

# Search for gauge-mediated supersymmetry in events with photons and a Z boson decaying to charged leptons at CMS

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## Chapter 1

# Introduction

### 1.1 System of units

For simplicity, the unit system commonly used in particle physics is the natural unit system [1]. In natural units, the reduced Planck constant  $\hbar$  and the speed of light  $c$  are set to unity:

$$\hbar = c = 1 \tag{1.1}$$

The most frequently used observables in particle physics are energy, momentum, and mass. They are given in GeV in the natural unit system. For other variables, such as length and time, the metric unit system is used. Cross sections are given in barn ( $1 \text{ b} = 10^{-28} \text{ m}^2$ ). Integrated luminosities are therefore given in  $\text{b}^{-1}$ .

### 1.2 The standard model of particle physics

The standard model of particle physics (SM) is gauge theory describing three of the four fundamental forces, namely the electromagnetic, weak, and strong interaction [2]. The gravitational force is described in general relativity [3].

All fundamental particles can be divided in two subclasses: Particles of integer-spin, called bosons, and particles of half-integer spin, called fermions.

The SM is based on the symmetry group  $SU(3) \otimes SU(2) \otimes U(1)$ . The interactions are characterized via the exchange of spin-1 gauge fields, which are the bosons. In the case of the strong force these are 8 massless gluons, which couple to the color charge. The mediator of the electromagnetic interaction is the massless photon, coupling to the electric charge of particles. For the weak interaction these are the three massive bosons  $W^\pm$  and  $Z$ , which couple to weak charge.

While the bosons describe the mediation of the fundamental forces, the matter content is given by the fermions. Fermions are divided into two subclasses, called quarks and leptons. Leptons take part only in the electroweak interaction, while quarks carry also a color charge and can therefore interact via the strong force. There exist three generations

of fermions, which include each two lepton and two quark flavours. The quark flavours are namely the down, up, strange, charm, bottom, and top quarks, while the lepton flavours are made up of three electrically charged particles, the electron ( $e$ ), the muon ( $\mu$ ), and the tau lepton ( $\tau$ ), and three electric neutral leptons, called neutrinos ( $\nu_e, \nu_\mu, \nu_\tau$ ). The latter are assigned the names of the charged leptons of the same generation. Of the quarks, there are up-type quarks carrying the electric charge of  $+\frac{2}{3}e$ , and down-type quarks carrying the electric charge of  $-\frac{1}{3}e$ .

An illustration of all particles with its properties can be seen in Figure 1.1. For each particle a corresponding anti-particle exists with same mass and inversed quantum numbers. Throughout this thesis particles and antiparticles will be treated the same way and will be labeled with the name of the particle.

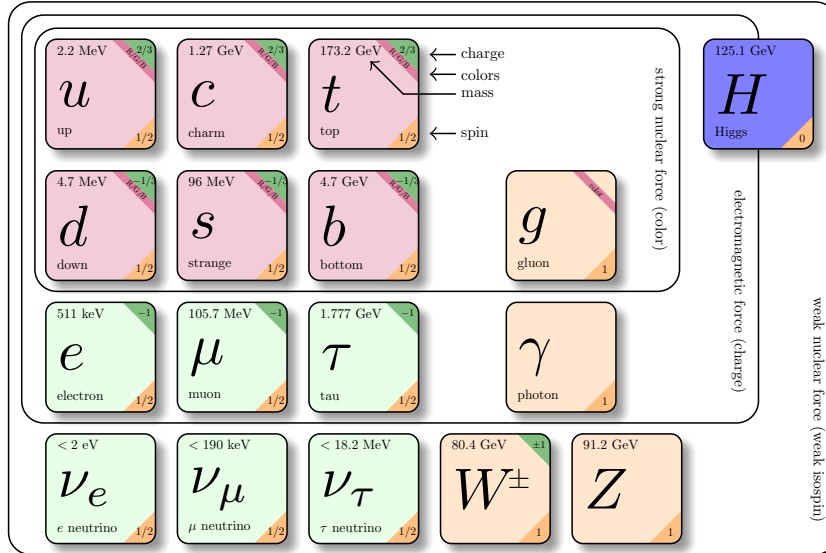


Figure 1.1: **TODO September 19, 2018: caption Werte aus PDG**

The strong interaction between quarks and gluons is described in the quantum field theory of quantum chromodynamics (QCD). The corresponding mediators of the non-abelian gauge group  $SU(2)_C$  are the eight gluons, which carry each the color-charge  $C$  of an anti-color and color, leading to the self coupling of gluons. Due to the confinement of quarks [4], quark-antiquark pairs will be produced out of the vacuum, if particles with color charge will be separated, since the potential energy density of the strong force has constant constant terms and the potential energy rises with increasing distance. The same principle leads to the existance of only color-neutral bound states of two (mesons), or three (baryons) quarks, called hadrons.

The electromagnetic and weak force can be unified in the electroweak theory to obtain the electroweak interaction [5–8], represented by the gauge group  $SU(2)_L \otimes U(1)_Y$ . The

indices  $L$  and  $Y$  indicate that the weak isospin  $T$  couples only to lefthanded  $SU(2)_L$  doublets of fermions, while the righthanded  $SU(2)_L$  singlets carry no isospin, and  $Y$  is the hypercharge. The three mediators of the  $SU(2)_L$  group are the  $W^1, W^2$ , and  $W^3$  bosons, and the gauge boson of the  $U(1)_Y$  group is the  $B^0$  boson. Due to the spontaneous symmetry breaking in the electroweak unification, these four bosons mix to the observed  $W^\pm$  and  $Z$  boson, and the photon  $\gamma$ :

$$\begin{pmatrix} \gamma \\ Z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos(\theta_W) & \sin(\theta_W) \\ -\sin(\theta_W) & \cos(\theta_W) \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} B \\ W^3 \end{pmatrix} \quad (1.2)$$

$$W^\pm = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (W^1 \mp iW^2) \quad (1.3)$$

The resulting weak interaction is parity violating. The  $W^\pm$  bosons only couple to lefthanded fermions, while the neutral  $Z$  boson couples to both lefthanded and righthanded particles, but with different strength.

Because in this theory the gauge bosons are not allowed to have masses, the Higgs mechanism is introduced [9–11]. It predicts a complex scalar doublet Higgs field, which is symmetric but has a non zero vacuum expectation value and is responsible for the spontaneous symmetry breaking of the  $SU(2)_L \otimes U(1)_Y$  gauge group. Since it has four degrees of freedom, but only three are used to give the  $W^\pm$  and the  $Z$  boson masses, a fourth spin-0 boson is postulated, the Higgs boson. Leptons acquire also masses in the SM via Yukawa couplings with the Higgs field. A spin-0 scalar boson has been observed in proton-proton collisions at the LHC in 2012 [12, 13], and its mass has been determined to be  $125.09 \pm 0.24$  GeV. This theory earned validation in good agreement with SM predictions [14], and recently also couplings to the top quark [15], and decays to bottom quarks and tau leptons have been observed [16, 17].

### 1.2.1 Indications for physics beyond the standard model

Since the SM describes all phenomena observed at high energy particle colliders successfully, other observations indicate that there must exist physics beyond the standard model (BSM).

Precise measurements of the cosmic microwave background and theoretical interpretations suggest, that only 4.9% of the universe consist of ordinary matter, while the remainder is dark energy and dark matter [18]. The existence of dark matter is also observed in gravitational lensing effects [19], and in rotation curves of spiral galaxies [20]. But inside the SM there is no particle that could explain the total amount of dark matter in the universe.

It is assumed, that in the early age of the universe there existed the same amount of matter and antimatter. But, today we observe the existence of much more matter than antimatter [21, 22]. Conditions, such as  $CP$ -violation, and baryon number violation, should be fulfilled [23], so that this discrepancy can be explained. However, there are no known sources of violation effects that are large enough to give rise to such big differences.

In the SM neutrinos are assumed to be massless particles, but the observation of neutrino oscillations are only explicable if neutrinos have masses [24, 25].

The observation of the Higgs boson in 2012 marks on the one hand the great success of the SM, but on the other hand directly leads to a big problem concerning the Higgs mass, what is known as the "Hierarchy Problem". The Higgs boson couples to all massive particles and the coupling strength is proportional to their mass. But unlike for all other particles, the mass term for the Higgs boson is quadratically divergent, caused by virtual loop corrections from the fermion couplings. The cut-off scale for these corrections can be as large as the validity of the SM. So the Higgs boson mass can be pushed to the order of the Planck scale ( $10^{19}$  GeV). Since the mass was measured at the LHC to be  $\approx 125$  GeV, and the difference between the electroweak scale ( $10^2$  GeV) and the Planck scale is such huge, these corrections terms need to cancel per coincidence. This is considered as "unnatural". So new physics is expected in the energy ranges up to the Planck scale.

Also, driven by the electroweak unification, the unification of all forces in a grand unified theory (GUT) is well motivated. Because the couplings of the forces in the SM do not lead to a unification at very high energies [25], a possible extension of the SM with new particles could explain such a unification of the electroweak and strong interaction. One of those theories is supersymmetry [26].

### 1.3 Supersymmetry

Supersymmetry (SM) [26, 27] is one of the most popular BSM models and was developed already in the 1970s. It is well motivated within theory, because it is the only possible extension of space time symmetry. Since then, many different SUSY models have been established, all based on the same principle: SUSY connects fermions with bosons and the other way around by introducing supersymmetric partners for each SM particle. These superpartners differ only in spin by  $\pm 1/2$ , all other quantum numbers are kept equal. With the help of generators  $Q_i$ , bosonic and fermionic states can be switched:

$$Q|fermion\rangle = |boson\rangle, \quad +Q|boson\rangle = |fermion\rangle \quad (1.4)$$

Some of the many advantages of SUSY are that multiple models directly provide candidates for dark matter particles, solve directly the unification of forces, and solve the Hierarchy Problem without any "fine tuning".

The simplest form is the minimal supersymmetric standard model (MSSM), where only exactly one pair of  $Q, \dagger Q$  exists. So within the MSSM for each fermion in the SM, a supersymmetric scalar boson is introduced. To differentiate between these two, the names of supersymmetric partners are those of the SM particles prepended with an "s-" (standing for scalar). So the partners of fermions are called sfermions, and e.g. the partner of the electron is the selectron. The superpartners of the bosons are postpended with an "-ino", making them bosinos and the partner of the gluon for example is called gluino. In general the superpartners are called sparticles, and are labeled the same as their SM counterparts, but with a tilde ( $\mu \rightarrow \tilde{\mu}$ ).

To give masses in the spontaneous symmetry breaking to all particles, the SM higgs sector



needs to be extended to two complex scalar doublets:

$$H_u = \begin{bmatrix} H_u^+ \\ H_u^0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad H_d = \begin{bmatrix} H_d^0 \\ H_d^- \end{bmatrix} \quad (1.5)$$

The  $H_d$  gives masses to the down-type quarks and charged leptons, while the  $H_u$  is responsible for the masses of up-type quarks. Consistently four higgsinos as superpartners are introduced in the MSSM. With now two doublets, in the spontaneous symmetry breaking there are eight degrees of freedom instead of four, giving rise to an expanded higgs sector consisting of five particles, the two neutral scalars  $h^0$  and  $H^0$ , the two charged scalars  $H^\pm$ , and the neutral pseudoscalar  $A^0$ . The observed Higgs boson at the LHC can be identified as one of the two neutral scalars, where the lighter  $h^0$  is chosen by convention.

Now the gauginos and higgsinos mix, similar to the mixing in the electroweak sector, to six mass eigenstates, which are the four neutral neutralinos  $\tilde{\chi}_1^0, \tilde{\chi}_2^0, \tilde{\chi}_3^0$ , and  $\tilde{\chi}_4^0$ , and the two charged charginos  $\tilde{\chi}_1^\pm$  and  $\tilde{\chi}_2^\pm$ .

The total particle content of the MSSM is shown in Figure 1.2. As an extension and to include gravity, the SM is extended by the graviton  $G$ , and the SUSY sector by its superpartner, the gravitino  $\tilde{G}$ .

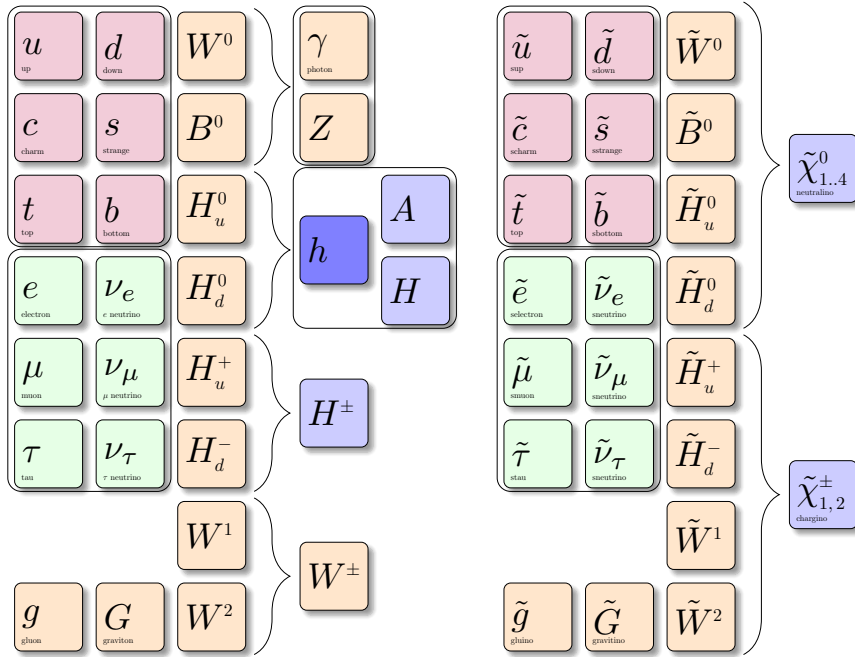


Figure 1.2: **TODO September 19, 2018: caption Werte aus PDG**

Since in an unbroken symmetry the particles and their corresponding sparticles should have the same masses, and those SUSY particles should have been found easily in the past (considering e.g. an electron/selectron mass of  $\approx 511$ ), SUSY must be a broken symmetry. There have been many different theories developed over time to explain different breaking

scenarios.

As mentioned, SUSY can provide Dark Matter candidates, if the lightest supersymmetric particle (LSP), is stable, electrically neutral, and uncolored. But, it is not necessary, that the LSP is stable. In so-called R-Parity violating scenarios, decays of all SUSY particles into SM particles are allowed. Hence, the conservation of the Baryon number  $B$ , and the lepton number  $L$  is violated. The R-parity

$$R = (-1)^{3B+L+S} \quad (1.6)$$

is therefore introduced as a new quantum number, where  $S$  is the spin. The R-parity is  $-1$  for sparticles, and  $+1$  for particles respectively. R-parity conserving scenarios are motivated by many precision measurements, such as the life time measurement of the proton [TODO September 19, 2018: REF](#). In this thesis, only R-parity conserving scenarios are considered.

### 1.3.1 General gauge mediation

The phenomenology of SUSY is very rich. While in the most popular models gravity is responsible for the SUSY breaking, a different approach motivating this search, is general gauge mediation (GGM) [TODO September 19, 2018: REF](#). In these gauge mediated supersymmetry breaking (GMSB) models, an additional "hidden sector" is introduced, which is responsible for the breaking. This sector is mainly decoupled, and the only possible interactions between the visible and the hidden sector are achieved by messenger fields mediated by gauge interactions. In GMSB, the LSP is typically the gravitino  $\tilde{G}$  and this particle is assumed to be very light ( $\ll 1$  GeV). Therefore the next-to-lightest supersymmetric particle (NLSP), which can be basically any sparticle, decays promptly. Since the gravitino is stable because of R-parity conservation, electrically and color neutral, it will leave any detector undetected, causing an imbalance in the measured total transverse momentum in e.g. the proton-proton collisions of the LHC.

In all models considered in this analysis the NLSP is assumed to be the lightest neutralino ( $\tilde{\chi}_1^0$ ). The mixing of the NLSP can include bino, wino, and higgsino components, each enabling different decay channels.

### 1.3.2 Signal scenarios

Given the theoretical background, in the following the signal scenarios considered in this thesis are discussed. The couplings of the SUSY particles are the same as for their SM partners. Hence, very different production channels, such as electroweak and strong production, are possible. Typically SUSY particles are produced directly in the hard process, in the case of the LHC proton-proton collisions, and lead to cascade like decay structures, down to the decays of the NLSP to the gravitino and a SM boson. The branching fractions of the lightest neutralino to different SM bosons, depends on its mixing. [TODO September 19, 2018: Formulas and sentences, siehe Johannes MA](#)

Since the investigated final state of this analysis consists of a Z boson and a photon, the search is sensitive in special to bino and wino like NLSP scenarios.

One scenario used in the development of this search, is a full GGM model, where the NLSP is the  $\tilde{\chi}_1^0$  and is assumed to be 100% bino like. The heavier neutralino  $\tilde{\chi}_2^0$ , and the lightest chargino  $\tilde{\chi}_1^\pm$ , are assumed to 100% wino like. Therefore the bino mass equals the mass of the lightest neutralino mass, while the  $\tilde{\chi}_1^+$  and the  $\tilde{\chi}_2^0$  are mass degenerate and their mass equals the wino mass. For simplification reasons higgsinos are decoupled, i.e. set to very high masses. Squarks and gluinos are also decoupled in this scenario, allowing only electroweak production modes. For the most dominant process a diagram is shown in Fig. Figure 1.3. The signal cross section depends only on the wino mass, since  $\tilde{\chi}_1^0\tilde{\chi}_1^+$  and  $\tilde{\chi}_1^+\tilde{\chi}_1^+$  are by far the most dominant production scenarios. The branching fractions of the gauginos are given by the gaugino masses and their gauge eigenstate and behave exactly like shown in [TODO September 19, 2018: REf bild](#). The mass of the neutralinos and lightest chargino directly influence the transverse momenta in the final state. As can be seen in Figure ??, larger mass differences between the NLSP mass and the wino mass, lead to higher momenta for the produced bosons in the cascades. The mass of the the NLSP directly influences the momenta of the final SM bosons and the gravitino, and therefore directly the missing transverse momentum in an event.

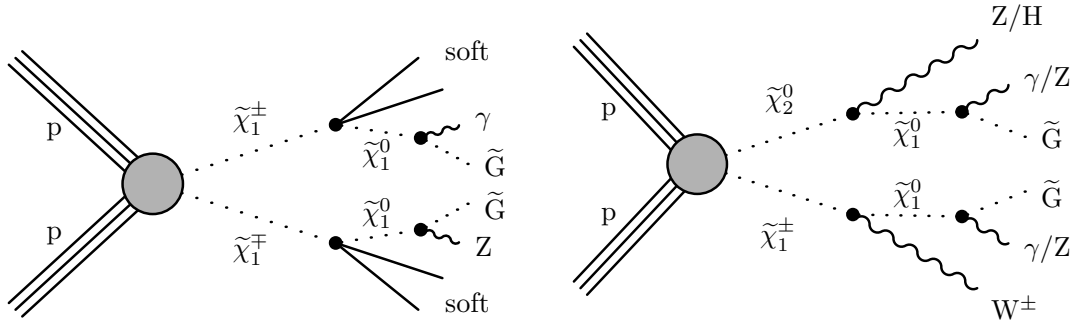


Figure 1.3: Diagram of the TChiZG scenario with chargino pair production, where the charginos decay to neutralinos under soft emission of offshell W bosons, (left). Also, the chargino-neutralino production is possible. The most dominant production process with a wino-like  $\tilde{\chi}_1^+$  and  $\tilde{\chi}_2^0$  and a bino-like  $\tilde{\chi}_1^0$  of the full GMSB model, (right).

A very different approach besides analyzing full theoretical models, are simplified models (SMS)[? ]. Here, only a limited particle content is assumed with very simplified assumptions on the mixings and decay channels to deliver a more model independent result and probe specifically distinct final states. These results can therefore be reinterpreted in many more general models, since fixed production channels fixed branching fractions are used. In this thesis, two simplified models are considered, one with electroweak production, and the other one with a strong production channel.

The used electroweak model is the TChiZG SMS, and in this model only neutralino-chargino and chargino-chargino production are assumed. The lightest chargino and lightest neutralino are set to have nearly the same mass, leading to soft emissions of off-shell W bosons in the decays of the charginos to the NLSP. The branching fractions of

the lightest neutralino to a gravitino and a photon or a Z boson are fixed to 50% each ( $BR(\tilde{\chi}_1^0 \rightarrow \gamma) = BR(\tilde{\chi}_1^0 \rightarrow Z) = 0.5$ ). A diagram for the process can be found in Fig. 1.3. The squarks and gluinos are also decoupled.

The strong model considered is the T5bbbbZG SMS. A diagram can be found in Figure 1.4. Here, gluino pairs are produced in the hard interaction, leading to decays to the NLSP under the emission of pairs of bottom quark pairs. The branching fractions for the  $\tilde{\chi}_1^0$  to photons and Z bosons are again set to 50% each.

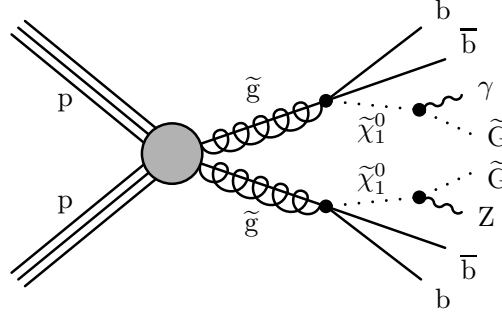


Figure 1.4: The Feynman diagram for the T5bbbbZG scenario with pair production of gluinos in the hard process, leading to decays to neutralinos under the emission of b quarks.

### 1.3.3 Status of SUSY searches at the LHC

## **Chapter 2**

# **The Experiment**

### **2.1 The large hadron collider**

### **2.2 The compact muon solenoid**



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