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<sup>2</sup>A SEARCH FOR LONG-LIVED, CHARGED, SUPERSYMMETRIC PARTICLES  
<sup>3</sup>USING IONIZATION WITH THE ATLAS DETECTOR

4

BRADLEY AXEN

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September 2016 – Version 0.34

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<sup>8</sup> Bradley Axen: *A Search for Long-Lived, Charged, Supersymmetric Particles using*  
<sup>9</sup> *Ionization with the ATLAS Detector*, Subtitle, © September 2016

10

Usually a quotation.

11

Dedicated to.



<sub>12</sub> ABSTRACT

---

<sub>13</sub> How to write a good abstract:

<sub>14</sub> <https://plg.uwaterloo.ca/~migod/research/beck00PSLA.html>



<sub>15</sub> PUBLICATIONS

---

<sub>16</sub> Some ideas and figures have appeared previously in the following publications:

<sub>17</sub>

<sub>18</sub> Put your publications from the thesis here. The packages `multibib` or `bibtopic`  
<sub>19</sub> etc. can be used to handle multiple different bibliographies in your document.



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<sup>21</sup> ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

<sup>22</sup> Put your acknowledgements here.

<sup>23</sup>

<sup>24</sup> And potentially a second round.

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288 LISTINGS

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<small>289</small> Listing 1	A floating example ( <code>listings</code> manual)	88
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290 ACRONYMS

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- 291 SM Standard Model  
292 SUSY Supersymmetry  
293 LSP Lightest Supersymmetric Particle  
294 LHC Large Hadron Collider  
295 ATLAS A Toroidal LHC ApparatuS  
296 ToT time over threshold  
297 LCW local cluster weighted  
298 MIP minimally ionizing particle  
299 EPJC European Physical Journal C  
300 JES jet energy scale  
301 LLP Long-Lived Particle  
302 CR Control Region  
303 NLO next-to-leading order  
304 NLL next-to-leading logarithmic  
305 PDF parton distribution function

306

## PART I

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### INTRODUCTION

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# 1

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310 INTRODUCTION

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## PART II

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### THEORETICAL CONTEXT

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# 2

314

## 315 STANDARD MODEL

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316 The SM of particle physics seeks to explain the symmetries and interactions of  
317 all currently discovered fundamental particles. It has been tested by several genera-  
318 tions of experiments and has been remarkably successful, no significant de-  
319 viations have been found. The SM provides predictions in particle physics for  
320 interactions up to the Planck scale ( $10^{15}$ - $10^{19}$  GeV).

321 The theory itself is a quantum field theory grown from an underlying  $SU(3) \times$   
322  $SU(2) \times U(1)$  that requires the particle content and quantum numbers consist-  
323 ent with experimental observations (see Section 2.1). Each postulated symme-  
324 try is accompanied by an interaction between particles through gauge invari-  
325 ance. These interactions are referred to as the Strong, Weak, and Electromag-  
326 netic forces, which are discussed in Section 2.2.

327 Although this model has been very predictive, the theory is incomplete; for  
328 example, it is not able to describe gravity or astronomically observed dark matter.  
329 These limitations are discussed in more detail in Section 2.3.

## 330 21 PARTICLES

331 The most familiar matter in the universe is made up of protons, neutrons, and  
332 electrons. Protons and neutrons are composite particles, however, and are made  
333 up in turn by particles called quarks. Quarks carry both electric charge and color  
334 charge, and are bound in color-neutral combinations called baryons. The elec-  
335 tron is an example of a lepton, and carries only electric charge. Another type  
336 of particle, the neutrino, does not form atomic structures in the same way that  
337 quarks and leptons do because it carries no color or electric charge. Collectively,  
338 these types of particles are known as fermions, the group of particles with half-  
339 integer spin.

340 There are three generations of fermions, although familiar matter is formed  
341 predominantly by the first generation. The generations are identical except for  
342 their masses, which increase in each generation by convention. In addition, each  
343 of these particles is accompanied by an antiparticle, with opposite-sign quantum  
344 numbers but the same mass.

345 The fermions comprise what is typically considered matter, but there are  
346 additional particles that are mediators of interactions between those fermions.  
347 These mediators are known as the gauge bosons, gauge in that their existence  
348 is required by gauge invariance (discussed further in Section 2.2) and bosons in  
349 that they have integer spin. The boson which mediates the electromagnetic force  
350 is the photon, the first boson to be discovered; it has no electric charge, no mass,  
351 and a spin of 1. There are three spin-1 mediators of the weak force, the two  
352 W bosons and the Z boson. The W bosons have electric charge of  $\pm 1$  and a  
353 mass of  $80.385 \pm 0.015$  GeV, while the Z boson is neutral and has a mass of

354 91.1876  $\pm$  0.0021 GeV. The strong force is mediated by eight particles called  
 355 gluons, which are massless and electrically neutral but do carry color charge.

356 The final particle present in the SM is the Higgs boson, which was recently  
 357 observed for the first time by experiments at CERN in 2012. It is electrically  
 358 neutral, has a mass of 125.7  $\pm$  0.4 GeV, and is the only spin-0 particle yet to be  
 360 observed. The Higgs boson is the gauge boson associated with the mechanism  
 that gives a mass to the W and Z bosons.

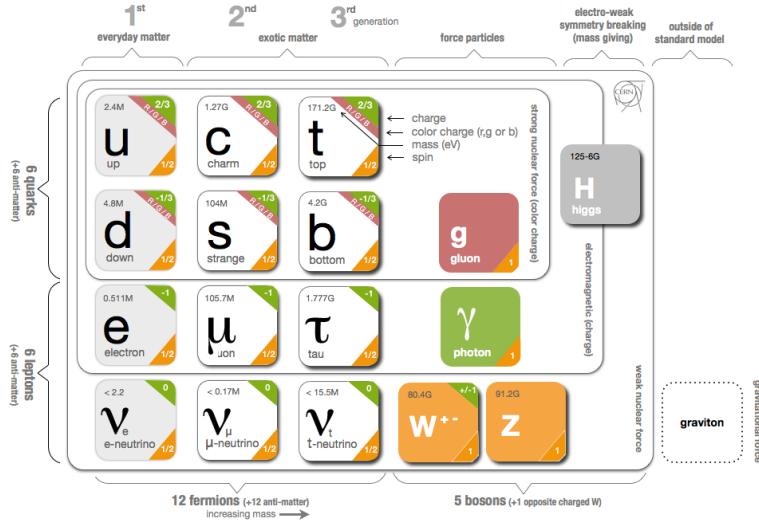


Figure 1: The particle content of the SM.

361 Together these particles form the entire content of the SM, and are summa-  
 362 rized in Figure 1. These are the particles that constitute the observable universe  
 363 and all the so-far-observed interactions within it.

## 364 2.2 INTERACTIONS

365 The interactions predicted and described by the SM are fundamentally tied to the  
 366 particles within it, both in that they describe the way those particles can influence  
 367 each other and also in that the existence of the interactions requires the existence  
 368 of some particles (the gauge bosons).

## 369 2.3 LIMITATIONS

# 3

370

371 SUPERSYMMETRY

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372 3.1 MOTIVATION

373 3.2 STRUCTURE

374 3.3 PHENOMENOLOGY



# 4

375

376 LONG-LIVED PARTICLES

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377 4.1 MECHANISMS

378 4.1.1 EXAMPLES IN SUPERSYMMETRY

379 4.2 PHENOMENOLOGY

380 4.2.1 DISIMILARITIES TO PROMPT DECAYS

381 4.2.2 CHARACTERISTIC SIGNATURES



382

### PART III

383

## EXPERIMENTAL STRUCTURE AND RECONSTRUCTION

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# 5

385

386 THE LARGE HADRON COLLIDER

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387 5.1 INJECTION CHAIN

388 5.2 DESIGN AND PARAMETERS

389 5.3 LUMINOSITY



# 6

390

## 391 THE ATLAS DETECTOR

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392 6.1 COORDINATE SYSTEM

393 6.2 MAGNETIC FIELD

394 6.3 INNER DETECTOR

395 6.3.1 PIXEL DETECTOR

396 6.3.2 SEMICONDUCTOR TRACKER

397 6.3.3 TRANSITION RADIATION TRACKER

398 6.4 CALORIMETRY

399 6.4.1 ELECTROMAGNETIC CALORIMETERS

400 6.4.2 HADRONIC CALORIMETERS

401 6.4.3 FORWARD CALORIMETERS

402 6.5 MUON SPECTROMETER

403 6.6 TRIGGER

404 6.6.1 TRIGGER SCHEME

405 6.6.2 MISSING TRANSVERSE ENERGY TRIGGERS



406

407 EVENT RECONSTRUCTION

---

408 The ATLAS experiment combines measurements in the subdetectors to form a  
409 cohesive picture of each physics event.

## 410 7.1 TRACKS AND VERTICES

## 411 7.1.1 TRACK RECONSTRUCTION

## 412 7.1.1.1 NEURAL NETWORK

## 413 7.1.1.2 PIXEL DE/DX

## 414 7.1.2 VERTEX RECONSTRUCTION

## 415 7.2 JETS

## 416 7.2.1 TOPOLOGICAL CLUSTERING

## 417 7.2.2 JET ENERGY SCALE

## 418 7.2.3 JET ENERGY SCALE UNCERTAINTIES

## 419 7.2.4 JET ENERGY RESOLUTION

## 420 7.3 ELECTRONS

## 421 7.3.1 ELECTRON IDENTIFICATION

## 422 7.4 MUONS

## 423 7.4.1 MUON IDENTIFICATION

## 424 7.5 MISSING TRANSVERSE ENERGY



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## PART IV

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### CALORIMETER RESPONSE

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# 8

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## 429 RESPONSE MEASUREMENT WITH SINGLE HADRONS

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430 As discussed in Section 7.2, colored particles produced in collisions hadronize  
431 into jets of multiple hadrons. One approach to understanding jet energy mea-  
432 surements in the ATLAS calorimeters is to evaluate the calorimeter response to  
433 those individual hadrons; measurements of individual hadrons can be used to  
434 build up an understanding of the jets that they form. The redundancy of the  
435 momentum provided by the tracking system and the energy provided by the  
436 calorimeter provides an opportunity to study calorimeter response using real  
437 collisions, as described further in Section 8.2.

438 Calorimeter response includes a number of physical effects that can be ex-  
439 tracted to provide insight into many aspects of jet modeling. First, many charged  
440 hadrons interact with the material of the detector prior to reaching the calorime-  
441 ters and thus do not deposit any energy. Comparing this effect in data and simu-  
442 lation is a powerful tool in validating the interactions of particles with the mate-  
443 rial of the detector and the model of the detector geometry in simulation, see Sec-  
444 tion 8.2.2. The particles which do reach the calorimeter deposit their energy into  
445 several adjacent cells, which are then clustered together. The energy of the clus-  
446 ter is then the total energy deposited by that particle. Comparing the response of  
447 hadrons in data to that of simulated hadrons provides a direct evaluation of the  
448 showering of hadronic particles and the energy deposited by particles in matter  
449 (Section 8.2.4).

450 The above studies all use an inclusive selection of charged particles, which are  
451 comprised predominantly of pions, kaons, and (anti)protons. It is also possible to  
452 measure the response to various identified particle types separately to evaluate  
453 the simulated interactions of each particle, particularly at low energies where  
454 differences between species are very relevant. Pions and (anti)protons can be  
455 identified through decays of long-lived particles, in particular  $\Lambda$ ,  $\bar{\Lambda}$ , and  $K_S^0$ , and  
456 then used to measure response as described above. This is discussed in detail in  
457 Section 8.3.

458 The results in this chapter use data collected at 7 and 8 TeV collected in 2010  
459 and 2012, respectively. Both are included as the calorimeter was repaired and  
460 recalibrated between those two data-taking periods. Both sets of data are com-  
461 pared to an updated simulation that includes new physics models provided by  
462 Geant4 [1] and improvements in the detector description [2, 3]. The present  
463 results are published in European Physical Journal C (EPJC) [4] and can be com-  
464 pared to a similar measurement performed in 2009 and 2010 [5], which used the  
465 previous version of the simulation framework [6].

## 466 8.1 DATASET AND SIMULATION

## 467 8.1.1 DATA SAMPLES

468 The two datasets used in this chapter are taken from dedicated low-pileup runs  
 469 where the fraction of events with multiple interactions was negligible. These  
 470 datasets are used rather than those containing full-pileup events to facilitate mea-  
 471 surement of isolated hadrons. The 2012 dataset at  $\sqrt{s} = 8$  TeV contains 8 mil-  
 472 lion events and corresponds to an integrated luminosity of  $0.1 \text{ nb}^{-1}$ . The 2010  
 473 dataset at  $\sqrt{s} = 7$  TeV contains 3 million events and corresponds to an inte-  
 474 grated luminosity of  $3.2 \text{ nb}^{-1}$ . The latter dataset was also used for the 2010 re-  
 475 sults [5], but it has since been reanalyzed with an updated reconstruction includ-  
 476 ing the final, best understanding of the detector description for the material and  
 477 alignment from Run 1.

## 478 8.1.2 SIMULATED SAMPLES

479 The two datasets above are compared to simulated single-, double-, and non-  
 480 diffractive events generated with Pythia8 [7] using the A2 configuration of  
 481 hadronization [8] and the MSTW 2008 parton-distribution function set [9, 10].  
 482 The admixture of the single-, double-, and non-diffractive events uses the default  
 483 relative contributions from Pythia8. The conditions and energies for the two  
 484 simulations are chosen so that they match those of the corresponding dataset.

485 To evaluate the interaction of hadrons with detector material, the simulation  
 486 uses two different collections of hadronic physics models, called physics lists, in  
 487 Geant4 9.4 [11]. The first, QGSP\_BERT, combines the Bertini intra-nuclear  
 488 cascade [12–14] below 9.9 GeV, a parametrized proton inelastic model from 9.5  
 489 to 25 GeV [15], and a quark-gluon string model above 12 GeV [16–20]. The  
 490 second, FTFP\_BERT, combines the Bertini intra-nuclear cascade [12–14] below  
 491 5 GeV and the Fritiof model [21–24] above 4 GeV. In either list, Geant4 en-  
 492 forces a smooth transition between models where multiple models overlap.

## 493 8.1.3 EVENT SELECTION

494 The event selection for this study is minimal, as the only requirement is selecting  
 495 good-quality events with an isolated track. Such events are triggered by requir-  
 496 ing at least two hits in the minimum-bias trigger scintillators. After trigger, each  
 497 event is required to have exactly one reconstructed vertex, and that vertex is re-  
 498 quired to have four or more associated tracks.

499 The particles which are selected for the response measurements are first iden-  
 500 tified as tracks in the inner detector. The tracks are required to have at least 500  
 501 MeV of transverse momentum. To ensure a reliable momentum measurement,  
 502 these tracks are required to have at least one hit in the pixel detector, six hits in  
 503 the SCT, and small longitudinal and transverse impact parameters with respect  
 504 to the primary vertex [5]. For the majority of the measurements in this chapter,  
 505 the track is additionally required to have 20 hits in the TRT, which significantly

506 reduces the contribution from tracks which undergo nuclear interactions. This  
 507 requirement and its effect is discussed in more detail in Section 8.2.5. In addition,  
 508 tracks are rejected if there is any other reconstructed track which extrapolates  
 509 to the calorimeter within a cone of  $\Delta R = \sqrt{(\Delta\phi)^2 + (\Delta\eta)^2} < 0.4$ . This require-  
 510 ment guarantees that the contamination of energy from nearby charged particles  
 511 is negligible [5].

## 512 8.2 INCLUSIVE HADRON RESPONSE

513 The calorimeter response is more precisely defined as the ratio of the measured  
 514 calorimeter energy to the true energy carried by the particle, although this true  
 515 energy is unknown. For charged particles, however, the inner detector provides  
 516 a very precise measurement of momentum (with uncertainty less than 1%) that  
 517 can be used as a proxy for true energy. The ratio of the energy deposited by  
 518 the charged particle in the calorimeter,  $E$ , to its momentum measured in the  
 519 inner detector  $p$ , forms the calorimeter response measure called  $E/p$ . Though  
 520 the distribution of  $E/p$  contains a number of physical features, this study focuses  
 521 on the trends in two aggregated quantities:  $\langle E/p \rangle$ , the average of  $E/p$  for the  
 522 selected tracks, and the zero fraction, the fraction of tracks with no associated  
 523 energy in the calorimeter for those tracks.

524 The calorimeter energy assigned to a track is defined using clusters. The clus-  
 525 ters are formed using a 4–2–0 algorithm [25] that begins with seeds requiring  
 526 at least 4 times the average calorimeter cell noise. The neighboring cells with  
 527 at least twice that noise threshold are then added to the cluster, and all bound-  
 528 ing cells are then added with no requirement. This algorithm minimizes noise  
 529 contributions through its seeding process, and including the bounding cells im-  
 530 proves the energy resolution [26]. The clusters are associated to a given track  
 531 if they fall within a cone of  $\Delta R = 0.2$  of the extrapolated position of the track,  
 532 which includes about 90% of the energy on average [5]. This construction is il-  
 533 lustrated in Figure 2.

### 534 8.2.1 E/P DISTRIBUTION

535 The  $E/p$  distributions measured in both data and simulation are shown in Fig-  
 536 ure 3 for two example bins of track momentum and for tracks in the central  
 537 region of the detector. These distributions show several important features of  
 538 the  $E/p$  observable. The large content in the bin at  $E = 0$  comes from tracks that  
 539 have no associated cluster, which occurs due to interactions with detector mate-  
 540 rial prior to reaching the calorimeter or the energy deposit being insufficiently  
 541 large to generate a seed, and are discussed in Section 8.2.2. The small negative  
 542 tail also comes from tracks that do not deposit any energy in the calorimeter but  
 543 are randomly associated to a cluster with an energy below the noise threshold.  
 544 The long positive tail above 1.0 comes from the contribution of neutral parti-  
 545 cles. Nearby neutral particles deposit (sometimes large) additional energy in the  
 546 calorimeter but do not produce tracks in the inner detector, so they cannot be  
 547 rejected by the track isolation requirement. Additionally the peak and mean of

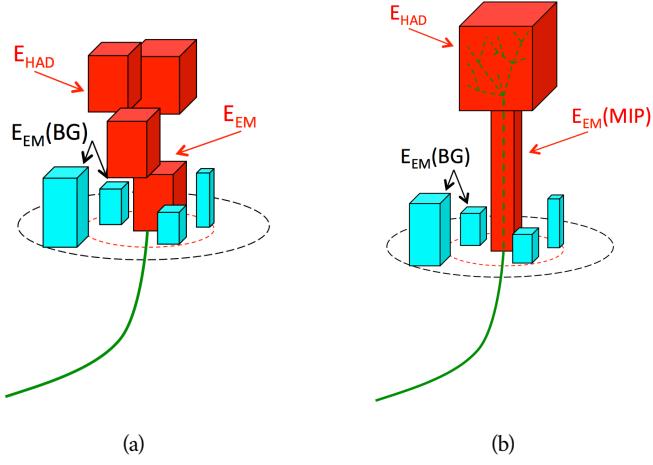


Figure 2: An illustration (a) of the  $E/p$  variable used throughout this paper. The red energy deposits come from the charged particle targeted for measurement, while the blue energy deposits are from nearby neutral particles and must be subtracted. The same diagram (b) for the neutral-background selection, described in Section 8.2.3.

548 the distribution falls below 1.0 because of the loss of energy not found within  
549 the cone as well as the non-compensation of the calorimeter.

550 The data and simulation share the same features, but the high and low tails  
551 are significantly different. The simulated events tend to overestimate the con-  
552 tribution of neutral particles to the long tail, an effect which can be isolated and  
553 removed as discussed in Section 8.2.3. Additionally, the simulated clusters have  
554 less noise on average, although this is a small effect on the overall response.

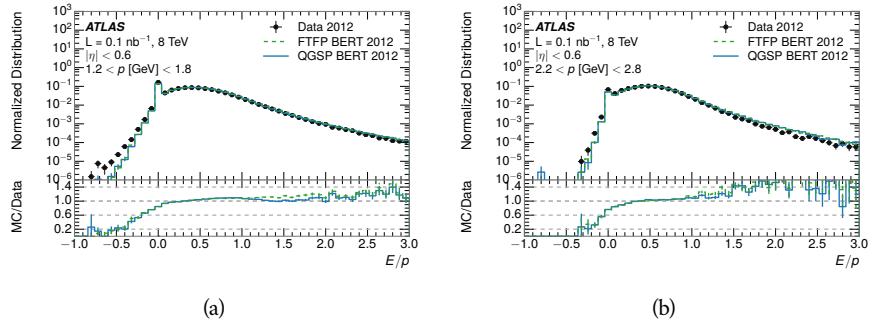


Figure 3: The  $E/p$  distribution and ratio of simulation to data for isolated tracks with  
(a)  $|\eta| < 0.6$  and  $1.2 < p/\text{GeV} < 1.8$  and (b)  $|\eta| < 0.6$  and  $2.2 < p/\text{GeV} < 2.8$ .

### 555 8.2.2 ZERO FRACTION

556 The fraction of particles with no associated clusters, or similarly those with  $E \leq$   
557 0, reflects the modeling of both the detector geometry and hadronic interactions.  
558 The zero fraction is expected to rise as the amount of material a particle traverses

increases, while it is expected to decrease as the particle energy increases. This dependence can be seen in Figure 4, where the zero fraction in data and simulation is shown as a function of momentum and the amount of material measured in interaction lengths. The trends are similar between 2010 and 2012 and for positively and negatively charged particles. The zero fraction decreases with energy as expected. The absolute discrepancy in zero fraction decreases with momentum from 5% to less than 1%, but this becomes more pronounced in the ratio as the zero fraction shrinks quickly with increasing momentum. There is a small constant difference between the data and simulation in both interaction models that becomes more pronounced. The amount of material in the detector increases with  $\eta$ , which is used to obtain results for interaction lengths ranging between 0.1 and 0.65  $\lambda$ . As the data and simulation have significant disagreement in the zero fraction over a number of interaction lengths, the difference must be primarily from the modeling of hadronic interactions with detector material and not just the detector geometry. Although two different hadronic interaction models are shown in the figure, they have very similar discrepancies to data because both use the same description (the BERT model) at low momentum.

### 8.2.3 NEUTRAL BACKGROUND SUBTRACTION

The isolation requirement on hadrons is only effective in removing an energy contribution from nearby charged particles. Nearby neutral particles, predominantly photons from  $\pi^0$  decays, also add their energy to the calorimeter clusters, but mostly in the electromagnetic calorimeter. It is possible to measure this contribution, on average, using late-showering hadrons that minimally ionize in the electromagnetic calorimeter. Such particles are selected by requiring that they deposit less than 1.1 GeV in the EM calorimeter within a cone of  $\Delta R < 0.1$  around the track. To ensure that these particles are well measured, they are additionally required to deposit between 40% and 90% of their energy in the hadronic calorimeter within the same cone.

These particles provide a clean sample to measure the nearby neutral background because they do not deposit energy in the area immediately surrounding them in the EM calorimeter, as shown in Figure 2. So, the energy deposits in the region  $0.1 < \Delta R < 0.2$  can be attributed to neutral particles alone. To estimate the contribution to the whole cone considered for the response measurement, that energy is scaled by a geometric factor of 4/3. This quantity,  $\langle E/p \rangle_{\text{BG}}$ , measured in aggregate over a number of particles, gives the contribution to  $\langle E/p \rangle$  from neutral particles in the EM calorimeter. Similar techniques were used in the individual layers of the hadronic calorimeters to show that the background from neutrals is negligible in those layers [5].

The distribution of this background estimate is shown in Figure 5 for data and simulation with the two different physics lists. The contribution from neutral particles falls from 0.1 at low momentum to around 0.03 for particles above 7 GeV. Although the simulation captures the overall trend, it significantly overestimates the neutral contribution for tracks with momentum between 2 and 8 GeV. This effect was also seen in the tails of the  $E/p$  distributions in Figure 3.

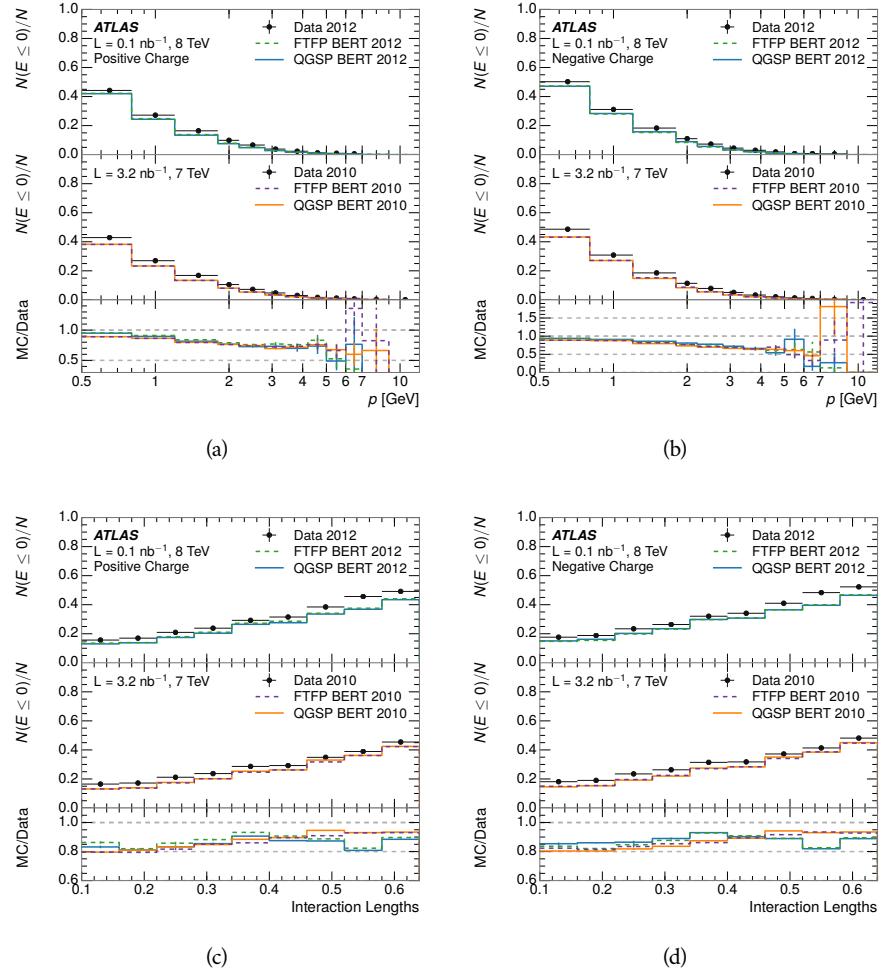


Figure 4: The fraction of tracks as a function (a, b) of momentum, (c, d) of interaction lengths with  $E \leq 0$  for tracks with positive (on the left) and negative (on the right) charge.

603 This difference is likely due to modeling of coherent neutral particle radiation  
 604 in Pythia8 that overestimates the production of  $\pi^0$  near the production of the  
 605 charged particles. The discrepancy does not depend on  $\eta$  and thus is unlikely to  
 606 be a mismodeling of the detector. This difference can be subtracted to form a  
 607 corrected average  $E/p$ , as in Section 8.2.4.

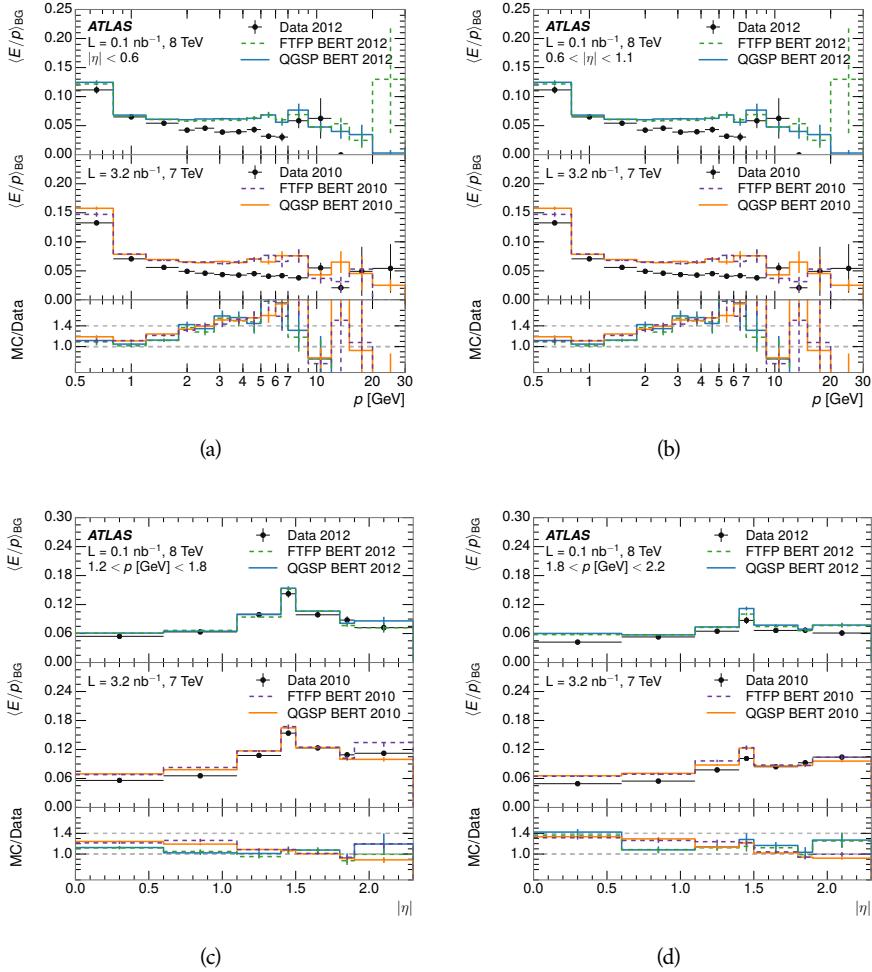


Figure 5:  $\langle E/p \rangle_{\text{BG}}$  as a function of the track momentum for tracks with (a)  $|\eta| < 0.6$ , (b)  $0.6 < |\eta| < 1.1$ , and as a function of the track pseudorapidity for tracks with (c)  $1.2 < p/\text{GeV} < 1.8$ , (d)  $1.8 < p/\text{GeV} < 2.2$ .

#### 608 8.2.4 CORRECTED RESPONSE

609 Figure 6 shows  $\langle E/p \rangle_{\text{COR}}$  as a function of momentum for several bins of pseudo-  
 610 rapidity. This corrected  $\langle E/p \rangle_{\text{COR}} \equiv \langle E/p \rangle - \langle E/p \rangle_{\text{BG}}$  measures the average  
 611 calorimeter response without the contamination of neutral particles. It is the  
 612 most direct measurement of calorimeter response in that it is the energy mea-  
 613 sured for fully isolated hadrons. The correction is performed separately in data  
 614 and simulation, so that the mismodeling of the neutral background in simulation  
 615 is removed from the comparison of response. The simulation overestimates the

616 response at low momentum by about 5%, an effect that can be mostly attributed  
 617 to the underestimation of the zero fraction mentioned previously. For  $|\eta| < 0.6$ ,  
 618 the data-simulation agreement has a larger discrepancy by about 5% for 2010  
 619 than 2012, although this is not reproduced in at higher pseudorapidity.

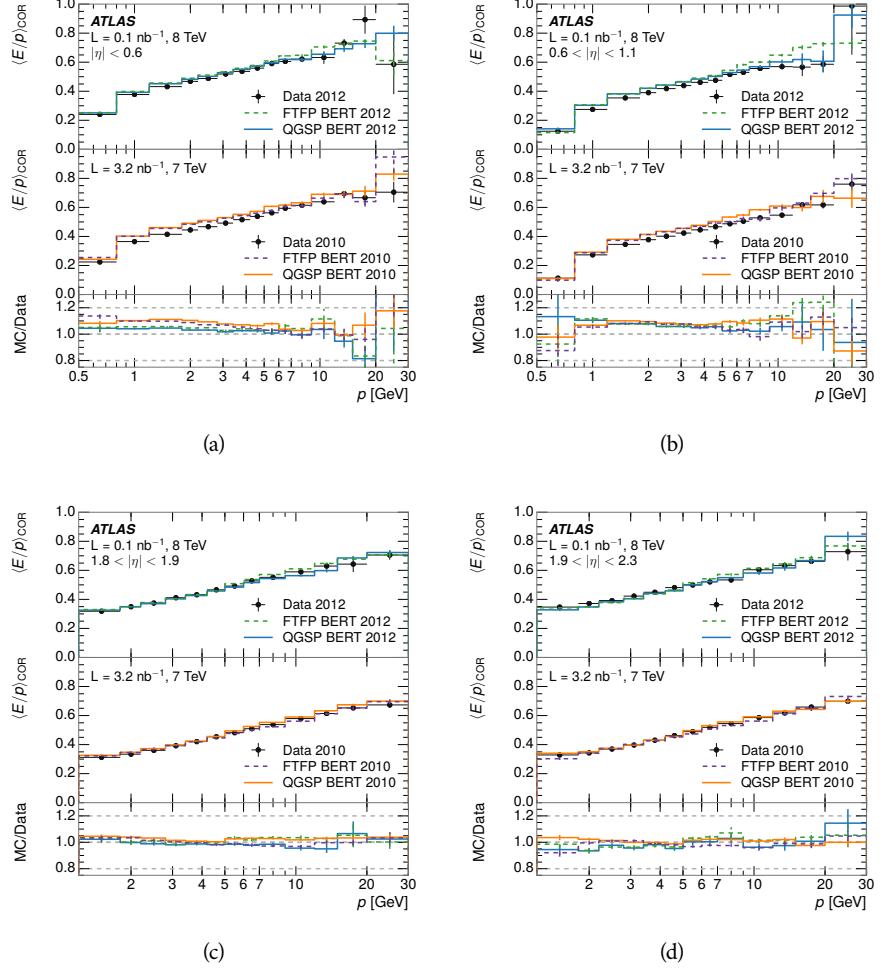


Figure 6:  $\langle E/p \rangle_{\text{COR}}$  as a function of track momentum, for tracks with (a)  $|\eta| < 0.6$ , (b)  $0.6 < |\eta| < 1.1$ , (c)  $1.8 < |\eta| < 1.9$ , and (d)  $1.9 < |\eta| < 2.3$ .

620 The response measurement above used topological clustering at the EM scale,  
 621 that is clusters were formed to measure energy but no corrections were applied  
 622 to correct for expected effects like energy lost outside of the cluster or in unin-  
 623 strumented material. It is also interesting to measure  $\langle E/p \rangle_{\text{COR}}$  using local clus-  
 624 ter weighted ([LCW](#)) energies, which accounts for those effects by calibrating the  
 625 energy based on the properties of the cluster such as energy density and depth in  
 626 the calorimeter. Figure 7 shows these distributions for tracks with zero or more  
 627 clusters and separately for tracks with one or more clusters. The calibration  
 628 moves the mean value of  $\langle E/p \rangle_{\text{COR}}$  significantly closer to 1.0 as desired. The  
 629 agreement between data and simulation improves noticeably when at least one  
 630 cluster is required, as this removes the contribution from the mismodeling of  
 631 the zero fraction. The good agreement in that case again demonstrates that the

difference in  $\langle E/p \rangle_{\text{COR}}$  between data and simulation is caused predominantly by the difference in zero fraction.

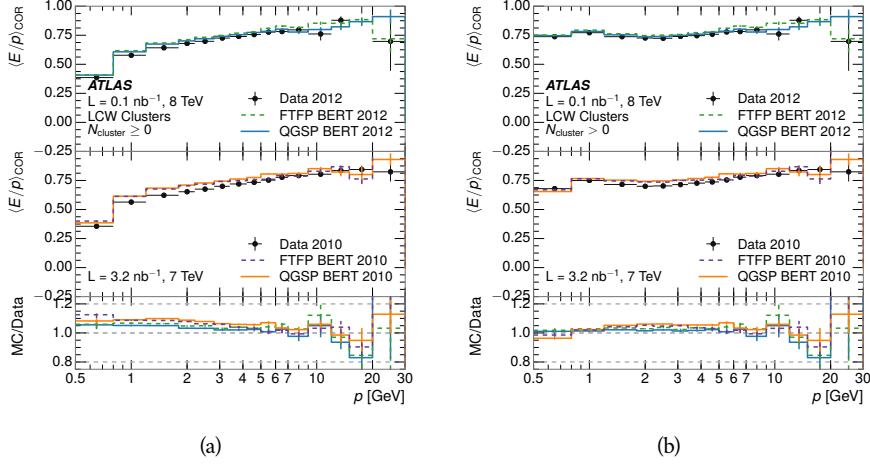


Figure 7:  $\langle E/p \rangle_{\text{COR}}$  calculated using LCW-calibrated topological clusters as a function of track momentum for tracks with (a) zero or more associated topological clusters or (b) one or more associated topological clusters.

#### 8.2.5 ADDITIONAL STUDIES

As has been seen in several measurements in previous sections, the simulation does not correctly model the chance of a low momentum hadron to reach the calorimeter. Because of the consistent discrepancy across pseudorapidity and interaction lengths, this can be best explained by incomplete understanding of hadronic interactions with the detector [4]. For example, a hadron that scatters off of a nucleus in the inner detector can be deflected through a significant angle and not reach the expected location in the calorimeter. In addition, these interactions can produce secondary particles that are difficult to model.

The requirement used throughout the previous sections on the number of hits in the TRT reduces these effects by preferentially selecting tracks that do not undergo nuclear interactions. It is interesting to check how well the simulation models tracks with low numbers of TRT hits, which selects tracks that are more likely to have undergone a hadronic interaction. Figure 8 compares the distributions with  $N_{\text{TRT}} < 20$  to  $N_{\text{TRT}} > 20$  for real and simulated particles. As expected, the tracks with fewer hits are poorly modeled in the simulation as  $\langle E/p \rangle_{\text{COR}}$  differs by as much as 25% at low momentum.

Another interesting aspect of the simulation is the description of antiprotons at low momentum, where QGSP\_BERT and FTFP\_BERT have significant differences. This can be seen to have an effect in the inclusive response measurement when separated into positive and negative charge. The  $\langle E/p \rangle_{\text{COR}}$  distributions for positive and negative particles are shown in Figure 9, where a small difference between QGSP\_BERT and FTFP\_BERT can be seen in the distribution for negative tracks. This is demonstrated more clearly in Figure 10, which shows

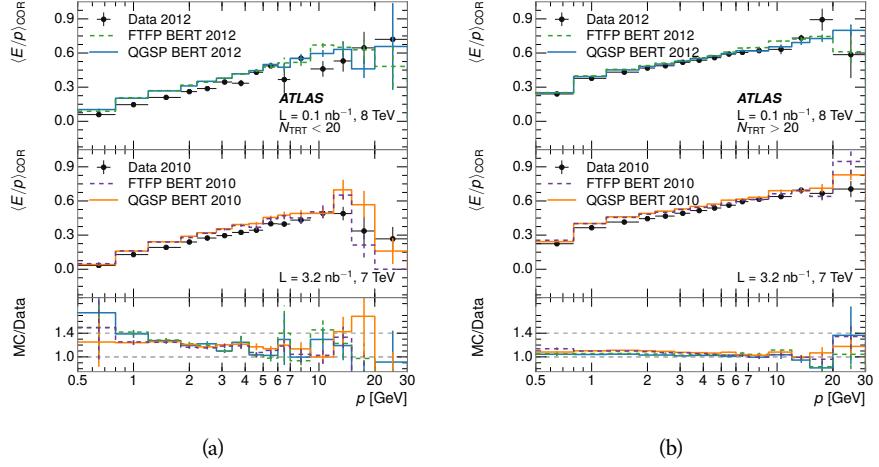


Figure 8: Comparison of the  $\langle E/p \rangle_{\text{COR}}$  for tracks with (a) less than and (b) greater than 20 hits in the TRT.

the  $E/p$  distribution in the two simulations separated by charge. There is a clear difference around  $E/p > 1.0$ , which can be explained by the additional energy deposited by the annihilation of the antiproton in the calorimeter that is modeled well only in FTFP\_BERT. This is also explored with data using identified antiprotons in Section 8.3.

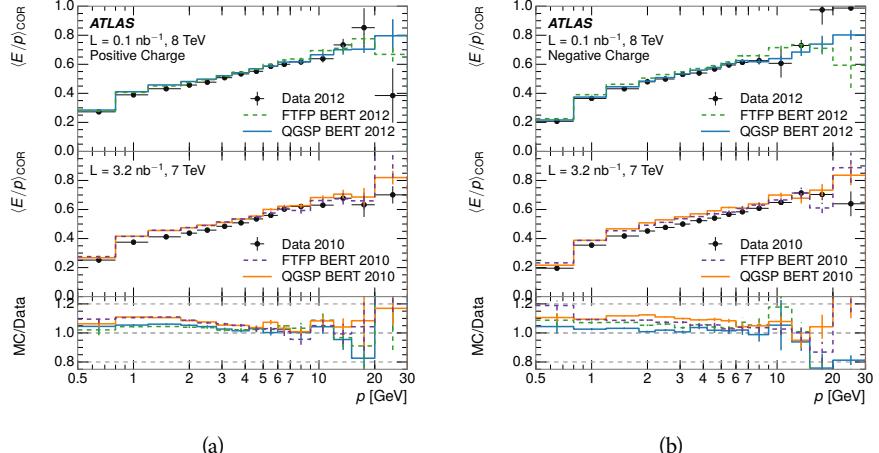


Figure 9: Comparison of the  $\langle E/p \rangle_{\text{COR}}$  for (a) positive and (b) negative tracks as a function of track momentum for tracks with  $|\eta| < 0.6$ .

The  $\langle E/p \rangle$  results in previous sections have considered the electromagnetic and hadronic calorimeters together as a single energy measurement, to emphasize the total energy deposited for a given particle. However, the deposits in each calorimeter are available separately and  $\langle E/p \rangle$  can be constructed for each layer. As the layers are composed of different materials and are modeled separately in the detector geometry, confirmation that the simulation matches the data well

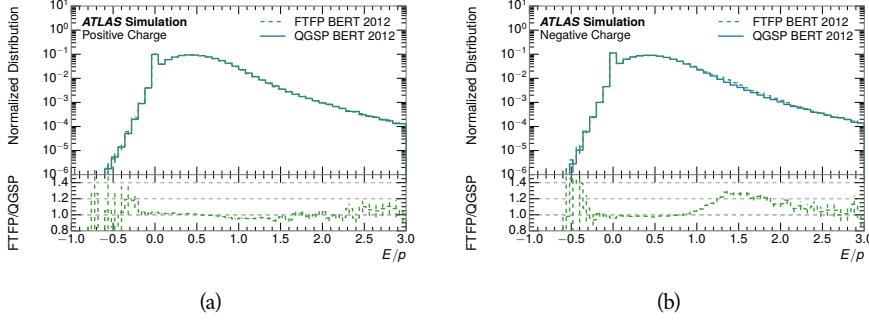


Figure 10: Comparison of the  $E/p$  distributions for (a) positive and (b) negative tracks with  $0.8 < p/\text{GeV} < 1.2$  and  $|\eta| < 0.6$ , in simulation with the FTFP\_BERT and QGSP\_BERT physics lists.

in each layer adds confidence in both the description of hadronic interactions with the two different materials and also the geometric description of each.

The technique discussed in Section 8.2.3 for selecting minimally ionizing particle (MIP)s in the electromagnetic calorimeter is also useful in studying deposits in the hadronic calorimeter. Those MIPs deposit almost all of their energy exclusively in the hadronic calorimeter. Figure 11 shows  $\langle E/p \rangle_{\text{RAW}}^{\text{Had}}$ , where RAW indicates that no correction has been applied for neutral backgrounds and Had indicates that only clusters for the hadronic calorimeter are included. The RAW and COR versions of  $\langle E/p \rangle$  in this case are the same, as the neutral background is negligible in that calorimeter layer. The distributions are shown both for the original EM scale calibration and after LCW calibration. The data and simulation agree very well in this comparison, except in the lowest momentum bin which has 5% discrepancy that has already been seen in similar measurements.

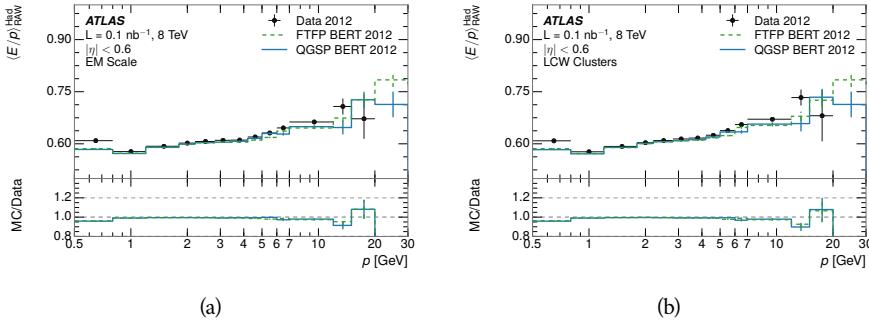


Figure 11: Comparison of the response of the hadronic calorimeter as a function of track momentum (a) at the EM-scale and (b) after the LCW calibration.

A similar comparison can be made in the electromagnetic calorimeter by selecting particles which have no associated energy in the hadronic calorimeter. These results are measured in terms of  $\langle E/p \rangle_{\text{COR}}^{\text{EM}}$ , where EM designates that only clusters in the electromagnetic calorimeter are included and COR designates that the neutral background is subtracted as the neutral background is present in this case. Figure 12 shows the analogous comparisons to Figure 11 in

688 the electromagnetic calorimeter. In this case the disagreement between data and  
 689 simulation is more pronounced, with discrepancies as high as 5% over a larger  
 690 range of momenta. This level of discrepancy indicates that the description of  
 691 the electromagnetic calorimeter is actually the dominant source of discrepancy  
 692 in the combined distributions in Section 8.2.4.

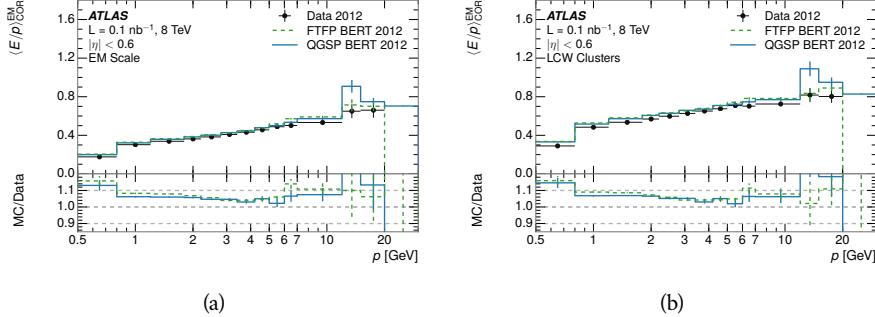


Figure 12: Comparison of the response of the EM calorimeter as a function of track momentum (a) at the EM-scale and (b) with the LCW calibration.

693 **NOTE: There are more studies that I skipped for brevity that could be in-**  
 694 **cluded if interesting.  $E/p$  at different cluster threshold settings,  $E/p$  with**  
 695 **pileup,  $E/p$  with cells. I also left out a lot of eta bins that appear in the**  
 696 **paper so that this section didn't turn into 20 pages of plots.**

### 697 8.3 IDENTIFIED PARTICLE RESPONSE

698 The inclusive response measurement for hadrons can be augmented by measur-  
 699 ing the response for specific particle species. The simulation models each parti-  
 700 cle type separately, and understanding the properties of each is important in con-  
 701 straining the uncertainty on jets. In order to select and measure specific hadrons,  
 702 this section relies on the displaced decays of long-lived particles. Such decays  
 703 can be identified by reconstructing secondary vertices with a requirement on  
 704 mass. In particular,  $\Lambda$ ,  $\bar{\Lambda}$ , and  $K_S^0$  can be used to select a pure sample of protons,  
 705 antiprotons, and pions, respectively.

#### 706 8.3.1 DECAY RECONSTRUCTION

707 The measurement of response for identified particles uses the same selection as  
 708 for inclusive particles (Section 8.1.3) with a few additions. Each event used is  
 709 required to have at least one secondary vertex, and the tracks are required to  
 710 match to that vertex rather than the primary vertex. Pions are selected from  
 711 decays of  $K_S^0 \rightarrow \pi^+ \pi^-$ , which is the dominant decay for  $K_S^0$  to charged particles.  
 712 Protons are selected from decays of  $\Lambda \rightarrow \pi^- p$  and antiprotons from  $\bar{\Lambda} \rightarrow \pi^+ \bar{p}$ ,  
 713 which are similarly the dominant decays of  $\Lambda$  and  $\bar{\Lambda}$  to charged particles. The  
 714 species of parent hadron in these decays is determined by reconstructing the  
 715 mass of the tracks associated to the secondary vertex. The sign of the higher

716 momentum decay particle can distinguish between  $\Lambda$  and  $\bar{\Lambda}$ , which of course  
 717 have the same mass, as the proton or antiproton is kinematically favored to have  
 718 higher momentum. Examples of the reconstructed masses used to select these  
 719 decays are shown in Figure 13.

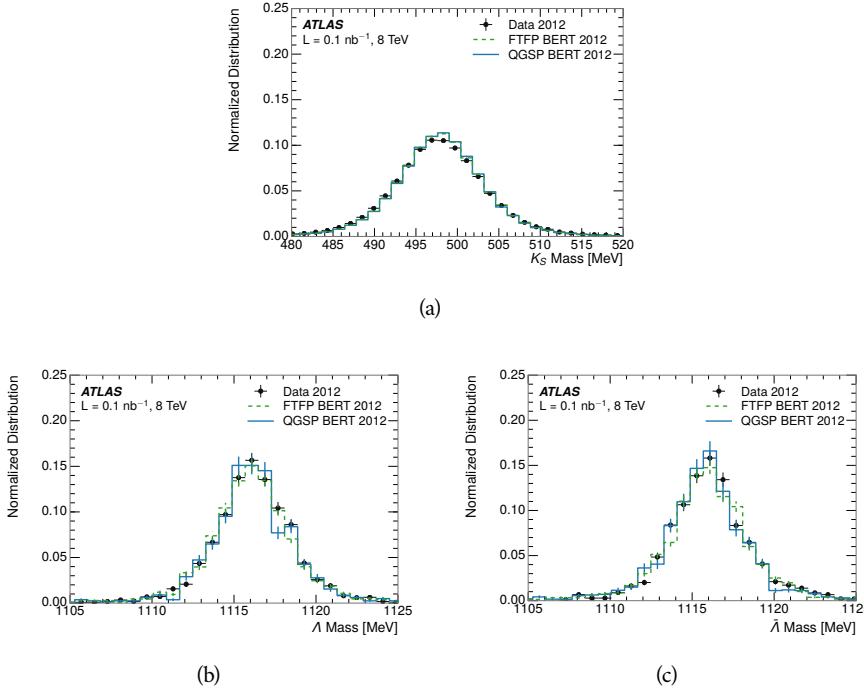


Figure 13: The reconstructed mass peaks of (a)  $K_S^0$ , (b)  $\Lambda$ , and (c)  $\bar{\Lambda}$  candidates.

720 The dominant backgrounds for the identified particle decays are nuclear in-  
 721 teractions and combinatoric sources. These are suppressed by the kinematic re-  
 722 quirements on the tracks as well as an additional veto which removes candidates  
 723 that are consistent with both a  $\Lambda$  or  $\bar{\Lambda}$  and a  $K_S^0$  hypothesis, which is possible be-  
 724 cause of the different assumptions on particle mass in each case [5]. After these  
 725 requirements, the backgrounds are found to be negligible compared to the sta-  
 726 tistical errors on these measurements.

### 727 8.3.2 IDENTIFIED RESPONSE

728 With these techniques the  $E/p$  distributions are extracted in data and simulation  
 729 for each particle species and shown in Figure 14. These distributions are shown  
 730 for a particular bin of  $E_a$  ( $2.2 < E_a/\text{GeV} < 2.8$ ), rather than  $p$ .  $E_a$  is the energy  
 731 available to be deposited in the calorimeter: for pions  $E_a = \sqrt{p^2 + m^2}$ , for pro-  
 732 tons  $E_a = \sqrt{p^2 + m^2} - m$ , and for antiprotons  $E_a = \sqrt{p^2 + m^2} + m$ . The features  
 733 of the  $E/p$  distributions are similar to the inclusive case. There is a small nega-  
 734 tive tail from noise and a large fraction of tracks with zero energy from particles  
 735 which do not reach the calorimeter. The long positive tail is noticeably more  
 736 pronounced for antiprotons because of the additional energy generated by the  
 737 annihilation in addition to the neutral background.

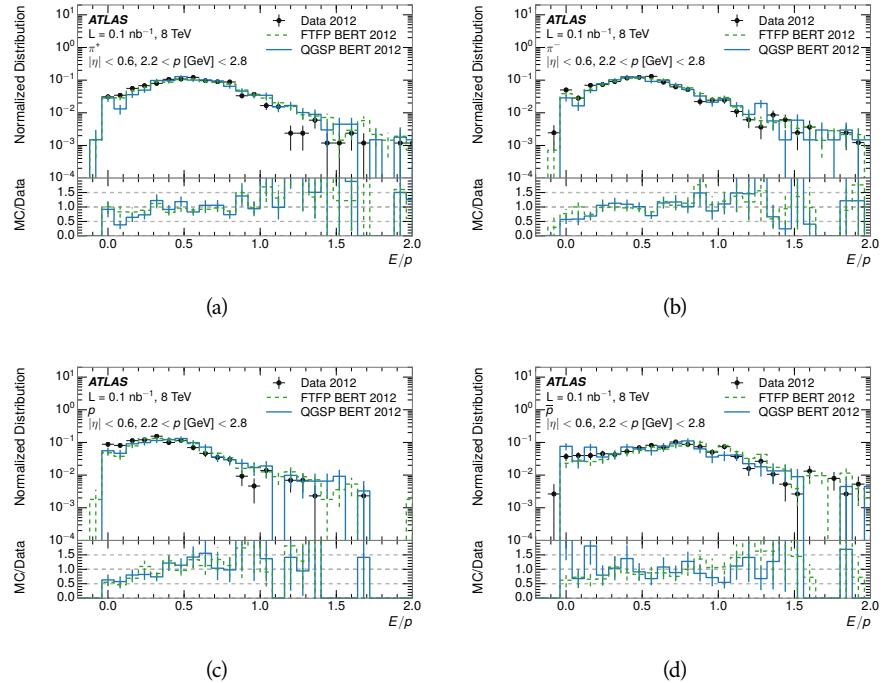


Figure 14: The  $E/p$  distribution for isolated (a)  $\pi^+$ , (b)  $\pi^-$ , (c) proton, and (d) anti-proton tracks.

738     The zero fraction is further explored in Figure 15 for pions and protons in data  
 739     and simulation. The simulation consistently underestimates the zero fraction  
 740     independent of particle species, which implies that this discrepancy is not caused  
 741     by the model of a particular species but rather a feature common to all.

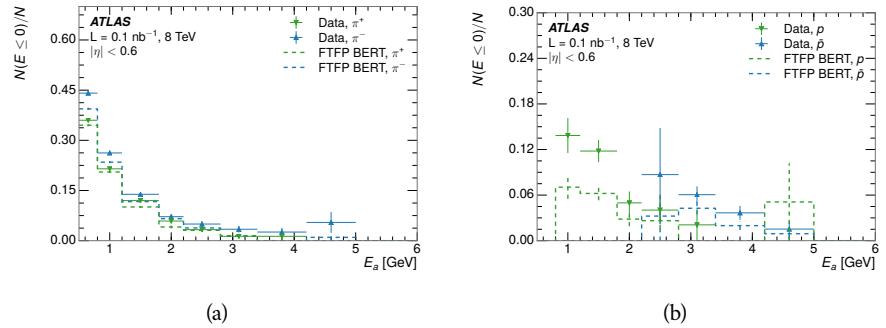


Figure 15: The fraction of tracks with  $E \leq 0$  for identified (a)  $\pi^+$  and  $\pi^-$ , and (b) proton and anti-proton tracks

742     It is also interesting to compare the response between the different particle  
 743     species. One approach to do this is to measure the difference in  $\langle E/p \rangle$  between  
 744     two types, which has the advantage of removing the neutral background. These  
 745     differences are shown in various combinations in Figure 16. The response for  
 746      $\pi^+$  is greater on average than the response to  $\pi^-$  because of a charge-exchange  
 747     effect which causes the production of additional neutral pions in the showers of

748  $\pi^+$  [27]. The response for  $\pi^+$  is also greater on average than the response to  $p$ ,  
 749 because a large fraction of the energy of  $\pi^+$  hadrons is converted to an electro-  
 750 magnetic shower [28, 29]. However, the  $\bar{p}$  response is significantly higher than  
 751 the response to  $\pi^-$  because of the annihilation of the antiproton. FTFP\_BERT  
 752 does a better job of modeling this effect than QGSP\_BERT because of their differ-  
 753 ent descriptions of  $\bar{p}$  interactions with material.

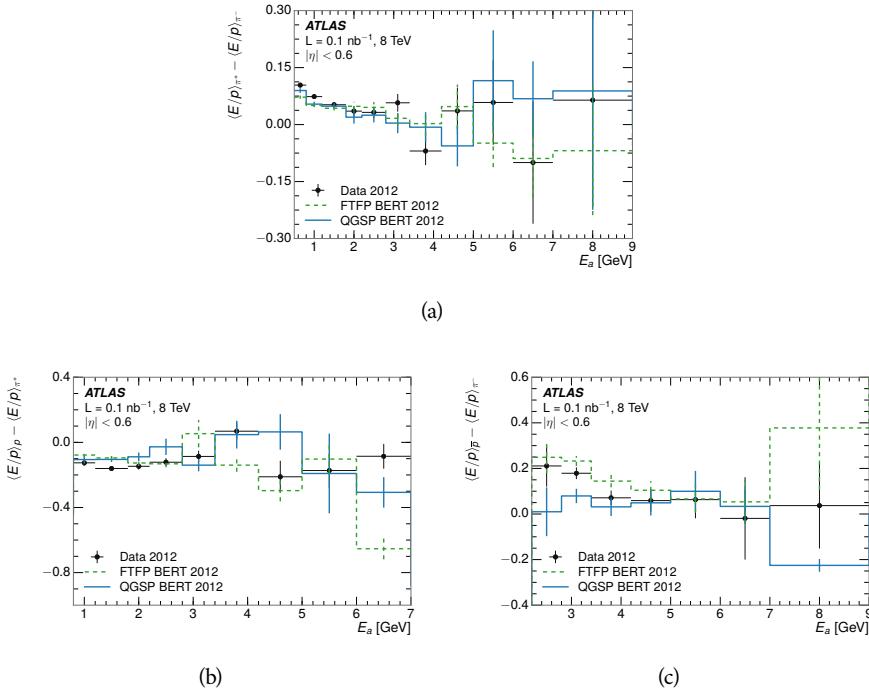


Figure 16: The difference in  $\langle E/p \rangle$  between (a)  $\pi^+$  and  $\pi^-$  (b)  $p$  and  $\pi^+$ , and (c)  $\bar{p}$  and  $\pi^-$ .

754 It is also possible to remove the neutral background from these response dis-  
 755 tributions using the same technique as in Section 8.2.3. The technique is largely  
 756 independent of the particle species and so can be directly applied to  $\langle E/p \rangle$  for  
 757 pions. The  $\langle E/p \rangle_{\text{COR}}$  distributions for pions are shown in Figure 17, which are  
 758 very similar to the inclusive results. The inclusive hadrons are comprised mostly  
 759 of pions, so this similarity is not surprising. It is also possible to see the small  
 760 differences between  $\pi^+$  and  $\pi^-$  response here, where  $\langle E/p \rangle_{\text{COR}}$  is higher on av-  
 761 erage for  $\pi^+$ . The agreement between data and simulation is significantly worse  
 762 for the  $\pi^-$  distributions than for the  $\pi^+$ , with a discrepancy greater than 10%  
 763 below 2-3 GeV.

### 764 8.3.3 ADDITIONAL SPECIES IN SIMULATION

765 The techniques above provide a method to measure the response separately for  
 766 only pions and protons. However the hadrons which forms jets include a num-  
 767 ber of additional species such as kaons and neutrons. The charged kaons are  
 768 an important component of the inclusive charged hadron distribution, which is  
 769 comprised of roughly 60-70% pions, 15-20% kaons, and 5-15% protons. These

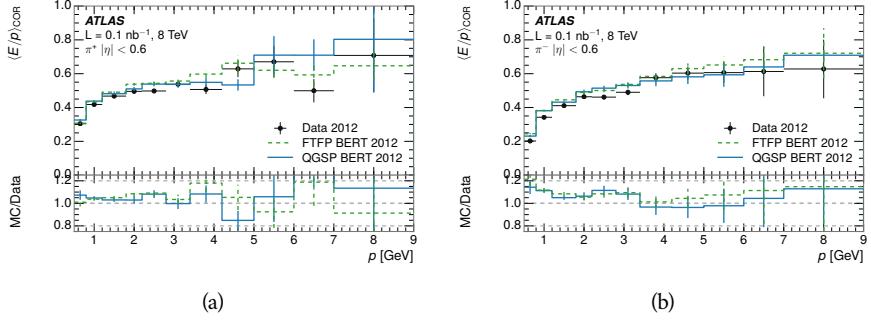


Figure 17:  $\langle E/p \rangle_{\text{COR}}$  as a function of track momentum for (a)  $\pi^+$  tracks and (b)  $\pi^-$  tracks.

are difficult to measure in data at the ATLAS detector, although a template subtraction technique has been proposed which may be effective with larger sample sizes [4]. The simulation of these particles includes noticeable differences in response at low energies, which are shown in Figure 18 for FTFP\_BERT. The significant differences in response between low energy protons and antiprotons are accounted for above in the definitions of  $E_a$ .

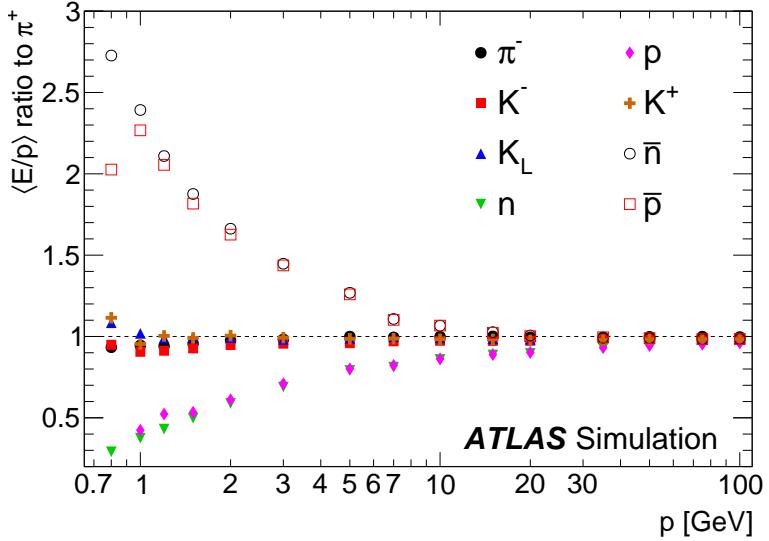


Figure 18: The ratio of the calorimeter response to single particles of various species to the calorimeter response to  $\pi^+$  with the physics list FTFP\_BERT.

#### 8.4 SUMMARY

These various measurements of calorimeter response shown above for data and simulation illuminate the accuracy of the simulation of hadronic interactions at the ATLAS detector. The results were done using 2010 and 2012 data at 7 and 8 TeV, but reflect the most current understanding of the detector alignment and geometry. A number of measurements focusing on a comparison between pro-

782 tons and antiprotons suggest that FTFP\_BERT models those interaction more  
783 accurately than QGSP\_BERT. These measurements, among others, were the moti-  
784 vation to switch the default Geant4 simulation from FTFP\_BERT to QGSP\_BERT  
785 for all ATLAS samples.

786 Even with these updates, there are a number of small, approximately 5%, dis-  
787 crepancies in response between the data and simulation at low energies. At  
788 higher energies the simulation of hadronic interactions is very consistent with  
789 data. Chapter 9 discusses how to use these observed differences to constrain the  
790 jet energy scale and its associated uncertainties.



791

## 792 JET ENERGY RESPONSE AND UNCERTAINTY

## 793 9.1 MOTIVATION

794 As jets form a major component of many physics analyses at ATLAS, it is cru-  
 795 cial to carefully calibrate the measurement of jet energies and to derive an un-  
 796 certainty on that measurement. These uncertainties have often been the dom-  
 797 inant systematic uncertainty in high-energy analyses at the Large Hadron Col-  
 798 linder ([LHC](#)). Dijet and multijet balance techniques provide a method to constrain  
 799 the [JES](#) and its uncertainty in data, and provide the default values used for ATLAS  
 800 jet measurements at most energies [30]. These techniques are limited by their re-  
 801 liance on measuring jets in data, so they are statistically limited in estimating  
 802 the jet energy scale at the highest jet energies. This chapter presents another  
 803 method for estimating the jet energy scale and its uncertainty which builds up a  
 804 jet from its components and thus can be naturally extended to high jet momen-  
 805 tum. Throughout this chapter the jets studied are simulated using [Pythia8](#) with  
 806 the CT10 parton distribution set [31] and the AU2 tune [8], and corrections are  
 807 taken from the studies including data and simulation in Chapter 8.

808 As described in Section 7.2, jets are formed from topological clusters of energy  
 809 in the calorimeters using the anti- $k_t$  algorithm. These clusters originate from a  
 810 diverse spectrum of particles, in terms of both species and momentum, leading to  
 811 significantly varied jet properties and response between jets of similar produced  
 812 momentum. Figure 19 shows the simulated distribution of particles within jets  
 813 at a few examples energies. The  $E/p$  measurements provide a thorough under-  
 814 standing of the dominant particle content of jets, the charged hadrons.

## 815 9.2 UNCERTAINTY ESTIMATE

816 Simulated jets are not necessarily expected to correctly model the energy de-  
 817 posits in the calorimeters, because of the various discrepancies discussed in Chap-  
 818 ter 8. To evaluate a jet energy response, the simulated jet energies are compared  
 819 to a corrected jet built up at the particle level. Each cluster in a jet is associated  
 820 to the truth particle which deposited it, and the energy in that cluster is then  
 821 corrected for a number of effects based on measurements in data. The primary  
 822 corrections come from the single hadron response measurements in addition  
 823 to response measured using the combined test beam which covers higher mo-  
 824 mentum particles [32]. These corrections include both a shift ( $\Delta$ ), in order to  
 825 make the simulation match the average response in data, and an uncertainty ( $\sigma$ )  
 826 associated with the ability to constrain the difference between data and simula-  
 827 tion. Some of the dominant sources of uncertainty are itemized in Table 1 with  
 828 typical values, and the full list considered is described in detail in the associated

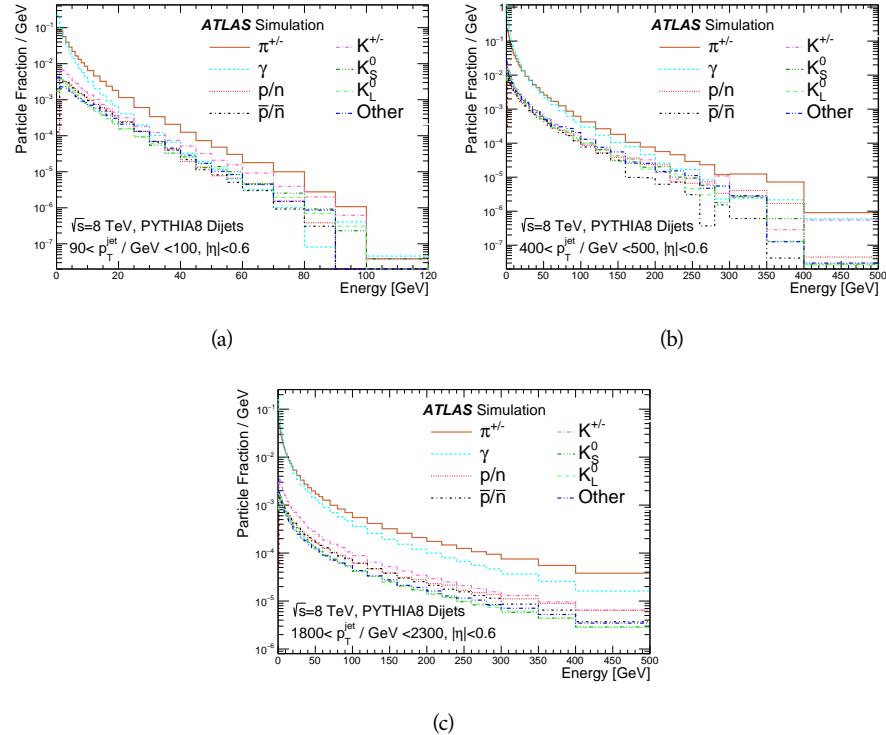


Figure 19: The spectra of true particles inside anti- $k_t$ ,  $R = 0.4$  jets with (a)  $90 < p_T/\text{GeV} < 100$ , (b)  $400 < p_T/\text{GeV} < 500$ , and (c)  $1800 < p_T/\text{GeV} < 2300$ .

paper [4]. These uncertainties cover differences between the data and simulation in the modeling of calorimeter response to a given particle. No uncertainties are added for the difference between particle composition of jets in data and simulation.

From these terms, the jet energy scale and uncertainty is built up from individual energy deposits in simulation. Each uncertainty term is treated independently, and are taken to be gaussian distributed. The resulting scale and uncertainty is shown in Figure 20, where the mean response is measured relative to the calibrated energy reported by simulation. The dominant uncertainties come from the statistical uncertainties on the  $E/p$  measurements at lower energies and the additional uncertainty for out of range measurements at higher energies. The total uncertainty from this method at intermediate jet energies is comparable to other simulation-based methods [33] and is about twice as large as in-situ methods using data [30]. This method is the only one which provides an estimation above 1.8 TeV, however, and so is still a crucial technique in analyses that search for very energetic jets.

These techniques can also be used to measure the correlation between bins of average reconstructed jet momentum across a range of  $p_T$  and  $|\eta|$ , where correlations are expected because of a similarity in particle composition at similar energies. Figure 21 shows these correlations, where the uncertainties on jets in neighboring bins are typically between 30% and 60% correlated. The uncertainty on all jets becomes significantly correlated at high energies and larger pseudora-

Abbrev.	Description	$\Delta$ (%)	$\sigma$ (%)
In situ $E/p$	The comparison of $\langle E/p \rangle_{\text{COR}}$ as described in Chapter 8 with statistical uncertainties from 500 MeV to 20 GeV.	0-3	1-5
CTB	The main $\langle E/p \rangle$ comparison uncertainties, binned in $p$ and $ \eta $ , as derived from the combined test beam results, from 20 to 350 GeV [32].	0-3	1-5
$E/p$ Zero Fraction	The difference in the zero-fraction between data and MC simulation from 500 MeV to 20 GeV.	5-25	1-5
$E/p$ Threshold	The uncertainty in the EM calorimeter response from the potential mismodeling of threshold effects in topological clustering.	0	0-10
Neutral	The uncertainty in the calorimeter response to neutral hadrons based on studies of physics model variations.	0	5-10
$K_L$	An additional uncertainty in the response to neutral $K_L$ in the calorimeter based on studies of physics model variations.	0	20
$E/p$ Misalignment	The uncertainty in the $p$ measurement from misalignment of the ID.	0	1
Hadrons, $p > 350$ GeV	A flat uncertainty for all particles above the energy range or outside the longitudinal range probed with the combined test beam.	0	10

Table 1: The dominant sources of corrections and systematic uncertainties in the [JES](#) estimation technique, including typical values for the correcting shift ( $\Delta$ ) and the associated uncertainty ( $\sigma$ ).

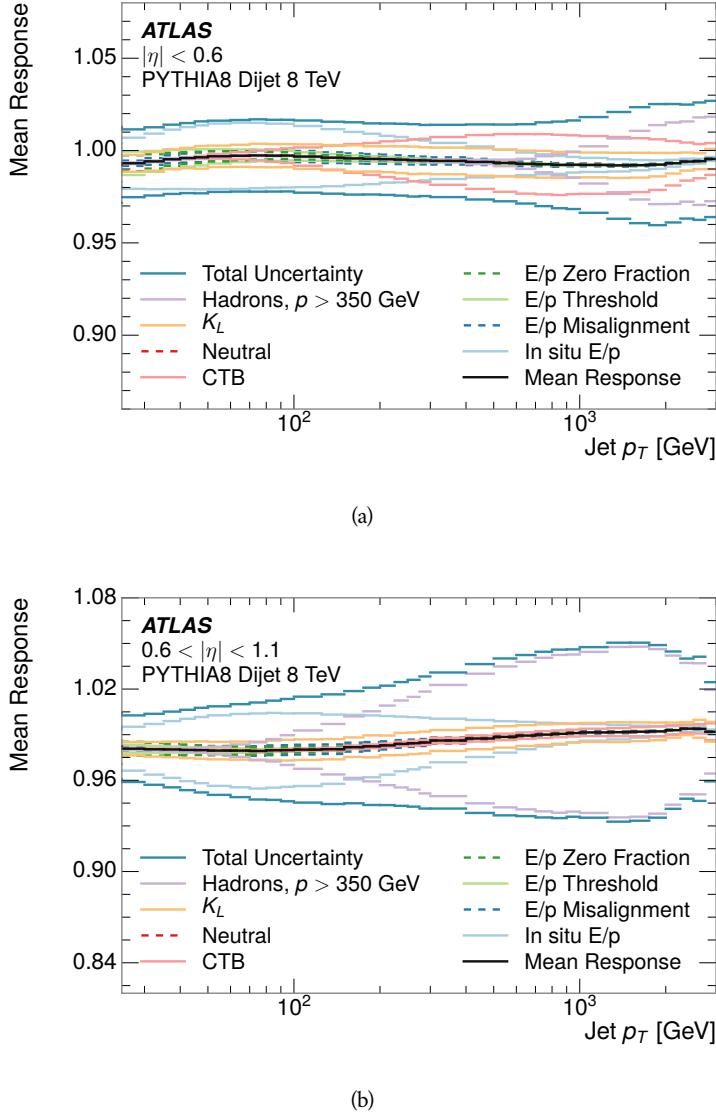


Figure 20: The [JES](#) uncertainty contributions, as well as the total [JES](#) uncertainty, as a function of jet  $p_T$  for (a)  $|\eta| < 0.6$  and (b)  $0.6 < |\eta| < 1.1$ .

851      pidities, when the uncertainty becomes dominated by the single term reflecting  
 852      out of range particles.

### 853      9.3 SUMMARY

854      The technique described above provides a jet energy scale and uncertainty by  
 855      building up jet corrections from the energy deposits of constituent particles. The  
 856       $E/p$  measurements are crucial in providing corrections for the majority of parti-  
 857      cles in the jets. The uncertainty derived this way is between 2 and 5% and is about  
 858      twice as large at corresponding momentum than jet balance methods. However  
 859      this is the only uncertainty available for very energetic jets using 2012 data and  
 860      simulation, and repeating this method with Run 2 data and simulation will be

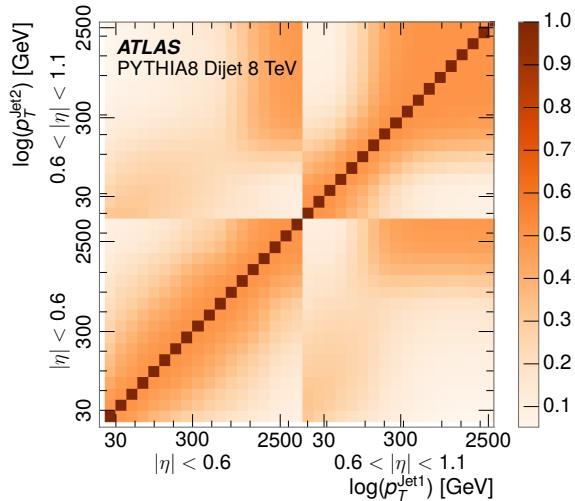


Figure 21: The JES correlations as a function of jet  $p_T$  and  $|\eta|$  for jets in the central region of the detector.

861 important in providing an uncertainty for the most energetic jets in 13 TeV col-  
 862 lisions.



863

## PART V

864

### SEARCH FOR LONG-LIVED PARTICLES

865

You can put some informational part preamble text here.



868 As discussed in Section 2.3, various limitations in the SM suggest a need for new  
 869 particles at the TeV scale. A wide range of extensions to the Standard Model  
 870 predict that these new particles can have lifetimes greater than approximately  
 871 one-hundredth of a nanosecond. These include theories with universal extra-  
 872 dimensions [34, 35], with new fermions [36], and with leptoquarks [37]. Many  
 873 Supersymmetry (SUSY) theories also produce these Long-Lived Particles (LLPs),  
 874 in both R-Parity violating [38–40] and R-Parity conserving [41–44] formula-  
 875 tions. Split supersymmetry [45, 46], for example, predicts long-lived gluinos  
 876 with O(TeV) masses. This search focuses specifically on the SUSY case, but many  
 877 of the results are generic to any model with LLPs.

878 Long-lived gluinos or squarks carry color-charge and will thus hadronize into  
 879 color neutral bound states called R-Hadrons. These are composit particles like  
 880 the usual hadrons but with one supersymmetric constituent, for example  $\tilde{g}q\bar{q}$   
 881 and  $\tilde{q}\bar{q}$ . Through this hadronization process, the neutral gluino can acquire a  
 882 charge. Gluino pair production,  $pp \rightarrow \tilde{g}\tilde{g}$  has the largest cross sectional increase  
 883 with the increase in energy to 13 TeV, and so this search focuses on gluino R-  
 884 Hadrons. Planned future updates will extend the case to explicitly include squark  
 885 and chargino models, but the method covers any long-lived, charged, massive  
 886 particle.

## 887 10.1 EVENT TOPOLOGY

888 The majority of SUSY models predict that gluinos will be produced in pairs at  
 889 the LHC, through processes like  $pp \rightarrow q\bar{q} \rightarrow \tilde{g}\tilde{g}$  and  $pp \rightarrow gg \rightarrow \tilde{g}\tilde{g}$ , where the  
 890 gluon mode dominates for the collision energy and gluino masses considered  
 891 for this search. During their production, the long-lived gluinos hadronize into  
 892 color singlet bound states including  $\tilde{g}q\bar{q}$ ,  $\tilde{g}qqq$ , and even  $\tilde{g}g$  [47]. The probability  
 893 to form the gluon-only bound states is a free parameter usually taken to be 0.1,  
 894 while the meson states are favored among the R-Hadrons [48]. The charged and  
 895 neutral states are approximately equally likely for mesons, so the R-Hadrons will  
 896 be charged roughly 50% of the time.

897 These channels produce R-Hadrons with large  $p_T$ , comparable to their mass,  
 898 so that they typically propagate with  $0.2 < \beta < 0.9$  [48]. The fragmentation that  
 899 produces that hadrons is very hard, so the jet structure around the R-Hadron  
 900 is minimal, with less than 5 GeV of summed particle momentum expected in a  
 901 cone of  $\Delta R < 0.25$  around the R-Hadron [48]. After hadronization, depending  
 902 on the gluino lifetime, the R-Hadrons then decay into hadrons and a LSP [47].

903 In summary, the expected event for pair-produced long-lived gluinos is very  
 904 simple: two isolated, high-momentum R-Hadrons that propagate through the  
 905 detector before decaying into jets. The observable features of such events depend

906 strongly on the interaction of the R-Hadron with the material of the detector and  
 907 also its lifetime. Section 10.1.1 describes the interactions of R-Hadrons which  
 908 reach the various detector elements in A Toroidal LHC ApparatuS ([ATLAS](#)) and  
 909 Section 10.1.2 provides a summary of the observable event descriptions for R-  
 910 Hadrons of various lifetimes.

911 10.1.1 DETECTOR INTERACTIONS

912 After approximately 0.2 ns, the R-Hadron reaches the pixel detector. If charged,  
 913 it deposits energy into the material through repeated single collisions that result  
 914 in ionization of the silicon substrate [49]. Because of its comparatively low  $\beta$ ,  
 915 the ionization energy can be significantly greater than expected for SM particles  
 916 because the most-probable energy loss grows significantly as  $\beta$  decreases [49].  
 917 This large ionization can be measured through the time over threshold (ToT) read  
 918 out from the pixel detector as described in Section 7.1.1.2. Large ionization in  
 919 the inner detector is one of the major characteristic features of LLPs.

920 Throughout the next few nanoseconds, the R-Hadron propagates through the  
 921 remainder of the inner detector. A charged R-Hadron will provide hits in each  
 922 of these systems as would any other charged particle, and can be reconstructed  
 923 as a track. The track reconstruction provides a measurement of its trajectory  
 924 and thus its momentum as described in Section 7.1. The large momentum is  
 925 another characteristic feature of massive particles produced at the LHC. **Note: At**  
 926 **this point I am failing to mention that the TRT provides a possible dE/dx**  
 927 **measurement, because no one uses it as far as I know.**

928 As of roughly 20 ns, the R-Hadron enters the calorimeter where it interacts  
 929 hadronically with the material. Because of its large mass and momentum, the  
 930 R-Hadron does not typically stop in the calorimeter, but rather deposits a small  
 931 fraction of its energy through repeated interactions with nucleons. The proba-  
 932 bility of interaction between the gluino itself and a nucleon is low because the  
 933 cross section drops off with the inverse square of its mass, so the interactions are  
 934 primarily governed by the light constituents [50]. Each of these interactions can  
 935 potentially change that quark content and thus change the sign of the R-Hadron,  
 936 so that the charge at exit is typically uncorrelated with the charge at entry [48].  
 937 The total energy deposited in the calorimeters during the propagation is small  
 938 compared to the kinetic energy of the R-Hadron, around 20-40 GeV, so that  
 939  $E/p$  is typically less than 0.1 [48].

940 Then, 30 ns after the collision, it reaches the muon system, where it again  
 941 ionizes in the material if charged and can be reconstructed as a muon track. Be-  
 942 cause of the charge-flipping interactions in the calorimeter, this track may have  
 943 the opposite sign of the track reconstructed in the inner detector, or there may  
 944 be a track present when there was none in the inner detector and vice-versa. The  
 945 propagation time at the typically lower  $\beta$  results in a significant delay compared  
 946 to muons, and that delay can be assessed in terms of a time-of-flight measure-  
 947 ment. Because of the probability of charge-flip and late arrival, there is a signif-  
 948 icant chance that an R-Hadron which was produced with a charge will not be

949 identified as a muon. The long time-of-flight is another characteristic feature of  
 950 R-Hadrons which are reconstructed as muons.

951 10.1.2 LIFETIME DEPENDENCE

952 The above description assumed a lifetime long enough for the R-Hadron to exit  
 953 the detector, which through this search is referred to as “stable”, even though  
 954 the particle may decay after exiting the detector. There are several unique sig-  
 955 natures at shorter lifetimes where the R-Hadron decays in various parts of the  
 956 inner detector; these lifetimes are referred to as “metastable”.

957 The shortest case where the R-Hadron is considered metastable is for life-  
 958 times around 0.01 ns, where the particle decays before reaching any of the de-  
 959 tector elements. Although the R-Hadrons are produced opposite each other in  
 960 the transverse plane, each R-Hadron decays to a jet and an [LSP](#). The [LSPs](#) are not  
 961 measured, so the produced jets can be significantly imbalanced in the transverse  
 962 plane which results in large missing energy. That missing energy can be used  
 963 to trigger candidate events, and provides the most efficient trigger option for  
 964 shorter lifetimes. Additionally, the precision of the tracking system allows the  
 965 displaced vertex of the R-Hadron decay to be reconstructed from the charged  
 966 particles in the jet. The distance of that vertex from the interaction point can  
 967 be used to distinguish R-Hadron decays from other processes. Figure 22 shows  
 968 a schematic diagram of an example R-Hadron event with such a lifetime. The  
 969 diagram is not to scale, but instead illustrates the detector interactions in the  
 970 pixel detector, calorimeters, and muon system. It includes a representation of  
 971 the charged R-Hadron and the neutral R-Hadron, as well as the [LSPs](#) and jets  
 972 (shown as charged hadrons) produced in the decay. Neutral hadrons may also  
 973 be produced in the decay but are not depicted. Previous searches on [ATLAS](#) have  
 974 used the displaced vertex to target [LLP](#) decays [51].

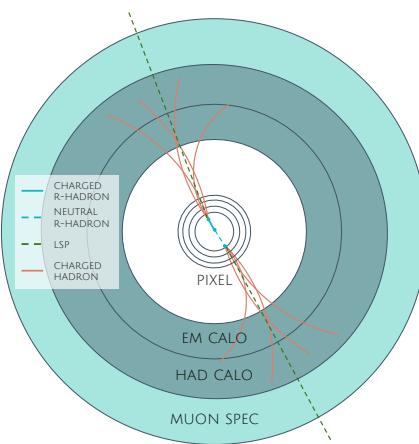


Figure 22: A schematic diagram of an R-Hadron event with a lifetime around 0.01 ns.  
 The diagram includes one charged R-Hadron (solid blue), one neutral R-  
 Hadron (dashed blue), [LSPs](#) (dashed green) and charged hadrons (solid orange).  
 The pixel detector, calorimeters, and muon system are illustrated but not to  
 scale.

975        The next distinguishable case occurs at lifetimes greater than 0.1 ns, where  
 976        the R-Hadron forms a partial track in the inner detector. If the decay products  
 977        are sufficiently soft, they may not be reconstructed, and this forms a unique sig-  
 978        nature of a disappearing track. An example of such an event is illustrated in  
 979        Figure 23, which shows the short track in the inner detector and the undetected  
 980        soft charged hadron and LSP that are produced. A dedicated search on ATLAS used  
 981        the disappearing track signature to search for LLP in Run 1 [52]. **zNote: might**  
 982        **not be worth mentioning the disappearing track here since it is actually a**  
 983        **chargino search, the soft pion is pretty unique to charginos.**

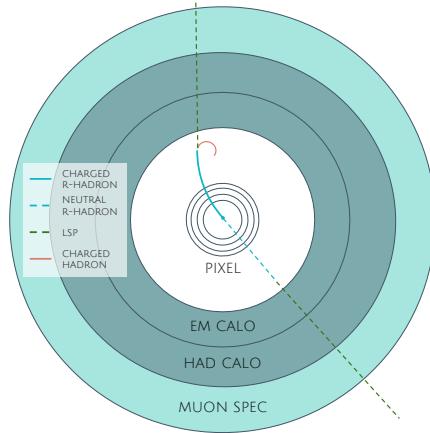


Figure 23: A schematic diagram of an R-Hadron event with a lifetime around 4 ns. The diagram includes one charged R-Hadron (solid blue), one neutral R-Hadron (dashed blue), LSPs (dashed green) and a charged hadron (solid orange). The pixel detector, calorimeters, and muon system are illustrated but not to scale.

984        If the decay products are not soft, the R-Hadron daughters form jets, resulting  
 985        in an event-level signature of up to two high-momentum tracks, jets, and signif-  
 986        icant missing energy. The missing energy has the same origin as in the case of  
 987        0.01 ns lifetimes, from the decay to unmeasured particles, and again can be large.  
 988        The high-momentum tracks will also have the characteristically high-ionization  
 989        of massive, long-lived particles in the inner detector. Figure 24 illustrates an ex-  
 990        ample event with one charged R-Hadron which decays after approximately 10 ns,  
 991        and shows how the jets from the decay can still be reconstructed in the calorime-  
 992        ter. Several previous searches on ATLAS from Run 1 have used this signature to  
 993        search for R-Hadrons [53, 54], including a dedicated search for metastable parti-  
 994        cles [55].

995        If the lifetime is longer than several nanoseconds, in the range of 15-30 ns,  
 996        the R-Hadron decay can occur in or after the calorimeters, but prior to reaching  
 997        the muon system. This case is similar to the above, although the jets may not be  
 998        reconstructed, and is covered by many of the same search strategies. The events  
 999        still often have large missing energy, although it is generated through different  
 1000       mechanisms. The R-Hadrons do not deposit much energy in the calorimeters, so  
 1001       a neutral R-Hadron will not enter into the missing energy calculation. A charged  
 1002       R-Hadron opposite a neutral R-Hadron will thus generate significant missing en-  
 1003       ergy, and close to 50% of pair-produced R-Hadron events fall into this category.

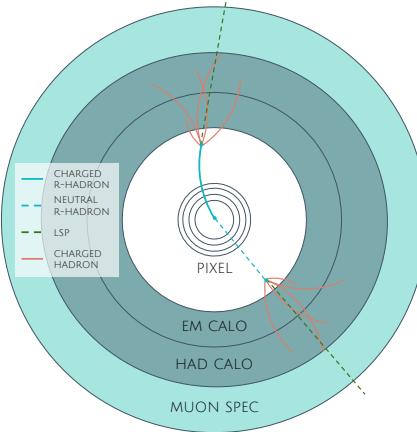


Figure 24: A schematic diagram of an R-Hadron event with a lifetime around 5 ns. The diagram includes one charged R-Hadron (solid blue), one neutral R-Hadron (dashed blue), LSPs (dashed green) and charged hadrons (solid orange). The pixel detector, calorimeters, and muon system are illustrated but not to scale.

If both R-Hadrons are neutral then the missing energy will be low because neither is detected. Two charged R-Hadrons will also result in low missing energy because both are reconstructed as tracks and will balance each other in the transverse plane. A small fraction of the time, one of the charged R-Hadron tracks may fail quality requirements and thus be excluded from the missing energy calculation and again result in significant missing energy. Figure 25 illustrates another example event with one charged R-Hadron which decays after approximately 20 ns, and shows how the jets from the decay might not be reconstructed.

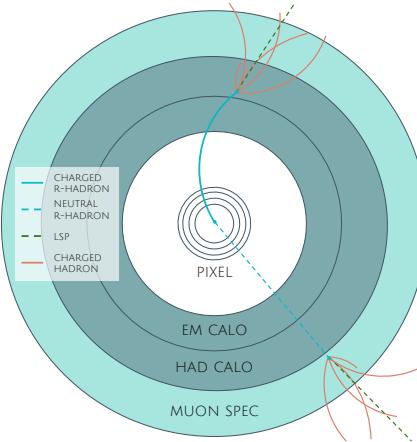


Figure 25: A schematic diagram of an R-Hadron event with a lifetime around 20 ns. The diagram includes one charged R-Hadron (solid blue), one neutral R-Hadron (dashed blue), LSPs (dashed green) and charged hadrons (solid orange). The pixel detector, calorimeters, and muon system are illustrated but not to scale.

The longest lifetimes, the stable case, has all of the features of the 30-50 ns case but with the addition of muon tracks for any R-Hadrons that exit the calorimeter with a charge. That muon track can provide additional information from time-of-flight measurements to help identify LLPs. An example of the event topology

1016 for one charged and one neutral stable R-Hadron is shown in Figure 26. Some  
 1017 searches on [ATLAS](#) have included this information to improve the search reach  
 1018 for stable particles [54, 56].

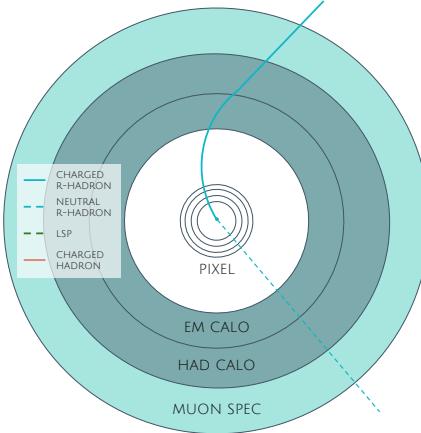


Figure 26: A schematic diagram of an R-Hadron event with a lifetime around 20 ns. The diagram includes one charged R-Hadron (solid blue) and one neutral R-Hadron (dashed blue). The pixel detector, calorimeters, and muon system are illustrated but not to scale.

## 1019 10.2 SIMULATION

1020 All of the event topologies discussed above are explored by simulations of R-  
 1021 Hadron events in the [ATLAS](#) detector. A large number of such samples are gen-  
 1022 erated to determine signal efficiencies, to measure expected yields, and to esti-  
 1023 mate uncertainties. The primary interaction, pair production of gluinos with  
 1024 masses between 400 and 3000 GeV, is simulated using [Pythia 6.4.27](#) [57]  
 1025 with the AUET2B [58] set of tuned parameters for the underlying event and  
 1026 the CTEQ6L1 [31] parton distribution function ([PDF](#)) set. The simulated inter-  
 1027 actions include a modeling of pileup by adding secondary, minimum bias in-  
 1028 teractions from both the same (in-time pileup) and nearby (out-of-time pileup)  
 1029 bunch crossings. This event generation is then augmented with a dedicated  
 1030 hadronization routine to hadronize the long-lived gluinos into final states with  
 1031 R-Hadrons [59], with the probability to form a gluon-gluino bound set at 10% [60].

1032 The cross sections used for these processes are calculated at next-to-leading  
 1033 order ([NLO](#)) in the strong coupling constant with a resummation of soft-gluon  
 1034 emmission at next-to-leading logarithmic ([NLL](#)) [61–65]. The nominal predic-  
 1035 tions and the uncertainties for each mass point are taken from an envelope of  
 1036 cross-section predictions using different [PDF](#) sets and factorization and renor-  
 1037 malization scales [66].

1038 The R-Hadrons then undergo a full detector simulation [], where the interac-  
 1039 tions of the R-Hadrons with the material of the detector are described by dedi-  
 1040 cated [Geant4](#) [1] routines. These routines model the interactions described in  
 1041 Section 10.1.1, including the ionizing interactions in the silicon modules of the  
 1042 inner detector and the R-Hadron-nucleon interactions in the calorimeters [67],

1043 [68]. The specific routine chosen to describe the interactions of the R-Hadrons  
 1044 with nucleons, the “generic model”, uses a pragmatic approach where the scatter-  
 1045 ing cross section is taken to be a constant 12 mb per light quark. In this model  
 1046 the gluino itself does not interact at all except through its role as a reservoir of  
 1047 kinetic energy.

1048 The lifetimes of these R-Hadrons are then simulated at several working points,  
 1049  $\tau = 0.1, 1.0, 3.0, 10, 30, 50$  and detector stable, where the particle is required to  
 1050 decay after propagating for a time compatible with its lifetime. Only one decay  
 1051 mode is simulated for these samples,  $\tilde{g} \rightarrow q\bar{q}\tilde{\chi}_1^0$  with the neutralino mass set to  
 1052 100 GeV, which is chosen because it has the highest sensitivity among all of the  
 1053 modes studied in previous searches [55]. Heavier neutralinos have similar results  
 1054 but generate less missing energy which reduces the efficiency of triggering.

1055 All of the simulated events are then reconstructed using the same software  
 1056 used for collision data. The fully reconstructed events are then reweighted to  
 1057 match the distribution of initial state radiation in an alternative sample of events,  
 1058 generated with MG5\_aMC@NLO [69], which has a more accurate description of ra-  
 1059 diate effects than Pythia6. This reweighting provides a more accurate descrip-  
 1060 tion of the momentum of the gluino-gluino system and is important in modeling  
 1061 the efficiency of triggering and offline event selection.



1062

1063 EVENT SELECTION

---

1064 The [LLPs](#) targeted by this search differ in their interactions with the detector from  
 1065 [SM](#) particles primarily because of their large mass. When produced at the ener-  
 1066 gies available at the [LHC](#), that large mass results in a low  $\beta$ . Such slow-moving  
 1067 particles heavily ionize in detector material. Each layer of the pixel detector pro-  
 1068 vides a measurement of that ionization, through [ToT](#), as discussed in Section 6.3.1.  
 1069 The ionization in the pixel detector, quantified in terms of  $dE/dx$ , provides the  
 1070 major focus for this search technique. It is effective both for its discriminating  
 1071 power and also because of the large range of lifetimes where it can be used. How-  
 1072 ever  $dE/dx$  needs to be augmented with a few additional selection requirements  
 1073 to form a complete search.

1074 Ionization is not currently available in any form during triggering, so this  
 1075 search instead relies on  $E_T^{\text{miss}}$  to trigger signal events. Although triggering on  
 1076  $E_T^{\text{miss}}$  can be inefficient,  $E_T^{\text{miss}}$  is often large for many production mechanisms  
 1077 of [LLPs](#), as discussed in Section 10.1.

1078 Ionization is most effective in rejecting backgrounds for well-measured, high-  
 1079 momentum tracks, so some basic requirements on quality and kinematics are  
 1080 placed on the particles considered in this search. In particular a newly intro-  
 1081 duced tracking variable is very effective in removing highly-ionizing backgrounds  
 1082 caused by overlapping tracks. A few additional requirements are placed on the  
 1083 tracks considered for [LLP](#) candidates that increase background rejection by tar-  
 1084 geting specific types of [SM](#) particles. These techniques provide a significant anal-  
 1085 ysis improvement over previous iterations of ionization-based searches on AT-  
 1086 LAS by providing additional background rejection with minimal loss in signal  
 1087 efficiency.

1088 The ionization measurement with the Pixel detector can be calibrated to pro-  
 1089 vide an estimator of  $\beta\gamma$ . That estimate, together with the momentum measure-  
 1090 ment provided by tracking, can be used to reconstruct a mass for each track  
 1091 which traverses the pixel detector. That mass variable will be peaked at the [LLP](#)  
 1092 mass for any signal, and provides an additional tool to search for an excess. In  
 1093 addition to an explicit requirement on ionization, this search constructs a mass-  
 1094 window for each targeted signal mass in order to evaluate any excess of events  
 1095 and to set limits.

1096 The strategy discussed here is optimized for lifetimes of  $O(1) - O(10)$  ns.  
 1097 Pixel ionization is especially useful in this regime as particles only need to prop-  
 1098 agate through the first seven layers of the inner detector, about 37 cm from the  
 1099 beam axis. The search is still competitive with other searches for [LLPs](#) at longer  
 1100 lifetimes, because the primary discriminating variables are still applicable even  
 1101 for particles that do not decay within the detector [56]. Although the basic strat-  
 1102 egy remains the same for all lifetimes, two signal regions are defined to optimize  
 1103 separately for intermediate and long lifetime particles.

## 1104 11.1 TRIGGER

1105 Triggering remains a significant difficulty in defining an event selection with  
 1106 high signal efficiency in a search for **LLPs**. There are no triggers available in  
 1107 the current ATLAS system that can fire directly from a high momentum track  
 1108 with large ionization (Section 6.6). Although in some configurations a charged  
 1109 **LLP** can fire muon triggers, this requirement introduces significant model depen-  
 1110 dence on both the allowed lifetimes and the interactions in the calorimeter [48].

1111 For a search targeting particles which may decay prior to reaching the muon  
 1112 system, the most efficient available trigger is based on missing energy [48]. As  
 1113 discussed in Section 10.1, signal events can produce  $E_T^{\text{miss}}$  by two primary mech-  
 1114 anisms. The decays of R-Hadrons to neutralinos can produce missing energy  
 1115 when the neutralinos go undetected in the calorimeters. **LLPs** which do not de-  
 1116 cay before the calorimeters also can produce missing energy because they do not  
 1117 deposit much energy. Either case to some extent relies on kinematic degrees of  
 1118 freedom to produce missing energy, as the pair-produced **LLPs** tend to balance  
 1119 each other in the transverse plain. That balance results in a relatively low ef-  
 1120 ficiency for long-lifetime particles, roughly 40%, and efficiencies between 65%  
 1121 and 95% for shorter lifetimes depending on both the mass and the lifetime.

## 1122 11.2 KINEMATICS AND ISOLATION

1123 After the trigger requirement, each event is required to have a primary vertex  
 1124 reconstructed from at least two well-measured tracks in the inner detector, each  
 1125 with  $p_T > 400$  MeV. If more than one such vertex exists, the primary vertex  
 1126 is taken to be the one with the largest summed track momentum for all tracks  
 1127 associated to that vertex. The offline reconstructed  $E_T^{\text{miss}}$  is required to be above  
 1128 130 GeV to additionally reject **SM** backgrounds. The transverse missing energy  
 1129 is calculated using fully reconstructed and calibrated offline objects, as described  
 1130 in Section 7.5. In particular the  $E_T^{\text{miss}}$  definition in this selection uses jets recon-  
 1131 structed with the anti- $k_t$  algorithm with radius  $R = 0.4$  from clusters of energy  
 1132 in the calorimeter (Section 7.2) and with  $p_T > 20$  GeV, as well as reconstructed  
 1133 muons, electrons, and tracks not identified as another object type.

1134 The  $E_T^{\text{miss}}$  distributions are shown for data and a few simulated signals in Fig-  
 1135 ure 27, after the trigger requirement. The cut placed at 130 GeV is 95% effi-  
 1136 cient for metastable and 90% efficient for stable particles, because of the missing  
 1137 energy generating mechanisms discussed previously. The distribution of data  
 1138 in this figure and subsequent figures in this section can be interpreted as the  
 1139 distribution of backgrounds, as any signal contamination would be negligible if  
 1140 present at these early stages of the selection (prior to the final requirement on  
 1141 ionization). The background falls rapidly with missing energy, motivating the  
 1142 direct requirement on  $E_T^{\text{miss}}$  for the signal region. Although a tighter require-  
 1143 ment than the specified value of 130 GeV would seem to increase the search  
 1144 potential from these early distributions, other requirements are more optimal  
 1145 when taken as a whole. The specific values for each requirement in signal region  
 1146 were optimized considering the increase in discovery reach for tightening the

1147 requirement on each discriminating variable. **NOTE: Is it interesting to dis-**  
 1148 **cuss the signal region optimization process in detail? I could add another**  
 1149 **section on how the values were determined, although in truth it is at least**  
 1150 **partially historical precedence.**

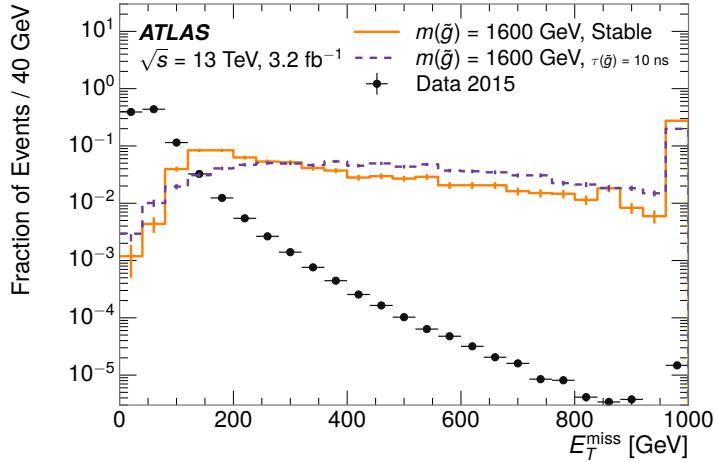


Figure 27: The distribution of  $E_T^{\text{miss}}$  for data and simulated signal events, after the trigger requirement.

1151 Potential signal events are then required to have at least one candidate [LLP](#)  
 1152 track. Although the [LLPs](#) are produced in pairs, many models do not consistently  
 1153 yield two charged particles. For example, in the R-Hadron model highlighted  
 1154 here, only 20% of events have two charged R-Hadrons while 47% of events have  
 1155 just one. A signal region requiring two charged candidates could be a powerful  
 1156 improvement in background rejection for a larger dataset, but it is not consid-  
 1157 ered in this version of the analysis as it was found to be unnecessary to reject the  
 1158 majority of backgrounds.

1159 For a track to be selected as a candidate, it must have  $p_T > 50 \text{ GeV}$  and pass  
 1160 basic quality requirements. The track must be associated to the primary vertex.  
 1161 It must also have at least seven clusters in the silicon layers in the inner detector  
 1162 to ensure an accurate measurement of momentum. Those clusters must include  
 1163 one in the innermost layer if the extrapolated track is expected to pass through  
 1164 that layer. And to ensure a reliable measurement of ionization, the track is re-  
 1165 quired to have at least two clusters in the pixel detector that provide a measure-  
 1166 ment of  $dE/dx$ .

1167 At this point in the selection, there is a significant high-ionization background  
 1168 from multiple tracks that significantly overlap in the inner detector. Previous  
 1169 version of this analysis have rejected these overlaps by an explicit overlap rejec-  
 1170 tion between pairs of fully reconstructed tracks, typically by requiring no addi-  
 1171 tional tracks within a cone around the candidate. This technique, however, fails  
 1172 to remove the background from tracks that overlap so precisely that the tracks  
 1173 cannot be separately resolved.

1174 A new method, added in Run 2, identifies cluster shapes that are likely formed  
 1175 by multiple tracks based on a neural network classification algorithm. The num-

1176   ber of clusters that are classified this way in the pixel detector for a given track  
 1177   is called  $N_{\text{split}}$ . As the shape of clusters requires significantly less spatial sepa-  
 1178   ration to identify overlaps than it does to reconstruct two fully resolved tracks,  
 1179   this variable is more effective at rejecting backgrounds from overlaps. Figure 28  
 1180   shows the dependence of ionization on  $N_{\text{split}}$ ; as  $N_{\text{split}}$  increases the most prob-  
 1181   able value of  $dE/dx$  grows significantly up to twice the expected value when  
 1182    $N_{\text{split}} = 4$ .

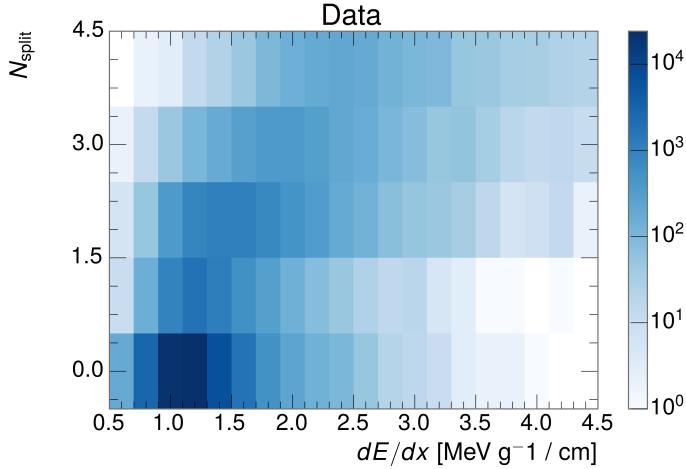


Figure 28: The dependence of  $dE/dx$  on  $N_{\text{split}}$  in data after basic track hit requirements have been applied.

1183   This requirement is very successful in reducing the long positive tail of the  
 1184    $dE/dx$  distributions, as can be seen in Figure 29. Comparing the distribution for  
 1185   “baseline tracks”, tracks with only the above requirements on clusters applied and  
 1186   before the requirement on  $N_{\text{split}}$ , to the distribution with  $N_{\text{split}} = 0$ , it is clear  
 1187   that the fraction of tracks with large  $dE/dx$  is reduced by several orders of mag-  
 1188   nitude. The isolated tracks are very close to the  $dE/dx$  distribution of identified  
 1189   muons, which are extremely well isolated on average. Figure 29 also includes  
 1190   the distribution of  $dE/dx$  in an example signal simulation to demonstrate how  
 1191   effective  $dE/dx$  is as a discriminating variable with this isolation applied. The  
 1192   background falls rapidly for  $dE/dx > 1.8 \text{ MeVg}^{-1}\text{cm}^2$  while the majority of  
 1193   the signal, approximately 90% depending on the mass, falls above that threshold.  
 1194   Over 90% of **LLP** tracks in simulated signal events pass the  $N_{\text{split}}$ -based isolation  
 1195   requirement.

1196   A few additional kinematic requirements are imposed to help reduce **SM** back-  
 1197   grounds. The momentum of the candidate track must be at least 150 GeV, and  
 1198   the uncertainty on that measurement must be less than 50%. The distribution of  
 1199   momentum is shown in Figure 30 for tracks in data and simulated signal events  
 1200   after the previously discussed requirements on clusters, transverse momentum,  
 1201   and isolation have been imposed. The signal particles are much harder on aver-

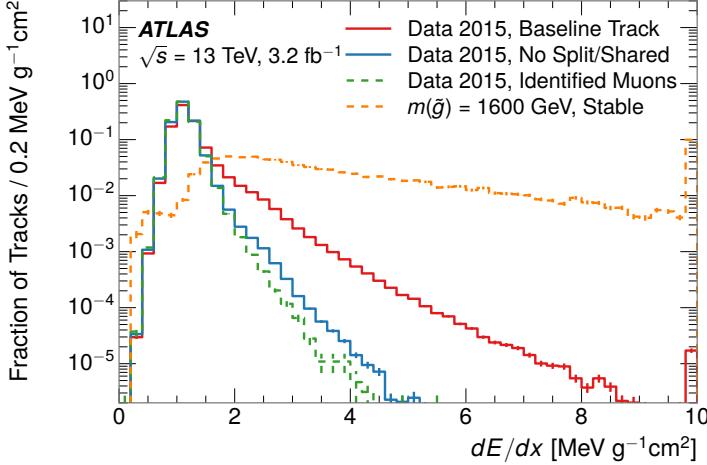


Figure 29: The distribution of  $dE/dx$  with various selections applied in data and simulated events.

age than their backgrounds because of the high energy interactions required to produce them. The transverse mass,  $M_T$ , defined as

$$M_T = \sqrt{2p_T E_T^{\text{miss}}(1 - \cos(\Delta\phi(E_T^{\text{miss}}, \text{track})))} \quad (1)$$

estimates the mass of a decay of to a single charged particle and an undetected particle and is required to be greater than 130 GeV to reject contributions from the decay of W bosons. Figure 31 shows the distribution of  $M_T$  for data and simulated signal events. The signal is distributed over a wide range of  $M_T$ , with about 90% above the threshold value of 130 GeV. The data shows a dual-peaked structure, where the first peak comes from W boson decays and the second peak is a kinematic shaping from the requirements on  $E_T^{\text{miss}}$  and the track  $p_T$  in dijet events.

### 11.3 STANDARD MODEL REJECTION

Because this search selects events with just a single, highly-ionizing track, backgrounds can be formed by a wide variety of SM processes when various charged particles have a few randomly large deposits of energy in the pixel detector. Those backgrounds can be effectively rejected by targeting the types of particles produced rather than the processes which produce them, as LLPs will have significant differences compared to any SM particle. These rejections focus on using additional features of the event, other than the kinematics or ionization of the candidate track, as they can provide a powerful source of background rejection with very high signal efficiency. The lifetime of the particle can significantly change its detector characteristics, as discussed in Section 10.1. To accommodate these differences, the SM rejections defined in this section are split to form two signal regions, one for long-lifetimes particles, the stable region, and one for intermediate lifetime particles, the metastable region.

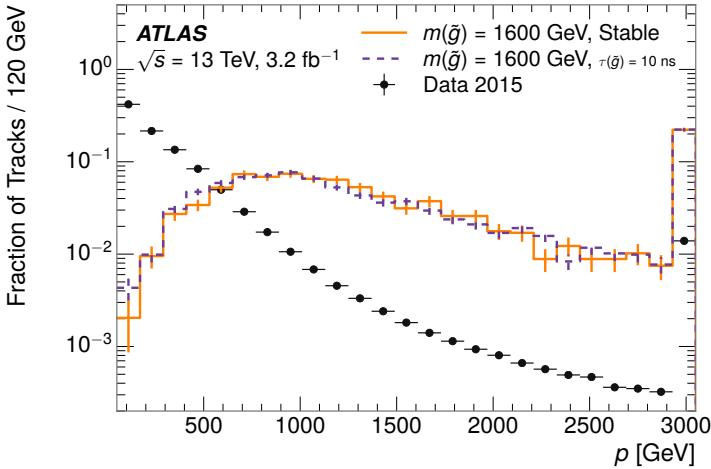


Figure 30: The distribution of track momentum for data and simulated signal events, after previous selection requirements have been applied.

1226 Jets can be very effectively rejected by considering the larger-scale isolation of  
 1227 the candidate track. In this case the isolation focuses on the production of nearby  
 1228 particles as a jet-veto, rather than isolation from overlapping tracks to reduce  
 1229 high-ionization backgrounds. As explained in Section 10.1, the fragmentation  
 1230 process which produces an R-Hadron is very hard and thus is not expected to  
 1231 produce additional particles. The jet-veto uses the summed momentum of tracks  
 1232 with a cone of  $\Delta R < 0.25$ , referred to as  $p_T^{\text{Cone}}$ , which is shown in Figure 32 for  
 1233 data and simulated signal events. In the data this value has a peak at zero from  
 1234 isolated tracks such as leptons, and a long tail from jets which contains as much  
 1235 as 80% of the background above 20 GeV at this stage of the selection. In signal  
 1236 events  $p_T^{\text{Cone}}$  is strongly peaked at zero and significantly less than 1% is above 20  
 1237 GeV. This makes a requirement of  $p_T^{\text{Cone}} < 20$  GeV one of the most effective  
 1238 methods to reject background without losing signal efficiency. For the stable  
 1239 signal region, this cut is further tightened to  $p_T^{\text{Cone}} < 5$  GeV as it is the most  
 1240 effective variable remaining to extend the search reach for long lifetimes.

1241 Even for fully isolated particles, there are additional methods to reject each  
 1242 type of particle using information in the muon system and calorimeters. Muons  
 1243 can be identified very reliably using the tracks in the muon system, as described  
 1244 in Section 7.4. For intermediate lifetimes the LLPs do not survive long enough  
 1245 to reach the muon system, and so muons are vetoed by rejecting tracks that as-  
 1246 sociate to a muon with medium muon identification requirements. For longer  
 1247 lifetimes, this rejection is not applied because LLPs which reach the muon system  
 1248 can be identified as muons as often as 30% of the time in simulated samples.

1249 Calorimeter-based particle rejection relies on the expected small deposits of  
 1250 energy from LLPs. When the lifetime is long enough to reach the calorimeter, a  
 1251 LLP deposits little of its energy as it traverses the material, as discussed in Sec-  
 1252 tion 10.1. Even when the particle does decay before the calorimeter, the major-  
 1253 ity of its energy is carried away by the LSP and not deposited in the calorimeter.  
 1254 In both cases the energy is expected to be distributed across the layers of the

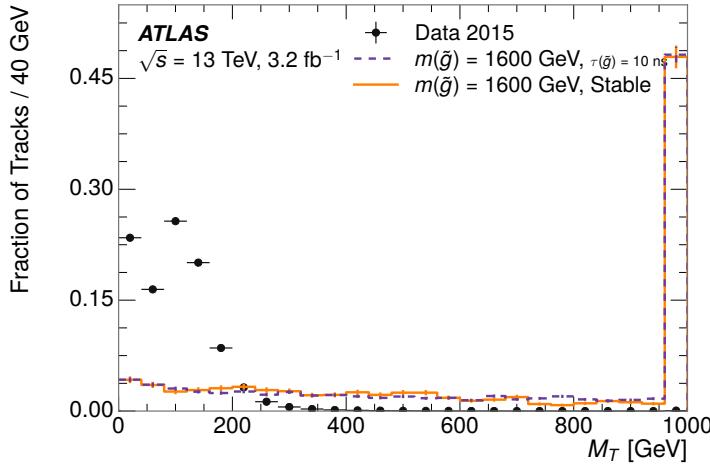


Figure 31: The distribution of  $M_T$  for data and simulated signal events, after previous selection requirements have been applied.

1255 calorimeters and not peaked in just one layer. This can be quantified in terms  
 1256 of  $E/p$ , the ratio of calorimeter energy of a nearby jet to the track momentum,  
 1257 and  $f_{EM}$ , the fraction of energy in that jet within the electromagnetic calorimeter.  
 1258 When no jets fall within a cone of 0.05 of the particle,  $E/p$  and  $f_{EM}$  are both  
 1259 defined as zero.  $E/p$  is expected to be above 1.0 for typical SM particles because  
 1260 of calibration and the contributions from other nearby particles. At these mo-  
 1261 ments there is no significant zero fraction due to interactions with the detector  
 1262 or insufficient energy deposits (see Section 8.2.2).  $f_{EM}$  is peaked close to 1.0 for  
 1263 electrons, and distributed between 10% and 90% for hadrons.

1264 These trends can be seen in the two dimensional distribution for signal in  
 1265 Figure 33 for stable and metastable (10 ns) events. The majority of R-Hadrons  
 1266 in both samples fall into the bin for  $E/p = 0$  and  $f_{EM} = 0$  because the majority  
 1267 of the time there is no associated jet. In the stable sample, when there often is  
 1268 an associated jet,  $E/p$  is typically still below 0.1, and the  $f_{EM}$  is predominantly  
 1269 under 0.8. In the metastable sample, on the other hand,  $E/p$  is larger but still  
 1270 typically below 0.1 because of actual jets produced during the decay. The  $f_{EM}$  is  
 1271 much lower on average in this case, below 0.1, because the 10 ns lifetime particles  
 1272 rarely decay before passing through the electromagnetic calorimeter. Figure 33  
 1273 also includes simulated Z decays to electrons or tau leptons. From the decays  
 1274 to electrons it is clear that the majority of electrons have  $f_{EM}$  above 0.9. The  
 1275 tau decays include a variety of products. Muons can be seen in the bin where  
 1276  $E/p = 0$  and  $f_{EM} = 0$  because they do not have an associated jet. Electrons fall  
 1277 into the range where  $E/p > 1$  and  $f_{EM} > 0.9$ . Hadronic tau decays are the most  
 1278 common, and fall in the range of  $0.1 < f_{EM} < 0.9$  and  $E/p > 1.0$ .

1279 These differences motivate an electron rejection by requiring an  $f_{EM}$  below  
 1280 0.9. Similarly, isolated hadrons are rejected by requiring  $E/p < 1.0$ . These re-  
 1281 quirements combine to remove the majority of isolated electrons and hadrons  
 1282 but retain over 95% of the simulated signal across a range of masses and lifetimes.

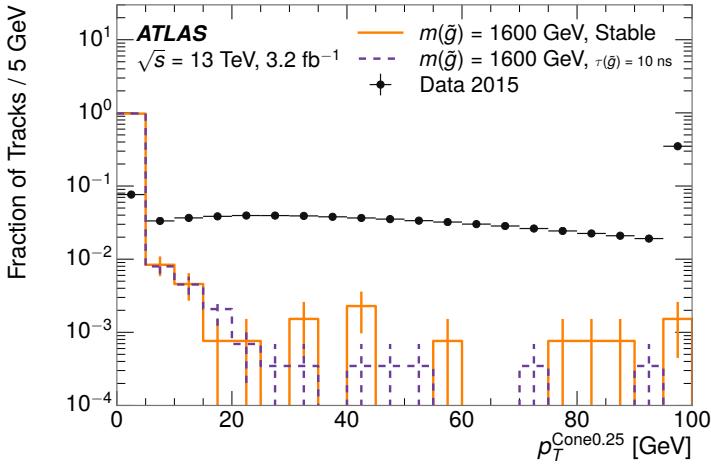


Figure 32: The distribution of summed tracked momentum within a cone of  $\Delta R < 0.25$  around the candidate track for data and simulated signal events, after previous selection requirements have been applied.

## 1283 11.4 IONIZATION

1284 The final requirements on the candidate track are the primary discriminating  
 1285 variables, the ionization in the pixel detector and the corresponding mass. That  
 1286 ionization is measured in terms of  $dE/dx$ , which was shown for data and sim-  
 1287 uated signal events in Figure 29.  $dE/dx$  is dramatically greater for the high  
 1288 mass signal particles than the backgrounds, which start to fall immediately af-  
 1289 ter the minimally ionizing peak at  $1.1 \text{ MeV g}^{-1} \text{ cm}^2$ . The  $dE/dx$  for candidate  
 1290 tracks must be greater than a pseudorapidity-dependent threshold, specifically  
 1291  $1.80 - 0.11|\eta| + 0.17\eta^2 - 0.05\eta^3 \text{ MeV g}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-2}$ , in order to correct for an ap-  
 1292 proximately 5% dependence of the MIP peak on  $\eta$ . The requirement was chosen  
 1293 as part of the signal region optimization, and manages to reduce the backgrounds  
 1294 by a factor of 100 while remaining 70-90% efficient for simulated signal events  
 1295 depending on the mass.

### 1296 11.4.1 MASS ESTIMATION

1297 The mean value of ionization in silicon is governed by the Bethe equation and  
 1298 the most probable value follows a Landau-Vavilov distribution [49]. Those forms  
 1299 inspire a parametric description of  $dE/dx$  in terms of  $\beta\gamma$ ,

$$(dE/dx)_{\text{MPV}}(\beta\gamma) = \frac{p_1}{\beta p_3} \ln(1 + [p_2 \beta\gamma]^{p_5}) - p_4 \quad (2)$$

1300 which performs well in the range  $0.3 < \beta\gamma < 1.5$ . This range includes the ex-  
 1301 pected range of  $\beta\gamma$  for the particles targeted for this search, with  $\beta\gamma \approx 2.0$  for  
 1302 lower mass particles ( $O(100 \text{ GeV})$ ) and up to  $\beta\gamma \approx 0.5$  for higher mass par-  
 1303 ticles ( $O(1000 \text{ GeV})$ ). The parameters,  $p_i$ , are fit using a 2015 data sample of

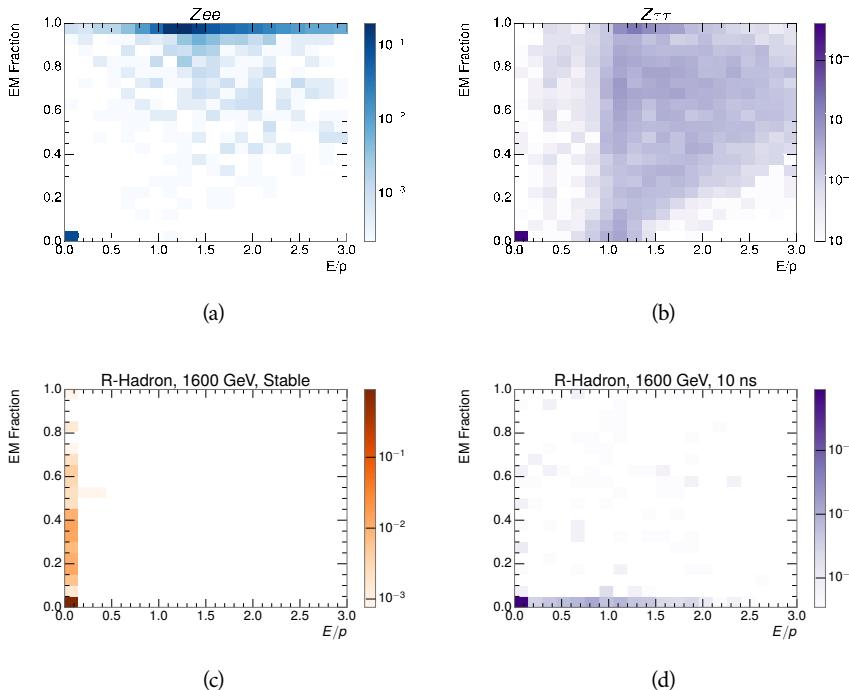


Figure 33: The normalized, two-dimensional distribution of  $E/p$  and  $f_{\text{EM}}$  for simulated  
 (a)  $Z \rightarrow ee$ , (b)  $Z \rightarrow \tau\tau$ , (c) 1200 GeV Stable R-Hadron events, and (d) 1200  
 GeV, 10 ns R-Hadron events.

1304 low-momentum pions, kaons, and protons as described in Ref. [70]. Figure 34  
1305 shows the two-dimensional distribution of  $dE/dx$  and momentum along with  
1306 the above fitted values for  $(dE/dx)_{\text{MPV}}$ .

The above equation (2) is then numerically inverted to estimate  $\beta\gamma$  and the mass for each candidate track. In simulated signal events, the mean of this mass value reproduces the generated mass up to around 1800 GeV to within 3%, and 3% shift is applied to correct for this difference. The mass distributions prior to this correction are shown for a few stable mass points in Figure 35. The large widths of these distributions come from the high variability in energy deposits in the pixel detector, but the means converge to the expected values.

This analysis evaluates expected yields and the resulting cross sectional limits using windows in this mass variable. The windows are formed by fitting mass distributions like those in Figure 35 to Gaussian distributions and taking all events that fall within  $\pm 1.4\sigma$  of the mean. As can be seen in Figure 35, typical values for this width are  $\sigma \approx 300 - 500$  GeV depending on the generated mass.

1319 11.5 EFFICIENCY

1320 The numbers of events passing each requirement through ionization are shown  
1321 in Table 2 for the full 2015 dataset and a simulated 1600 GeV, 10 ns lifetime R-  
1322 Hadron sample. The table highlights the overall acceptance  $\times$  efficiency for sig-  
1323 nal events, which for this example is 19%. Between SM rejection and ionization,

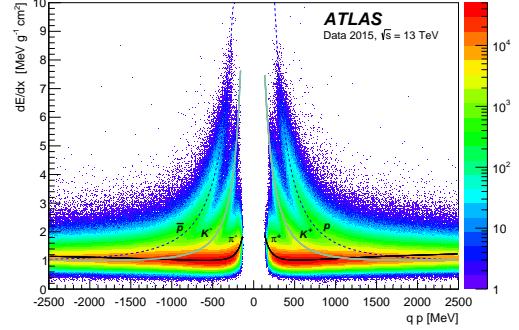


Figure 34: Two-dimensional distribution of  $dE/dx$  versus charge signed momentum ( $qp$ ) for minimum-bias tracks. The fitted distributions of the most probable values for pions, kaons and protons are superimposed.

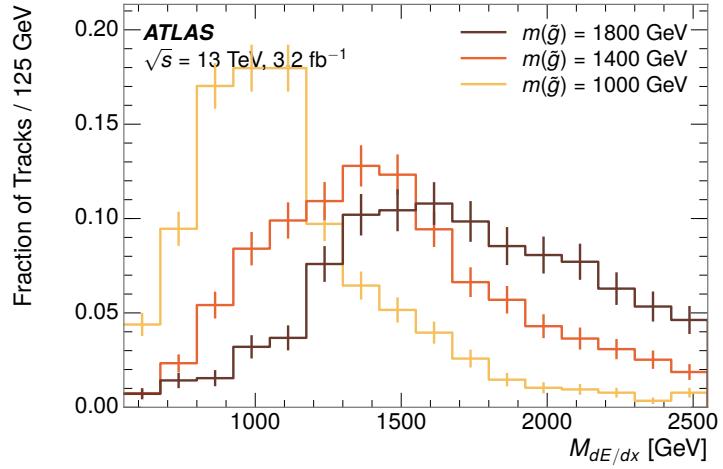


Figure 35: The distribution of mass estimated using  $dE/dx$  for simulated stable R-Hadrons with masses between 1000 and 1600 GeV.

1324 this signal region reduces the background of tracks which pass the kinematic  
 1325 requirements down by an additional factor of almost 2000.

Selection	Exp. Signal Events	Observed Events in $3.2 \text{ fb}^{-1}$
Generated	$26.0 \pm 0.3$	
$E_T^{\text{miss}}$ Trigger	$24.8 \pm 0.3$ (95%)	
$E_T^{\text{miss}} > 130 \text{ GeV}$	$23.9 \pm 0.3$ (92%)	
Track Quality and $p_T > 50$	$10.7 \pm 0.2$ (41%)	368324
Isolation Requirement	$9.0 \pm 0.2$ (35%)	108079
Track $p > 150 \text{ GeV}$	$6.6 \pm 0.2$ (25%)	47463
$M_T > 130 \text{ GeV}$	$5.8 \pm 0.2$ (22%)	18746
Electron and Hadron Veto	$5.5 \pm 0.2$ (21%)	3612
Muon Veto	$5.5 \pm 0.2$ (21%)	1668
Ionization Requirement	$5.0 \pm 0.1$ (19%)	11

Table 2: The expected number of events at each level of the selection for metastable  $1600 \text{ GeV}$ ,  $10 \text{ ns}$  R-Hadrons, along with the number of events observed in data, for  $3.2 \text{ fb}^{-1}$ . The simulated yields are shown with statistical uncertainties only. The total efficiency  $\times$  acceptance is also shown for the signal.

1326 There is a strong dependence of this efficiency on lifetime and mass, with effi-  
 1327 ciencies dropping to under 1% at low lifetimes. Figure 36 shows the dependence  
 1328 on both mass and lifetime for all signal samples considered in this search. The  
 1329 dependence on mass is relatively slight and comes predominantly from the in-  
 1330 creasing fraction of R-Hadrons which pass the ionization cut with increasing  
 1331 mass. The trigger and  $E_T^{\text{miss}}$  requirements are most efficient for particles that  
 1332 decay before reaching the calorimeters. However, the chance of a particle to be  
 1333 reconstructed as a high-quality track decreases significantly at low lifetimes as  
 1334 the particle does not propagate sufficiently through the inner detector. These  
 1335 effects lead to a maximum in the selection efficiency for lifetimes around 10-30  
 1336 ns.

1337 The inefficiency of this signal region at short lifetimes comes almost exclu-  
 1338 sively from an acceptance effect, in that the particles do not reach the necessary  
 1339 layers of the SCT. This can be seen more clearly by defining a fiducial region  
 1340 which includes events with at least one R-Hadron that is produced with non-  
 1341 zero charge,  $p_T > 50 \text{ GeV}$ ,  $p > 150 \text{ GeV}$ ,  $|\eta| < 2.5$ , and a decay distance greater  
 1342 than 37 cm in the transverse plane. At short (1 ns) lifetimes, the acceptance into  
 1343 this region is as low as 4%. Once this acceptance is accounted for, the selection  
 1344 efficiency ranges from 25% at lifetimes of 1 ns up to 45% at lifetimes of 10 ns.

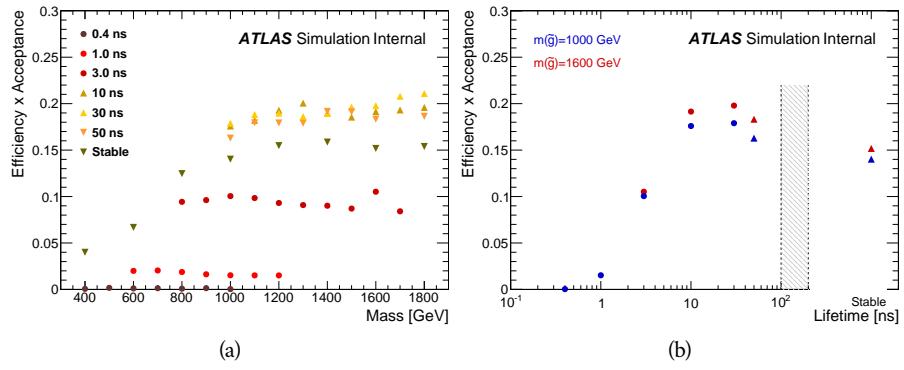


Figure 36: The acceptance  $\times$  efficiency as a function of R-Hadron (a) mass and (b) lifetime. (a) shows all of the combinations of mass and lifetime considered in this search, and (b) highlights the lifetime dependence for 1000 GeV and 1600 GeV R-Hadrons.

1345

1346 BACKGROUND ESTIMATION

---

1347 The event selection discussed in the previous section focuses on detector signa-  
 1348 tures, emphasizing a single high-momentum, highly-ionizing track. That track  
 1349 is then required to be in some way inconsistent with the expected properties  
 1350 of SM particles, with various requirements designed to reject jets, hadrons,  
 1351 electrons, and muons (Section 11.3). So the background for this search comes en-  
 1352 tirely from reducible backgrounds that are outliers of various distributions like  
 1353  $dE/dx$ ,  $f_{EM}$ , and  $p_T^{\text{Cone}}$ . The simulation can be tuned in various ways to do an  
 1354 excellent job of modeling the average properties of each particle type [71], but it  
 1355 is not necessarily expected to accurately reproduce outliers. For these reasons,  
 1356 the background estimation used for this search is estimated entirely using data.

## 1357 12.1 BACKGROUND SOURCES

1358 Charged particles with lifetimes long enough to form tracks in the inner detector  
 1359 can be grouped into three major categories based on their detector interactions:  
 1360 hadrons, electrons, and muons. Every particle that enters into the background  
 1361 for this search belongs to one of these types. Relatively pure samples of each of  
 1362 these types can be formed in data by inverting the various rejection techniques  
 1363 in Section 11.3. Specifically, muons are selected requiring medium muon identi-  
 1364 fication, electrons requiring  $E/p > 1.0$  and  $f_{EM} > 0.95$ , and hadrons requiring  
 1365  $E/p > 1.0$  and  $f_{EM} < 0.95$ .

1366 Figure 37 shows the distributions of momentum and  $dE/dx$  for these cate-  
 1367 gories in data, after requiring the event level selection as well as the track re-  
 1368 quirements on  $p_T$ , hits, and  $N_{\text{split}}$ , as discussed in Section 11.2. Simulated signal  
 1369 events are included for reference. These distribution are only illustrative of the  
 1370 differences between types, as the rejection requirements could alter their shape.  
 1371 This is especially significant for momentum which enters directly into  $E/p$  and  
 1372 can indirectly affect muon identification. However the various types show clear  
 1373 differences in both distributions. Momentum is expected to vary significantly  
 1374 because of the production mechanisms for the different species. **Note for Laura:**  
 1375 **Interesting that the momentum tail is so much higher for electrons than**  
 1376 **muons, any idea why that would happen?**  $dE/dx$  is different between types  
 1377 because of incomplete isolation; although the requirement on  $N_{\text{split}}$  helps to re-  
 1378 duce the contribution of nearby particles it does not completely remove the ef-  
 1379 fect of overlaps. Muons are better isolated and thus have the smallest fraction  
 1380 of  $dE/dx$  above the threshold of  $1.8 \text{ MeVg}^{-1}\text{cm}^2$ ; hadrons and electrons have  
 1381 a larger fraction above this threshold.

1382 It is difficult to determine what fraction of each particle type enters into the fi-  
 1383 nal signal region. The background method will not have significant dependence

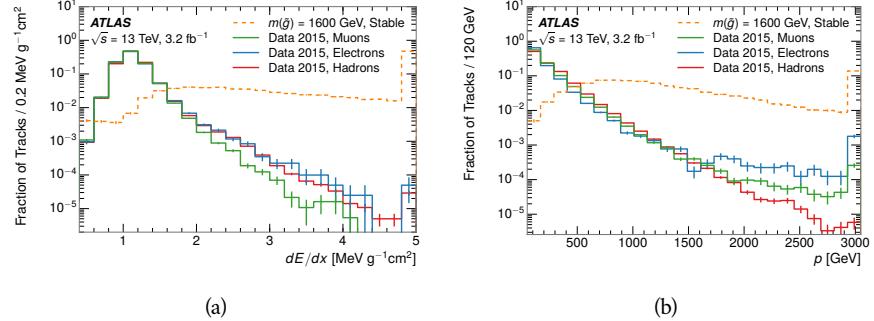


Figure 37: The distribution of (a)  $dE/dx$  and (b) momentum for tracks in data and simulated signal after requiring the event level selection and the track selection on  $p_T$ , hits, and  $N_{\text{split}}$ . Each sub-figure shows the normalized distributions for tracks classified as hadrons, electrons, and muons in data and R-Hadrons in the simulated signal.

1384 on the relative contributions of each species, but it is useful to understand the  
 1385 differences between each when considering the various tests of the method.

## 1386 12.2 PREDICTION METHOD

1387 The data-driven background estimation relies on the independence of ioniza-  
 1388 tion and other aspects of the event. For standard model particles with momenta  
 1389 above 50 GeV,  $dE/dx$  is not correlated with momentum. So, the proposed  
 1390 method to estimate the mass distribution of the signal region is to use momen-  
 1391 tum from a track with low  $dE/dx$  (below the threshold value) and to combine  
 1392 it with a random  $dE/dx$  value from a  $dE/dx$  template. The resulting track is  
 1393 just as likely as the original, so a number of such random generations forms a  
 1394 distribution of mass for the signal region.

1395 Algorithmically this method is implemented by forming two distinct Control  
 1396 Regions (CRs). The first CR, CR1, is formed by applying the entire event selec-  
 1397 tion from Chapter 11 up to the  $dE/dx$  and mass requirements. The  $dE/dx$  re-  
 1398 quirement is instead inverted for this region. Because of the independence of  
 1399  $dE/dx$ , the tracks in this control region have the same kinematic distribution  
 1400 as the tracks in the signal region, and are used to measure a two-dimensional  
 1401 template of  $p$  and  $\eta$ . The second CR, CR2, is formed from the event selection  
 1402 through the  $dE/dx$  requirement, but with an inverted  $E_T^{\text{miss}}$  requirement. The  
 1403 tracks in this control region are expected to have similar  $dE/dx$  distributions  
 1404 to the signal region, and so this region is used to measure a two-dimensional  
 1405 template of  $dE/dx$  and  $\eta$ .

1406 The contribution of any signal to the control regions is minimized by the in-  
 1407 verted selection requirements. Only less than 10% of simulated signal events  
 1408 have either  $dE/dx$  or  $E_T^{\text{miss}}$  below the threshold values in the original signal re-  
 1409 gion, while the backgrounds are significantly enhanced by inverting those re-  
 1410 quirements. The signal contamination is less than 1% in both control regions  
 1411 for all of the simulated masses and lifetimes considered in this analysis.

With those measured templates, the shape of the mass estimation is generated by first selecting a random ( $p$ ,  $\eta$ ) combination from CR1. This momentum value is combined with a  $dE/dx$  value taken from the appropriate distribution of  $dE/dx$  for the selected  $\eta$  from CR2. The use of  $\eta$  in both random samplings controls for any correlation between  $p$ ,  $dE/dx$ , and  $\eta$ . Those values are then used to calculate a mass in the same way that is done for regular tracks in data, see Section 11.4.1. As this procedure includes all  $dE/dx$  values, the cut at 1.8 MeVg<sup>-1</sup>cm<sup>2</sup> is then enforced to fully model the signal region. The generated mass distribution is then normalized by scaling the background estimate to the data in the region  $M < 160$  GeV, where signals of this type have already been excluded [55]. This normalization takes place before the ionization requirement.

## 12.3 VALIDATION

The validity of the background estimation technique can be evaluated in both data and simulation. The underlying assumption that random combinations of  $dE/dx$  and momentum can predict a mass distribution in an orthogonal region can be tested using simulated samples where concerns like multiple particle types can be controlled. Using the same technique in another set of signal-depleted regions in data then extends this confidence to the more complicated case where several particle species are inherently included.

### 12.3.1 CLOSURE IN SIMULATION

The first test of the procedure is done using a simulated sample of  $W \rightarrow \mu\nu$  decays. These types of events provide the ingredients required to test the background estimate,  $E_T^{\text{miss}}$  and isolated tracks, with high statistics. In this example there is no signal, so simulated events in the orthogonal CRs are used to estimate the shape of the mass distribution of the simulated events in the signal region. To reflect the different topology for W boson decays, the CRs use slightly modified definitions. In all CRs, the requirement of  $p > 150$  GeV and the SM rejection requirements are removed. Additionally, for the signal region the requirement on  $E_T^{\text{miss}}$  is relaxed to 30 GeV and the corresponding inverted requirement on CR2 is also set at 30 GeV.

With these modified selections, the simulated and randomly generated distributions of  $M_{dE/dx}$  are shown in Figure 38. This figure includes the mass distributions before and after the requirement on  $dE/dx$ , which significantly shapes the distributions. In both cases the background estimation technique reproduces the shape of  $M_{dE/dx}$  in the signal region. There is a small difference in the positive tail of the mass distribution prior to the ionization cut, where the random events underestimate the fraction of tracks with mass above 150 GeV by about 20%. After the ionization requirement, however, this discrepancy is not present and the two distributions agree to within statistical uncertainties.

This ability to reproduce the shape of the mass distribution in simulated events shows that the technique works as expected. No significant biases are acquired in using low  $dE/dx$  events to select kinematic templates or in using low  $E_T^{\text{miss}}$

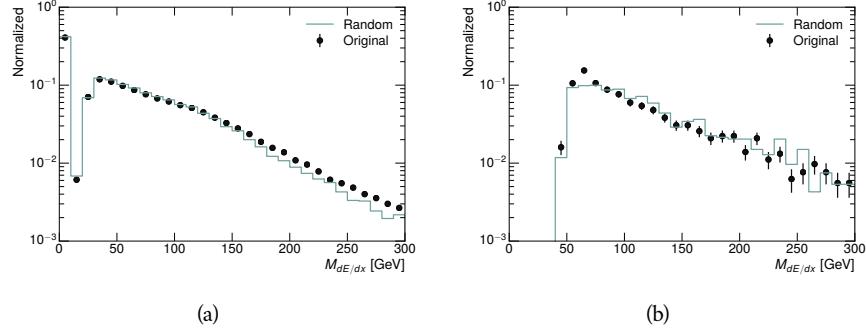


Figure 38: The distribution of  $M_{dE/dx}$  (a) before and (b) after the ionization requirement for tracks in simulated W boson decays and for the randomly generated background estimate.

1454 events to select ionization templates, as either would result in a mismodeling of  
 1455 the shape of the mass distribution. The simulated events contain only one par-  
 1456 ticle type, however, so this test only establishes that the technique works well  
 1457 when the the CRs are populated by exactly the same species.

#### 1458 12.3.2 VALIDATION REGION IN DATA

1459 The second test of the background estimate is performed using data in an or-  
 1460 thogonal validation region. The validation region, and the corresponding CRs,  
 1461 are formed using the same selection requirements as in the nominal method but  
 1462 with a modified requirement on momentum,  $50 < p[\text{GeV}] < 150$ . This allows  
 1463 the technique to be checked in a region with very similar properties but where  
 1464 the signal is depleted, as the majority of the signal has momentum above 150  
 1465 GeV while the backgrounds are enhanced below that threshold. Any biases on  
 1466 the particle composition of the CRs for the signal region will be reflected in the  
 1467 CRs used to estimate the mass distribution in the validation region.

1468 Figure 39 shows the measured and randomly generated mass distributions for  
 1469 data before and after the ionization requirement. The background estimate does  
 1470 an excellent job of modeling the actual background before the ionization require-  
 1471 ment, with good agreement to within the statistical uncertainties out to the limit  
 1472 of the mass distribution. There are very few events in the validation region after  
 1473 the ionization requirement, but the few observed events are consistent with the  
 1474 background prediction. The good agreement in this validation region provides  
 1475 a confirmation that the technique works even in the full-complexity case with  
 1476 multiple particle types entering the distributions. Any bias from changes in par-  
 1477 ticle composition between regions is small compared to statistical uncertainties.

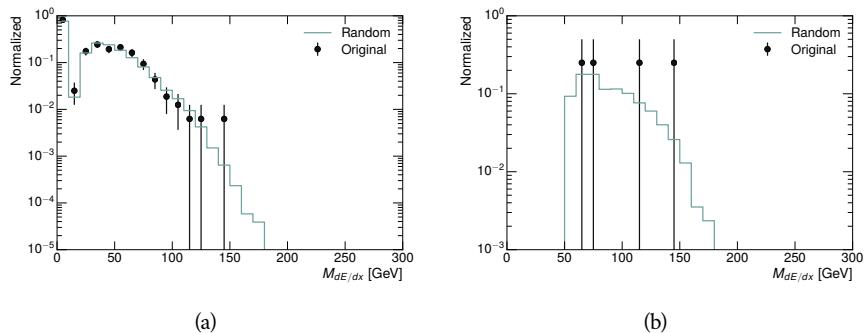


Figure 39: The distribution of  $M_{dE/dx}$  (a) before and (b) after the ionization requirement for tracks in the validation region and for the randomly generated background estimate.



# 13

1478

1479 SYSTEMATIC UNCERTAINTIES AND RESULTS

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1480 13.1 SYSTEMATIC UNCERTAINTIES

1481 13.2 FINAL YIELDS



# 14

1482

## 1483 INTERPRETATION

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1484 14.1 CROSS SECTIONAL LIMITS

1485 14.2 MASS LIMITS

1486 14.3 CONTEXT FOR LONG-LIVED SEARCHES



1487

## PART VI

1488

## CONCLUSIONS

1489

You can put some informational part preamble text here.



# 15

1490

1491 SUMMARY AND OUTLOOK

---

1492 15.1 SUMMARY

1493 15.2 OUTLOOK



1494

## PART VII

1495

## APPENDIX

1496



# A

1497

1498 INELASTIC CROSS SECTION

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# B

1499

## 1500 APPENDIX TEST

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1501 Examples: *Italics*, SMALL CAPS, ALL CAPS <sup>1</sup>. Acronym testing: **UML!** (**UML!**) –  
1502 **UML! – UML! (UML!) – UML!s**

This appendix is temporary and is here to be used to check the style of the document.

### 1503 B.1 APPENDIX SECTION TEST

1504 Random text that should take up a few lines. The purpose is to see how sections  
1505 and subsections flow with some actual context. Without some body copy be-  
1506 tween each heading it can be difficult to tell if the weight of the fonts, styles, and  
1507 sizes use work well together.

#### 1508 B.1.1 APPENDIX SUBECTION TEST

1509 Random text that should take up a few lines. The purpose is to see how sections  
1510 and subsections flow with some actual context. Without some body copy be-  
1511 tween each heading it can be difficult to tell if the weight of the fonts, styles, and  
1512 sizes use work well together.

### 1513 B.2 A TABLE AND LISTING

1514 Curabitur tellus magna, porttitor a, commodo a, commodo in, tortor. Donec in-  
1515 terdum. Praesent scelerisque. Maecenas posuere sodales odio. Vivamus metus  
1516 lacus, varius quis, imperdiet quis, rhoncus a, turpis. Etiam ligula arcu, elemen-  
1517 tum a, venenatis quis, sollicitudin sed, metus. Donec nunc pede, tincidunt in,  
1518 venenatis vitae, faucibus vel, nibh. Pellentesque wisi. Nullam malesuada. Morbi  
1519 ut tellus ut pede tincidunt porta. Lorem ipsum dolor sit amet, consectetur adip-  
1520 isicing elit. Etiam congue neque id dolor.

1521 There is also a Python listing below Listing 1.

---

1 Footnote example.

LABITUR BONORUM PRI NO	QUE VISTA	HUMAN
fastidii ea ius	germano	demonstratea
suscipit instructior	titulo	personas
quaestio philosophia	facto	demonstrated

Table 3: Autem usu id.

## 1522 B.3 SOME FORMULAS

Due to the statistical nature of ionisation energy loss, large fluctuations can occur in the amount of energy deposited by a particle traversing an absorber element<sup>2</sup>. Continuous processes such as multiple scattering and energy loss play a relevant role in the longitudinal and lateral development of electromagnetic and hadronic showers, and in the case of sampling calorimeters the measured resolution can be significantly affected by such fluctuations in their active layers. The description of ionisation fluctuations is characterised by the significance parameter  $\kappa$ , which is proportional to the ratio of mean energy loss to the maximum allowed energy transfer in a single collision with an atomic electron:

*You might get unexpected results using math in chapter or section heads. Consider the pdfspacing option.*

$$\kappa = \frac{\xi}{E_{\max}} \quad (3)$$

$E_{\max}$  is the maximum transferable energy in a single collision with an atomic electron.

$$E_{\max} = \frac{2m_e\beta^2\gamma^2}{1 + 2\gamma m_e/m_x + (m_e/m_x)^2},$$

1523 where  $\gamma = E/m_x$ ,  $E$  is energy and  $m_x$  the mass of the incident particle,  $\beta^2 = 1 - 1/\gamma^2$  and  $m_e$  is the electron mass.  $\xi$  comes from the Rutherford scattering cross section and is defined as:

$$\xi = \frac{2\pi z^2 e^4 N_{Av} Z \rho \delta x}{m_e \beta^2 c^2 A} = 153.4 \frac{z^2}{\beta^2} \frac{Z}{A} \rho \delta x \text{ keV},$$

1526 where

- z charge of the incident particle
- $N_{Av}$  Avogadro's number
- Z atomic number of the material
- A atomic weight of the material
- $\rho$  density
- $\delta x$  thickness of the material
- 1528  $\kappa$  measures the contribution of the collisions with energy transfer close to  $E_{\max}$ . For a given absorber,  $\kappa$  tends towards large values if  $\delta x$  is large and/or if 1529  $\beta$  is small. Likewise,  $\kappa$  tends towards zero if  $\delta x$  is small and/or if  $\beta$  approaches 1530 1.
- 1531

2 Examples taken from Walter Schmidt's great gallery:  
<http://home.vrweb.de/~was/mathfonts.html>

Listing 1: A floating example (listings manual)

---

```
1 for i in xrange(10):
    print i, i*i, i*i*i
print "done"
```

---

1532      The value of  $\kappa$  distinguishes two regimes which occur in the description of  
1533      ionisation fluctuations:

- 1534      1. A large number of collisions involving the loss of all or most of the incident  
1535      particle energy during the traversal of an absorber.

1536      As the total energy transfer is composed of a multitude of small energy  
1537      losses, we can apply the central limit theorem and describe the fluctua-  
1538      tions by a Gaussian distribution. This case is applicable to non-relativistic  
1539      particles and is described by the inequality  $\kappa > 10$  (i. e., when the mean en-  
1540      ergy loss in the absorber is greater than the maximum energy transfer in  
1541      a single collision).

- 1542      2. Particles traversing thin counters and incident electrons under any condi-  
1543      tions.

1544      The relevant inequalities and distributions are  $0.01 < \kappa < 10$ , Vavilov  
1545      distribution, and  $\kappa < 0.01$ , Landau distribution.



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1783 DECLARATION

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1784 Put your declaration here.

1785 *Berkeley, CA, September 2016*

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Bradley Axen



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1788 COLOPHON

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Not sure that this is necessary.