

SEARCH FOR Z' PRODUCTION IN 4 B-TAGGED JET FINAL STATES IN
PROTON-PROTON COLLISIONS

A Dissertation

by

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ABSTRACT

The LHCb experiment has reported slight discrepancies in the ratio in which B mesons decay to muons and electrons. Some of these theories attempting to explain these anomalies theorize the existence of new particles beyond the standard model. This study performs a search for a heavy neutral gauge boson at the LHC with the CMS experiment. This Z' boson is assumed to couple mostly to third generation fermions, specifically b-quarks. The main production channel is b-quark fusion. Furthermore, since the b-quark PDF's are at least 10 times lower when compared to the gluon PDF's, we take advantage of the large contribution of bottom quarks coming from gluon-splitting to Z' production. In short, a study for $Z' \rightarrow b\bar{b}$ decays is proposed. The final state consists of 4 b jets, with the two extra jets coming from the initial gluon splitting. Results are correspond to 27.27 fb^{-1} of proton-proton collision data recorded by the CMS detector at the LHC with a center-of-mass-energy of 13 TeV during 2016.

DEDICATION

To Elvis, Simon, and Alice

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NOMENCLATURE

BFF	Bottom Fermion Fusion
EW	Electroweak
QCD	Quantum Chromodynamics
QFT	Quantum Field Theory
SM	Standard Model of particle physics
VBF	Vector Boson Fusion

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ABSTRACT	ii
DEDICATION	iii
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	iv
CONTRIBUTORS AND FUNDING SOURCES	v
NOMENCLATURE	vi
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vii
LIST OF FIGURES	ix
LIST OF TABLES.....	x
1. INTRODUCTION.....	1
2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK.....	2
2.1 The Standard Model	2
2.2 Structure and Particle Content	2
2.2.1 Fermions	2
2.2.1.1 Leptons	3
2.2.1.2 Quarks	3
2.2.2 Bosons	4
2.3 Particle Interactions	5
2.3.1 Quantum Electrodynamics	5
2.3.2 Electroweak Interaction	7
2.3.3 Strong Interaction	13
2.3.4 Brout-Englert-Higgs Mechanism and the Higgs Boson	15
2.4 Beyond the Standard Model	20
2.5 Lepton universality	21
2.6 B-hadron anomalies	22
2.6.1 $b \rightarrow s$ quark transitions.....	23
2.7 The Z'	24
2.7.1 4b Bottom Fermion Fusion	25
2.7.2 Flavour-violating coupling δ_{bs}	27
3. The LHC and CMS Detector	28

3.1	The Large Hadron Collider	28
3.2	The CMS Detector	30
3.2.1	Coordinate System	31
3.2.2	Tracker and Pixel Detector	32
3.2.3	Electromagnetic Calorimeter	34
3.2.4	Hadron Calorimeter	35
3.2.5	Solenoid	36
3.2.6	Muon System	37
3.2.7	Trigger	40
3.2.8	Luminosity Measurement	40
REFERENCES		42

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE		Page
2.1	Lowest order Feynmann diagrams for $b \rightarrow s$ quark transition.	24
2.2	Feynman diagram for bottom fermion fusion (BFF).	26
3.1	Schematic diagram for the LHC experiment at CERN. Retrieved from [26].	29
3.2	Schematic diagram for the CMS experiment with its sub-detector systems and a person for scale. Retrieved from [27].	31
3.3	Diagram for the CMS detector coordinate system.	32
3.4	Layout of the CMS detector tracker with subsystems labeled.	33
3.5	A schematic of the CMS ECAL detector with its subsystems labeled.	34
3.6	Structure and position of the CMS HCAL sub-detector systems.	36
3.7	Layout of the CMS muon system.	38
3.8	A muon, in the plane perpendicular to the LHC beams, leaves a curved trajectory in four layers of muon detectors or stations.	39

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE	Page
2.1 Quantum numbers of the SM fermions	10

1. INTRODUCTION

In progress...

2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 The Standard Model

Particle physics is the study of the fundamental constituents of matter and the forces between them. For more than 40 years these have been described by the so-called standard model of particle physics (SM), which provides, at least in principle, a basis for understanding most particle interactions, with the only exception of gravity.

The SM can be understood as a gauge theory combining the theory of electroweak interactions (EW) and quantum chromodynamics (QCD), or $SU(3)_C \times SU(2)_L \times U(1)_{EM}$.

2.2 Structure and Particle Content

All the phenomena of particle physics can be explained in terms of the properties and interactions of a small number of particles of four distinct types: two spin-1/2 families of fermions called leptons and quarks; one family of spin-1 bosons (called gauge bosons) which act as "force carriers", and a spin-0 particle, called the Higgs boson. We should note that all particles in the SM are assumed to be elementary, i.e. they do not have internal structure or excited states.

In this section, the particle content of the SM will be introduced, along with the various force carriers. In the following section, the specifics of particle-particle interactions will be explained in detail.

2.2.1 Fermions

Fermions are elementary particles with half-integer spin. They constitute the matter content of the SM, which accounts for 12 named fermions that interact via the weak and electromagnetic force (with the exception of neutrinos). Also, they obey Fermi-Dirac statistics and the Pauli exclusion principle, meaning that no two fermions may be described by the same quantum numbers. Each fermion has its own anti-particle, with the same mass, but opposite quantum numbers.

2.2.1.1 Leptons

There are six known leptons, and they occur in pairs called generations, which we can write as doublets:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \nu_e \\ e^- \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} \nu_\mu \\ \mu^- \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} \nu_\tau \\ \tau^- \end{pmatrix} \quad (2.1)$$

The three charged leptons (e^- , μ^- , τ^-) all have electric charge $Q = -e$. Associated with them are three neutral leptons, or neutrinos, called the electron neutrino, mu neutrino, and tau neutrino, respectively, all of which have very small masses. The six distinct types of leptons are also referred to as having different "flavours".

The charged leptons interact via both the electromagnetic and weak forces, whereas for neutral leptons only weak interactions have been observed. We should note that each generation of leptons has associated with a quantum number. The first of these lepton numbers is the electron number, defined for any state by

$$L_e \equiv N(e^-) - N(e^+) + N(\nu_e) - N(\bar{\nu}_e), \quad (2.2)$$

where $N(e^-)$ is the number of electrons present, and so on. For single-particle states, $L_e = 1$ for e^- and ν_e , $L_e = -1$ for e^+ and $\bar{\nu}_e$, and $L_e = 0$ for all other particles. In electromagnetic interactions, conservation of L_e reduces to the conservation of $N(e^-) - N(e^+)$, since neutrinos are not involved. This has a very important consequence, which is that electrons and positrons can only be created or annihilated in pairs. In weak interactions more general possibilities are allowed.

The form of Equation 2.2 follows for the heavier lepton generations. Finally, in the SM, lepton numbers are individually conserved in all known interactions.

2.2.1.2 Quarks

Currently, there are six known quarks in the SM. Like the leptons, these six distinct types, or flavors, occur in pairs, or generations, denoted

$$\begin{pmatrix} u \\ d \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} c \\ s \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} t \\ b \end{pmatrix} \quad (2.3)$$

Each generation consists of a quark with charge $+2/3$ (u, c , or t) together with a quark of charge $-1/3$ (d, s, b), in units of e . They are called the *down*(d), *up*(u), *strange*(s), *charmed*(c), *bottom*(b) and *top*(t) quarks.

Although there is no evidence for the existence of free quarks, or any other fractionally charged particle, well over two hundred of their bound states have been discovered. All of them having integer electric charges. Quarks are known to bind into triplets with overall spin-1/2 and doublets with spin-1, called baryons and mesons, respectively. They are collectively referred to as hadrons.

These bound states of quarks (hadrons) have several quantum numbers associated with them, referring to their quark content. For example, the *strangeness* S is defined by

$$S \equiv -N_s \equiv -[N(s) - N(\bar{s})] \quad (2.4)$$

where $N(s)$ and $N(\bar{s})$ are the number of s quarks and \bar{s} antiquarks present in the state. Clearly, $S = -1$ for an s quark, $S = 1$ for an \bar{s} antiquark and $S = 0$ for all other quarks and antiquarks. The *up*(U), *down*(D), *charm*(C), *bottom*(B), and *top*(T) quantum numbers are similarly defined.

Furthermore, we can define a *baryon number* \tilde{B} of the state given by

$$\tilde{B} \equiv \frac{1}{3}[N(q) - N(\bar{q})] \quad (2.5)$$

Baryon number $\tilde{B} = 1$ for baryons, $\tilde{b} = -1$ for antibaryons and $\tilde{B} = 0$ for mesons.

2.2.2 Bosons

The SM bosons are the mediators of the interaction between the matter content of the SM, but also within themselves. They have integral spin quantum number and follow Bose-Einstein statistics. There are 5 named bosons, the gluon, photon, and W and Z which have spin 1, and the Higgs boson which corresponds to a scalar field and therefore has spin 0.

2.3 Particle Interactions

The interactions of the particles described in the previous section can be described in the mathematical framework of gauge field theory. Three of the four fundamental forces of nature are described in the SM (electromagnetism, the strong and the weak force). To each of these forces belongs a physical theory, its corresponding charge, (i.e. electric charge, color or flavor) and an associated boson as mediator.

Modern theories describe these forces in terms of quantum fields, namely QED, QCD and the unified electroweak quantum field theory. One feature all these theories have in common is that they are all gauge invariant. This is important because it is a fundamental requirement from which the detailed properties of the interaction are deduced, as we shall see later in this section.

To describe each of the three SM interactions or forces, we will start with a Lagrangian that describes the dynamics of a given system of particles. Then we will study its invariance under a local gauge transformation. We will see that in order to maintain gauge invariance, we will need to introduce additional gauge fields and their corresponding covariant derivatives. Finally, we will take a look at the conservation laws arising from the symmetry of the gauge invariance.

2.3.1 Quantum Electrodynamics

Quantum electrodynamics describes the dynamics of the electromagnetic interaction between fermions and the boson mediating the interaction, the photon. QED corresponds to the U_{EM} group and it was the first discovered example of gauge symmetry.

In QFT, particles are represented by fields, which are in turn represented mathematically by Lagrangian densities \mathcal{L} . In particular, QED is described by the Dirac Lagrangian density

$$\mathcal{L} = \bar{\psi}(i\gamma^\mu\partial_\mu - m)\psi \quad (2.6)$$

where γ^μ are the gamma matrices, ψ is a four-component column vector representing the wave function of a spin 1/2 particle (or Dirac spinor), $\bar{\psi} = \psi^\dagger\gamma^0$, and m is the mass of the particle. The Lagrangian is invariant under a global U(1) transformation

$$\psi \rightarrow \psi' = e^{-i\alpha} \psi \quad (2.7)$$

while the parameter α is kept a constant. If instead, α is allowed to vary as a function of space-time, then Equation 2.7 becomes a local U(1) transformation and the Lagrangian density becomes

$$\mathcal{L} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}' = \mathcal{L} + \bar{\psi} \gamma^\mu (\partial_\mu \alpha(x)) \psi \quad (2.8)$$

which is not invariant under the local transformation.

In order to restore local gauge invariance, a gauge field A_μ representing the photon and the covariant derivative

$$D_\mu = \partial_\mu + iqA_\mu \quad (2.9)$$

, where $q = -e$ (electric charge) are introduced. The new gauge field transforms as

$$A_\mu \rightarrow A'_\mu = A_\mu + \partial_\mu \chi(x) \quad (2.10)$$

, where $\chi(x)$ is an arbitrary function of space-time. The covariant derivative has the same transformation properties as ψ and is chosen to replace ∂_μ .

After introducing these modifications, the Lagrangian takes the form:

$$\mathcal{L} = \bar{\psi}(i\gamma^\mu D_\mu - m)\psi - \frac{1}{4}F_{\mu\nu}F^{\mu\nu} \quad (2.11)$$

where $F_{\mu\nu} = \partial_\mu A_\nu - \partial_\nu A_\mu$ is the electromagnetic field strength tensor.

By looking at the resulting Lagrangian after the introduction of new gauge fields we can see that it does not include a mass term for the photon field (i.e. no term $m^2 A_\mu A^\mu$), which explains the infinite range of the electromagnetic interaction.

The final form of the Lagrangian includes lepton-photon interactions, as well as those in the

form of $l^+l^-\gamma$ and a quadratic term in the field strength tensor which is the photon kinetic energy. It can be generalized to include all leptons by taking the form

$$\mathcal{L} = \sum_i \bar{\psi}_i (i\gamma^\mu D_\mu - m_i) \psi_i - \frac{1}{4} F_{\mu\nu} F^{\mu\nu} \quad (2.12)$$

where $i = e, \mu, \tau, u, d, c, s, t, b$.

2.3.2 Electroweak Interaction

The electroweak interaction is based on a local $SU(2)_L \times U(1)_Y$ gauge symmetry where L and Y are the generators of the symmetry. As a result, electromagnetic and weak interactions are unified into a single non-abelian gauge theory. Also, just like in Section 2.3.1, the requirement of local gauge invariance leads to the introduction of gauge fields and determines the interactions mediated by those fields.

In order to understand this unification, we will start with a fermionic doublet representing an $SU(2)$ symmetry

$$\psi = \begin{pmatrix} \psi_1(x) \\ \psi_2(x) \end{pmatrix}, u_R, d_R \quad (2.13)$$

which transforms under the three dimensional rotation

$$\psi \rightarrow \exp \left(i\alpha^i \frac{\sigma_i}{2} \right) \psi \quad (2.14)$$

which is the three dimensional version of eq. and σ^i are the Pauli sigma matrices.

Just like in the previous section, we allow the parameter α to vary as a function of space-time so that

$$\psi(x) \rightarrow V(x)\psi(x) \quad (2.15)$$

, where $V(x) = \exp(i\alpha^i(x) \frac{\sigma_i}{2})$.

In order to keep the Lagrangian invariant under this transformation, we introduce three vector fields $A_\mu^i(x)$ and the covariant derivative

$$D_\mu = \partial_\mu - igA_\mu^i \frac{\sigma^i}{2} \quad (2.16)$$

and therefore

$$A_\mu^i(x) \frac{\sigma^i}{2} \rightarrow V(x) \left(A_\mu^i(x) \frac{\sigma^i}{2} + \frac{i}{g} \partial_\mu \right) V^\dagger(x) \quad (2.17)$$

To simplify this calculation, we can expand $V(x)$ to first order in α

$$A_\mu^i \frac{\sigma^i}{2} \rightarrow A_\mu^i \frac{\sigma^i}{2} + \frac{1}{g} (\partial_\mu \alpha^i) \frac{\sigma^i}{2} + i [\alpha^i \frac{\sigma^i}{2}, A_\mu^i \frac{\sigma^i}{2}] + \dots \quad (2.18)$$

The covariant derivative will have the form

$$D_\mu \psi \rightarrow (1 + i\alpha^i \frac{\sigma^i}{2}) D_\mu \psi \quad (2.19)$$

and the field strength tensor will be

$$F_{\mu\nu}^i = \partial_\mu A_\nu^i - \partial_\nu A_\mu^i + g\epsilon^{ijk} A_\mu^j A_\nu^k \quad (2.20)$$

We can then construct the Yang-Mills Lagrangian

$$\mathcal{L} = -\frac{1}{4} (F_{\mu\nu}^i)^2 + \bar{\psi} (i\gamma^\mu \partial_\mu - igA_\mu^i \frac{\sigma^i}{2}) \psi \quad (2.21)$$

Now we introduce the local gauge invariance requirement for the Lagrangian and introduce new gauge fields with their associated covariant derivatives.

But first, we should note that the SM fermions possess a fundamental property called chirality, which describes how a given particle's wave function behaves under rotation. In the SM, the left-handed components of the electron neutrino and electron are grouped into an SU(2) doublet. Since

the right-handed component of the electron is invariant under SU(2), it is placed in a singlet, i.e.:

$$L_e = \begin{pmatrix} \nu_e \\ e_L \end{pmatrix}, e_R \quad (2.22)$$

And so on for the heavier generations of leptons. So far, there is no evidence of right-handed neutrinos in the SM.

The kinetic energy term of the electroweak Lagrangian for first generation leptons can be represented by:

$$\mathcal{L}_{KE}^e = L_e^\dagger \tilde{\sigma}^\mu i \partial_\mu L_e + e_R^\dagger \sigma^\mu i \partial_\mu e_R \quad (2.23)$$

where $\sigma = (\sigma^0, \sigma^1, \sigma^2, \sigma^3)$, $\tilde{\sigma} = (\sigma^0, -\sigma^1, -\sigma^2, -\sigma^3)$, σ^0 is an identity matrix, and the σ^i are again the Pauli matrices. This Lagrangian is invariant under the global $SU(2)_L \times U(1)_Y$ transformation:

$$L \rightarrow L' = e^{i\theta} U L \quad (2.24)$$

$$e_R \rightarrow e'_R = e^{2i\theta} e_R \quad (2.25)$$

where

$$U = e^{-ia^k \sigma^k} \quad (2.26)$$

and θ and a^k are real numbers parameterizing the transformation.

However, the Lagrangian is not invariant under a transformation where these parameters are allowed to vary as a function of space-time, i.e. a local transformation.

Following the same reasoning as in the previous section, we can introduce gauge fields and replace the space-time derivatives with an appropriately chosen covariant derivative. This time, we introduce a U(1) gauge field $B_\mu(x)$ and three SU(2) gauge fields $W_\mu(x) = W_\mu^k(x) \sigma_k$. Such fields

must transform as

$$B_\mu(x) \rightarrow B'_\mu(x) = B_\mu(x) + \frac{2}{g_1} \partial_\mu \theta(x) \quad (2.27)$$

$$W_\mu(x) \rightarrow W'_\mu(x) = U(x)W_\mu(x)U^\dagger(x) + \frac{2i}{g_2}(\partial_\mu U(x))U^\dagger(x) \quad (2.28)$$

where g_1 and g_2 are dimensionless parameters of the theory, the coupling strengths of the interactions. The necessary covariant derivatives are given by

$$D_\mu L_e = (\partial_\mu + i\frac{g_1}{2}YB_\mu + i\frac{g_2}{2}W_\mu)L_e \quad (2.29)$$

$$D_\mu e_R = (\partial_\mu + i\frac{g_1}{2}YB_\mu)e_R \quad (2.30)$$

where Y is the weak hypercharge operator, whose eigenvalues are listed in Table 2.1. The weak hypercharge values can be calculated as $Y = 2(Q - T_3)$, where T_3 is the third component of the weak isospin quantum number T .

	Particle	Q	T_3	Y	B	L
Quarks	$q_L = \begin{pmatrix} u \\ d \end{pmatrix}_L$	$\begin{pmatrix} 2/3 \\ -1/3 \end{pmatrix}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1/2 \end{pmatrix}$	1/3	1/3	0
	u_R	2/3	0	4/3	1/3	0
	d_R	-1/3	0	-2/3	1/3	0
Leptons	$l_L = \begin{pmatrix} \nu_e \\ e \end{pmatrix}_L$	$\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1/2 \end{pmatrix}$	-1	0	1
	e_R	-1	0	-2	0	1

Table 2.1: Quantum numbers of the SM fermions

The covariant derivatives transform according to the same rule as the fields themselves. Combining the kinetic and gauge interaction terms of the Lagrangian yields

$$\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_{KE} + \mathcal{L}_{gauge} = L_e^\dagger \tilde{\sigma}^\mu i D_\mu L_e + e_R^\dagger \sigma^\mu i D_\mu e_R - \frac{1}{4} B_{\mu\nu} B^{\mu\nu} - \sum_{i=1}^3 \frac{1}{4} W_{\mu\nu}^i W^{i\mu\nu} \quad (2.31)$$

where $B_{\mu\nu} = \partial_\mu B_\nu - \partial_\nu B_\mu$ and $W_{\mu\nu} = [\partial_\mu + (\frac{ig_2}{2})W_\mu]W_\nu - [\partial_\nu + (\frac{ig_2}{2})W_\nu]W_\mu$ are the field strength tensors. This Lagrangian is now locally invariant.

The mediators of the electroweak force are the physical bosons W^\pm , the Z and the photon. All these are results of a combination of the newly introduced gauge fields.

- The W^\pm are linear combinations of the W_1 and W_2 , which are electrically charged and given by

$$W_\mu^\pm = \frac{W_\mu^1 \mp iW_\mu^2}{\sqrt{2}} \quad (2.32)$$

- The W_3 and B gauge fields are electrically neutral. The physical Z and photon are linear combinations of these fields, given by

$$Z_\mu = W_\mu^3 \cos\theta_W - B_\mu \sin\theta_W \quad (2.33)$$

$$A_\mu = W_\mu^3 \sin\theta_W - B_\mu \cos\theta_W \quad (2.34)$$

where the Weinberg angle θ_W is defined by $\sin\theta_W = g_1/\sqrt{g_1^2 + g_2^2}$.

The interactions contained in the Lagrangian couple the W^\pm bosons to the left-handed lepton components only, unlike the photon and Z bosons which couple to both the left- and right-handed components.

Furthermore, we can now assign a value to the electromagnetic charge e proportional to the interaction strength

$$g_2 \sin\theta_W = g_1 \cos\theta_W = e. \quad (2.35)$$

Finally, in order to include second and third generation leptons, the leptonic portion of the Lagrangian generalizes to

$$\mathcal{L}^l = \sum_{leptons} (L_e^\dagger \tilde{\sigma}^\mu i D_\mu L_e + e_R^\dagger \sigma^\mu i D_\mu e_R) - \frac{1}{4} B_{\mu\nu} B^{\mu\nu} - \sigma_{i=1}^3 \frac{1}{4} W_{\mu\nu}^i W^{i\mu\nu} \quad (2.36)$$

Quarks are included in the electroweak sector in a similar manner. The left-handed components of the u and d quark are placed in SU(2) doublets, and the right-handed components in singlets.

$$Q_u = \begin{pmatrix} u_L \\ d_L \end{pmatrix}, u_R, d_R \quad (2.37)$$

The second and third generation quarks can be represented in the same way. The covariant derivatives acting on the quark fields have the same form as those which act on the lepton fields. Therefore, the dynamic portion of the u and d quark Lagrangian is given by

$$\mathcal{L}_{KE}^q = \sum_{quarks} Q_u^\dagger \tilde{\sigma}^\mu i D_\mu Q_u + u_R^\dagger \sigma^\mu i D_\mu u_R + d_R^\dagger \sigma^\mu i D_\mu d_R \quad (2.38)$$

Again, the W bosons couple only to the left-handed quark components, while the Z and photon couple to the right-handed components as well.

The full electroweak Lagrangian is a result of the addition of the lepton and quark kinetic components, as well as the gauge interaction component.

$$\mathcal{L}^{EW} = \mathcal{L}_{KE}^l + \mathcal{L}_{KE}^q + \mathcal{L}_{gauge} \quad (2.39)$$

Here, we should point out that a couple of symmetries arise from the form of the Lagrangian in Equation 2.38 and its gauge invariance under transformation.

A U(1) transformation of the form $L_{e,\mu,\tau} \rightarrow e^{i\alpha} L_{e,\mu,\tau}$, $e, \mu, \tau_R \rightarrow e, \mu, \tau^{i\alpha} e, \mu, \tau_R$ leaves the Lagrangian invariant, which leads to conservation of lepton number. Additionally, a U(1) transformation multiplying all negatively (positively) charged fields by $e^{i\alpha} (e^{-i\alpha})$ leaves the Lagrangian invariant, and implies conservation of electric charge.

On the other hand, the EW Lagrangian is not invariant under charge conjugation C or a parity transformation P . Charge conjugation is the operation of changing the sign of all discrete quantum numbers, or equivalently exchanging all particles with antiparticles and vice-versa. A parity transformation is the inversion of spatial coordinates, $r \rightarrow -r$. The neutral current interactions, mediated by the Z and photon, preserve combined CP invariance. However, combined CP symmetry is violated by weak current interactions, mediated by the W^\pm , in the quark sector. A third important potential symmetry is time reversal T , where $t \rightarrow -t$. Combined CPT invariance is required to maintain Lorentz invariance. Therefore, the breaking of CP also implied the breaking of T symmetry.

Although CP is not conserved, there is good reason to believe that all interactions are invariant under the combined operation of CPT , taken in any order. This result is called the CPT theorem and can be shown to hold in any relativistic quantum theory in which signals cannot propagate faster than the speed of light.

2.3.3 Strong Interaction

Quantum Chromodynamics is the theory that describes the interaction between quarks via the strong force. It is represented by a local $SU(3)_C$ gauge symmetry and the interaction mediator is the gluon.

Associated with the $SU(3)_C$ symmetry are several conserved quantum numbers, called color charges, which play a similar role in strong interactions to that played by e in electromagnetic interactions. Color charges can be green, red, and blue but only color neutral (or colorless) hadrons are allowed in nature. Baryons contain equal parts of each color and mesons contain color-anticolor pairs.

In QCD, quarks are represented in this theory as color triplets

$$q_u = \begin{pmatrix} u_r \\ u_g \\ u_b \end{pmatrix} \quad (2.40)$$

and gluons contain two color charges. The eight known combinations of color charges for the gluon are represented by eight gauge fields that will be introduced below.

As in the previous sections, we start building the interaction from an $SU(3)$ Lagrangian that is globally invariant in the form

$$\mathcal{L}_{QCD}^q = \sum_{i=1}^6 \bar{q}_i i \gamma^\mu \partial_\mu q_i \quad (2.41)$$

This Lagrangian is invariant under a transformation of the form $q_i \rightarrow q'_i = U q_i$ where U is a member of $SU(3)$. If we allow for a transformation of the form $U(x)$, the Lagrangian is no longer invariant. To return invariance, we introduce 8 gauge fields ($G_\mu(x)$), which represent the gluons and an appropriate covariant derivative.

The transformation of the gauge fields and the covariant derivative will take the form:

$$G_\mu \rightarrow G'_\mu = U G_\mu U^\dagger + \frac{i}{g_s} (\partial_\mu U) U^\dagger \quad (2.42)$$

$$D_\mu q_i = (\partial_\mu + i g_s G_\mu) q_i \quad (2.43)$$

where g_s is the dimensionless coupling strength of the color interaction.

The field strength tensor for QCD is:

$$G_{\mu\nu} = \partial_\mu G_\nu - \partial_\nu G_\mu + i g_s (G_\mu G_\nu - G_\nu G_\mu) \quad (2.44)$$

and the locally $SU(3)$ gauge invariant QCD Lagrangian is then given as:

$$\mathcal{L}_{QCD}^q = \sum_{i=1}^6 (\bar{q}_i i \gamma^\mu D_\mu q_i) - \frac{1}{4} \sum_{i=1}^8 G_{\mu\nu}^i G^{i\mu\nu} \quad (2.45)$$

In contrast to the EW interaction, C,P, and T are all conserved. The Strong force interaction range is about 10^{-15} which is enough to act on nucleons, i.e. protons and neutrons to form atomic nuclei.

QCD is a strongly coupled theory at low energies and large distance scales, but weakly interacting at high energies and small distance scales. This fact is responsible for the hadronic bound states of quarks. At low energy scales, i.e. the non-perturbative regime, QCD calculations are extremely difficult and techniques as lattice gauge theory must be exploited. On the other hand, at a high energy scale, or equivalently small distance scales, the strong interaction becomes weakly interacting and quarks are effectively free. In this regime the usual techniques of perturbation theory can be used, allowing high-precision calculations.

2.3.4 Brout-Englert-Higgs Mechanism and the Higgs Boson

As we have seen from the previous section, the EW and QCD Lagrangians do not contain any mass terms. Gauge invariance seems to imply that the spin-1 gauge bosons have zero masses. This is acceptable for QED and QCD, where the gauge bosons are the photons and the gluons, which do indeed have zero mass. However, the W^\pm and Z^0 bosons are very heavy, and therefore, not massless as they would if gauge invariance was exact.

This problem is overcome by introducing the Brout-Englert-Higgs (BEH) mechanism which postulates that the various [articles in the SM interact with a new type of scalar field, the Higgs field(s). This field differs from others in its behavior in the so-called vacuum state by having a non-zero value, unlike the other fields introduced previously. The value v is not invariant under a gauge transformation, and will spontaneously break the symmetry of the Lagrangian in a process we will refer to as spontaneous electroweak symmetry breaking (EWSB).

The Goldstone theorem tells us that for every spontaneously broken continuous symmetry there will be a new massive scalar "Goldstone" boson. The number of new bosons will be equal to the number of broken generators of the symmetry group. The massless SM bosons then acquire mass by absorbing these Goldstone bosons.

The BEH mechanism is also used to generate mass for the quarks and electrically charged leptons. The neutrinos, photon, and gluons remain massless, as observed experimentally.

Remember from previous section that there are four massless electroweak gauge bosons, W^1, W^2, W^3 , and B^0 . The experimentally observed bosons, however, are the massless photon, and three massive

bosons (the W^\pm and Z). We also know that electric charge Q is conserved in electroweak interactions. This means that the $SU(2)_L \times U(1)_Y$ electroweak theory is broken such that a new $U(1)_{EM}$ symmetry group is formed which corresponds to electromagnetism.

In order for three gauge bosons to acquire mass they must absorb three Goldstone bosons. The simplest method to accomplish this is to introduce a complex, scalar $SU(2)$ doublet Φ with hypercharge $Y = 1$.

$$\Phi = \begin{pmatrix} \Phi_A \\ \Phi_B \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \phi_1 \\ i\phi_2 \\ \phi_3 \\ i\phi_4 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (2.46)$$

The part of the SM Lagrangian which includes the electroweak gauge bosons and the leptons can be written as

$$\mathcal{L}_{SM} = -\frac{1}{4}W_{\mu\nu}^a W_a^{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{4}B_{\mu\nu}B^{\mu\nu} + \bar{L}_i(iD_\mu\gamma^\mu)L_i + \bar{e}_{R,i}(iD_\mu\gamma^\mu)e_{R,i} \quad (2.47)$$

where i runs over the three generations, μ and ν are Lorentz indices, and a runs over the generators in the gauge group. The field strengths are given by

$$W_{\mu\nu}^a = \partial_\mu W_\nu^a - \partial_\nu W_\mu^a + g_2\epsilon^{abc}W_\mu^b W_\nu^c \quad (2.48)$$

$$B_{\mu\nu} = \partial_\mu B_\nu - \partial_\nu B_\mu \quad (2.49)$$

and the covariant derivatives for the left- and right-handed leptons are

$$D_\mu L_L = (\partial_\mu - ig_2 T_a W_\mu^a - ig_1 Y B_\mu)L_L \quad (2.50)$$

$$D_\mu e_R = (\partial_\mu - ig_1 Y B_\mu)e_R \quad (2.51)$$

where T_a are the generators of the $SU(2)_L$ gauge group and g_1, g_2 are the coupling constants for the electroweak interaction.

The scalar part of the Lagrangian required by the addition of a scalar field is then

$$\mathcal{L}_S = (D_\mu \Phi)^\dagger (D^\mu \Phi) - V(\Phi^\dagger \Phi) \quad (2.52)$$

where the first term is the kinetic term and the second term is the scalar potential. While the form of the scalar potential is not known from first principles, we can make the assumption that it takes the simplest form possible which has the desired properties of spontaneous symmetry breaking and the ability to be renormalized. Then

$$V(\Phi^\dagger \Phi) = \mu^2 \Phi^\dagger \Phi + \lambda (\Phi^\dagger \Phi)^2 \quad (2.53)$$

The value of λ must be positive in order for the vacuum to be stable. The sign of μ^2 specifies one of two cases for the potential.

- When $\mu^2 > 0$, the potential $V(\Phi)$ is always positive and has a minimum at

$$\langle 0 | \Phi | 0 \rangle \equiv \Phi_0 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (2.54)$$

where no spontaneous symmetry breaking can occur.

- When $\mu^2 < 0$ the potential has a minimum value not located at the origin. In this case, the neutral component of the scalar field will acquire a vacuum expectation value v

$$\langle 0 | \Phi | 0 \rangle = \Phi_0 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ v \end{pmatrix} \quad (2.55)$$

where $v = \sqrt{\frac{-\mu^2}{\lambda}}$

By only adding a vev to the neutral component of the scalar field, electromagnetism is unbroken and the $U(1)_{EM}$ symmetry keeps a conserved electric charge $Q = T_3 + \frac{Y}{2}$.

We can then expand the scalar field Φ around the minimum Φ_0 to get

$$\Phi(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ v + h(x) \end{pmatrix} \quad (2.56)$$

where $h(x)$ is a new scalar field.

Next we insert this field into the kinetic part of the Lagrangian and redefine the gauge fields as

$$W_\mu^\pm = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(W_\mu^1 \mp iW_\mu^2) \quad (2.57)$$

$$Z_\mu = \frac{1}{\sqrt{g_1^2 + g_2^2}}(g_2 W_\mu^3 - g_1 B_\mu) \quad (2.58)$$

$$A_\mu = \frac{1}{\sqrt{g_1^2 + g_2^2}}(g_2 W_\mu^3 + g_1 B_\mu) \quad (2.59)$$

which correspond to the observed gauge bosons.

After this the covariant derivative becomes

$$|D_\mu \Phi|^2 = \frac{1}{2}(\partial_\mu H)^2 + \frac{1}{2}g_2^2(v + H)^2 W_\mu^+ W^{\mu-} + \frac{1}{8}(v + H)^2(g_1^2 + g_2^2)Z_\mu Z^\mu \quad (2.60)$$

From here we can see that the photon A_μ remains massless, but that the mass terms for the W and Z bosons take the general forms $M_W^2 W_\mu W^\mu$ and $M_Z^2 Z_\mu Z^\mu/2$ respectively.

Thus the masses of the electroweak gauge bosons are

$$M_W = \frac{1}{2}vg_2 \quad (2.61)$$

$$M_Z = \frac{1}{2}v\sqrt{g_1^2 + g_2^2} \quad (2.62)$$

$$M_A = 0 \quad (2.63)$$

Three of the degrees of freedom from the scalar field, which would have been two charged and one neutral Goldstone boson, have been absorbed by the gauge bosons in order to give them mass. There is one remaining degree of freedom, an oscillation in the radial direction of the scalar potential, which corresponds to the neutral Higgs boson.

Finally, fermions acquire mass by adding couplings between the fermion fields and the scalar field to the SM Lagrangian. The part of the Lagrangian that corresponds to the first generation fermions is given by

$$\mathcal{L}_F = -G_e \bar{L} \Phi e_R - G_d \bar{Q} \Phi d_R - G_u \bar{Q} \tilde{\Phi} u_R + h.c. \quad (2.64)$$

where $\tilde{\Phi} = i\tau_2 \Phi^*$ is the conjugate of Φ with negative hypercharge.

There are additional terms added to the full Lagrangian which correspond to the second and third generations which are not shown here.

By substituting Φ into the previous Lagrangian we find

$$\mathcal{L}_F = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} [G_e \begin{pmatrix} \bar{\nu} & \bar{e} \end{pmatrix}_L \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ v+H \end{pmatrix} e_R + G_d \begin{pmatrix} \bar{u} & \bar{d} \end{pmatrix}_L \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ v+H \end{pmatrix} d_R + G_u \begin{pmatrix} \bar{u} & \bar{d} \end{pmatrix}_L \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ v+H \end{pmatrix} u_R] + h.c. \quad (2.65)$$

$$= -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (v+H) (G_e \bar{e}_L e_R + G_d \bar{d}_L d_R + G_u \bar{u}_L u_R) + h.c. \quad (2.66)$$

where $h.c.$ is a placeholder for the hermitian conjugate terms.

The fermion masses take the form $m \bar{f}_L f_R + h.c.$, which means that the fermion masses for the first generation are

$$m_e = \frac{G_e v}{\sqrt{2}}, m_u = \frac{G_u v}{\sqrt{2}}, m_d = \frac{G_d v}{\sqrt{2}} \quad (2.67)$$

The second and third generations have similar mass terms. For the case of the neutrinos, since there is no right handed neutrino in the SM the neutrinos that do exist remain massless.

Finally, the coupling constants, G , and the fermion masses are not predicted by the SM, so they must be measured and added to the model.

2.4 Beyond the Standard Model

The SM evolved in response to a series of experimental discoveries over a period of several decades, and it turned out to be a remarkably successful theory. At the present time, provided non-zero neutrino masses are incorporated, all experimental observations in particle physics are consistent with the SM, but there is no reason to suppose that there will not be more surprises in the future, as higher energy regions are explored.

Also, there are a few experimental hints which suggest that the SM may not be a complete theory of nature. For example, there is strong evidence that the particles of the SM can only account for a small fraction of the matter in the Universe, and the observed predominance of matter over antimatter cannot be understood in the framework of the SM.

Moreover, although evidence has recently been reported for the existence of gravitational waves, which are a necessary consequence of any quantum theory of gravity, we have no consistent theory of quantum gravity.

Finally, the SM itself embodies many assumptions and more than twenty free parameters, giving rise to many questions like

- Can the number of parameters be reduced?
- Why are there three families of quarks and leptons, rather than just the one that is required to describe "ordinary matter", i.e. the neutrons and protons?
- Are the quarks really point-like particles, or will they turn out to be composite when we are able to explore a higher energy regime?
- Why does the weak interaction violate CP invariance, but not the strong interaction?

Many theories have been proposed to try to answer these and other questions, and a few experimental programmes have been set up to test them.

2.5 Lepton universality

All known experimental data are consistent with the assumption that the interactions of the electron and its neutrino are identical with those of the muon and its associated neutrino and the tau and its neutrino, provided the mass differences are taken into account. This fundamental assumption is called the universality of lepton interactions.

We will illustrate universality of this rule by looking at the leptonic decays [1]

$$\mu^+ \rightarrow e^+ + \nu_e + \bar{\nu}_\mu, \quad (2.68)$$

$$\mu^- \rightarrow e^- + \bar{\nu}_e + \nu_\mu, \quad (2.69)$$

$$\tau^- \rightarrow \mu^- + \bar{\nu}_\mu + \nu_\tau, \text{ and} \quad (2.70)$$

$$\tau^- \rightarrow e^- + \bar{\nu}_e + \nu_\tau \quad (2.71)$$

of the muon and tau leptons at rest.

To simplify the calculation, we will work to lowest order only and we will use the zero-range approximation (a zero-range point interaction with strength equal to the Fermi constant $G_F = 1.66 \times 10^{-5} GeV^{-2}$), since the masses of the leptons are very small compared with the rest energy of the W bosons mediating the weak interaction.

We start by considering the muon decay whose rate has the form (in the zero-range approximation)

$$\Gamma(\mu^- \rightarrow e^- + \bar{\nu}_e + \nu_\mu) = KG_F^2 m_\mu^5 \quad (2.72)$$

since we are assuming the electron and neutrino masses are zero. Here, K is a dimensionless constant whose value will depend on the precise form of the interaction. If we assume this is the same for muon and tau leptons the same argument gives

$$\Gamma(\tau^- \rightarrow e^- + \bar{\nu}_e + \nu_\tau) = KG_F^2 m_\tau^5 \quad (2.73)$$

Likewise, $e - \mu$ universality gives

$$\Gamma(\tau^- \rightarrow e^- + \bar{\nu}_e + \nu_\tau) = \Gamma(\tau^- \rightarrow \mu^- + \bar{\nu}_\mu + \nu_\tau) \quad (2.74)$$

This explains why the experimental branching ratios for the two leptonic decay modes of the tau lepton are, to a good approximation, equal. A full calculation, taking into account final state masses, gives the ratio $\Gamma(\tau^- \rightarrow \mu^- + \bar{\nu}_\mu + \nu_\tau)/\Gamma(\tau^- \rightarrow e^- + \bar{\nu}_e + \nu_\tau) = 0.973$, whereas the experimental value is 0.976 ± 0.003 .

It also gives a relation between the μ and τ lifetimes

$$\tau_l = \frac{1}{\Gamma_{tot}} = \frac{B(l^- \rightarrow e^- \bar{\nu}_e \nu_l)}{\Gamma(l^- \rightarrow e^- \bar{\nu}_e \nu_l)} \quad (2.75)$$

where l can be the μ or τ lepton and Γ_{tot} is the total decay rate and therefore

$$B(l^- \rightarrow e^- \bar{\nu}_e \nu_l) = \frac{\Gamma(l^- \rightarrow e^- \bar{\nu}_e \nu_l)}{\Gamma_{tot}} \quad (2.76)$$

is the branching ratio. Experimentally, $B = 1$ and 0.1783 ± 0.0004 for $l = \mu$ and τ . Thus from 2.68 and 2.72 we have

$$\frac{\tau_\tau}{\tau_\mu} = \frac{B(\tau^- \rightarrow e^- \bar{\nu}_e \nu_\tau)}{B(\mu^- \rightarrow e^- \bar{\nu}_e \nu_\mu)} \left(\frac{m_\nu}{m_\tau}\right)^5 = (1.326 \pm 0.003) \times 10^{-7} \quad (2.77)$$

This agreement, involving lifetimes that differ by seven orders of magnitude, is impressive evidence of the universality of lepton interactions.

2.6 B-hadron anomalies

So far, no definite violation of lepton universality has been observed. However, the wealth of data on rare leptonic and semileptonic b hadron decays that have been accumulated at the LHC so

far seem to challenge the rule.

In particular, current data on rare $b \rightarrow sll$ decays show an intriguing pattern of deviations from the SM predictions both for branching ratios [2], [3],[4],[5] and angular distributions[6], [7], [8].

The latest global fits find that data consistently points with high significance to a non-standard effect that can be described by a four-fermion contact interaction[9]

$$C_9(\bar{s}\gamma^\nu P_L b)(\bar{\mu}\gamma_\nu \mu). \quad (2.78)$$

Nonetheless, the main obstacle towards conclusively establishing a beyond-SM effect is the inability to exclude large hadronic effects as the origin of the apparent discrepancies. In this respect, observables in $b \rightarrow sll$ transitions that are practically free of hadronic uncertainties are of particular interest. Among them are lepton flavor universality ratios such as the branching ratios $R_K = \frac{BR(B^+ \rightarrow K^+ \mu^+ \mu^-)}{BR(B^+ \rightarrow K^+ e^+ e^-)}$ and $R_{K^*} = \frac{BR(B^+ \rightarrow K^* \mu^+ \mu^-)}{BR(B^+ \rightarrow K^* e^+ e^-)}$.

In the SM, the only sources of lepton flavor universality violation are the leptonic Yukawa couplings, which are responsible for both the charged lepton masses and their interactions with the Higgs. Neutrino masses provide another source of lepton flavor nonuniversality, but their effects are negligible. However, Higgs interactions do not lead to any observable effects in rare b decays and lepton mass effects become relevant only for a very small dilepton invariant mass squared (q^2) close to the kinematic limit $q^2 \sim 4m_l^2$.

Over a broad range of q^2 the SM accurately predicts $R_k = R_{k^*} = 1$, with theoretical uncertainties on the order of 1%[10] which contradict experimental results which show a deviation from the expected SM value in the 2.4-2.6 σ range. A more recent study[11], [12] combined the results for R_K and R_{K^*} , resulting in a 4σ deviation from the SM.

2.6.1 $b \rightarrow s$ quark transitions

As we have seen from the previous section, over the last few years, many observables related to the flavour-changing neutral-current transitions $b \rightarrow l^+ l^-$ have exhibited deviations from SM expectations. Therefore, in this section, we will take a closer look at these transitions and their

sensitivity to potential new physics.

A $b \rightarrow s$ quark transition is an example of a flavour-changing neutral current process[13]. In such process, the s and b quark interact via a quantum-loop transition involving predominantly a W boson and either and up, charm, or top quark as shown in 2.1.

Within the SM, the lowest order processes that could mediate the $b \rightarrow s$ quark transitions are at least of third order and are suppressed by angular momentum conservation and by the chiral nature of the weak force. This suppression is not necessarily present for new-physics particles and that's what makes the study of this decay of particular interest in probing for physics beyond the SM.

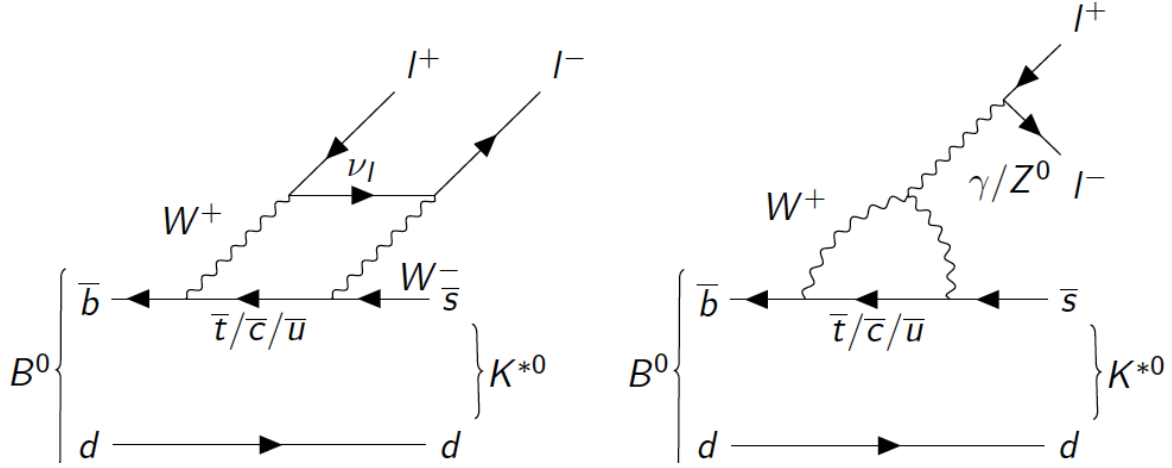


Figure 2.1: Lowest order Feynmann diagrams for $b \rightarrow s$ quark transition.

2.7 The Z'

There is a multitude of new-physics models that could explain some or all of the b decay anomalies. One example of an extension to the SM that could explain these deviations involves a heavy version of the Z boson, denoted Z' [14]. Such an extension to the model must satisfy direct searches for such particles at the CMS[15], [16] and ATLAS [17] experiments, which in practice means either that the Z' candidate must be at least 30 times heavier than the SM Z boson, or that it must have small couplings to the up and down quarks. If the Z' is very heavy, it would not have a

sizable impact on the decay compared with the SM contribution, unless it could change the flavour of quarks directly without going through a quantum-loop transition.

A generic framework of a minimal extension to the SM which explains B anomalies has been introduced in [18] and we collect here only those formulae of that paper that are essential for our study. The new physics contribution to rare B decays can be described by the following effective Lagrangian

$$\mathcal{L} \supset \frac{4G_F}{\sqrt{2}} V_{tb} V_{ts}^* \frac{e^2}{16\Pi^2} C_9 O_9 + h.c. \quad (2.79)$$

where C_9 is a Wilson coefficient and the effective operator O_9 ,

$$O_9 = (\bar{s}\gamma_\mu P_L b)(\bar{\mu}\gamma^\mu \mu) \quad (2.80)$$

describes a four-fermion interaction, with a left-handed $b - s$ current and a vector current for μ . To fit the current data [19], the new physics contribution to C_9 needs to be $-1.59^{+0.46}_{-0.56}$.

In this model, an extra $U(1)$ gauge group has been introduced, resulting in a new gauge boson, the Z' . This newly introduced particle would have a flavor changing quark coupling δ_{bs} and a nonuniversal lepton coupling.

Including the contribution from 2.79, the dominant terms in the Lagrangian that is allowed by all the existing constraints in order to address the anomalies is then

$$\mathcal{L} \supset Z'_\mu [g_\mu \bar{\mu}\gamma^\mu \mu + g_\mu \bar{\nu}_\mu \gamma^\mu P_L \nu_\mu + g_b \sum_{q=t,b} \bar{q}\gamma^\mu P_L q (g_b \delta_{bs} \bar{s}\gamma^\mu P_L b + h.c.)] \quad (2.81)$$

The Z' mass is constrained to be less than 5.5(10) TeV in the $1(2)\sigma$ range to explain the B anomalies. It can be as light as 100 GeV while still satisfying B anomalies and other constraints[20].

2.7.1 4b Bottom Fermion Fusion

As shown in 2.81, the Z' does not significantly couple to first or second generation quarks, which could explain why it has not been observed experimentally yet. However, the Z' can be

produced through its couplings to b quarks originating either from sea quarks, or gluon-splitting.

Therefore, the Z' is associated either with two one, or no b -jets depending on the number of quarks from gluon splitting. The Z' can decay into pairs of b quarks, muons, muon neutrinos, and, if kinematically allowed, top quarks.

The relevant final states at the LHC are dimuon or di- b resonances. The cross sections behave as follows:

$$\sigma(pp \rightarrow Z' \rightarrow \mu\mu) \propto 2g_b^2(1 + k\delta_{bs}^2)g_\mu^2 \quad (2.82)$$

$$\sigma(pp \rightarrow Z' \rightarrow b\bar{b}) \propto 3g_b^4(1 + k\delta_{bs}^2) \quad (2.83)$$

where k contains the s -quark PDF effect since the production of Z' may occur through bs fusion.

For this analysis, we consider the special case when the Z' is associated with two b -jets coming from gluon splitting (a process we will refer to as Bottom Fermion fusion (BFF) (see Figure 2.2)) and has a di- b jet final state.

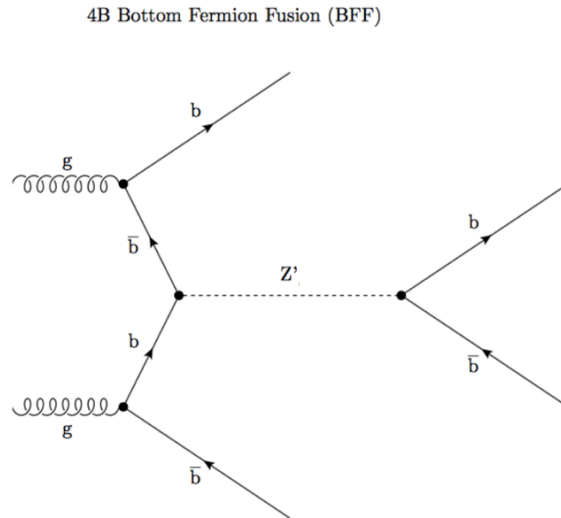


Figure 2.2: Feynman diagram for bottom fermion fusion (BFF).

2.7.2 Flavour-violating coupling δ_{bs}

In order to provide an explanation for B-decay anomalies, we need to consider the flavour-violating coupling δ_{bs} . Allowing the Z' boson to couple to s quarks in addition to b quarks results in two times more ways to produce the Z' and two times more ways for it to decay. A non-zero δ_{bs} will allow the Z' s to be produced by b and \bar{s} quarks (in addition to $b\bar{b}$ ones) and this significantly enhances the production cross section.

Also, we can see from 2.83 and 2.82 that when δ_{bs} goes to zero, the flavor conserving contribution dominates the production of Z' . Likewise, when δ_{bs} is large but still satisfies the B anomalies (so smaller g_b) the flavor violating contribution dominates.

3. The LHC and CMS Detector

3.1 The Large Hadron Collider

The Large Hadron Collider (LHC) [21] experiment at the European ORganization for Nuclear Research (CERN) is the world's largest and most powerful particle accelerator in operation today. Located at the border between Switzerland and France, it consists of a 27-km circumference ring of superconducting magnets and accelerating structures.

Within the ring, protons are accelerated to a speed close to that of light and made to collide at 4 points:

- CMS (Compact Muon Solenoid) [22],
- ATLAS (A Toroidal LHC ApparatuS) [23],
- ALICE (A Large Ion Collider Experiment) [24],
- and LHCb (Large Hadron Collider beauty) [25].

ATLAS and CMS are the two general-purpose particle detectors located at opposite sides on the LHC ring. These are "onion-type" detectors in the sense that their general layout surrounds the interaction point with sub-detector systems aimed to measure a specific property of the particle to be detected.

The other two detectors, ALICE and LHCb are designed for specific purposes, like studying heavy-ion collisions and performing precision measurements of CP-violation and the physics of B-mesons, respectively. For this study we are going use data collected by the CMS experiment.

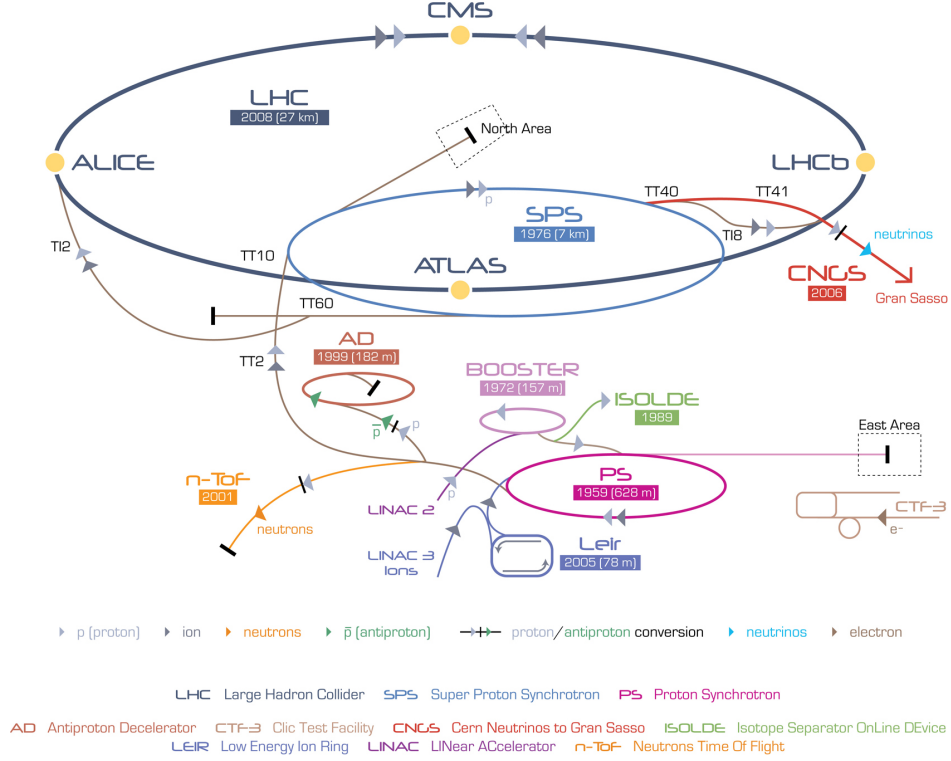


Figure 3.1: Schematic diagram for the LHC experiment at CERN. Retrieved from [26].

According to Einstein's famous equation $E = mc^2$, energy and mass are interchangeable. Therefore in order to produce heavy particles, a large amount of energy is required. The LHC was designed to produce highly energetic proton-proton, lead-proton or lead-lead beam collisions in which a variety of elementary particles can be produced.

Therefore, the two most important features of a particle accelerator are its center of mass energy and its instantaneous luminosity (\mathcal{L}). The latter provides a measurement of the number of collisions that can be produced in the accelerator per squared centimeter and per second.

For a given process, the number of interactions (N) is the product of \mathcal{L} integrated over the data taking time period and the cross section for the process in question (σ_{ref}):

$$N = \sigma_{ref} \int \mathcal{L}(t) dt \quad (3.1)$$

Now, the beams circulating the LHC ring are not continuous streams of particles, but rather trains of regularly spaced proton bunches. The experiment was designed to operate with 2,808 bunches of protons per beam, containing about 1.5×10^{11} protons per bunch separated by 25 ns, corresponding to a collision frequency of 40 MHz.

The LHC was planned to start in September 2008, but due to an incident damaging the machine, this was not the case. The startup was delayed until November 23, 2009. Through its 2010-2011 run, the LHC operated at a center-of-mass energy of 7 TeV. Then in 2012, the energy was increased to 8 TeV, and again to 13 TeV in 2015, after a shutdown in 2013 that lasted two years.

3.2 The CMS Detector

The central feature of the CMS apparatus is a superconducting solenoid of 6m internal diameter, providing a magnetic field of 3.8 T. The solenoidal volume contains a silicon pixel and strip tracker, a lead tungstate crystal EM calorimeter. Each layer of the detector exploits a property of the particle to be detected to measure its energy or its momentum. An unusual feature of the CMS detector is that instead of being built on site like other giant detectors of the LHC experiment, it was constructed in 15 sections at ground level before being lowered into an underground cavern near Cessy in France and reassembled. The complete detector is 21 meters long, 12 meters wide and 15 meters high.

The goals of the physics program range from studying the SM (including the Higgs boson) to searching for extra dimensions and particles that could make up dark matter. It even has a very successful heavy ion program.

The layout of the detector can be seen in Figure 3.2. The following sections will describe each of the sub-detectors and its properties.

CMS Detector

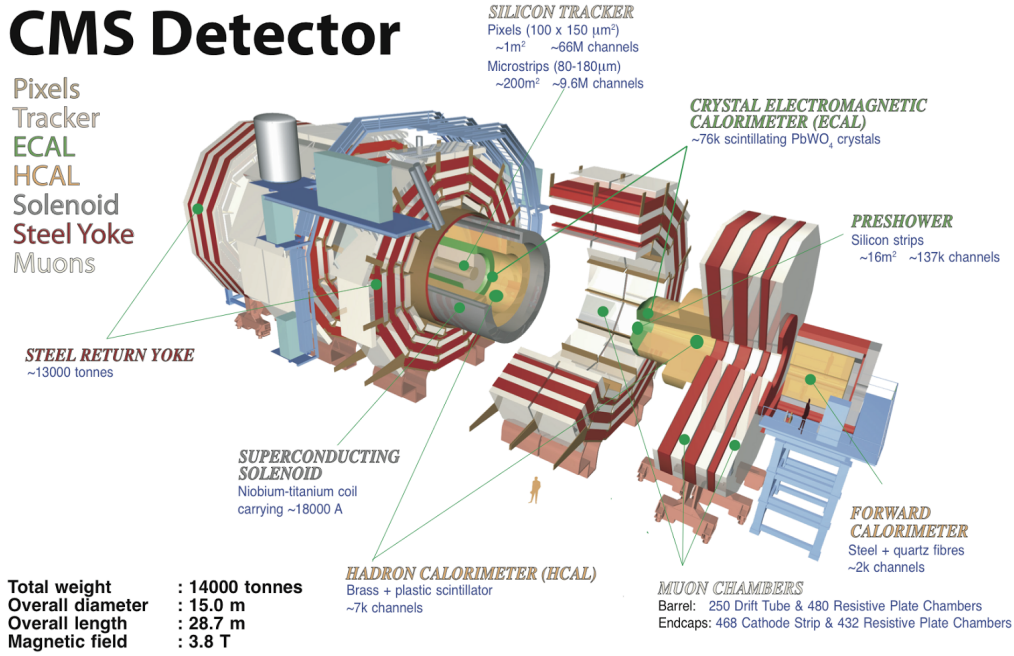


Figure 3.2: Schematic diagram for the CMS experiment with its sub-detector systems and a person for scale. Retrieved from [27].

3.2.1 Coordinate System

The CMS experiment uses a right-handed coordinate system, with the origin at the nominal collision point, the x - axis pointing to the center of the LHC ring, the y - axis pointing up (perpendicular to the LHC plane), and the z - axis along the anticlockwise beam direction. The polar angle(θ) is measured from the positive z - axis and the azimuthal angle(ϕ) is measured from the positive x - axis in the $x - y$ plane. The radius(r) denotes the distance from the z - axis and the pseudorapidity(η) is defined as $\eta = -\log[\tan(\theta/2)]$. η is preferently used by particle physicists to measure forward-ness of particles in the detector since any differences in this coordinate are invariant under boosts in the z -direction and particle production is roughly uniform in η . See Figure 3.3 for reference.

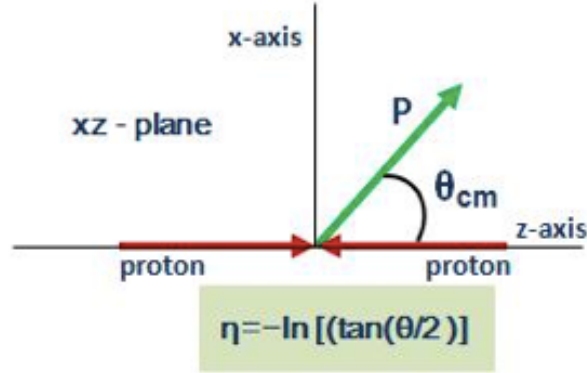


Figure 3.3: Diagram for the CMS detector coordinate system.

3.2.2 Tracker and Pixel Detector

Momentum analysis in CMS makes use of the magnetic field provided by its super-conducting solenoid around which the entire experiment is built. The tracker sub-detector is not only able to measure the momentum of charged particles but also determines their direction at their production vertex.

The Tracker is the inner most layer of the detector and receives the highest volume of particles and therefore the construction materials were carefully chosen to resist radiation. It consists of a subsystem made entirely of silicon: the pixels, at the very core of the detector and dealing with the highest intensity of particles, and the silicon micro-strip detectors that surround it. In total, the sub-detector is 5.8 long and 2.5 m in diameter with an ability to measure the momentum of charged particles in the region $|\eta| < 2.5$. Figure 3.4 shows the layout of the tracker and its subsystems.

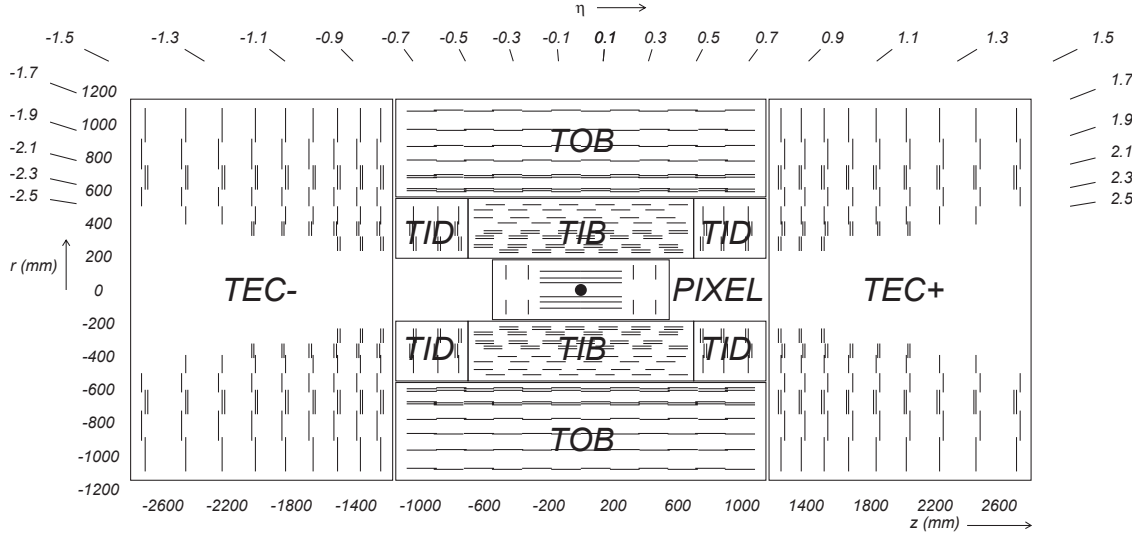


Figure 3.4: Layout of the CMS detector tracker with subsystems labeled.

The pixel detector is made up of three barrel layers, called BPIX, and two endcap layers called the FPIX. The BPIX contains 48 million pixels and the FPIX contains another 18 million pixels. In total it consists of 1440 hybrid silicon detector modules, each with a dimension of $100 \times 150 \mu m^2$. The small pixel size enables track resolutions of $10 \mu m$ in the transverse plane and $20 \mu m$ in the z -direction. The pixel detector is what gives CMS its excellent secondary vertex tagging ability in addition to producing seed tracks for the strip tracker and the high level trigger.

Likewise, the silicon strip detector is made up of four subsystems. The Tracker Inner Barrel (TIB) has four layers of $320 \mu m$ strips. At each end of the TIB is a three-layer Tracker Inner Disks (TID), which contains strips of the same thickness. The Tracker Outer Barrel (TOB) is the six layer system which surrounds the TIB/TID. The first four layers of the TOB use $500 \mu m$ thick strips, and the last two layers use $122 \mu m$ thick strips. The Tracker EndCaps (TEC) are on either side of the previous setup and contain nine disks with up to seven layers of strips. These strips are $320 \mu m$ thick in the inner four rings and $500 \mu m$ in the outer three rings. In total, the strip detector contains 9.3 million silicon strips.

3.2.3 Electromagnetic Calorimeter

The electromagnetic calorimeter (ECAL) is a homogeneous calorimeter made out of lead tungstate ($PbWO_4$) crystals totaling 75,848 units. The detector is divided up into two sections which provide a coverage of $|\eta| < 1.479$ in the barrel region (EB) and $1.479 < |\theta| < 3.0$ in two endcap regions (EE). There are also preshower detectors (PS) in each of the endcaps, in front of the EE, which cover a pseudorapidity range of $1.653 < |\eta| < 2.6$. Figure 3.5 shows the structure of the ECAL.

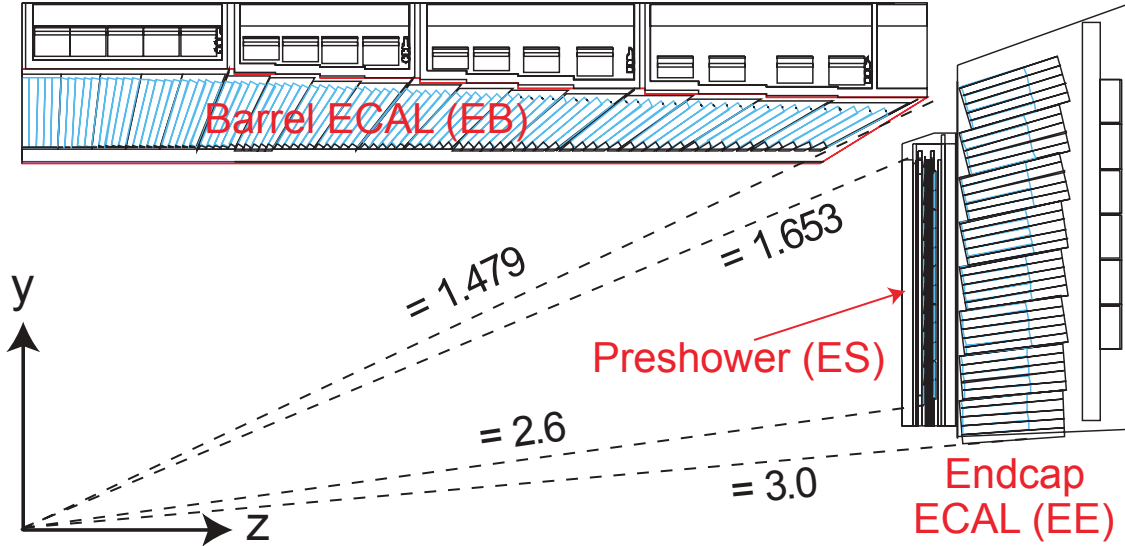


Figure 3.5: A schematic of the CMS ECAL detector with its subsystems labeled.

Each calorimeter crystal has a depth of 230 mm, which corresponds to 25.8 radiation lengths (X_0) for $PbWO_4$. The scintillation light produced in the crystals is read out by avalanche photodiodes (APDs), which produce approximately 4.5 photoelectrons per MeV at room temperature.

The energy resolution (σ) is typically parameterized according to

$$\left(\frac{\sigma_E}{E}\right)^2 = \left(\frac{N}{E[GeV]}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{S}{\sqrt{E[GeV]}}\right)^2 + C^2 \quad (3.2)$$

where N is a term representing a contribution due to electronic and pileup noise, S is the stochastic contribution to mis-measurement, and C is the constant term.

3.2.4 Hadron Calorimeter

The CMS hadron calorimeter (HCAL) is a sampling calorimeter, meaning it finds a particle's position, energy and arrival time using alternating layers of "absorber" and fluorescent "scintillator" materials that produce a rapid light pulse when the particle passes through. Special optic fibers collect up this light and feed it into readout boxes where photodetectors amplify the signal. Then the amount of light in a given region is summed up over many layers of tiles in depth, called a "tower", this total amount of light is a measure of a particle's energy. The HCAL is organized into barrel (HB and HO), endcap (HE), and forward (HF). There are 36 barrel "wedges", each weighting 26 tonnes. These form the last layer of detector inside the magnetic coil whilst a few additional layers, the outer barrel (HO), sit outside the coil, ensuring no energy leaks out the back of the HB undetected. Similarly, 36 endcap wedges measure particle energies as they emerge through the ends of the solenoid magnet.

Lastly, the two hadronic forward calorimeters (HF) are positioned at either end of CMS, to pick up the myriad particles coming out of the collision region at shallow angles relative to the beam line. These receive the bulk of the particle energy contained in the collision so must be very radiation resistant and use different materials than the other parts of the HCAL.

Figure 3.6 shows the structure and position of the HCAL subsystems.

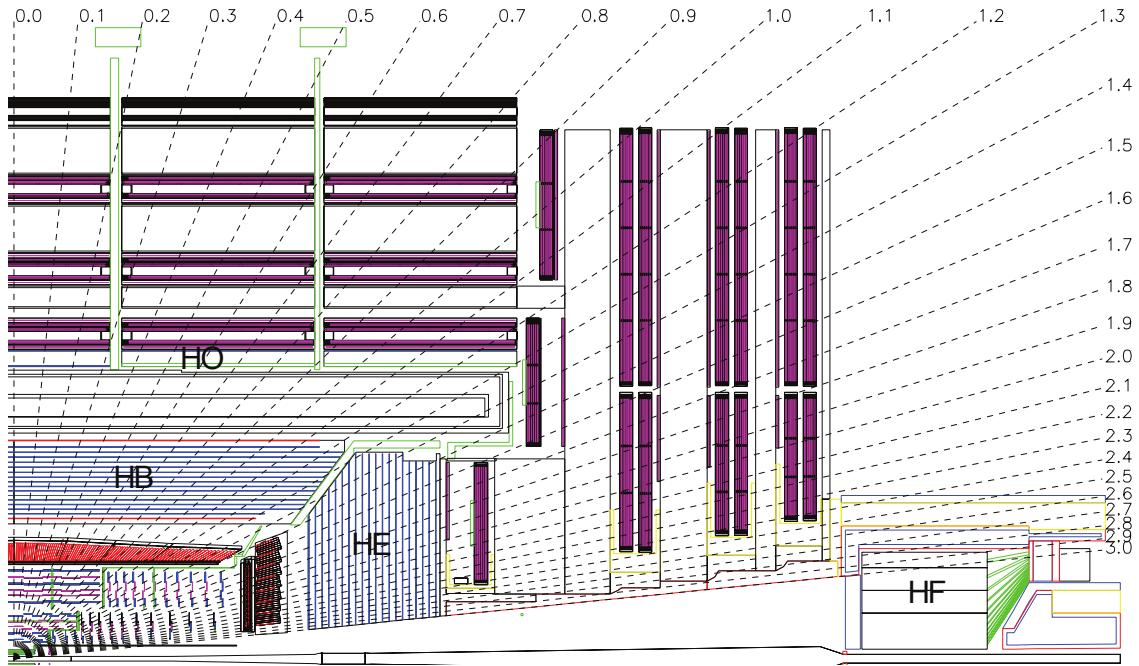


Figure 3.6: Structure and position of the CMS HCAL sub-detector systems.

Combined, the ECAL and HCAL can measure the energy deposited by a charged pion with a resolution of $\sigma/E \approx 100\%/\sqrt{E[\text{GeV}]} \oplus 5\%$, where E is the jet energy.

3.2.5 Solenoid

The CMS magnet is the central device around which the experiment is built, with a 4T tesla magnetic field, which is 100,000 times stronger than that of Earth.

Its job is to bend the paths of charged particles emerging from high-energy collisions in the LHC. The higher momentum particles get their path curve less than the lighter ones, and as a result, curvature is an important tool for momentum measurements.

CMS strong magnetic field, combined with the high-precision position measurements in the tracker and muon detectors, allows for accurate measurement of the momentum of high-energy particles.

The CMS solenoid magnet is made of coils of wire that produce a uniform magnetic field when electricity flows through them. Also, it is superconducting, the largest ever built, with a weight of

12,000 tonnes. In order for it to be superconducting, it needs to be cooled down to -268.5 C, which is a degree warmer than outer space.

The tracker and calorimeter detectors fit inside the magnet whilst the muon detectors are interleaved with a 12-sided iron structure that surrounds the magnet coils and contains and guides the field. Made up of three layers, this "return yoke" reaches out 14 metres in diameter and also acts as a filter, allowing through only muons and weakly interacting particles such as neutrinos. The enormous magnet also provides most of the experiment's structural support, and must be very strong itself to withstand the forces of its own magnetic field.

3.2.6 Muon System

After its magnet, the main feature of the CMS experiment is its capability of detecting muons. Since they can penetrate several meters of iron without interacting, gas-ionization detector chambers were placed at the very edge of the experiment embedded in the steel flux-return yoke in order to detect them. This allows for a pseudorapidity coverage of $|\eta| < 2.4$.

The muon system consists of 1400 muon chambers which can be classified into three categories, according to the technology used: 250 drift tubes (DTs), 540 cathode strip chambers(CSCs), and 610 resistive plate chambers(RPCs).

The barrel region of the detector contains DT's and RPCs, while the endcap region contains CSCs and RPCs. The layout of the muon system can be seen in Figure 3.7.

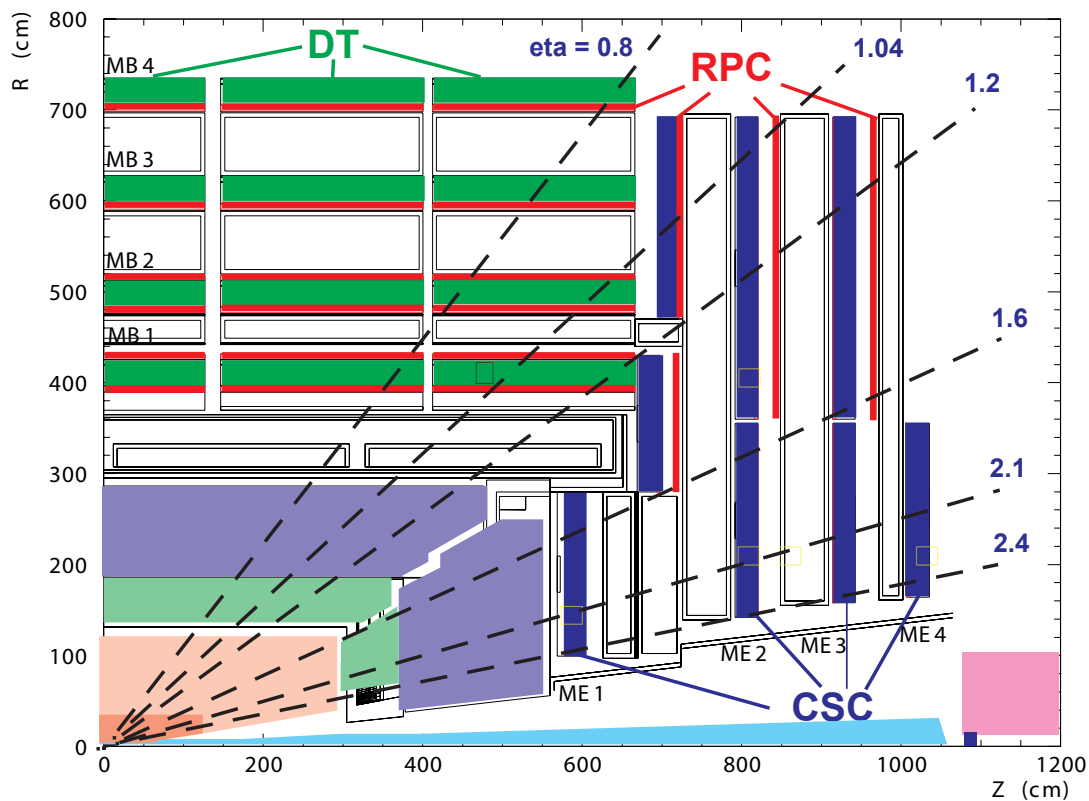


Figure 3.7: Layout of the CMS muon system.

The four muon DT stations sitting outside the magnet coil are interleaved with the iron "return yoke" (shown in red in Figure 3.8, for the barrel region), which not only returns the flux from the solenoid, but also shields the muon chambers from hadrons.

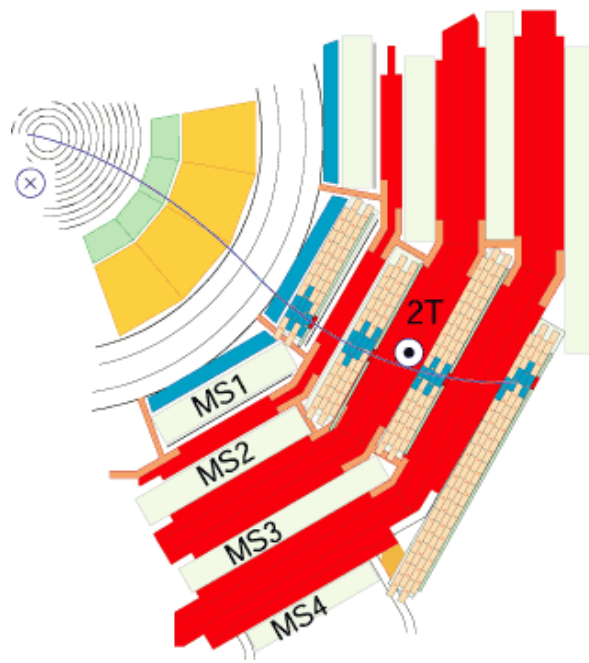


Figure 3.8: A muon, in the plane perpendicular to the LHC beams, leaves a curved trajectory in four layers of muon detectors or stations.

The CSCs track the particle's position and allow for triggering, while the RPCs form a redundant trigger system, which quickly decides to keep the acquired muon data or not. Because of the many layers of detector and different specialties of each type, the system is naturally robust and able to filter out background noise.

The muon system on its own has a resolution of 15-40% depending on η . Matching muons to tracks measured in the silicon tracker results in a relative transverse momentum resolution for muons with $20 < p_T < 100$ GeV of 1.3-2.0% in the barrel and better than 6% in the endcaps. The p_T resolution in the barrel is better than 10% for muons up to 1 TeV [28].

3.2.7 Trigger

When CMS is performing at its peak, about one billion proton-proton interactions will take place every second inside the detector. In order to record only those events generated from energetic, head-on collisions, a "trigger" system was implemented.

Level 1 of the trigger is an extremely fast, hardware based process that looks for simple signs of interesting physics, e.g. particles with a large amount of energy or in unusual combinations. The L1 trigger selects events at a rate of around 100 kHz within a time interval of $4\mu\text{s}$. The next step is the High Level Trigger (HLT), which combines the information from different parts of the detector to recreate the entire event and send it to a farm of more than 1000 computers to filter even more events, reducing the event rate to less than 1 kHz before recording them on tape.

3.2.8 Luminosity Measurement

Bsides measuring the kinematics of each of the particles traversing the detector, CMS must also measure the instantaneous luminosity delivered by the LHC. Both the pixel detector, and the HF are able to measure the luminosity to varying degrees of accuracy.

The Van der Meer (VdM) scan method measures the size and shape of the interaction region of the colliding beams. This is achieved by displacing the beams in the x and y- (transverse) planes and measuring the relative interaction rates as a function of the transverse beam separation. For Gaussian beams, the luminosity as a function of the transverse displacement (δu) can then be

expressed as:

$$\mathcal{L}(\delta u) = \mathcal{L}_0 \exp\left[-\frac{\delta u^2}{2\sigma_u^2}\right] \quad (3.3)$$

where

$$\mathcal{L}_0 = \frac{N_1 N_2 f N_b}{2\pi \sqrt{(\sigma_{1x}^2 + \sigma_{2x}^2)(\sigma_{1y}^2 + \sigma_{2y}^2)}} \quad (3.4)$$

and $\sigma_u = \sqrt{\sigma_{1u}^2 + \sigma_{2u}^2}$ with $u = x, y$ for each separation plane, N_b the number of colliding bunches and f the revolution frequency.

A fit of the measured interaction rates as a function of the separation will allow to determine the effective beam size as well as the maximum achievable collision rate (\dot{N})

$$\dot{N} = \mathcal{L}\sigma \quad (3.5)$$

In practice, the scans are performed by moving the beams step-wise across each other in the two transverse plane.

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