

A MEASUREMENT OF THE $W\gamma$ CROSS SECTION AT $\sqrt{S} = 8$ TEV IN PP
COLLISIONS WITH THE CMS DETECTOR

by

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A DISSERTATION

Presented to the Faculty of
The Graduate College at the University of Nebraska
In Partial Fulfilment of Requirements
For the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Major: Physics & Astronomy

Under the Supervision of Professor Ilya Kravchenko

Lincoln, Nebraska

May, 2017

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University of Nebraska, 2017

Adviser: Someone

Abstract goes here.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Elementary particle physics describes fundamental particles and their interactions. Fundamental particles are the smallest constituents of our Universe. When examined at smaller scales, the substances around us consist of molecules, molecules consist of atoms. In an atom there is a nucleus made of neutrons and protons and some number of electrons occupying orbits around the nucleus. Protons and neutrons have a structure while an electron is not known to have any internal structure, therefore, an electron is an example of a particle which is considered to be fundamental.

Interactions of elementary particles are described by quantum field theories which incorporate principles of the quantum mechanics and the special theory of relativity. The set of such theories, including quantum electrodynamics (QED), quantum chromodynamics (QCD) and the theory of weak interactions is called the Standard Model (SM). Current observations have proved the SM to be an accurate description of elementary particle interactions.

However, there are several experimental observations that are not described by the SM such as effects of gravity, dark matter, dark energy, matter/antimatter asymmetry and others. Therefore, the SM is not a complete theory of particle interactions. There are several SM extensions offered by theorists as well as radically new theories waiting for experimental confirmation or exclusion.

Some SM extensions and new theories predict the existence of heavy particles with masses lying beyond experimentally reachable energies. The search of these particles is a priority in particle physics. One source of highly energetic elementary particles is cosmic rays. The most energetic particles ever observed came from this source. However, cosmic rays are totally uncontrollable and such highly energetic particles are rare. If we want to produce a large number of particles in a given energy range, we need to use a particle accelerator. A large amount of data allows experimentalists to perform a statistical analysis and increase the probability of finding a new particle if it exists.

Symmetric colliding beams is the most effective way to produce as heavy particles as possible given the energies of the colliding particles. Compared to experiments colliding a single beam at a fixed target, in the case of a symmetric collision the total momentum of two colliding particles is zero and, therefore, much larger fraction of energy can transfer to a mass of a new particle. The Large Hadron Collider (LHC) is one such collider with the highest energy in the world. It can produce the most massive particles to probe physics beyond the SM (BSM).

The Compact Muon Solenoid (CMS) is one of two general-purpose detectors at the LHC. It is placed at one of four collision points. CMS has a broad physics

program including searches for the BSM physics as well as the precision measurements of the parameters of the SM itself. The measurement of this dissertation is a SM measurement with CMS data collected in 2012 in pp collisions of LHC with beam energies of 4 TeV. The result can be compared to the SM prediction. Certain BSM theories predict a deviation of the result of this measurement from its SM value, therefore, with this measurement, in addition to testing the SM, we also search for a new physics.

The rest of this chapter gives general introductory information about the SM while Ch. 2 concentrates on the theory of the SM and BSM $W\gamma$ production and also discusses previous measurements of this process. Chapter 3 describes LHC and CMS in more details. Chapter 4 explains one specific detail of the CMS operation that is the spacial alignment of the tracking detector of charged particles. Finally, Ch. 5 describes the details of the measurement of this dissertation and reports the results.

1.1 Fundamental Particles and Interactions

The SM describes interactions of elementary particles. There are four fundamental interactions: electromagnetic, strong, weak and gravitational. The gravity is not included into the SM but its effect on particles is negligible compared to the other forces which makes it possible to develop a theory of the particle physics and conduct experiments even without having the gravity included into the model.

All fundamental elementary particles in the SM can be split into three categories by their spins. There are fermions which possess spin $s=1/2$, there are gauge bosons which are vector particles ($s=1$) and there is the Higgs boson which is a scalar particle ($s=0$).

The fermions are arranged into three generations, each generation consists of a quark with charge $Q=+2/3$ (up, charm, and top quarks), a quark with $Q=-1/3$ (down, strange, and bottom quarks), a charged lepton with $Q=-1$ (electron, muon, and tau-lepton) and a neutrino (electron, muon, and tau neutrinos) which is electrically neutral. Each quark can carry any of three colors: red, blue, or green. Additionally, each fermion has its antiparticle. Therefore, the total number of fundamental fermions is $(6(\text{leptons}) + 6(\text{quarks}) \cdot 3(\text{colors})) \cdot 2(\text{to include antiparticles}) = 48$.

Corresponding particles in different generations have the same charges, spins and interaction properties but masses of particles increase with generation. These mass differences lead to different decay properties because a particle A can decay to particles B and C only if their masses relate as $m_A > m_B + m_C$. Thus, an electron

is a stable particle, a muon decays as $\mu^- \rightarrow e^- + \bar{\nu}_e + \nu_\mu$, a tau-lepton, as the heaviest charged lepton, has the largest number of decay channels amongst the charged leptons: $\tau^- \rightarrow \mu^- + \bar{\nu}_\mu + \nu_\tau$, $\tau^- \rightarrow e^- + \bar{\nu}_e + \nu_\tau$, $\tau^- \rightarrow \nu_\tau + \text{quarks}$.

In addition to fermions, the SM includes gauge bosons which are interaction mediators. They are called mediators because fermions interact with each other by exchanging them. For example, two charged fermions can interact with each other by exchanging a photon. Such interaction is called electromagnetic interaction and a photon is a mediator for the electromagnetic interaction. Similarly, a gluon is a mediator for strong interactions, and W^\pm and Z^0 bosons are mediators for weak interactions. W^\pm and Z^0 bosons are massive while a photon and a gluon are massless particles.

The last SM particle is the Higgs boson. The Higgs boson is a scalar neutral particle which is playing a critical role in the electroweak symmetry breaking. The Higgs mechanism explains how W and Z bosons become massive particles.

All the particles are summarized in Fig. 1.1. These and only these fundamental particles and their antiparticles have been discovered by now. However, there are many composite particles which are called hadrons. Hadrons can consist of three quarks (baryons), quark and antiquark (meson), or three antiquarks (antibaryons). Hadrons always possess an integer charge.

Most of the particles are short-lived and decay within microseconds. The only stable particles are protons and antiprotons, electrons and positrons, neutrinos and antineutrinos, photons, and, in some sense, gluons. However, if a particle

cannot decay, it does not mean that it would live forever. There are many different kinds of reactions in which particles can disappear. Antiprotons and positrons would immediately annihilate with protons and electrons, photons can be absorbed by charged particles, electrons and protons can scatter to produce neutrons and neutrinos and many other reactions are possible.

In this dissertation, the study of $pp \rightarrow W\gamma + X \rightarrow l\nu\gamma$ process where $\ell = e, \mu$ is presented. The $W\gamma$ production with leptonic W decays proceeds through one of the following three processes: the initial state radiation where a photon is emitted from one of the incoming partons, the final state radiation where a photon is radiated off the charged lepton from the W boson decay, and, finally, the triple gauge coupling (TGC) where a photon is emitted from the W boson. Many BSM theories predict an enhancement of the TGC production over the SM value and, therefore, the experimental search for such an enhancement is a good test for such theories.

Therefore, the focus of this study is an interaction between a photon and a W boson however many other SM particles are relevant too. Thus, a charged lepton and a neutrino appear as the final state particles, a quark and an antiquark appear as initial state particles and all fundamental particles except the Higgs boson participate in various background processes. Subsequent chapters describe these particle interactions in more details.

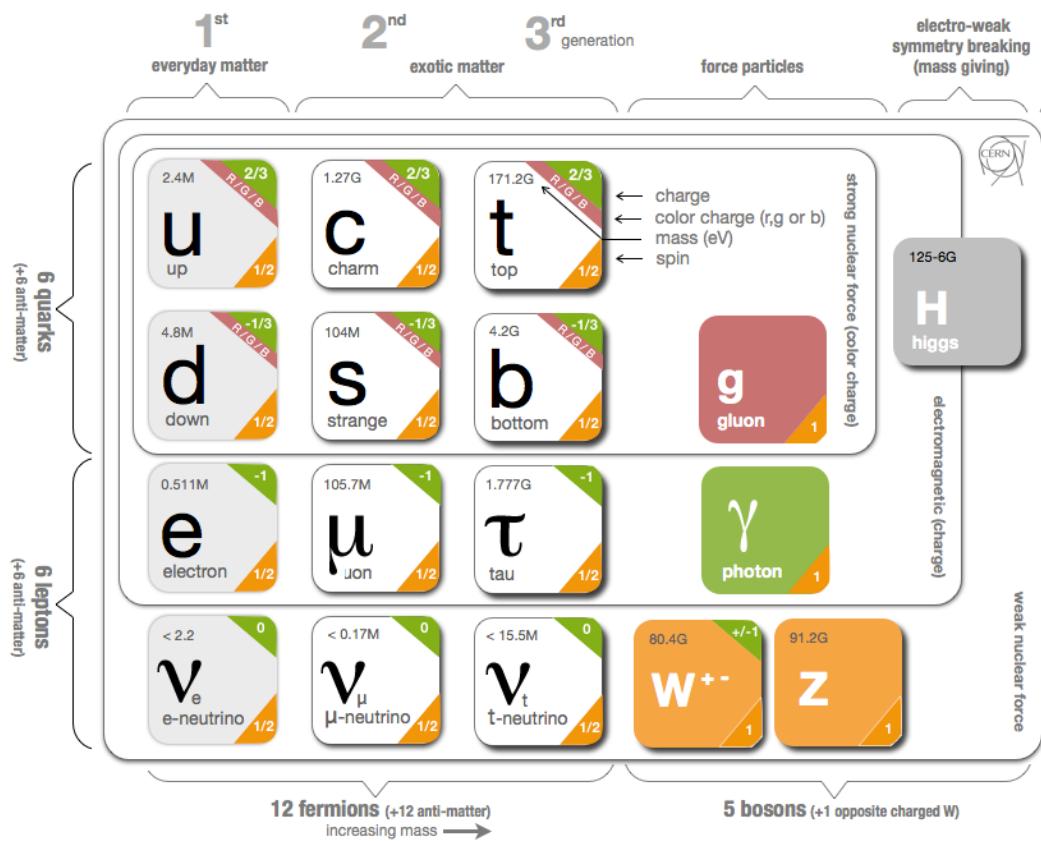


Figure 1.1: Standard Model Particles and Interactions. Source of the figure: [6].

1.2 Electroweak Interactions

All electrically charged particles participate in electromagnetic interactions. The theory of electromagnetic interactions is called quantum electrodynamics (QED). All electromagnetic interactions are mediated by a photon, a spin-one electrically neutral massless particle, and can be reduced to one elementary process (Fig. 1.2, left). This process represents a charged fermion radiating or absorbing a photon. Such elementary process itself is forbidden by the energy conservation law but this element is a base of an actual process. For example, the Bhabha scattering, $e^+e^- \rightarrow e^+e^-$, occurs through e^+e^- annihilation with further production of a new e^+e^- pair (Fig. 1.2, middle) or through exchange of a photon between the positron and the electron (Fig. 1.2, right). Both cases involve nothing except the electromagnetic elementary process (Fig. 1.2, left). Such graphical representations of the particle physics processes are called Feynman diagrams.

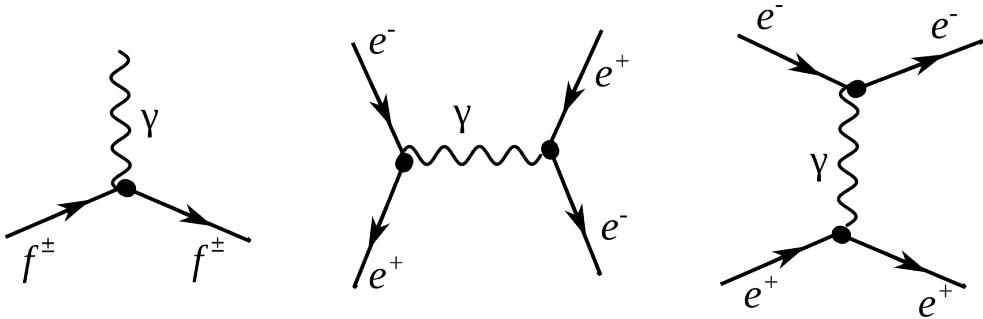


Figure 1.2: Electromagnetic interactions. Left: a photon radiation off a charged fermion, middle and right: Bhabha scattering.

As for the weak interactions, there are two kinds of them: neutral (mediated by a Z boson) and charged (mediated by a W^\pm boson). Elementary processes with W

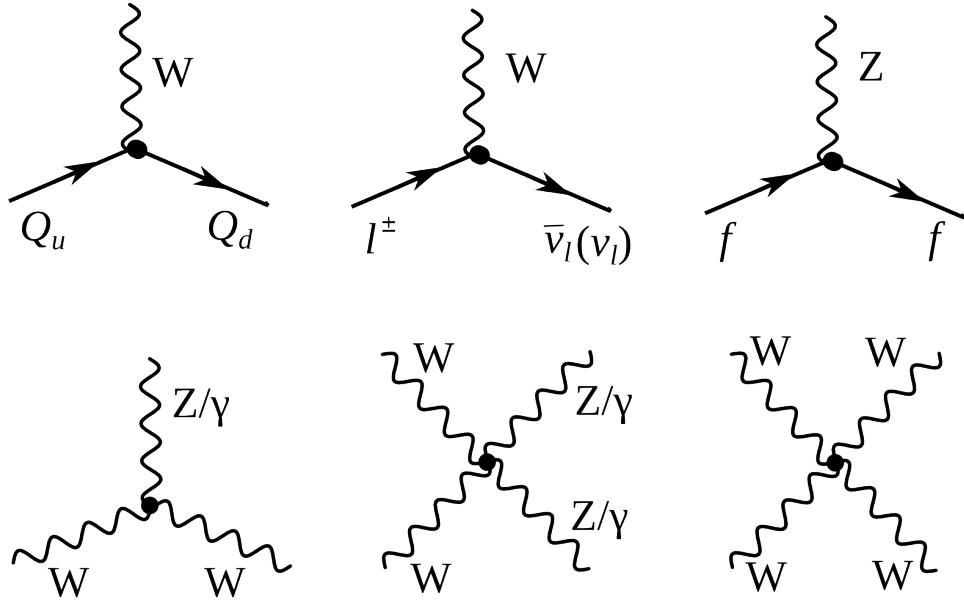


Figure 1.3: Weak elementary processes and gauge couplings. Top left: a quark with charge $Q=+2/3$ enters, emits a W boson, and a quark with charge $Q=-1/3$ escapes. Top middle: a charged lepton enters, emits a W boson, and a neutrino or antineutrino escapes conserving a lepton flavor number. Top right: a fermion enters, emits a Z boson and escapes. Bottom left: TGC couplings $WW\gamma$ and WWZ . Bottom middle: QGC couplings $WW\gamma\gamma$, $WWZ\gamma$ and $WWZZ$. Bottom right: QGC coupling $WWWW$.

and Z bosons are shown in Fig. 1.3. Because the electric charge must be conserved at any vertex, a particle radiating or absorbing a W boson converts to a different particle. Thus, a charged lepton converts to a neutrino (or vice versa) as shown in Fig. 1.3, top middle. Each lepton carries a lepton flavor number (Tab. 1.1). Lepton flavor is conserved in any interaction, thus an electron radiating a W boson always converts to an electron neutrino, a muon converts to a muon neutrino etc.

From top left diagram in Fig. 1.3 we see that if a quark with $Q=+2/3$ enters, then a quark with $Q=-1/3$ escapes and, therefore, the flavor of the quark is

Table 1.1: Lepton Flavor Number

particles	L_e	L_μ	L_τ
e^-, ν_e	+1	0	0
$e^+, \bar{\nu}_e$	-1	0	0
μ^-, ν_μ	0	+1	0
$\mu^+, \bar{\nu}_\mu$	0	-1	0
τ^-, ν_τ	0	0	+1
$\tau^+, \bar{\nu}_\tau$	0	0	-1

changed. The charged weak interaction is the only interaction which changes a quark flavor. The probability of each of three quarks with $Q=-1/3$ to be born is determined by the Cabibbo-Kobayashi-Maskawa matrix which relates mass eigenstates d , c and b to weak eigenstates d' , c' and b' (Eq. 1.1). Absolute values of the matrix elements are all known (Eq. 1.2) and are the highest for the quark of the same generation as the initial state quark. In the particular case shown in the top left diagram in Fig. 1.3, u is the initial state quark and d has the highest probability to be produced after an interaction with a W boson but s and b can also be produced if there is enough energy.

$$\begin{pmatrix} d' \\ s' \\ b' \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} V_{ud} & V_{us} & V_{ub} \\ V_{cd} & V_{cs} & V_{cb} \\ V_{td} & V_{ts} & V_{tb} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} d \\ s \\ b \end{pmatrix} \quad (1.1)$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} |V_{ud}| & |V_{us}| & |V_{ub}| \\ |V_{cd}| & |V_{cs}| & |V_{cb}| \\ |V_{td}| & |V_{ts}| & |V_{tb}| \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.97 & 0.23 & 0.00 \\ 0.23 & 0.97 & 0.04 \\ 0.01 & 0.04 & 1.00 \end{pmatrix} \quad (1.2)$$

An elementary process of a neutral weak interaction is an emission a Z bo-

son off a fermion line (right top diagram in Fig. 1.3). Diagrams with a Z boson are very similar to ones with a photon except a photon can only be radiated off a charged particle but a Z boson can also be radiated off a neutrino or antineutrino.

The bottom diagrams in Fig. 1.3 are gauge bosons coupling diagrams including self-coupling of a W boson, its interaction with a Z boson and its electromagnetic radiation of a photon. Charge-conserving TGC and quartic gauge couplings (QGC) containing two or four W bosons are all possible in the SM: WWZ, WW γ , WWZZ, WWZ γ , WW $\gamma\gamma$, and WWW.

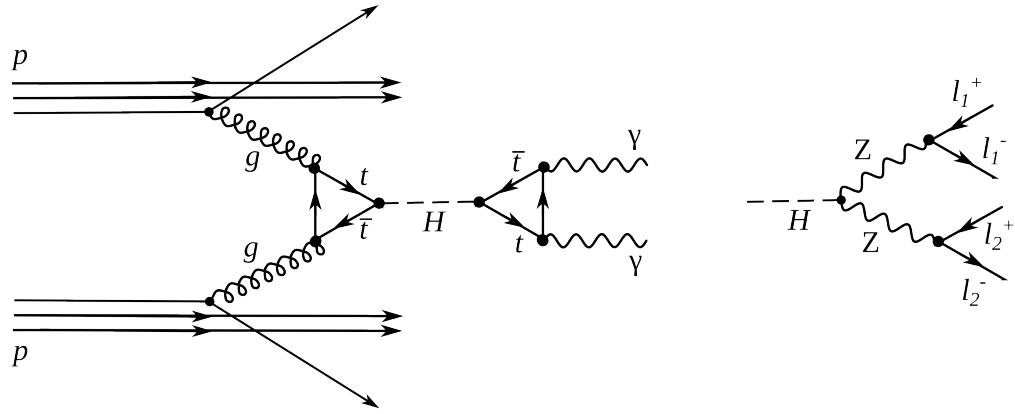


Figure 1.4: The Higgs boson production and decay. Left: $H \rightarrow \gamma\gamma$, right: $H \rightarrow ZZ \rightarrow 4l$.

Electromagnetic and weak interactions are unified by the electroweak Glashow-Weinberg-Salam (GWS) theory which is based on $SU(2) \times U(1)$ symmetry. $SU(2)$ is the symmetry of weak isospin which generates three bosons: W^1 , W^2 and W^3 . $U(1)$ is the symmetry of the weak hypercharge and generate one neutral boson B . W^1 and W^2 are mixed to create W^+ and W^- mediators while W^3 and B are mixed to create a Z boson and a photon. Therefore, the GWS theory considers

electromagnetic and weak forces as different manifestations of the electroweak force. The electroweak theory is discussed in greater details in Ch. 2.

Weak interactions are mediated by heavy bosons ($M_W = 80$ GeV, $M_Z = 91$ GeV) while electromagnetic interactions are mediated by a massless photon, thus, the electroweak symmetry is broken. To explain this phenomenon, the Higgs mechanism was introduced. The mechanism predicted an existence of an additional boson: the Higgs boson. The Higgs boson was a missing piece of the SM for many years and was finally discovered in 2012 at LHC by ATLAS and CMS collaborations through the processes shown in Fig. 1.4 [1], [2].

The measurement in this dissertation is an electroweak measurement because the process involves a W boson. It includes an interaction of a W boson with leptons and quarks as well as the TGC $WW\gamma$. Thus, the measurement is a good test of the SM electroweak theory.

1.3 Strong Interactions

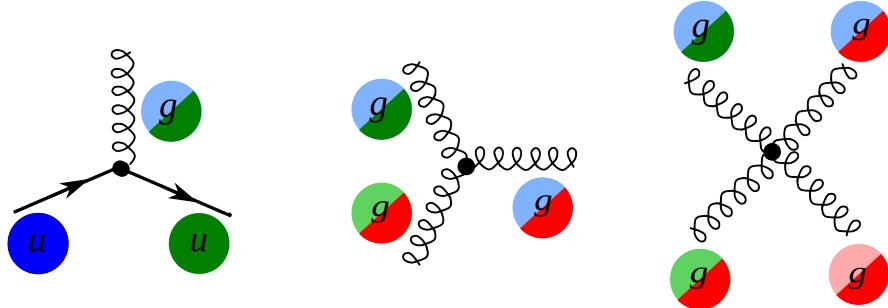


Figure 1.5: Elementary processes of strong interactions

The third fundamental force after the electromagnetic and weak ones is the strong force. The strong force is responsible for gluing protons and neutrons together in the nuclei as well as for forming protons and neutrons themselves. The strong interactions occur by exchanging gluons which are spin-one massless electrically neutral particles.

The elementary strong processes are shown in Fig. 1.5. There are three elementary processes: $q\bar{q}g$, ggg and $gggg$, all are involving particles with color charges. Thus, gluons couple to quarks and self-couple. Color charges must be conserved at each elementary process of the strong interaction. Each quark possesses one of three colors at a time, and there are eight types of gluons to cover all possible color exchanges.

The coupling constant of the strong interaction depends on the distance between interacting particles: it becomes larger as the distance becomes larger and smaller as the distance becomes smaller. As the distance approaches zero, the

coupling constant approaches zero too, and, thus, in the asymptotic limit two quarks located at the same place do not interact. This property is called asymptotic freedom.

On the other hand, when the distance between quarks becomes larger, the coupling constant also becomes larger. This property confines quarks to always stay in the color neutral combinations (hadrons), it forbids the existence of free quarks. A combination becomes color neutral when there is the same amount of color and anticolor or if there is the same amount of each of the three colors. Thus, mesons are comprised of a quark and an antiquark with the opposite color charges, and baryons are composed of three quarks: red, green and blue one. Examples of baryons include such well-known particles as a proton and a neutron.

The asymptotic freedom and the confinement are properties that are specific to strong interactions. The theory of strong interactions is called the quantum chromodynamics (QCD) which is a quantum field theory invariant under $SU(3)$ color transformations. When the coupling constant is much less than one $\alpha_s \ll 1$, the perturbative approach can be used to compute observables.

The $W\gamma$ process being measured in this dissertation is not intended to test QCD, but a good understanding of QCD is essential for performing this measurement because the QCD corrections to the Feynman diagrams of the process are large and have to be taken into account when producing simulation. In addition, QCD describes the dynamics of quarks and gluons within colliding protons and predicts probabilities of one or another quark-antiquark pair to interact. Physics of proton-proton collisions is discussed in Ch. 1.4.

1.4 Physics of Proton-Proton Collisions

Consider a pp collision at LHC. The proton energies are so high that each proton behaves as a complex structure. A proton is a baryon, it consists of three quarks: uud . These three quarks are called valence quarks. They interact with each other by exchanging gluons which produce virtual $q\bar{q}$ pairs (Fig. 1.6). Such virtual quarks are also called sea quarks.

Any parton, quark, antiquark or gluon, from one proton can interact with any parton from another proton. Probabilities $f_i(x, Q^2)$ of any particular constituent i to interact are described partially by QCD and partially by experimental measurements and depend on the momentum transfer Q and the momentum fraction of a specific parton x . These probabilities are called parton distribution functions (PDFs).

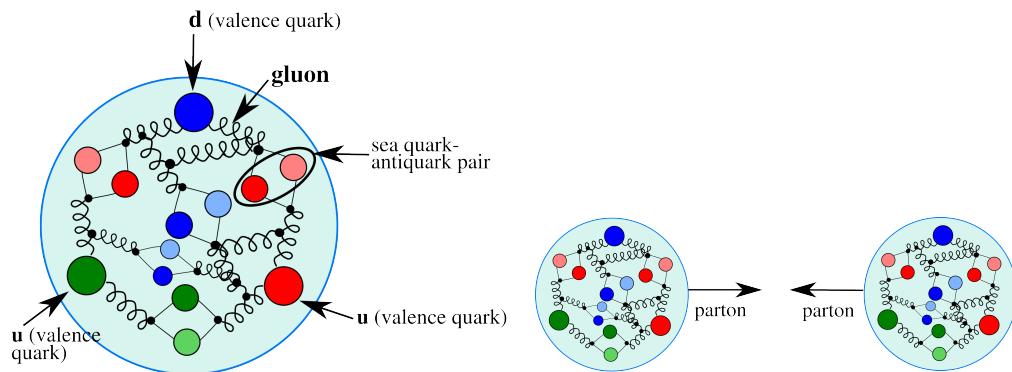


Figure 1.6: The proton structure (left) and the proton-proton collision (right).

For large Q^2 and x gluon-gluon interactions have the largest probabilities to occur (Fig. 1.7). However, gluons do not couple directly to a W boson, thus, in

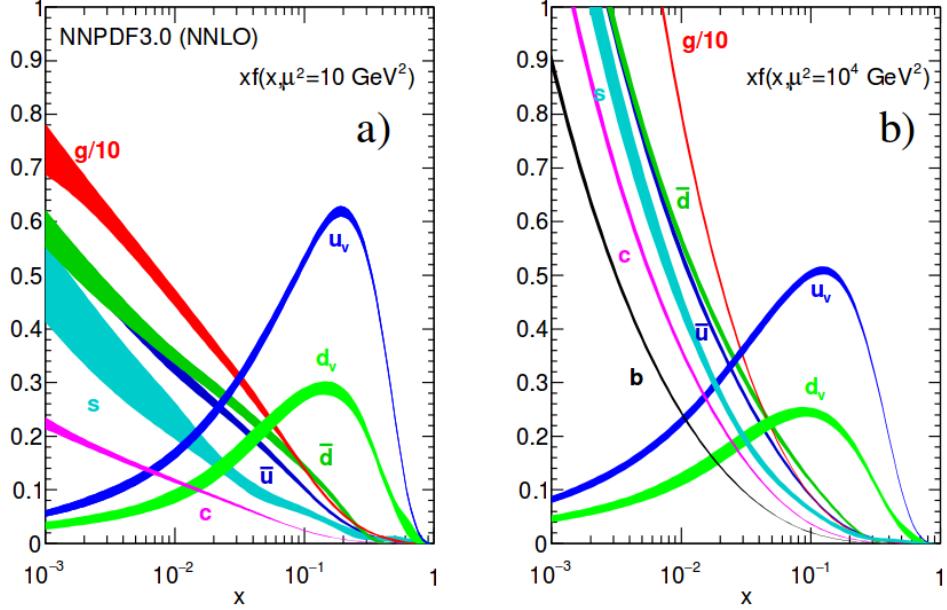


Figure 1.7: Parton distribution functions [5].

the $W\gamma$ measurement we are mostly interested in quark-antiquark pairs which would have a total charge corresponding to the charge of a W boson (± 1). Since we have u and d as valence quarks and we know that the probability to couple to the same generation quark in charged weak interactions is the highest, most of the W bosons are created by $u\bar{d}$ and $d\bar{u}$ pairs however other $q\bar{q}'$ combinations with the total charges of ± 1 are also possible. As we look for events containing $W\gamma$ we also have other events mimicking our process. Such background events can be produced by any pair of partons.

1.5 Open Questions of the Standard Model

While the SM is an accurate description of all particle physics experimental results, there are certain phenomena which are not included into the SM. In this subsection we discuss some of them.

The gravitational interactions do not fit into the SM. It is the open question whether the quantum theory of gravity is possible and whether there is a mediator of the gravitational interactions. Also, it is not known why the gravitational force is so much weaker than the other forces. One possible explanation comes from a theory which predicts extra spatial dimensions beyond the three we experience (e.g. the string theory). In this case, it is possible that the gravitational force is shared with other dimensions and only a fraction is available in our three dimensions.

Another mystery of the universe is its composition: it is known from the studies of the gravitational effects that our universe consists of dark energy by 68%, of dark matter by 27% and of baryon matter only by 5% [4]. The dark energy resists the gravitational attraction and accelerates the expansion of the universe, and is not detectable by any effects except gravitational. The understanding of dark energy is a question of general relativity rather than particle physics. The dark matter, however, likely consists of particles and therefore is a subject of particle physics. It does not radiate and that is why it cannot be detected by telescopes. The nature of the dark matter is not known but its constituents must be very stable to remain since the Big Bang. The theory of the supersymmetry which is unifying fundamental particles and mediators predicts many of new heavy particles and the lightest supersymmetric particle, the neutralino, is a good candidate for dark

matter.

One more open question is the reason for the matter/antimatter asymmetry. Matter and antimatter should have been created in the same amount at the moment of the Big Bang. Most of it has annihilated but because of asymmetry, there was more matter than antimatter which led to the state of the Universe we observe now. There is a phenomenon of the CP-violation in weak interactions observed and described which predicts the asymmetry at a certain level. However, the effect of the CP-violation is not large enough to account for the observed amount of the matter and, therefore, the total matter/antimatter asymmetry remains unexplained.

The measurement of the photon transverse momentum spectrum (P_T^γ) of the $W\gamma$ process has a goal to both test the SM and search for the BSM physics. The low P_T^γ region is not expected to be affected by any new physics and must agree well with the SM predictions while the high P_T^γ region may indicate an existence of new physics if there is an enhancement over the SM predictions. The excess would be indirect evidence of the BSM particles like supersymmetric particles or additional gauge bosons which could be part of the explanation of the dark matter presence or difference in magnitudes of different interactions. More theoretical details about the SM description of $W\gamma$ process as well as possible BSM physics are given in Ch. 2.

Chapter 2

$W\gamma$ Production Theory and Former Experimental Results

Chapter 2 provides deeper theoretical background for the measurement of this dissertation and discusses former experimental results. The derivation of the electroweak Lagrangian is described in Ch. 2.1, including the appearance of triple gauge coupling (TGC) and quartic gauge coupling (QGC) terms. Then concepts of the cross section and the luminosity are discussed in Ch. 2.2. More specific details regarding the SM cross section of $W\gamma$ are summarized in Ch. 2.3. Possible causes and potential effects of anomalous TGC (aTGC) are explained in Ch. 2.4. Finally, Ch. 2.5 lists former physics experiments which probed the same aTGC vertex which is probed in the measurement of this dissertation including measurements of exactly the same process at lower LHC beam energy.

2.1 Electroweak Theory of the Standard Model

To develop a quantum field theory, we start with the Lagrangian of free fermions. In order to describe a system with a conserved physical quantity, the Lagrangian is required to satisfy a local invariance with respect to a certain transformation. For instance, a conservation of electric charge requires local invariance under $U(1)$ transformation for the QED Lagrangian [?]. The requirement of local invariance introduces an interaction between one or more new vector fields and our free fermions. The new vector fields are mediators of an interaction conserving the physical quantity. To provide a full description for a new boson field, in addition to the interaction term we introduce an invariant term for the kinetic energy of the boson. Such an approach allows us to derive a Lagrangian which is locally invariant with respect to a certain gauge transformation and contains interacting fermions as well as interaction mediators.

The SM is a quantum field theory invariant under the local $SU(3)_C \times SU(2)_L \times U(1)_Y$ transformation [?]. The SM Lagrangian includes all observed quantum fields and their interactions.

The part of the SM Lagrangian based on the $SU(3)_C$ symmetry is called QCD or the theory of strong interactions. QCD has three types of charges which are called colors: red, blue, and green. To be a subject of the strong interaction, a fermion must possess a color charge. Quarks and antiquarks are such fermions. The requirement to satisfy the gauge invariance with respect to $SU(3)_C$ transformations generates eight massless gluons, and the non-abelian nature of the $SU(3)$ group generates self-interactions of gluons including three-gluon and four-gluon vertices.

The part of the SM Lagrangian based on the $SU(2)_L \times U(1)_Y$ symmetry is the foundation of the unified theory of electroweak interactions. $SU(2)_L$ reflects transformations in the weak isospin space of left-handed fermions ([?], Ch. 9) while $U(1)_Y$ reflects transformations in a weak hypercharge space of all fermions. The requirement of the local gauge invariance generates four massless vector bosons which are mediators of electromagnetic and weak interactions. The non-abelian structure of the $SU(2)$ group generates gauge boson self-couplings the same way as self-interactions of gluons appear in QCD.

Mass terms for the vector bosons would violate the gauge invariance of the electroweak Lagrangian, however it is experimentally known that the mediators of weak interactions are heavy particles with masses $M_W = 80$ GeV and $M_Z = 91$ GeV. A possible solution of this discrepancy is the mechanism of Spontaneous Symmetry Breaking.

The mechanism of Spontaneous Symmetry Breaking and the appearance of the mass terms for W and Z bosons is realized by introducing an additional doublet of scalar fields. After that, the Lagrangian is transformed in such a way that W and Z bosons acquire masses through their interactions with a new particle: the Higgs boson (H). A photon does not couple to the Higgs boson remaining a massless particle and leaving QED symmetry group $U(1)$ to be unbroken.

The measurement in this dissertation provides a test for the electroweak sector of the SM. We will retrace the steps of the derivation of the electroweak part of the SM Lagrangian starting from the terms for free fermions. The resulting Lagrangian

accommodates electroweak gauge bosons and their self-couplings. One of these self-couplings, $WW\gamma$, is the primary focus of our measurement.

It is experimentally known that the dynamics of weak interactions depend on particle chirality ([?], chapter 4.4.1). In particular, a W boson couples to left-handed fermions and right-handed antifermions only. Given different properties of left-handed and right-handed fermions, they are treated differently by the electroweak theory. $SU(2)$ doublets are introduced for the wave functions of left-handed fermions while $SU(2)$ singlets are introduced for the wave functions of right-handed fermions. Equations 2.1 and 2.2 show wave functions for the first generation fermions. Wave functions for the other two generations are constructed the same way.

$$\psi_1(x) = \begin{pmatrix} u \\ d' \end{pmatrix}_L, \psi_2(x) = u_R, \psi_3(x) = d'_R. \quad (2.1)$$

$$\psi_1(x) = \begin{pmatrix} \nu_e \\ e^- \end{pmatrix}_L, \psi_2(x) = \nu_{eR}, \psi_3(x) = e_R^-. \quad (2.2)$$

The state d' in Eq. 2.1 is a weak eigenstate which is a linear combination of the mass eigenstates of the d , c and b quark wave functions and is determined by the quark mixing matrix, V , which is also called Cabibbo-Kobayashi-Maskawa matrix [?]:

$$\begin{pmatrix} d' \\ c' \\ b' \end{pmatrix} = V \begin{pmatrix} d \\ c \\ b \end{pmatrix} \quad (2.3)$$

To derive the unified electroweak Lagrangian, we start with the free fermion terms:

$$L_0 = \sum_{j=1}^3 i\bar{\psi}_j(x)\gamma^\mu\partial_\mu\psi_j(x), \quad (2.4)$$

where γ^μ are Dirac matrices ([?], chapter 7.1) and $\psi_j(x)$ are wave functions determined by Eqs. 2.1 and 2.2.

The wave function ψ_1 changes under the $SU(2)_L \times U(1)_Y$ transformations in the following way:

$$\psi_1(x) \rightarrow e^{iy_1\beta} U_L \psi_1(x), \quad (2.5)$$

while the wave functions $\psi_{(2,3)}(x)$ are singlets of $SU(2)_L$ and are affected only by $U(1)$ transformations:

$$\psi_{(2,3)}(x) \rightarrow e^{iy_{(2,3)}\beta} \psi_{(2,3)}(x). \quad (2.6)$$

The transformation in the weak isospin space is defined as $U_L \equiv e^{i\sigma_i\alpha_i/2}$ where σ_i are Pauli matrices ([?], chapter 4.2.2). Phases $\alpha_i(x)$ and $\beta(x)$ in Eqs. 2.5 and 2.6

are arbitrary functions of x , and $y_{(1,2,3)}$ are weak hypercharges which are named analogous to electric charges in QED.

In order for the Lagrangian to satisfy the local $SU(2)_L \times U(1)_Y$ invariance, partial derivatives in Eq. 2.4 have to be substituted with covariant derivatives:

$$D_\mu \psi_1(x) = [\partial_\mu - ig\tilde{W}_\mu(x) - ig'y_1 B_\mu(x)]\psi_1(x) \quad (2.7)$$

$$D_\mu \psi_{(2,3)}(x) = [\partial_\mu - ig'y_{(2,3)} B_\mu(x)]\psi_{(2,3)}(x) \quad (2.8)$$

where g, g' are arbitrary constants,

$$\tilde{W}_\mu(x) \equiv \frac{\sigma_i}{2} W_\mu^i(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{2}W_\mu^3 & (W_\mu^1 - iW_\mu^2)/\sqrt{2} \\ (W_\mu^1 + iW_\mu^2)/\sqrt{2} & -W_\mu^3 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (2.9)$$

$B_\mu, W_\mu^1, W_\mu^2, W_\mu^3$ are four vector bosons that arise from the requirement that the Lagrangian is invariant under local $SU(2)_L \times U(1)$ transformations.

The Lagrangian becomes:

$$L_0 \rightarrow L = \sum_{j=1}^3 i\bar{\psi}_j(x)\gamma^\mu D_\mu \psi_j(x) \quad (2.10)$$

To make new vector bosons physical fields it is necessary to add terms for their

kinetic energies:

$$L_{KIN} = -\frac{1}{4}B_{\mu\nu}B^{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{4}W_{\mu\nu}^i W_i^{\mu\nu} \quad (2.11)$$

where $B_{\mu\nu} \equiv \partial_\mu B_\nu - \partial_\nu B_\mu$, $W_{\mu\nu}^i \equiv \partial_\mu W_\nu^i - \partial_\nu W_\mu^i + g\epsilon^{ijk}W_\mu^j W_\nu^k$

Off-diagonal terms of \tilde{W}_μ are wave functions of charged vector bosons

$$W^\pm = (W_\mu^1 \mp iW_\mu^2)/\sqrt{2} \quad (2.12)$$

while W_μ^3 and B_μ are neutral fields which are mixtures of a Z boson and a photon determined by:

$$\begin{pmatrix} W_\mu^3 \\ B_\mu \end{pmatrix} \equiv \begin{pmatrix} \cos\theta_W & \sin\theta_W \\ -\sin\theta_W & \cos\theta_W \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} Z_\mu \\ A_\mu \end{pmatrix} \quad (2.13)$$

where θ_W is the electroweak mixing angle and A_μ is a photon field.

In order to be consistent with QED, terms involving A_μ in the electroweak Lagrangian must be equal to the corresponding terms in the QED Lagrangian [?]:

$$L_{QED} = i\bar{\psi}(x)\gamma^\mu\partial_\mu\psi(x) - m\bar{\psi}(x)\psi(x) + qA_\mu(x)\bar{\psi}(x)\gamma^\mu\psi(x) - \frac{1}{4}F_{\mu\nu}(x)F^{\mu\nu}(x), \quad (2.14)$$

where q is electric charge of $\psi(x)$ field, $F_{\mu\nu} \equiv \partial_\mu A_\nu - \partial_\nu A_\mu$.

This requirement relates g , g' , θ_W and e as $g \sin \theta_W = g' \cos \theta_W = e$ and provides an expression for weak hypercharges: $y = q - t_3$, where q is the electric charge and t_3 is the z -component of the weak isospin. This results in $y_1 = 1/6$, $y_2 = 2/3$, and $y_3 = -1/3$ for quarks and $y_1 = -1/2$, $y_2 = 0$, and $y_3 = -1$ for leptons. A right-handed neutrino has a weak hypercharge of $y_2 = 0$. It also does not have an electric charge, and as a right-handed fermion has $t_3 = 0$, therefore, it does not couple to a W boson. Thus, a right-handed neutrino does not participate in any SM interaction.

Writing \tilde{W}_μ in Eq. 2.11 explicitly, we obtain triple gauge coupling (TGC) and quartic gauge coupling (QGC) terms:

$$L_{TGC} = -\frac{g}{4}(\partial_\mu W_\nu^i - \partial_\nu W_\mu^i)\epsilon^{ijk}W_\nu^{uj}W_\nu^{vk} - \frac{g}{4}\epsilon^{ijk}W_\mu^jW_\nu^k(\partial^\mu W_\nu^{vi} - \partial^\nu W_\mu^{vi}) \quad (2.15)$$

$$L_{QGC} = -\frac{g^2}{4}\epsilon^{ijk}\epsilon^{ilm}W_\mu^jW_\nu^kW_\nu^{ml}W_\nu^{vm} \quad (2.16)$$

Substituting expressions for W_μ^i and B_μ determined by Eqs. 2.12 and 2.13 into Eqs. 2.15 and 2.16 we receive charged TGC and QGC terms in the Lagrangian (those involving two or four W bosons) in the forms of Eqs. 2.17 and 2.20, but all neutral TGC and QGC terms (those not involving any W bosons) cancel out.

Equation 2.17 involves WWZ (Eq. 2.18) and $WW\gamma$ (Eq. 2.19) interactions:

$$L_{TGC} = L_{TGC}^{(1)} + L_{TGC}^{(2)}, \quad (2.17)$$

$$L_{TGC}^{(1)} = -ie \cot \theta_W (W^{-\mu\nu} W_\mu^+ Z_\nu - W^{+\mu\nu} W_\mu^- Z_\nu + W_\mu^- W_\nu^+ Z^{\mu\nu}), \quad (2.18)$$

$$L_{TGC}^{(2)} = -ie (W^{-\mu\nu} W_\mu^+ A_\nu - W^{+\mu\nu} W_\mu^- A_\nu + W_\mu^- W_\nu^+ A^{\mu\nu}). \quad (2.19)$$

Equation 2.20 involves $WWWW$ (Eq. 2.21), $WWZZ$ (Eq. 2.22), $WWZ\gamma$ (Eq. 2.23), and $WW\gamma\gamma$ (Eq. 2.24) interactions:

$$L_{QGC} = L_{QGC}^{(1)} + L_{QGC}^{(2)} + L_{QGC}^{(3)} + L_{QGC}^{(4)}, \quad (2.20)$$

$$L_{QGC}^{(1)} = -\frac{e^2}{2 \sin^2 \theta_W} (W_\mu^+ W^{-\mu} W_\nu^+ W^{-\nu} - W_\mu^+ W^{\mu+} W_\nu^- W^{-\nu}), \quad (2.21)$$

$$L_{QGC}^{(2)} = -e^2 \cot^2 \theta_W (W_\mu^+ W^{-\mu} Z_\nu Z^\nu - W_\mu^+ Z^\mu W_\nu^- Z^\nu), \quad (2.22)$$

$$L_{QGC}^{(3)} = -e^2 \cot \theta_W (2W_\mu^+ W^{-\mu} Z_\nu A^\nu - W_\mu^+ Z^\mu W_\nu^- A^\nu - W_\mu^+ A^\mu W_\nu^- Z^\nu), \quad (2.23)$$

$$L_{QGC}^{(4)} = -e^2 (W_\mu^+ W^{-\mu} A_\nu A^\nu - W_\mu^+ A^\mu W_\nu^- A^\nu). \quad (2.24)$$

In the measurement of this dissertation we probe $WW\gamma$ coupling (Eq. 2.19).

The unified electroweak Lagrangian discussed above involves kinetic energy

terms for fermions and gauge bosons as well as interactions of fermions with gauge bosons, TGC, and QGC. However, this Lagrangian does not contain any mass terms. Because left-handed and right-handed wave functions transform differently under the electroweak symmetry, adding fermion mass terms of $\frac{1}{2}m_f^2\bar{\psi}\psi$ would violate the Lagrangian invariance and, therefore, fermion mass terms are forbidden by the $SU(2) \times U(1)$ symmetry requirement. Mass terms for gauge bosons also would violate the Lagrangian invariance just as a photon mass term $\frac{1}{2}m^2A^\mu A_\mu$ would violate $U(1)$ invariance of L_{QED} [?]. Therefore, Lagrangian L in Eq. 2.10 contains massless particles only.

However, it is known from experiments that the Z and W bosons as well as fermions are massive particles and, therefore, our theory should accommodate their masses. To introduce masses into the electroweak Lagrangian, an $SU(2)_L$ doublet of complex scalar fields $\phi(x)$ is added to the Lagrangian:

$$\phi(x) \equiv \begin{pmatrix} \phi^{(+)}(x) \\ \phi^{(0)}(x) \end{pmatrix} \quad (2.25)$$

By selecting a special gauge of $\phi(x)$ it is possible to spontaneously break electroweak symmetry, generate a new scalar particle, the Higgs boson [?], and introduce mass terms for W and Z bosons and charged fermions through their couplings to the Higgs boson. The strength of the coupling constant is proportional to the square of the particle's mass, therefore, heavier particles are more likely to interact with H , and massless particles do not couple to H .

The mechanism of generating a fermion's mass involves both left-handed and

right-handed components of the fermion. If our hypothesis that right-handed neutrinos do not exist is right, then the Higgs mechanism does not generate neutrino masses. However, from the experiments of neutrino oscillations, neutrinos are known to have masses even though they are orders of magnitude smaller than those of other fermions. Several hypotheses have been offered to resolve this contradiction however at the moment the mechanism for neutrinos to acquire masses remain unknown [5].

In this dissertation, we study an electroweak process $W\gamma \rightarrow l\nu_l\gamma$ and probe the TGC vertex $WW\gamma$ (Eq. 2.19). To do that, we measure the differential cross section of $W\gamma \rightarrow l\nu_l\gamma$ with respect to the photon transverse momentum. The concept of the cross section in particle physics is discussed in the next chapter.

2.2 Cross Section and Luminosity

In this dissertation we measure the total cross section of the process $pp \rightarrow l\nu_l\gamma + X$ and its differential cross section in transverse momentum of the photon. A cross section in particle physics is an interaction probability per unit flux of incident particles [?]. It can be interpreted as an area which must be crossed by an incident particle in order to interact with a scattering center, or, in case of a differential cross section, area $d\sigma$ within which an incident particle must appear to be scattered off by an angle $d\theta$ (Fig. 2.1). The relationship between $d\sigma$ and $d\theta$ gives us the expression for a differential cross section $d\sigma/d\theta$. Integrating over $d\theta$, we obtain the total cross section σ . The cross section concept illustrated in Fig. 2.1 is generalized to be an effective area, and is generalized for two (or more) particle interactions rather than a light particle scattering off a stationary center.

The angle θ here is used only as an illustration of a concept of differential cross section. In particle physics we measure a differential cross section with respect to a parameter X which can be a parameter of one of final state particles or of a system of final state particles. For example, a cross section could be measured as a function of the transverse momentum of a final state photon P_T^γ , the invariant mass of two final state leptons m_{ll} , or even discreet observables such as the number of jets associated with the process N_{jets} .

In the scenario illustrated in Fig. 2.1, the number of particles passing through the area σ per unit time is $N = L \cdot \sigma$, where L is the flux of incident particles and is called luminosity. For colliding beams, the luminosity is determined by collisions frequency, the number of colliding particles in each beam, and beams

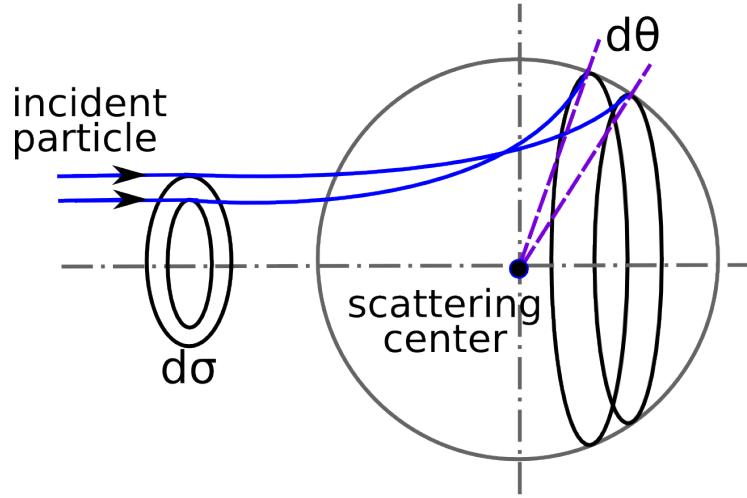


Figure 2.1: Illustration of the differential cross section concept in the classical case.

cross sections. The cross section σ of a specific process can be determined from an experiment as $\sigma = N/L$.

A cross section can be computed theoretically using the following expression:

$$\sigma = \frac{W_{fi}}{F} N_{fs}, \quad (2.26)$$

where W_{fi} is a transition probability between final and initial states of the system per unit spatial volume, F is the initial flux, and N_{fs} is the density of final states ([?], chapter 4.3). The initial flux in this expression is determined as number of incident particles per unit volume multiplied by their velocity and by the number of target particles per unit volume.

The formula for the cross section relevant for our measurement, two particles

to three final state particles scattering $1 + 2 \rightarrow 3 + 4 + 5$, is determined by the Fermi's Golden Rule [?]:

$$\sigma = \frac{1}{4\sqrt{(p_1 p_2)^2 - (m_1 m_2)^2}} \int |M|^2 (2\pi)^4 \delta^4(p_1 + p_2 - p_3 - p_4 - p_5) \prod_{j=3}^5 \frac{1}{2\sqrt{\bar{p}_j^2 + m_j^2}} \frac{d^3 \bar{p}_j}{(2\pi)^3}, \quad (2.27)$$

where p_i are four-momenta and \bar{p}_i are three momenta of the initial state and the final state particles, m_i are masses of particles, M is the process amplitude determined by the dynamics of the particles interaction. All possible momenta of the final state particles is called the phase space.

During proton-proton collisions at high energy, the hard scattering process occurs between partons in the protons, as discussed in Ch. 1.4. Therefore, the cross section of a process $pp \rightarrow X + Y$ has two ingredients: PDFs and a partonic cross section $\sigma_{ab \rightarrow X}$. The partonic cross section is described by perturbative QCD while PDFs require non-perturbative computations and are determined, in part, from experiments (Fig. 1.7). According to the QCD factorization theorem [?]:

$$\sigma(pp \rightarrow X + Y) = \sum_{a,b} \int dx_a dx_b f_a(x_a, Q^2) f_b(x_b, Q^2) \sigma(ab \rightarrow X). \quad (2.28)$$

In the case of $W\gamma$ process, X is $l\nu\gamma$, ab are $q_i\bar{q}_j$ or $q_j\bar{q}_i$. Q^2 is the large momentum scale that characterizes hard scattering, f_a and f_b are PDFs, x_a and x_b are fractions of momenta of the partons. In the next sections we will discuss the

computation of partonic cross sections of the $W\gamma$ process and possible BSM effects.

2.3 Standard Model $W\gamma$ Production

A W boson in proton-proton collisions can be produced in the processes $q\bar{q}' \rightarrow W$ where q and \bar{q}' are a quark and an antiquark which have a total charge of +1 if producing a W^+ boson or -1 if producing a W^- boson. The processes $u\bar{d} \rightarrow W^+$ and $d\bar{u} \rightarrow W^-$ are the most likely to occur because u and d are valence quarks in a proton. There are twice as many u quarks in a proton as d quarks, therefore, W^+ is produced twice more frequently than W^- . Antiquarks \bar{d} and \bar{u} come from the sea $q\bar{q}$ pairs of the other proton.

Once created, a W boson decays immediately, its lifetime is $\simeq 10^{-25}$ s. In an experiment one detects its decay products rather than the W boson itself. Decay modes of a W boson include $W^\pm \rightarrow l^\pm \nu_l (\bar{\nu}_l)$ where $l^\pm = e^\pm, \mu^\pm$ or τ^\pm with branching fractions of 11% per a leptonic channel [5]. The remaining 67% account for various $W \rightarrow q\bar{q}'$ decays. In this dissertation we only consider $W^\pm \rightarrow \mu^\pm \nu_\mu (\bar{\nu}_\mu)$ and $W^\pm \rightarrow e^\pm \nu_e (\bar{\nu}_e)$ channels.

A photon can be emitted from any charged particle of the process: a quark, an antiquark, a charged lepton or a W boson (Fig. 2.2, top). A quark and an antiquark are initial state particles and, therefore, if one of them radiates a photon, we refer to the process as initial state radiation (ISR). A muon or an electron is a final state particle and if it radiates a photon, we call such a process final state radiation (FSR). Finally, a W boson is a gauge boson and if it radiates a photon, the process has a vertex with three gauge bosons: $WW\gamma$, and we call such process the triple gauge coupling (TGC). We cannot distinguish between these processes experimentally because we detect final state particles only.

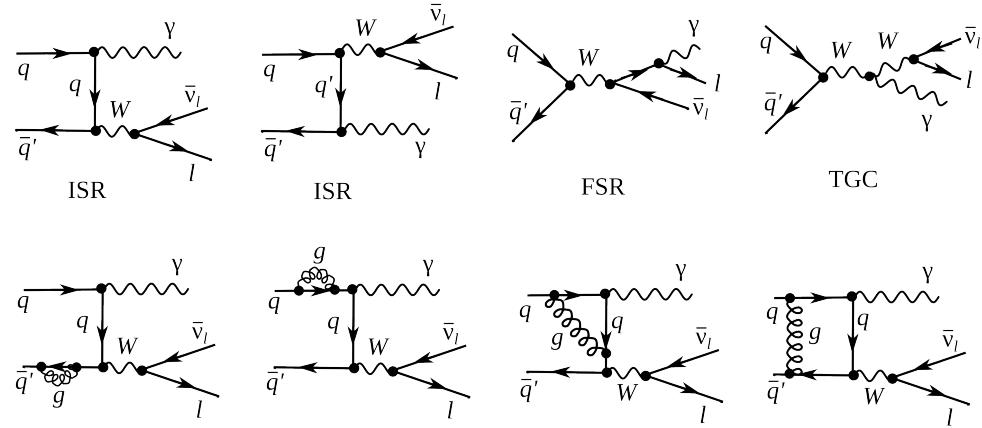


Figure 2.2: Feynman diagrams of $W\gamma$ production. Top: LO diagrams, bottom: several examples of NLO in QCD.

The electroweak Lagrangian is described in Chapter 2.1. It is possible to derive equations of motion from the Lagrangian for any fields involved [?]. However, in a quantum field theory equations of motion cannot be solved exactly and, therefore, the perturbative approach is used if a coupling constant is $g \ll 1$.

To represent the process graphically Feynman diagrams were invented. Also the diagrams can be used to calculate the process amplitude M in Eq. 2.27 because they are determined by Lagrangian terms relevant to the process. There are an infinite number of Feynman diagrams corresponding to any specific process and the total amplitude of the process is a sum of individual amplitudes of each diagram and it is not technically possible to take into account all of them. Each vertex introduces a factor in the amplitude of the process that is proportional to the coupling constant. If the coupling constant is $g \ll 1$, the perturbative approach arranges all the diagrams by orders of contribution, and, therefore, the Feynman diagrams

with fewer vertices would give a significantly larger contribution to the amplitude. In Fig. 2.2 examples of the Leading Order (LO) and the Next-to-Leading Order (NLO) Feynman diagrams are shown (top and bottom diagrams respectively).

At LO, the $W\gamma$ process is represented by four Feynman diagrams including one FSR, one TGC and two ISR diagrams. Each LO diagram has three vertices. The first calculation of the $W\gamma$ process with necessary expressions can be found in [?].

The NLO corrections to the amplitude of the $W\gamma$ process that are shown in Fig. 2.2 are QCD corrections only, which include gluon loops at the same quark line and exchange of a gluon between two different quark lines, however, QED and weak NLO diagrams are also possible. QED corrections involve radiations of extra photons by charged particles, exchange of photons between different charged particles or a photon can be radiated and absorbed by the same charged particle forming a loop. Similarly, weak corrections involve extra virtual W or Z bosons. The QCD corrections are the largest among the discussed correction types because the QCD coupling constant is the largest.

A theoretical cross section in particle physics is compared to a measurement result to test the predictions of the model. Also the theoretical cross section is used for producing simulated data. In a simulation, a large set of pp collisions resulting in a physics process of interest is modeled to create a data set that mimics real data. A typical simulation consists of two parts: the generation of the process and the simulation of particles paths through the detector. The first stage contains a collection of events with final state particles with kinematic quantities distributed

according to theoretical predictions for a given process. This stage relies on the theory including the cross section and also all dynamics of the process. The second stage simulates the interaction with media during propagation of particles through the model of the detector as well as the response of detector electronics. In its final form, a simulated dataset has the same format and content of detector signals for each event as real data, and can undergo the same reconstruction and analysis procedure as real data would.

The most precise theoretical $W\gamma$ cross section available is the Next-to-Next-to-Leading Order (NNLO) cross section in QCD [?]. The effects of the NNLO correction over the NLO correction and over the LO result are shown in Fig. 2.3 for the transverse mass of the final state particles $m_T^{l\nu\gamma}$ and for the rapidity difference between a charged lepton and a photon $\Delta_{l\gamma}$. The NNLO and NLO theoretical predictions for the photon transverse momentum p_T^γ are overlaid with the 7 TeV ATLAS result. The contribution from higher order corrections is estimated to be $\pm 4\%$. However, the NNLO theoretical result was published only recently, in 2015, and no NNLO $W\gamma$ simulation is available at this time. The simulation used in this analysis is LO + up to two hadronic jets simulation which was found to give the same predictions as the NLO result.

Certain BSM theories predict an enhancement of the contribution from the TGC diagram over the SM prediction. The discussion of these BSM effects and how they affect the $W\gamma$ process takes place in Ch. 2.4.

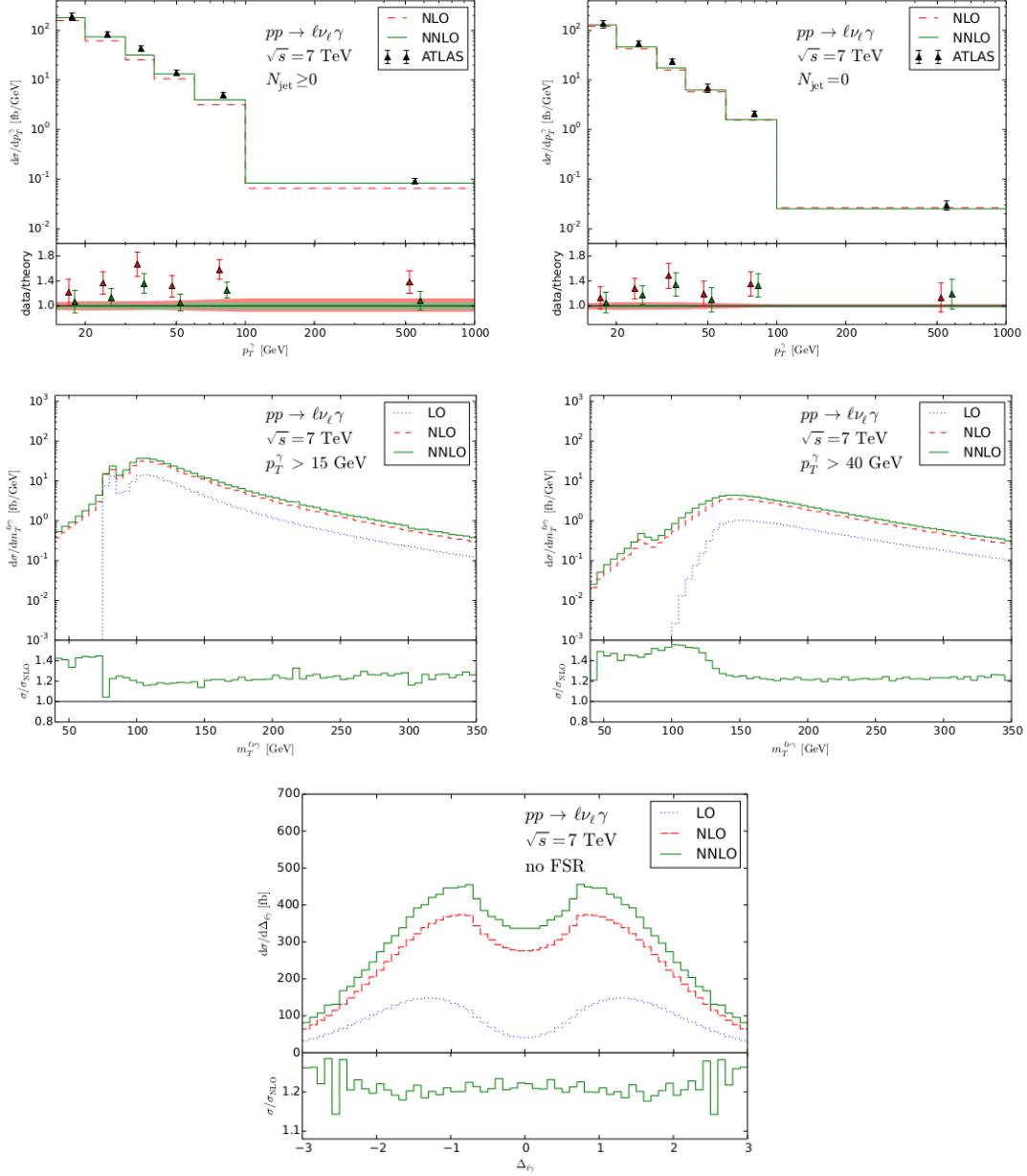


Figure 2.3: Theory spectra. Top: NLO and NNLO p_T^γ spectra of $W\gamma \rightarrow l\nu\gamma$ at $\sqrt{s} = 7$ TeV overlaid with ATLAS data for $N_{jet} \geq 0$ (left) and $N_{jet} = 0$ (right). Middle: LO, NLO and NNLO $m_T^{l\nu\gamma}$ spectra of $W\gamma \rightarrow l\nu\gamma$ at $\sqrt{s} = 7$ TeV for $P_T^\gamma > 15$ GeV (left) and $P_T^\gamma > 40$ GeV (right). Bottom: LO, NLO and NNLO $\Delta_{l\gamma}$ spectra of $W\gamma \rightarrow l\nu\gamma$ at $\sqrt{s} = 7$ TeV.

2.4 Anomalous $W\gamma$ Production

Most BSM physics theories predict the existence of particles with masses lying beyond the discovered energy range. If their masses are not accessible even at the accelerators with the highest energies, the direct detection of such particles is not possible. However, loops of heavy particles can affect diagrams of productions of lighter particles. They would give additional contributions to TGC and QGC couplings and, therefore, to the amplitudes to the processes involving TGC and QGC productions. There would be a different number of events produced in the process than one would expect based on SM predictions as shown in Fig. 2.5.

TGC and QGC couplings can be probed by precision measurements of SM processes of diboson and triboson productions because these processes can occur through TGC and QGC. TGC and QGC are represented by vertices with three and four bosons (Fig. 2.4). As discussed in Ch. 2.1, charged TGC and QGC are possible at tree level in the SM while neutral TGC and QGC are not.

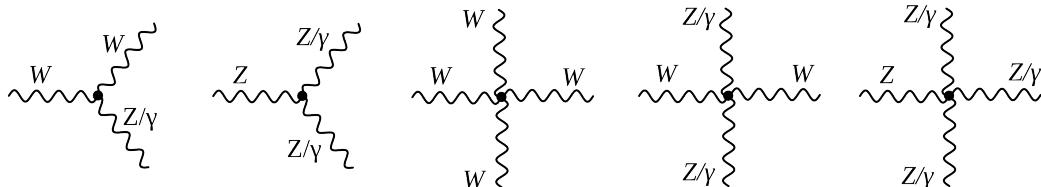


Figure 2.4: Charged TGC (first), neutral TGC (second), charged QGC (third and fourth), and neutral QGC (fifth) vertices.

To account for the effects from the potential loops of heavy particles, we introduce an effective Lagrangian with arbitrary values of coupling constants which can

be reduced to the SM Lagrangian if these constants would have their SM values. Introducing the effective Lagrangian makes searches model-independent because we do not specify particles that form the loops but instead just check whether there is a deviation from the SM prediction in measured observables.

In $W\gamma$ measurement we can probe $WW\gamma$ vertex. The most general Lorentz invariant Lagrangian terms of $WW\gamma$ interaction takes the following form [?]:

$$iL_{eff}^{WW\gamma} = iL_{eff(1)}^{WW\gamma} + iL_{eff(2)}^{WW\gamma} + iL_{eff(3)}^{WW\gamma}, \quad (2.29)$$

where

$$iL_{eff(1)}^{WW\gamma} = e[g_1^\gamma A^\mu (W_{\mu\nu}^- W^{+\nu} - W_{\mu\nu}^+ W^{-\nu}) + \kappa_\gamma W_\mu^+ W_\nu^- A^{\mu\nu} + \frac{\lambda_\gamma}{m_W^2} A^{\mu\nu} W_\nu^{+\rho} W_{\rho\mu}^-], \quad (2.30)$$

$$iL_{eff(2)}^{WW\gamma} = e[i g_5^\gamma \epsilon_{\mu\nu\rho\sigma} ((\partial^\rho W^{-\mu}) W^{+\nu} - W^{-\mu} (\partial^\rho W^{+\nu})) A^\sigma + i g_4^\gamma W_\mu^- W_\nu^+ (\partial^\mu A^\nu + \partial^\nu A^\mu)], \quad (2.31)$$

$$iL_{eff(3)}^{WW\gamma} = e[\frac{\tilde{\kappa}_\gamma}{2} W_\mu^- W_\nu^+ \epsilon^{\mu\nu\rho\sigma} A_{\rho\sigma} - \frac{\tilde{\lambda}_\gamma}{2m_W^2} W_{\rho\mu}^- W_\nu^{+\mu} \epsilon^{\nu\rho\alpha\beta} A_{\alpha\beta}], \quad (2.32)$$

where e is the absolute value of the electron charge, A^μ is the photon field, $W^{\pm\mu}$ are the fields of the W^\pm bosons, $W_{\mu\nu} = \partial_\mu W_\nu - \partial_\nu W_\mu$, $A_{\mu\nu} = \partial_\mu A_\nu - \partial_\nu A_\mu$, m_W is the mass of the W boson, g_1^γ , κ_γ , λ_γ , g_5^γ , g_4^γ , $\tilde{\kappa}_\gamma$, and $\tilde{\lambda}_\gamma$ are constants.

Despite seven constants in the extended Lagrangian, only λ_γ and κ_γ are considered in the aTGC searches. The rest of the constants are fixed to their SM values based on the following considerations. The constants $g_1^\gamma = 1$ and $g_5^\gamma = 0$ are fixed to make the Lagrangian obey the electromagnetic gauge invariance for the on-shell photons. The non-zero value of g_5^γ also violates C and P conservations, and non-zero values of g_4^γ , κ_γ , $\tilde{\lambda}_\gamma$ violate the CP conservation law. Such violation parametrizations are not considered in charged TGC measurements, thus, constants g_4^γ , κ_γ , and $\tilde{\lambda}_\gamma$ are fixed to zero.

The SM values of λ_γ and κ_γ are $\lambda_\gamma = 0$ and $\kappa_\gamma = 1$. For convenience, the deviation from the SM value is introduced $\Delta\kappa_\gamma \equiv \kappa_\gamma - 1$. These two parameters are tested in $WW\gamma$ aTGC searches because non-zero values of these parameters would not violate any fundamental law.

The most significant effects of aTGC would appear at high energy scales. Figure 2.5 shows this effect in P_T^γ spectrum of 7 TeV $W\gamma \rightarrow \mu\nu\gamma$ measurement. As seen in Fig. 2.5, the spectrum with non-zero values of aTGC constants at low P_T^γ coincides with the SM prediction but for higher P_T^γ the disagreement appears.

A common approach to aTGC searches is to measure the spectrum of a kinematic parameter highly correlated with the energy of a final state particle or a system of final state particles. For $W\gamma$ process, the most sensitive variable is P_T^γ . Examining this spectrum allows us to probe and constrain aTGC coupling constants. Chapter 2.5 reviews the experimental results to date on constraining aTGC coupling constants of the $WW\gamma$ vertex.

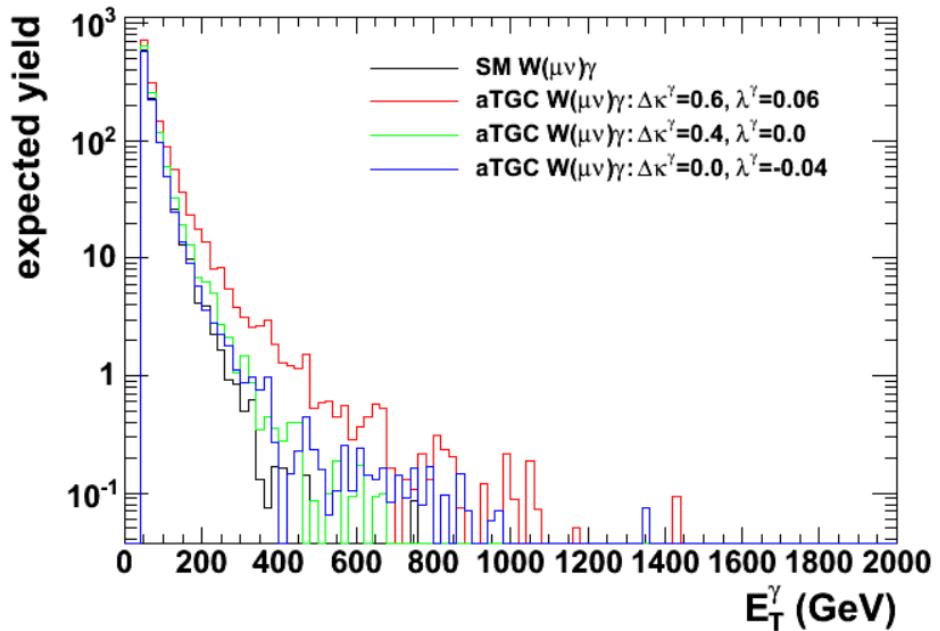


Figure 2.5: Distributions of P_T^γ in simulated $W\gamma \rightarrow \mu\nu\gamma$ events with different values of aTGC constants at LHC energy of $\sqrt{s} = 7$ TeV. Source of figure: [?].

2.5 A brief history of $W\gamma$ measurements

aTGC parameters of the $WW\gamma$ vertex can be probed in measurements of $W\gamma$, WW , WZ processes. Limits on the $\Delta\kappa_\gamma$ and λ_γ constants obtained by different experiments are summarized in Fig. 2.6. The summary includes the combination results from Do [?] and LEP [?] as well as results of several individual measurements by ATLAS and CMS including $W\gamma$ at $\sqrt{s} = 7$ TeV [?], [?], WW at $\sqrt{s} = 7$ and 8 TeV [?], [?], [?], and WV at $\sqrt{s} = 7$ and 8 TeV [?], [?] measurements.

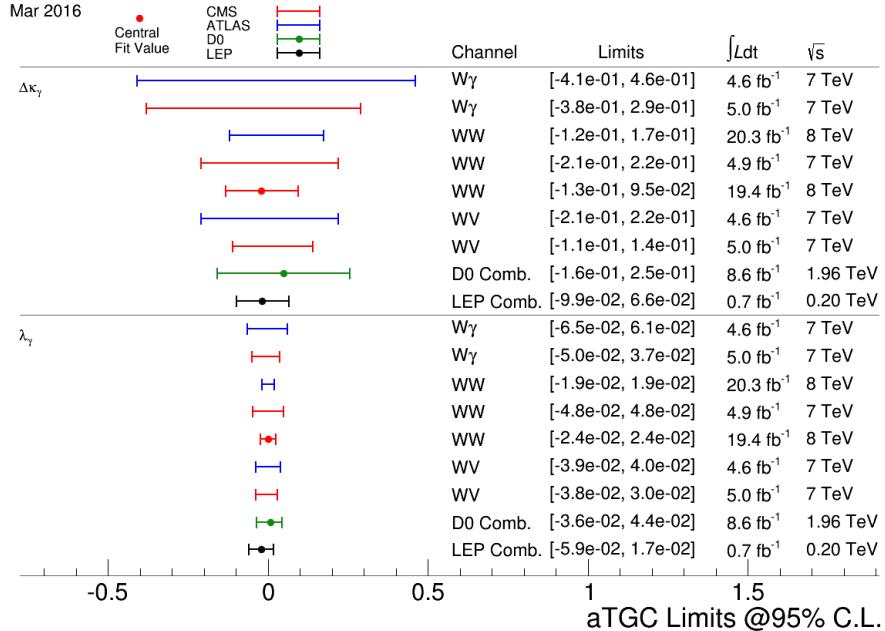


Figure 2.6: Summary of limits on the $WW\gamma$ aTGC coupling constants. Figure from [?].

The most recent measurements of $W\gamma$ production were performed by CMS [?] and ATLAS [?] collaborations with pp collisions at $\sqrt{s} = 7$ GeV collected in 2011. Both collaborations considered two channels: $W\gamma \rightarrow \mu\nu\gamma$ and $W\gamma \rightarrow e\nu\gamma$.

Diboson processes are rare in pp -collisions and analysts have to filter out events of their interest from many processes which are more likely to happen. To do that, a variety of selection criteria are applied which reject most of the background events to increase the signal fraction in the selected sample as much as possible. However, even after all possible selection criteria are applied, the majority of selected events are still background events and it is not possible to reduce the background any further without also significantly reducing signal.

The major source of such irreducible background is the fake photon background where hadronic jets are misidentified as photons. Such events originate mostly from $W+jets$, but $Z+jets$ and $t\bar{t}+jets$ events contribute to this source of background as well. In the electron channel there is one more significant background that is the fake photon background where electron is misidentified as a photon. Such events are coming from $Z+jets$ events. For the muon channels this background is small. Other sources of backgrounds for both channels include real- γ , fake lepton + real photon and fake lepton + fake photon backgrounds. The major source of real- γ background is the $Z\gamma$ process where a final state lepton and a photon mimics the $W\gamma$ final state. Fake lepton + real photon background originates from the $\gamma+jets$ process where a jet is misidentified as a lepton. Fake lepton + fake photon backgrounds come from dijet and multijet events where one of the jets is misidentified as a lepton and the other one is misidentified as a photon. The probability of a jet to be misidentified as a lepton is very small, therefore fake lepton + real photon and fake lepton + fake photon backgrounds are negligible.

P_T^γ spectra are measured because this variable is the most sensitive to the potential aTGC. The P_T^γ spectra of the selected events in data superimposed with selected

events in the simulation of the signal and estimated background contribution for the muon and electron channels are shown in Fig. 2.7 for CMS and in Fig. 2.8 for ATLAS measurement. Both measurements show a good agreement between data and the simulation.

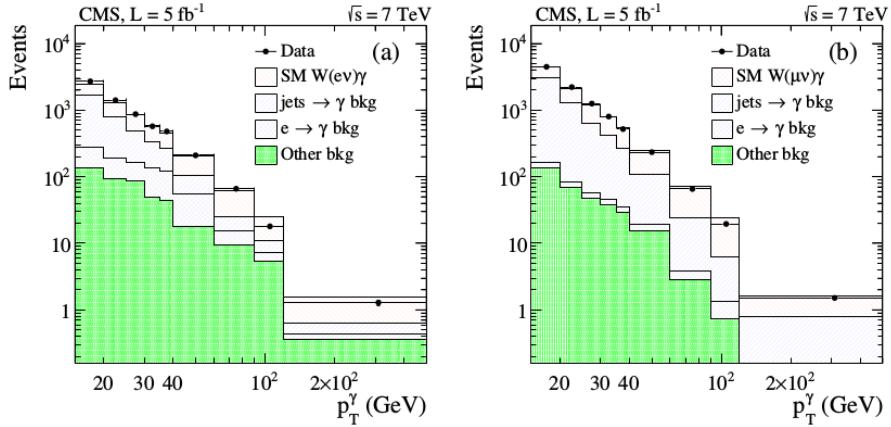


Figure 2.7: The distribution of the p_T^γ of $W\gamma$ candidates in the analysis of 7 TeV CMS data. Data vs signal MC + background estimates. Left: $W\gamma \rightarrow e\nu\gamma$, right: $W\gamma \rightarrow \mu\nu\gamma$ [?].

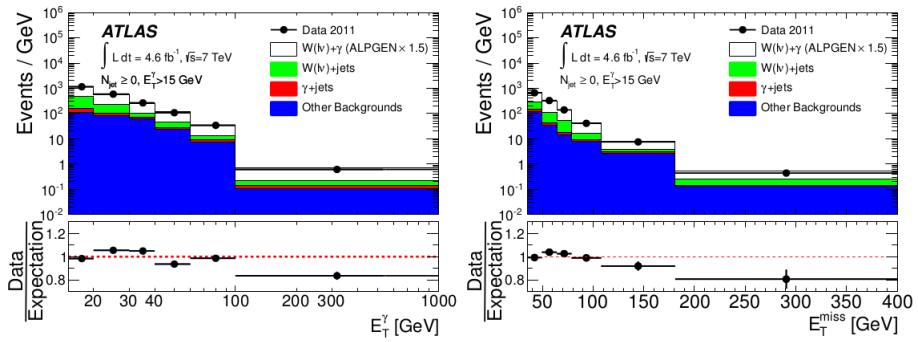


Figure 2.8: The distribution of the photon transverse momentum (left) and missing transverse momentum (right) of $W\gamma$ candidates in the analysis of 7 TeV ATLAS data. Data vs signal MC + background estimates [?].

The phase space restrictions of $W\gamma$ measurements come from the considerations of the detector acceptance, reducing heavily background-dominated regions and theoretical considerations such as to avoid divergence of the cross section and to reduce ISR and FSR contributions to the cross section.

CMS provides measurements of the P_T^γ spectrum, the total cross section within the phase spaces of $\Delta R > 0.7$, $P_T^\gamma > 15$ GeV, $P_T^\gamma > 60$ GeV and $P_T^\gamma > 90$ GeV.

ATLAS, in addition to the P_T^γ spectrum, total cross section and limits, provides the differential cross section and cross section with different number of associated jets. The phase space restrictions for ATLAS measurement include requirements on charged lepton kinematics $P_T^l > 25$ GeV, $|\eta_l| < 2.47$, requirements on the transverse momentum of a neutrino $P_T^\nu > 35$ GeV, photon kinematics $P_T^\gamma > 15$ GeV, $|\eta^\gamma| < 2.37$, photon isolation fraction $\epsilon_h^P < 0.5$ and lepton-photon separation $\Delta R(l, \gamma) > 0.7$. For the differential cross section in number of associated jets, the requirements on jets kinematics and jets separation from leptons and photons are also applied: $E_T^{jet} > 30$ GeV, $|\eta^{jet}| < 4.4$, $\Delta R(e/\mu/\gamma, jet) > 0.3$. No evidence of new physics is observed.

The estimated cross sections with any number of associated jets for $P_T^\gamma > 15$ GeV are

$$\sigma(pp \rightarrow W\gamma \rightarrow l\nu\gamma) = 37.0 \pm 0.8 \text{ (stat.)} \pm 4.0 \text{ (syst.)} \pm 0.8 \text{ (lumi.) pb} \quad (2.33)$$

and

$$\sigma(pp \rightarrow W\gamma \rightarrow l\nu\gamma) = 2.77 \pm 0.03 \text{ (stat.)} \pm 0.33 \text{ (syst.)} \pm 0.14 \text{ (lumi.) pb} \quad (2.34)$$

for CMS and ATLAS respectively. The results agree with NLO MCFM [?] predictions of 31.81 ± 1.8 pb for the phase space used by CMS and of 1.96 ± 0.17 pb for the phase space used by ATLAS.

In addition to the cross sections, both CMS and ATLAS provide limits on aTGC coupling constants $\Delta\kappa_\gamma$ and λ_γ . To do that, samples with non-zero aTGC coupling constants are generated, run through the whole reconstruction and selection procedures, and compared to the measured results of P_T^γ spectra. The results on one-dimensional limits are quoted in Fig. 2.6 while the results on two-dimensional limits can be found in [?], [?].

In this dissertation we are measuring total and differential $d\sigma/dP_T^\gamma$ cross section. While the aTGC limits are not derived in this dissertation, the measured differential cross section can be used to derive them. The measurement details and results are described in Chapter 5.

Chapter 3

Experimental Setup

3.1 Large Hadron Collider

The Large Hadron Collider (LHC) [?], [?], [?] is the largest particle accelerator and the most ambitious particle physics research facility ever built. The LHC is placed into a tunnel originally built for the LEP accelerator. The LEP was decommissioned to make room for the LHC. The tunnel is about 27 km in circumference, located at the Swiss-French boundary up to 100 meters underground.

Before entering LHC, particle beams are going through several stages of the acceleration and the LHC is the last element of the chain of the CERN's accelerator complex (Fig. 3.1). Protons are extracted from hydrogen atoms, are accelerated by Linac2 to energies of 5 MeV, then injected into the Proton Synchrotron Booster (PSB) where they reach energies of 1.4 GeV. After that protons are sent to PS and Super PS (SPS) where they are accelerated up to 25 GeV and 450 GeV respectively. Finally, protons enter the LHC and are accelerated to reach their collision energies of several TeV per beam. Besides protons, the complex also accelerates and collides lead ions however in this dissertation we analyze data from proton-proton collisions only and, therefore, are not discussing lead ion collisions.

Main goals of LHC were to detect the SM Higgs boson if it existed and to search for evidences of BSM physics which may give a clue on understanding the phenomena including but not limited to the dark matter, the matter-antimatter asymmetry, the nature of the gravitational force. Six detectors are installed at the LHC to detect particles and perform the relevant measurements. There are general purpose detectors ATLAS and CMS, there is LHCb which specializes of the physics of B-mesons, and ALICE which is designed to detect products of heavy ion

collisions. In addition, there are two relatively small detectors: LHCf and TOTEM which are installed close to the ATLAS and CMS collision points respectively.

The design energy of the LHC is 7 TeV per beam however several lower energy points were and are being probed. In 2010-2011 the LHC operated at energy of 3.5 TeV per beam which was already higher than energy of any other collider. In 2012 the energy increased up to 4 GeV. In 2013-2014 the LHC was shut down for upgrades. Collisions were restarted at 6.5 TeV in 2015 and the LHC is still operating at this energy in 2016.

All important measurements performed at lower energies are also repeated at higher energies because the ability to probe higher energy scales increases our chances for a discovery and even if no deviations from the known physics are found at a given energy point, the discovery is still possible to happen as we go higher in the energy.

The greatest achievement by the LHC today is the discovery of the Higgs boson in 2012 by the CMS [1] and the ATLAS [2] collaborations in 2012.

While different BSM searches have been constituting a significant part of the LHC physics program since the beginning of its operation, no deviations from the SM were found by any of the experiments. The searches continue with higher beam energies and larger amount of data.

In addition to the beam energy, there are many other collider parameters. A brief summary of them is available in Tab. 3.1. One of the most important pa-

rameters of an accelerator is the ability to produce a large number of interesting collisions which is determined by the luminosity. The instantaneous luminosity is determined by the following expression [5]:

$$L = f \frac{n_1 n_2}{4\pi\sigma_x\sigma_y}$$

where n_1 and n_2 are numbers of particles in colliding bunches, f is a frequency of collisions, σ_x and σ_y are beam sizes in horizontal and vertical directions. To determine the integrated luminosity, one has to integrate the instantaneous luminosity over time:

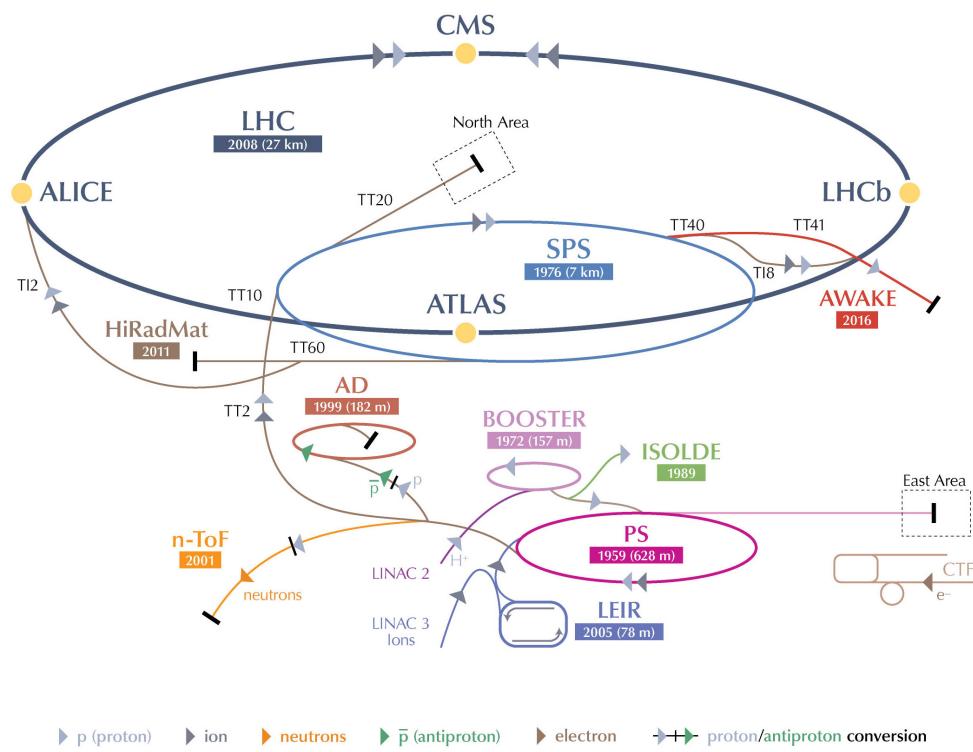
$$L_{int} = \int L dt$$

The luminosity of the LHC is also higher than of any previously existed collider. The integrated luminosity of the LHC for pp collisions for different years of the operation is shown in Fig. 3.2. Run periods of LHC in 2010-2012 refer to Run I of the LHC operation. While working on energy of $\sqrt{s} = 7$ TeV, LHC delivered 45 pb^{-1} and 6.1 fb^{-1} of data in 2010 and 2011 year respectively. In 2012 the working energy of LHC was $\sqrt{s} = 8$ TeV, and the integrated luminosity was $L_{int} = 23.3 \text{ fb}^{-1}$. After a long shutdown, LHC was upgraded for Run II, to operate on $\sqrt{s} = 13$ TeV in 2015 and delivered 4.2 fb^{-1} of data by the end of 2015. In 2016 LHC continued operating at $\sqrt{s} = 13$ TeV and delivered the integrated luminosity of 41.1 fb^{-1} [?].

The measurement of this dissertation is performed at the energy of 4 TeV per beam or at the center of mass energy $\sqrt{s} = 8$ TeV with 19.6 fb^{-1} of data. The same process was measured at $\sqrt{s} = 7$ TeV with about four times less amount of data

by both CMS and ATLAS. These measurements are discussed in greater details in Ch. 2.5.

CERN's Accelerator Complex



LHC Large Hadron Collider SPS Super Proton Synchrotron PS Proton Synchrotron

AD Antiproton Decelerator CTF3 Clic Test Facility AWAKE Advanced WAKEfield Experiment ISOLDE Isotope Separator OnLine DEvice

LEIR Low Energy Ion Ring LINAC LINear ACcelerator n-ToF Neutrons Time Of Flight HiRadMat High-Radiation to Materials

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Figure 3.1: CERN's accelerator complex. Source of the figure: [?].

Table 3.1: Main parameters of LHC [?]

Circumference	27 km
Dipole operating temperature	1.9 K
Number of magnets	9593
Number of main dipoles	1232
Number of main quadrupoles	392
Number of RF cavities	8 per beam
Nominal energy, protons	7 TeV
Nominal energy, lead ions	2.76 TeV per nucleon
Peak magnetic dipole field	8.33 T
Min. distance between bunches	7 m
Design luminosity	$10^{34} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$
No. of bunches per proton beam	2808
No. of protons per bunch (at start)	1.1×10^{11}
No. of collisions per second	600 millions

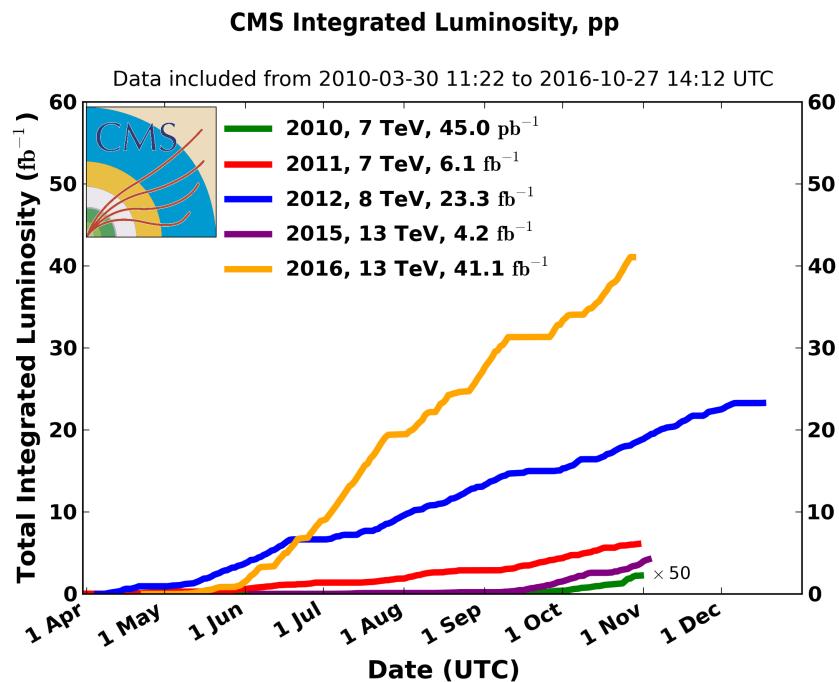


Figure 3.2: LHC integrated luminosity by year. Source of the figure: [?].

3.2 Compact Muon Solenoid

3.2.1 Introduction

The CMS is a general-purpose detector designed for detecting various highly energetic particles which are being produced in pp collisions at the LHC [?]. The CMS has a broad program with goals of direct and indirect searches of the BSM physics including but not limited to supersymmetric particles. Its main feature is a huge magnet to create a magnetic field of 4T to curve charged particles in the tracking system and of 2T outside to curve muons in the muon system.

The CMS detector is a cylindrically symmetric with a colliding beam as a central axis. Cartesian, cylindrical and spherical coordinates are all used to describe the CMS geometry, depending on the context. The x -axis of the CMS points towards the center of the LHC while the y -axis points vertically up. The direction of the z -axis corresponds to the counterclockwise direction of the LHC beam (Fig. 3.3, left). Cylindrical coordinates are defined as $r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$, $\phi = \arctan(y/x)$. Instead of the polar angle θ , it is more convenient to use the pseudorapidity $\eta = -\ln \tan \theta/2$. A pseudorapidity ranges from $\eta = -\infty$ to $\eta = +\infty$ for directions parallel to the beam axis with the value of $\eta = 0$ for a direction perpendicular to the beamline. This variable is convenient for measurements because a distribution of a massless particle in η is nearly flat. The acceptance of the CMS in η is limited and varies from $|\eta| < 2.4$ to $|\eta| < 5.0$ depending on a subdetector (Fig. 3.3, right).

The detector consists, from inner to outer layer, of a tracking system, an electromagnetic calorimeter (ECal), a hadronic calorimeter (HCal), a magnet and a muon system. Having the tracking system, ECal and HCal inside of a large solenoid

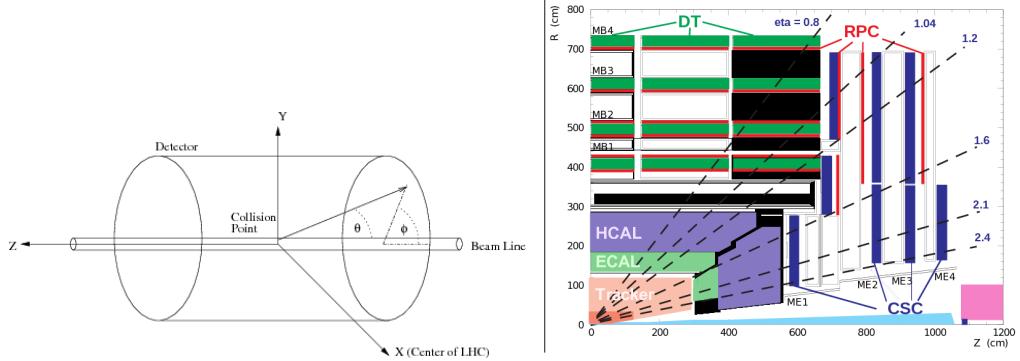


Figure 3.3: Left: CMS coordinate system. Right: pseudorapidity ranges for different CMS subdetectors.

makes the detector compact. A segment of a CMS slice in $r - \phi$ plane is shown in Fig. 3.4.

When a heavy particle is produced in a collision, it decays immediately, and we detect its long-living decay products including an electron, a photon, a muon, a neutral hadron or a charged hadron. Depending on the trace left by a particle in different subdetectors we can identify a particle. Electrons and positrons leave curved tracks in the tracking system and then induce showers in the electromagnetic calorimeter (ECal). Photons induce the same electromagnetic showers in ECal however, as neutral particles, they do not leave tracks in the tracking system. Hadrons normally travel through the ECal undisturbed and induce a hadronic shower in the hadronic calorimeter (HCal). Charged and neutral hadrons can be distinguished from each other by checking whether they leave a track in the tracking system or not. Muons are the only particles which penetrate through the ECal, the HCal and the magnet and leave tracks in the CMS muon system. Neutrinos are not detected by CMS.

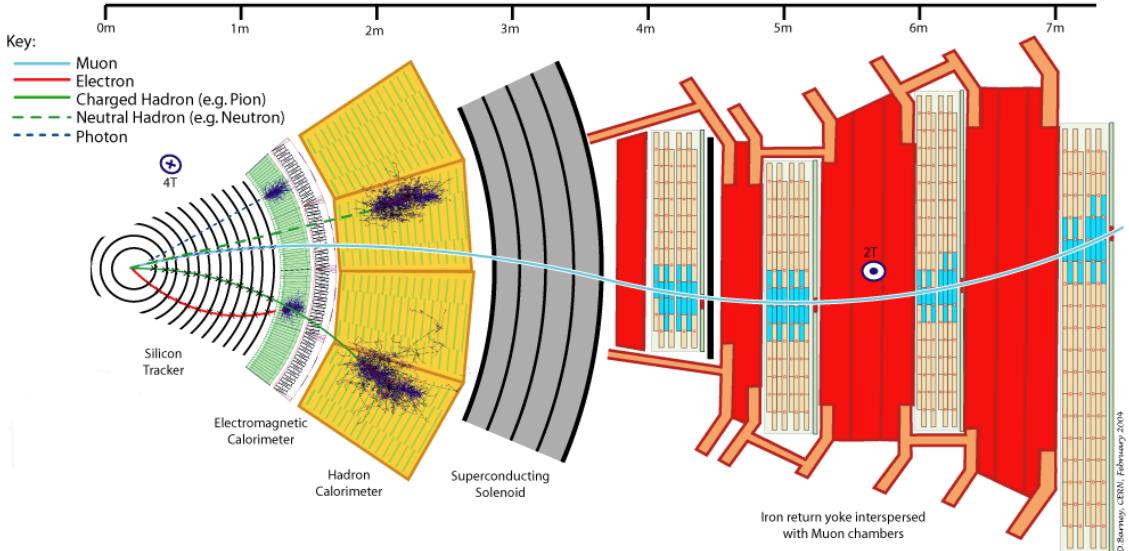


Figure 3.4: CMS slice.

All subdetectors are important for the $W\gamma$ measurement and the remainder of this chapter describes the subdetectors in greater details. Muons and electrons which we have as final state particles are both affected by CMS magnetic field allowing the tracking system and the muon system to measure their trajectory parameters and momenta. In this dissertation we use the information of the primary vertex determined by the tracking system to select our events. Also the tracker provide us the information about electrons trajectories and momenta in the electron channel and distinguishes between electrons and photons. The ECal is necessary to identify electrons and photons and to measure all kinematic parameters of photon. The HCal is also used for electrons and photons identification: the energy deposit in the HCal left by an electron or a photon must be very small compared to the energy deposit left in the ECal. The muon system is essential for muon reconstruction and identification.

3.2.2 Magnet

A magnetic field in a particle detector is necessary to measure momenta of charged particles by track curvatures. The higher the momentum is, the less a particle trajectory is affected by the magnetic field. In CMS a measurement of a charged particle momentum is performed in the tracking system for all charged particles and in the muon system for muons.

The CMS magnet is placed between layers of HCal and a muon system. It creates a magnetic field of 4T inside the magnet, for the tracking system, and 2T outside the magnet, for the muon system. It is necessary to have stronger field in the tracking system because a density of tracks is much higher there than in the muon system and also the tracking system is much smaller and, therefore, more significant curvature is necessary to measure the momentum with high precision.

The magnet is made of superconducting wires. An electric current flowing in the wires creates a uniform field inside the solenoid and also provides a magnetic field of a certain configuration outside the solenoid.

3.2.3 Tracking System

The tracking system measures track geometry including particles trajectories and locations of primary and secondary vertices and momenta of charged particles. It needs to disturb particles as little as possible so that they can pass through. Therefore, just a few measurements must be enough to reconstruct the track. The accuracy of a measurement of each hit is $10 \mu\text{m}$.

The tracking system consists of silicon pixels and silicon strips (Fig. 3.5). Collision tracks start at the center and then cross the layers of the tracking system. Tracks are straight in $r - z$ plane and curved by the magnetic field in the $r - \phi$ plane. The acceptance of the tracker system in $r - z$ plane is geometrically limited by the absolute value of the pseudorapidity $|\eta| = 2.5$.

The pixel tracker is the closest subsystem of CMS to the collision point thus it experiences the largest particle flux: at 8 cm from the collision point the flux is about 10 million $1/(cm^2 s)$, and the pixel detector with its 65 millions sensors is capable to reconstruct all these tracks. It consists of three layers of cylinders in the barrel with radii of 4 cm, 7 cm and 11 cm and four disks in the endcap, two disks at each side. The tracker is designed in such a way that a single track hits multiple sensors. Then the trajectory is reconstructed based on how much charge is collected on each sensor. This allows us to reach a spacial resolution of $15\text{-}20 \mu m$ which is much smaller than a distance between sensors.

The strip tracker is placed right after the pixel tracker and occupies the detector volume up to 130 cm around the beam axis. The strip tracker consists of four parts: the tracker inner barrel (TIB), the tracker inner disks (TID), the tracker outer barrel (TOB) and the tracker endcap (TEC) as shown in Fig. 3.5. In the strip tracker there are over 15,000 sensitive modules with a total number of 10 million strips. Each sensitive module consists of a set of sensors, its support structure and readout elements.

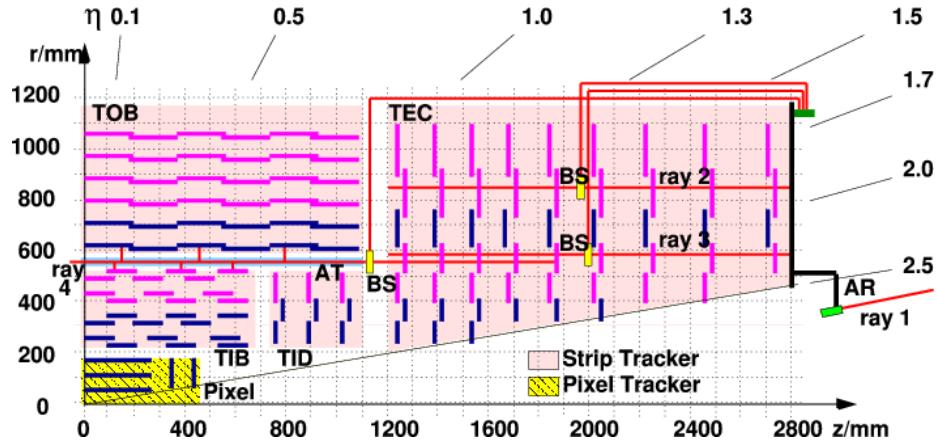


Figure 3.5: Slice of the CMS tracking system in $r - z$ plane.

3.2.4 Electromagnetic Calorimeter

The ECal measures energy of electrons and photons and also measures geometries of their trajectories. Electrons and photons interact with the ECal substance by inducing electromagnetic showers. Traces left by photons and electrons in the ECal are the same. To distinguish between these two particles, it is necessary to perform matching to the track in the tracking system. If there is a track, then there is an electron (or positron). If there is no track, then the particle is a photon.

The ECal is a layer between the tracking system and the HCal. It is made of high-density lead tungstate crystals arranged in a barrel section and two endcap sections. The crystals work as scintillators. When electrons and photons pass through it, it produces light proportional to the particle's energy. The scintillated light then is amplified by photomultipliers producing signals on sensitive elements.

It is important for the ECal to be able to distinguish between high energetic photons and pairs of lower energetic photons e.g. from a π^0 decay. It is especially

difficult in the endcap sections where angle between two photon trajectories is small. ECal preshower located in front of the endcaps which have much smaller granularity provide extra spacial precision. Their strips are 2 mm wide compared to 3 cm wide crystals in the main volume of the ECal.

3.2.5 Hadron Calorimeter

The HCal is placed right after the ECal and is the last subdetector within the magnet. The HCal measures energies of charged and neutral hadrons. In addition, the HCal determines the track parameters. Match to the tracking system has to be done: if a matching track found, then it is a charged hadron otherwise it is a neutral hadron.

The HCal consists of alternate layers of absorbers and scintillators. Hadrons hit brass or steel plate of absorber producing secondary particles. When emerge into the scintillator, the particles induce hadronic and electromagnetic showers and emit blue-violet light which is further shifted to the green region and read out by special boxes within the HCal. The secondary hadrons produced during the interaction with the absorber interact with the next absorber producing more showers in the next layers of scintillators and also affect the total energy deposit. All hadrons must be stopped inside the layers of the HCal.

3.2.6 Muon System

Muons pass through the ECal, the HCal and the magnet without interacting. They are the only particles that are registered in the muon system which is placed outside the magnet and which is the largest part of CMS detector.

There are four concentric layers of muon detectors (stations) and iron return yoke between them. Muons induce several hits in the muon stations which are later fitted and matched to the tracking system measurements to provide the best possible resolution in the measurements of all parameters of the muon's trajectory and momentum.

There are three types of muon chambers used in the CMS muon system: drift tubes (DTs), cathode strip chambers (CSCs) and resistive plate chambers (RPCs). Overall, there are 1400 muon chambers including 250 DTs, 540 CSCs and 610 RPCs.

The system of DTs measures positions of muons in the barrel. Each DT chamber is about 2 m by 2.5 m in size. It consists of 12 layers of aluminium which are arranged as groups of four. There are up to 60 drift tubes in a layer. The middle group of layers measures z-coordinate and two other groups determine the perpendicular coordinate.

Each drift tube is 4 cm in width, is filled with a gas and has a wire inside. When a charged particle passes through the volume, it ionizes atoms and the wire receives an electric charge.

CSCs are placed in endcap regions. CSCs are arrays of anode wires crossed by copper cathode strips placed in a gas volume. When a charged particle penetrates the gas volume, it ionizes the gas. Electrons drift to the wires while ions move to the strips. Strips are perpendicular to wires, thus, we measure two coordinates for each particle.

RPCs are parallel capacitors made of high-resistivity plastic plates with a space between them filled with a gas. RPCs provide quick measurements of muon momenta and are used for triggering.

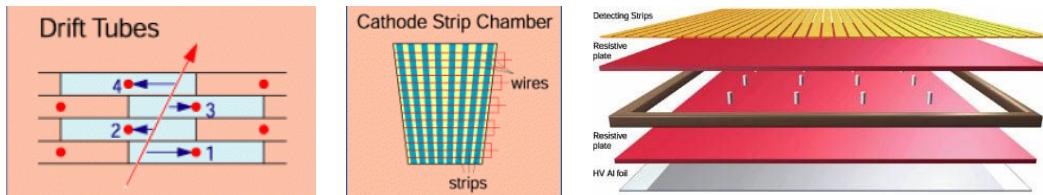


Figure 3.6: Components of the CMS muon system. Left to right: drift tubes, cathode strip chambers (CSCs), resistive plate chambers (RPCs).

3.2.7 Triggering and Data Aquisition

At peak luminosity, CMS experiences one billion proton-proton collisions per second which come in bunches separated just by 25 ns from one other. New events come before the events from the previous bunch crossing left the detector. To process the information from many different collisions at the same time, data is stored in pipelines.

It is not technically possible to readout all these events. Moreover, we do not

need most of these events for a physics analysis because most of these events do not have a potential to discover a new physics. We have resources to store about one hundred events out of one billion that is why we need a trigger system that quickly decides what the best one hundred events are.

If the triggers were too loose, and we would select one hundred events too quickly, e.g., out of a hundred million events, then CMS would not be able to process the rest 90% of events in a given set of one billion and we would lose 90% of potentially interesting events.

If the triggers were too strict, we would select, e.g, ten events out of one billion, not one hundred and lose CMS potential to store and process data by 90% which would significantly reduce our chances for a discovery.

Thus, the challenge of the trigger system is to select the best one hundred events out of one billion and do that fast to be able to process every single event. To achieve this goal, a two-level trigger system was developed consisting from the Level 1 trigger (L1T) and the high level trigger (HLT) as shown in Fig. 3.7.

L1T is a hardware based trigger (Fig. 3.8). It uses information from the ECal, HCal and muon system. L1T reduces frequency of coming events from 40 MHz to 100 kHz. Events that did not pass the L1T are lost forever while events that pass the L1T are temporarily stored to get checked by the HLT.

HLT is a software-based trigger. It uses information from all subdetectors and runs quick reconstruction and identification algorithms to determine types of

particles and their kinematics. It reduces the number of events to 100 Hz. Events that did not pass HLT are lost forever. Events that pass HLT are arranged into appropriate datasets depending on HLT selection criteria they passed and stored for physics analyses.

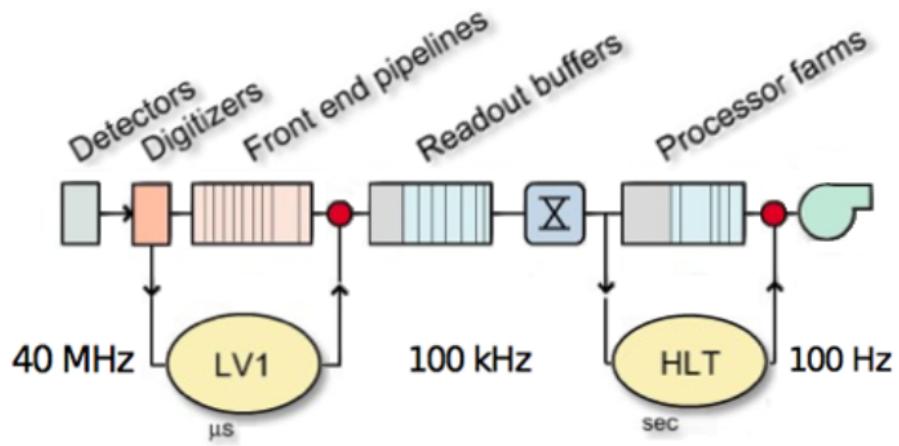


Figure 3.7: Two-level CMS trigger system.

3.2.8 Particle Flow Algorithm of Event Reconstruction

A particle flow algorithm is used by CMS to identify and reconstruct stable particles [?]. It processes the information from all CMS subdetectors and identifies and reconstructs each stable particle in an event individually. The list of particles include muons, electrons, photons, charged and neutral hadrons. Each type of particles leaves its own trace in CMS subdetectors as shown in Fig. 3.4. After that, jets are built, missing transverse energy E_T^{miss} is determined, certain short-lived particles are reconstructed based on the list of individual stable particles in the event.

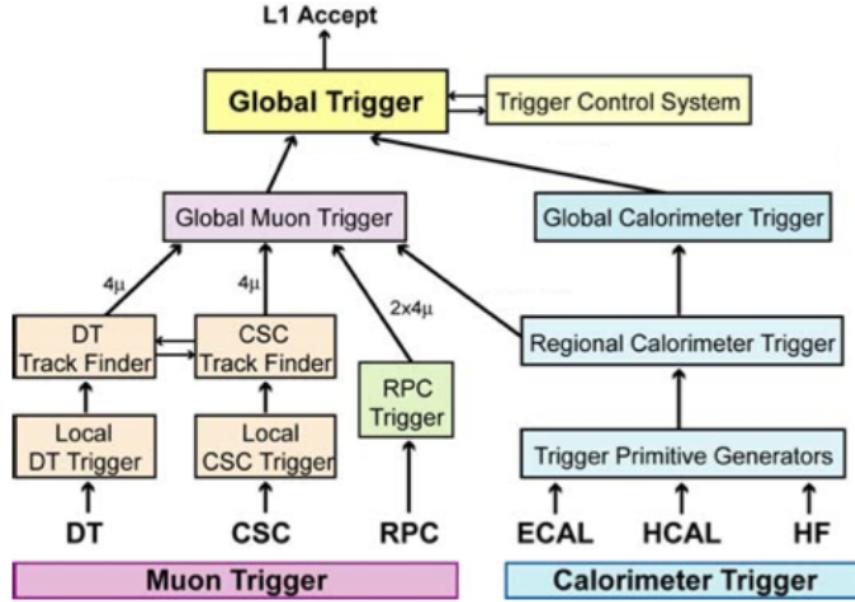


Figure 3.8: Level 1 CMS trigger system.

One particle can induce several different particle-flow elements in different subdetectors. The linking algorithm links these elements together producing blocks of elements. Usually there are from one to three elements in each block. Links can be connections between the tracking system and silicon strip pre-shower (PS), ECal or HCal, between PS and ECal, between ECal and HCal, and between a tracking system and a muon system.

In each block, muons are considered first. A link between charged tracks in the tracking and muon systems comprise a global muon which produces one “particle-flow muon”. The corresponding track in the tracking system is removed from the block and corresponding energy deposits are subtracted from ECal and HCal. Then electrons are reconstructed and identified using tracking system and

ECal. The corresponding tracks and ECal clusters are removed from the block. Remaining tracks and clusters are considered more carefully to identify charged hadrons, neutral hadrons, and photons.

When all particles in the event are reconstructed and identified, E_T^{miss} is determined as

$$E_T^{miss} = - \sum P_T \quad (3.1)$$

where the summation covers all visible particles in the event. E_T^{miss} is used in physics analyses as a measure of P_T of neutrinos and other invisible particles in the event. Fake E_T^{miss} can originate from particles that did not fall into the detector acceptance, particles with very high track curvature that they did not reach the tracking system, momenta mismeasurement, particle misidentification, cosmic rays particles, and machine background.

In the measurement of this dissertation particle flow muons, electrons, photons, and E_T^{miss} are used for all the major steps of the cross section measurement including event selection, background subtraction, various corrections, and determination of phase space restrictions and bin boundaries. Each step is described in greater details in Ch. 5.

Chapter 4

CMS Tracker Alignment

4.1 Algorithm

Why align?

How to align?

When align?

How to check that your alignment is good?

A tracking system detects hits produced by a charged particle traveling through the detector. In a presence of a constant magnetic field the particle has a helical trajectory. A reconstruction algorithm determines the track parameters by fitting the positions of hits assuming the helix trajectory.

Better hit resolution and the location uncertainty lead to better precision of a measurement of the track parameters. The location uncertainty depends on our knowledge of the positions and orientations in space of the tracking system modules. The hit resolution in the CMS pixel detector is $\sim 15 \mu\text{m}$. When the modules are mounted, their positions are known with precision of $\sim 200 \mu\text{m}$. Thus, we need to know positions of modules 20 times better than they are known when mounted.

The procedure of the determination of the modules locations and orientations is called the tracker alignment. The concept of the track-based alignment can be illustrated in the example of the alignment of a toy tracker. When a charged particle passing through a detector (Fig. 4.1, top left) it crosses a toy tracker which consists of six flat equidistant modules (Fig. 4.1, top right). If the modules were placed exactly at their designed positions, we would observe the hits exactly at the points where the track crosses modules at the points of ideal geometry (Fig. 4.1,

middle left). However, in reality the positions and tilts of the modules are different from ones suggested by the ideal geometry (Fig. 4.1, middle right). Hits, indeed, are recorded at the places where modules are actually mounted, not at the design ideal places (Fig. 4.1, bottom left). If we assumed a tracker to be ideal and a track to be smooth, we would see that our hits are off-track (Fig. 4.1, bottom right). So, we recalculate positions of the modules so that all the hits are laying on the same smooth track (Fig. 4.2, top left). But these recalculated positions still do not coincide with the actual positions (Fig. 4.2, top right). Then we record more and more tracks (Fig. 4.2, middle left and right). We take into account them all and determine the alignment parameters with necessary precision (Fig. 4.2, bottom left and right).

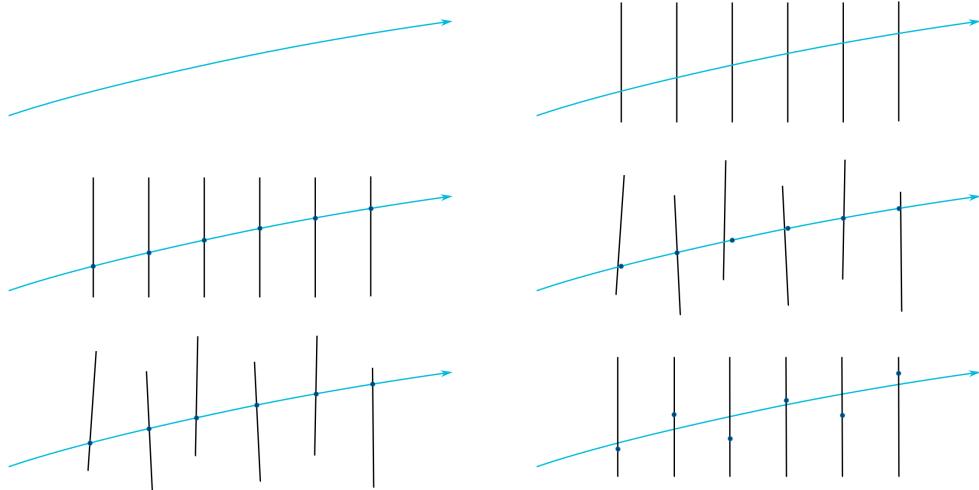


Figure 4.1: The alignment of a toy tracker, part 1.

When we record a track with a not-aligned tracker, we see that the track is not smooth. But that is because our knowledge of module positions is not exact. Thus, we can correct the positions assuming the track is smooth. But when we process

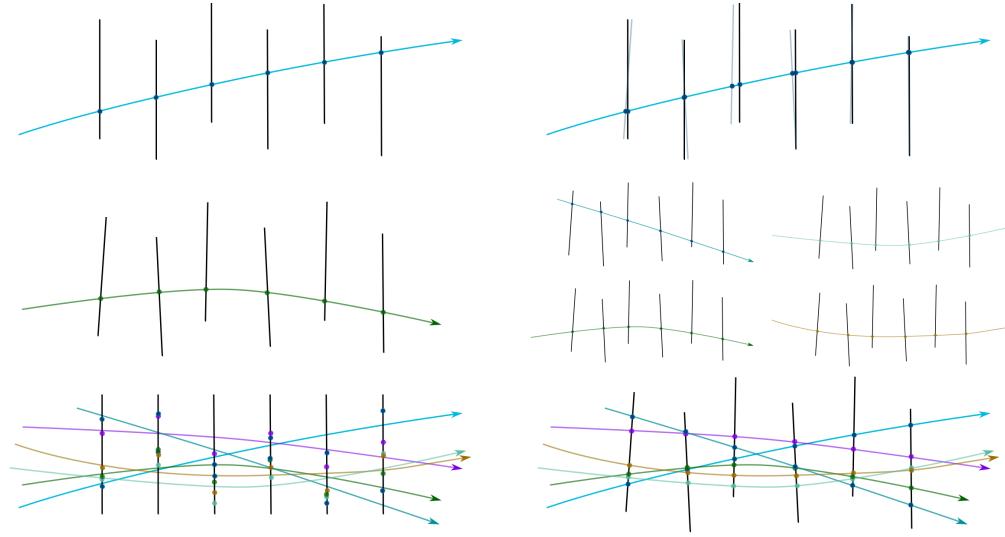


Figure 4.2: The alignment of a toy tracker, part 2.

the next track, we may find out that the positions have to be corrected again. Thus, we record many tracks and minimize residuals between measured and predicted hits.

The CMS tracker contains 1440 silicon pixel modules in PXB and PXF and 15148 silicon strip modules in TIB, TOB, TID, TEC.

The tracker alignment problem is the least squared problem. The expression to minimize is the following:

(4.1)

We can align the large substructures and individual modules with respect to their substructures. The parameters to align large substructures include their

positions and orientations of the subdetectors (rotations). Thus, each subsystem is described by six parameters: three coordinates X , Y , Z and three angles α , β , γ . At the module level, we align positions and rotations with respect to the positions and angles of the corresponding large structure (Fig. 4.3). In addition, at the module level we align for surface deformations which are described by three parameters per sensor (Fig. 4.4).

A track can be described with five parameters.

It is important to use different sorts of tracks for the alignment. Cosmic tracks pass through the detector vertically and do not allow us to connect different subdetectors to one another. Collision tracks originate from the collision point and go in all directions. However, those tracks which cross TEC are all almost collinear and, therefore, it is difficult to measure z -coordinate of TEC modules with collision tracks only.

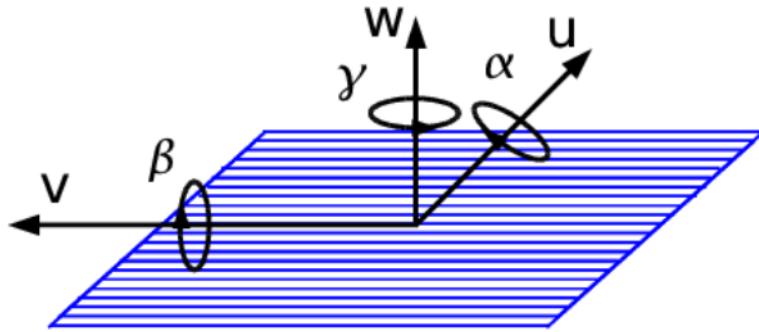


Figure 4.3: Alignment parameters.

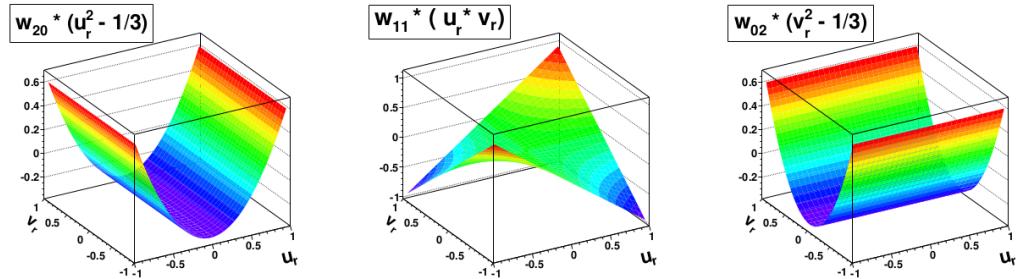


Figure 4.4: Surface deformations.

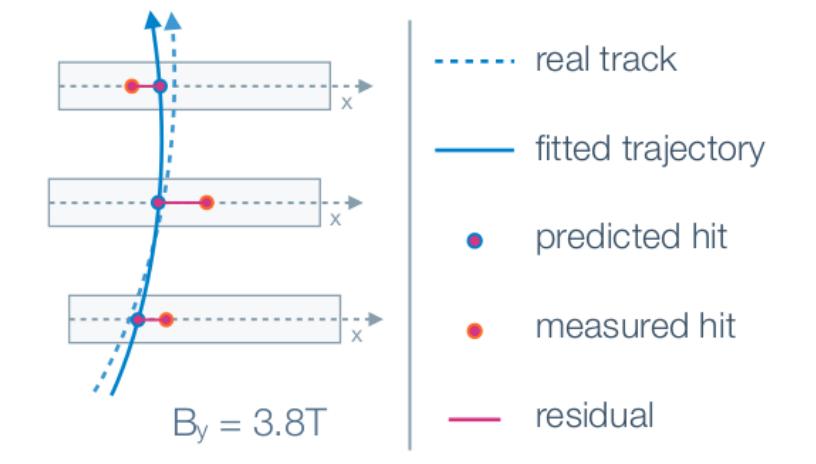


Figure 4.5: Track residuals.

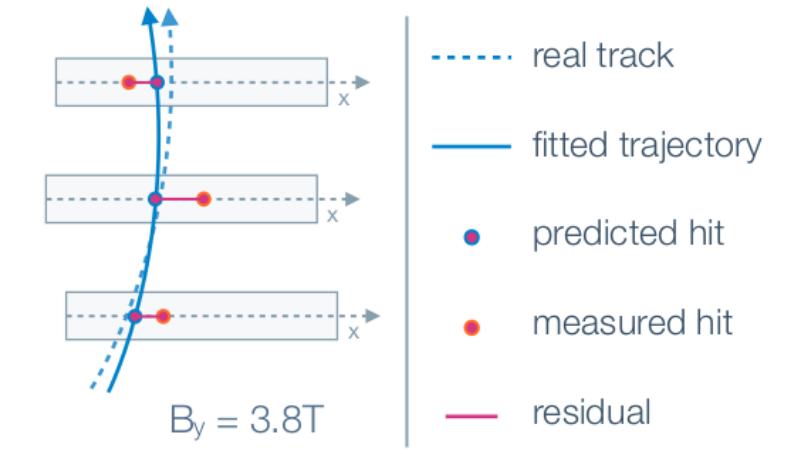


Figure 4.6: Track residuals.

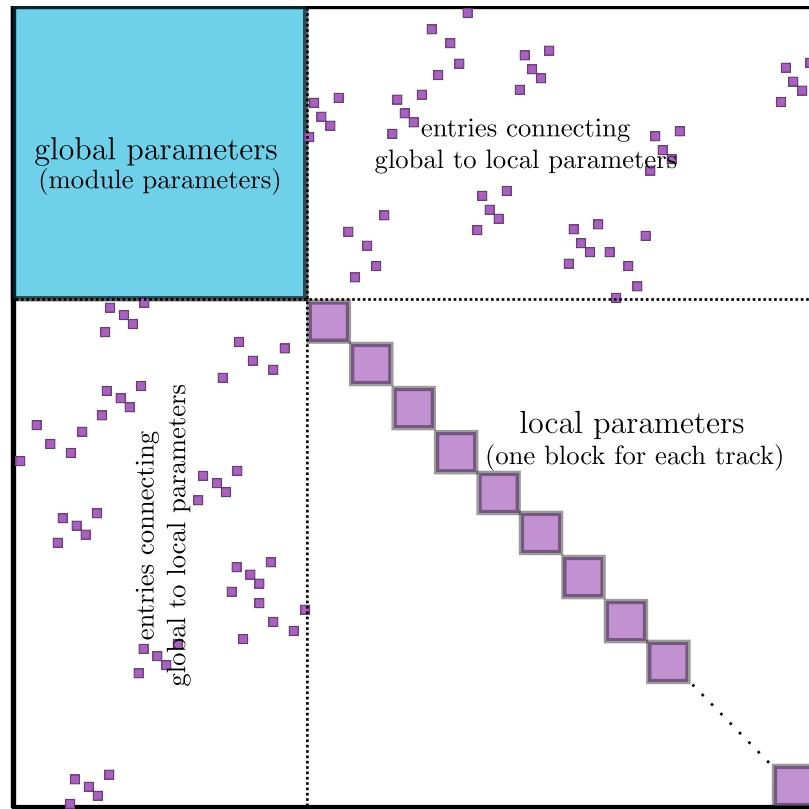


Figure 4.7: Track residuals.

4.2 Selected Results

CRUZET, CRAFT and first collisions of 2015

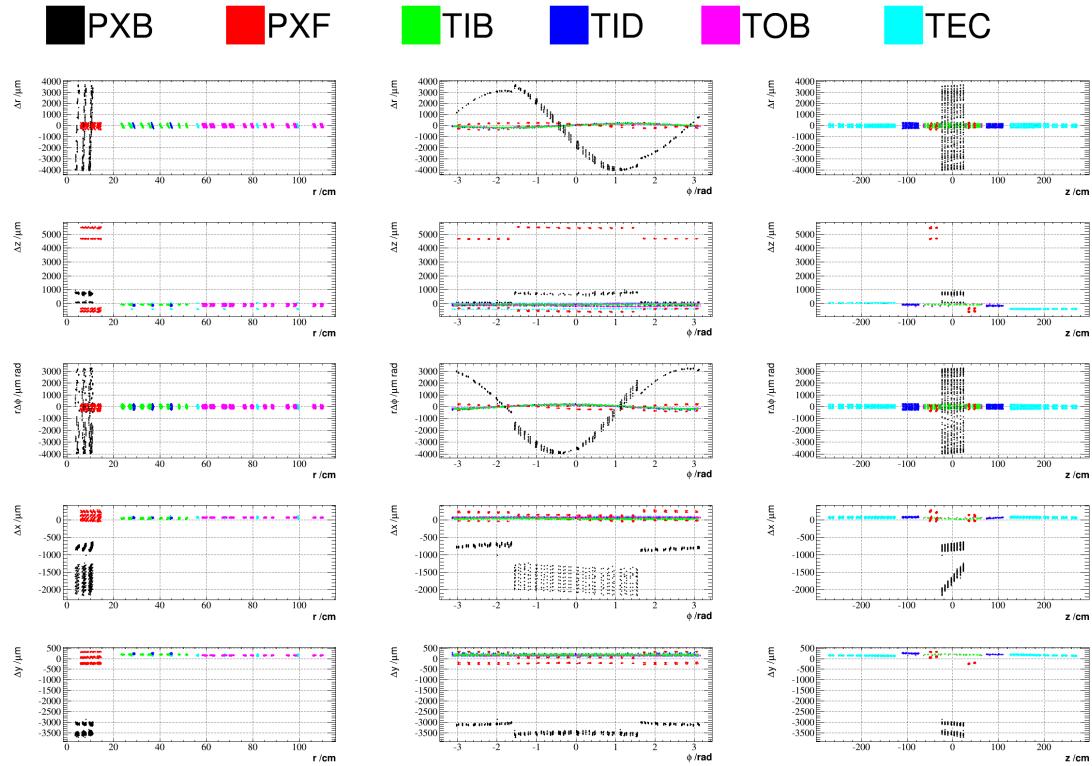


Figure 4.8: Geometry comparison plot of CRUZET 2015 object vs Run I.

Chapter 5

$W\gamma$ Cross Section Measurement

Place analysis outline here

Bibliography

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