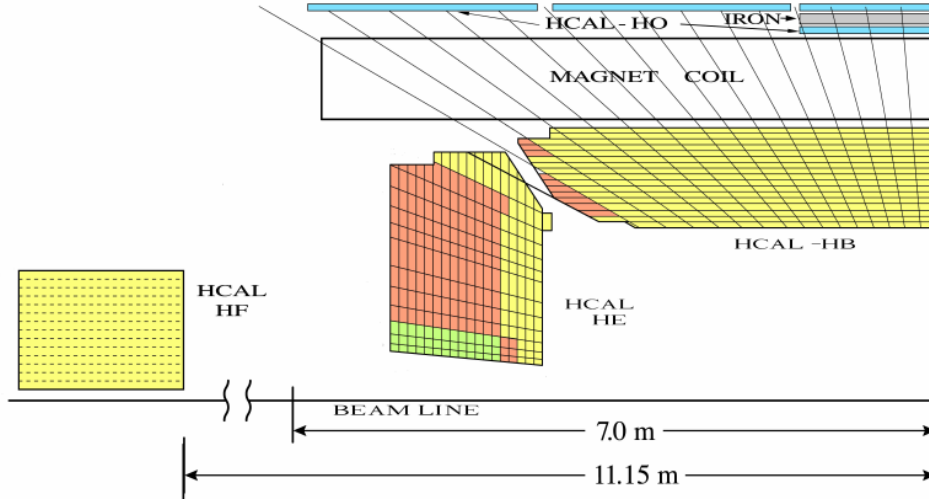


Figure 3.7: The layout and geometry of a quarter of the HCAL detector.

in Figure 3.7. The HB and HE completely surround the ECAL and were designed to minimize any cracks between the two subdetectors with the HB covering $|\eta| < 1.3$ and the HE covering the rest up to $|\eta| = 3$. Both components function as sampling calorimeters with alternating absorber and sampling layers. In the HB, the first and last layers are made of steel while the 14 other absorber layers are made of brass, while the HE is made up of 18 brass absorber layers. For both components, there are sampling layers made of plastic scintillator tiles interspersed between each of the absorber layers.

The HF is used to measure the energy of the forward most hadrons in the pseudorapidity range of $3.0 < |\eta| < 5.0$. At this forward position, the HF faces extraordinary levels of particle flux and had to be designed to handle this radiation. Due to this constraint, the HF uses quartz fibers instead of plastic scintillator tiles as its active medium, as the quartz fibers are more radiation hard. The HF uses both long fibers, which run the full depth (165 cm) of the detector, and short fibers, which begin 22 cm from the front end of the detector. This geometry allows the HF to provide depth information of the energy deposits, which helps to identify electron and photons from hadrons, as the

former tends to deposit most of its energy in the first depth, while the latter deposits its energy more equally between the two depths. These fibers are embedded into the steel structure of the HF, which also acts as the absorber.

Lastly is the HO, whose main purpose is to act as a “tail catcher”. Due to the geometrical constraint that the HCAL fit within the CMS solenoid, the HB does not have enough material in the central η region to adequately contain hadron showers. So to provide extra sampling layers, the HO sits just beyond the solenoid and has 1 to 2 scintillator layers and uses the magnet as an extra absorber layer. At this position, the HO is able to identify late starting showers and measure the amount of energy that is deposited past the HB.

3.2.4 Muon System

Muons, as implied by the “M” in CMS, are a central focus of the CMS detector, and the responsibility of identifying muons with high purity and providing precise momenta measurements falls to the muon system. To do this, the muon system is composed of three types of gaseous detectors, motivated by the need to cover a large area and varying radiation environments. Figure 3.8 shows the layout of the muon system within the CMS detector.

In the barrel region, $|\eta| < 1.2$, drift tube chambers (DTs) are used as the neutron-induced background is small, the muon rate is small, and the magnetic field is uniform. The DTs are organized into 4 stations, with three of the stations containing 8 chambers that measure position in the $r - \phi$ plane and 4 that measure position in the z -direction. The last station only contains the 8 $r - \phi$ measuring chambers. In the endcap regions of CMS, $0.9 < |\eta| < 2.4$, the expected muon and background rates are higher and the magnetic field is large and non-uniform, both of which preclude the use of DTs. Instead,

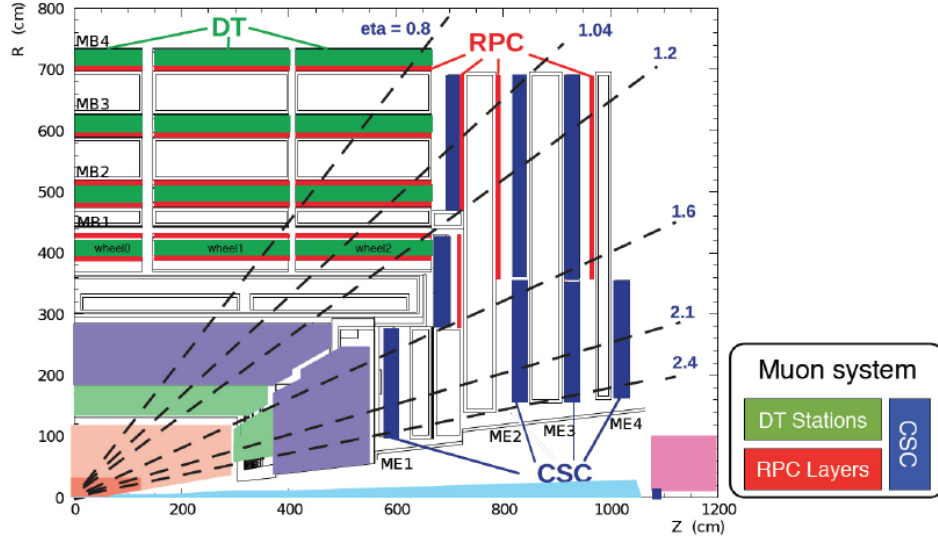


Figure 3.8: The layout of the muon system within the CMS detector.

the muon system endcaps are instrumented with cathode strip chambers (CSCs) that have a high response time, fine segmentation, and higher radiation resistance. The CSCs have 4 stations in each endcap with chambers that are aligned perpendicular to the beam line and are able to provide measurements in the $r - \phi$ plane and z -direction, along with the beam crossing time of a muon.

Both the DTs and CSC are capable of providing high efficiency and pure muon p_T triggers, independent of the rest of the detector. But in order to further improve this, particularly at the full LHC luminosity, another complementary trigger system consisting of Resistive Plate Chambers (RPCs) was added to both the barrel and endcap regions ($|\eta| < 1.6$). The RPCs are double-gap chambers that operate with a fast response and good time resolution. The spatial resolution, however, is coarser than the DTs or CSCs, though the extra hits in the RPC still help resolve ambiguities when making tracks. There are a total of 6 RPC layers in the barrel muon system, which help improve triggers for low p_T muons, and 3 layers in each of the endcaps that help reduce background and improve

the time and p_T resolution of muons.

3.2.5 Trigger System

The high instantaneous luminosity of the LHC provides many technical challenges for the data acquisition system (DAQ), with proton-proton collisions occurring every 25 ns , corresponding to a frequency of 40 MHz . At this collision rate, it is unfeasible to process and store the data for each event. In order to reduce the rate, a two-stage trigger system is used to select only the most “interesting” events for processing.

The first stage is the Level-1 (L1) trigger system, which has approximately only $4\text{ }\mu\text{s}$ to decide whether or not an event should be further processed. In order to operate at this timescale, the L1 trigger uses only coarse-grained information from the CMS calorimeters and the muon system.

For the calorimeter set of data, the L1 first generates trigger primitives by looking for large energy deposits in the calorimeter. These trigger primitives are then passed to the Regional Calorimeter Trigger (RCT), which uses this information to determine electron/photon candidates and transverse energy sums per calorimeter region. In addition, the RCT also calculates information relevant for detecting minimally ionizing particles, vetoing tau leptons, and muon isolation. Lastly, the Global Calorimeter Trigger (GCT) uses the information from the RCT to construct jets and calculate the event-level transverse energy and missing transverse energy, along with the final isolated and non-isolated electron/photon candidates.

For the muon portion of the L1 trigger system, the DTs and CSCs both compute local trigger information which consists of two- and three-dimensional track segments, respectively. This information is then passed to a join DT-CSC track finder, which connects these segments into a full candidate track. At the same time, the RPC constructs

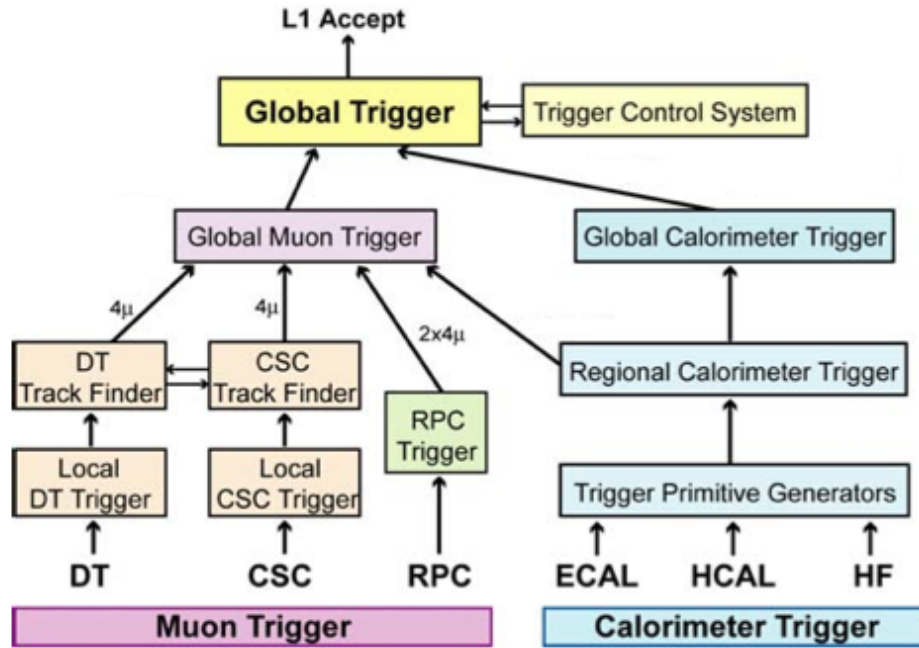


Figure 3.9: Flowchart depicting the generation of a L1 Accept.

a separate, independent set of track candidates. Both sets of candidate tracks are sent to the Global Muon trigger (GMT), which also takes in the relevant information from the RCT), to construct muon candidates.

Lastly, the candidate particles and event-level information from the GCT and GMT are sent to the Global Trigger, which takes this information and checks to see if certain criteria are met. If so, a L1 Accept (L1A) is generated, which signals for the event to be fully read out. This process, shown in Figure 3.9, reduces the full readout rate to at most 100 kHz .

On the generation of an L1A, all the CMS subsystems read out their buffered data corresponding to the L1A event to the an event builder. The data the event builder receives is both more complete and at a finer resolution, allowing it to construct more complex quantities before sending it to the High Level Trigger (HLT), the second stage

of the trigger system.

The HLT software is run on a processor farm that reconstructs events in greater detail to decide whether or not they should be kept. This framework is flexible as both the HLT software and the processor farm can be updated to meet changing experimental needs. As such the exact criteria used by the HLT in its decision varies with time, but generally involves thresholding the p_T and/or multiplicity of particles along with event-level quantities, such as H_T . At the end of this process, the trigger rate is at approximately 100 Hz .

Chapter 4

Particle Reconstruction and Identification

4.1 Section Title

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Chapter 5

Samples

5.1 Section Title

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Chapter 6

Event Selection

6.1 Section Title

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Chapter 7

Background Prediction

7.1 Section Title

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Part III

The Search

Chapter 8

Systematic Uncertainties

8.1 Section Title

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Chapter 9

Fit Validation

9.1 Section Title

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Chapter 10

Results and Interpretation

10.1 Section Title

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Chapter 11

Conclusions

11.1 Section Title

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Part IV

Appendix

Appendix A

Mitigating the HIP Effect

A.1 Section Title

Appendicitis

Appendix B

QCD Flavor Fit

B.1 Section Title

Appendicitis

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