ATLAS 13 TeV Data Analysis using Particle Flow

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1. Gutachter: Prof. Dr. John Smith
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Acknowledgements

I would like to thank ...

You should probably use `\chapter*` for acknowledgements at the beginning of a thesis and `\chapter` for the end.

Contents

Introduction

At the end of the introduction it is normal to say briefly what comes in the following chapters.

The lines at the end of this file are used by AUCTeX to specify which is the master LaTeX file, so that you can compile your thesis directly within `emacs`.

Theoretical and experimental basics

2.1 The Standard Model of Particle Physics

The Standard Model of Particle Physics summarizes the current knowledge of fundamental particles and their interactions. The model holds at scales of 1 fm and below. Gravity, being the fourth fundamental force is not included because it is negligible for most phenomena at this scale.

The current view is that all matter is made out of three kinds of elementary particle being leptons quarks and mediators. There are six leptons falling into three families according to charge, electron number, muon number and tau number.

Similiar to that there are six flavors of quarks separated by Strangeness (S), charm (C), Beauty (B), and truth (T). As well as the leptons the quarks fall into three generations. For both kinds of particles the mass rises with the generations and every generation comes as a doublet. The first particle of each lepton doublet is not charged and referred to as a neutrino while the second particle has charge -1. For each quark doublet there is an element with fractional charge $-\frac{1}{3}$ and an element with fractional charge $\frac{2}{3}$. To every of these particles there is an anti particle with opposite charge.

The third kind of particle included in the standard model is the mediator. Mediators are gauge bosons whose exchange allows the particles to interact. There are four kinds of of elemtary interactions of which the strong electromagnetic and weak interaction are included in the model. The fourth interaction is the gravitational interaction. The gauge particles for the strong interaction are the gluons carrying colour charge, the electromagnetic mediator is the photon (γ) and the weak mediators are the $W^{\pm}$ and Z bosons

Given this the standard model of particle physics has been a very successful model for a very long time and still holds for most cases. Nevertheless the model has some commonly known weaknesses and does not claim to be complete. For example the gravitational force is not included and in the standard model neutrinos are massless.

Table 2.1: Lepton properties

	symbol	Charge Q	L_e	L_μ	L_τ
First generation{	e	-1	1	0	0
	ν_e	0	1	0	0
Second generation{	μ	-1	0	1	0
	ν_μ	0	0	1	0
Third generation{	τ	-1	0	0	1
	ν_τ	0	0	0	1

Table 2.2: Quark properties

First generation {

Second generation {

Third generation {

Symbol	Charge Q	mass	D	U	S	C	B	T
d	$-\frac{1}{3}$	4.8MeV	-1	0	0	0	0	0
u	$\frac{2}{3}$	2.3MeV	0	1	0	0	0	0
s	$-\frac{1}{3}$	95MeV	0	0	-1	0	0	0
c	$\frac{2}{3}$	1275MeV	0	0	0	1	0	0
b	$-\frac{1}{3}$	4180MeV	0	0	0	0	-1	0
t	$\frac{2}{3}$	173210MeV	0	0	0	0	0	1

Table 2.3: Mediator properties

Interaction	Theory	Mediator	Charge	Coupling
Strong	QCD	gluons (8)	colour	1
Electromagnetic	QED	photon γ	electric charge	10^{-1}
Weak	GSW	$W^{\pm}, Z$	weak isospin	20^{-6}

Should there be an outline here ?

2.2 The LHC and ATLAS

The analysis for this thesis has been performed in the ATLAS collaboration. The ATLAS-Detector is one of the four big experiments at the LHC at Cern. Therefore this chapter gives a brief overview over the LHC and ATLAS focusing on the properties directly relevant for Particle Flow Analysis.

After a description of the ATLAS detector in general I will give a little bit more information about the detector components directly relevant for the explanation of particle flow being the tracking detector and the calorimeter. To make the advantages of particle flow understandable to the reader I will give a general description of these detectors and their properties

2.2.1 The LHC

The Large Hadron Collider ("LHC") at CERN was built to extend the frontiers of modern particle physics by delivering high luminosities and unprecedented high energies.
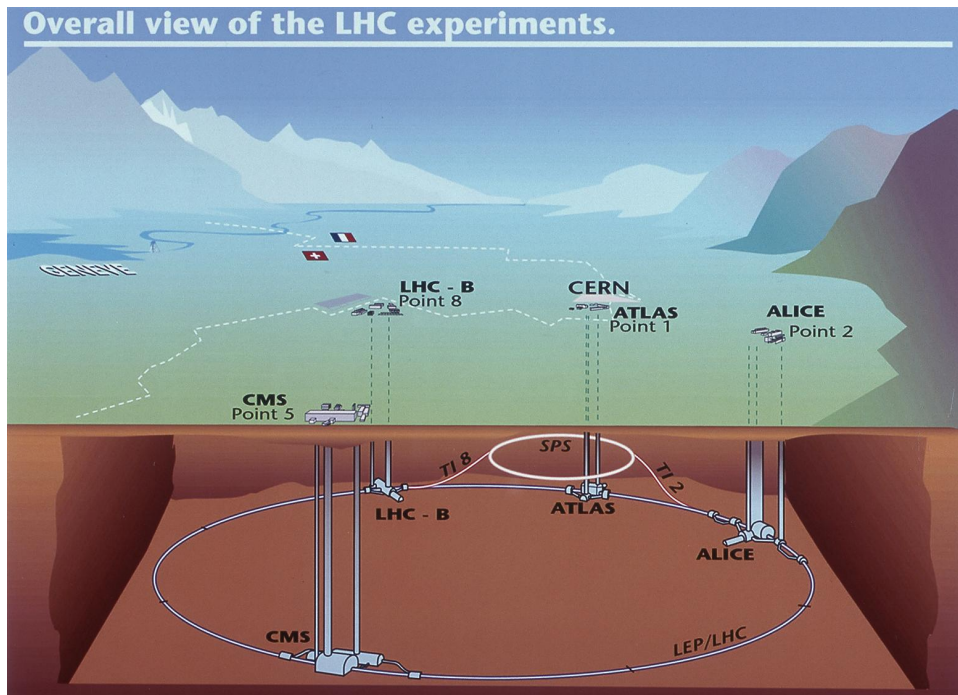The LHC is designed to collide bunches of up to 10^{11} protons

Figure 2.1: Sketch of the LHC ring, the position of the experiments and the surrounding countryside. The four big LHC experiments are indicated. The location of the injection lines and the SPS are also shown.

2.2.2 The ATLAS Detector

The ATLAS detector is built to take advantage of the high energy available at the LHC to observe highly massive particles that lower energy accelerators were not able to create and that way bring new physics theory beyond the standard model of particle physics. It is designed to be able to observe a maximized number of final stages being a so called general purpose-detector. This means that the detector should be able to identify every kind of particle and still provide a accurate information about angle and momentum.

Figure 2.2 shows the outline of the ATLAS detector. In the following explanations of the components from the inside to the outside are given.

Tracking detectors

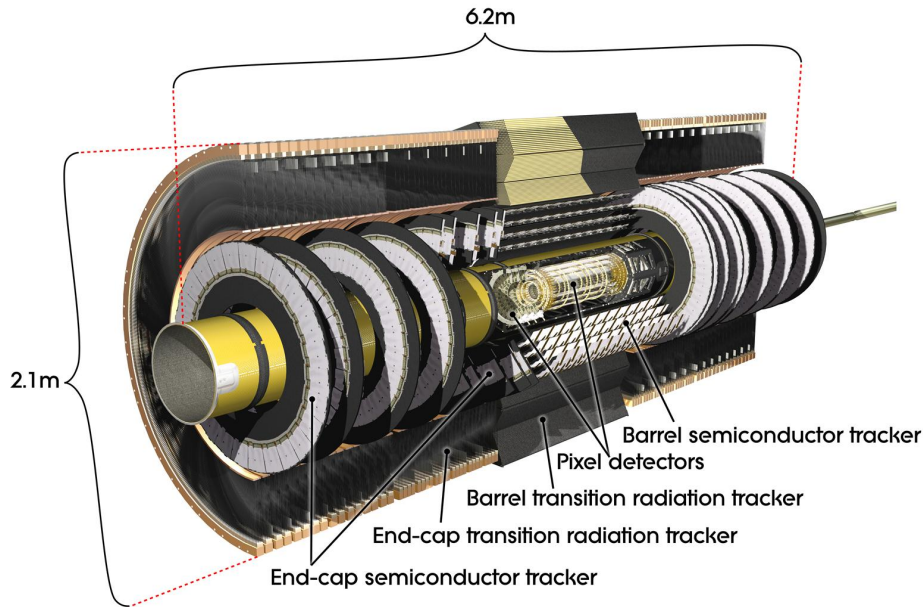**EM-Calorimeter**

Hadronic Calorimeter

Figure 2.2: Sketch of the ATLAS detector [1]

2.2.3 Tracking detectors

The go to method to measure the momenta of charged particles is the usage of tracking detectors.

These detectors are based on charged particles leaving a track of ionisations in any given medium and therefore by detecting this ionizations being able to reconstruct the particles trajectory. There are two main categories for tracking detectors in use. The first one uses a large gaseous volume in a strong electric field and filled with a structure of wires. The electric field lets the liberating electrons drift towards the wires where they cause a detectable signal. However the second kind of detectors is based on semiconductor technology and used in most modern detectors like ATLAS. Therefore I will give this kind of tracking detectors a deeper discussion. If a charged particle traverses a appropriately doped semiconductor wafer for examplea a doped silicon wafer it creates electron hole pairs along his trail. If an eletric field is applied to the semiconductor material the holes will drift in the direction of the electric field and then be collected b p-n junctions.

Usually a tracking detector is divided into semiconductor strips or pixel in a magnitude of $25\mu m$. That way a signal at a certain junction can be used to reconstruct a trail and position. The common way to reconstruct a track is s set of cylindrical semiconductor wafers in a magnetic field.

$$p \cdot cos\lambda = 0.3BR \tag{2.1}$$

2.2.4 Calorimeter

In particle physics a calorimeter is a device to measure first and foremost the total energy of a particle. Most of the time also some positional information is taken. The idea is that most particles loose all their momentum crossing the calorimeter-structure. Measuring the energy deposited this way gives a measurement for the particle's energy. Usually a particle deposits its energy by initiating a particle shower. the shower's energy is then collected and measured. Calorimeters are distinguished by the main interaction of the particles one wants to detect.

Electromgnetic Calorimeter

Electromagnetic calorimeters are designed to detect charged particles and measure their total energy.

$$\frac{\sigma_E}{E} \sim \frac{3\% - 10\%}{\sqrt{E/GeV}} \tag{2.2}$$

Hadronic calorimeters

Hadronic calorimeters are used to obtain the energies o hadronic particle showers. Due to the relatively large distance between interactions these calorimeter soccupy a significantly large space in the detector.

A common technique to construct these calorimeters is a sandwich like structure of alternating layers of high density absorber material and active material. The absorbers are used to develop the particle showers which then hit the active material and deposit the energy there.

$$\frac{\sigma_E}{E} \gtrsim \frac{50\%}{\sqrt{E/GeV}} \tag{2.3}$$

2.3 The Particle Flow Algorithm

Recently only either the Calorimeter or the tracker information was used to reconstruct Jets in ATLAS events. The Particle Flow Algorithm combines tracker and calorimeter information to achieve better resolution especially at lower energies. The main advantages of including the tracker information into reconstruction are listed here:

- For low energy charged particles the momentum resolution of the tracking detector is superior to the calorimeter.

- The Tracking detector is able to reconstruct softe particles, which would not pass the noise threshold of the calorimeter.

- The ATLAS traking detector has a superior angular resolution for single charged particles.

- Low p_T charged particles may be swept out of the cone before reaching the calorimeter by the magnetic field. The tracker information allows to cluster these particles into the jet.

- a better vertex determination could lower the pileup-contribution.

The advantages of Particle Flow have already been shown for Run 1 data in

Figure 2.3 sketches the important steps of the Particle Flow algorithm. The algorithm uses clusters from the calorimeters and tracks from the tracking detectors as input information. The first step is to match a track spatially to a cluster. After a pair has been found the algorithm checks if the particle's momentum matches the energy deposited in the cluster within the expected deviation. If the energy matches a subtraction algorithm starts deciding which cells belong to the given event. If the energy deposited in the cluster is too low the algorithm includes all other clusters in a given area and then starts the subtraction.

After the subtraction the algorithm gives information about matched clusters and trackers. Furthermore energy deposited in cells that got not subtracted can be identified as remnants.
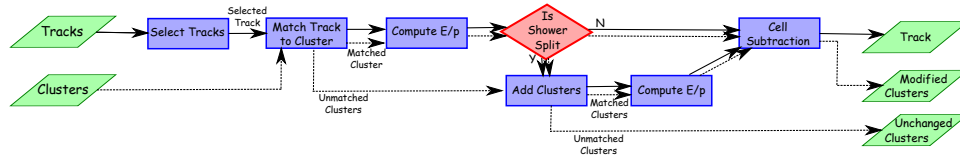

Figure 2.3: Flowchart of the steps of the Particle Flow algorithm

2.3.1 Track selection

The algorithm has some requirements on tracks to be selected.

2.3.2 Clustering

The algorithm uses information from the tracker and the calorimeter as input. The information from the calorimeter is give as topological clusters. The construction of these clusters is briefly described in this chapter to give the reader a basic understanding which input information the algorithm uses. Every cluster is being constructed around a so called seed cell. A seed cell is a cell for which the deposited energy exceeds the expected noise by four times the standard deviation. If a seed is found all the neighboring cells which exceed the noise by at least two times the standard deviation are added to the cluster. Lastly all the cells neighboring these clusters are also added.

2.3.3 Matching Track to Cluster

The algorithm tries to match every track to one or more calorimeter clusters. First the algorithm tries to match a single best-match topo-cluster to every selected track. To do so first the distances in $\Delta\phi$ and $\Delta\eta$ from the track are extrapolated to the second layer of the EM calorimeter and then topo clsuter. then the topo-clusters get ranked based on the metric:

$$\Delta R' = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\Delta\phi}{\sigma_\phi}\right) + \left(\frac{\Delta\eta}{\sigma_\eta}\right)} \tag{2.4}$$

where σ_η and σ_ϕ refer to the angular topo-cluster width, computed from the standard deviation of the displacemtens of the topo clusters

2.3.4 Cell Subtraction

The last step in the Particle Flow algorithm after matching a set of topo-clusters to a track is the cell-wise subtraction of energy deposits to remove remnants and determine which energy deposits belong to the given particle. If the energy deposited in the set of clusters falls below the expected energy the clusters are simply removed. Otherwise, a cell by cell subtraction is performed.

The first step of the cell subtraction is generating a shower shape from the extrapolated track. Around the extrapolated track rings in η, ϕ space are generated, being just wide enough to independently contain at least one one cell from the extrapolated position. Furthermore the rings are restricted to one layer and for each layer have the same radial size. After the generation of rings in each layer the average energy density in each ring is computed and the rings are ranked by energy density in descending order. The layer is not used in any way for this ranking. The subtraction then starts from the ring with highest energy density and proceeds successively to rings in lower order until the next ring's energy exceeds the remaining expected energy. If the ring's energy exceeds the energy still to be substracted the energy in each cell is scaled down by the fraction needed to reach the expected energy then the process halts and the remaining cells are removed as remnants. An example of the process is sketched in figure 2.4.
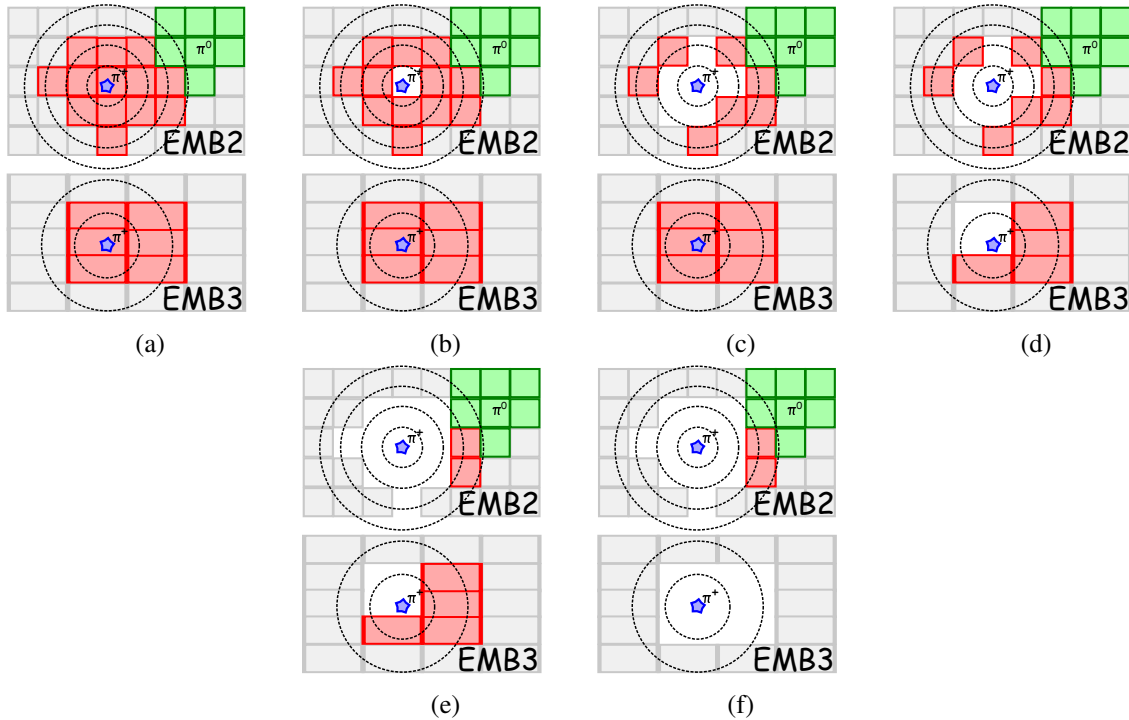

Figure 2.4: Example of cell subtraction [**pflowpaper**]

2.4 Calibration in Particle Flow and its difficulties at the time

Results

3.1 Event Selection

For this thesis $Z \rightarrow \mu\mu$ events were used. The criteria for the event selection were no good electrons and exactly two good muons, with opposite charge where good means that the particle passed all selection filters itself. The reconstructed Z-Boson is required to be in an range of (90 ± 10) GeV and to have a transversal momentum greater than 30 GeV while the muons are required to have a transversal momentum greater than 25 GeV

I know nothing

Bibliography

[1] A. Collaboration, *A (Not So) Short Introduction to LaTeX2e*,
     URL: http://atlas.cern/resources/multimedia (cit. on p. 6).

Useful information

In the appendix you usually include extra information that should be documented in your thesis, but not interrupt the flow.

List of Figures

List of Tables