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# Chapter 1

## Secrets of the nature

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## 1.1 The Standard Model

### 1.1.1 Introduction

The Standard Model (SM) is a theory that describes the fundamental structure of the matter surrounding us. It is one of the most successful achievement in modern physics. The elegant theoretical framework of the SM is able to provide good explanation of experimental results, but is also able to predict a wide variety of phenomena.

The SM depicts the interactions between the fundamental constituents of matter, called particles. From a quantum point of view, a particle is defined by its intrinsic angular momentum, called spin. That quantum number is a key to distinguish between the particle of 'matter' and the 'carrier force' particle.

The half integers spin particles are obeying to the Fermi-Dirac statistics and are submitted to the Pauli exclusion principle: They can not occupied the same quantum state at the same time. These particles are called fermions. They are the constituents of the matter and are to the number of twelve.

The fermions are divided into two categories: the leptons and the quarks. The leptons are to the number of six: three charged particles and three neutral particles called neutrino. The first fundamental particle discovered in particle physics was the electron ( $e^-$ ) at the end of the 19<sup>th</sup> century. The two other charged leptons were discovered in 1937 for the muon ( $\mu$ ) and in 1975 for the tau ( $\tau$ ): Three neutrinos are associated to the three flavored leptons: the electron neutrino ( $\nu_e$ ) discovered in 1953, the muon neutrino ( $\nu_\mu$ ) in 1962 and the tau neutrino ( $\nu_\tau$ ) discovered in 2000.

The quarks are to the number of six. They can't be find in alone in the nature. They are carrying a quantum number: the color. The color quantum numbers are green, blue and red (and the anti-color associated). They are always in a bounded state to form composite particles that are colorless and are called hadrons. A quark and an anti-quark form an integer spin composite particle, called meson. Three quarks bounded together are called baryons. The most known baryons are the proton and the neutron. They are made of the up quark (u) and the down quark (d). The other quarks were discovered in the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. The strange quark (s) was discovered in 1968, followed by the charm quark (c) in 1974. Then, the bottom quark or beauty quark (b) was discovered in 1977. The last quark discovered was the top quark (t) in 1995.

The fermions are also divided into three categories that depends on the mass of the particle. The categories are called fermions. The first generation of particles is composed of the electron, the electron neutrino, the u and d quarks. They form the ordinary matter. The two other generations are particle that can be found in cosmic rays or in collision with accelerators. All the fermions and their properties is summarised in the table ??.

Type	Family	Particle	L	B	$Q_e$	Mass
Leptons	1 <sup>st</sup>	$e$	1	0	-1	511 keV
		$\nu_e$	1	0	0	< 2 eV
	2 <sup>nd</sup>	$\mu$	1	0	-1	105.66 MeV
		$\nu_\mu$	1	0	0	< 2 eV
	3 <sup>rd</sup>	$\tau$	1	0	-1	1.78 GeV
		$\nu_\tau$	1	0	0	< 2 eV
Quarks	1 <sup>st</sup>	u	0	1	2/3	$2.3^{+0.7}_{-0.5} MeV$
		d	0	1	-1/3	$4.8^{+0.5}_{-0.3} MeV$
	2 <sup>nd</sup>	s	0	1	-1/3	$95 \pm 5 MeV$
		c	0	1	2/3	$1.275 \pm 0.0025 GeV$
	3 <sup>rd</sup>	b	0	1	-1/3	$4.66 \pm 0.03 GeV$
		t	0	1	2/3	$173.21 \pm 0.51 \pm 0.71 GeV$

Table 1.1 – Summary of the 12 fermions.

The second kind of particles are integer spins particles and are labelled bosons or gauge bosons. They are following the Bose-Einstein statistics It means that the bosons are not limited to single occupancy of the same state as the fermions. The bosons are the mediator of the four fundamental interactions.

The electromagnetic interaction (EM) is mediated by the photon  $\gamma$ , a massless and chargeless particle of spin 1. The EM is responsible for the interaction between two charged particles. The weak interaction which is responsible of the  $\beta$  radioactive decay (a nucleon

is able to transform into an other one with the emission of a lepton and a neutrino). The gauge bosons associated to the weak interaction are the neutral electrical charged boson  $Z^0$ , and two electrical charged one  $W^+$  and  $W^-$ . The strong interaction is mediated by eight gauge bosons, the gluons. It is responsible for the nucleus cohesion and the hadrons. The last force is the gravitational interaction but it is not included into the SM. Trying to find a framework where the equation of the general relativity used to describe the macro world and the equation of the quantum mechanics describing the micro world is a difficult challenge. From a quantum theory, the boson associated to the gravitational force might be the graviton, a spin 2 particle.

The Higgs boson (H) is a particle predicted by the S.M and is the only one to have been found in 2012 at the LHC. It is the gauge boson of the Higgs mechanism. This mechanism is the mass generator of particles and will be presented later REF TO LATER

The table ?? summarises the different bosons of the SM.

Force	Gauge bosons	Mass (GeV/ $c^2$ )	Electric charge	Range
Electromagnetic	$\gamma$	0	0	
Weak	$Z^0$	$91.1876 \pm 0.0021$	0	
	$W^\pm$	$80.3980 \pm 0.0250$	$\pm 1$	
Strong	g (8 gluons)	0	0	
	H	125 GeV	0	

Table 1.2 – Summary of the bosons

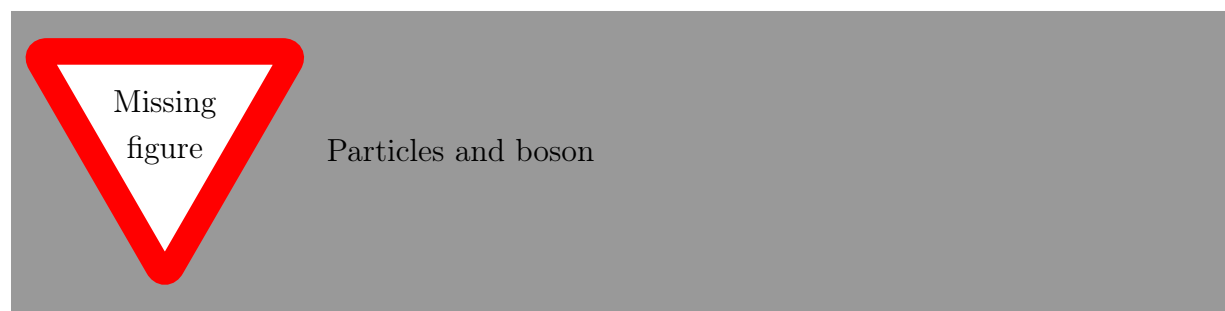


Figure 1.1

## 1.1.2 Quantum Field Theory

The mathematical basis of the SM is the Quantum Field Theory (QFT). All the interactions are described by the gauge group

$$SU_C(3) \otimes SU_L(2) \otimes U_Y(1) \quad (1.1)$$

The gauge theory is invariant under a continuous set of local transformation. Taking the gauge symmetries and the least action into account, physicists were able to set up

equations that describe the dynamic of the interactions by Lagrangian. The steps to build Lagrangian for the three forces and the unification of the EM and weak interactions are going to be presented.

### Quantum Electrodynamic

The Quantum Electrodynamic (QED) is the QFT used to described the electromagnetic interactions using a  $U(1)$  gauge group. The Quantum Electrodynamic (QED) is the QFT that combines the electromagnetism formalism and the quantum mechanics formalism to describe the interaction thanks to a relativistic Lagrangian. As the charge  $Q_e$  of the electron is invariant on every part of the Universe, the QED Lagrangian should be invariant under some transformation. The  $U(1)$  gauge group is a unitary group of one dimension that is invariant under space transformation.

Lets first consider the Dirac equation for a free fermion:

$$\mathcal{L}_{Dirac} = \bar{\Psi}(x) (i\gamma^\mu \partial_\mu - m) \Psi(x) \quad (1.2)$$

The Lagrangian is invariant under global  $U(1)$  transformation:

$$\begin{aligned} \Psi(x) &\rightarrow \Psi'(x) = e^{-i\alpha} \Psi(x) \\ \bar{\Psi}(x) &\rightarrow \bar{\Psi}'(x) = e^{i\alpha} \bar{\Psi}(x) \end{aligned} \quad (1.3)$$

The corresponding local symmetry is:

$$\begin{aligned} \Psi(x) &\rightarrow \Psi'(x) = e^{-i\alpha(x)} \Psi(x) \\ \bar{\Psi}(x) &\rightarrow \bar{\Psi}'(x) = e^{i\alpha(x)} \bar{\Psi}(x) \end{aligned} \quad (1.4)$$

Considering the local symmetry, the mass term of the Lagrangian REF-Dirac-Lagrangian stays invariant but the term which contains the derivative is not anymore: By introducing a material derivative that includes a gauge field  $A_\mu$ , it is possible to keep the derivative invariant under local gauge transformation:

$$D_\mu \Psi(x) = (\partial_\mu - iQ_e A_\mu) \Psi(x) \quad (1.5)$$

The gauge field is not yet a dynamic field. To get a physical gauge field, a kinetic term should be added to the equation. This gauge invariant term that includes derivative from the  $A_\mu$  field is:

$$F_{\mu\nu} = \partial_\mu A_\nu - \partial_\nu A_\mu \quad (1.6)$$

The Lagrangian that is local invariant, is the one that describes the QED:

$$\mathcal{L}_{QED} = \bar{\Psi}(x) (i\gamma^\mu D_\mu - m) \Psi(x) - \frac{1}{4} F_{\mu\nu}(x) F^{\mu\nu}(x) \quad (1.7)$$

A mass term  $m A_\mu A^\mu$  for the field  $A_\mu$  is missing because it is not gauge invariant. It can be explain by the fact that the photon is massless.



### Weak interaction

The weak interaction explains the  $\beta$  decays of the nuclei. It couples the left-handed particles and the right-handed anti-particles. Madame Wu Experimental experiments with  $\beta$  decays lead to the fact that only left-handed fermion chiralities participate in the weak interaction.

The weak interaction is described by a  $SU(2)$  symmetry group.

### Quantum Chromodynamics

The Quantum Chromodynamics (QCD) is the quantum field theory of the strong interaction. In this model, the interaction is due to a  $SU(3)$  gauge group. It produces 8 gauge fields called gluons. The spinners of this theory are the six quarks that form a triplet with respect to the gauge symmetry.

The  $SU(3)$  gauge group is a group of  $9 - 1 = 8$  real parameters and of 8 generators. Those generators are the Gell-Mann matrices. The normalised generators are defined by:

$$T^a = \frac{1}{2}\lambda^a \quad (1.8)$$

The structure constant  $f^{abc}$  can be expressed as:

$$if^{abc} = 2Tr([T^a, T^b]T^c) \quad (1.9)$$

Some theories arguments and the results of experiments in high energy physics ask to introduce six spinor fields, the quarks. Each of them are considered as a triplet state with respect to the  $SU(3)$  group:

$$q_i = \begin{pmatrix} q_i^1 \\ q_i^2 \\ q_i^3 \end{pmatrix} \quad (1.10)$$

where  $q_i$  are the six quarks. These quarks can appeared in three different states, called color and that are names red, blue and green.

The local gauge symmetry  $U(1)$  should be included into the  $SU(3)$  group.

The gauge field  $A_\mu$  can be introduced in the group:

$$A_\mu = g_s A_\mu^a \frac{\lambda^a}{2} \quad (1.11)$$

with  $a = 1, \dots, 8$  and corresponds to the 8 gluons. A mass term  $m_g A_\mu^a A_\mu^a$  would not be gauge invariant, that implies the gluons are massless.

The material derivative is then:

$$D_\mu = \partial_\mu - iA_\mu = \partial_\mu - ig_s A_\mu^a \frac{\lambda^a}{2} \quad (1.12)$$

The QED field  $F_{\mu\nu}$  is not gauge invariant in QCD. Nevertheless an additional term to obtain gauge invariant field tensor can be introduced:

$$G_{\mu\nu}^a = (\partial_\mu A_\nu^a - \partial_\nu A_\mu^a) + g_s f^{abc} A_\mu^b A_\nu^c \quad (1.13)$$

Finally, the QCD Lagrangian is given by:

$$\mathcal{L} = \sum_{i=1}^6 \bar{q}_i (i\gamma^\mu D_\mu - m_i) q_i - \frac{1}{4} G_{\mu\nu}^a G_a^{\mu\nu} \quad (1.14)$$

### Glashow-Weinberg-Salam model

Lagrangian EW goes here:

## 1.2 The Higgs physics

The Standard Model constitutes one of the most successful achievement in modern physics. One of its strength is to provides a elegant theoretical framework to describe the known experimental facts about particles, but also it was able to predict the existence of a mechanism to generate the particle masses via the Higgs mechanism.

With the lagrangians described above, the gauge boson were considered as massless fields. The electroweak interaction does not allow a  $m\bar{\Psi}\Psi$  term because it does not transform as a scalar under  $SU(2)_L \otimes U(1)_Y$ . The  $m^2 A_\mu A^\mu$  violates the gauge invariance of the Lagrangian. That section will present the mechanism to generate fermions and boson masses.

### 1.2.1 Symmetry Breaking mechanism

As we have seen with the Lagrangian of the QED and QCD, the bosons generated are massless. Nevertheless, the W boson and the Z bosons have a mass. The origin of the fermions masses is solved in the SM thanks to the Higgs-Englert-Brout mechanism.

Lets consider first a complex scalar doubled field  $\phi$  and a lagrangian, invariant under local gauge transformations:

$$\mathcal{L} = (D^\mu \phi)^\dagger (D_\mu \phi) - V(\phi) \quad (1.15)$$

The first term corresponds to the kinetic term of a scalar field. The second term is a scalar potential that is invariant under  $SU(2)_L$  and it is:

$$V(\phi) = \mu^2 \phi^\dagger \phi + \lambda (\phi^\dagger \phi)^2, \text{ with } \lambda > 0 \quad (1.16)$$

Depending if  $\mu^2$  is positive or negative, the potential can take two forms. If  $\mu^2 > 0$ , the potential has a minimum at  $\phi = 0$  and describes a scalar particle with a mass  $\mu$  and a quartic self coupling. As the transformation  $\phi \rightarrow -\phi$  is respected, this solution is a symmetric one.

When  $\mu^2 < 0$ ,

Here talk about the Goldstone theorem (may be.)

### 1.2.2 Higgs mechanism

Here talk about the Higgs mechanism but may be added in a Higgs chapter...



Figure 1.2 – Scalar potential

### Higgs Decays

As explained before, the Higgs boson couples to all particles of the Standard Model. The figure 1.4, the branching ratios for different decay modes are shown as a function of the mass of the Higgs boson. For a Higgs mass of 125.5 GeV, a large number of decays are accessible to experiments

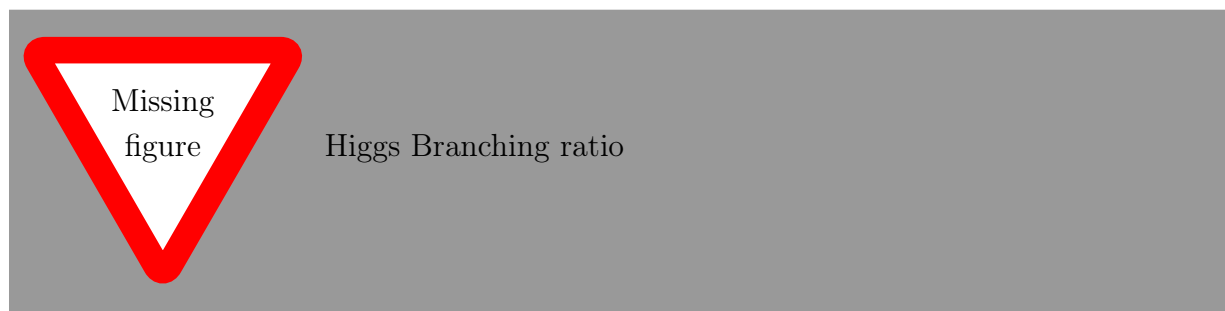


Figure 1.3 – The branching ratio of the Higgs

### Higgs production at the ILC

## 1.3 Limitations of the Standard Model

The SM is one of the best theory to describe the infinity and beyond. Nevertheless, it can not explain all the mysteries in the universe. Physicists have to test the limits of the Model and find a theory that is working beyond the SM. One way to do so, is to build new expensive and non-eco-friendly machines.

### 1.3.1 Matter-antimatter asymmetry

As discussed before, the SM defines equal number of particles and anti-particles. However, the entire universe is only made of matter. Why preference to matter and no one to anti-matter?

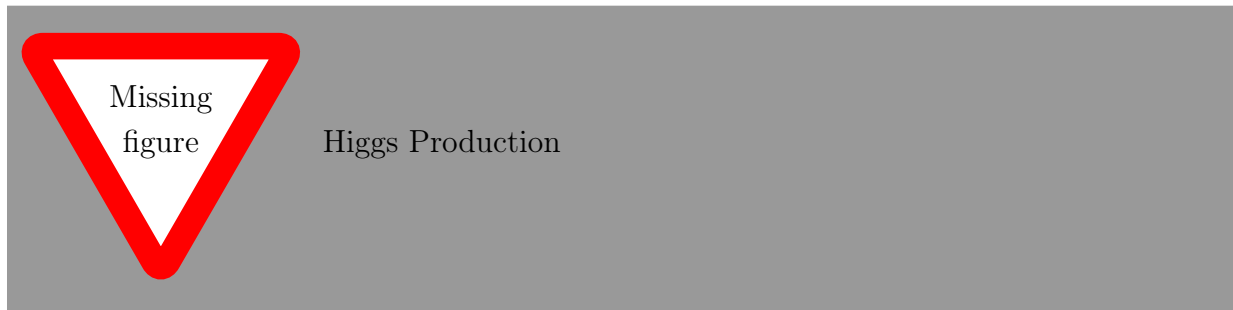


Figure 1.4 – Higgs production

### 1.3.2 Dark Matter

Nowadays only twelve particles (plus the anti-particles associated) have been observed. The idea of dark matter comes from the way we estimate the mass of galaxy.

### 1.3.3 Gravitation

Here, I will write some stuff about gravitational force.

## Chapter 2

# The future of high-energy physics: the ILC

### 2.1 The ILC machine

### 2.2 The SiD

### 2.3 The ILD



## Chapter 3

# Double-sided VXD: PLUME

3.1 The ILD vertex detector specifications

3.2 Integration of CMOS sensors

3.3 A versatile mechanical structure





## Chapter 4

# Electrical Validation and laboratory testing



# Chapter 5

## Test beam analysis

5.1 Experimental set-up

5.2 Deformation studies

5.3 Benefits of double-point measurements