

1 SEARCH FOR PRODUCTION OF A HIGGS BOSON AND A SINGLE TOP
2 QUARK IN MULTILEPTON FINAL STATES IN pp COLLISIONS AT $\sqrt{s} = 13$
3 TeV.

4 by

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¹⁹¹ Chapter 1

¹⁹² INTRODUCTION

¹⁹³ **Chapter 2**

¹⁹⁴ **Theoretical approach**

¹⁹⁵ **2.1 Introduction**

¹⁹⁶ The physical description of the universe is a challenge that physicists have faced by
¹⁹⁷ making theories that refine existing principles and proposing new ones in an attempt
¹⁹⁸ to embrace emerging facts and phenomena.

¹⁹⁹ At the end of 1940s Julian Schwinger [1] and Richard P. Feynman [2], based on
²⁰⁰ the work of Sin-Itiro Tomonaga [3], developed an electromagnetic theory consistent
²⁰¹ with special relativity and quantum mechanics that describes how matter and light
²⁰² interact; the so-called *quantum electrodynamics* (QED) was born.

²⁰³ QED has become the blueprint for developing theories that describe the universe.
²⁰⁴ It was the first example of a quantum field theory (QFT), which is the theoretical
²⁰⁵ framework for building quantum mechanical models that describes particles and their
²⁰⁶ interactions. QFT is composed of a set of mathematical tools that combines classical
²⁰⁷ fields, special relativity and quantum mechanics, while keeping the quantum point
²⁰⁸ particles and locality ideas.

²⁰⁹ This chapter gives an overview of the standard model of particle physics, starting

210 with a description of the particles and their interactions, followed by a description of
 211 the electroweak interaction, the Higgs boson and the associated production of Higgs
 212 boson and a single top quark (tH). The description contained in this chapter is based
 213 on References [4–6].

214 2.2 Standard model of particle physics

215 The *standard model of particle physics (SM)* describes particle physics at the funda-
 216 mental level in terms of a collection of interacting particles and fields. The full picture
 217 of the SM is composed of three fields¹ whose excitations are interpreted as particles
 218 called mediators or force-carriers, a set of fields whose excitations are interpreted as
 219 elementary particles interacting through the exchange of those mediators, and a field
 220 that gives the mass to elementary particles. Figure 2.1 shows a scheme of the SM
 221 particles’ organization. In addition, for each of the particles in the scheme there exists
 222 an antiparticle with the same mass and opposite quantum numbers. The existence of
 223 antiparticles is a prediction of the relativistic quantum mechanics from the solution
 224 of the Dirac equation for which a negative energy solution is also possible. In some
 225 cases a particle is its own anti-particle, like photon or Higgs boson.

226 The mathematical formulation of the SM is based on group theory and the use of
 227 Noether’s theorem [8] which states that for a physical system modeled by a Lagrangian
 228 that is invariant under a group of transformations a conservation law is expected. For
 229 instance, a system described by a time-independent Lagrangian is invariant (symmet-
 230 ric) under time changes (transformations) with the total energy conservation law as
 231 the expected conservation law. In QED, the charge operator (Q) is the generator of

¹ The formal and complete treatment of the SM is out of the scope of this document, however a plenty of textbooks describing it at several levels are available in the literature. The treatment in References [5, 6] is quite comprehensive and detailed. Note that gravitational field is not included in the standard model formulation

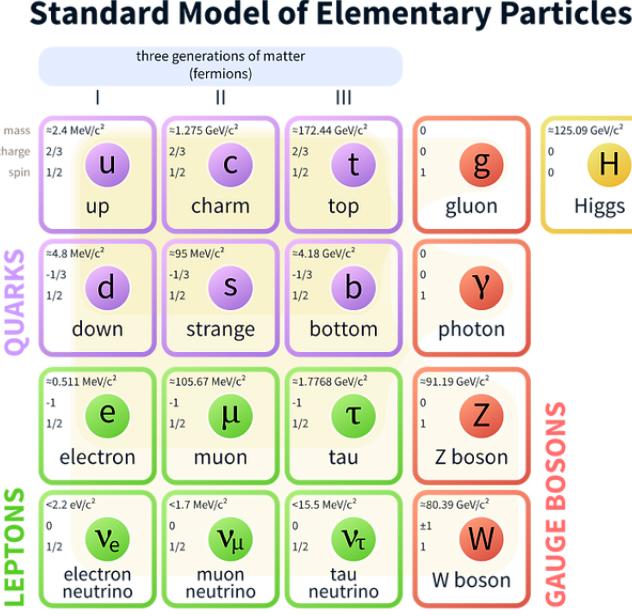


Figure 2.1: Schematic representation of the Standard Model of particle physics. The SM is a theoretical model intended to describe three of the four fundamental forces of the universe in terms of a set of particles and their interactions. [7].

232 the U(1) symmetry which according to the Noether's theorem means that there is a
 233 conserved quantity; this conserved quantity is the electric charge and thus the law
 234 conservation of electric charge is established.

235 In the SM, the symmetry group $SU(3)_C \otimes SU(2)_L \otimes U(1)_Y$ describes three of the
 236 four fundamental interactions in nature (see Section 2.2.2): strong interaction (SI),
 237 weak interaction (WI) and electromagnetic interactions (EI) in terms of symmetries
 238 associated to physical quantities:

- 239 • Strong: $SU(3)_C$ associated to color charge
- 240 • Weak: $SU(2)_L$ associated to weak isospin and chirality
- 241 • Electromagnetic: $U(1)_Y$ associated to weak hypercharge and electric charge
- 242 It will be shown that the electromagnetic and weak interactions are combined in

243 the so-called electroweak interaction where chirality, hypercharge, weak isospin and
 244 electric charge are the central concepts.

245 **2.2.1 Fermions**

246 The basic constituents of the ordinary matter at the lowest level, which form the set
 247 of elementary particles in the SM formulation, are quarks and leptons. All of them
 248 have spin 1/2, therefore they are classified as fermions since they obey Fermi-Dirac
 249 statistics. There are six *flavors* of quarks and three of leptons organized in three
 250 generations, or families, as shown in Table 2.1.

		Generation		
		1st	2nd	3rd
Leptons	Type	Charged	Electron (e)	Moun(μ)
	Neutral	Electron neutrino (ν_e)	Muon neutrino (ν_μ)	Tau neutrino (ν_τ)
Quarks	Up-type	Up (u)	Charm (c)	Top (t)
	Down-type	Down (d)	Strange (s)	Bottom (b)

Table 2.1: Fermions of the SM. There are six flavors of quarks and three of leptons, organized in three generations, or families, composed of two pairs of closely related particles. The close relationship is motivated by the fact that each pair of particles is a member of an $SU(2)_L$ doublet that has an associated invariance under isospin transformations. WI between leptons is limited to the members of the same generation; WI between quarks is not limited but greatly favored, to same generation members.

251

252 There is a mass hierarchy between generations (see Table 2.2), where the higher
 253 generation particles decays to the lower one, which can explain why the ordinary
 254 matter is made of particles from the first generation. In the SM, neutrinos are modeled
 255 as massless particles so they are not subject to this mass hierarchy; however, today it
 256 is known that neutrinos are massive so the hierarchy could be restated. The reason
 257 behind this mass hierarchy is one of the most important open questions in particle
 258 physics, and it becomes more puzzling when noticing that the mass difference between

259 first and second generation fermions is small compared to the mass difference with
 260 respect to the third generation.

Lepton	Mass (MeV/c ²)	Quark	Mass (MeV/c ²)
e	0.51	u	2.2
μ	105.65	c	1.28×10^3
τ	1776.86	t	173.1×10^3
ν_e	Unknown	d	4.7
ν_μ	Unknown	s	96
τ_μ	Unknown	b	4.18×10^3

Table 2.2: Fermion masses [9]. Generations differ by mass in a way that has been interpreted as a mass hierarchy. Approximate values with no uncertainties are used, for comparison purpose.

261

262 Usually, the second and third generation fermions are produced in high energy
 263 processes, like the ones recreated in particle accelerators.

264 2.2.1.1 Leptons

265 A lepton is an elementary particle that is not subject to the SI. As seen in Table 2.1,
 266 there are two types of leptons, the charged ones (electron, muon and tau) and the
 267 neutral ones (the three neutrinos). The electric charge (Q) is the property that gives
 268 leptons the ability to participate in the EI. From the classical point of view, Q plays
 269 a central role determining, among others, the strength of the electric field through
 270 which the electromagnetic force is exerted. It is clear that neutrinos are not affected
 271 by EI because they don't carry electric charge.

272 Another feature of the leptons that is fundamental in the mathematical description
 273 of the SM is the chirality, which is closely related to spin and helicity. Helicity
 274 defines the handedness of a particle by relating its spin and momentum such that
 275 if they are parallel then the particle is right-handed; if spin and momentum are

276 antiparallel the particle is said to be left-handed. The study of parity conservation
 277 (or violation) in β -decay has shown that only left-handed electrons/neutrinos or right-
 278 handed positrons/anti-neutrinos are created [10]; the inclusion of that feature in the
 279 theory was achieved by using projection operators for helicity, however, helicity is
 280 frame dependent for massive particles which makes it not Lorentz invariant and then
 281 another related attribute has to be used: *chirality*.

282 Chirality is a purely quantum attribute which makes it not so easy to describe in
 283 graphical terms but it defines how the wave function of a particle transforms under
 284 certain rotations. As with helicity, there are two chiral states, left-handed chiral (L)
 285 and right-handed chiral (R). In the highly relativistic limit where $E \approx p \gg m$ helicity
 286 and chirality converge, becoming exactly the same for massless particles.

287 In the following, when referring to left-handed (right-handed) it will mean left-
 288 handed chiral (right-handed chiral). The fundamental fact about chirality is that
 289 while EI and SI are not sensitive to chirality, in WI left-handed and right-handed
 290 fermions are treated asymmetrically, such that only left-handed fermions and right-
 291 handed anti-fermions are allowed to couple to WI mediators, which is a violation of
 292 parity. The way to translate this statement in a formal mathematical formulation is
 293 based on the isospin symmetry group $SU(2)_L$.

294 Each generation of leptons is seen as a weak isospin doublet.² The left-handed
 295 charged lepton and its associated left-handed neutrino are arranged in doublets of
 296 weak isospin $T=1/2$ while their right-handed partners are singlets:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \nu_l \\ l \end{pmatrix}_L, l_R := \begin{pmatrix} \nu_e \\ e \end{pmatrix}_L, \begin{pmatrix} \nu_\mu \\ \mu \end{pmatrix}_L, \begin{pmatrix} \nu_\tau \\ \tau \end{pmatrix}_L, e_R, \mu_R, \tau_R, \nu_{eR}, \nu_{\mu R}, \nu_{\tau R} \quad (2.1)$$

297 The isospin third component refers to the eigenvalues of the weak isospin operator

² The weak isospin is an analogy of the isospin symmetry in strong interaction where neutron and proton are affected equally by strong force but differ in their charge.

which for doublets is $T_3 = \pm 1/2$, while for singlets it is $T_3 = 0$. The physical meaning of this doublet-singlet arrangement falls in that the WI couples the two particles in the doublet by exchanging the interaction mediator while the singlet member is not involved in WI. The main properties of the leptons are summarized in Table 2.3.

Although all three flavor neutrinos have been observed, their masses remain unknown and only some estimations have been made [11]. The main reason is that the flavor eigenstates are not the same as the mass eigenstates which implies that when a neutrino is created its mass state is a linear combination of the three mass eigenstates and experiments can only probe the squared difference of the masses. The Pontecorvo-Maki-Nakagawa-Sakata (PMNS) mixing matrix encodes the relationship between flavor and mass eigenstates.

Lepton	$Q(e)$	T_3	L_e	L_μ	L_τ	Lifetime (s)
Electron (e)	-1	-1/2	1	0	0	Stable
Electron neutrino(ν_e)	0	1/2	1	0	0	Unknown
Muon (μ)	-1	-1/2	0	1	0	2.19×10^{-6}
Muon neutrino (ν_μ)	0	1/2	0	1	0	Unknown
Tau (τ)	-1	-1/2	0	0	1	290.3×10^{-15}
Tau neutrino (ν_τ)	0	1/2	0	0	1	Unknown

Table 2.3: Lepton properties [9]. Q: electric charge, T_3 : weak isospin. Only left-handed leptons and right-handed anti-leptons participate in the WI. Anti-particles with inverted T_3 , Q and lepton number complete the leptons set but are not listed. Right-handed leptons and left-handed anti-leptons, neither listed, form weak isospin singlets with $T_3 = 0$ and do not take part in the weak interaction.

309

310 2.2.1.2 Quarks

Quarks are the basic constituents of protons and neutrons. The way quarks join to form bound states, called *hadrons*, is through the SI. Quarks are affected by all the fundamental interactions which means that they carry all the four types of charges: color, electric charge, weak isospin and mass.

Flavor	$Q(e)$	I_3	T_3	B	C	S	T	B'	Y	Color
Up (u)	2/3	1/2	1/2	1/3	0	0	0	0	1/3	r,b,g
Charm (c)	2/3	0	1/2	1/3	1	0	0	0	4/3	r,b,g
Top(t)	2/3	0	1/2	1/3	0	0	1	0	4/3	r,b,g
Down(d)	-1/3	-1/2	-1/2	1/3	0	0	0	0	1/3	r,b,g
Strange(s)	-1/3	0	-1/2	1/3	0	-1	0	0	-2/3	r,b,g
Bottom(b)	-1/3	0	-1/2	1/3	0	0	0	-1	-2/3	r,b,g

Table 2.4: Quark properties [9]. Q: electric charge, I_3 : isospin, T_3 : weak isospin, B: baryon number, C: charmness, S: strangeness, T: topness, B' : bottomness, Y: hypercharge. Anti-quarks posses the same mass and spin as quarks but all charges (color, flavor numbers) have opposite sign.

315

316 Table 2.4 summarizes the features of quarks, among which the most remarkable
 317 is their fractional electric charge. Note that fractional charge is not a problem, given
 318 that quarks are not found isolated, but serves to explain how composed particles are
 319 formed out of two or more valence quarks³.

320 Color charge is responsible for the SI between quarks and is the symmetry ($SU(3)_C$)
 321 that defines the formalism to describe SI. There are three colors: red (r), blue (b)
 322 and green (g) and their corresponding three anti-colors; thus each quark carries one
 323 color unit while anti-quarks carries one anti-color unit. As explained in Section 2.2.2,
 324 quarks are not allowed to be isolated due to the color confinement effect, hence, their
 325 features have been studied indirectly by observing their bound states created when

- 326 • one quark with a color charge is attracted by an anti-quark with the correspond-
 327 ing anti-color charge forming a colorless particle called a *meson*.

 328 • three quarks (anti-quarks) with different color (anti-color) charges are attracted
 329 among them forming a colorless particle called a *baryon (anti-baryon)*.

³ Hadrons can contain an indefinite number of virtual quarks and gluons, known as the quark and gluon sea, but only the valence quarks determine hadrons' quantum numbers.

330 In practice, when a quark is left alone isolated a process called *hadronization* occurs
 331 where the quark emits gluons (see Section 2.2.4) which eventually will generate new
 332 quark-antiquark pairs and so on; those quarks will recombine to form hadrons that
 333 will decay into leptons. This proliferation of particles looks like a *jet* coming from
 334 the isolated quark. More details about the hadronization process and jet structure
 335 will be given in chapter4.

336 In the first version of the quark model (1964), M. Gell-Mann [12] and G. Zweig
 337 [13, 14] developed a consistent way to classify hadrons according to their properties.
 338 Only three quarks (u, d, s) were involved in a scheme in which all baryons have baryon
 339 number $B=1$ and therefore quarks have $B=1/3$; non-baryons have $B=0$. Baryon
 340 number is conserved in SI and EI which means that single quarks cannot be created
 341 but in pairs $q - \bar{q}$.

342 The scheme organizes baryons in a two-dimensional space (I_3 - Y); Y (hyper-
 343 charge) and I_3 (isospin) are quantum numbers related by the Gell-Mann-Nishijima
 344 formula [15, 16]:

$$Q = I_3 + \frac{Y}{2} \quad (2.2)$$

345 where $Y = B + S + C + T + B'$ are the quantum numbers listed in Table 2.4.

346 There are six quark flavors organized in three generations (see Table 2.1) fol-
 347 lowing a mass hierarchy which, again, implies that higher generations decay to first
 348 generation quarks.

	Quarks			T_3	Y_W	Leptons			T_3	Y_W
Doublets	$(\frac{u}{d'})_L$	$(\frac{c}{s'})_L$	$(\frac{t}{b'})_L$	$(\frac{1/2}{-1/2})$	$1/3$	$(\nu_e)_L$	$(\nu_\mu)_L$	$(\nu_\tau)_L$	$(\frac{1/2}{-1/2})$	-1
Singlets	u_R	c_R	t_R	0	$4/3$	ν_{eR}	$\nu_{\mu R}$	$\nu_{\tau R}$		
	d'_R	s'_R	b'_R	0	$-2/3$	e_R	μ_R	τ_R	0	-2

Table 2.5: Fermion weak isospin and weak hypercharge multiplets. Weak hypercharge is calculated through the Gell-Mann-Nishijima formula 2.2 but using the weak isospin and charge for quarks.

349

350 Isospin doublets of quarks are also defined (see Table 2.5), and same as for neutrinos,
 351 the WI eigenstates are not the same as the mass eigenstates which means that
 352 members of different quark generations are connected by the WI mediator; thus, up-
 353 type quarks are coupled not to down-type quarks (the mass eigenstates) directly but
 354 to a superposition of down-type quarks (q'_d ; *the weak eigenstates*) via WI according
 355 to:

356

$$\begin{aligned} q'_d &= V_{CKM} q_d \\ \begin{pmatrix} d' \\ s' \\ b' \end{pmatrix} &= \begin{pmatrix} V_{ud} & V_{us} & V_{ub} \\ V_{cd} & V_{cs} & V_{cb} \\ V_{td} & V_{ts} & V_{tb} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} d \\ s \\ b \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned} \quad (2.3)$$

357 where V_{CKM} is known as Cabibbo-Kobayashi-Maskawa (CKM) mixing matrix [17,18]
 358 given by

$$\begin{pmatrix} |V_{ud}| & |V_{us}| & |V_{ub}| \\ |V_{cd}| & |V_{cs}| & |V_{cb}| \\ |V_{td}| & |V_{ts}| & |V_{tb}| \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.97427 \pm 0.00015 & 0.22534 \pm 0.00065 & 0.00351^{+0.00015}_{-0.00014} \\ 0.22520 \pm 0.00065 & 0.97344 \pm 0.00016 & 0.0412^{+0.0011}_{-0.0005} \\ 0.00867^{+0.00029}_{-0.00031} & 0.0404^{+0.0011}_{-0.0005} & 0.999146^{+0.000021}_{-0.000046} \end{pmatrix}. \quad (2.4)$$

359 The weak decays of quarks are represented in the diagram of Figure 2.2; again
 360 the CKM matrix plays a central role since it contains the probabilities for the differ-
 361 ent quark decay channels, in particular, note that quark decays are greatly favored
 362 between generation members.

363 CKM matrix is a 3×3 unitary matrix parametrized by three mixing angles and
 364 the *CP-mixing phase*; the latter is the parameter responsible for the Charge-Parity

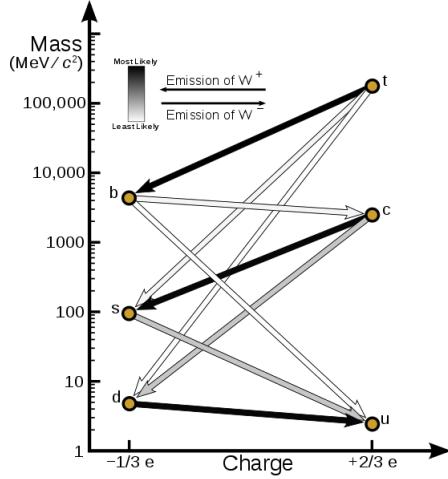


Figure 2.2: Transformations between quarks through the exchange of a WI. Higher generations quarks decay to first generation quarks by emitting a W boson. The arrow color indicates the likelihood of the transition according to the grey scale in the top left side which represent the CKM matrix parameters [19].

365 symmetry violation (CP-violation) in the SM. The fact that the top quark decays
 366 almost all the time to a bottom quark is exploited in this thesis when making the
 367 selection of the signal events by requiring the presence of a jet tagged as a jet coming
 368 from a b quark in the final state.

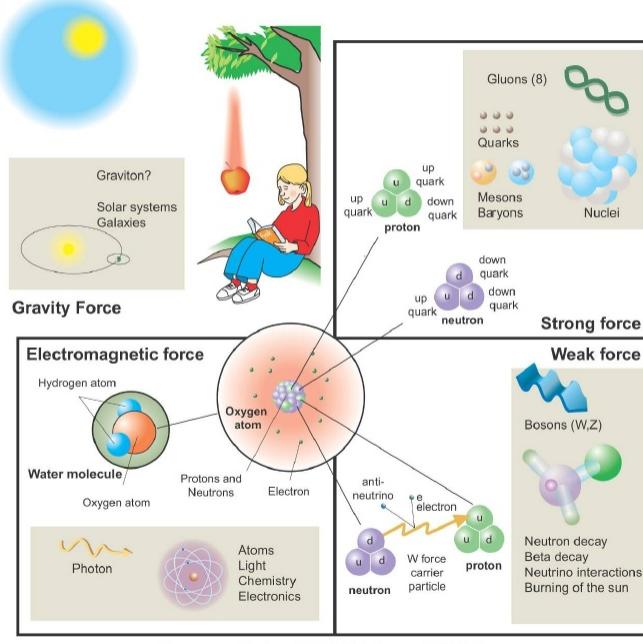
369 2.2.2 Fundamental interactions

370 Even though there are many manifestations of force in nature, like the ones repre-
 371 sented in Figure 2.3, we can classify all of them in four fundamental interactions:

- 372 • *Electromagnetic interaction (EI)* affects particles that are *electrically charged*,
 373 like electrons and protons. Figure 2.4a. shows a graphical representation, known
 374 as *Feynman diagram*, of electron-electron scattering.
- 375 • *Strong interaction (SI)* described by Quantum Chromodynamics (QCD). Hadrons
 376 like the proton and the neutron have internal structure given that they are com-

Fundamental interactions.

Illustration: Typoform



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Figure 2.3: Fundamental interactions in nature. Despite the many manifestations of forces in nature, we can track all of them back to one of the fundamental interactions. The most common forces are gravity and electromagnetic given that all of us are subject and experience them in everyday life.

posed of two or more valence quarks⁴. Quarks have fractional electric charge which means that they are subject to electromagnetic interaction and in the case of the proton they should break apart due to electrostatic repulsion; however, quarks are held together inside the hadrons against their electrostatic repulsion by the *Strong Force* through the exchange of *gluons*. The analog to the electric charge is the *color charge*. Electrons and photons are elementary particles as quarks but they don't carry color charge, therefore they are not subject to SI. A Feynman diagram for gluon exchange between quarks is shown in Figure 2.4b.

- *Weak interaction (WI)* described by the weak theory (WT), is responsible, for instance, for the radioactive decay in atoms and the deuterium production

⁴ Particles made of four and five quarks are exotic states not so common.

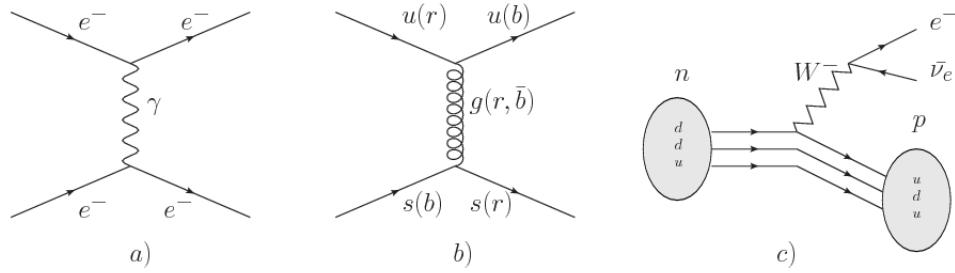


Figure 2.4: Feynman diagrams representing the interactions in SM; a) EI: e - e scattering; b) SI: gluon exchange between quarks ; c) WI: β -decay

within the sun. Quarks and leptons are the particles affected by the weak interaction; they possess a property called *flavor charge* (see 2.2.1) which can be changed by emitting or absorbing one weak force mediator. There are three mediators of the *weak force* known as Z boson in the case of electrically neutral flavor changes and W^\pm bosons in the case of electrically charged flavor changes. The *weak isospin* is the WI analog to electric charge in EI, and color charge in SI, and defines how quarks and leptons are affected by the weak force. Figure 2.4c. shows the Feynman diagram of β -decay where a neutron (n) is transformed in a proton (p) by emitting a W^- particle.

- *Gravitational interaction (GI)* described by General Theory of Relativity (GR). It is responsible for the structure of galaxies and black holes as well as the expansion of the universe. As a classical theory, in the sense that it can be formulated without even appeal to the concept of quantization, it implies that the space-time is a continuum and predictions can be made without limitation to the precision of the measurement tools. The latter represents a direct contradiction of the quantum mechanics principles. Gravity is deterministic while quantum mechanics is probabilistic; despite that, efforts to develop a quantum theory of gravity have predicted the *graviton* as mediator of the gravitational

405 force⁵.

Interaction	Acts on	Relative strength	Range (m)	Mediators
Electromagnetic (QED)	Electrically charged particles	10^{-2}	Infinite	Photon
Strong (QCD)	Quarks and gluons	1	10^{-15}	Gluon
Weak (WI)	Leptons and quarks	10^{-6}	10^{-18}	W^\pm, Z
Gravitational (GI)	Massive particles	10^{-39}	Infinite	Graviton

Table 2.6: Fundamental interactions features [20].

406

407 Table 2.6 summarizes the main features of the fundamental interactions. The
 408 strength of the interactions is represented by the coupling constants which depend
 409 on the energy scale at which the interaction is evaluated, therefore, it is the relative
 410 strength of the fundamental forces that reveals the meaning of strong and weak; in
 411 a context where the relative strength of the SI is 1, the EI is about hundred times
 412 weaker and WI is about million times weaker than the SI. A good description on how
 413 the relative strength and range of the fundamental interactions are calculated can
 414 be found in References [20, 21]. In the everyday life, only EI and GI are explicitly
 415 experienced due to the range of these interactions; i.e., at the human scale distances
 416 only EI and GI have appreciable effects, in contrast to SI which at distances greater
 417 than 10^{-15} m become negligible. Is it important to clarify that the weakness of the
 418 WI is attributed to the fact that its mediators are highly massive which affects the
 419 propagators of the interaction, as a result, the effect of the coupling constant is
 420 reduced.

⁵ Actually a wide variety of theories have been developed in an attempt to describe gravity; some famous examples are string theory and supergravity.

421 **2.2.3 Gauge invariance.**

422 QED was built successfully on the basis of the classical electrodynamics theory (CED)
 423 of Maxwell and Lorentz, following theoretical and experimental requirements imposed
 424 by

- 425 • Lorentz invariance: independence on the reference frame.
- 426 • Locality: interacting fields are evaluated at the same space-time point to avoid
 427 action at a distance.
- 428 • Renormalizability: physical predictions are finite and well defined.
- 429 • Particle spectrum, symmetries and conservation laws already known must emerge
 430 from the theory.
- 431 • Local gauge invariance.

432 The gauge invariance requirement reflects the fact that the fundamental fields
 433 cannot be directly measured but associated fields which are the observables. Electric
 434 (**E**) and magnetic (**B**) fields in CED are associated with the electric scalar potential
 435 V and the vector potential **A**. In particular, **E** can be obtained by measuring the
 436 change in the space of the scalar potential (ΔV); however, two scalar potentials
 437 differing by a constant f correspond to the same electric field. The same happens
 438 in the case of the vector potential **A**; thus, different configurations of the associated
 439 fields result in the same set of values of the observables. The freedom in choosing one
 440 particular configuration is known as *gauge freedom*; the transformation law connecting
 441 two configurations is known as *gauge transformation* and the fact that the observables
 442 are not affected by a gauge transformation is called *gauge invariance*.

443 When the gauge transformation:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{A} &\rightarrow \mathbf{A} - \Delta f \\ V &\rightarrow V - \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} \end{aligned} \tag{2.5}$$

444 is applied to Maxwell equations, they are still satisfied and the fields remain invariant.
 445 Thus, CED is invariant under gauge transformations and is called a *gauge theory*.
 446 The set of all gauge transformations form the *symmetry group* of the theory, which
 447 according to the group theory, has a set of *group generators*. The number of group
 448 generators determine the number of *gauge fields* of the theory.

449 As mentioned in the first lines of Section 2.2, QED has one symmetry group ($U(1)$)
 450 with one group generator (the Q operator) and one gauge field (the electromagnetic
 451 field A^μ). In CED there is not a clear definition, beyond the historical convention,
 452 of which fields are the fundamental and which are the associated, but in QED the
 453 fundamental field is A^μ . When a gauge theory is quantized, the gauge fields are
 454 quantized and their quanta are called *gauge bosons*. The word boson characterizes
 455 particles with integer spin which obey Bose-Einstein statistics.

456 As will be detailed in Section 2.3, interactions between particles in a system can
 457 be obtained by considering first the Lagrangian density of free particles in the sys-
 458 tem, which of course is incomplete because the interaction terms have been left out,
 459 and demanding global phase transformation invariance. Global phase transforma-
 460 tion means that a gauge transformation is performed identically to every point
 461 in the space⁶ and the Lagrangian remains invariant. Then, the global transforma-
 462 tion is promoted to a local phase transformation (this time the gauge transforma-
 463 tion depends on the position in space) and again invariance is required.

⁶ Here space corresponds to the 4-dimensional space i.e. space-time.

464 Due to the space dependence of the local transformation, the Lagrangian density is
 465 not invariant anymore. In order to reinstate the gauge invariance, the gauge covariant
 466 derivative is introduced in the Lagrangian and with it the gauge field responsible for
 467 the interaction between particles in the system. The new Lagrangian density is gauge
 468 invariant, includes the interaction terms needed to account for the interactions and
 469 provides a way to explain the interaction between particles through the exchange of
 470 the gauge boson.

471 This recipe was used to build QED and the theories that aim to explain the
 472 fundamental interactions.

473 2.2.4 Gauge bosons

474 The importance of the gauge bosons comes from the fact that they are the force
 475 mediators or force carriers. The features of the gauge bosons reflect those of the fields
 476 they represent and they are extracted from the Lagrangian density used to describe
 477 the interactions. In Section 2.3, it will be shown how the gauge bosons of the EI and
 478 WI emerge from the electroweak Lagrangian. The SI gauge bosons features are also
 479 extracted from the SI Lagrangian but it is not detailed in this document. The main
 480 features of the SM gauge bosons will be briefly presented below and summarized in
 481 Table 2.7.

482 • **Photon.** EI occurs when the photon couples to (is exchanged between) parti-
 483 cles carrying electric charge; however, The photon itself does not carry electric
 484 charge, therefore, there is no coupling between photons. Given that the photon
 485 is massless the EI is of infinite range, i.e., electrically charged particles interact
 486 even if they are located far away one from each other; this also implies that
 487 photons always move with the speed of light.

- 488 • **Gluon.** SI is mediated by gluons which just as photons are massless. They
 489 carry one unit of color charge and one unit of anticolor charge, hence, gluons
 490 can couple to other gluons. As a result, the range of the SI is not infinite
 491 but very short due to the attraction between gluons, giving rise to the *color*
 492 *confinement* which explains why color charged particles cannot be isolated but
 493 live within composite particles, like quarks inside protons.
- 494 • **W, Z.** W^\pm and Z, are massive which explains their short-range. Given that
 495 the WI is the only interaction that can change the flavor of the interacting
 496 particles, the W boson is the responsible for the nuclear transmutation where
 497 a neutron is converted into a proton or vice versa with the involvement of an
 498 electron and a neutrino (see Figure 2.4c). The Z boson is the responsible for the
 499 neutral weak processes like neutrino elastic scattering where no electric charge
 500 but momentum transference is involved. WI gauge bosons carry isospin charge
 501 which makes interaction between them possible.

Interaction	Mediator	Electric charge (e)	Color charge	Weak Isospin	mass (GeV/c ²)
Electromagnetic	Photon (γ)	0	No	0	0
Strong	Gluon (g)	0	Yes -octet	No	0
Weak	W^\pm	± 1	No	± 1	80.385 ± 0.015
	Z	0	No	0	91.188 ± 0.002

Table 2.7: SM gauge bosons main features [9].

502

503

2.3 Electroweak unification and the Higgs 504 mechanism

505 Physicists dream of building a theory that contains all the interactions in one single
 506 interaction, i.e., showing that at some scale in energy all the four fundamental inter-

actions are unified and only one interaction emerges in a *Theory of everything*. The first sign of the feasibility of such unification came from success in the construction of the CED. Einstein spent years trying to reach that full unification, which by 1920 only involved electromagnetism and gravity, with no success; however, a new partial unification was achieved in the 1960's, when S.Glashow [22], A.Salam [23] and S.Weinberg [24] independently proposed that electromagnetic and weak interactions are two manifestations of a more general interaction called *electroweak interaction* (EWI). EWI was developed by following the useful prescription provided by QED and the gauge invariance principles.

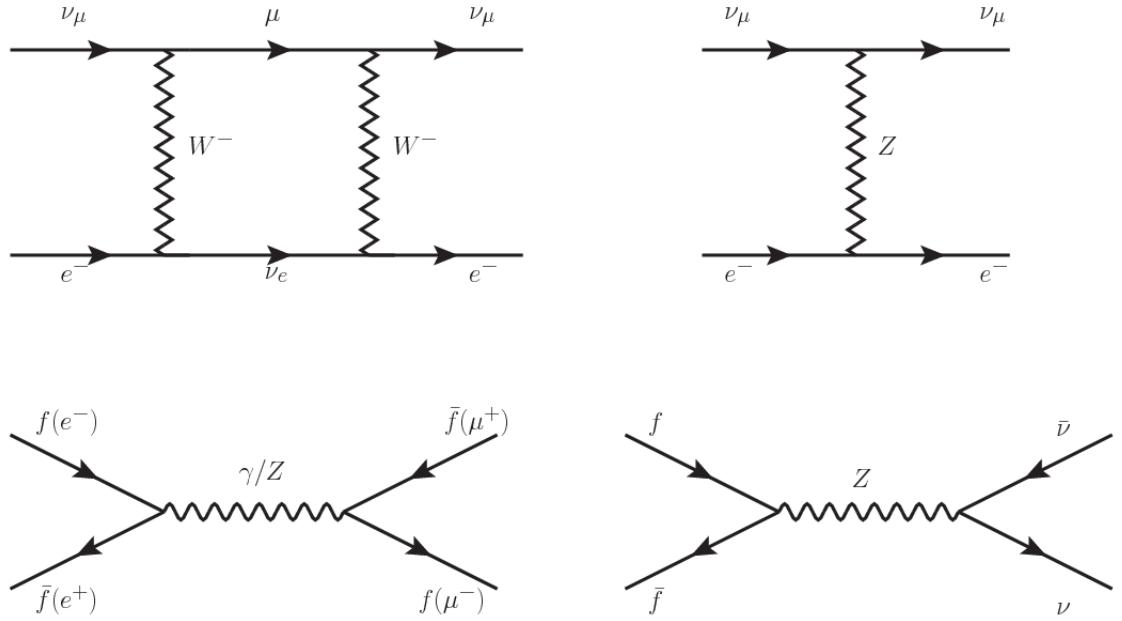


Figure 2.5: Top: $\nu_\mu - e^-$ scattering going through charged currents (left) and neutral currents (right). Bottom: neutral current processes for charged fermions (left) and involving neutrinos (right). While neutral current processes involving only charged fermions can proceed through EI or WI, those involving neutrinos can only proceed via WI.

The *classic* weak theory developed by Fermi, did not have the concept of the W boson but instead it was treated as a point interaction with the dimensionful constant G_F associated with it. It works really well at low energies very far off the W mass

shell. When going up in energy, the theory of weak interactions involving the W boson is capable of explaining the β -decay and in general the processes mediated by W^\pm bosons. However, there were some processes like the $\nu_\mu - e$ scattering which would require the exchange of two W bosons (see Figure 2.5 top diagrams) giving rise to divergent loop integrals and then non-finite predictions. The EWI theory, by including neutral currents involving fermions via the exchange of a neutral bosons Z, overcomes those divergences and the predictions become realistic.

Neutral weak interaction vertices conserve flavor in the same way as the electromagnetic vertices do, but additionally, the Z boson can couple to neutrinos which implies that processes involving charged fermions can proceed through EI or WI but processes involving neutrinos can proceed only through WI.

The prescription to build a gauge theory of the WI consists of proposing a free field Lagrangian density that includes the particles involved; next, by requesting invariance under global phase transformations first and generalizing to local phase transformations invariance later, the conserved currents are identified and interactions are generated by introducing gauge fields. Given that the goal is to include the EI and WI in a single theory, the group symmetry considered should be a combination of $SU(2)_L$ and $U(1)_{em}$, however the latter cannot be used directly because the EI treats left and right-handed particles indistinctly in contrast to the former. Fortunately, the weak hypercharge, which is a combination of the weak isospin and the electric charge (Eqn. 2.2) is suitable to be used since it is conserved by the EI and WI. Thus, the symmetry group to be considered is

$$G \equiv SU(2)_L \otimes U(1)_Y \quad (2.6)$$

The following treatment applies to any of the fermion generations, but for sim-

542 plicity the first generation of leptons will be considered [5, 6, 25, 26].

543 Given the first generation of leptons

$$\psi_1 = \begin{pmatrix} \nu_e \\ e^- \end{pmatrix}_L, \quad \psi_2 = \nu_{eR}, \quad \psi_3 = e_R^- \quad (2.7)$$

544 the charged fermionic currents are given by

$$J_\mu \equiv J_\mu^+ = \bar{\nu}_{eL} \gamma_\mu e_L, \quad J_\mu^\dagger \equiv J_\mu^- = \bar{e}_L \gamma_\mu \nu_{eL} \quad (2.8)$$

545 and the free Lagrangian is given by

$$\mathcal{L}_0 = \sum_{j=1}^3 i\bar{\psi}_j(x) \gamma^\mu \partial_\mu \psi_j(x). \quad (2.9)$$

546 Mass terms are included directly in the QED free Lagrangians since they preserve
 547 the invariance under the symmetry transformations involved which treat left and right
 548 handed particles similarly, however mass terms of the form

$$m_W^2 W_\mu^\dagger(x) W^\mu(x) + \frac{1}{2} m_Z^2 Z_\mu(x) Z^\mu(x) - m_e \bar{\psi}_e(x) \psi_e(x) \quad (2.10)$$

549 which represent the mass of W^\pm , Z and electrons, are not invariant under G trans-
 550 formations, therefore the gauge fields described by the EWI are in principle massless.

551 Experiments have shown that the EWI gauge fields are not massless [27–30];
 552 however, they have to acquire mass through a mechanism compatible with the gauge
 553 invariance; that mechanism is known as the *Higgs mechanism* and will be considered
 554 later in this Section. The global transformations in the combined symmetry group G
 555 can be written as

$$\begin{aligned}
\psi_1(x) &\xrightarrow{G} \psi'_1(x) \equiv U_Y U_L \psi_1(x), \\
\psi_2(x) &\xrightarrow{G} \psi'_2(x) \equiv U_Y \psi_2(x), \\
\psi_3(x) &\xrightarrow{G} \psi'_3(x) \equiv U_Y \psi_3(x)
\end{aligned} \tag{2.11}$$

556 where U_L represent the $SU(2)_L$ transformation acting only on the weak isospin dou-
 557 blet and U_Y represent the $U(1)_Y$ transformation acting on all the weak isospin mul-
 558 tiplets. Explicitly

$$U_L \equiv \exp\left(i \frac{\sigma_i}{2} \alpha^i\right), \quad U_Y \equiv \exp(i y_i \beta) \quad (i = 1, 2, 3) \tag{2.12}$$

559 with σ_i the Pauli matrices and y_i the weak hypercharges. In order to promote the
 560 transformations from global to local while keeping the invariance, it is required that
 561 $\alpha^i = \alpha^i(x)$, $\beta = \beta(x)$ and the replacement of the ordinary derivatives by the covariant
 562 derivatives

$$\begin{aligned}
D_\mu \psi_1(x) &\equiv \left[\partial_\mu + ig\sigma_i W_\mu^i(x)/2 + ig'y_1 B_\mu(x) \right] \psi_1(x) \\
D_\mu \psi_2(x) &\equiv \left[\partial_\mu + ig'y_2 B_\mu(x) \right] \psi_2(x) \\
D_\mu \psi_3(x) &\equiv \left[\partial_\mu + ig'y_3 B_\mu(x) \right] \psi_3(x)
\end{aligned} \tag{2.13}$$

563 introducing in this way four gauge fields, $W_\mu^i(x)$ and $B_\mu(x)$, in the process. The
 564 covariant derivatives (Eqn. 2.13) are required to transform in the same way as fermion
 565 fields $\psi_i(x)$ themselves, therefore, the gauge fields transform as:

$$\begin{aligned} B_\mu(x) &\xrightarrow{G} B'_\mu(x) \equiv B_\mu(x) - \frac{1}{g'} \partial_\mu \beta(x) \\ W_\mu^i(x) &\xrightarrow{G} W_\mu^{i\prime}(x) \equiv W_\mu^i(x) - \frac{i}{g} \partial_\mu \alpha_i(x) - \varepsilon_{ijk} \alpha_i(x) W_\mu^j(x). \end{aligned} \quad (2.14)$$

566 The G invariant version of the Lagrangian density 2.9 can be written as

$$\mathcal{L}_0 = \sum_{j=1}^3 i \bar{\psi}_j(x) \gamma^\mu D_\mu \psi_j(x) \quad (2.15)$$

567 where free massless fermion and gauge fields and fermion-gauge boson interactions
 568 are included. The EWI Lagrangian density must additionally include kinetic terms
 569 for the gauge fields (\mathcal{L}_G) which are built from the field strengths, according to

$$B_{\mu\nu}(x) \equiv \partial_\mu B_\nu - \partial_\nu B_\mu \quad (2.16)$$

$$W_{\mu\nu}^i(x) \equiv \partial_\mu W_\nu^i(x) - \partial_\nu W_\mu^i(x) - g \varepsilon^{ijk} W_\mu^j W_\nu^k \quad (2.17)$$

570 the last term in Eqn. 2.17 is added in order to hold the gauge invariance; therefore,

$$\mathcal{L}_G = -\frac{1}{4} B_{\mu\nu}(x) B^{\mu\nu}(x) - \frac{1}{4} W_{\mu\nu}^i(x) W_i^{\mu\nu}(x) \quad (2.18)$$

571 which contains not only the free gauge fields contributions, but also the gauge fields
 572 self-interactions and interactions among them.

573 The three weak isospin conserved currents resulting from the $SU(2)_L$ symmetry
 574 are given by

$$J_\mu^i(x) = \frac{1}{2} \bar{\psi}_1(x) \gamma_\mu \sigma^i \psi_1(x) \quad (2.19)$$

575 while the weak hypercharge conserved current resulting from the $U(1)_Y$ symmetry is
 576 given by

$$J_\mu^Y = \sum_{j=1}^3 \bar{\psi}_j(x) \gamma_\mu y_j \psi_j(x) \quad (2.20)$$

577 In order to evaluate the electroweak interactions modeled by an isos triplet field
 578 W_μ^i that couples to isospin currents J_μ^i with strength g and additionally the singlet
 579 field B_μ which couples to the weak hypercharge current J_μ^Y with strength $g'/2$. The
 580 interaction Lagrangian density to be considered is

$$\mathcal{L}_I = -g J^{i\mu}(x) W_\mu^i(x) - \frac{g'}{2} J^{Y\mu}(x) B_\mu(x) \quad (2.21)$$

581 Note that the weak isospin currents are not the same as the charged fermionic cur-
 582 rents that were used to describe the WI (Eqn. 2.8), since the weak isospin eigenstates
 583 are not the same as the mass eigenstates, but they are closely related

$$J_\mu = \frac{1}{2}(J_\mu^1 + iJ_\mu^2), \quad J_\mu^\dagger = \frac{1}{2}(J_\mu^1 - iJ_\mu^2). \quad (2.22)$$

584 The same happens with the gauge fields W_μ^i which are related to the mass eigen-
 585 states W^\pm by

$$W_\mu^+ = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(W_\mu^1 - iW_\mu^2), \quad W_\mu^- = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(W_\mu^1 + iW_\mu^2). \quad (2.23)$$

586 The fact that there are three weak isospin conserved currents is an indication that
 587 in addition to the charged fermionic currents, which couple charged to neutral leptons,
 588 there should be a neutral fermionic current that does not involve electric charge
 589 exchange; therefore, it couples neutral fermions or fermions of the same electric charge.
 590 The third weak isospin current contains a term that is similar to the electromagnetic

591 current (j_μ^{em}), indicating that there is a relation between them and resembling the
 592 Gell-Mann-Nishijima formula 2.2 adapted to electroweak interactions

$$Q = T_3 + \frac{Y_W}{2}. \quad (2.24)$$

593 Just as Q generates the $U(1)_{em}$ symmetry, the weak hypercharge generates the
 594 $U(1)_Y$ symmetry as said before. It is possible to write the relationship in terms of
 595 the currents as

$$j_\mu^{em} = J_\mu^3 + \frac{1}{2} J_\mu^Y. \quad (2.25)$$

596 The neutral gauge fields W_μ^3 and B_μ cannot be directly identified with the Z
 597 and the photon fields since the photon interacts similarly with left and right-handed
 598 fermions; however, they are related through a linear combination given by

$$\begin{aligned} A_\mu &= B_\mu \cos \theta_W + W_\mu^3 \sin \theta_W \\ Z_\mu &= -B_\mu \sin \theta_W + W_\mu^3 \cos \theta_W \end{aligned} \quad (2.26)$$

where θ_W is known as the *Weinberg angle*. The interaction Lagrangian is now given by

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}_I = -\frac{g}{\sqrt{2}}(J^\mu W_\mu^+ + J^{\mu\dagger} W_\mu^-) - &\left(g \sin \theta_W J_\mu^3 + g' \cos \theta_W \frac{J_\mu^Y}{2}\right) A^\mu \\ &- \left(g \cos \theta_W J_\mu^3 - g' \sin \theta_W \frac{J_\mu^Y}{2}\right) Z^\mu \end{aligned} \quad (2.27)$$

599 the first term is the weak charged current interaction, while the second term is the

600 electromagnetic interaction under the condition

$$g \sin \theta_W = g' \cos \theta_W = e, \quad \frac{g'}{g} = \tan \theta_W \quad (2.28)$$

601 contained in the Eqn.2.25; the third term is the neutral weak current.

602

603 Note that the neutral fields transformation given by the Eqn. 2.26 can be written
 604 in terms of the coupling constants g and g' as:

$$A_\mu = \frac{g' W_\mu^3 + g B_\mu}{\sqrt{g^2 + g'^2}}, \quad Z_\mu = \frac{g W_\mu^3 - g' B_\mu}{\sqrt{g^2 + g'^2}}. \quad (2.29)$$

605 So far, the Lagrangian density describing the non-massive EWI is:

$$\mathcal{L}_{nmEWI} = \mathcal{L}_0 + \mathcal{L}_G \quad (2.30)$$

606 where fermion and gauge fields have been considered massless because their regular
 607 mass terms are manifestly non invariant under G transformations; therefore, masses
 608 have to be generated in a gauge invariant way. The mechanism by which this goal is
 609 achieved is known as the *Higgs mechanism* and is closely connected to the concept of
 610 *spontaneous symmetry breaking*.

611 2.3.1 Spontaneous symmetry breaking (SSB)

612 Figure 2.6 left shows a steel nail (top) which is subject to an external force; the form
 613 of the potential energy is also shown (bottom).

614 Before reaching the critical force value, the system has rotational symmetry with
 615 respect to the nail axis; however, after the critical force value is reached the nail buck-

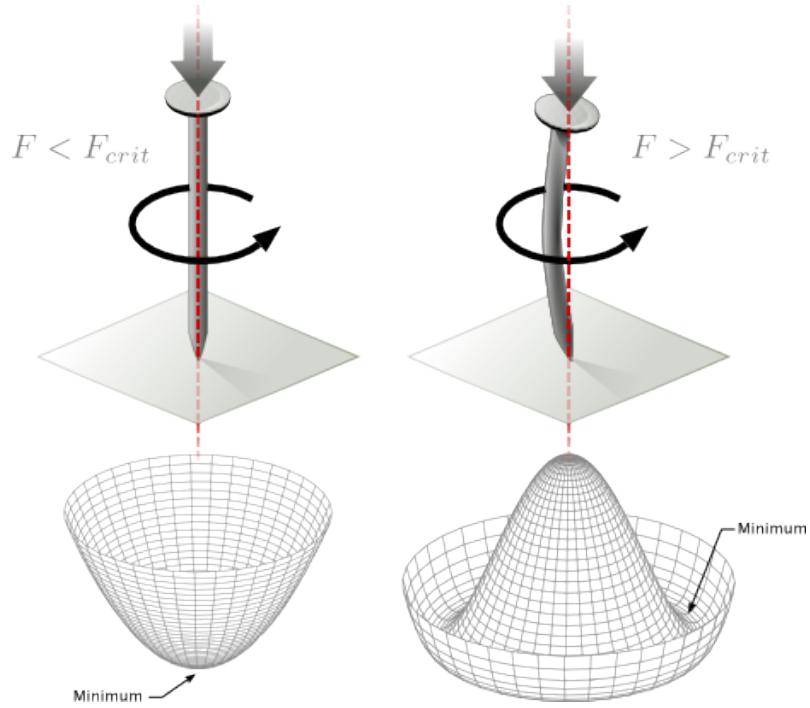


Figure 2.6: Spontaneous symmetry breaking mechanism. The steel nail, subject to an external force (top left), has rotational symmetry with respect to its axis. When the external force overcomes a critical value the nail buckles (top right) choosing a minimal energy state (ground state) and thus *breaking spontaneously the rotational symmetry*. The potential energy (bottom) changes but holds the rotational symmetry; however, an infinite number of asymmetric ground states are generated and circularly distributed in the bottom of the potential [31].

616 les (top right). The form of the potential energy (bottom right) changes appearing a
 617 set of infinity minima but preserving its rotational symmetry. Right before the nail
 618 buckles there is no indication of the direction the nail will bend because any of the
 619 directions are equivalent, but once the nail bends, choosing a direction, an arbitrary
 620 minimal energy state (ground state) is selected and it does not share the system's
 621 rotational symmetry. This mechanism for reaching an asymmetric ground state is
 622 known as *spontaneous symmetry breaking*.

623 The lesson from this analysis is that the way to introduce the SSB mechanism
 624 into a system is by adding the appropriate potential to it.

625 Figure 2.7 shows a plot of the potential $V(\phi)$ in the case of a scalar field ϕ

$$V(\phi) = \mu^2 \phi^\dagger \phi + \lambda (\phi^\dagger \phi)^2 \quad (2.31)$$

626 If $\mu^2 > 0$ the potential has only one minimum at $\phi = 0$ and describes a scalar field
 627 with mass μ . If $\mu^2 < 0$ the potential has a local maximum at $\phi = 0$ and two minima
 628 at $\phi = \pm\sqrt{-\mu^2/\lambda}$ which enables the SSB mechanism to work.

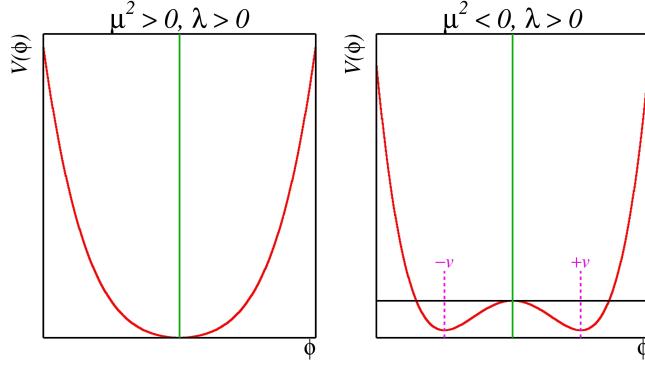


Figure 2.7: Shape of the potential $V(\phi)$ for $\lambda > 0$ and: $\mu^2 > 0$ (left) and $\mu^2 < 0$ (right). The case $\mu^2 < 0$ corresponds to the potential suitable for introducing the SSB mechanism by choosing one of the two ground states which are connected via reflection symmetry. [31].

629 In the case of a complex scalar field $\phi(x)$

$$\phi(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\phi_1 + i\phi_2) \quad (2.32)$$

630 the Lagrangian (invariant under global $U(1)$ transformations) is given by

$$\mathcal{L} = (\partial_\mu \phi)^\dagger (\partial^\mu \phi) - V(\phi), \quad V(\phi) = \mu^2 \phi^\dagger \phi + \lambda (\phi^\dagger \phi)^2 \quad (2.33)$$

631 where an appropriate potential has been added in order to introduce the SSB.

632 As seen in Figure 2.8, the potential has now an infinite number of minima circularly
 633 distributed along the ξ -direction which makes possible the occurrence of the SSB by
 634 choosing an arbitrary ground state; for instance, $\xi = 0$, i.e. $\phi_1 = v, \phi_2 = 0$

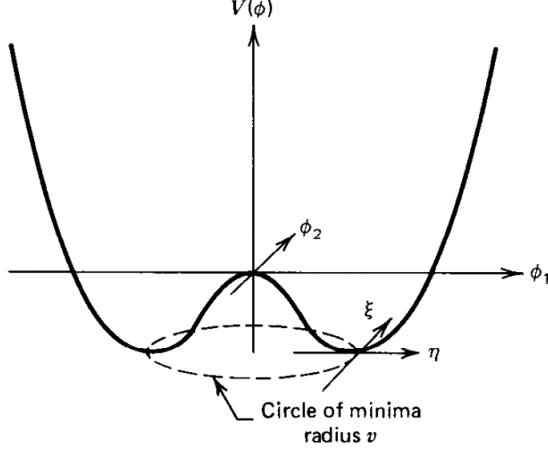


Figure 2.8: Potential for complex scalar field. There is a circle of minima of radius v along the ξ -direction [6].

$$\phi_0 = \frac{v}{\sqrt{2}} \exp(i\xi) \xrightarrow{\text{SSB}} \phi_0 = \frac{v}{\sqrt{2}} \quad (2.34)$$

635 As usual, excitations over the ground state are studied by making an expansion
636 about it; thus, the excitations can be parametrized as:

$$\phi(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(v + \eta(x) + i\xi(x)) \quad (2.35)$$

637 which when substituted into Eqn. 2.33 produces a Lagrangian in terms of the new
638 fields η and ξ

$$\mathcal{L}' = \frac{1}{2}(\partial_\mu \xi)^2 + \frac{1}{2}(\partial_\mu \eta)^2 + \mu^2 \eta^2 - V(\phi_0) - \lambda v \eta (\eta^2 + \xi^2) - \frac{\lambda}{4}(\eta^2 + \xi^2)^2 \quad (2.36)$$

639 where the last two terms represent the interactions and self-interaction between the
640 two fields η and ξ . The particular feature of the SSB mechanism is revealed when
641 looking to the first three terms of \mathcal{L}' . Before the SSB, only the massless ϕ field is

642 present in the system; after the SSB there are two fields of which the η -field has
 643 acquired mass $m_\eta = \sqrt{-2\mu^2}$ while the ξ -field is still massless (see Figure 2.9).

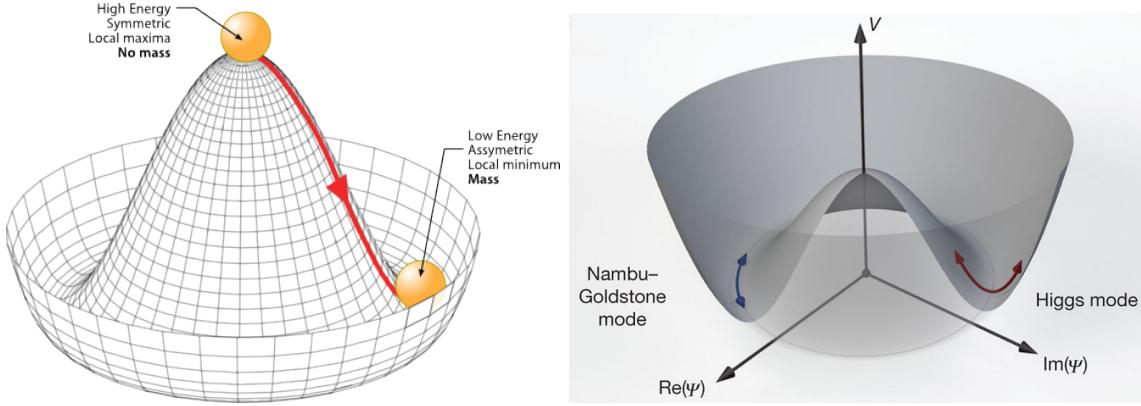


Figure 2.9: SSB mechanism for a complex scalar field [31, 32].

644 Thus, the SSB mechanism serves as a method to generate mass but as a side ef-
 645 fect a massless field is introduced in the system. This fact is known as the Goldstone
 646 theorem and states that a massless scalar field appears in the system for each con-
 647 tinuous symmetry spontaneously broken. Another version of the Goldstone theorem
 648 states that “if a Lagrangian is invariant under a continuous symmetry group G , but
 649 the vacuum is only invariant under a subgroup $H \subset G$, then there must exist as many
 650 massless spin-0 particles (Nambu-Goldstone bosons) as broken generators.” [26] The
 651 Nambu-Goldstone boson can be understood considering that the potential in the ξ -
 652 direction is flat so excitations in that direction are not energy consuming and thus
 653 represent a massless state.

654 2.3.2 Higgs mechanism

655 When the SSB mechanism is introduced in the formulation of the EWI in an attempt
 656 to generate the mass of the so far massless gauge bosons and fermions, an interesting
 657 effect is revealed. In order to keep the G symmetry group invariance and generate

658 the mass of the EW gauge bosons, a G invariant Lagrangian density (\mathcal{L}_S) has to be
 659 added to the non massive EWI Lagrangian (Eqn. 2.30)

$$\mathcal{L}_S = (D_\mu \phi)^\dagger (D^\mu \phi) - \mu^2 \phi^\dagger \phi - \lambda (\phi^\dagger \phi)^2, \quad \lambda > 0, \mu^2 < 0 \quad (2.37)$$

$$D_\mu \phi = \left(i\partial_\mu - g \frac{\sigma_i}{2} W_\mu^i - g' \frac{Y}{2} B_\mu \right) \phi \quad (2.38)$$

660 ϕ has to be an isospin doublet of complex scalar fields so it preserves the G invariance;
 661 thus ϕ can be defined as:

$$\phi = \begin{pmatrix} \phi^+ \\ \phi^0 \end{pmatrix} \equiv \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} \phi_1 + i\phi_2 \\ \phi_3 + i\phi_4 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (2.39)$$

662 The minima of the potential are defined by

$$\phi^\dagger \phi = \frac{1}{2} (\phi_1^2 + \phi_2^2 + \phi_3^2 + \phi_4^2) = -\frac{\mu^2}{2\lambda}. \quad (2.40)$$

663 The choice of the ground state is critical. By choosing a ground state, invariant
 664 under $U(1)_{em}$ gauge symmetry, the photon will remain massless and the W^\pm and Z
 665 bosons masses will be generated which is exactly what is needed. In that sense, the
 666 best choice corresponds to a weak isospin doublet with $T_3 = -1/2$, $Y_W = 1$ and $Q = 0$
 667 which defines a ground state with $\phi_1 = \phi_2 = \phi_4$ and $\phi_3 = v$:

$$\phi_0 \equiv \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ v \end{pmatrix}, \quad v^2 \equiv -\frac{\mu^2}{\lambda}. \quad (2.41)$$

668 where the vacuum expectation value v is fixed by the Fermi coupling G_F according
 669 to $v = (\sqrt{2}G_F)^{1/2} \approx 246$ GeV.

670 The G symmetry has been broken and three Nambu-Goldstone bosons will appear.

671 The next step is to expand ϕ about the chosen ground state as:

$$\phi(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \exp\left(\frac{i}{v} \sigma_i \theta^i(x)\right) \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ v + H(x) \end{pmatrix} \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} \theta_1(x) + i\theta_2(x) \\ v + H(x) - i\theta_3(x) \end{pmatrix} \quad (2.42)$$

672 to describe fluctuations from the ground state ϕ_0 . The fields $\theta_i(x)$ represent the
 673 Nambu-Goldstone bosons while $H(x)$ is known as *Higgs field*. The fundamental fea-
 674 ture of the parametrization used is that the dependence on the $\theta_i(x)$ fields is factored
 675 out in a global phase that can be eliminated by taking the physical *unitary gauge*
 676 $\theta_i(x) = 0$. Therefore the expansion about the ground state is given by:

$$\phi(x) \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ v + H(x) \end{pmatrix} \quad (2.43)$$

677 which when substituted into \mathcal{L}_S (Eqn. 2.37) results in a Lagrangian containing the
 678 now massive three gauge bosons W^\pm, Z , one massless gauge boson (photon) and
 679 the new Higgs field (H). The three degrees of freedom corresponding to the Nambu-
 680 Goldstone bosons are now integrated into the massive gauge bosons as their lon-
 681 gitudinal polarizations which were not available when they were massless particles.
 682 The effect by which vector boson fields acquire mass after an spontaneous symmetry
 683 breaking, but without an explicit gauge invariance breaking is known as the *Higgs*
 684 *mechanism*.

685 The mechanism was proposed by three independent groups: F.Englert and R.Brout
 686 in August 1964 [33], P.Higgs in October 1964 [34] and G.Guralnik, C.Hagen and
 687 T.Kibble in November 1964 [35]; however, its importance was not realized until
 688 S.Glashow [22], A.Salam [23] and S.Weinberg [24], independently, proposed that elec-
 689 tromagnetic and weak interactions are two manifestations of a more general interac-
 690 tion called *electroweak interaction* in 1967.

691 **2.3.3 Masses of the gauge bosons**

692 The masses of the gauge bosons are extracted by evaluating the kinetic part of La-
 693 grangian \mathcal{L}_S in the ground state (known also as the vacuum expectation value), i.e.,

$$\left| \left(\partial_\mu - ig \frac{\sigma_i}{2} W_\mu^i - i \frac{g'}{2} B_\mu \right) \phi_0 \right|^2 = \left(\frac{1}{2} v g \right)^2 W_\mu^+ W^{-\mu} + \frac{1}{8} v^2 (W_\mu^3, B_\mu) \begin{pmatrix} g^2 & -gg' \\ -gg' & g'^2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} W^{3\mu} \\ B^\mu \end{pmatrix} \quad (2.44)$$

694 comparing with the typical mass term for a charged boson $M_W^2 W^+ W^-$

$$M_W = \frac{1}{2} v g. \quad (2.45)$$

The second term in the right side of the Eqn.2.44 comprises the masses of the neutral bosons, but it needs to be written in terms of the gauge fields Z_μ and A_μ in order to be compared to the typical mass terms for neutral bosons, therefore using Eqn. 2.29

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{8} v^2 [g^2 (W_\mu^3)^2 - 2gg' W_\mu^3 B^\mu + g'^2 B_\mu^2] &= \frac{1}{8} v^2 [g W_\mu^3 - g' B_\mu]^2 + 0[g' W_\mu^3 + g B_\mu]^2 \quad (2.46) \\ &= \frac{1}{8} v^2 [\sqrt{g^2 + g'^2} Z_\mu]^2 + 0[\sqrt{g^2 + g'^2} A_\mu]^2 \end{aligned}$$

695 and then

$$M_Z = \frac{1}{2} v \sqrt{g^2 + g'^2}, \quad M_A = 0 \quad (2.47)$$

696 **2.3.4 Masses of the fermions**

697 The lepton mass terms can be generated by introducing a gauge invariant Lagrangian
 698 term describing the Yukawa coupling between the lepton field and the Higgs field

$$\mathcal{L}_{Yl} = -G_l \left[(\bar{\nu}_l, \bar{l})_L \begin{pmatrix} \phi^+ \\ \phi^0 \end{pmatrix} l_R + \bar{l}_R (\phi^-, \bar{\phi}^0) \begin{pmatrix} \nu_l \\ l \end{pmatrix} \right], \quad l = e, \mu, \tau. \quad (2.48)$$

699 After the SSB and replacing the usual field expansion about the ground state
 700 (Eqn.2.41) into \mathcal{L}_{Yl} , the mass term arises

$$\mathcal{L}_{Yl} = -m_l (\bar{l}_L l_R + \bar{l}_R l_L) - \frac{m_l}{v} (\bar{l}_L l_R + \bar{l}_R l_L) H = -m_l \bar{l} \left(1 + \frac{H}{v} \right) \quad (2.49)$$

701

$$m_l = \frac{G_l}{\sqrt{2}} v \quad (2.50)$$

702 where the additional term represents the lepton-Higgs interaction. The quark masses
 703 are generated in a similar way as lepton masses but for the upper member of the
 704 quark doublet a different Higgs doublet is needed:

$$\phi_c = -i\sigma_2 \phi^* = \begin{pmatrix} -\bar{\phi}^0 \\ \phi^- \end{pmatrix}. \quad (2.51)$$

705 Additionally, given that the quark isospin doublets are not constructed in terms
 706 of the mass eigenstates but in terms of the flavor eigenstates, as shown in Table 2.5,
 707 the coupling parameters will be related to the CKM matrix elements; thus, the quark
 708 Lagrangian is given by:

$$\mathcal{L}_{Yq} = -G_d^{i,j} (\bar{u}_i, \bar{d}'_i)_L \begin{pmatrix} \phi^+ \\ \phi^0 \end{pmatrix} d_{jR} - G_u^{i,j} (\bar{u}_i, \bar{d}'_i)_L \begin{pmatrix} -\bar{\phi}^0 \\ \phi^- \end{pmatrix} u_{jR} + h.c. \quad (2.52)$$

709 with $i, j = 1, 2, 3$. After SSB and expansion about the ground state, the diagonal form

710 of \mathcal{L}_{Yq} is:

$$\mathcal{L}_{Yq} = -m_d^i \bar{d}_i d_i \left(1 + \frac{H}{v}\right) - m_u^i \bar{u}_i u_i \left(1 + \frac{H}{v}\right) \quad (2.53)$$

711 Fermion masses depend on arbitrary couplings G_l and $G_{u,d}$ and are not predicted
712 by the theory.

713 2.3.5 The Higgs field

714 After the characterization of the fermions and gauge bosons as well as their interac-
715 tions, it is necessary to characterize the Higgs field itself. The Lagrangian \mathcal{L}_S in Eqn.
716 2.37 written in terms of the gauge bosons is given by

$$\mathcal{L}_S = \frac{1}{4} \lambda v^4 + \mathcal{L}_H + \mathcal{L}_{HV} \quad (2.54)$$

717

$$\mathcal{L}_H = \frac{1}{2} \partial_\mu H \partial^\mu H - \frac{1}{2} m_H^2 H^2 - \frac{1}{2v} m_H^2 H^3 - \frac{1}{8v^2} m_H^2 H^4 \quad (2.55)$$

718

$$\mathcal{L}_{HV} = m_H^2 W_\mu^+ W^{\mu-} \left(1 + \frac{2}{v} H + \frac{2}{v^2} H^2\right) + \frac{1}{2} m_Z^2 Z_\mu Z^\mu \left(1 + \frac{2}{v} H + \frac{2}{v^2} H^2\right) \quad (2.56)$$

719 The mass of the Higgs boson is deduced as usual from the mass term in the Lagrangian
720 resulting in:

$$m_H = \sqrt{-2\mu^2} = \sqrt{2\lambda}v \quad (2.57)$$

721 however, it is not predicted by the theory either. The experimental measurement of
722 the Higgs boson mass have been performed by the *Compact Muon Solenoid (CMS)*
723 experiment and the *A Toroidal LHC Appartus (ATLAS)* experiments at the *Large
724 Hadron Collider (LHC)*, [36–38], and is presented in Table 2.8.

725

Property	Value
Electric charge	0
Color charge	0
Spin	0
Weak isospin	-1/2
Weak hypercharge	1
Parity	1
Mass (GeV/c ²)	125.09±0.21 (stat.)±0.11 (syst.)

Table 2.8: Higgs boson properties. Higgs mass is not predicted by the theory and the value here corresponds to the experimental measurement.

726 2.3.6 Production of Higgs bosons at LHC

727 At the LHC, Higgs bosons are produced as a result of the collision of two counter-
 728 rotating protons beams. A detailed description of the LHC machine will be presented
 in chapter 3.

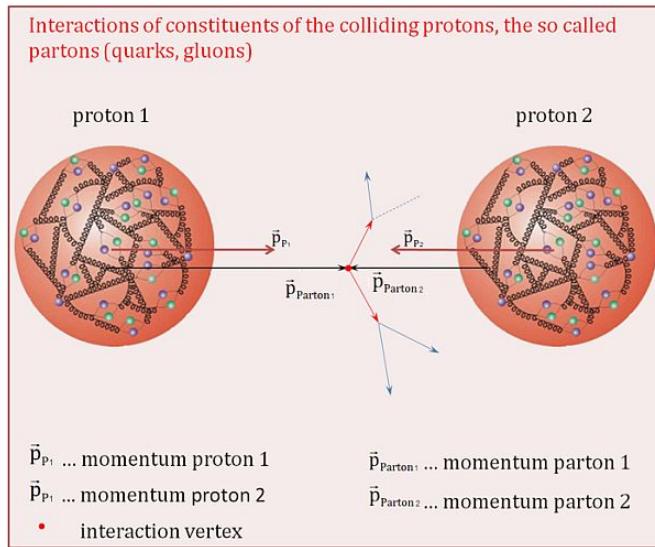


Figure 2.10: Proton-proton collision. Protons are composed of 3 valence quarks, a sea of quarks and gluons; therefore in a proton-proton collision, quarks and gluons are those who collide. [39].

729

730 Protons are composed of quarks and these quarks are bound by gluons; however,
731 what is commonly called the quark content of the proton makes reference to the
732 valence quarks. In fact, a proton is not just a rigid entity with three balls in it all
733 tied up with springs, but the gluons exchanged by the valence quarks tend to split

734 spontaneously into quark-antiquark pairs or more gluons, creating *sea of quarks and*
 735 *gluons* as represented in Figure 2.10.

736 In a proton-proton (pp) collision, the proton's constituents, quarks and gluons, are
 737 those that collide. The pp cross section depends on the momentum of the colliding
 738 particles, reason for which it is needed to know how the momentum is distributed
 739 inside the proton. Quarks and gluons are known as partons, hence, the functions
 740 that describe how the proton momentum is distributed among partons inside it are
 741 called *parton distribution functions (PDFs)*; PDFs are determined from experimental
 742 data obtained in experiments where the internal structure of hadrons is tested, and
 743 depend on the momentum transfer Q and the fraction of momentum x carried by an
 744 specific parton. Figure 2.11 shows the proton PDFs ($xf(x, Q^2)$) for two values of Q .

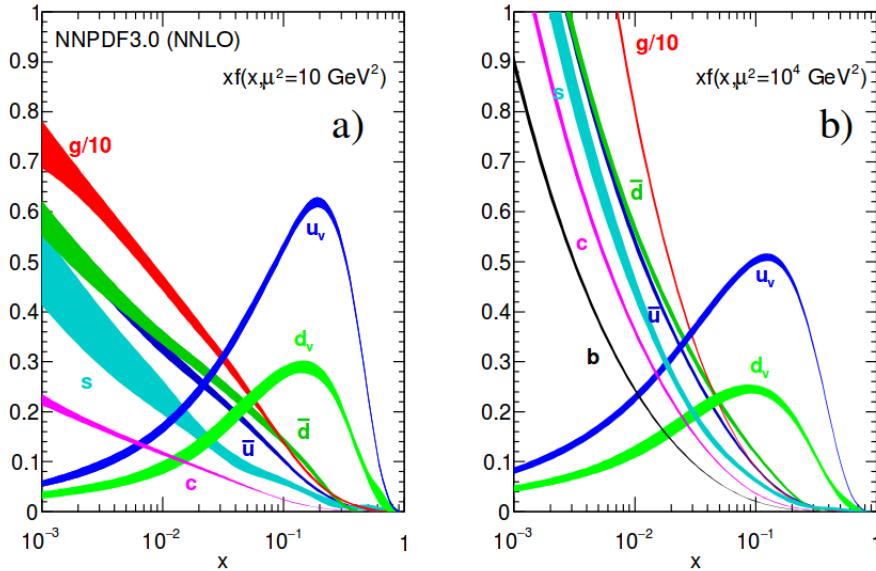


Figure 2.11: Proton PDFs for two values of Q^2 : left. $\mu^2 = Q^2 = 10 \text{ GeV}^2$, right. $\mu^2 = Q^2 = 10^4 \text{ GeV}^2$. u_v and d_v correspond to the u and d valence quarks, $s, c, b, \bar{u}, \bar{d}$ correspond to sea quarks, and g corresponds to gluons. Note that gluons carry a high fraction of the proton's momentum. [9]

745 In physics, a common approach to study complex systems consists of starting
 746 with a simpler version of them, for which a well known description is available, and

747 adding an additional *perturbation* which represents a small deviation from the known
 748 behavior. If the perturbation is small enough, the physical quantities associated with
 749 the perturbed system are expressed as a series of corrections to those of the simpler
 750 system. The perturbation series corresponds to an expansion in power series of a small
 751 parameter, therefore, the more terms are considered in the series (the higher order
 752 in the perturbation series), the more precise is the the description of the complex
 753 system. If the perturbation does not get progressively smaller, the strategy cannot
 754 be applied and new methods have to be employed.

755 High energy systems, like the Higgs production at LHC explored in this thesis,
 756 usually can be treated perturbatively with the expansion made in terms of the cou-
 757 pling constants. The overview presented here will be oriented specifically to the Higgs
 758 boson production mechanisms in pp collisions at LHC.

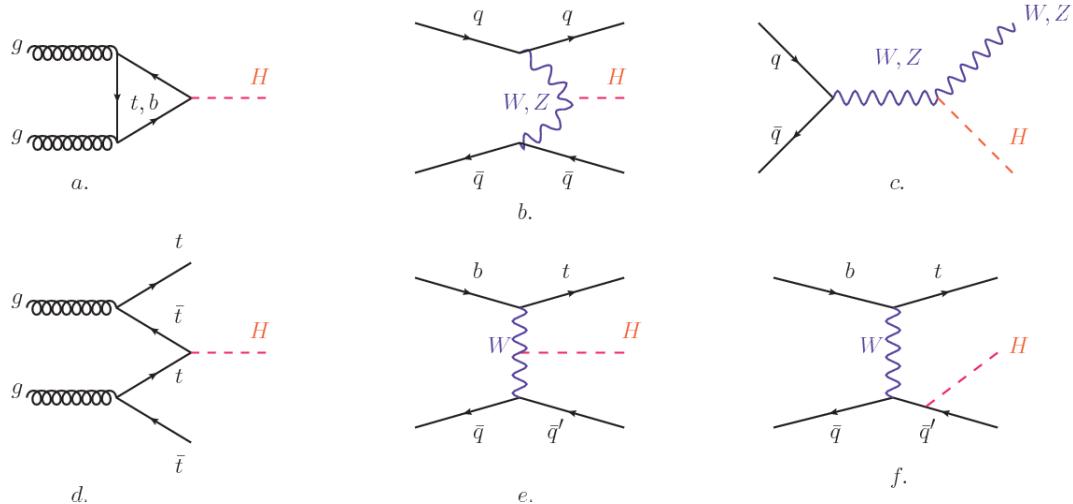


Figure 2.12: Main Higgs boson production mechanism Feynman diagrams. a. gluon-gluon fusion, b. vector boson fusion (VBF), c. Higgs-strahlung, d. Associated production with a top or bottom quark pair, e-f. associated production with a single top quark.

759 Figure 2.12 shows the Feynman diagrams for the leading order (first order) Higgs
 760 production processes at LHC; note that in these diagrams the incoming particles are
 761 not the protons themselves but the partons from the protons that actually participate

in the interaction, hence, theorists typically calculate the cross section for the parton interaction, and then convolute that cross section with the information from the PDFs to get a production cross section that is actually measured in experiments. The cross section for Higgs production as a function of the center of mass-energy (\sqrt{s}) for pp collisions is showed in Figure 2.13 left. The tags NLO (next to leading order), NNLO (next to next to leading order) and N3LO (next to next to next to leading order) make reference to the order at which the perturbation series have been considered while the tags QCD and EW correspond to the strong and electroweak coupling constants respectively.

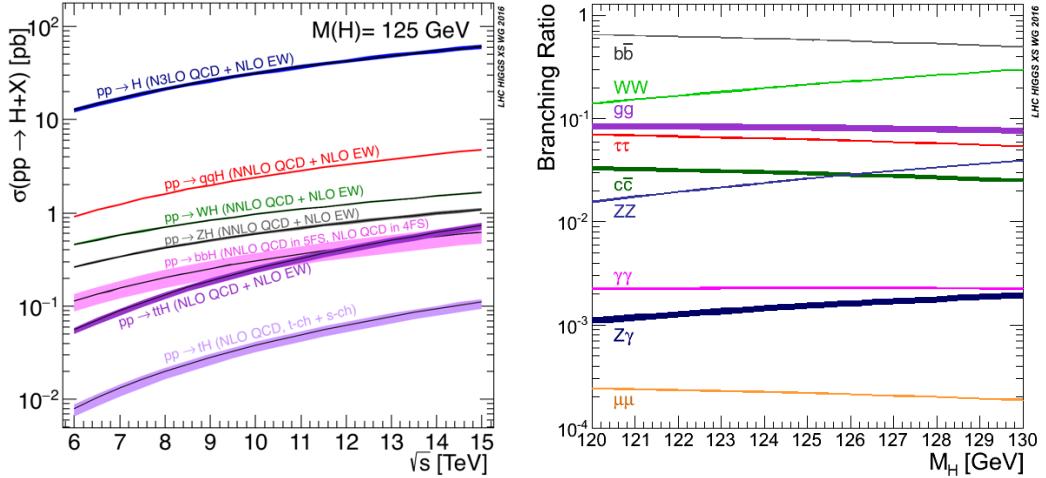


Figure 2.13: Higgs boson production cross sections (left) and decay branching ratios (right) for the main mechanisms. The VBF is indicated as qqH [40].

The main production mechanism is the gluon fusion (Figure 2.12a and $pp \rightarrow H$ in Figure 2.13) given that gluons carry the highest fraction of momentum of the protons in pp colliders (as shown in Figure ??). Since the Higgs boson does not couple to gluons, the mechanism proceeds through the exchange of a virtual top-quark loop. Note that in this process the Higgs boson is produced alone, turning out to be problematic for some Higgs decays, because such absence of anything produced in

777 association with the Higgs represent a trouble for triggering, however, this mechanism
 778 is experimentally clean when combined with the two-photon or the four-lepton decay
 779 channels (see Section 2.3.7).

780 Vector boson fusion (Figure 2.12b and $pp \rightarrow qqH$ in Figure 2.13) has the second
 781 largest production cross section. The scattering of two fermions is mediated by a weak
 782 gauge boson which later emits a Higgs boson. In the final state, the two fermions tend
 783 to be located in the central region of the detector; this kind of features are generally
 784 used as a signature when analyzing the datasets provided by the experiments⁷.

785 In the Higgs-strahlung mechanism (Figure 2.12c and $pp \rightarrow WH, pp \rightarrow ZH$ in
 786 Figure 2.13) two fermions annihilate to form a weak gauge boson. If the initial
 787 fermions have enough energy, the emergent boson might emit a Higgs boson.

788 The associated production with a top or bottom quark pair and the associated
 789 production with a single top quark (Figure 2.12d-f and $pp \rightarrow bbH, pp \rightarrow t\bar{t}H, pp \rightarrow tH$
 790 in Figure 2.13) have a smaller cross section than the main three mechanisms above,
 791 but they provide a good opportunity to test the Higgs-top coupling. The analysis
 792 reported in this thesis is developed using these production mechanisms. A detailed
 793 description of the tH mechanism will be given in Section 2.5.

794 2.3.7 Higgs boson decay channels

795 When a particle can decay through several modes, also known as channels, the prob-
 796 ability of decaying through a given channel is quantified by the *branching ratio (BR)*
 797 of the decay channel; thus, the BR is defined as the ratio of number of decays go-
 798 ing through that given channel to the total number of decays. In regard to the
 799 Higgs boson decay, the BR can be predicted with accuracy once the Higgs mass is
 800 known [41, 42]. In Figure 2.13 right, a plot of the BR as a function of the Higgs mass

⁷ More details about how to identify events of interest in this analysis will be given in chapter 6.

is presented; the largest predicted BR corresponds to the $b\bar{b}$ pair decay channel (see Table 2.9) given that it is the heaviest particle pair whose on-shell⁸ production is kinematically allowed in the decay.

Decay channel	Branching ratio	Rel. uncertainty
$H \rightarrow b\bar{b}$	5.84×10^{-1}	$+3.2\% - 3.3\%$
$H \rightarrow W^+W^-$	2.14×10^{-1}	$+4.3\% - 4.2\%$
$H \rightarrow \tau^+\tau^-$	6.27×10^{-2}	$+5.7\% - 5.7\%$
$H \rightarrow ZZ$	2.62×10^{-2}	$+4.3\% - 4.1\%$
$H \rightarrow \gamma\gamma$	2.27×10^{-3}	$+5.0\% - 4.9\%$
$H \rightarrow Z\gamma$	1.53×10^{-3}	$+9.0\% - 8.9\%$
$H \rightarrow \mu^+\mu^-$	2.18×10^{-4}	$+6.0\% - 5.9\%$

Table 2.9: Predicted branching ratios and the relative uncertainty for some decay channels of a SM Higgs boson with $m_H = 125\text{GeV}/c^2$ [9]; the uncertainties are driven by theoretical uncertainties for the different Higgs boson partial widths and by parametric uncertainties associated to the strong coupling and the masses of the quarks which are the input parameters. Further details on these calculations can be found in Reference [43]

804

805 Decays to other lepton and quark pairs, like electron, strange, up, and down
 806 quark pairs not listed in the table, are also possible but their likelihood is too small
 807 to measure since they are very lightweight, hence, their interaction with the Higgs
 808 boson is very weak. On other hand, the decay to top quark pairs is heavily suppressed
 809 due to the top quark mass ($\approx 173\text{ GeV}/c^2$).

810 Decays to gluons proceed indirectly through a virtual top quark loop while the
 811 decays to photons proceed through a virtual W boson loop, therefore, their branching
 812 ratio is smaller compared to direct interaction decays. Same is true for the decay to
 813 a photon and a Z boson.

⁸ In general, on-shell or real particles are those which satisfy the energy-momentum relation ($E^2 - |\vec{p}|^2 c^2 = m^2 c^4$); off-shell or virtual particles does not satisfy it which is possible under the uncertainty principle of quantum mechanics. Usually, virtual particles correspond to internal propagators in Feynman diagrams.

814 In the case of decays to pairs of W and Z bosons, the decay proceed with one of
 815 the bosons being on-shell and the other being off-shell. The likelihood of the process
 816 diminish depending on how far off-shell are the virtual particles involved, hence, the
 817 branching ratio for W boson pairs is bigger than for Z boson pairs since Z boson mass
 818 is bigger than W boson mass.

819 Note that the decay to a pair of virtual top quarks is possible, but the probability
 820 is way too small.

821 **2.4 Experimental status of the anomalous
 822 Higgs-fermion coupling**

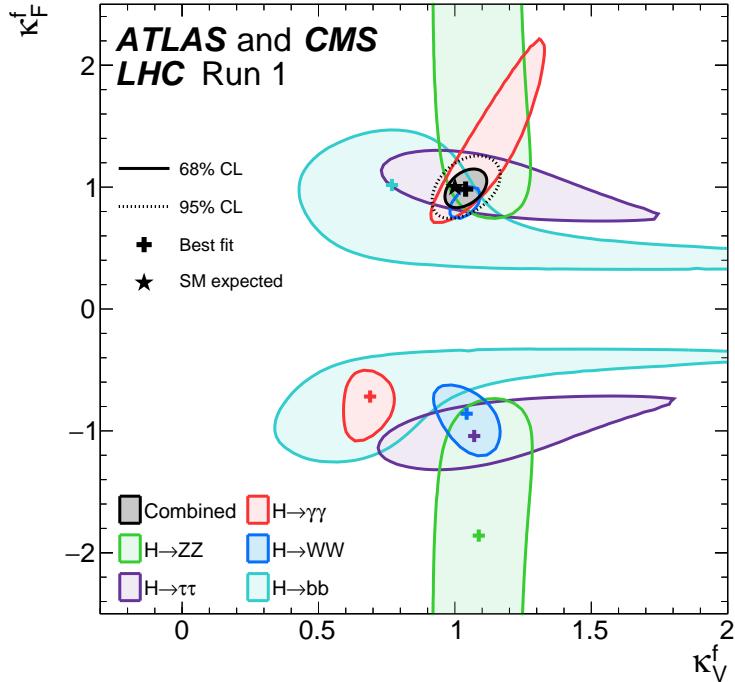


Figure 2.14: Combination of the ATLAS and CMS fits for coupling modifiers $\kappa_t - \kappa_V$; also shown the individual decay channels combination and their global combination. No assumptions have been made on the sign of the coupling modifiers [44].

823 ATLAS and CMS have performed analyses of the anomalous Higgs-fermion cou-
 824 pling by making likelihood scans for the two coupling modifiers, κ_f and κ_V , under
 825 the assumption that $\kappa_Z = \kappa_W \equiv \kappa_V$ and $\kappa_t = \kappa_\tau = \kappa_b \equiv \kappa_f$. Figure 2.14 shows the
 826 result of the combination of ATLAS and CMS fits; also the individual decay channels
 827 combination and the global combination results are shown. Note that from this plot
 828 there is limited information on the sign of the coupling since the only information
 829 available about the sign of the coupling comes from decays rather than production.

830 While all the channels are compatible for positive values of the modifiers, for
 831 negative values of κ_f there is no compatibility. The best fit for individual channels
 832 is compatible with negative values of κ_f except for the $H \rightarrow bb$ channel. The best
 833 fit for the combination yields $\kappa_f \geq 0$, in contrast to the yields from the individual
 834 channels; the reason of this yield resides in the $H \rightarrow \gamma\gamma$ coupling. $H \rightarrow \gamma\gamma$ decay
 835 proceeds through a loop of either top quarks or W bosons, hence, this channel is
 836 sensitive to κ_t thanks to the interference of these two amplitude contributions; under
 837 the assumption that no beyond SM particles take part in the loops, a flipped sign
 838 of κ_t will increase the $H \rightarrow \gamma\gamma$ branching fraction by a factor of ~ 2.4 which is not
 839 supported by measurements; thus, this large asymmetry between the positive and
 840 negative coupling ratios in the $H \rightarrow \gamma\gamma$ channel drives the yield of the global fit and
 841 would mean that the anomalous H-t coupling is excluded as stated in Reference [44],
 842 but there is a caveat, this exclusion holds only if no new particles contribute to the
 843 loop in the main diagram for that decay.

844 Although the $H \rightarrow bb$ channel is expected to be the most sensitive channel and
 845 its best fit value of κ_t is positive, and then the global fit yield is still supported,
 846 the contributions from all the other decay channels, small compared to the $H \rightarrow bb$,
 847 indicate that the anomalous H-t coupling cannot be excluded completely, motivating
 848 to look at tH processes which can help with both, the limited information on the sign

849 of the H-t coupling and the access to information from the Higgs boson production
 850 rather than from its decays.

851 It will be shown in Section 2.5 that the same interference effect enhance the
 852 tH production rate and could reveal evidence of direct production of heavy new par-
 853 ticles as predicted in composite and little Higgs models [45], or new physics related
 854 to Higgs boson mediated flavor changing neutral currents [46] as well as probes the
 855 CP-violating phase of the H-t coupling [47, 48].

856 **2.5 Associated production of a Higgs boson and a 857 single top quark**

858 The production of Higgs boson in association with a top quark has been extensively
 859 studied [47, 49–52]. While measurements of the main Higgs production mechanisms
 860 rates are sensitive to the strength of the Higgs coupling to W boson or top quark,
 861 they are not sensitive to the relative sign between the two couplings. In this thesis,
 862 the Higgs boson production mechanism explored is the associated production with a
 863 single top quark (tH) which offers sensitivity to the relative sign of the Higgs couplings
 864 to W boson and to top quark. The description given here is based on Reference [51]

A process where two incoming particles interact and produce a final state with two
 particles can proceed in three called channels (see, for instance, Figure 2.15 omitting
 the red line). The t-channel represents processes where an intermediate particle is
 emitted by one of the incoming particles and absorbed by the other. The s-channel
 represents processes where the two incoming particles merge into an intermediate par-
 ticle which eventually will split into the particles in the final state. The third channel,
 u-channel, is similar to the t-channel but the two outgoing particles interchange their

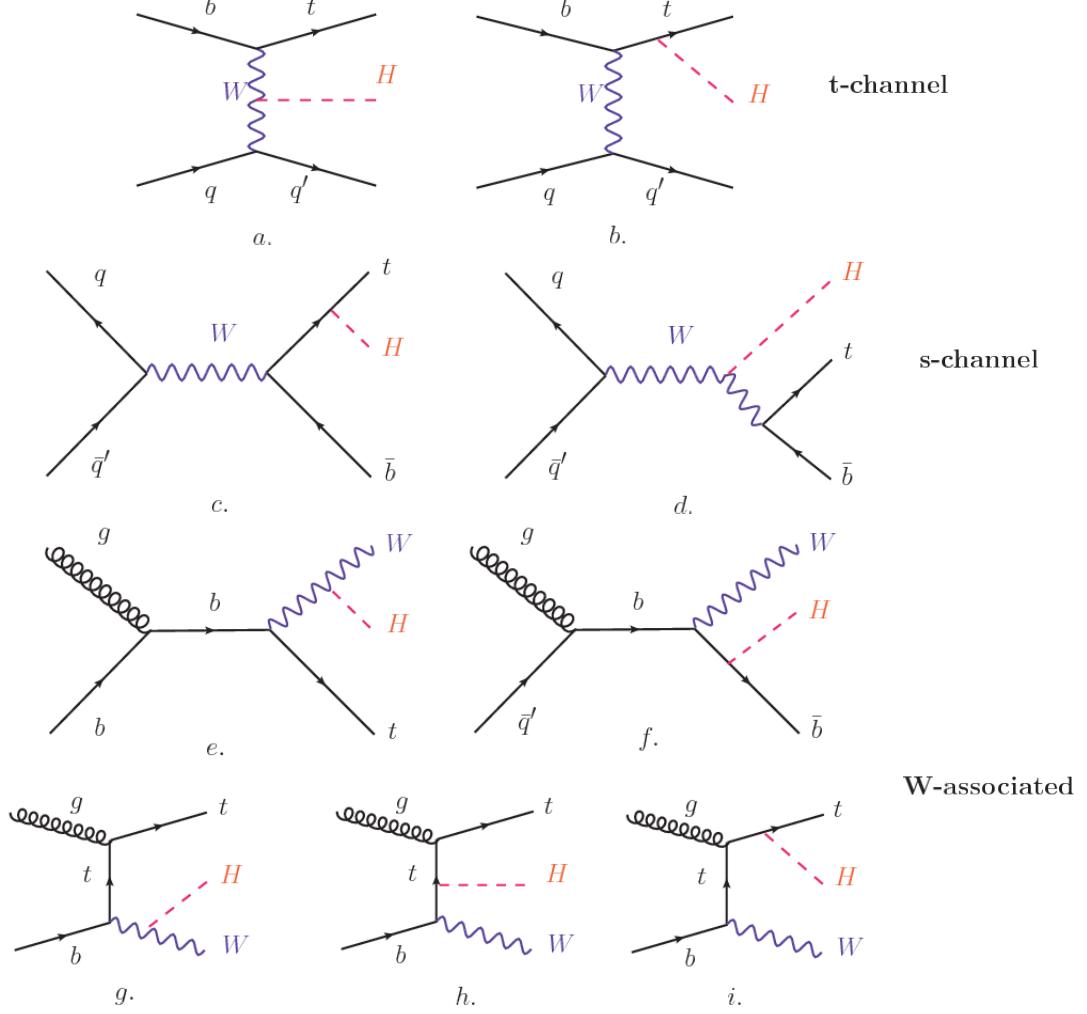


Figure 2.15: Associated Higgs boson production with a top quark mechanism Feynman diagrams. a.,b. t-channel (tHq), c.,d. s-channel (tHb), e-i. W-associated.

roles. These three channels are connected to the so-called Mandelstam variables

$$s = (p_1 + p_2)^2 = (p'_1 + p'_2)^2 \rightarrow \text{square of the center mass-energy.} \quad (2.58)$$

$$t = (p_1 - p'_1)^2 = (p'_2 - p_2)^2 \rightarrow \text{square of the four-momentum transfer.} \quad (2.59)$$

$$u = (p_1 - p'_2)^2 = (p'_1 - p_2)^2 \rightarrow \text{square of the crossed four-momentum transfer.} \quad (2.60)$$

$$s + t + u = m_1^2 + m_2^2 + m'_1^2 + m'_2^2 \quad (2.61)$$

which relate the momentum, energy and the angles of the incoming and outgoing particles in an scattering process of two particles to two particles. The importance of the Mandelstam variables reside in that they form a minimum set of variables needed to describe the kinematics of this scattering process; they are Lorentz invariant which makes them very useful when doing calculations.

The tH production, where Higgs boson can be radiated either from the top quark or from the W boson, is represented by the leading order Feynman diagrams in Figure 2.15. The cross section for the tH process is calculated, as usual, summing over the contributions from the different Feynman diagrams; therefore it depends on the interference between the contributions. In the SM, the interference for t-channel (tHq process) and W-associated (tHW process) production is destructive [49] resulting in the small cross sections presented in Table 2.10.

tH production channel	Cross section (fb)
t-channel ($pp \rightarrow tHq$)	$70.79^{+2.99}_{-4.80}$
W-associated ($pp \rightarrow tHW$)	$15.61^{+0.83}_{-1.04}$
s-channel($pp \rightarrow tHb$)	$2.87^{+0.09}_{-0.08}$

Table 2.10: Predicted SM cross sections for tH production at $\sqrt{s} = 13$ TeV [53, 54].

877

The s-channel contribution can be neglected. It will be shown that a deviation from the SM destructive interference would result in an enhancement of the tH cross section compared to that in SM, which could be used to get information about the sign of the Higgs-top coupling [51, 52]. In order to describe tH production processes, Feynman diagram 2.15b will be considered; there, the W boson is radiated by a quark in the proton and eventually it will interact with the b quark. In the high energy regime, the effective W approximation [55] is used to describe the process as the

885 emission of an approximately on-shell W and its hard scattering with the b quark;
 886 i.e. $Wb \rightarrow th$. The scattering amplitude for the process is given by

$$\mathcal{A} = \frac{g}{\sqrt{2}} \left[(\kappa_t - \kappa_V) \frac{m_t \sqrt{s}}{m_W v} A \left(\frac{t}{s}, \varphi; \xi_t, \xi_b \right) + \left(\kappa_V \frac{2m_W s}{v t} + (2\kappa_t - \kappa_V) \frac{m_t^2}{m_W v} \right) B \left(\frac{t}{s}, \varphi; \xi_t, \xi_b \right) \right], \quad (2.62)$$

887 where $\kappa_V \equiv g_{HVV}/g_{HVV}^{SM}$ and $\kappa_t \equiv g_{Ht}/g_{Ht}^{SM} = y_t/y_t^{SM}$ are scaling factors that quantify
 888 possible deviations of the couplings from the SM values, Higgs-Vector boson (H-
 889 W) and Higgs-top (H-t) respectively, from the SM couplings; $s = (p_W + p_b)^2$, $t =$
 890 $(p_W - p_H)^2$, φ is the Higgs azimuthal angle around the z axis taken parallel to the
 891 direction of motion of the incoming W; A and B are functions describing the weak
 892 interaction in terms of the chiral states (ξ_t, ξ_b) of the quarks b and t . Terms that
 893 vanish in the high energy limit have been neglected as well as the Higgs and b quark
 894 masses⁹.

895 The scattering amplitude grows with energy like \sqrt{s} for $\kappa_V \neq \kappa_t$, in contrast to
 896 the SM ($\kappa_t = \kappa_V = 1$), where the first term in 2.62 cancels out and the amplitude
 897 is constant for large s ; therefore, a deviation from the SM predictions represents an
 898 enhancement in the tHq cross section. In particular, for a SM H-W coupling and a
 899 H-t coupling of inverted sign with respect to the SM ($\kappa_V = -\kappa_t = 1$) the tHq cross
 900 section is enhanced by a factor greater 10 as seen in the Figure 2.16 taken from
 901 Reference [51]; Reference [56] has reported similar enhancement results.

902 A similar analysis is valid for the W-associated channel but, in that case, the in-
 903 terference is more complicated since there are more than two contributions and an ad-
 904 ditional interference with the production of Higgs boson and a top pair process($t\bar{t}H$).
 905 The calculations are made using the so-called Diagram Removal (DR) technique where

⁹ A detailed explanation of the structure and approximations used to derive \mathcal{A} can be found in Reference [51]

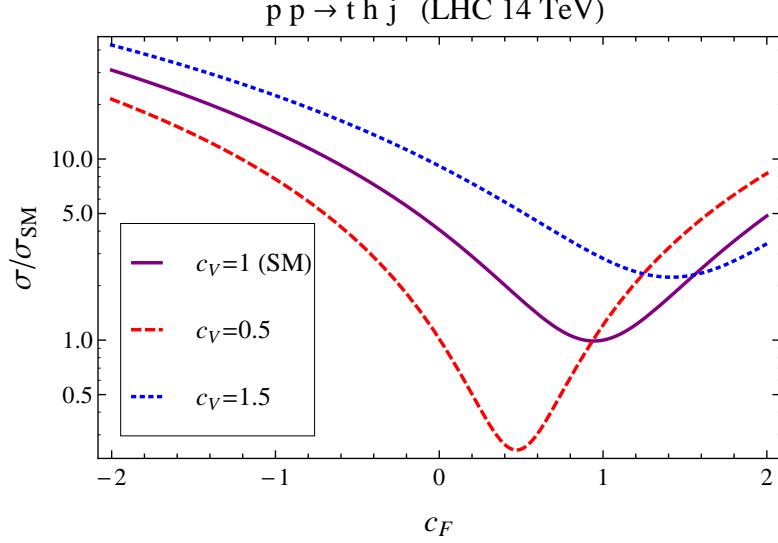


Figure 2.16: Cross section for tHq process as a function of κ_t , normalized to the SM, for three values of κ_V . In the plot c_f refers to the Higgs-fermion coupling which is dominated by the H-t coupling and represented here by κ_t . Solid, dashed and dotted lines correspond to $c_V \rightarrow \kappa_V = 1, 0.5, 1.5$ respectively. Note that for the SM ($\kappa_V = \kappa_t = 1$), the destructive effect of the interference is maximal.

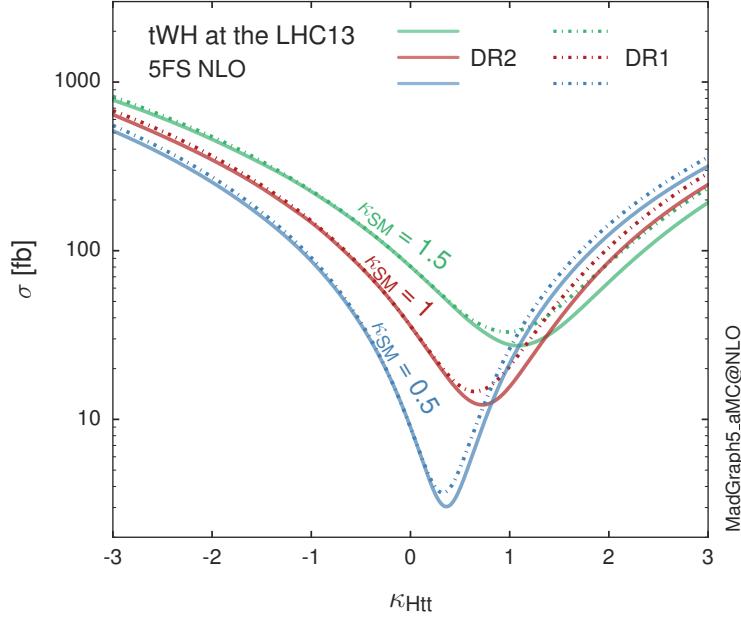


Figure 2.17: Cross section for tHW process as a function of κ_{Htt} , for three values of κ_{SM} at $\sqrt{s} = 13$ TeV. $\kappa_{Htt}^2 = \sigma_{Htt}/\sigma_{Htt}^{SM}$ is a simple re-scaling of the SM Higgs interactions.

interfering diagrams are removed (or added) from the calculations in order to evaluate the impact of the removed contributions. DR1 was defined to neglect $t\bar{t}H$ interference while DR2 was defined to take $t\bar{t}H$ interference into account [48]. As shown in Figure 2.17, the tHW cross section is enhanced from about 15 fb (SM: $\kappa_{Htt} = 1$) to about 150 fb ($\kappa_{Htt} = -1$). Differences between curves for DR1 and DR2 help to gauge the impact of the interference with $t\bar{t}H$. Results of the calculations of the tHq and tHW cross sections at $\sqrt{s} = 13$ TeV can be found in Reference [57] and a summary of the results is presented in Table 2.11.

	\sqrt{s} TeV	$\kappa_t = 1$	$\kappa_t = -1$
$\sigma^{LO}(tHq)(fb)$ [51]	8	≈ 17.4	≈ 252.7
	14	≈ 80.4	≈ 1042
$\sigma^{NLO}(tHq)(fb)$ [51]	8	$18.28^{+0.42}_{-0.38}$	$233.8^{+4.6}_{-0.0}$
	14	$88.2^{+1.7}_{-0.0}$	$982.8^{+28}_{-0.0}$
$\sigma^{LO}(tHq)(fb)$ [56]	14	≈ 71.8	≈ 893
$\sigma^{LO}(tHW)(fb)$ [56]	14	≈ 16.0	≈ 139
$\sigma^{NLO}(tHq)(fb)$ [57]	8	$18.69^{+8.62\%}_{-17.13\%}$	-
	13	$74.25^{+7.48\%}_{-15.35\%}$	$848^{+7.37\%}_{-13.70\%}$
	14	$90.10^{+7.34\%}_{-15.13\%}$	$1011^{+7.24\%}_{-13.39\%}$
$\sigma^{LO}(tHW)(fb)$ [48]	13	$15.77^{+15.91\%}_{-15.76\%}$	-
$\sigma^{NLO}DR1(tHW)(fb)$ [48]	13	$21.72^{+6.52\%}_{-5.24\%}$	≈ 150
$\sigma^{NLO}DR2(tHW)(fb)$ [48]	13	$16.28^{+7.34\%}_{-15.13\%}$	≈ 150

Table 2.11: Predicted enhancement of the tHq and tHW cross sections at LHC for $\kappa_V = 1$ and $\kappa_t = \pm 1$ at LO and NLO; the cross section enhancement of more than a factor of 10 is due to the flipping in the sign of the H-t coupling with respect to the SM one.

914

915 2.6 CP-mixing in tH processes

916 In addition to the sensitivity to sign of the H-t coupling, the tHq and tHW processes
917 have been proposed as a tool to investigate the possibility of a H-t coupling that does

918 not conserve CP [47, 48, 58].

919 In this thesis, the sensitivity of tH processes to CP-mixing is also studied on the
 920 basis of References [47, 48] using the effective field theory framework where a generic
 921 particle (X_0) of spin-0 and a general CP violating interaction with the top quark
 922 (Htt coupling), can couple to scalar and pseudo-scalar fermionic densities. The H-W
 923 interaction is assumed to be SM-like. The Lagrangian modeling the H-t interaction
 924 is given by

$$\mathcal{L}_0^t = -\bar{\psi}_t (c_\alpha \kappa_{Htt} g_{Htt} + i s_\alpha \kappa_{Att} g_{Att} \gamma_5) \psi_t X_0, \quad (2.63)$$

925 where α is the CP-mixing phase, $c_\alpha \equiv \cos \alpha$ and $s_\alpha \equiv \sin \alpha$, κ_{Htt} and κ_{Att} are real
 926 dimensionless re-scaling parameters¹⁰ used to parametrize the magnitude of the CP-
 927 violating and CP-conserving parts of the amplitude. The model defines $g_{Htt} =$
 928 $g_{Att} = m_t/v = y_t/\sqrt{2}$ with $v \sim 246$ GeV the Higgs vacuum expectation value. In
 929 this parametrization, three special cases can be recovered

930 • CP-even coupling $\rightarrow \alpha = 0^\circ$

931 • CP-odd coupling $\rightarrow \alpha = 90^\circ$

932 • SM coupling $\rightarrow \alpha = 0^\circ$ and $\kappa_{Htt} = 1$

933 The loop induced X_0 coupling to gluons can also be described in terms of the
 934 parametrization above, according to

$$\mathcal{L}_0^g = -\frac{1}{4} \left(c_\alpha \kappa_{Hgg} g_{Hgg} G_{\mu\nu}^a G^{a,\mu\nu} + s_\alpha \kappa_{Agg} g_{Agg} G_{\mu\nu}^a \tilde{G}^{a,\mu\nu} \right) X_0. \quad (2.64)$$

935 where $g_{Hgg} = -\alpha_s/3\pi v$ and $g_{Agg} = \alpha_s/2\pi v$ and $G_{\mu\nu}$ is the gluon field strength tensors.

936 Under the assumption that the top quark dominates the gluon-fusion process at LHC

¹⁰ analog to κ_t and κ_V

937 energies, $\kappa_{Hgg} \rightarrow \kappa_{Htt}$ and $\kappa_{Agg} \rightarrow \kappa_{Att}$, so that the ratio between the gluon-gluon
 938 fusion cross section for X_0 and for the SM Higgs prediction can be written as

$$\frac{\sigma_{NLO}^{gg \rightarrow X_0}}{\sigma_{NLO,SM}^{gg \rightarrow H}} = c_\alpha^2 \kappa_{Htt}^2 + s_\alpha^2 \left(\kappa_{Att} \frac{g_{Agg}}{g_{Hgg}} \right)^2. \quad (2.65)$$

939 If the re-scaling parameters are set to

$$\kappa_{Htt} = 1, \quad \kappa_{Att} = \left| \frac{g_{Hgg}}{g_{Agg}} \right| = \frac{2}{3}. \quad (2.66)$$

940 the gluon-fusion SM cross section is reproduced for every value of the CP-mixing
 941 angle α ; therefore, by imposing that condition to the Lagrangian density 2.63, the
 942 CP-mixing angle is not constrained by current data. Figure 2.18 shows the NLO cross
 943 sections for t-channel tX_0 (blue) and $t\bar{t}X_0$ (red) associated production processes as a
 944 function of the CP-mixing angle α . X_0 is a generic spin-0 particle with top quark
 945 CP-violating coupling. Re-scaling factors κ_{Htt} and κ_{Att} have been set to reproduce
 946 the SM gluon-fusion cross sections.

947 It is interesting to notice that the tX_0 cross section is enhanced, by a factor of
 948 about 10, when a continuous rotation in the scalar-pseudoscalar plane is applied; this
 949 enhancement is similar to the enhancement produced when the H-t coupling is flipped
 950 in sign with respect to the SM ($y_t = -y_{t,SM}$ in the plot), as showed in Section 2.5. In
 951 contrast, the degeneracy in the $t\bar{t}X_0$ cross section is still present given that it depends
 952 quadratically on the H-t coupling, but more interesting is to notice that $t\bar{t}X_0$ cross
 953 section is exceeded by tX_0 cross section after $\alpha \sim 60^\circ$.

954 A similar parametrization can be used to investigate the tHW process sensitivity
 955 to CP-violating H-t coupling. As said in 2.5, the interference in the W-associated
 956 channel is more complicated because there are more than two contributions and also
 957 there is interference with the $t\bar{t}H$ production process.

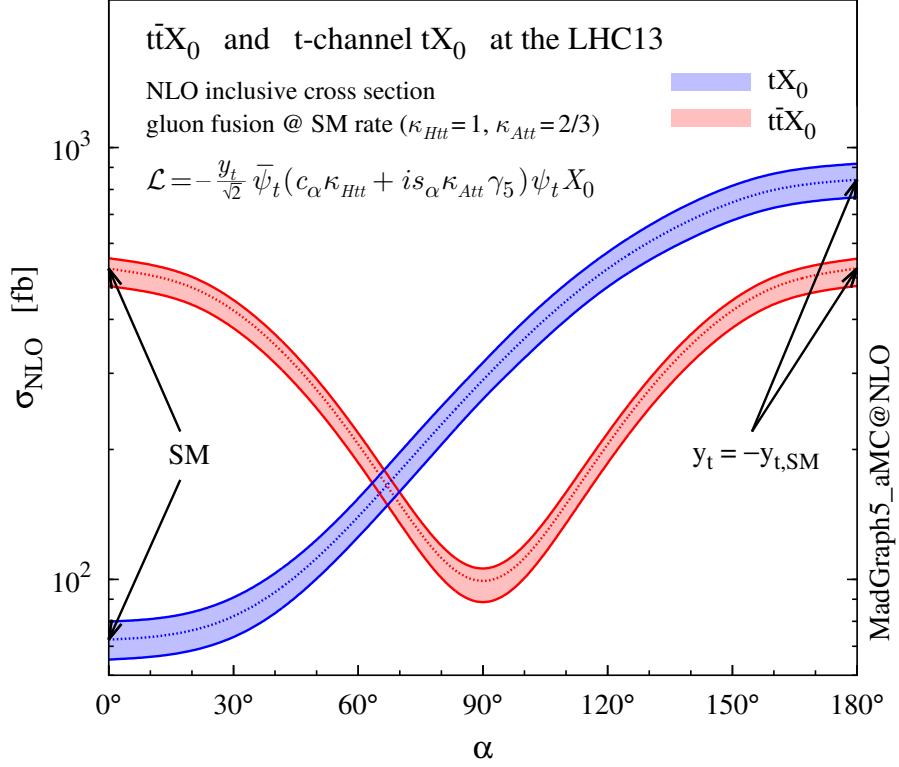


Figure 2.18: NLO cross sections for t-channel tX_0 (blue) and $t\bar{t}X_0$ (red) associated production processes as a function of the CP-mixing angle α . X_0 is a generic spin-0 particle with top quark CP-violating coupling [47].

958 Figure 2.19 shows the NLO cross sections for t-channel tX_0 (blue), $t\bar{t}X_0$ (red)
959 associated production and for the combined $tWX_0+t\bar{t}X_0+interference$ (orange) as
960 a function of the CP-mixing angle. It is clear that the effect of the interference in the
961 combined case is the lifting of the degeneracy present in the $t\bar{t}X_0$ production. The
962 constructive interference enhances the cross section from about 500 fb at SM ($\alpha = 0$)
963 to about 600 fb ($\alpha = 180^\circ \rightarrow y_t = -y_{t,SM}$).

964 An analysis combining tHq and tHW processes will be made in this thesis taking
965 advantage of the sensitivity improvement.

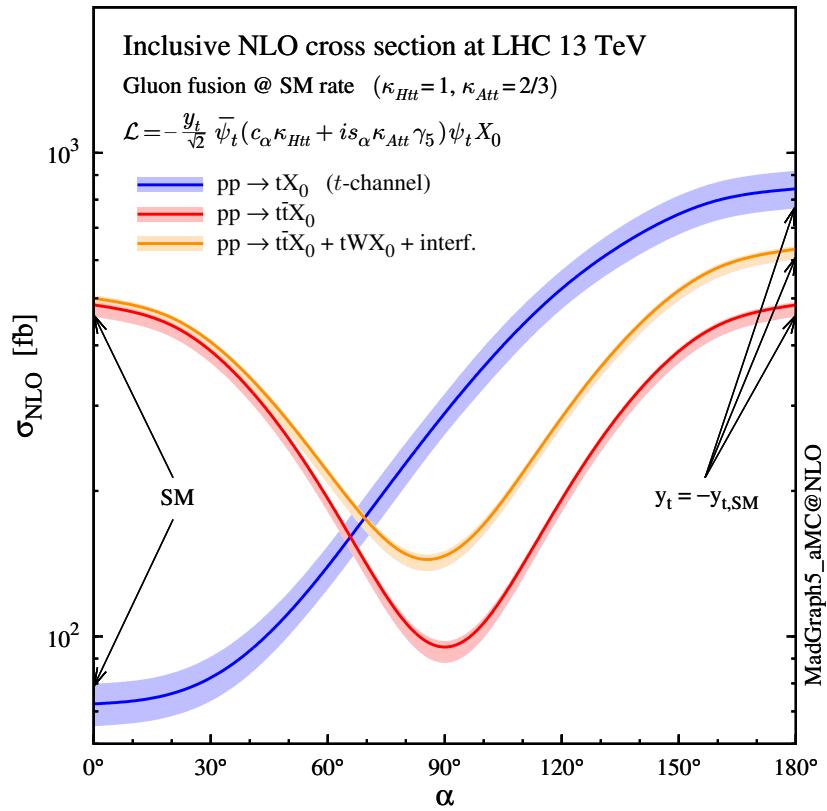


Figure 2.19: NLO cross sections for t-channel tX_0 (blue), $t\bar{t}X_0$ (red) associated production processes and combined $tWX_0 + t\bar{t}X_0$ (including interference) production as a function of the CP-mixing angle α [47].

966 **Chapter 3**

967 **The CMS experiment at the LHC**

968 **3.1 Introduction**

969 Located on the Swiss-French border, the European Council for Nuclear Research
970 (CERN) is the largest scientific organization leading particle physics research. About
971 13000 people in a broad range of roles including users, students, scientists, engineers,
972 among others, contribute to the data taking and analysis, with the goal of unveiling
973 the secrets of nature and revealing the fundamental structure of the universe. CERN
974 is also the home of the Large Hadron Collider (LHC), the largest particle accelerator
975 around the world, where protons (or heavy ions) traveling close to the speed of light,
976 are made to collide. These collisions open a window to investigate how particles (and
977 their constituents if they are composite) interact with each other, providing clues
978 about the laws of nature. This chapter presents an overview of the LHC structure
979 and operation. A detailed description of the CMS detector is offered, given that the
980 data used in this thesis have been taken with this detector.

981 3.2 The LHC

982 With 27 km of circumference, the LHC is currently the most powerful circular accelerator
 983 in the world. It is installed in the same tunnel where the Large Electron-Positron
 984 (LEP) collider was located, taking advantage of the existing infrastructure. The LHC
 985 is part of the CERN's accelerator complex composed of several successive accelerat-
 986 ing stages before the particles are injected into the LHC ring where they reach their
 987 maximum energy (see Figure 3.1).

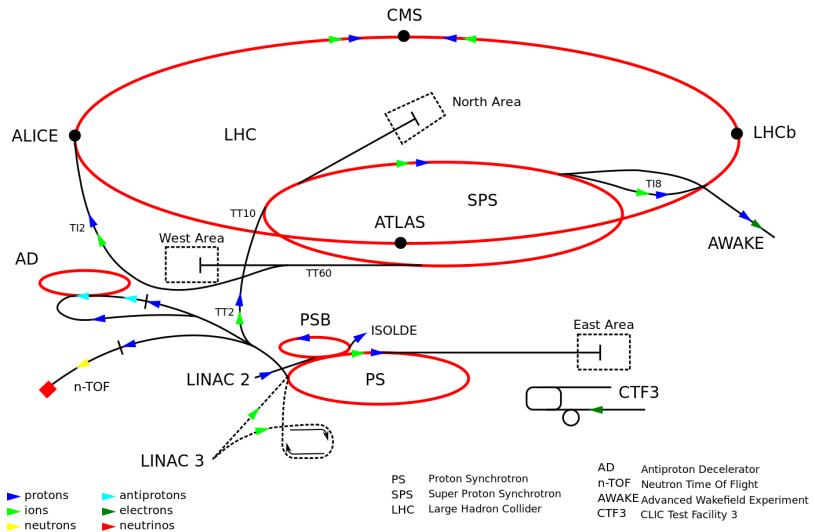


Figure 3.1: CERN accelerator complex. Blue arrows show the path followed by protons along the acceleration process [61].

988 The LHC runs in three collision modes depending on the particles being acceler-
 989 ated

- 990 • Proton-Proton collisions (pp) for multiple physics experiments.
 991 • Lead-Lead collisions ($Pb-Pb$) for heavy ion experiments.
 992 • Proton-Lead collisions ($p-Pb$) for quark-gluon plasma experiments.

993 In this thesis only pp collisions will be considered.

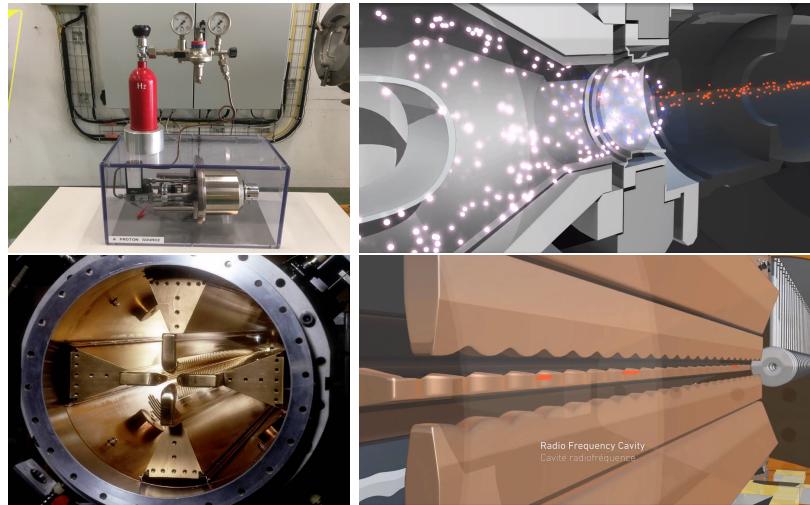


Figure 3.2: LHC protons source and the first acceleration stage. Top: the bottle contains hydrogen gas which is injected into the metal cylinder (white dots) to be broken down into electrons (blue dots) and protons (red dots); Bottom: the obtained protons are directed towards the radio frequency quadrupole which perform the first acceleration, focus the beam and create the bunches of protons. Left images are real pictures while right images are drawings [65, 66].

994 Collection of protons starts with hydrogen atoms taken from a bottle, containing
 995 hydrogen gas, and injecting them in a metal cylinder; hydrogen atoms are broken
 996 down into electrons and protons by an intense electric field (see Figure 3.2 top).
 997 The resulting protons leave the metal cylinder towards a radio frequency quadrupole
 998 (RFQ) that focus the beam, accelerates the protons and creates the packets of protons
 999 called bunches. In the RFQ, an electric field is generated by a RF wave at a frequency
 1000 that matches the resonance frequency of the cavity where the electrodes are contained.
 1001 The beam of protons traveling on the RFQ axis experiences an alternating electric
 1002 field gradient that generates the focusing forces.

1003 In order to accelerate the protons, a longitudinal time-varying electric field com-
 1004 ponent is added to the system; it is done by giving the electrodes a sine-like profile as
 1005 shown in Figure 3.2 bottom. By matching the speed and phase of the protons with
 1006 the longitudinal electric field the bunching is performed; protons synchronized with

1007 the RFQ (synchronous protons) do not feel an accelerating force, but those protons in
 1008 the beam that have more (or less) energy than the synchronous proton (asynchronous
 1009 protons) will feel a decelerating (accelerating) force; therefore, asynchronous protons
 1010 will oscillate around the synchronous ones forming bunches of protons [63]. From the
 1011 RFQ protons emerge with energy 750 keV in bunches of about 1.15×10^{11} protons [64].

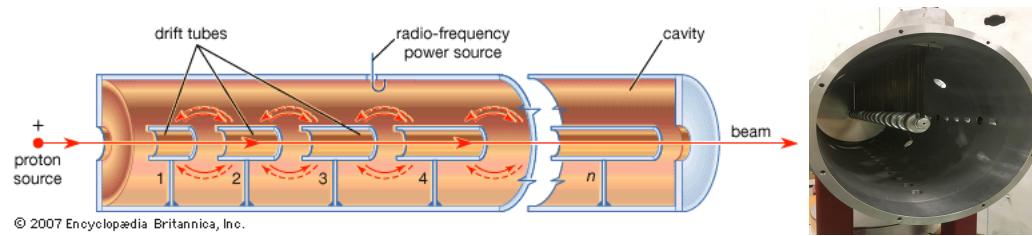


Figure 3.3: Left: drawing of the LINAC2 accelerating system at CERN. Electric fields generated by radio frequency (RF) create acceleration and deceleration zones inside the cavity; deceleration zones are blocked by drift tubes where quadrupole magnets focus the proton beam. Right: picture of a real RF cavity [67].

1012 Proton bunches coming from the RFQ go to the linear accelerator 2 (LINAC2)
 1013 where they are accelerated to reach 50 MeV energy. In the LINAC2 stage, acceleration
 1014 is performed using electric fields generated by radio frequency which create zones
 1015 of acceleration and deceleration as shown in Figure 3.3. In the deceleration zones,
 1016 the electric field is blocked using drift tubes where protons are free to drift while
 1017 quadrupole magnets focus the beam.

1018 The beam coming from LINAC2 is injected into the proton synchrotron booster
 1019 (PSB) to reach 1.4 GeV in energy. The next acceleration is provided at the proton
 1020 synchrotron (PS) up to 26 GeV, followed by the injection into the super proton
 1021 synchrotron (SPS) where protons are accelerated to 450 GeV. Finally, protons are
 1022 injected into the LHC where they are accelerated to the target energy of 6.5 TeV.

1023 PSB, PS, SPS and LHC accelerate protons using the same RF acceleration tech-
 1024 nique described before.

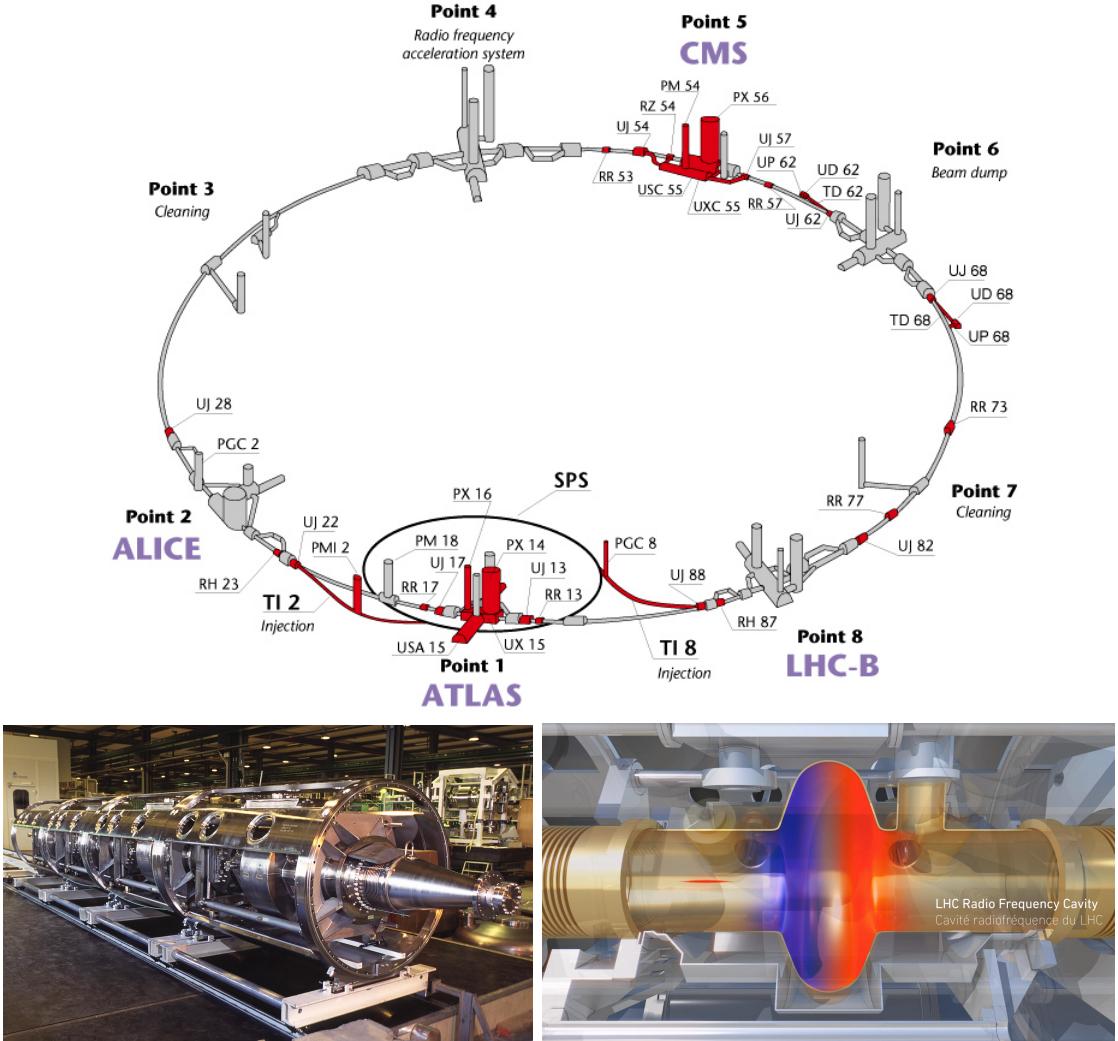


Figure 3.4: Top: LHC layout. The red zones indicate the infrastructure additions to the LEP installations, built to accommodate the ATLAS and CMS experiments which exceed the size of the former experiments located there [62]. Bottom: LHC RF cavities. A module (left picture) accommodates 4 cavities, each like the one in the right drawing, that accelerate protons and preserve the bunch structure of the beam. The color gradient pattern represents the strength of the electric field inside the cavity; red zone corresponds to the maximum of the oscillation electric field while the blue zone corresponds to the minimum. [66, 68]

1025 The LHC has a system of 16 RF cavities located in the so-called point 4, as
 1026 shown in Figure 3.4 top, tuned at a frequency of 400 MHz. The bottom side of
 1027 Figure 3.4 shows a picture of a RF module composed of 4 RF cavities working in a
 1028 superconducting state at 4.5 K; also, a representation of the accelerating electric field

that accelerates the protons in the bunch is shown. The maximum of the oscillating electric field (red region) picks the proton bunches at the entrance of the cavity and keeps accelerating them through the whole cavity. The protons are carefully timed so that in addition to the acceleration effect the bunch structure of the beam is preserved.

While protons are accelerated in one section of the LHC ring, where the RF cavities are located, in the rest of their path they have to be kept in the curved trajectory defined by the LHC ring. Technically, LHC is not a perfect circle; RF, injection, beam dumping, beam cleaning and sections before and after the experimental points where protons collide are all straight sections. In total, there are 8 arcs 2.45 km long each and 8 straight sections 545 m long each. In order to curve the proton's trajectory in the arc sections, superconducting dipole magnets are used.

Inside the LHC ring, there are two proton beams traveling in opposite directions in two separated beam pipes; the beam pipes are kept at ultra-high vacuum ($\sim 10^{-9}$ Pa) to ensure that there are no particles that interact with the proton beams. The superconducting dipole magnets used in LHC are made of a NbTi alloy, capable of transporting currents of about 12000 A when cooled at a temperature below 2K using liquid helium (see Figure 3.5).

Protons in the arc sections of LHC feel a centripetal force exerted by the dipole magnets; the magnitude of magnetic field needed to keep the protons in the LHC curved trayectomy can be found assuming that protons travel at $v \approx c$, using the standard values for proton mass and charge and the LHC radius, as

$$F_m = \frac{mv^2}{r} = qBv \rightarrow B = 8.33T \quad (3.1)$$

which is about 100000 times the Earth's magnetic field. A representation of the

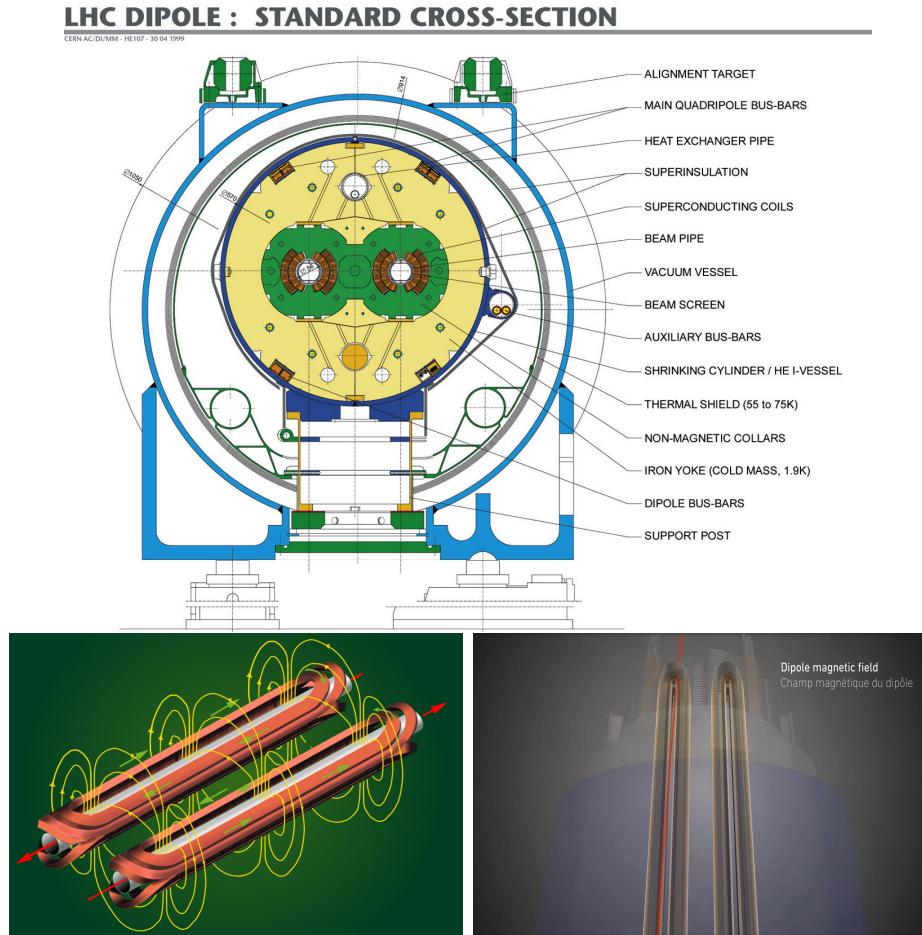


Figure 3.5: Top: LHC dipole magnet transverse view; cooling, shielding and mechanical support are indicated. Bottom left: Magnetic field generated by the dipole magnets; note that the direction of the field inside one beam pipe is opposite with respect to the other beam pipe which guarantee that both proton beams are curved in the same direction towards the center of the ring. The effect of the dipole magnetic field on the proton beam is represented on the bottom right side [66, 69, 70].

1052 magnetic field generated by the dipole magnets is shown on the bottom left side of
 1053 Figure 3.5. The bending effect of the magnetic field on the proton beam is shown on
 1054 the bottom right side of Figure 3.5. Note that the dipole magnets are not curved;
 1055 the arc section of the LHC ring is composed of straight dipole magnets of about 15
 1056 m. In total there are 1232 dipole magnets along the LHC ring.

1057 In addition to the bending of the beam trajectory, the beam has to be focused. The

1058 focusing is performed by quadrupole magnets installed in a different straight section;
 1059 in total 858 quadrupole magnets are installed along the LHC ring. Other effects like
 1060 electromagnetic interaction among bunches, interaction with electron clouds from the
 1061 beam pipe, the gravitational force on the protons, differences in energy among protons
 1062 in the same bunch, among others, are corrected using sextupole and other magnetic
 1063 multipoles.

1064 The two proton beams inside the LHC ring are made of bunches with a cylindrical
 1065 shape of about 7.5 cm long and about 1 mm in diameter; when bunches are close to the
 1066 interaction point (IP), the beam is focused up to a diameter of about 16 μm in order
 1067 to maximize the probability of collisions between protons. The number of collisions
 1068 per second is proportional to the cross section of the bunches with the *luminosity* (L)
 1069 as the proportionality factor, thus, the luminosity can be calculated using

$$L = fn \frac{N_1 N_2}{4\pi\sigma_x\sigma_y} \quad (3.2)$$

1070 where f is the revolution frequency, n is the number of bunches per beam, N_1 and N_2
 1071 are the numbers of protons per bunch, σ_x and σ_y are the gaussian transverse sizes of
 1072 the bunches. With the expected parameters, the LHC expected luminosity is about

$$f = \frac{v}{2\pi r_{LHC}} \approx \frac{3 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}}{27 \text{ km}} \approx 11.1 \text{ kHz},$$

$$n = 2808$$

$$N_1 = N_2 \sim 1.5 \times 10^{11}$$

$$\sigma_x = \sigma_y = 16 \mu\text{m}$$

1073

$$L = 1.28 \times 10^{34} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1} = 1.28 \times 10^{-5} \text{ fb}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1} \quad (3.3)$$

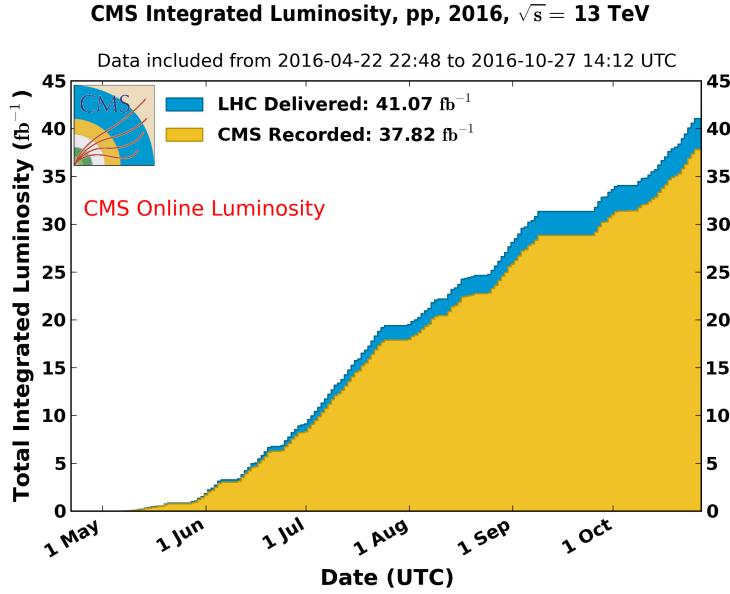


Figure 3.6: Integrated luminosity delivered by LHC and recorded by CMS during 2016. The difference between the delivered and the recorded luminosity is due to fails and issues occurred during the data taking in the CMS experiment [71].

1074 Luminosity is a fundamental aspect of LHC given that the bigger luminosity the
 1075 bigger number of collisions, which means that for processes with a very small cross
 1076 section the number of expected occurrences is increased and so the chances of being
 1077 detected. The integrated luminosity, collected by the CMS experiment during 2016
 1078 is shown in Figure 3.6; the data analyzed in this thesis corresponds to an integrated
 1079 luminosity of 35.9 fb^{-1} at a center of mass-energy $\sqrt{s} = 13 \text{ TeV}$.

1080 One way to increase L is increasing the number of bunches in the beam. Cur-
 1081 rently, the separation between two consecutive bunches in the beam is 7.5 m which
 1082 corresponds to a time separation of 25 ns. In the full LHC ring the allowed number
 1083 of bunches is $n = 27\text{km}/7.5\text{m} = 3600$; however, there are some gaps in the bunch pat-
 1084 tern intended for preparing the dumping and injection of the beam, thus, the proton
 1085 beams are composed of 2808 bunches.

1086 Once the proton beams reach the desired energy, they are brought to cross each

1087 other producing pp collisions. The bunch crossing happens in precise places where
 1088 the four LHC experiments are located, as seen in the top of Figure 3.7. In 2008 pp
 1089 collisions of $\sqrt{s} = 7$ TeV were performed; the energy was increased to 8 TeV in 2012
 1090 and to 13 TeV in 2015.

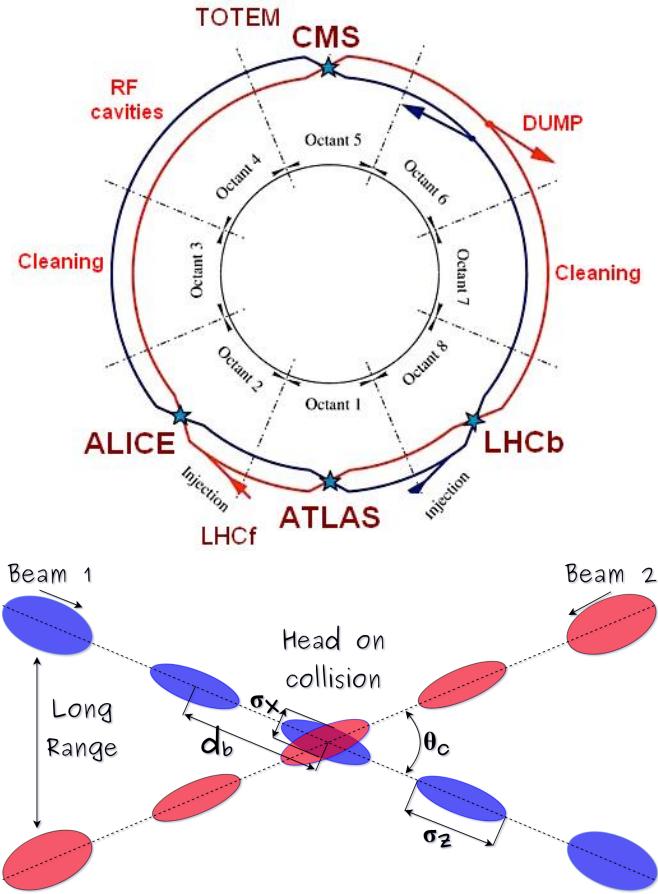


Figure 3.7: Top: LHC interaction points. Bunch crossing occurs where the LHC experiments are located [72]. Sections indicated as cleaning are dedicated to collimate the beam in order to protect the LHC ring from collisions with protons in very spreaded bunches. Bottom: bunch crossing scheme. Since the bunch crossing is not perfectly head-on, the luminosity is reduced in a factor of 17%; adapted from Reference [86].

1091 The CMS and ATLAS experiments are multi-purpose experiments, hence, they
 1092 are enabled to explore physics in any of the LHC collision modes. LHCb experiment
 1093 is optimized to explore bottom quark physics, while ALICE is optimized for heavy

1094 ion collisions searches; TOTEM and LHCf are dedicated to forward physics studies;
 1095 MoEDAL (not indicated in the Figure) is intended for monopole or massive pseudo
 1096 stable particles searches.

1097 At the IP there are two interesting details that need to be addressed. The first
 1098 one is that the bunch crossing does not occur head-on but at a small crossing angle θ_c
 1099 (280 μ rad in CMS and ATLAS) as shown in the bottom side of Figure 3.7, affecting
 1100 the overlapping between bunches; the consequence is a reduction of about 17% in
 1101 the luminosity (represented by a factor not included in eqn. 3.2). The second one
 1102 is the occurrence of multiple pp collisions in the same bunch crossing; this effect is
 1103 called *pileup* (PU). A fairly simple estimation of the PU follows from estimating the
 1104 probability of collision between two protons, one from each of the bunches in the
 1105 course of collision; it depends roughly on the ratio of proton size and the cross section
 1106 of the bunch in the IP, i.e.,

$$P(pp\text{-}collision) \sim \frac{d_{proton}^2}{\sigma_x \sigma_y} = \frac{(1\text{fm})^2}{(16\mu\text{m})^2} \sim 4 \times 10^{-21} \quad (3.4)$$

1107 however, there are $N = 1.15 \times 10^{11}$ protons in a bunch, thus the estimated number of
 1108 collisions in a bunch crossing is

$$PU = N^2 * P(pp\text{-}collision) \sim 50pp \text{ collision per bunch crossing}, \quad (3.5)$$

1109 about 20 of which are inelastic. A multiple pp collision event in a bunch crossing at
 1110 CMS is shown in Figure 3.8.

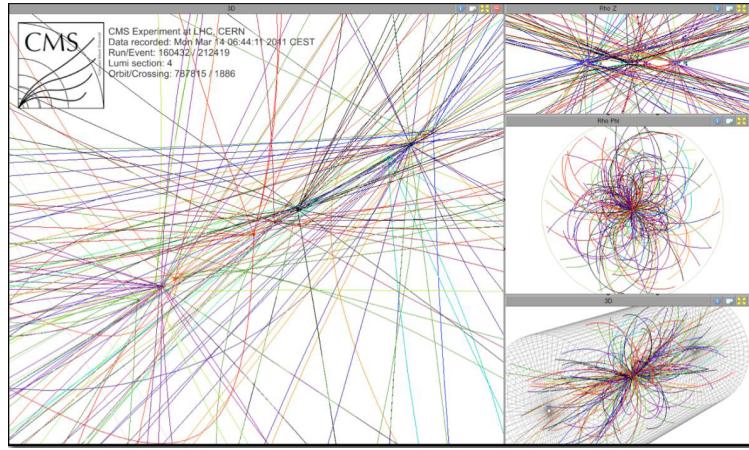


Figure 3.8: Multiple pp collision bunch crossing at CMS. [73].

3.3 The CMS experiment

CMS is a general-purpose detector designed to conduct research in a wide range of physics from the standard model to new physics like extra dimensions and dark matter. Located at Point 5 in the LHC layout as shown in Figure 3.4, CMS is composed of several detection systems distributed in a cylindrical structure; in total, CMS weighs about 12500 tons in a very compact 21.6 m long and 14.6 m diameter cylinder. It was built in 15 separate sections at the ground level and lowered to the cavern individually to be assembled. A complete and detailed description of the CMS detector and its components is given in Reference [74] on which this section is based. Figure 3.9 shows the layout of the CMS detector. The detection system is composed of (from the innermost to the outermost)

- Pixel detector.
- Silicon strip tracker.
- Preshower detector.
- Electromagnetic calorimeter.

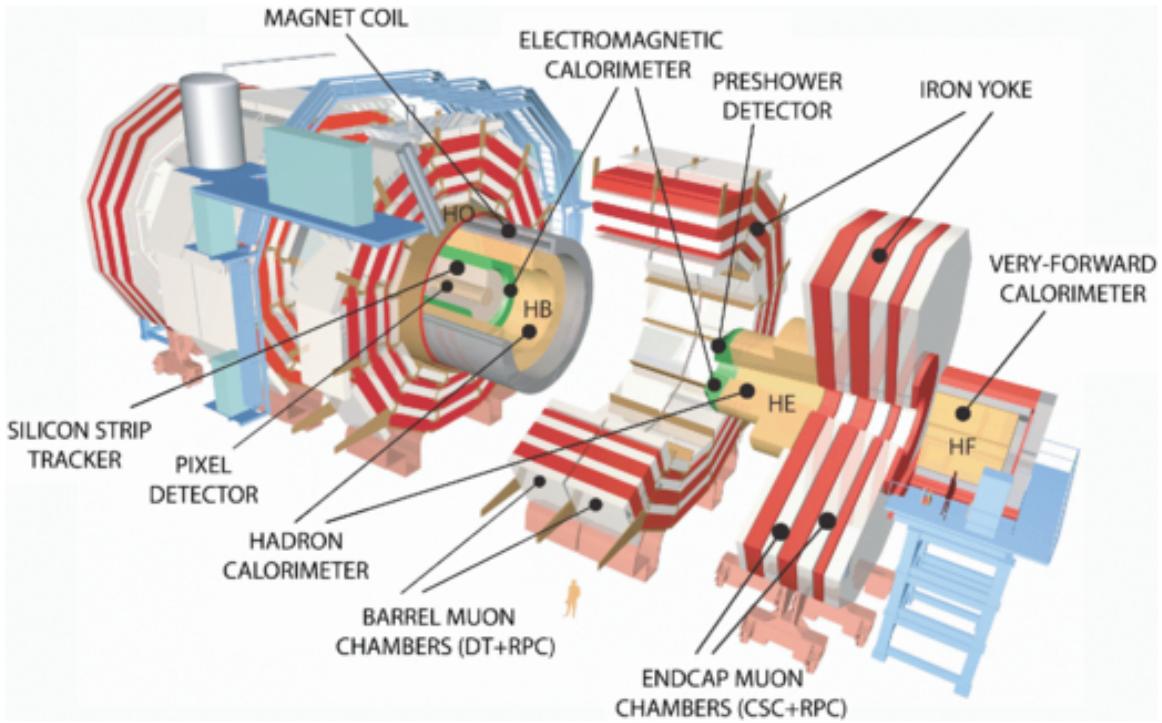


Figure 3.9: Layout of the CMS detector. The several subdetectors are indicated. The central region of the detector is referred as the barrel section while the endcaps are referred as the forward sections. [75].

1126 • Hadronic calorimeter.

1127 • Muon chambers (barrel and endcap)

1128 The central region of the detector is commonly referred as the barrel section while
 1129 the endcaps are referred as the forward sections of the detector; thus, each subdetector
 1130 is composed of a barrel section and a forward section.

1131 When a pp collision happens inside the CMS detector, many different particles are
 1132 produced, but only some of them live long enough to be detected; they are electrons,
 1133 photons, pions, kaons, protons, neutrons and muons; neutrinos are not detected by
 1134 the CMS detector. Thus, the CMS detector was designed to detect those particles and
 1135 measure their properties. Figure 3.10 shows a transverse slice of the CMS detector.
 1136 The silicon tracker (pixel detector + strip tracker) is capable to register the track of

the charged particles traversing it, while calorimeters (electromagnetic and hadronic) measure the energy of the particles that are absorbed by their materials. Considering the detectable particles, mentioned above, emerging from the IP, a basic description of the detection process is as follows.

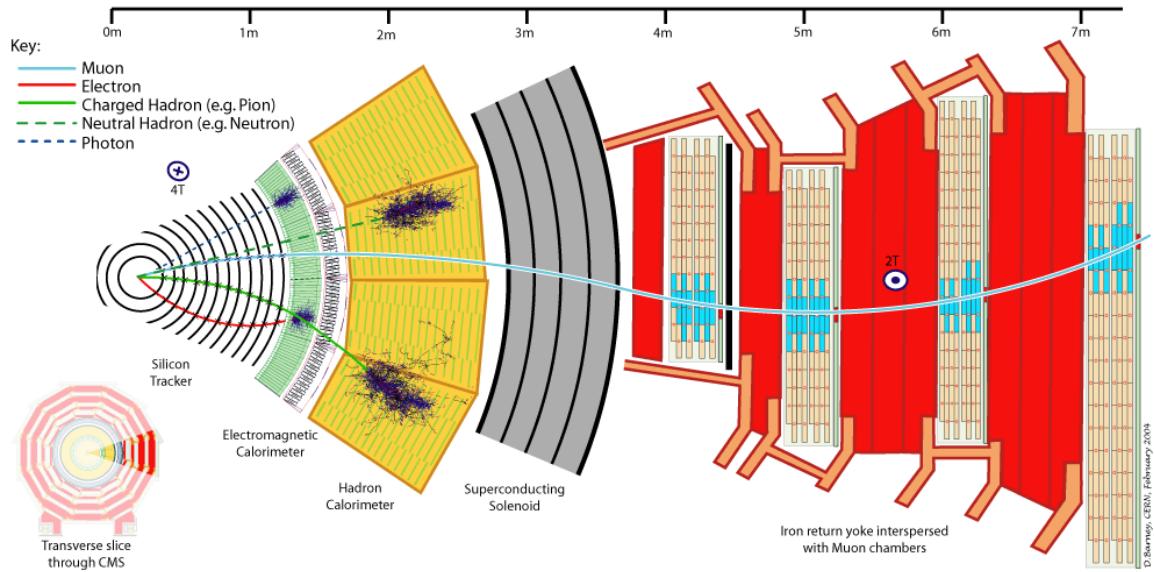


Figure 3.10: CMS detector transverse slice [76].

A muon emerging from the IP, will create a track on the silicon tracker and on the muon chambers. The design of the CMS detector is driven by the requirements on the identification, momentum resolution and unambiguous charge determination of the muons; therefore, a large bending power is provided by the solenoid magnet made of superconducting cable capable of generating a 3.8 T magnetic field. The muon track is bent twice since the magnetic field inside the solenoid is directed along the z -direction but outside its direction is reversed. Muons interact very weakly with the calorimeters, therefore, it is not absorbed but escape away from the detector.

An electron emerging from the IP will create a track along the tracker which will be bent due to the presence of the magnetic field, later, it will be absorbed in the electromagnetic calorimeter where its energy is measured.

1152 A photon will not leave a track because it is neutral, but it will be absorbed in
 1153 the electromagnetic calorimeter.

1154 A neutral hadron, like the neutron, will not leave a track either but it will lose a
 1155 small amount of its energy during its passage through the electromagnetic calorimeter
 1156 and then it will be absorbed in the hadron calorimeter depositing the rest of its energy.

1157 A charged hadron, like the proton or π^\pm , will leave a curved track on the silicon
 1158 tracker, some of its energy in the electromagnetic calorimeter and finally will be
 1159 absorbed in the hadronic calorimeter.

1160 A more detailed description of each detection system will be presented in the
 1161 following sections.

1162 3.3.1 CMS coordinate system

1163 The coordinate system used by CMS is centered on the geometrical center of the
 1164 detector which is the nominal IP as shown in Figure 3.11¹. The z -axis is parallel
 1165 to the beam direction, while the Y -axis pointing vertically upward, and the X -axis
 1166 pointing radially inward toward the center of the LHC.

1167 In addition to the common cartesian and cylindrical coordinate systems, two co-
 1168 ordinates are of particular utility in particle physics: rapidity (y) and pseudorapidity
 1169 (η), defined in connection to the polar angle θ , energy and longitudinal momentum
 1170 component (momentum along the z -axis) according to

$$y = \frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{E + p_z}{E - p_z} \quad \eta = -\ln \left(\tan \frac{\theta}{2} \right) \quad (3.6)$$

1171 Rapidity is related to the angle between the XY -plane and the direction in which
 1172 the products of a collision are emitted; it has the nice property that the difference

¹ Not all the pp interaction occur at the nominal IP because of the bunch lenght, therefore, each pp collision has its own IP location

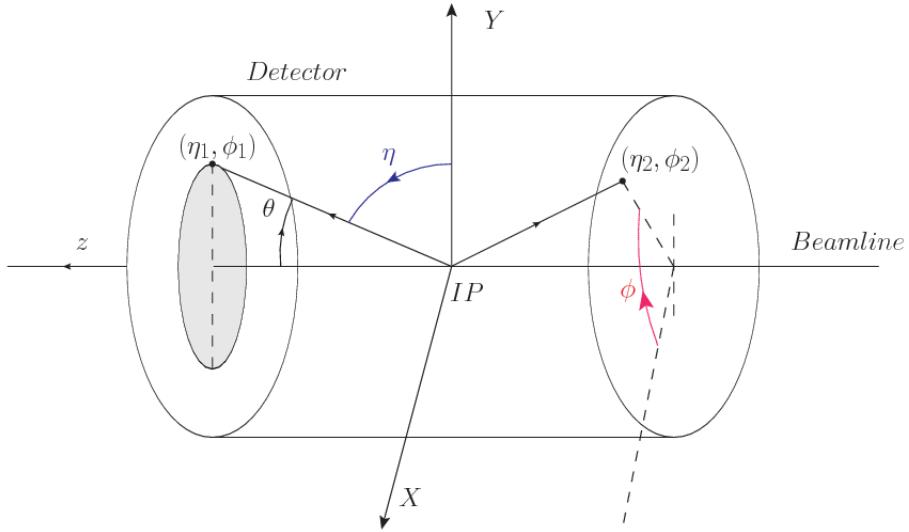


Figure 3.11: CMS detector coordinate system.

1173 between the rapidities of two particles is invariant with respect to Lorentz boosts
 1174 along the z -axis, hence, data analysis becomes more simple when based on rapid-
 1175 ity; however, it is not simple to measure the rapidity of highly relativistic particles,
 1176 as those produced after pp collisions. Under the highly relativistic motion approxi-
 1177 mation, y can be rewritten in terms of the polar angle, concluding that rapidity is
 1178 approximately equal to the pseudorapidity defined above, i.e., $y \approx \eta$. Note that η
 1179 is easier to measure than y given the direct relationship between the former and the
 1180 polar angle.

1181 The angular distance between two objects in the detector (ΔR) is commonly used
 1182 to judge the isolation of those object; it is defined in terms of their coordinates (η_1, ϕ_1) ,
 1183 (η_2, ϕ_2) as

$$\Delta R = \sqrt{(\Delta\eta)^2 - (\Delta\phi)^2} \quad (3.7)$$

1184 3.3.2 Tracking system

1185 The CMS tracking system is designed to provide a precise measurement of the trajec-
1186 tories (*track*) followed by the charged particles created after the pp collisions; also, the
1187 precise reconstruction of the primary and secondary origins of the tracks (*vertices*) is
1188 expected in an environment where, each 25 ns, the bunch crossing produces about 20
1189 inelastic collisions and about 1000 particles.

Physics requirements guiding the tracking system performance include the precise characterization of events involving gauge bosons, W and Z, and their leptonic decays for which an efficient isolated lepton and photon reconstruction is of capital importance, given that isolation is required to suppress background events to a level that allows observations of interesting processes like Higgs boson decays or beyond SM events.

1196 The ability to identify and reconstruct b -jets and B-hadrons within these jets is also
1197 a fundamental requirement, achieved through the ability to reconstruct accurately
1198 displaced vertices, given that b -jets are part of the signature of top quark physics, like
1199 the one treated in this thesis.

An schematic view of the CMS tracking system is shown in Figure 3.12

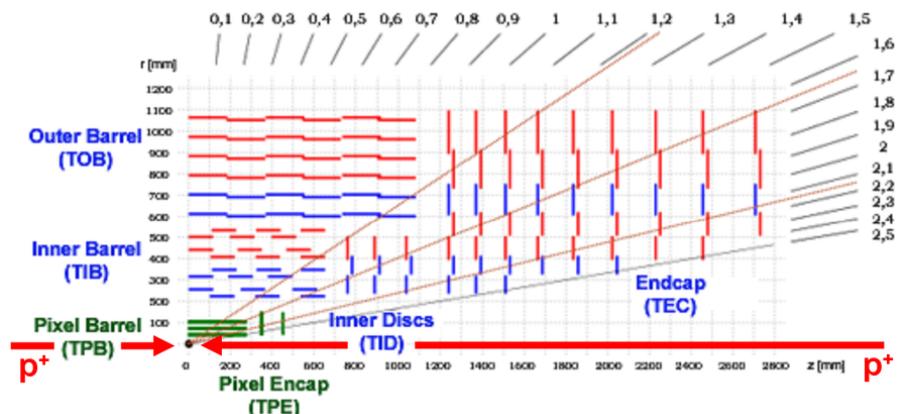


Figure 3.12: CMS tracking system schematic view [78].

1201 In order to satisfy these performance requirements, the tracking system uses two
 1202 different detector subsystems arranged in concentric cylindrical volumes, the pixel
 1203 detector and the silicon strip tracker; the pixel detector is located in the high particle
 1204 density region ($r < 20\text{cm}$) while the silicon strip tracker is located in the medium and
 1205 lower particle density regions $20\text{cm} < r < 116\text{cm}$.

1206 **Pixel detector**

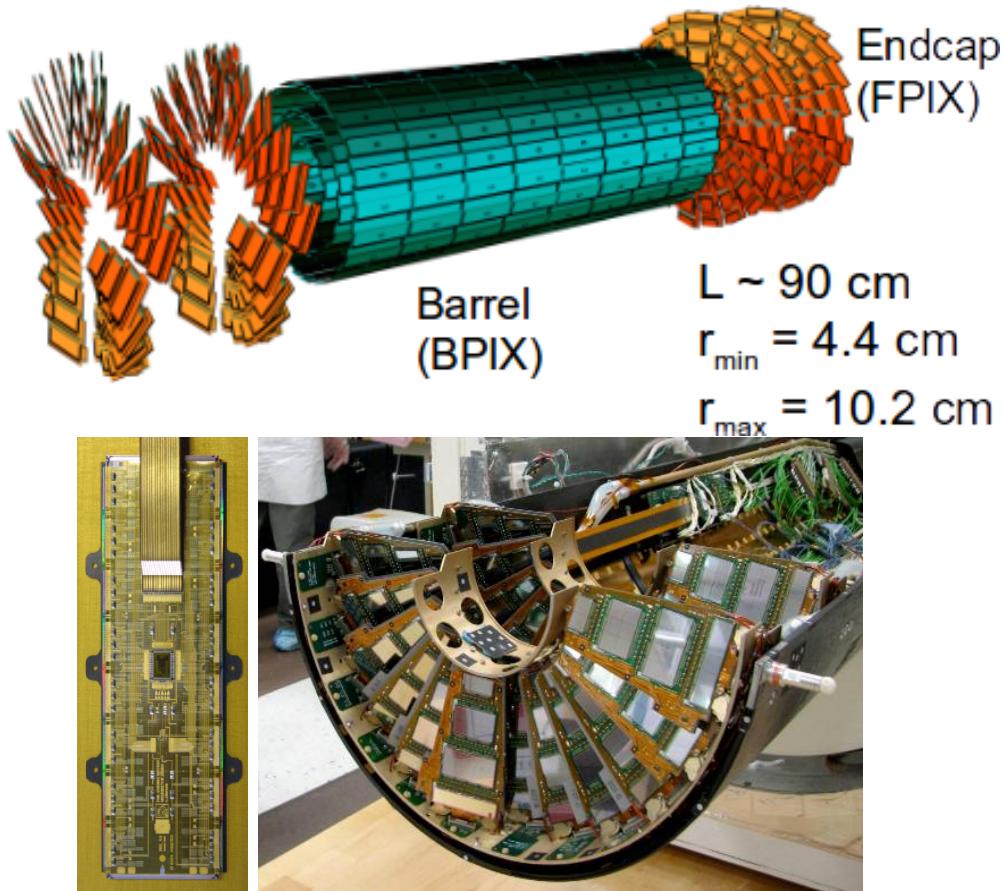


Figure 3.13: CMS pixel detector. Top: schematic view; Bottom: pictures of a barrel(BPIX) module(left) and forward modules(right) [74].

1207 The pixel detector was replaced during the 2016-2017 extended year-end technical
 1208 stop, due to the increasingly challenging operating conditions like the higher particle

flux and more radiation harsh environment, among others. The new one is responding as expected, reinforcing its crucial role in the successful way to fulfill the new LHC physics objectives after the discovery of the Higgs boson. Since the data sets used in this thesis were produced using the previous version of the pixel detector, it will be the subject of the description in this section. The last chapter of this thesis is dedicated to describe my contribution to the *Forward Pixel Phase 1 upgrade*.

The pixel detector was composed of 1440 silicon pixel detector modules organized in three-barrel layers in the central region (BPix) and two disks in the forward region (FPix) as shown in the top side of Figure 3.13; it was designed to record efficiently and with high precision, up to $20\mu\text{m}$ in the XY -plane and $20\mu\text{m}$ in the z -direction, the first three space-points (*hits*) nearest to the IP region in the range $|\eta| \leq 2.5$. The first barrel layer was located at a radius of 44 mm from the beamline, while the third layer was located at a radius of 102 mm, closer to the strip tracker inner barrel layer (see Section 3.3.3) in order to reduce the rate of fake tracks. The high granularity of the detector is represented in its about 66 Mpixels, each of size $100 \times 150\mu\text{m}^2$. The transverse momentum resolution of tracks can be measured with a resolution of 1-2% for muons of $p_T = 100$ GeV.

A charged particle passing through the pixel sensors produce ionization in them, giving energy for electrons to be removed from the silicon atoms, hence, creating electron-hole pairs. The collection of charges in the pixels generates an electrical signal that is read out by an electronic readout chip (ROC); each pixel has its own electronics which amplifies the signal. Combining the signal from the pixels activated by a traversing particle in the several layers of the detector allows one to reconstruct the particle's trajectory in 3D.

Commonly, the charge produced by traversing of a particle is collected by and shared among several pixels; by interpolating between pixels, the spatial resolution

1235 is improved. In the barrel section the charge sharing in the $r\phi$ -plane is due to the
 1236 Lorentz effect. In the forward pixels the charge sharing is enhanced by arranging the
 1237 blades in the turbine-like layout as shown in Figure 3.13 bottom left.

1238 **3.3.3 Silicon strip tracker**

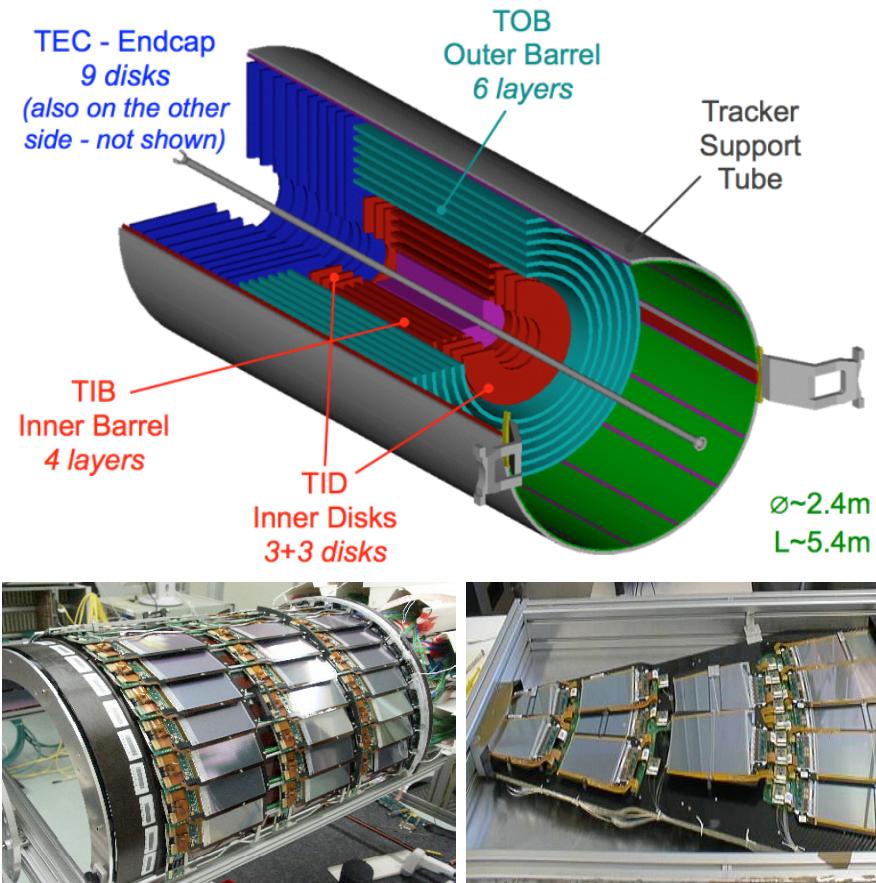


Figure 3.14: Top: CMS Silicon Strip Tracker (SST) schematic view. The SST is composed of the tracker inner barrel (TIB), the tracker inner disks (TID), the tracker outer barrel (TOB) and the tracker endcaps (TEC). Each part is made of silicon strip modules; the modules in blue represent two modules mounted back-to-back and rotated in the plane of the module by a stereo angle of 120 mrad in order to provide a 3-D reconstruction of the hit positions. Bottom: pictures of the TIB (left) and TEC (right) modules [80–82].

1239 The silicon strip tracker (SST) is the second stage in the CMS tracking system.
 1240 The top side of Figure 3.14 shows a schematic of the SST. The inner tracker region is

1241 composed of the tracker inner barrel (TIB) and the tracker inner disks (TID) covering
 1242 the region $r < 55$ cm and $|z| < 118$ cm. The TIB is composed of 4 layers while the TID
 1243 is composed of 3 disks at each end. The silicon sensors in the inner tracker are 320
 1244 μm thick, providing a resolution of about 13-38 μm in the $r\phi$ position measurement.

1245 The modules indicated in blue in the schematic view of Figure 3.14 are two mod-
 1246 ules mounted back-to-back and rotated in the plane of the module by a *stereo* angle
 1247 of 100 mrad; the hits from these two modules, known as *stereo hits*, are combined to
 1248 provide a measurement of the second coordinate (z in the barrel and r on the disks)
 1249 allowing the reconstruction of hit positions in 3-D.

1250 The outer tracker region is composed of the tracker outer barrel (TOB) and the
 1251 tracker endcaps (TEC). The six layers of the TOB offer coverage in the region $r > 55$
 1252 cm and $|z| < 118$ cm, while the 9 disks of the TEC cover the region $124 < |z| < 282$
 1253 cm. The resolution offered by the outer tracker is about 13-38 μm in the $r\phi$ position
 1254 measurement. The inner four TEC disks use silicon sensors 320 μm thick; those in
 1255 the TOB and the outer three TEC disks use silicon sensors of 500 μm thickness. The
 1256 silicon strips run parallel to the z -axis and the distance between strips varies from 80
 1257 μm in the inner TIB layers to 183 μm in the inner TOB layers; in the endcaps the
 1258 wedge-shaped sensors with radial strips, whose pitch range between 81 μm at small
 1259 radii and 205 μm at large radii.

1260 The whole SST has 15148 silicon modules, 9.3 million silicon strips and cover a
 1261 total active area of about 198 m^2 .

1262 **3.3.4 Electromagnetic calorimeter**

1263 The CMS electromagnetic calorimeter (ECAL) is designed to measure the energy of
 1264 electrons and photons. It is composed of 75848 lead tungstate crystals which have a

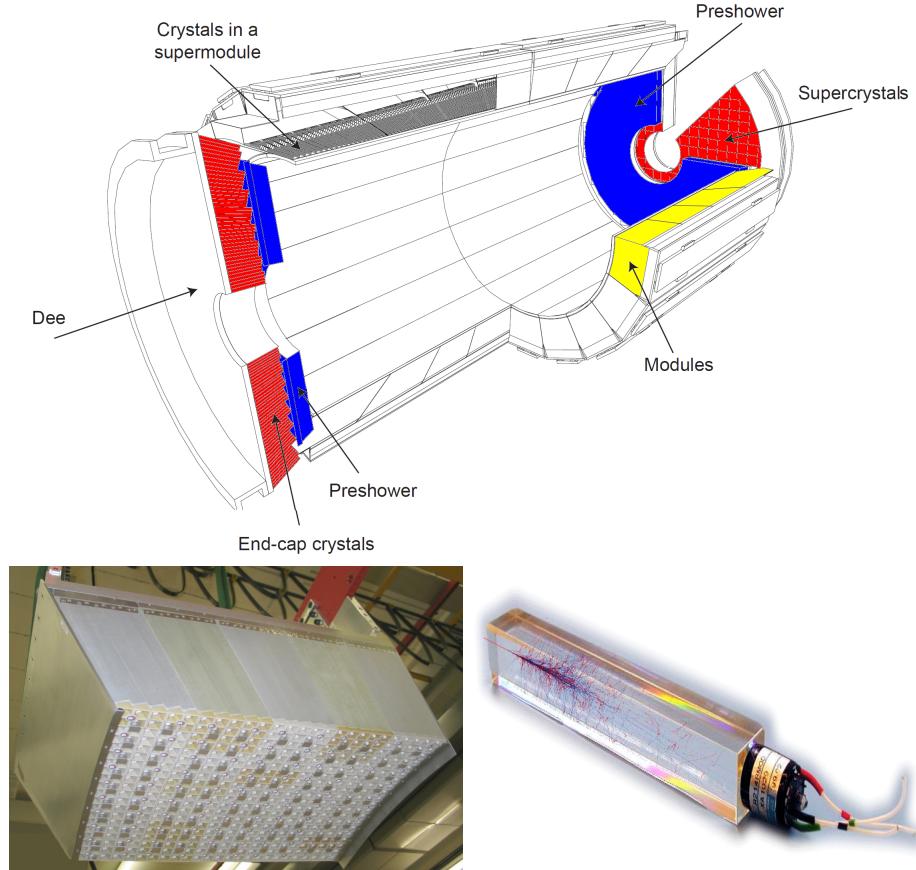


Figure 3.15: Top: CMS ECAL schematic view. Bottom: Module equipped with the crystals (left); ECAL crystal(right) with an artistic representation of an electromagnetic shower [74].

1265 short radiation length (0.89 cm) and fast response, since 80% of the light is emitted
 1266 within 25 ns; however, they are combined with Avalanche photodiodes (APDs) as
 1267 photodetectors given that crystals themselves have a low light yield ($30\gamma/\text{MeV}$). A
 1268 schematic view of the ECAL is shown in Figure 3.15.

1269 Energy is measured when electrons and photons are absorbed by the crystals
 1270 which generates an electromagnetic *shower*, as seen in bottom right picture of the
 1271 Figure 3.15; the shower is seen as a *cluster* of energy which depending on the amount
 1272 of energy deposited can involve several crystals. The ECAL barrel (EB) covers the
 1273 region $|\eta| < 1.479$, using crystals of depth of 23 cm and $2.2 \times 2.2 \text{ cm}^2$ transverse

1274 section; the ECAL endcap (EE) covers the region $1.479 < |\eta| < 3.0$ using crystals of
 1275 depth 22 cm and transverse section of $2.86 \times 2.86 \text{ cm}^2$; the photodetectors used are
 1276 vacuum phototriodes (VPTs). Each EE is divided in two structures called *Dees*.

1277 The preshower detector (ES) is installed in front of the EE and covers the region
 1278 $1.653 < |\eta| < 2.6$. The ES provides a precise measurement of the position of electro-
 1279 magnetic showers, which allows to distinguish electrons and photon signals from π^0
 1280 decay signals. The ES is composed of a layer of lead radiators followed by a layer of
 1281 silicon strip sensors. The lead radiators initiate electromagnetic showers when reached
 1282 by photons and electrons, then, the strip sensors measure the deposited energy and
 1283 the transverse shower profiles. The full ES thickness is 20 cm.

1284 3.3.5 Hadronic calorimeter

1285 Hadrons are not absorbed by the ECAL² but by the hadron calorimeter (HCAL),
 1286 which is made of a combination of alternating brass absorber layers and silicon photo-
 1287 multiplier(SiPM) layers; therefore, particles passing through the scintillator material
 1288 produce showers, as in the ECAL, as a result of the inelastic scattering of the hadrons
 1289 with the detector material. Since the particles are not absorbed in the scintillator,
 1290 their energy is sampled; therefore the total energy is not measured but estimated from
 1291 the energy clusters, which reduces the resolution of the detector. Brass was chosen
 1292 as the absorber material due to its short interaction length ($\lambda_I = 16.42\text{cm}$) and its
 1293 non-magnetivity. Figure 3.16 shows a schematic view of the CMS HCAL.

1294 The HCAL is divided into four sections; the Hadron Barrel (HB), the Hadron
 1295 Outer (HO), the Hadron Endcap (HE) and the Hadron Forward (HF) sections. The
 1296 HB covers the region $0 < |\eta| < 1.4$, while the HE covers the region $1.3 < |\eta| < 3.0$.
 1297 The HF, made of quartz fiber scintillator and steel as absorption material, covers the

² Most hadrons are not absorbed, but few low-energy ones might be.

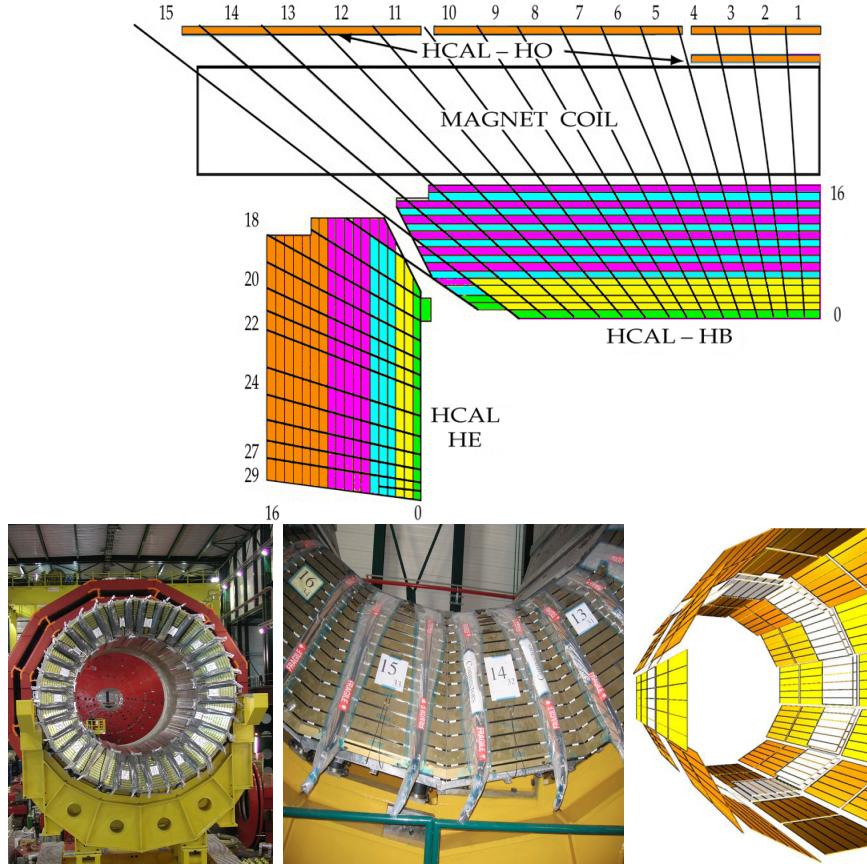


Figure 3.16: Top: CMS HCAL schematic view, the colors indicate the layers that are grouped into the same readout channels. Bottom: picture of a section of the HB; the absorber material is the golden region and scintillators are placed in between the absorber material (left and center). Schematic view of the HO (right). [83,84]

1298 forward region $3.0 < |\eta| < 5.2$. Both the HB and HF are located inside the solenoid.
 1299 The HO is placed outside the magnet as an additional layer of scintillators with the
 1300 purpose of measure the energy tails of particles passing through the HB and the
 1301 magnet (see Figure 3.16 top and bottom right).

1302 3.3.6 Superconducting solenoid magnet

1303 The superconducting magnet installed in the CMS detector is designed to provide
 1304 an intense and highly uniform magnetic field in the central part of the detector.

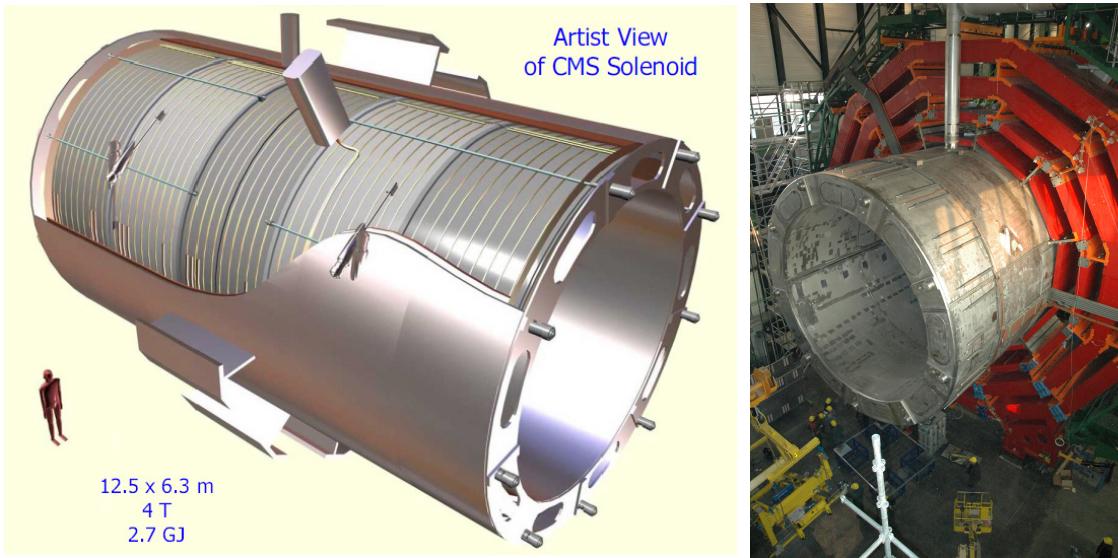


Figure 3.17: Artistic representation of the CMS solenoid magnet(left). The magnet is supported on an iron yoke (right) which also serves as the house of the muon detector and as mechanical support for the whole CMS detector [77].

1305 In fact, the tracking system takes advantage of the bending power of the magnetic
 1306 field to measure with precision the momentum of the particles that traverse it; the
 1307 unambiguous determination of the sign for high momentum muons was a driving
 1308 principle during the design of the magnet. The magnet has a diameter of 6.3 m, a
 1309 length of 12.5 m and a cold mass of 220 t; the generated magnetic field reaches a
 1310 strength of 3.8T. Since it is made of Ni-Tb superconducting cable it has to operate at
 1311 a temperature of 4.7 K by using a helium cryogenic system; the current circulating in
 1312 the cables reaches 18800 A under normal running conditions. The left side of Figure
 1313 3.17 shows an artistic view of the CMS magnet, while the right side shows a transverse
 1314 view of the cold mass where the winding structure is visible.

1315 The yoke (see Figure 3.17), composed of 5 barrel wheels and 6 endcap disks made
 1316 of iron, serves not only as the media for magnetic flux return but also provides housing
 1317 for the muon detector system and structural stability to the full detector.

1318 3.3.7 Muon system

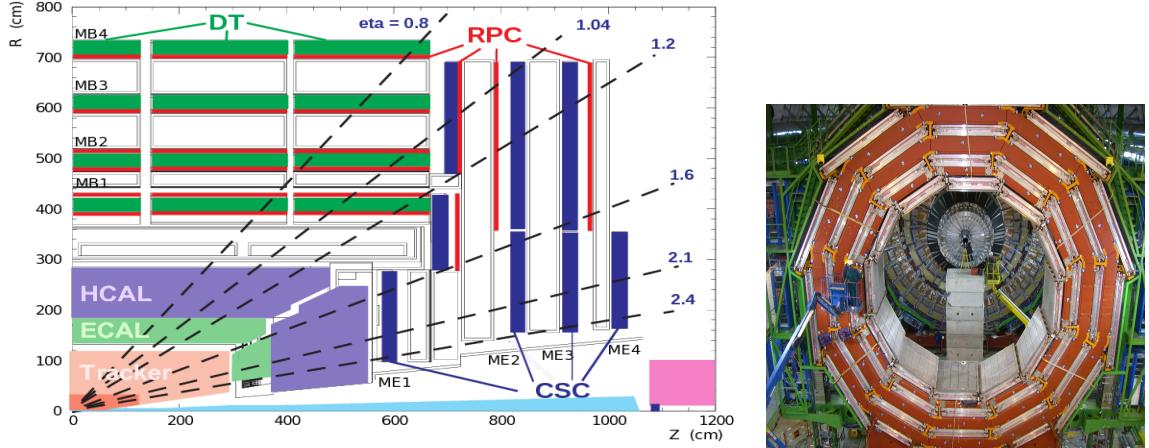


Figure 3.18: Left: CMS muon system schematic view; Right: one of the yoke rings with the muon DTs and RPCs installed; in the back it is possible to see the muon endcap [85].

1319 Muons are the only charged particles able to pass through all the CMS detector
 1320 due to their low ionization energy loss; thus, muons can be separated easily from the
 1321 high amount of particles produced in a pp collision. Also, muons are expected to be
 1322 produced in the decay of several new particles; therefore, good detection of muons
 1323 was one of the leading principles when designing the CMS detector.

1324 The CMS muon detection system (muon spectrometer) is embedded in the return
 1325 yoke as seen in Figure 3.18. It is composed of three different detector types, the drift
 1326 tube chambers (DT), cathode strip chambers (CSC), and resistive plate chambers
 1327 (RPC); DT are located in the central region $\eta < 1.2$ arranged in four layers of drift
 1328 chambers filled with an Ar/CO₂ gas mixture.

1329 The muon endcaps are made of CSCs covering the region $\eta < 2.4$ and filled with
 1330 a mixture of Ar/CO₂/CF₄. The reason behind using a different detector type lies on
 1331 the different conditions in the forward region like the higher muon rate and higher
 1332 residual magnetic field compared to the central region.

1333 The third type of detector used in the muon system is a set of four disks of RPCs

1334 working in avalanche mode. The RPCs provide good spatial and time resolutions. The
 1335 track of high- p_T muon candidates is built combining information from the tracking
 1336 system and the signal from up to six RPCs and four DT chambers.

1337 The muon tracks are reconstructed from the hits in the several layers of the muon
 1338 system.

1339 **3.3.8 CMS trigger system**

1340 CMS expects pp collisions every 25 ns, i.e., an interaction rate of 40 MHz for which
 1341 it is not possible to store the recorded data in full. In order to handle this high event
 1342 rate data, an online event selection, known as triggering, is performed; triggering
 1343 reduces the event rate to 100 Hz for storage and further offline analysis.

1344 The trigger system starts with a reduction of the event rate to 100 kHz in the
 1345 so-called *the level 1 trigger* (L1). L1 is based on dedicated programmable hardware
 1346 like Field Programmable Gate Arrays (FPGAs) and Application Specific Integrated
 1347 Circuits (ASICs), partly located in the detector itself; another portion is located in
 1348 the CMS underground cavern. Hit pattern information from the muon chambers
 1349 and the energy deposits in the calorimeter are used to decide if an event is accepted
 1350 or rejected, according to selection requirements previously defined, which reflect the
 1351 interesting physics processes. Figure 3.19 shows the L1 trigger architecture.

1352 The second stage in the trigger system is called *the high-level trigger* (HLT); events
 1353 accepted by L1 are passed to HLT in order to make an initial reconstruction of them.
 1354 HLT is software based and runs on a dedicated server farm, using selection algorithms
 1355 and high-level object definitions; the event rate at HLT is reduced to 100 Hz. The
 1356 first HLT stage takes information from the muon detectors and the calorimeters to
 1357 make the initial object reconstruction; in the next HLT stage, information from the

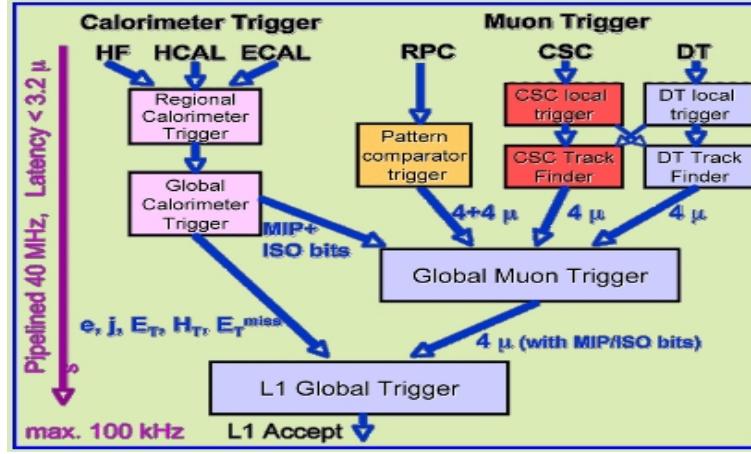


Figure 3.19: CMS Level-1 trigger architecture [86].

pixel and strip detectors is used to do first fast tracking and then full tracking online.
 This initial object reconstruction is used in further steps of the trigger system.

Events and preliminary reconstructed physics objects from HLT are sent to be fully reconstructed at the CERN computing center known also as Tier-0 facility. Again, the pixel detector information provides high-quality seeds for the track reconstruction algorithm offline, primary vertex reconstruction, electron and photon identification, muon reconstruction, τ identification, and b-tagging. After full reconstruction, data sets are made available for offline analyses.

3.3.9 CMS computing

Data coming from the experiment have to be stored and made available for further analysis; in order to cope with all the tasks implied in the offline data processing, like transfer, simulation, reconstruction and reprocessing, among others, a large computing power is required. The CMS computing system is based on the distributed architecture concept, where users of the system and physical computer centers are distributed worldwide and interconnected by high-speed networks.

The worldwide LHC computing grid (WLCG) is the mechanism used to provide

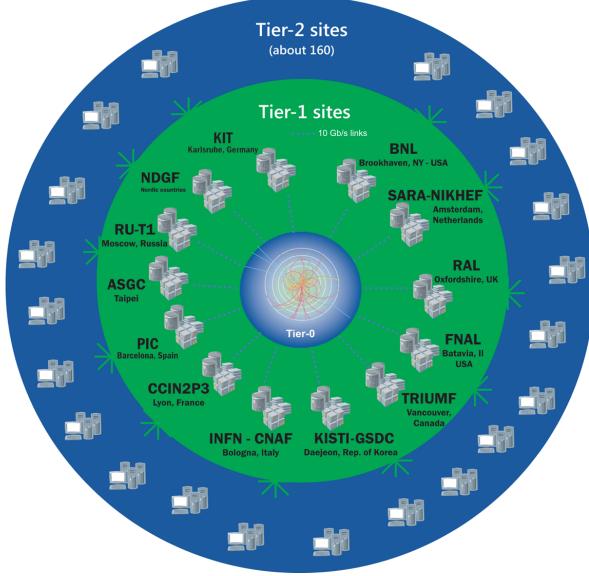


Figure 3.20: WLCG structure. The primary computer centers (Tier-0) are located at CERN (data center) and at the Wigner datacenter in Budapest. Tier-1 is composed of 13 centers and Tier-2 is composed of about 160 centers. [87].

1374 that distributed environment. WLCG is a tiered structure connecting computing
 1375 centers around the world, which provides the necessary storage and computing facil-
 1376 ties. The primary computing centers of the WLCG are located at the CERN and
 1377 the Wigner datacenter in Budapest and are known as Tier-0 as shown in Figure 3.20.
 1378 The main responsibilities for each tier level are [87]

- 1379 • **Tier-0:** initial reconstruction of recorded events and storage of the resulting
 1380 datasets, the distribution of raw data to the Tier-1 centers.
- 1381 • **Tier-1:** provide storage capacity, support for the Grid, safe-keeping of a pro-
 1382 portional share of raw and reconstructed data, large-scale reprocessing and safe-
 1383 keeping of corresponding output, generation of simulated events, distribution
 1384 of data to Tier 2s, safe-keeping of a share of simulated data produced at these
 1385 Tier 2s.
- 1386 • **Tier-2:** store sufficient data and provide adequate computing power for spe-

1387 cific analysis tasks and proportional share of simulated event production and
1388 reconstruction.

1389 Aside from the general computing strategy to manage the huge amount of data
1390 produced by experiments, CMS uses a software framework to perform a variety of
1391 processing, selection and analysis tasks. The central concept of the CMS data model
1392 referred to as *event data model* (EDM) is the *Event*; therefore, an event is the unit
1393 that contains the information from a single bunch crossing, any data derived from
1394 that information like the reconstructed objects, and the details of the derivation.

1395 Events are passed as the input to the *physics modules* that obtain information
1396 from them and create new information; for instance, *event data producers* add new
1397 data into the events, *analyzers* produce an information summary from an event set,
1398 *filters* perform selection and triggering.

1399 CMS uses several event formats with different levels of detail and precision

1400 • **Raw format:** events in this format contain the full recorded information from
1401 the detector as well as trigger decision and other metadata. An extended version
1402 of raw data is used to store information from the CMS Monte Carlo simulation
1403 tools (see Chapter 4). Raw data are stored permanently, occupying about
1404 2MB/event

1405 • **RECO format:** events in this format correspond to raw data that have been
1406 submitted to reconstruction algorithms like primary and secondary vertex re-
1407 construction, particle ID, and track finding. RECO events contain physics ob-
1408 jects and all the information used to reconstruct them; average size is about 0.5
1409 MB/event.

- 1410 • **AOD format:** Analysis Object Data (AOD) is the data format used in the
 1411 physics analyses given that it contains the parameters describing the high-level
 1412 physics objects in addition to enough information to allow a kinematic refitting if
 1413 needed. AOD events are filtered versions of the RECO events to which skimming
 1414 or other filtering have been applied, hence AOD events are subsets of RECO
 1415 events. Requires about 100 kB/event.
- 1416 • **Non-event data** are data needed to interpret and reconstruct events. Some
 1417 of the non-event data used by CMS contains information about the detector
 1418 contraction and condition data like calibrations, alignment, and detector status.

1419 Figure 3.21 shows the data flow scheme between CMS detector and tiers.

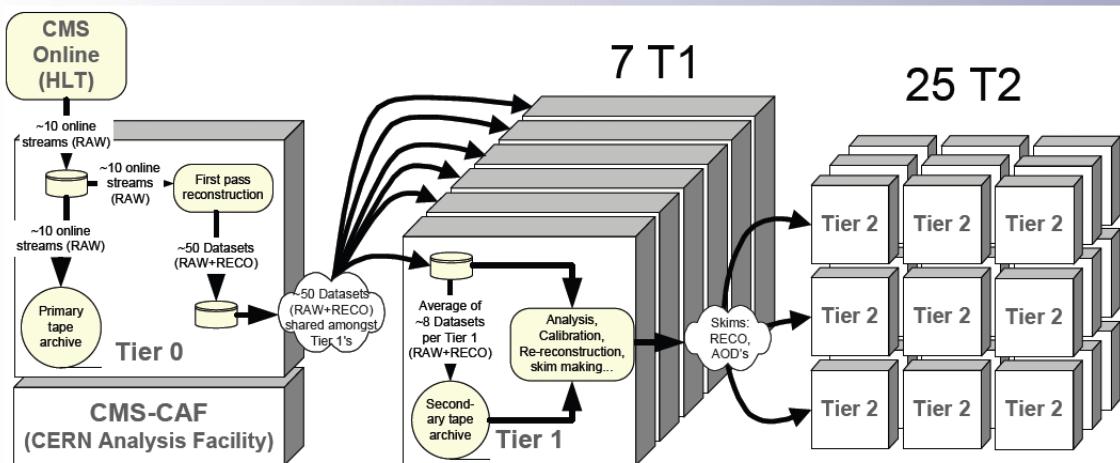


Figure 3.21: Data flow from CMS detector through tiers.

1420 The whole collection of software built as a framework is referred to as *CMSSW*. This
 1421 framework provides the services needed by the simulation, calibration and alignment,
 1422 and reconstruction modules that process event data, so that physicists can perform
 1423 analysis. The CMSSW event processing model is composed of one executable, called
 1424 cmsRun, and several plug-in modules which contains all the tools (calibration, recon-

1425 struction algorithms) needed to process an event. The same executable is used for
1426 both detector data and Monte Carlo simulations [88].

¹⁴²⁷ **Chapter 4**

¹⁴²⁸ **Event generation, simulation and
¹⁴²⁹ reconstruction**

¹⁴³⁰ The process of analyzing data recorded by the CMS experiment involves several stages
¹⁴³¹ where the data are processed in order to interpret the information provided by all
¹⁴³² the detection systems; in those stages, the particles produced after the pp collision
¹⁴³³ are identified by reconstructing their trajectories and measuring their features. In
¹⁴³⁴ addition, the SM provides a set of predictions that have to be compared with the
¹⁴³⁵ experimental results; however, in most of the cases, theoretical predictions are not
¹⁴³⁶ directly comparable to experimental results due to the diverse source of uncertainties
¹⁴³⁷ introduced by the experimental setup and theoretical approximations, among others.

¹⁴³⁸

¹⁴³⁹ The strategy to face these conditions consists in using statistical methods imple-
¹⁴⁴⁰ mented in computational algorithms to produce numerical results that can be con-
¹⁴⁴¹ trasted with the experimental results. These computational algorithms are commonly
¹⁴⁴² known as Monte Carlo (MC) methods and, in the case of particle physics, they are
¹⁴⁴³ designed to apply the SM rules and produce predictions about the physical observ-

ables measured in the experiments. Since particle physics is governed by quantum mechanics principles, predictions are not allowed from single events; therefore, a high number of events are *generated* and predictions are produced in the form of statistical distributions for the observables. Effects of the detector presence are included in the predictions by introducing simulations of the detector itself.

1449

1450 This chapter presents a description of the event generation strategy and the tools
 1451 used to perform the detector simulation and physics objects reconstruction. A com-
 1452 prehensive review of event generators for LHC physics can be found in Reference [89]
 1453 on which this chapter is based.

1454 4.1 Event generation

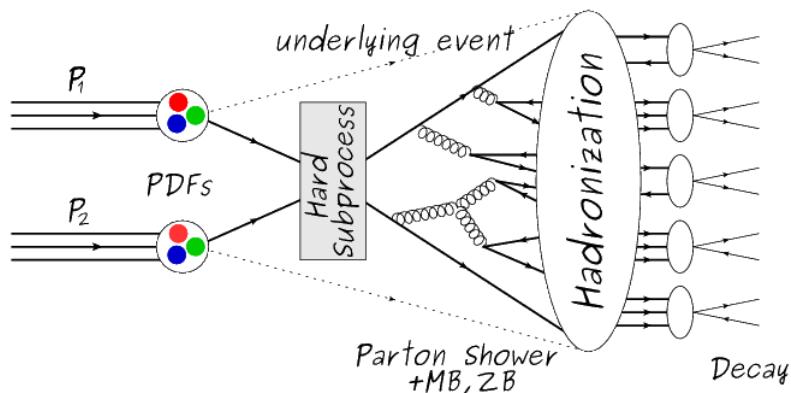


Figure 4.1: Event generation process. The actual interaction is generated in the hard subprocess. The parton shower describes the evolution of the partons from the hard subprocess. Modified from Reference [90].

1455 The event generation is intended to create events that mimic the behavior of ac-
 1456 tual events produced in collisions; they obey a sequence of steps from the particles
 1457 collision hard process to the decay process into the final state. Figure 4.1 shows a
 1458 schematic view of the event generation process; the fact that the full process can be

1459 treated as several independent steps is motivated by the QCD factorization theorem.

1460

1461 Generation starts by taking into account the PDFs of the incoming particles.

1462 Event generators offer the option to chose from several PDF sets depending on the

1463 particular process under simulation¹; in the following, pp collisions will be consid-

1464 ered. The *hard subprocess* describes the actual interaction between partons from the

1465 incoming protons; it is represented by the matrix element connecting the initial and

1466 final states of the interaction. Normally, the matrix element can be written as a sum

1467 over Feynman diagrams and consider interferences between terms in the summation.

1468 During the generation of the hard subprocess, the production cross section is calcu-

1469 lated.

1470

1471 The order to which the cross section is calculated depends on the order of the Feyn-

1472 man diagrams involved in the calculation; therefore, radiative corrections are included

1473 by considering a higher order Feynman diagrams where QCD radiation dominates.

1474 Currently, cross sections calculated to LO do not offer a satisfactory description of the

1475 processes, i.e., the results are only reliable for the shape of distributions; therefore,

1476 NLO calculations have to be performed with the implication that the computing time

1477 needed is highly increased.

1478

1479 The final parton content of the hard subprocess is subjected to the *parton shower*

1480 which generates the gluon radiation. Parton shower evolves the partons, i.e., glouns

1481 split into quark-antiquark pairs and quarks with enough energy radiate gluons giv-

1482 ing rise to further parton multiplication, following the DGLAP (Dokshitzer-Gribov-

1483 Lipatov-Altarelli-Parisi) equations. Showering continues until the energy scale is low

¹ Tool in Reference [91] allows to plot different PDF sets under customizable conditions.

1484 enough to reach the non-perturbative limit.

1485

1486 In the simulation of LHC processes that involve b quarks, like the single top quark
 1487 or Higgs associated production, it is needed to consider that the b quark is heavier
 1488 than the proton; hence, the QCD interaction description is made in two different
 1489 schemes [95]

1490 • four-flavor (4F) scheme. b quarks appear only in the final state because they
 1491 are heavier than the proton and therefore they can be produced only from the
 1492 splitting of a gluon into pairs or singly in association with a t quark in high
 1493 energy-scale interactions; furthermore, during the simulation, the b -PDFs are set
 1494 to zero. Calculations in this scheme are more complicated due to the presence
 1495 of the second b quark but the full kinematics is considered already at LO and
 1496 therefore the accuracy of the description is better.

1497 • five-flavor (5F) scheme. b quarks are considered massless, therefore they can
 1498 appear in both initial and final states since they can now be part of the proton;
 1499 thus, during the simulation b -PDFs are not set to zero. In this scheme, calcu-
 1500 lations are simpler than in the 4F scheme and possible logarithmic divergences
 1501 are absorbed by the PDFs through the DGLAP evolution.

1502 In this thesis, the tHq events are generated using the 4F scheme in order to reduce
 1503 uncertainties, while the tHW events are generated using the 5F scheme to eliminate
 1504 LO interference with $t\bar{t}H$ process [48].

1505

1506 Partons involved in the pp collision are the focus of the simulation, however, the
 1507 rest of the partons inside the incoming protons are also affected because the remnants
 1508 are colored objects; also, multiple parton interactions can occur. The hadronization

1509 of the remnants and multiple parton interactions are known as *underlying event* and
 1510 it has to be included in the simulation. In addition, multiple pp collisions in the same
 1511 bunch crossing (pile-up mentioned in 3.2) occurs, actually in two forms

- 1512 • *in-time PU* which refers to multiple pp collision in the bunch crossing but that
 1513 are not considered as primary vertices.
- 1514 • *Out-of-time PU* which refers to overlapping pp collisions from consecutive bunch
 1515 crossings; this can occur due to the time-delays in the detection systems where
 1516 information from one bunch crossing is assigned to the next or previous one.

1517 While the underlying event effects are included in generation using generator-
 1518 specific tools, PU effects are added to the generation by overlaying Minimum-bias
 1519 (MB) and Zero-bias (ZB) events to the generated events. MB events are inelastic
 1520 events selected by using a loose trigger with as little bias as possible, therefore ac-
 1521 cepting a large fraction of the overall inelastic event; ZB events correspond to random
 1522 events recorded by the detector when collisions are likely. MB models in-time PU
 1523 and ZB models out-of-time PU.

1524

1525 The next step in the generation process is called *hadronization*. Since particles
 1526 with a net color charge are not allowed to exits isolated, they have to recombine
 1527 to form bound states. This is precisely the process by which the partons resulting
 1528 from the parton shower arrange themselves as color singlets to form hadrons. At
 1529 this step, the energy-scale is low and the strong coupling constant is large, there-
 1530 fore hadronization process is non-perturbative and the evolution of the partons is
 1531 described using phenomenological models. Most of the baryons and mesons produced
 1532 in the hadronization are unstable and hence they will decay in the detector.

1533

1534 The last step in the generation process corresponds to the decay of the unstable
 1535 particles generated during hadronization; it is also simulated in the hadronization
 1536 step, based on the known branching ratios.

1537 **4.2 Monte Carlo Event Generators.**

1538 The event generation described in the previous section has been implemented in
 1539 several software packages for which a brief description is given.

1540 • **PYTHIA 8.** It is a program designed to perform the generation of high energy
 1541 physics events which describes the collisions between particles such as electrons
 1542 and protons. Several theories and models are implemented in it, in order to
 1543 describe physical aspects like hard and soft interaction, parton distributions,
 1544 initial and final-state parton showers, multiple parton interactions, beam rem-
 1545 nants, hadronization² and particle decay. Thanks to extensive testing, several
 1546 optimized parametrizations, known as *tunings*, have been defined in order to
 1547 improve the description of actual collisions to a high degree of precision; for
 1548 analysis at $\sqrt{s} = 13$ TeV, the underline event CUETP8M1 tune is employed [97].
 1549 The calculation of the matrix element is performed at LO which is not enough
 1550 for the current required level of precision; therefore, pythia is often used for
 1551 parton shower, hadronization and decays, while other event generators are used
 1552 to generate the matrix element at NLO.

1553 • **MadGraph5_aMC@NLO.** MadGraph is a matrix element generator which
 1554 calculates the amplitudes for all contributing Feynman diagrams of a given pro-
 1555 cess but does not provide a parton shower while MC@NLO incorporates NLO

² based in the Lund string model [96]

1556 QCD matrix elements consistently into a parton shower framework; thus, Mad-
 1557 Graph5_aMC@NLO, as a merger of the two event generators MadGraph5 and
 1558 aMC@NLO, is an event generator capable to calculate tree-level and NLO cross
 1559 sections and perform the matching of those with the parton shower. It is one of
 1560 the most frequently used matrix element generators; however, it has the partic-
 1561 ular feature of the presence of negative event weights which reduce the number
 1562 of events used to reproduce the properties of the objects generated [98].

1563

- 1564 • **POWHEG.** It is an NLO matrix element generator where the hardest emis-
 1565 sion of color charged particles is generated in such a way that the negative event
 1566 weights issue of MadGraph5_aMC@NLO is overcome; however, the method re-
 1567 quires an interface with p_T -ordered parton shower or a parton shower generator
 1568 where this highest emission can be vetoed in order to avoid double counting of
 1569 this highest-energetic emission. PYTHIA is a commonly matched to POWHEG
 1570 event generator [100].

1571 Events resulting from the whole generation process are known as MC events.

1572 4.3 CMS detector simulation.

1573 After generation, MC events contain the physics of the collisions but they are not
 1574 ready to be compared to the events recorded by the experiment since these recorded
 1575 events correspond to the response of the detection systems to the interaction with
 1576 the particles traversing them. The simulation of the CMS detector has to be applied
 1577 on top of the event generation; it is simulated with a MC toolkit for the simulation
 1578 of particles passing through matter called Geant4 which is also able to simulate the

1579 electronic signals that would be measured by all detectors inside CMS.

1580

1581 The simulation takes the generated particles contained in the MC events as input,
1582 makes them pass through the simulated geometry, and models physics processes that
1583 particles experience during their passage through matter. The full set of results from
1584 particle-matter interactions corresponds to the simulated hit which contains informa-
1585 tion about the energy loss, momentum and position. Particles of the input event are
1586 called *primary*, while the particles originating from GEANT4-modeled interactions of
1587 a primary particle with matter are called a *secondary*. Simulated hits are the input
1588 of subsequent modules that emulate the response of the detector readout system and
1589 triggers. The output from the emulated detection systems and triggers is known as
1590 digitization [101, 102].

1591

1592 The modeling of the CMS detector corresponds to the accurate modeling of the
1593 interaction among particles, the detector material, and the magnetic field. This
1594 simulation procedure includes the following standard steps

1595 • Modeling of the Interaction Region.

1596 • Modeling of the particle passage through the hierarchy of volumes that compose
1597 CMS detector and of the accompanying physics processes.

1598 • Modeling of the effect of multiple interactions per beam crossing and/or the
1599 effect of events overlay (Pile-Up simulation).

1600 • Modeling of the detector's electronics response, signal shape, noise, calibration
1601 constants (digitization).

1602 In addition to the full simulation, i.e., a detailed detector simulation, a faster sim-
 1603 ulation (FastSim) have been developed, that may be used where much larger statistics
 1604 are required. In FastSim, detector material effects are parametrized and included in
 1605 the hits; those hits are used as input of the same higher-level algorithms³ used to an-
 1606 alyze the recorded events. In this way, comparisons between fast and full simulations
 1607 can be performed [104].

1608

1609 After the full detector simulation, the output events can be directly compared
 1610 to events actually recorded in the CMS detector. The collection of MC events that
 1611 reproduces the expected physics for a given process is known as MC sample.

1612 **4.4 Event reconstruction.**

1613 The CMS experiment use the *particle-flow event reconstruction algorithm (PF)* to do
 1614 the reconstruction of particles produced in pp collisions. Next sections will present
 1615 a basic description of the *Elements* used by PF (tracker tracks, energy clusters, and
 1616 muon tracks), based in the References [105, 106] where more detailed descriptions can
 1617 be found.

1618 **4.4.1 Particle-Flow Algorithm.**

1619 Each of the several sub detection systems of the CMS detector is dedicated to identify
 1620 a specific type of particles, i.e., photons and electrons are absorbed by the ECAL
 1621 and their reconstruction is based on ECAL information; hadrons are reconstructed
 1622 from clusters in the HCAL while muons are reconstructed from hits in the muon

³ track fitting, calorimeter clustering, b tagging, electron identification, jet reconstruction and calibration, trigger algorithms which will be considered in the next sections

1623 chambers. PF is designed to correlate signals from all the detector layers (tracks and
 1624 energy clusters) in order to reconstruct and identify each final state particle and its
 1625 properties as sketched in Figure 4.2.

1626

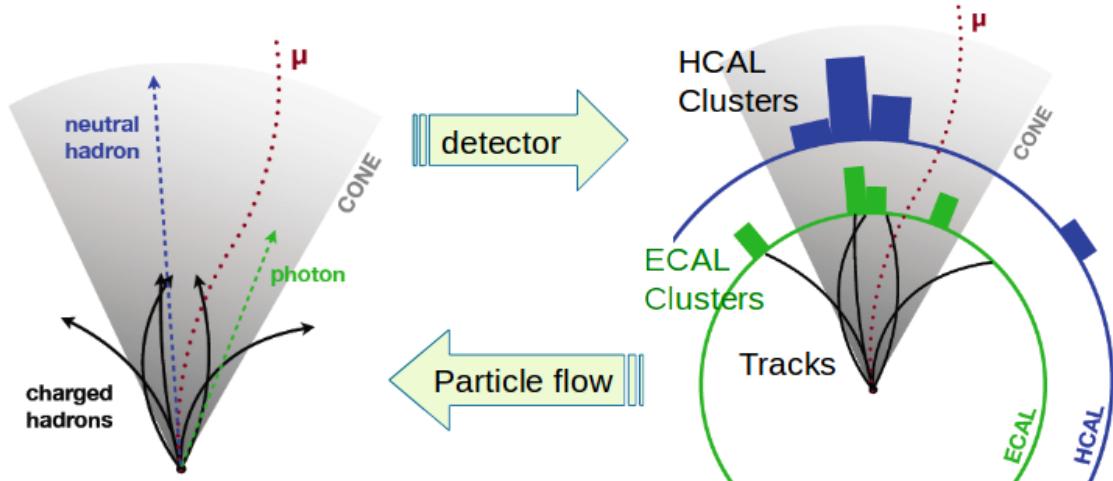


Figure 4.2: Particle flow algorithm. Information from the several CMS detection systems is provided as input to the algorithm which then combines it to identify and reconstruct all the particles in the final state and their properties. Reconstruction of simulated events is also performed by providing information from MC samples, detector and trigger simulation [107].

1627 For instance, a charged hadron is identified by a geometrical connection, known
 1628 as *link*, between one or more calorimeter clusters and a track in the tracker, provided
 1629 there are no hits in the muon system; combining several measurements allows a better
 1630 determination of the energy and charge sign of the charged hadron.

1631 Charged-particle track reconstruction.

1632 The strategy used by PF in order to reconstruct tracks is called *Iterative Tracking*
 1633 which occurs in four steps

- 1634 • Seed generation where initial track candidates are found by looking for a combi-
 1635 nation of hits in the pixel detector, strip tracker, and muon chambers. In total

1636 ten iterations are performed, each one with a different seeding requirement.
 1637 Seeds are used to estimate the trajectory parameters and uncertainties at the
 1638 time of the full track reconstruction. Seeds are also considered track candidates.

- 1639 • Track finding using a tracking software known as Combinatorial Track Finder
 1640 (CTF) [108]. The seed trajectories are extrapolated along the expected flight
 1641 path of a charged particle, in agreement to the trajectory parameters obtained
 1642 in the first step, in an attempt to find additional hits that can be assigned to
 1643 the track candidates.
- 1644 • Track-fitting where the found tracks are passed as input to a module which
 1645 provides the best estimate of the parameters of each trajectory.
- 1646 • Track selection where track candidates are submitted to a selection which dis-
 1647 cards those that fail a set of defined quality criteria.

1648 Iterations differ in the seeding configuration and the final track selection as elab-
 1649 orated in References [105, 106]. In the first iteration, high p_T tracks and tracks pro-
 1650 duced near to the interaction region are identified and those hits are masked thereby
 1651 reducing the combinatorial complexity. Next, iterations search for more complicated
 1652 tracks, like low p_T tracks and tracks from b hadron decays, which tend to be displaced
 1653 from the interaction region.

1654 **Vertex reconstruction.**

1655 During the track reconstruction, an extrapolation toward to the calorimeters is per-
 1656 formed in order to match energy deposits; that extrapolation is performed also toward
 1657 the beamline in order to find the origin of the track known as *vertex*. The vertex re-
 1658 construction is performed by selecting from the available reconstructed tracks, those

1659 that are consistent with being originated in the interaction region where pp collisions
 1660 are produced. The selection involves a requirement on the number of tracker (pixel
 1661 and strip) hits and the goodness of the track fit.

1662

1663 Selected tracks are clustered using a *deterministic annealing algorithm (DA)*⁴. A
 1664 set of candidate vertices and their associated tracks, resulting from the DA, are then
 1665 fitted with an *adaptive vertex fitter (AVF)* to produce the best estimate of the vertices
 1666 locations.

1667

1668 The p_T of the tracks associated to a reconstructed vertex is added, squared and
 1669 used to organize the vertices; the vertex with the highest squared sum is designated
 1670 as the *primary vertex (PV)* while the rest are designated as PU vertices.

1671 Calorimeter clustering.

1672 After traversing the CMS tracker system, electrons, photons and hadrons deposit their
 1673 energy in the ECAL and HCAL cells. The PF clustering algorithm aims to provide
 1674 a high detection efficiency even for low-energy particles and an efficient distinction
 1675 between close energy deposits. The clustering runs independently in the ECAL barrel
 1676 and endcaps, HCAL barrel and endcaps, and the two preshower layers, following two
 1677 steps

- 1678 • cells with an energy larger than a given seed threshold and larger than the energy
 1679 of the neighboring cells are identified as cluster seeds. The neighbor cells are
 1680 those that either share a side with the cluster seed candidate, or the eight closest
 1681 cells including cells that only share a corner with the seed candidate.

⁴ DA algorithm and AVF are described in detail in References [110, 111]

1682 • cells with at least a corner in common with a cell already in the cluster seed
 1683 and with an energy above a cell threshold are grouped into topological clusters.

1684 Clusters formed in this way are known as *particle-flow clusters*. With this cluster-
 1685 ing strategy, it is possible to detect and measure the energy and direction of photons
 1686 and neutral hadrons as well as differentiate these neutral particles from the charged
 1687 hadron energy deposits. In cases involving charged hadrons for which the track pa-
 1688 rameters are not determined accurately, for instance, low-quality and high- p_T tracks,
 1689 clustering helps in the energy measurements.

1690 **Electron track reconstruction.**

1691 Although the charged-particle track reconstruction described above works for elec-
 1692 trons, they lose a significant fraction of their energy via bremsstrahlung photon radi-
 1693 ation before reaching the ECAL; thus, the reconstruction performance depends on the
 1694 ability to measure also the radiated energy. The reconstruction strategy, in this case,
 1695 requires information from the tracking system and from the ECAL. Bremsstrahlung
 1696 photons are emitted at similar η values to that of the electron but at different values
 1697 of ϕ ; therefore, the radiated energy can be recovered by grouping ECAL clusters in a
 1698 η window over a range of ϕ around the electron direction. The group is called ECAL
 1699 supercluster.

1700 Electron candidates from the track-seeding and ECAL super clustering are merged
 1701 into a single collection which is submitted to a full electron tracking fit with a
 1702 Gaussian-sum filter (GSF) [109]. The electron track and its associated ECAL su-
 1703 percluster form a *particle-flow electron*.

1704 **Muon track reconstruction.**

1705 Given that the CMS detector is equipped with a muon spectrometer capable to iden-
 1706 tify and measure the momentum of the muons traversing it, the muon reconstruction
 1707 is not specific to PF; therefore, three different muon types are defined

1708 • *Standalone muon.* A clustering on the DTs or CSCs hits is performed to form
 1709 track segments; those segments are used as seeds for the reconstruction in the
 1710 muon spectrometer. All DTs, CSCs, and RPCs hits along the muon trajectory
 1711 are combined and fitted to form the full track. The fitting output is called a
 1712 *standalone-muon track*.

1713 • *Tracker muon.* Each track in the inner tracker with p_T larger than 0.5 GeV and
 1714 a total momentum p larger than 2.5 GeV is extrapolated to the muon system.
 1715 A *tracker muon track* corresponds to a extrapolated track that matches at least
 1716 one muon segment.

1717 • *Global muon.* When tracks in the inner tracker (inner tracks) and standalone-
 1718 muon tracks are matched and turn out being compatibles, their hits are com-
 1719 bined and fitted to form a *global-muon track*.

1720 Global muons sharing the same inner track with tracker muons are merged into
 1721 a single candidate. PF muon identification uses the muon energy deposits in ECAL,
 1722 HCAL, and HO associated with the muon track to improve the muon identification.

1723 **Particle identification and reconstruction.**

1724 PF elements are connected by a linker algorithm that tests the connection between any
 1725 pair of elements; if they are found to be linked, a geometrical distance that quantifies
 1726 the quality of the link is assigned. Two elements may be linked indirectly through

1727 common elements. Linked elements form *PF blocks* and each PF block may contain
 1728 elements originating in one or more particles. Links can be established between
 1729 tracks, between calorimeter clusters, and between tracks and calorimeter clusters.
 1730 The identification and reconstruction start with a PF block and proceed as follows

1731 • Muons. An *isolated global muon* is identified by evaluating the presence of
 1732 inner track and energy deposits close to the global muon track in the (η, ϕ)
 1733 plane, i.e., in a particular point of the global muon track, inner tracks and
 1734 energy deposits are sought within a radius of $\Delta R = 0.3$ (see eqn. 3.7) from the
 1735 muon track; if they exit and the p_T of the found track added to the E_T of the
 1736 found energy deposit does not exceed 10% of the muon p_T then the global muon
 1737 is an isolated global muon. This isolation condition is stringent enough to reject
 1738 hadrons misidentified as muons.

1739 *Non-isolated global muons* are identified using additional selection requirements
 1740 on the number of track segments in the muon system and energy deposits along
 1741 the muon track. Muons inside jets are identified with more stringent criteria
 1742 in isolation and momentum as described in Reference [112]. The PF elements
 1743 associated with an identified muon are masked from the PF block.

1744 • Electrons are identified and reconstructed as described above plus some addi-
 1745 tional requirements on fourteen variables like the amount of energy radiated,
 1746 the distance between the extrapolated track position at the ECAL and the po-
 1747 sition of the associated ECAL supercluster, among others, which are combined
 1748 in an specialized multivariate analysis strategy that improves the electron iden-
 1749 tification. Tracks and clusters used to identify and reconstruct electrons are
 1750 masked in the PF block.

- 1751 ● Isolated photons are identified from ECAL superclusters with E_T larger than 10
 1752 GeV, for which the energy deposited at a distance of 0.15, from the supercluster
 1753 position on the (η,ϕ) plane, does not exceed 10% of the supercluster energy;
 1754 note that this is an isolation requirement. In addition, there must not be links
 1755 to tracks. Clusters involved in the identification and reconstruction are masked
 1756 in the PF block.

- 1757 ● Bremsstrahlung photons and prompt photons tend to convert to electron-positron
 1758 pairs inside the tracker, therefore, a dedicated finder algorithm is used to link
 1759 tracks that seem to originate from a photon conversion; in case those two tracks
 1760 are compatible with the direction of a bremsstrahlung photon, they are also
 1761 linked to the original electron track. Photon conversion tracks are also masked
 1762 in the PF block.

- 1763 ● The remaining elements in the PF block are used to identify hadrons. In the
 1764 region $|\eta| \leq 2.5$, neutral hadrons are identified with HCAL clusters not linked
 1765 to any track while photons from neutral pion decays are identified with ECAL
 1766 clusters without links to tracks. In the region $|\eta| > 2.5$ ECAL clusters linked to
 1767 HCAL clusters are identified with a charged or neutral hadron shower; ECAL
 1768 clusters with no links are identified with photons. HCAL clusters not used yet,
 1769 are linked to one or more unlinked tracks and to an unlinked ECAL in order to
 1770 reconstruct charged-hadrons or a combination of photons and neutral hadrons
 1771 according to certain conditions on the calibrated calorimetric energy.

- 1772 ● Charged-particle tracks may be liked together when they converge to a *sec-
 1773 ondary vertex (SV)* displaced from the IP where the PV and PU vertices are
 1774 reconstructed; at least three tracks are needed in that case, of which at most

1775 one has to be an incoming track with hits in tracker region between a PV and
 1776 the SV.

1777 The linker algorithm, as well as the whole PF algorithm, has been validated and
 1778 commissioned; results from that validation are presented in the Reference [105].

1779 **Jet reconstruction.**

1780 Quarks and gluons may be produced in the pp collisions, therefore, their hadronization
 1781 will be seen in the detector as a shower of hadrons and their decay products in the
 1782 form of a *jet*. Two classes of clustering algorithms have been developed based in
 1783 their jet definition [113]:

- 1784 • Iterative cone algorithms (IC). Jets are defined in terms of circles of fixed radius
 1785 R in the $\eta\text{-}\phi$ plane, known as *stable cones*, for which the sum of the momenta
 1786 of all the particles within the cone points in the same direction as the center
 1787 of the circle. The seed of the iteration is the hardest non-isolated particle in
 1788 the event, then, the resulting momentum direction is assigned as the new cone
 1789 direction and a new iteration starts; iteration process stops when the cone is
 1790 found to be stable.

- 1791 • Sequential recombination algorithms. The distance between non-isolated par-
 1792 ticles is calculated; if that distance is below a threshold, these particles are
 1793 recombined into a new object. The sequence is repeated until the separation
 1794 between the recombined object and any other particle is above certain thresh-
 1795 old; the recombined object is called a jet and the algorithm starts again with
 1796 the remaining particles.

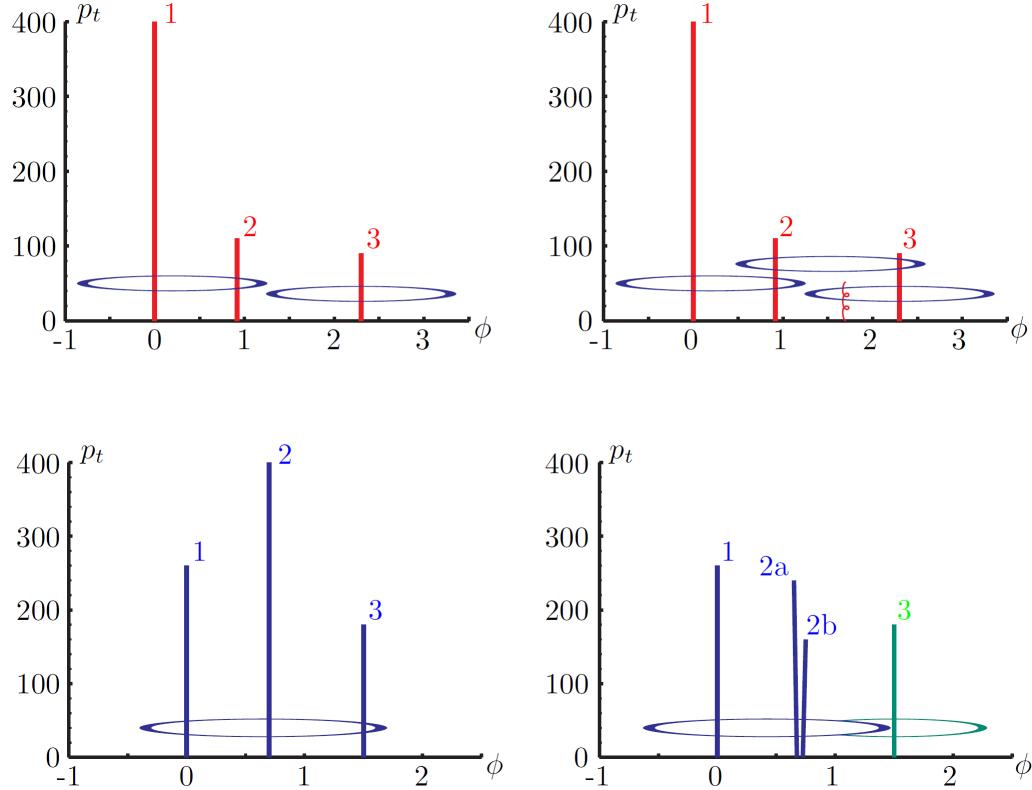


Figure 4.3: Stable cones identification using IC algorithms [113].

1797 Two conditions are of particular importance for the clustering algorithms, *infrared*
 1798 *and collinear (IRC) safety*. In order to explain the concept of infrared (IR) safety,
 1799 consider an event with three hard particles as shown in the top left side of Figure 4.3,
 1800 two stable cones are found and then two jets are identified; if a soft gluon is added, as
 1801 shown in the top right side of Figure 4.3, three stable cones are found and the three
 1802 hard particles are now clustered into a single jet. If the addition of soft particles
 1803 change the outcome of the clustering, then it is said that the algorithm is IR unsafe.
 1804 Soft radiation is highly likely in perturbative QCD, which dominates the physics of
 1805 the jets, and then IR unsafe effect leads to divergences [113].

1806 The concept of collinear safety can also be explained considering a three hard
 1807 particles event, as shown in the bottom left side of Figure 4.3, where one stable cone
 1808 containing all three particles is found and one jet is identified; if the hardest particle

1809 is split into two collinear particles (2a and 2b) in the bottom right side of Figure 4.3,
 1810 then the clustering results in a different jet identification and the algorithm is said
 1811 to be collinear unsafe. The collinear unsafe effect leads to divergences in jet cross
 1812 section calculations [114].

1813 It has been determined that IC algorithms are IRC unsafe, and therefore, they
 1814 have to be replaced by algorithms that not only provide the finite perturbative results
 1815 from theoretical computations, but also that are not highly dependent on underlying
 1816 event and pileup effects which leads to significant corrections [113].

1817 The sequential recombination algorithms arise as the IRC safe alternative used by
 1818 the CMS experiment; in particular the anti- k_t algorithm which is a generalization of
 1819 the previously existing k_t [115] and Cambridge/Aachen [116] jet clustering algorithms.

1820 The anti- k_t algorithm is used to perform the jet reconstruction by clustering those
 1821 PF particles within a cone (see Figure 4.4); previously, isolated electrons, isolated
 1822 muons, and charged particles associated with other interaction vertices are excluded
 1823 from the clustering.

1824 The anti- k_t algorithm proceeds in a sequential recombination of PF particles; the
 1825 distance between particles i and j (d_{ij}) and the distance between particles and the
 1826 beam are defined as

$$d_{ij} = \min \left(\frac{1}{k_{ti}^2}, \frac{1}{k_{tj}^2} \right) \frac{\Delta_{ij}^2}{R^2}$$

$$d_{iB} = \frac{1}{k_{ti}^2} \quad (4.1)$$

1827 where $\Delta_{ij}^2 = (y_i - y_j)^2 + (\phi_i - \phi_j)^2$, k_{ti} , y_i and ϕ_i are the transverse momentum, ra-
 1828 pidity and azimuth of particle i respectively and R is the called jet radius. For all
 1829 the remaining PF particles, after removing the isolated ones, d_{ij} and d_{iB} are calcu-

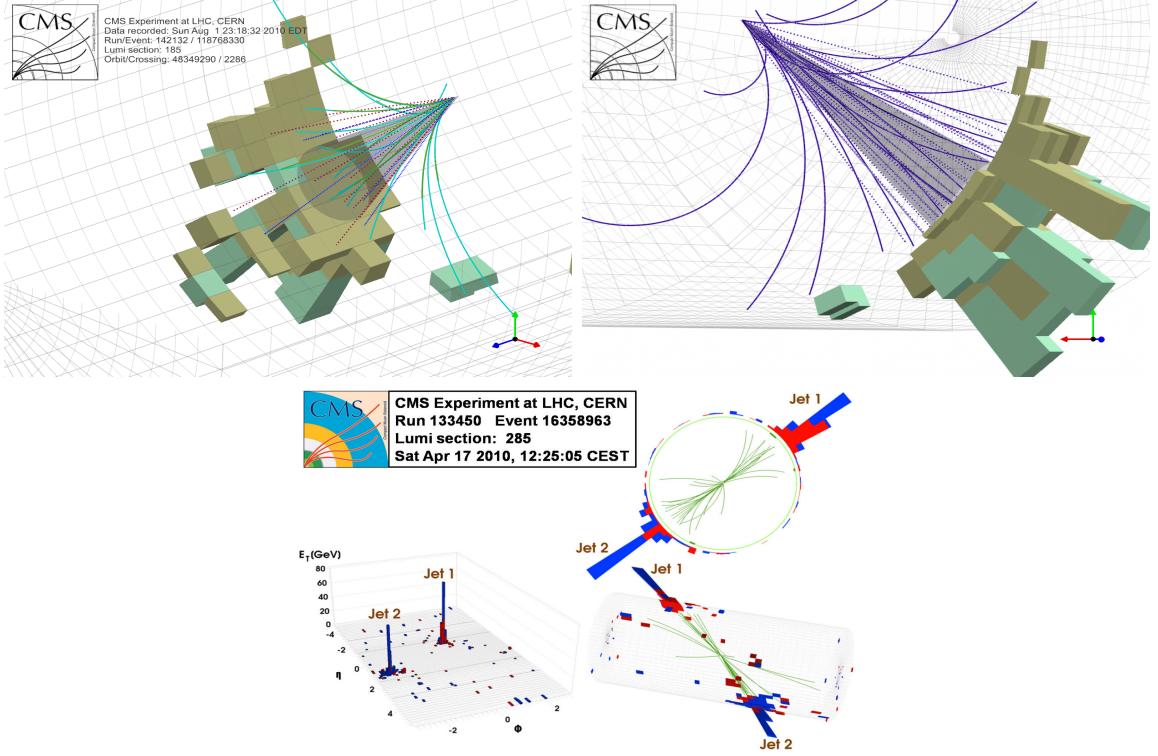


Figure 4.4: Jet reconstruction performed by the anti- k_t algorithm. Top: Two different views of a CMS recorded event are presented. Continuous lines correspond to tracks left by charged particles in the tracker while dotted lines are the imaginary paths followed by neutral particles. The green cubes represent the ECAL cells while the blue ones represent the HCAL cells; in both cases, the height of the cube represent the amount of energy deposited in the cells [117]. Bottom: Reconstruction of a recorded event with two jets [118].

lated⁵ and the smallest is identified; if it is a d_{ij} , particles i and j are replaced with a new object whose momentum is the vectorial sum of the combined particles. If the smallest distance is a d_{iB} the clustering process ends, the object i (which at this stage should be a combination of several PF particles) is declared as a *Particle-flow-jet* (PF jet) and all the associated PF particles are removed from the detector. The clustering process is repeated until no PF particles remain. R is a free parameter that can be adjusted according to the specific analysis conditions; usually, two values are used, $R=0.4$ and $R=0.5$, giving the name to the so-called AK4-jet and AK5-jet respectively.

⁵ Notice that this is a combinatorial calculation.

1838 An advantage of the anti- k_t algorithm over other clustering algorithms is the reg-
 1839 ularity of the boundaries of the resulting jets. For all known IRC safe algorithms,
 1840 soft radiation can introduce irregularities in the boundaries of the final jets; however,
 1841 anti- k_t algorithm is soft-resilient, meaning that jets shape is not affected by soft radi-
 1842 ation, which is a valuable property considering that knowing the typical shape of jets
 1843 makes experimental calibration of jets more simple. In addition, that soft-resilience
 1844 is expected to simplify certain theoretical calculations and reduce the momentum-
 1845 resolution loss caused by underlying-event (UE) and pileup contamination [114].

1846 The effect of the UE and pileup contamination over a jet identification, can be
 1847 seen as if soft events are added to the jet; for instance, if a soft event representing UE
 1848 or pileup is added to an event for which a set of jets J have been identified, and the
 1849 clustering is rerun on that new extended event, the outcome will be different in two
 1850 aspects: jets will contain some additional soft energy and the distribution of particles
 1851 in jets may have change; that effect is called *back-reaction*. The back-reaction effect in
 1852 the anti- k_t algorithm is suppressed not by the amount of momentum added to the jet
 1853 but by the jet transverse momentum $p_{T,J}$, which means that this strong suppression
 1854 leads to a smaller correction due to EU and pileup effect [114].

1855 Jet energy Corrections

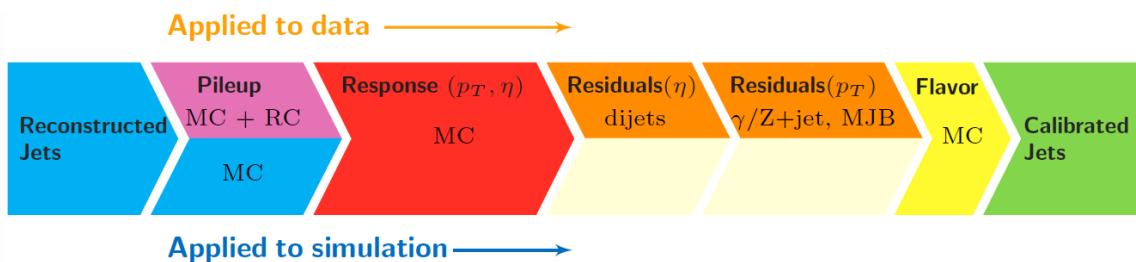


Figure 4.5: Jet energy correction diagram. Correction levels are applied sequentially in the indicated fixed order [120].

1856 Even though jets can be reconstructed efficiently, there are some effects that are
 1857 not included in the reconstruction and that lead to discrepancies between the re-
 1858 constructed results and the predicted results; in order to overcome these discrep-
 1859 ancies, a factorized model has been designed in the form of jet energy corrections
 1860 (JEC) [119,120] applied sequentially as shown in the diagram of Figure 4.5.

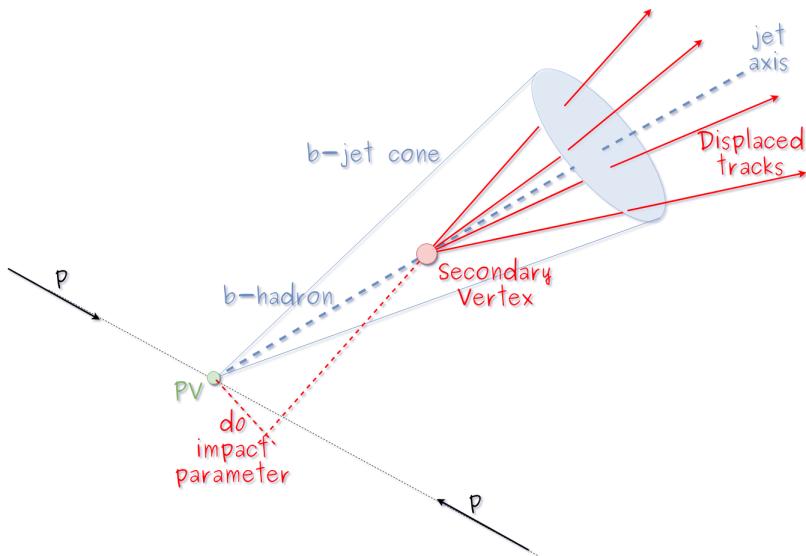
1861 At each level, the jet four-momentum is multiplied by a scaling factor based on
 1862 jet properties, i.e., η , flavor, etc.

- 1863 • Level 1 correction removes the energy coming from pile-up. The scale factor is
 determined using a MC sample of QCD dijet (2 jets) events with and without
 pileup overlay; it is parametrized in terms of the offset energy density ρ , jet
 area A, jet η and jet p_T . Different corrections are applied to data and MC due
 to the detector simulation.
- 1868 • MC-truth correction accounts for differences between the reconstructed jet en-
 ergy and the MC particle-level energy. The correction is determined on a QCD
 dijet MC sample and is parametrized in terms of the jet p_T and η .
- 1871 • Residuals correct remaining small differences within jet response in data and
 MC. The Residuals η -dependent correction compares jets of similar p_T in the
 barrel reference region. The Residuals p_T -dependent correct the jet absolute
 scale (JES vs p_T).
- 1875 • Jet-flavor corrections are derived in the same way as MC-truth corrections but
 using QCD pure flavor samples.

1877 ***b*-tagging of jets.**

1878 A particular feature of the hadrons containing bottom quarks (*b*-hadrons) is that
 1879 their lifetime is long enough to travel some distance before decaying, but it is not as
 1880 long as those of light quark hadrons; therefore, when looking at the hadrons produced
 1881 in pp collisions, *b*-hadrons decay typically inside the tracker rather than reaching the
 1882 calorimeters as some light-hadrons do. As a result, a *b*-hadron decay gives rise to a
 1883 displaced vertex (secondary vertex) with respect to the primary vertex as shown in
 1884 Figure 4.6; the SV displacement is in the order of a few millimeters. A jet resulting
 1885 from the decay of a *b*-hadron is called *b* jet; other jets are called light jets.

1886

**Figure 4.6:** Secondary vertex in a *b*-hadron decay.

1887 Several methods to identify *b*-jets (*b*-tagging) have been developed; the method
 1888 used in this thesis is known as *Combined Secondary Vertex* algorithm in its second
 1889 version (CSVv2) [121]. By using information of the impact parameter, the recon-
 1890 structed secondary vertices, and the jet kinematics as input in a multivariate analysis
 1891 that combines the discrimination power of each variable in one global discrimina-

1892 tor variable, three working points (references): loose, medium and tight, are defined
 1893 which quantify the probabilities of mistag jets from light quarks as jets from b quarks;
 1894 10, 1 and 0.1 % respectively. Although the mistagging probability decreases with the
 1895 working point strength, the efficiency to correctly tag b -jets also decreases as 83, 69
 1896 and 49 % for the respective working point; therefore, a balance needs to be achieved
 1897 according to the specific requirements of the analysis.

1898 **4.4.1.1 Missing transverse energy.**

1899 The fact that proton bunches carry momentum along the z -axis implies that for each
 1900 event it is expected that the momentum in the transverse plane is balanced. Imbal-
 1901 ances are quantified by the missing transverse energy (MET) and are attributed to
 1902 several sources including particles escaping undetected through the beam pipe, neu-
 1903 trinos produced in weak interactions processes which do not interact with the detector
 1904 and thus escaping without leaving a sign, or even undiscovered particles predicted by
 1905 models beyond the SM.

1906

1907 The PF algorithm assigns the negative sum of the momenta of all reconstructed
 1908 PF particles to the *particle-flow MET* according to

$$\vec{E}_T = - \sum_i \vec{p}_{T,i} \quad (4.2)$$

1909 JEC are propagated to the calculation of the \vec{E}_T as described in the Reference [122].

1910

1911 **4.4.2 Event reconstruction examples**

1912 Figures 4.7-4.9 show the results of the reconstruction performed on 3 recorded events.

1913 Descriptions are taken directly from the source.

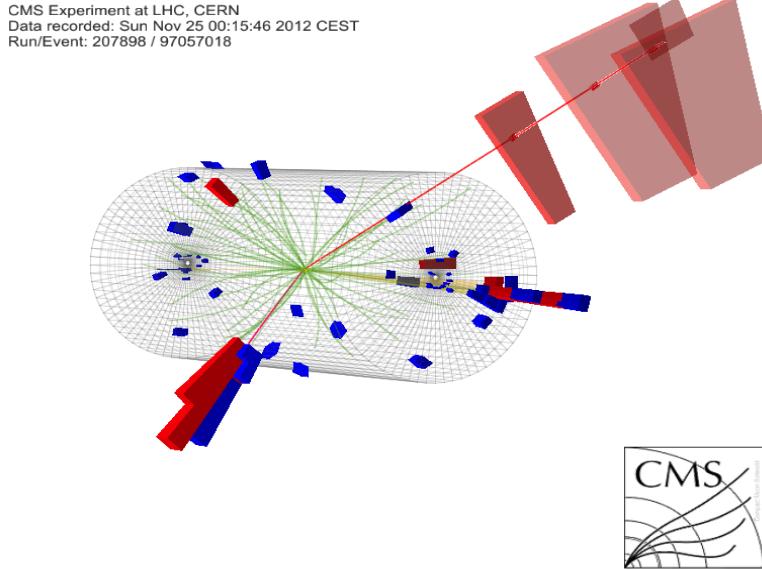


Figure 4.7: HIG-13-004 Event 1 reconstruction results; “HIG-13-004 Event 1: Event recorded with the CMS detector in 2012 at a proton-proton center-of-mass energy of 8 TeV. The event shows characteristics expected from the decay of the SM Higgs boson to a pair of τ leptons. Such an event is characterized by the production of two forward-going jets, seen here in opposite endcaps. One of the τ decays to a muon (red lines on the right) and neutrinos, while the other τ decays into a charged hadron and a neutrino.” [123].

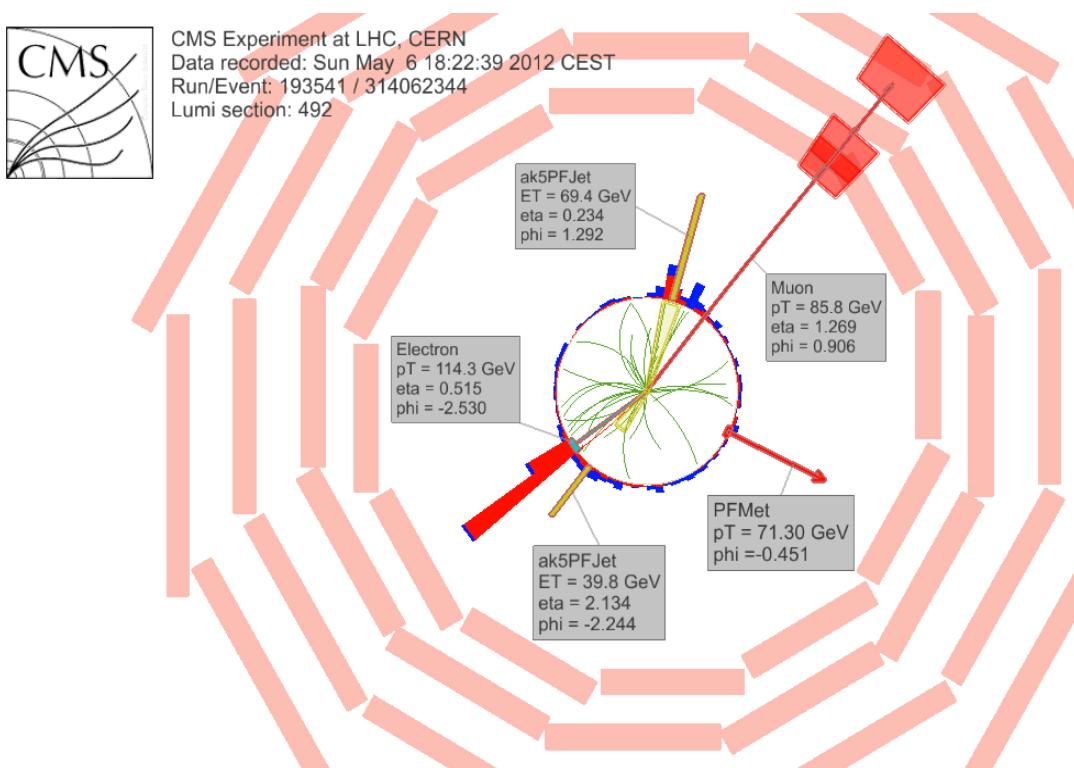


Figure 4.8: $e\mu$ event reconstruction results; “An $e\mu$ event candidate selected in 8 TeV data, as seen from the direction of the proton beams. The kinematics of the main objects used in the event selection are highlighted: two isolated leptons and two particle-flow jets. The reconstructed missing transverse energy is also displayed for reference” [124].

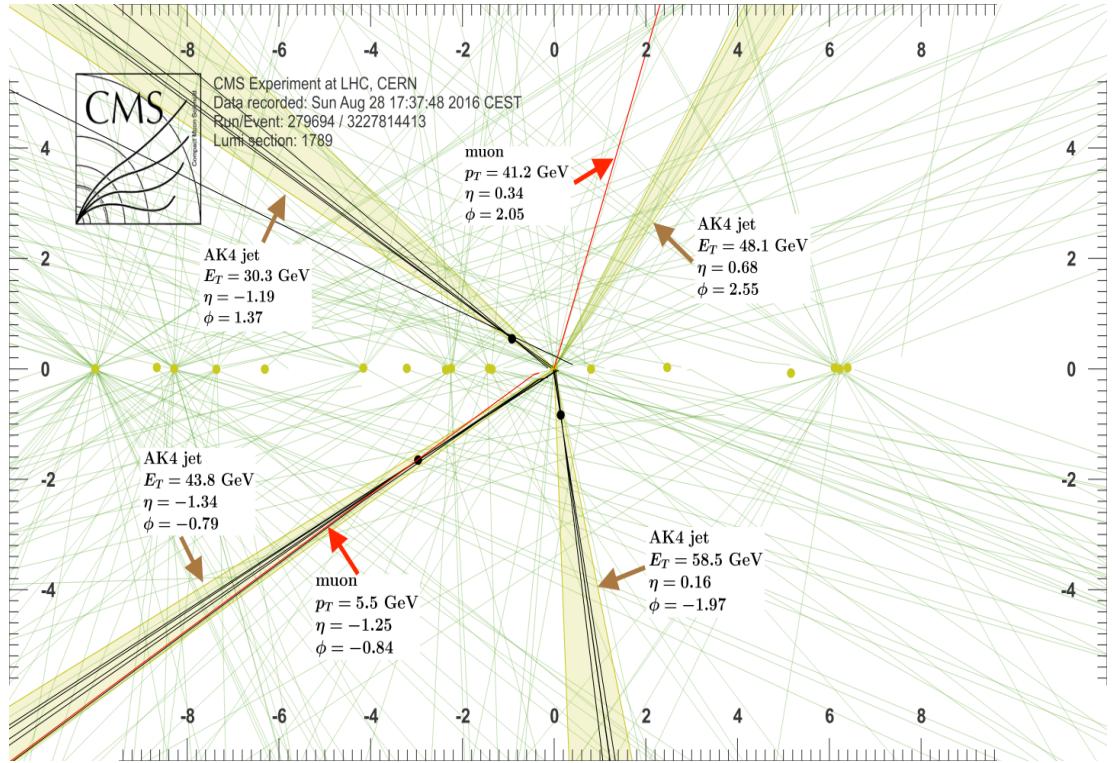


Figure 4.9: Recorded event reconstruction results; “Recorded event (ρ - z projection) with three jets with $p_T > 30$ GeV with one displaced muon track in 2016 data collected at 13 TeV. Each of the three jets has a displaced reconstructed vertex. The jet with $p_T(j) = 43.8$ GeV, $\eta(j) = -1.34$, $\phi(j) = -0.79$ contains muon with $p_T(\mu) = 5.5$ GeV, $\eta(\mu) = -1.25$, $\phi(\mu) = -0.84$. Event contains reconstructed isolated muon with $p_T(\mu) = 41.2$ GeV, $\eta(\mu) = 0.34$, $\phi(\mu) = 2.05$ and MET with $p_T = 72.5$ GeV, $\phi = -0.32$. Jet candidates for a b -jet from top quark leptonic and hadronic decays are tagged by CSVv2T algorithm. One of the other two jets is tagged by CharmT algorithm. Tracks with $p_T > 0.5$ GeV are shown. The number of reconstructed primary vertices is 18. Reconstructed $m_T(W)$ is 101.8 GeV. Beam spot position correction is applied. Reconstructed primary vertices are shown in yellow color, while reconstructed displaced vertices and associated tracks are presented in black color. Dimensions are given in cm” [125].

₁₉₁₄ **Chapter 5**

₁₉₁₅ **Statistical methods**

₁₉₁₆ In the course of analyzing the data sets provided by the CMS experiment and used in
₁₉₁₇ this thesis, several statistical tools have been employed; in this chapter, a description
₁₉₁₈ of these tools will be presented, starting with the general statement of the multivariate
₁₉₁₉ analysis method, followed by the particularities of the Boosted Decision Trees (BDT)
₁₉₂₀ method and its application to the classification problem. Statistical inference methods
₁₉₂₁ used will also be presented. This chapter is based mainly on References [126–128].

₁₉₂₂ **5.1 Multivariate analysis**

₁₉₂₃ Multivariate data analysis (MVA) makes reference to statistical techniques used to
₁₉₂₄ analyze data containing information from more than one variable, commonly taking
₁₉₂₅ into account the effects of all variables on the response of the variables under inves-
₁₉₂₆ tigation, i.e., considering all the correlations between variables. MVA is employed
₁₉₂₇ in a variety of fields like consumer and market research, quality control and process
₁₉₂₈ optimization. From a MVA it is possible to identify the dominant patterns in a data
₁₉₂₉ sample, like groups, outliers and trends, and determine to which group a set of values

1930 belong; in the particle physics context, MVA methods are used to perform the selec-
 1931 tion of certain type of events, from a large data set, using a potentially large number
 1932 of measurable properties from each event.

1933 Processes with small cross section, as the tHq process, normally are hidden behind
 1934 more common processes; therefore, a data set is composed of a subset of events with
 1935 characteristic features of interest (signal) mixed randomly with a much larger number
 1936 of events that can mimic these features of interest (background); this implies that it
 1937 is not possible to say with total certainty that a given event is signal or background.
 1938 In that sense, the challenge can be formulated as one where a set of events have to be
 1939 classified according to some features; these features correspond to the measurements
 1940 of several parameters like energy or momentum, organized in a set of *input variables*.
 1941 The measurements for each event can be written in a vector $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ for which

- 1942 • Signal hypotheses $\rightarrow f(\mathbf{x}|s)$ is the probability density (*likelihood function*) that
 1943 \mathbf{x} is the set of measured values given that the event is a signal event.
- 1944 • Background hypotheses $\rightarrow f(\mathbf{x}|b)$ is the probability density (*likelihood function*)
 1945 that \mathbf{x} is the set of measured values given that the event is a background event.

1946 Figure 5.1 shows three ways to perform a classification of events for which mea-
 1947 surements of two properties, i.e. two input variables, have been performed; blue
 1948 circles represent signal events while red triangles represent background events. The
 1949 classification on the left is *cut-based* requiring $x_1 < c_1$ and $x_2 < c_2$; usually the cut
 1950 values are chosen according to some knowledge about the event process. In the cen-
 1951 ter, the classification is performed by stating a cut involving a linear function of the
 1952 input variables and so the boundary, while in the right the relationship between
 1953 the input variables is not linear thus the boundary is not linear either.

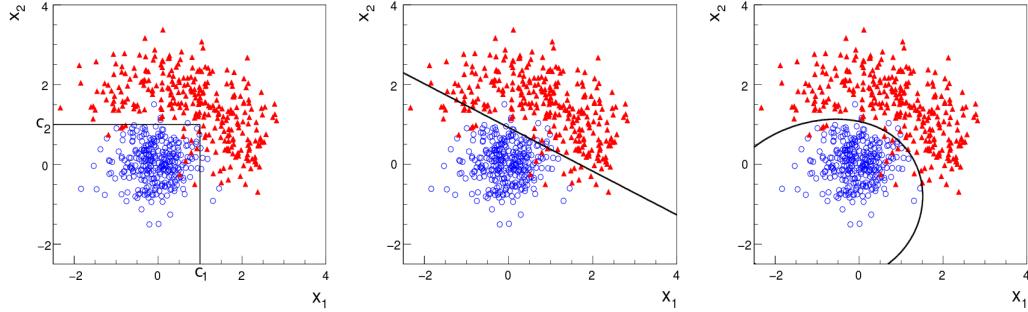


Figure 5.1: Scatter plots-MVA event classification. Distribution of two input variables x_1 and x_2 measured for a set of events; blue circles represent signal events and red triangles represent background events. The classification is based on cuts (left), linear boundary (center), and nonlinear boundary (right) [126]

1954 The boundary can be parametrized in terms of the input variables such that the
 1955 cut is set on the parametrization instead of on the variables, i.e., $y(\mathbf{x}) = y_{cut}$ with y_{cut}
 1956 a constant; thus, the acceptance or rejection of an event is based on which side of
 1957 the boundary is the event located. If $y(\mathbf{x})$, usually called *test statistic*, has functional
 1958 form, it can be used to determine the probability distribution functions $p(y|s)$ and
 1959 $p(y|b)$ and then perform a scalar test statistic with a single cut on the scalar variable
 1960 y .

1961 Figure 5.2 illustrates what would be the probability distribution functions under
 1962 the signal and background hypotheses for a scalar test statistic with a cut on the
 1963 classifier y . Note that the tails of the distributions indicate that some signal events
 1964 fall on the rejection region and some background events fall on the acceptance region;
 1965 therefore, it is convenient to define the *efficiency* with which events of a given type
 1966 are accepted, thus, the signal and background efficiencies are given by

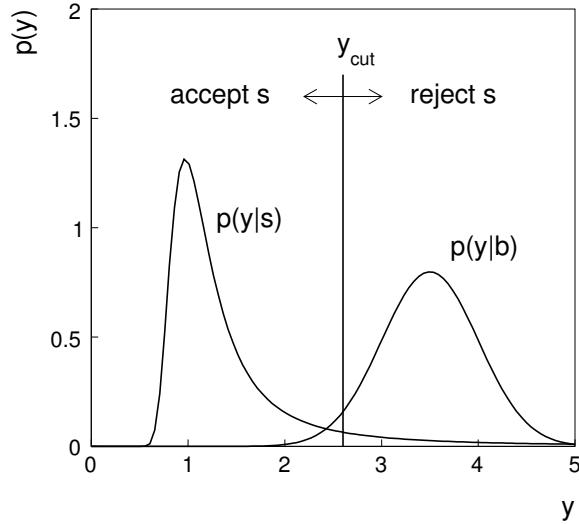


Figure 5.2: Distributions of the scalar test statistic $y(\mathbf{x})$ under the signal and background hypotheses. [126]

$$\varepsilon_s = P(\text{accept event}|s) = \int_A f(\mathbf{x}|s) d\mathbf{x} = \int_{-\infty}^{y_{cut}} p(y|s) dy , \quad (5.1)$$

$$\varepsilon_b = P(\text{accept event}|b) = \int_A f(\mathbf{x}|b) d\mathbf{x} = \int_{-\infty}^{y_{cut}} p(y|b) dy , \quad (5.2)$$

1967 where A is the acceptance region. If the background hypothesis is called *null hypothesis* (H_0), the signal hypothesis may be called *alternative hypothesis* (H_1). The
 1968 background efficiency corresponds to the significance level of the test, and signal effi-
 1969 ciency corresponds to the power of the test; the former describes the misidentification
 1970 probability, while the latter describes the probability of rejecting the background hy-
 1971 pothesis if the signal hypothesis is true. What is sought in an analysis is to maximize
 1972 the power of the test relative to the significance level.
 1973

1974 **5.1.1 Decision trees**

1975 For this thesis, the implementation of the MVA strategy, described above, is per-
 1976 formed through decision trees by using the TMVA software package [127] included in
 1977 the the ROOT analysis framework [129]. In a simple picture, a decision tree classifies
 1978 events according to their input variables values by setting a cut on each input variable
 1979 and checking which events are on which side of the cut, just as proposed in the MVA
 1980 strategy, but in addition, as a machine learning algorithm, decision trees offer the
 1981 possibility to be trained and then perform the classification efficiently.

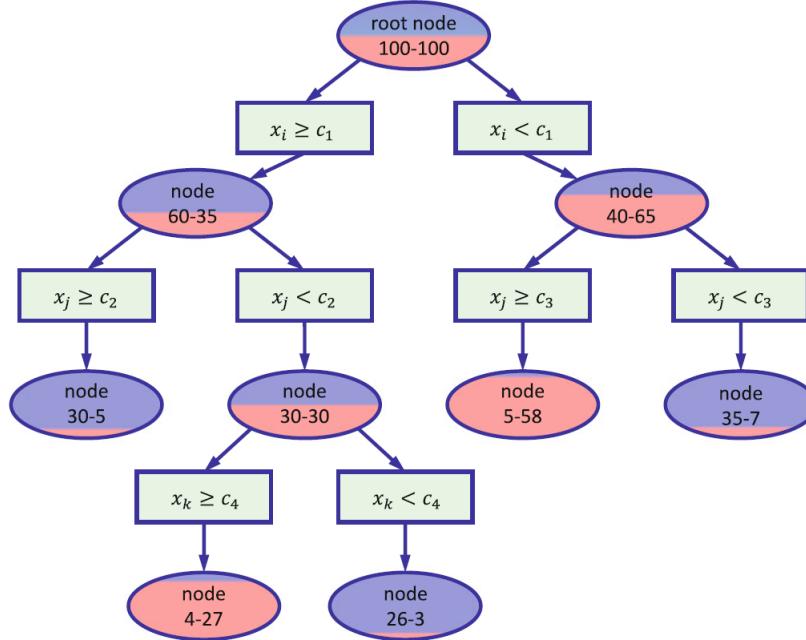


Figure 5.3: Example of a decision tree. Each node is fed with a MC sample mixing signal and background events (left-right numbers); nodes colors represent the relative amount of signal/background events [128].

1982 The training or growing of a decision tree is the process that defines the rules for
 1983 classifying events; this process is represented in figure5.3 and consist of several steps

- 1984 • take MC samples of signal and background events and split them into two parts
 1985 each; first parts form the training sample which will be used in the decision tree

1986 training, while the second parts form the test sample which will be used for
 1987 testing the final classifier obtained from the training. Each event has associated
 1988 a set of input variables $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ which serve to distinguish between signal
 1989 and background events. The training sample is taken in at the root *node*.

- 1990 • pick one variable, say x_i
 - 1991 • pick one value of x_i , each event has its own value of x_i , and split the training
 1992 sample into two subsamples B_1 and B_2 ; B_1 contains events for which $x_i < c_1$
 1993 while B_2 contains the rest of the training events;
 - 1994 • scan all possible values of x_i and find the splitting value that provides the *best*
 1995 classification¹, i.e., B_1 is mostly made of signal events while B_2 is mostly made
 1996 of background events.
 - 1997 • It is possible that variables other than the picked one produce a better classi-
 1998 fication, hence, all the variables have to be evaluated. Pick the next variable,
 1999 say x_j , and repeat the scan over its possible values.
 - 2000 • At the end, all the variables and their values will have been scanned, the *best*
 2001 variable and splitting value will have been identified, say x_1, c_1 , and there will
 2002 be two nodes fed with the subsamples B_1 and B_2 .
- 2003 Nodes are further split by repeating the decision process until a given number of
 2004 final nodes is obtained, nodes are largely dominated by either signal or background
 2005 events, or nodes have too few events to continue. Final nodes are called *leaves* and
 2006 they are classified as signal or background leaves according to the class of the majority
 2007 of events in them. Each *branch* in the tree corresponds to a sequence of cuts.

¹ Quality of the classification will be treated in the next paragraph.

2008 The quality of the classification at each node is evaluated through a separation
 2009 criteria; there are several of them but the *Gini Index* (G) is the one used in the
 2010 decision trees trained for the analysis in this thesis. G is written in terms of the
 2011 purity (P), i.e., the fraction of signal events in the samples after the separation is
 2012 made; it is given by

$$G = P(1 - P) \quad (5.3)$$

2013 note that $P=0.5$ at the root node while $G=0$ for pure leaves. For a node A split into
 2014 two nodes B_1 and B_2 the G gain is

$$\Delta G = G(A) - G(B_1) - G(B_2) \quad (5.4)$$

2015 the *best* classification corresponds to that for which the gain of G is maximized;
 2016 hence, the scanning over all the variables in an event and their values is of capital
 2017 importance.

2018 In order to provide a numerical output for the classification, events in a sig-
 2019 nal(background) leaf are assigned a score of 1(-1) each, defining in this way the
 2020 decision tree *classifier/weak learner* as

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{cases} 1 & \mathbf{x} \text{ in signal region,} \\ -1 & \mathbf{x} \text{ in background region.} \end{cases}$$

2021 Figure 5.4 shows an example of the classification of a sample of events, containing
 2022 two variables, performed by a decision tree.

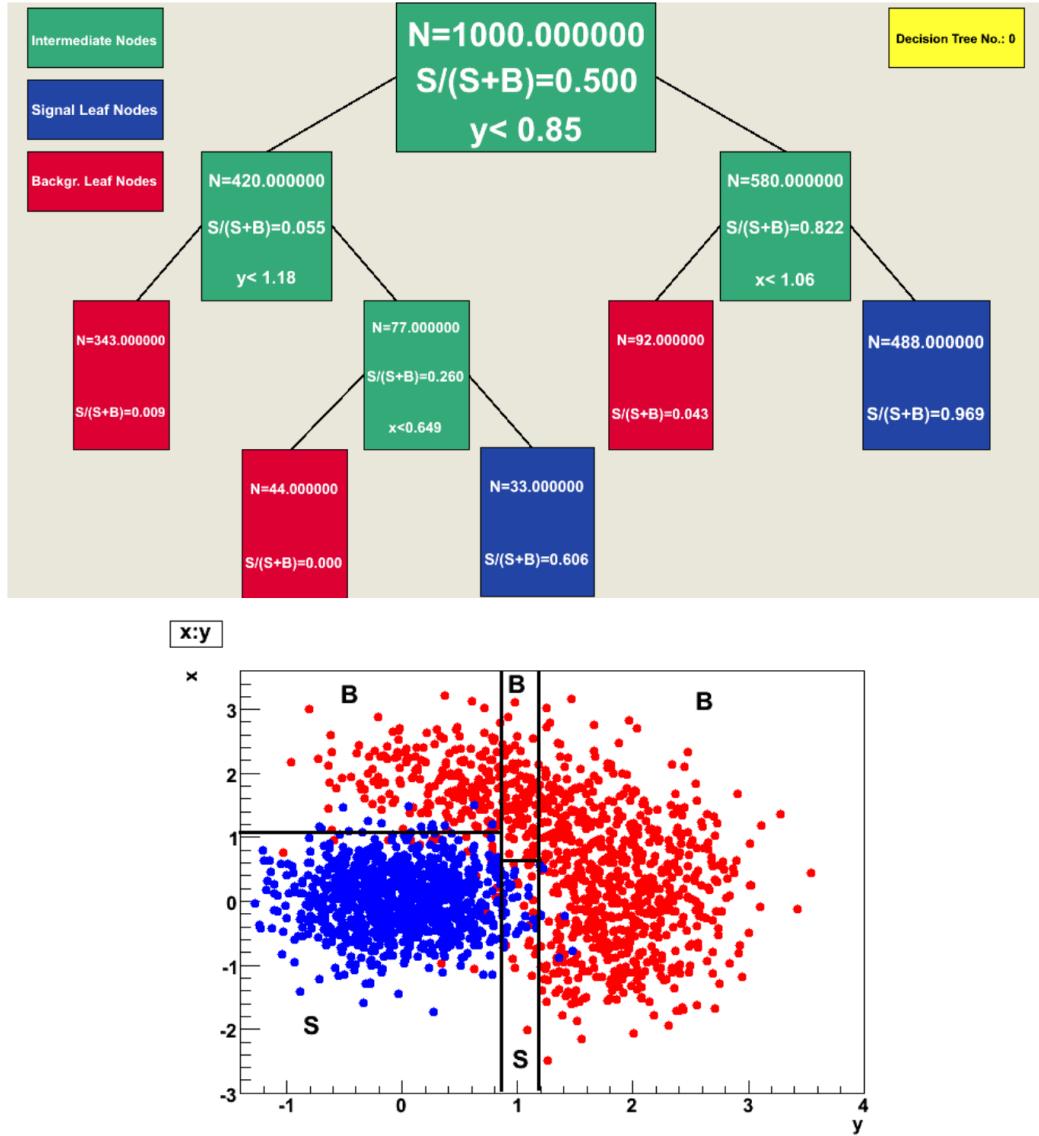


Figure 5.4: Example of a decision tree output. Each leaf, blue for signal events and red for background events, is represented by a region in the variables phase space [130].

2023 5.1.2 Boosted decision trees (BDT).

2024 Event misclassification occurs when a training event ends up in the wrong leaf, i.e., a
 2025 signal event ends up in a background leaf or a background event ends up in a signal
 2026 leaf. A way to correct it is to assign a weight to the misclassified events and train
 2027 a second tree using the reweighted events; the event reweighting is performed by a

2028 boosting algorithm in such a way that when used in the training of a new decision
 2029 tree the *boosted events* get correctly classified. The process is repeated iteratively
 2030 adding a new tree to the forest and creating a set of classifiers, which are combined
 2031 to create the next classifier; the final classifier offers more stability² and has a smaller
 2032 misclassification rate than any individual ones. The resulting tree collection is known
 2033 as a *boosted decision tree (BDT)*.

2034 Thus, purity of the sample is generalized to

$$P = \frac{\sum_s w_s}{\sum_s w_s + \sum_b w_b} \quad (5.5)$$

2035 where w_s and w_b are the weights of the events; the Gini index is also generalized

$$G = \left(\sum_i^n w_i \right) P(1 - P) \quad (5.6)$$

2036 with n the number of events in the node. The final score of an event, after pass-
 2037 ing through the forest, is calculated as the renormalized sum of all the individual
 2038 (possibly weighted) scores; thus, high(low) score implies that the event is most likely
 2039 signal(background).

2040 The boosting procedure, implemented in the *Gradient boosting* algorithm used
 2041 in this thesis, produce a classifier $F(\mathbf{x})$ which is the weighted sum of the individual
 2042 classifiers obtained after each iteration,i.e.,

$$F(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{m=1}^M \beta_m f(\mathbf{x}; a_m) \quad (5.7)$$

2043 where M is the number of trees in the forest. The *loss function* $L(F, y)$ represent the
 2044 deviation between the classifier $F(\mathbf{x})$ response and the true value y obtained from the

² Decision trees suffer from sensitivity to statistical fluctuations in the training sample which may leads to very different results with an small change in the training samples.

2045 training sample (1 for signal events and -1 for background event), according to

$$L(F, y) = \ln(1 + e^{-2F(\mathbf{x})y}) \quad (5.8)$$

2046 thus, the reweighting is employed to ensure the minimization of the loss function; a
 2047 more detailed description of the minimization procedure can be found in Reference
 2048 [131]. The final classifier output is later used as a final discrimination variable, labeled
 2049 as *BDT output/response*.

2050 5.1.3 Overtraining.

2051 Decision trees offer the possibility to have as many nodes as wished in order to
 2052 reduce the misclassification to zero (in theory); however, when a classifier is too much
 2053 adjusted to a particular training sample, the classifier response to a slightly different
 2054 sample may leads to a completely different classification results; this effect is known
 2055 as *overtraining*.

2056 An alternative to reduce the overtraining in BDTs consist in pruning the tree by
 2057 removing statistically insignificant nodes after the tree growing is completed but this
 2058 option is not available for BDTs with gradient boosting in the TMVA-toolkit, there-
 2059 fore, the overtraining has to be reduced by tuning the algorithm, number of nodes,
 2060 minimum number of events in the leaves, etc. The overtraining can be evaluated
 2061 by comparing the responses of the classifier when running over the training and test
 2062 samples.

2063 5.1.4 Variable ranking.

2064 BDTs have the couple of particular advantages related to the input variables; on one
 2065 side, they are relatively insensitive to the number of input variables used in the vector

2066 x. The ranking of the BDT input variables is determined by counting the number of
 2067 times a variable is used to split decision tree nodes; in addition, the separation gain-
 2068 squared achieved in the splitting and the number of events in the node are accounted
 2069 by applying a weighting to that number. Thus, those variables with small or no power
 2070 to separate signal and background events are rarely chosen to split the nodes,i.e., are
 2071 effectively ignored.

2072 On the other side, variables correlations play an important role for some MVA
 2073 methods like the Fisher discriminant algorithm in which the first step consist of
 2074 performing a linear transformation to a phase space where the correlations between
 2075 variables are removed; in case of BDT algorithm, correlations do not affect the per-
 2076 formance.

2077 5.1.5 BDT output example.

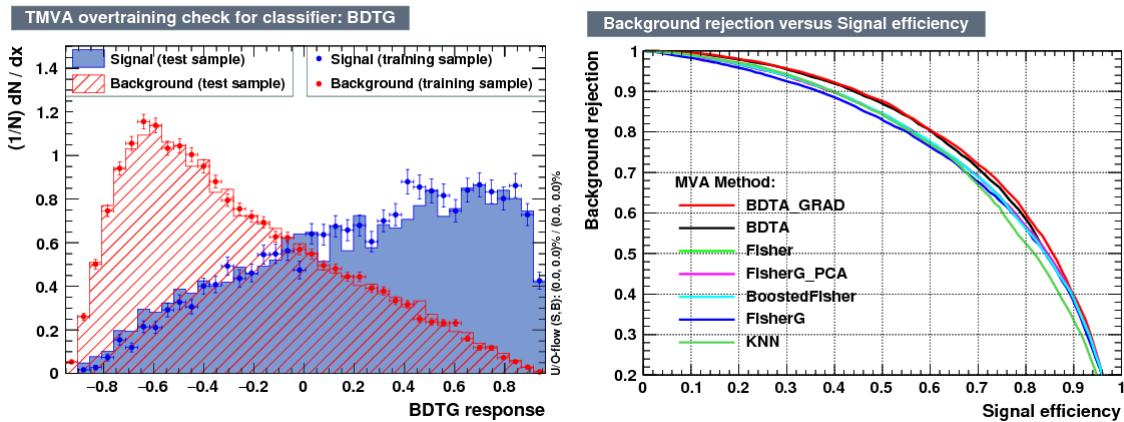


Figure 5.5: Left: Output distributions for the gradient boosted decision tree (BDTG) classifier using a sample of signal($pp \rightarrow tHq$) and background($pp \rightarrow t\bar{t}$) events. Right: Background rejection vs signal efficiency (ROC curves) for various MVA classifiers running over the same sample used to produce the plot on the left.

2078 Left side of figure 5.5 shows the BDT output distributions for signal($pp \rightarrow tHq$)
 2079 and background($pp \rightarrow t\bar{t}$) events; this plot is the equivalent to the one showed in

2080 figure 5.2. A forest with 800 trees, maximum depth per tree = 3, and gradient
 2081 boosting have been used as training parameters. The BDTG classifier offers a good
 2082 separation power; while there is a small overtraining in the signal distribution, the
 2083 background distribution seems to be well predicted which might indicate that the
 2084 sample is composed of more background than signal events.

2085 Right side of figure 5.5 shows the background rejection vs signal efficiency curves
 2086 for several combinations of MVA classifiers-boosting algorithms; these curves are
 2087 known as ROC curves and give an indication of the performance of the classifier. The
 2088 best performance is achieved with the BDTG classifier (BDTA_GRAD).

2089 **5.2 Statistical inference.**

2090 Once events are classified, the next step consists in finding the parameters that define
 2091 the likelihood functions $f(\mathbf{x}|s), f(\mathbf{x}|b)$ for signal and background events respectively.
 2092 In general, likelihood functions depend not only on the measurements but also on
 2093 parameters (θ_m) that define their shapes; the process of estimating these *unknown*
 2094 *parameters* and their uncertainties from the experimental data is called *inference*.

2095 **5.2.1 Nuisance parameters.**

2096 The unknown parameter vector $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ is made of two types of parameters: on one side,
 2097 those parameters that provide information about the physical observables of interest
 2098 for the experiment (*parameters of interest*). On the other side, the *nuisance parameters*
 2099 that are not of direct interest for the experiment but that needs to be included in
 2100 the analysis in order to achieve a satisfactory description of the data; they represent
 2101 effects of the detector response like the finite resolutions of the detection systems,
 2102 miscalibrations, and in general any source of uncertainty introduced in the analysis.

2103 The nuisance parameters can be estimated using dedicated data samples like data
 2104 from a test beam for calibration purposes.

2105 The estimation of the unknown parameters from experimental data samples is
 2106 written in terms of a central value using the notation

$$\theta = \hat{\theta} \pm \delta\theta \quad (5.9)$$

2107 where the interval $[\hat{\theta} + \delta\theta, \hat{\theta} - \delta\theta]$ is called *confidence interval*; it is usually interpreted,
 2108 in the limit of infinite number of experiments, as the interval where the true value
 2109 of the unknown parameter θ is contained with a probability of 0.6827 (if no other
 2110 convention is stated).

2111 The nuisance parameter uncertainties produce *systematic uncertainties* while the
 2112 uncertainties associated to fluctuations in data and related to the estimation of the
 2113 parameters of interest produce *statistical uncertainties*.

2114 5.2.2 Maximum likelihood estimation method

2115 The likelihood function for N events in a sample is the combination of all the likeli-
 2116 hoods functions

$$L(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \prod_{i=1}^N f(\mathbf{x}^i | \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \prod_{i=1}^N f(x_1^i, \dots, x_n^i; \theta_1, \dots, \theta_m) \quad (5.10)$$

2117 The function that produce the estimate of a parameter is called *estimator*, there-
 2118 fore, estimators are usually constructed using mathematical procedures encoded in
 2119 algorithms. The estimation method used in this thesis is the *Maximum Likelihood*
 2120 *Estimation* method (MLE); it is based on the combined likelihood function defined
 2121 by eqn. 5.10 and the procedure seeks for the parameter set that corresponds to the
 2122 maximum value of the combined likelihood function, i.e., the *maximum likelihood*

2123 *estimator* of the unknown parameter vector $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ is the function that produce the vec-
 2124 tor $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}$ for which the likelihood function $L(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ evaluated at the measured sample \mathbf{x} is
 2125 maximum.

2126 Usually, the logarithm of the likelihood function is used in the numerical algo-
 2127 rithms implementations in order to avoid underflow the numerical precision of the
 2128 computers due to the product of low likelihoods. In addition, it is usual minimize the
 2129 negative logarithm of the likelihood function instead of maximizing the logarithm of
 2130 it because in this way the procedure consist of differentiate a sum of therms and set
 2131 the sum to zero; therefore

$$F(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = -\ln L(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = -\sum_{i=1}^N f(\mathbf{x}^i | \boldsymbol{\theta}). \quad (5.11)$$

2132 The minimization process is performed by the software MINUIT [132] imple-
 2133 mented in the ROOT analysis framework. In case of large data samples the compu-
 2134 tational resources needed to calculate the likelihood function are too big; therefore,
 2135 the parameter estimation is performed using binned distributions of the variables of
 2136 interest for which the *binned likelihood function* is given by

$$L(data | \mu, \theta) = \prod_{i=1} \frac{(\mu s_i(\theta) + b_i(\theta))^{n_i}}{n_i!} e^{-\mu s_i(\theta) - b_i(\theta)}, \quad (5.12)$$

2137 with s_i and b_i the expected number of signal and background yields for bin i respec-
 2138 tively, n_i is the observed number of events in the bin i and $\mu = \sigma/\sigma_{SM}$ is the signal
 2139 strength. Notice that the number of entries per bin follows a Poisson distribution.
 2140 The analysis presented in this thesis is based on the binned distribution of the ratio
 2141 signal/background obtained from the BDT outputs.

2142 **5.2.3 Hypothesis test**

2143 The test statistic mentioned in section 5.1 involving

2144 ; it is achieved, according to the Neyman-Pearson lemma [133],

2145 by defining the acceptance region such that, for \mathbf{x} inside the region, the likelihood

2146 ratio, i.e., the ratio of probability distribution functions for signal and background,

2147 **5.3 exclusion limits**

2148 **5.4 asymptotic limits**

²¹⁴⁹ **Chapter 6**

²¹⁵⁰ **Search for production of a Higgs**

²¹⁵¹ **boson and a single top quark in**

²¹⁵² **multilepton final states in pp**

²¹⁵³ **collisions at $\sqrt{s} = 13$ TeV**

²¹⁵⁴ **6.1 Introduction**

²¹⁵⁵ The Higgs boson discovery, supported on experimental observations and theoretical
²¹⁵⁶ predictions made about the SM, gives the clue of the way in that elementary particles
²¹⁵⁷ acquire mass through the Higgs mechanism; therefore, knowing the Higgs mass, the
²¹⁵⁸ Higgs-boson and Higgs-fermion couplings can be tested. In order to test the Higgs-top
²¹⁵⁹ coupling, several measurements have been performed, as stated in the chapter 2, but
²¹⁶⁰ they are limited to measure the square of the coupling; however, the production of a
²¹⁶¹ Higgs boson in association with a single top quark (tH) not only offers access to the
²¹⁶² sign of the coupling, but also, to the CP phase of the Higgs couplings.

2163 This chapter presents the search for the associated production of a Higgs boson
 2164 and a single top quark events, focusing on leptonic signatures provided by the Higgs
 2165 decay modes to WW , ZZ , and $\tau\tau$; the 13 TeV dataset produced in 2016, which
 2166 corresponds to an integrated luminosity of 35.9fb^{-1} , is used. Constraints on the sign
 2167 of the Higgs-top coupling (y_t) have been derived from the decay rate of Higgs boson
 2168 to photon pairs [50] and from the cross section for associated production of Higgs and
 2169 Z bosons via gluon fusion [134], with recent results disfavoring negative signs of the
 2170 coupling [44, 59, 135]. It expands previous analyses performed at 8 TeV [136, 137] and
 2171 searches for associated production of $t\bar{t}$ pair and a Higgs boson in the multilepton final
 2172 state channel [138]; it also complements searches in other decay channels targeting
 2173 $H \rightarrow b\bar{b}$ [139].

2174 As shown in section 2.5, the SM cross section of the associated production of a
 2175 Higgs boson and a single top quark (tHq) process is driven by a destructive interfer-
 2176 ence between two contributions (see Figure 2.15), where the Higgs couples to either
 2177 the W boson or the top quark; however, if the sign of the Higgs-top coupling is flipped
 2178 with respect to the SM prediction, a large enhancement of the cross section occurs,
 2179 making this analysis sensitive to such deviation. A second process, where the Higgs
 2180 boson and top quark are accompanied by a W boson (tHW) has similar behavior,
 2181 albeit with a weaker interference pattern and lower contribution to the tH cross sec-
 2182 tion, therefore, a combination of both processes would increase the sensitivity; in
 2183 this analysis both contributions are combined and referred as tH channel. A third
 2184 contribution comes from $t\bar{t}H$ process. The purpose of this analysis is to investigate
 2185 the exclusion of the presence of the $tH + t\bar{t}H$ processes under the assumption of the
 2186 anomalous Higgs-top coupling modifier ($\kappa_t = -1$). The analysis exploits signatures
 2187 with two leptons of the same sign (*2lss channel*) and three leptons (*3l channel*) in
 2188 the final state.

2189 The first sections present the characteristic tHq signature as well as the expected
 2190 backgrounds. The MC samples, data sets, and the physics object definitions are
 2191 then defined. Following, the background predictions, the signal extraction, and the
 2192 statistical treatment of the selected events as well as the systematic uncertainties are
 2193 described. The final section present the results for the exclusion limits as a function
 2194 of the ratio of κ_t and the dimensionless modifier of the Higgs-vector boson κ_V .

2195 6.2 tHq signature

2196 In order to select events of tHq process, its features are translated into a set of
 2197 selection rules; figure 6.1 shows the Feynman diagram and an schematic view of the
 2198 tHq process from the pp collision to the final state configuration. A single top quark
 2199 is produced accompanied by a light quark, denoted as q ; this light quark is produced
 2200 predominantly in the forward region of the detector. The Higgs boson which can
 2201 be either emitted by the exchanged W boson or directly by the singly produced top
 2202 quark.

2203 The top quark and Higgs boson decay after their production in the detector due to
 2204 their high masses/low lifetimes. The Higgs boson is required to decay into a W boson
 2205 pair¹. The top quark almost always decays into a bottom quark and a W boson, as
 2206 encoded in the CMK matrix. The W bosons are required to decay hadronically in
 2207 the 2lss channel case and leptonically in the 3l channel case, while τ leptons are not
 2208 reconstructed separately and only their leptonic decays into either electrons or muons
 2209 are considered in this analysis.

2210 In summary, the signal process is characterized by a the final state with

- 2211 • one light-flavored forward jet,

¹ ZZ and $\tau\tau$ decays are also include in the analysis but they are not separately reconstructed

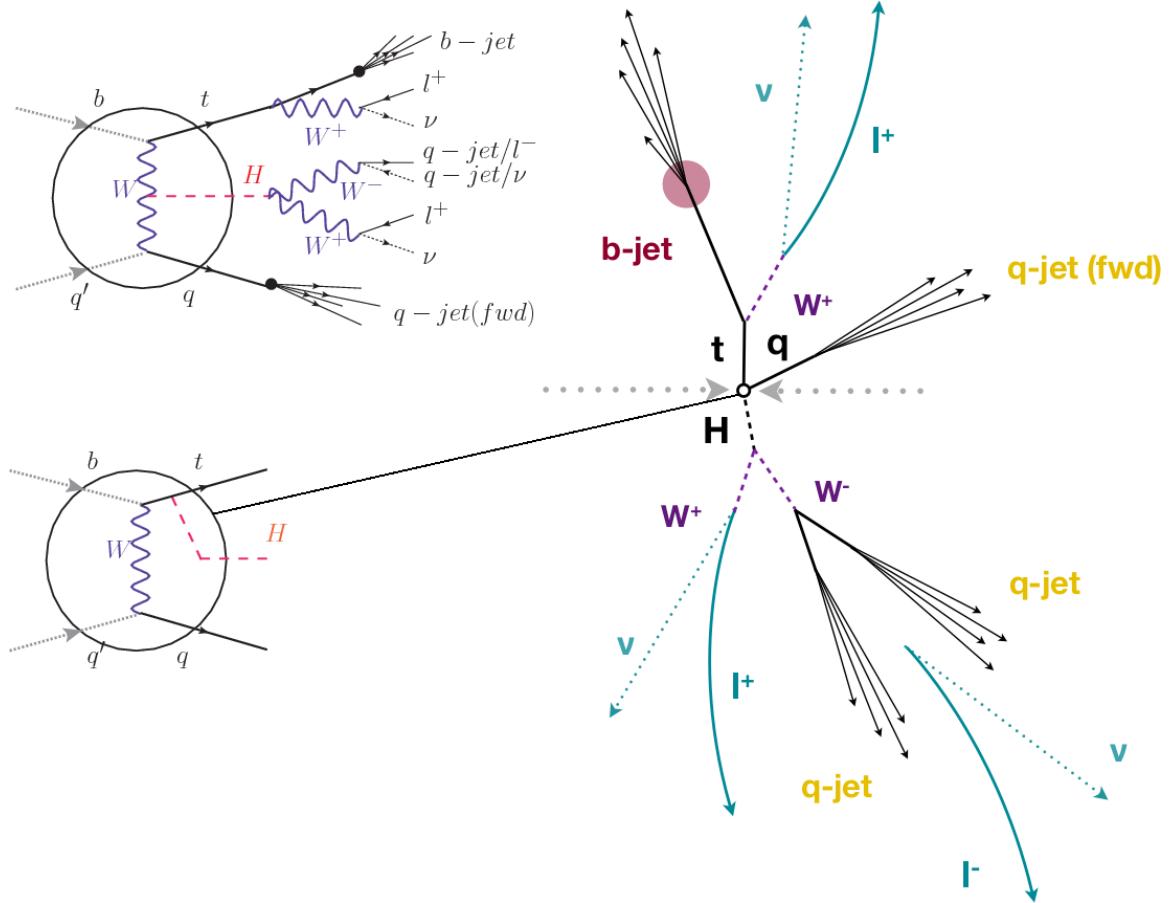


Figure 6.1: tHq event signature. Left: Feynman diagram including the whole evolution up to the final state for the case of the Higgs boson emitted by the W boson (top); Feynman diagram for the case where the Higgs boson is emitted by the top quark. Right: Schematic view as it would be seen in the detector; the circle in the Feynman diagrams on the left corresponds to the circle in the center of the schematic view as indicated by the line connecting them. In the 2lss channel, one of the W bosons from the Higgs boson decays to two light-quark jets while in the 3l channel both W bosons decays to leptons.

- 2212 • one central b-jet,
- 2213 • 2lss channel \rightarrow two leptons of the same sign, two neutrinos and two light (often soft) jets,
- 2214 • 3l channel \rightarrow three leptons, three neutrinos and no central light-flavored jets,
- 2215 The presence of neutrinos is inferred from the presence of MET. The analysis has

been made public by CMS as a Physics Analysis Summary [140] combining the result for the three lepton and two lepton same-sign channels. Currently, an effort to turn the analysis into a paper is ongoing.

6.3 Background processes

The background processes are those that can mimic the signal signature or at least can be reconstructed as that as a result of certain circumstances. The backgrounds can be classified as

- Irreducible backgrounds where genuine prompt leptons are produced in on-shell W and Z boson decays; they can be reliably estimated directly from MC simulated events, using higher-order cross sections or data control regions for the overall normalization.

- Reducible backgrounds where at least one of the leptons is *non-prompt*, i.e., produced within a hadronic jet, either a genuine lepton from heavy flavor decays. misreconstructed jets, also known as *mis-ID leptons* or *fake leptons*, are considered non-prompt leptons as well. These non-prompt leptons leave tracks and hits in the detection systems as would a prompt lepton, but correlating those hits with nearby jets could be a way of removing them. Reducible backgrounds are not well predicted by simulation, and are estimated using data-driven methods.

The main sources of background events in the case of tHq process are $t\bar{t}$ process and $t\bar{t} + X(X = W, Z, \gamma)$ processes, here represented together as $t\bar{t}V$ process. Figure 6.2 shows the signature for $t\bar{t}$ and $t\bar{t}W$ processes;

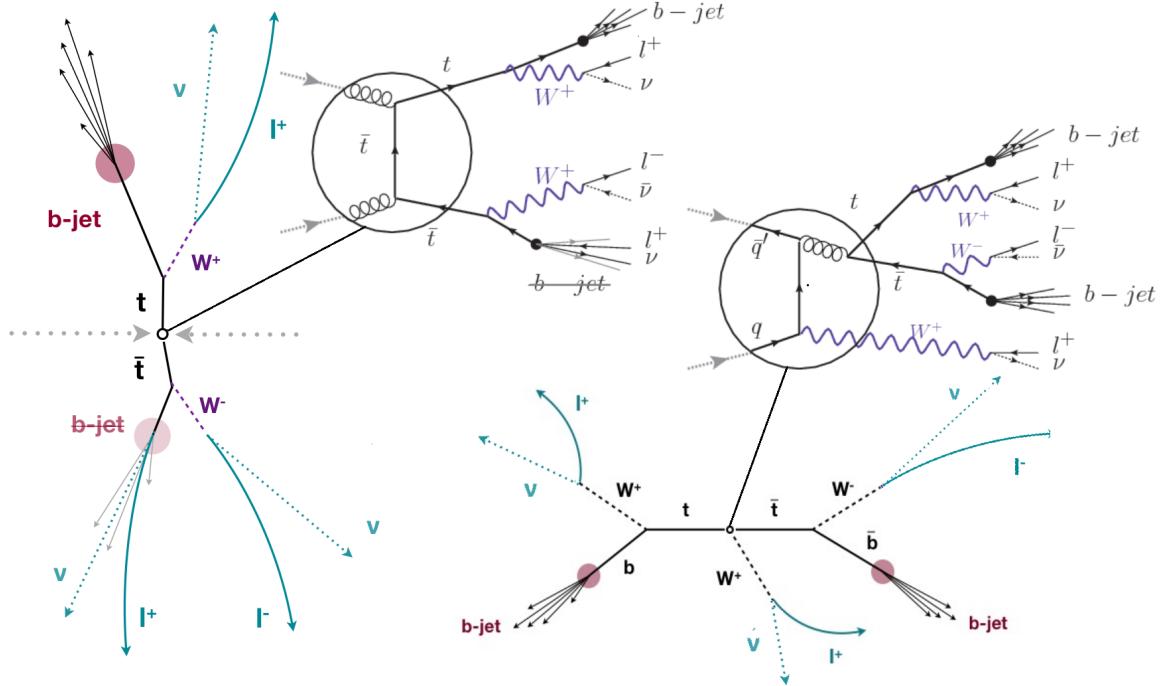


Figure 6.2: $t\bar{t}$ (left) and $t\bar{t}W$ (right) events signature as they would be seen in the detector; the Feynman diagrams including the whole evolution up to the final state are also showed. The $t\bar{t}$ process signature is very similar to that of the signal process with one fake lepton and no forward activity. The $t\bar{t}W$ process present a higher b -jet multiplicity compared to the signal process, a prompt lepton and no forward activity.

2239 The largest contribution to irreducible backgrounds involving prompt leptons
 2240 comes from $t\bar{t}W$, $t\bar{t}Z$, processes for which the number of ($b-$)jets (($b-$)jet multiplicity)
 2241 is higher than that of the signal events, while for other contributing background
 2242 events, WZ , ZZ , and rare SM processes like $W^\pm W^\pm qq$, $t\bar{t}t\bar{t}$, tZq , tZW , WWW ,
 2243 WWZ , WZZ , ZZZ , the ($b-$)jet multiplicity is lower compared to that of the signal
 2244 events. None of the irreducible backgrounds present activity in the forward region of
 2245 the detector.

2246 On the side of the reducible backgrounds, the largest contribution comes from the
 2247 $t\bar{t}$ events which have a very similar signature to the signal events but does not present
 2248 activity in the forward region of the detector either; A particular feature of the $t\bar{t}$
 2249 events is their charge-symmetry which is also a difference with the signal events.

2250 The charge misidentification plays an important role in the the 2lss channel since
 2251 leptons in processes like $t\bar{t}$ + jets or Z + jets can be charge misidentified, leading to
 2252 backgrounds increments. An identification variable have been designed in order to
 2253 reject this type of background events.

2254 **6.4 Data and MC Samples**

2255 Technical developments on the event generator side allow for an event-wise reweight-
 2256 ing that can change the event kinematics based on specific generation parameters.
 2257 This way not only the case of $C_t = \sqrt{2}$, but a whole range of κ_t and κ_V values can
 2258 be investigated.

2259 The data considered in this analysis were collected by the CMS experiment dur-
 2260 ing 2016 and correspond to a total integrated luminosity of $35.9 fb^{-1}$. Only periods
 2261 when the CMS magnet was on were considered when selecting the data samples, that
 2262 corresponds to the 23 Sep 2016 (Run B to G) and PromptReco (Run H) versions
 2263 of the datasets. The MC samples used in this analysis correspond to the RunI-
 2264 ISummer16MiniAODv2 campaign produced with CMSSW 80X. The two signal sam-
 2265 ples (for tHq and tHW) were produced with MG5_aMC@NLO (version 5.222), in
 2266 leading-order order mode, and are normalized to next-to-leading-order cross sections,
 2267 see Tab. 6.1. Each sample is generated with a set of event weights corresponding to
 2268 different values of κ_t and κ_V couplings as shown in Tab. 6.2.

2269 **6.4.1 Full 2016 dataset and MC samples**

2270 Different MC generators were used to generate the background processes. The dom-
 2271 inant sources ($t\bar{t}$, $t\bar{t}W$, $t\bar{t}Z$, $t\bar{t}H$) were produced using AMC@NLO interfaced to
 2272 PYTHIA8, and are scaled to NLO cross sections. Other processes are simulated us-

Sample	σ [pb]	BF
/THQ_Hincl_13TeV-madgraph-pythia8_TuneCUETP8M1/	0.7927	0.324
/THW_Hincl_13TeV-madgraph-pythia8_TuneCUETP8M1/	0.1472	1.0

Table 6.1: Signal samples and their cross section and branching fraction used in this analysis. See Ref. [149] for more details.

ing POWHEG interfaced to PYTHIA, or bare PYTHIA (see table 6.3 and [138] for more details).

6.4.2 Triggers

We consider online-reconstructed events triggered by one, two, or three leptons. Single-lepton triggers are included to boost the acceptance of events where the p_T of the sub-leading lepton falls below the threshold of the double-lepton triggers. Additionally, by including double-lepton triggers in the ≥ 3 lepton category, as well as single-lepton triggers in all categories, we increase the efficiency, considering the logical “or” of the trigger decisions of all the individual triggers in a given category. Tab. 6.5 shows the lowest-threshold non-prescaled triggers present in the High-Level Trigger (HLT) menus for both Monte-Carlo and data in 2016.

Trigger efficiency scale factors

The efficiency of events to pass the trigger is measured in simulation (trivially using generator information) and in the data (using event collected by an uncorrelated MET trigger). Small differences between the data and MC efficiencies are corrected by applying scale factors as shown in Tab. 6.6. The exact procedure and control plots are documented in [143] for the current analysis.

		<i>tHq</i>		<i>tHW</i>		
κ_V	κ_t	sum of weights	cross section [pb]	sum of weights	cross section [pb]	LHE weights
1.0	-3.0	35.700022	2.991	11.030445	0.6409	LHEweight_wgt[446]
1.0	-2.0	20.124298	1.706	5.967205	0.3458	LHEweight_wgt[447]
1.0	-1.5	14.043198	1.205	4.029093	0.2353	LHEweight_wgt[448]
1.0	-1.25	11.429338	0.9869	3.208415	0.1876	LHEweight_wgt[449]
1.0	-1.0		0.7927		0.1472	
1.0	-0.75	7.054998	0.6212	1.863811	0.1102	LHEweight_wgt[450]
1.0	-0.5	5.294518	0.4723	1.339886	0.07979	LHEweight_wgt[451]
1.0	-0.25	3.818499	0.3505	0.914880	0.05518	LHEweight_wgt[452]
1.0	0.0	2.627360	0.2482	0.588902	0.03881	LHEweight_wgt[453]
1.0	0.25	1.719841	0.1694	0.361621	0.02226	LHEweight_wgt[454]
1.0	0.5	1.097202	0.1133	0.233368	0.01444	LHEweight_wgt[455]
1.0	0.75	0.759024	0.08059	0.204034	0.01222	LHEweight_wgt[456]
1.0	1.0	0.705305	0.07096	0.273617	0.01561	LHEweight_wgt[457]
1.0	1.25	0.936047	0.0839	0.442119	0.02481	LHEweight_wgt[458]
1.0	1.5	1.451249	0.1199	0.709538	0.03935	LHEweight_wgt[459]
1.0	2.0	3.335034	0.2602	1.541132	0.08605	LHEweight_wgt[460]
1.0	3.0	10.516125	0.8210	4.391335	0.2465	LHEweight_wgt[461]
1.5	-3.0	45.281492	3.845	13.426212	0.7825	LHEweight_wgt[462]
1.5	-2.0	27.606715	2.371	7.809713	0.4574	LHEweight_wgt[463]
1.5	-1.5	20.476088	1.784	5.594971	0.3290	LHEweight_wgt[464]
1.5	-1.25	17.337465	1.518	4.635978	0.2749	LHEweight_wgt[465]
1.5	-1.0	14.483302	1.287	3.775902	0.2244	LHEweight_wgt[466]
1.5	-0.75	11.913599	1.067	3.014744	0.1799	LHEweight_wgt[467]
1.5	-0.5	9.628357	0.874	2.352505	0.1410	LHEweight_wgt[468]
1.5	-0.25	7.627574	0.702	1.789184	0.1081	LHEweight_wgt[469]
1.5	0.0	5.911882	0.5577	1.324946	0.08056	LHEweight_wgt[470]
1.5	0.25	4.479390	0.4365	0.959295	0.05893	LHEweight_wgt[471]
1.5	0.5	3.331988	0.3343	0.692727	0.04277	LHEweight_wgt[472]
1.5	0.75	2.469046	0.2558	0.525078	0.03263	LHEweight_wgt[473]
1.5	1.0	1.890565	0.2003	0.456347	0.02768	LHEweight_wgt[474]
1.5	1.25	1.596544	0.1689	0.486534	0.02864	LHEweight_wgt[475]
1.5	1.5	1.586983	0.1594	0.615638	0.03509	LHEweight_wgt[476]
1.5	2.0	2.421241	0.2105	1.170602	0.06515	LHEweight_wgt[477]
1.5	3.0	7.503280	0.5889	3.467546	0.1930	LHEweight_wgt[478]
0.5	-3.0	27.432685	2.260	8.929074	0.5136	LHEweight_wgt[479]
0.5	-2.0	13.956013	1.160	4.419093	0.2547	LHEweight_wgt[480]
0.5	-1.5	8.924438	0.7478	2.757611	0.1591	LHEweight_wgt[481]
0.5	-1.25	6.835341	0.5726	2.075247	0.1204	LHEweight_wgt[482]
0.5	-1.0	5.030704	0.4273	1.491801	0.08696	LHEweight_wgt[483]
0.5	-0.75	3.510528	0.2999	1.007273	0.05885	LHEweight_wgt[484]
0.5	-0.5	2.274811	0.1982	0.621663	0.03658	LHEweight_wgt[485]
0.5	-0.25	1.323555	0.1189	0.334972	0.01996	LHEweight_wgt[486]
0.5	0.0	0.656969	0.06223	0.147253	0.008986	LHEweight_wgt[487]
0.5	0.25	0.274423	0.02830	0.058342	0.003608	LHEweight_wgt[488]
0.5	0.5	0.176548	0.01778	0.068404	0.003902	LHEweight_wgt[489]
0.5	0.75	0.363132	0.03008	0.177385	0.009854	LHEweight_wgt[490]
0.5	1.0	0.834177	0.06550	0.385283	0.02145	LHEweight_wgt[491]
0.5	1.25	1.589682	0.1241	0.692099	0.03848	LHEweight_wgt[492]
0.5	1.5	2.629647	0.2047	1.097834	0.06136	LHEweight_wgt[493]
0.5	2.0	5.562958	0.4358	2.206057	0.1246	LHEweight_wgt[494]
0.5	3.0	14.843102	1.177	5.609519	0.3172	LHEweight_wgt[495]

Table 6.2: κ_V and κ_t combinations generated for the two signal samples and their NLO cross sections. The *tHq* cross section is multiplied by the branching fraction of the enforced leptonic decay of the top quark (0.324). See also Ref. [149].

Sample	σ [pb]
TTWJetsToLNu_TuneCUETP8M1_13TeV-amcatnloFXFX-madspin-pythia8	0.2043
TTZToLLNuNu_M-10_TuneCUETP8M1_13TeV-amcatnlo-pythia8	0.2529
ttHJetToNonbb_M125_13TeV_amcatnloFXFX_madspin_pythia8_mWCutfix /store/cmst3/group/susy/gpetrucc/13TeV/u/TTLL_m1to10_LO_NoMS_for76X/	0.2151 0.0283
WGToLNuG_TuneCUETP8M1_13TeV-madgraphMLM-pythia8	585.8
ZGTo2LG_TuneCUETP8M1_13TeV-amcatnloFXFX-pythia8	131.3
TGJets_TuneCUETP8M1_13TeV_amcatnlo_madspin_pythia8	2.967
TGJets_TuneCUETP8M1_13TeV_amcatnlo_madspin_pythia8	2.967
TTGJets_TuneCUETP8M1_13TeV-amcatnloFXFX-madspin-pythia8	3.697
WpWpJJ_EWK-QCD_TuneCUETP8M1_13TeV-madgraph-pythia8	0.03711
ZZZ_TuneCUETP8M1_13TeV-amcatnlo-pythia8	0.01398
WWZ_TuneCUETP8M1_13TeV-amcatnlo-pythia8	0.1651
WZZ_TuneCUETP8M1_13TeV-amcatnlo-pythia8	0.05565
WW_DoubleScattering_13TeV-pythia8	1.64
tZq_ll_4f_13TeV-amcatnlo-pythia8_TuneCUETP8M1	0.0758
ST_tWll_5f_LO_13TeV-MadGraph-pythia8	0.01123
TTTT_TuneCUETP8M1_13TeV-amcatnlo-pythia8	0.009103
WZTo3LNu_TuneCUETP8M1_13TeV-powheg-pythia8	4.4296
ZZTo4L_13TeV_powheg_pythia8	1.256
TTJets_SingleLeptFromTbar_TuneCUETP8M1_13TeV-madgraphMLM-pythia8	182.1754
TTJets_SingleLeptFromT_TuneCUETP8M1_13TeV-madgraphMLM-pythia8	182.1754
TTJets_DiLept_TuneCUETP8M1_13TeV-madgraphMLM-pythia8	87.3
DYJetsToLL_M-10to50_TuneCUETP8M1_13TeV-amcatnloFXFX-pythia8	18610
DYJetsToLL_M-50_TuneCUETP8M1_13TeV-madgraphMLM-pythia8	6024
WJetsToLNu_TuneCUETP8M1_13TeV-amcatnloFXFX-pythia8	61526.7
ST_tW_top_5f_inclusiveDecays_13TeV-powheg-pythia8_TuneCUETP8M1	35.6
ST_tW_antitop_5f_inclusiveDecays_13TeV-powheg-pythia8_TuneCUETP8M1	35.6
ST_t-channel_4f_leptonDecays_13TeV-amcatnlo-pythia8_TuneCUETP8M1	70.3144
ST_t-channel_antitop_4f_leptonDecays_13TeV-powheg-pythia8_TuneCUETP8M1	26.2278
ST_s-channel_4f_leptonDecays_13TeV-amcatnlo-pythia8_TuneCUETP8M1	3.68064
WWTo2L2Nu_13TeV-powheg	10.481

Table 6.3: List of background samples used in this analysis (CMSSW 80X). In the first section of the table are listed the samples of the processes for which we use the simulation to extract the final yields and shapes, in the second section the samples of the processes we will estimate from data. The MC simulation is used to design the data driven methods and derive the associated systematics.

Sample	σ [pb]
ttWJets_13TeV_madgraphMLM	0.6105
ttZJets_13TeV_madgraphMLM	0.5297/0.692

Table 6.4: Leading-order $t\bar{t}W$ and $t\bar{t}Z$ samples used in the signal BDT training.

Same-sign dilepton (==2 muons)
HLT_Mu17_TrkIsoVVL_Mu8_TrkIsoVVL_DZ_v*
HLT_Mu17_TrkIsoVVL_TkMu8_TrkIsoVVL_DZ_v*
HLT_IsoMu22_v*
HLT_IsoTkMu22_v*
HLT_IsoMu22_eta2p1_v*
HLT_IsoTkMu22_eta2p1_v*
HLT_IsoMu24_v*
HLT_IsoTkMu24_v*
Same-sign dilepton (==2 electrons)
HLT_Ele23_Ele12_CaloIdL_TrackIdL_IsoVL_DZ_v*
HLT_Ele27_eta2p1_WP Loose_Gsf_v*
HLT_Ele27_WPTight_Gsf_v*
HLT_Ele25_eta2p1_WPTight_Gsf_v*
Same-sign dilepton (==1 muon, ==1 electron)
HLT_Mu23_TrkIsoVVL_Ele8_CaloIdL_TrackIdL_IsoVL_v*
HLT_Mu8_TrkIsoVVL_Ele23_CaloIdL_TrackIdL_IsoVL_v*
HLT_Mu23_TrkIsoVVL_Ele8_CaloIdL_TrackIdL_IsoVL_DZ_v*
HLT_Mu8_TrkIsoVVL_Ele23_CaloIdL_TrackIdL_IsoVL_DZ_v*
HLT_IsoMu22_v*
HLT_IsoTkMu22_v*
HLT_IsoMu22_eta2p1_v*
HLT_IsoTkMu22_eta2p1_v*
HLT_IsoMu24_v*
HLT_IsoTkMu24_v*
HLT_Ele27_WPTight_Gsf_v*
HLT_Ele25_eta2p1_WPTight_Gsf_v*
HLT_Ele27_eta2p1_WP Loose_Gsf_v*
Three lepton and Four lepton
HLT_DiMu9_Ele9_CaloIdL_TrackIdL_v*
HLT_Mu8_DiEle12_CaloIdL_TrackIdL_v*
HLT_TripleMu_12_10_5_v*
HLT_Ele16_Ele12_Ele8_CaloIdL_TrackIdL_v*
HLT_Mu23_TrkIsoVVL_Ele8_CaloIdL_TrackIdL_IsoVL_v*
HLT_Mu23_TrkIsoVVL_Ele8_CaloIdL_TrackIdL_IsoVL_DZ_v*
HLT_Mu8_TrkIsoVVL_Ele23_CaloIdL_TrackIdL_IsoVL_v*
HLT_Mu8_TrkIsoVVL_Ele23_CaloIdL_TrackIdL_IsoVL_DZ_v*
HLT_Ele23_Ele12_CaloIdL_TrackIdL_IsoVL_DZ_v*
HLT_Mu17_TrkIsoVVL_Mu8_TrkIsoVVL_DZ_v*
HLT_Mu17_TrkIsoVVL_TkMu8_TrkIsoVVL_DZ_v*
HLT_IsoMu22_v*
HLT_IsoTkMu22_v*
HLT_IsoMu22_eta2p1_v*
HLT_IsoTkMu22_eta2p1_v*
HLT_IsoMu24_v*
HLT_IsoTkMu24_v*
HLT_Ele27_WPTight_Gsf_v*
HLT_Ele25_eta2p1_WPTight_Gsf_v*
HLT_Ele27_eta2p1_WP Loose_Gsf_v*

Table 6.5: Table of high-level triggers that we consider in the analysis.

Category	Scale Factor
ee	1.01 ± 0.02
e μ	1.01 ± 0.01
$\mu\mu$	1.00 ± 0.01
3l	1.00 ± 0.03

Table 6.6: Trigger efficiency scale factors and associated uncertainties, shown here rounded to the nearest percent.

2290 6.5 Object Identification

2291 In this section, the specific definitions of the physical objects in terms of the numerical
 2292 values assigned to the reconstruction parameters are presented; thus, the provided
 2293 details summarize and complement the descriptions presented in previous chapters.
 2294 The object reconstruction and selection strategy used in this thesis is inherited from
 2295 the analyses in references [138, 143], thus, the information provided in this section is
 2296 extracted from those documents unless other references are stated.

2297 6.5.1 Jets and b -jet tagging.

2298 In this analysis, jets are reconstructed by clustering PF candidates using the anti- k_t
 2299 algorithm with parameter distance $\Delta R = 0.4$; those charged hadrons that are not
 2300 consistent with the selected primary vertex are discarded from the clustering. The
 2301 jet energy is then corrected for the varying response of the detector as a function
 2302 of transverse momentum p_T and pseudorapidity η . Jets are selected for use in the
 2303 analysis only if they have $p_T > 25$ GeV and are separated from any selected leptons
 2304 by $\Delta R > 0.4$.

2305 Jets coming from the primary vertex and jets coming from pile-up vertices are
 2306 distinguished using a MVA discriminator based on the differences in the jet shapes,
 2307 in the relative multiplicity of charged and neutral components, and in the different
 2308 fraction of transverse momentum which is carried by the hardest components. Jet

2309 tracks are also required to be compatible with the primary vertex.

2310 Jets originated from the hadronization of a b quark are selected using a MVA
 2311 likelihood discriminant which uses track-based lifetime information and reconstructed
 2312 secondary vertices (CSV algorithm). Only jets within the CMS tracker acceptance
 2313 ($\eta < 2.4$) are identified with this tool. Data samples are used to measure the efficiency
 2314 of the b -jet tagging and the probability to misidentify jets from light quarks or gluons;
 2315 in both cases the measurements are parametrized as a function of the jet p_T and η
 2316 and later used to correct differences between the data and MC simulation in the b
 2317 tagging performance, by applying per-jet weights to the simulation, dependent on
 2318 the jet p_T , η , b tagging discriminator, and flavor (from simulation truth) [141]. The
 2319 per-event weight is taken as the product of the per-jet weights, including those of the
 2320 jets associated to the leptons. The weights are derived on $t\bar{t}$ and Z+jets events.

2321 Two working points are defined, based on the CSV algorithm output: *loose*' work-
 2322 ing point (CSV>0.46) with a b signal tagging efficiency of about 83% and a mistagging
 2323 rate of about 8%; and *medium* working point (CSV>0.80) with b -tagging efficiency of
 2324 about 69% and mistagging rate of order 1% [142]. Tagging of jets from charm quarks
 2325 have efficiencies of about 40% and 18% for loose and medium working points re-
 2326 spectively. Separate scale factors are applied to jets originating from bottom/charm
 2327 quarks and from light quarks in simulated events to match the tagging efficiencies
 2328 measured in the data.

2329 6.5.2 Missing Energy MET.

2330 As stated in section 4.4.1.1, the MET vector is calculated as the negative of the vector
 2331 sum of transverse momenta of all PF candidates in the event and its magnitude is
 2332 referred to as E_T^{miss} . Due to pile-up interactions, the performance in determining

2333 MET is degraded; in order to correct for that, the energy from the selected jets and
 2334 leptons that compose the event is assigned to the variable H_T^{miss} . It is calculated in
 2335 the same way as E_T^{miss} and although it has worse resolution than E_T^{miss} , it is more
 2336 robust in the sense that it does not rely on the soft part of the event. The event
 2337 selection uses a linear discriminator based on the two variables given by

$$E_T^{miss} LD = 0.00397 * E_T^{miss} + 0.00265 * H_T^{miss} \quad (6.1)$$

2338 taking advantage of the fact that the correlation between E_T^{miss} and H_T^{miss} is less
 2339 for events with instrumental missing energy than for events with real missing energy.
 2340 The working point $E_T^{miss} LD > 0.2$ was chosen to ensure a good signal efficiency while
 2341 keeping a good background rejection.

2342 6.5.3 Lepton reconstruction and identification

2343 Two types of leptons are defined in this analysis: *signal leptons* are those coming from
 2344 W, Z and τ decays which usually are isolated from other particles; *background leptons*
 2345 are defined as leptons produced in b -jet hadron decays, light-jets misidentification,
 2346 and photon conversions.

2347 The process of reconstruction and identification of electron and muon candidates
 2348 was described in chapter4, hence, the identification variables used in order to retain
 2349 the highest possible efficiency for signal leptons while maximizing the rejection of
 2350 background leptons are listed and described in the following sections ².

2351 The identification variables include not only observables related directly to the re-
 2352 constructed leptons themselves, but also to the clustered energy deposits and charged
 2353 particles in a cone around the lepton direction (jet-related variables); an initial loose

² the studies performed to optimize the identification are far from the scope of this thesis, therefore, only general descriptions are provided

2354 preselection of leptons candidates is performed and then an MVA discriminator, re-
 2355 fered to as *lepton MVA* discriminator, is used to distinguish signal leptons from
 2356 background leptons.

2357 **Muons.**

2358 The Physics Objects Groups (POG) at CMS, are in charge of studying and defining
 2359 the set of selection criteria applied on the course of reconstruction and identification
 2360 of particles. These selection criteria are implemented in the CMS framework in the
 2361 form of several object identification working points according to the strength of the
 2362 requirements.

2363 The muon candidates are reconstructed by combining information from the tracker
 2364 system and the muon detection system of CMS detector and the POG defined three
 2365 working points for muon identification *MuonID* [144];

- 2366 • *POG Loose Muon ID* is a particle identified as a muon by the PF event re-
 2367 construction and also reconstructed either as a global-muon or as an arbitrated
 2368 tracker-muon. This identification criteria is designed to be highly efficient for
 2369 prompt muons and for muons from heavy and light quark decays; it can be com-
 2370 plemented by applying impact parameter cuts in analyses with prompt muon
 2371 signals.
- 2372 • *POG Medium Muon ID* is a Loose muon with additional track-quality and
 2373 muon-quality (spatial matching between the individual measurements in the
 2374 tracker and the muon system) requirements. This identification criteria is de-
 2375 signed to be highly efficient in the separation of the muons coming from decay
 2376 in flight of heavy quarks and muons coming from B meson decays as well as
 2377 prompt muons. An additional category *MVA Prompt ID* is defined in this iden-

2378 tification criteria directed to discriminated muons from B mesons and prompt
 2379 muons (from W,Z and τ decays). The Medium ID provides the same fake rate as
 2380 the Tight Muon ID but a higher efficiency on prompt and B-decays muons. [145]

- 2381 • *POG Tight Muon ID* is a global muon with additional muon-quality require-
 2382 ments Tight Muon ID selects a subset of the PF muons.

2383 Only muons within the muon system acceptance $|\eta| < 2.4$ and minimum p_T of 5
 2384 GeV are considered.

2385 **Electrons.**

2386 Electrons are reconstructed using information from the tracker and from the electro-
 2387 magnetic calorimeter and identified by an MVA algorithm (*MVA eID* discriminant)
 2388 using the shape of the calorimetric shower variables like the shape in η and ϕ , the clus-
 2389 ter circularity, widths along η and ϕ ; track-cluster matching variables like E_{tot}/p_{in} ,
 2390 E_{Ele}/p_{out} , $\Delta\eta_{in}$, $\Delta\eta_{out}$, $\Delta\phi_{in}$, $1/E - 1/p$; and track quality variables like ξ^2 of the
 2391 GSF tracks, the number of hits used by the GSF filter [146].

2392 A loose selection based on η -dependent cuts on this discriminant is used to prese-
 2393 lect electron candidates, the full shape of the discriminant is used in the lepton MVA
 2394 selection to separate signal leptons from background leptons (described in section
 2395 6.5.3).

2396 In order to reject electrons from photon conversions, electron candidates with
 2397 missing hits in the pixel tracker layers or matched to a conversion secondary vertex
 2398 are discarded. Electrons are selected for the analysis if they have $p_T > 7$ GeV and
 2399 are located within the tracker system acceptance region ($|\eta| < 2.5$).

2400 **Lepton vertexing and pile-up rejection.**

2401 The impact parameter in the transverse plane d_0 , impact parameter along the z
 2402 axis d_z , and the impact parameter significance in the detector space SIP_{3D} , are
 2403 considered to perform the identification and rejection of pile-up, misreconstructed
 2404 tracks, and background leptons from b-hadron decays; pile-up and misreconstructed
 2405 track mitigation is achieved by imposing loose cuts on the impact parameter variables.
 2406 The full shape of the those variables is used in a lepton MVA classifier to achieve the
 2407 best separation between the signal and the background leptons.

2408 **Lepton isolation.**

2409 PF is able to recognize leptons from two different sources: on one side, leptons from
 2410 the decays of heavy particles, such as W and Z bosons, which are normally isolated
 2411 in space from the hadronic activity in the event; on the other side, leptons from the
 2412 decays of hadrons and jets misidentified as leptons, which are not isolated as the
 2413 former. For highly boosted systems, like the lepton and the b -jet generated in the
 2414 semileptonic decay of a boosted top, the decay products tend to be more closer and
 2415 sometimes they even overlap; thus, the PF standard definition of isolation in terms of
 2416 the separation between the lepton candidates and other PF objects in the η - ϕ plane,

$$\Delta R = \sqrt{(\eta^l - \eta^i)^2 + (\phi^l - \phi^i)^2} < 0.3 \quad (6.2)$$

2417 which considers all the neutral, charged hadrons and photons in a cone around the
 2418 leptons, is refocused to the local isolation of the leptons through the mini-isolation
 2419 I_{mini} [147] defined as the sum of particle flow candidates p_T within a cone around

2420 the lepton, corrected for the effects of pileup and divided by the lepton p_T

$$I_{mini} = \frac{\sum_R p_T(h^\pm) - \max \left(0, \sum_R p_T(h^0) + p_T(\gamma) - \rho \mathcal{A} \left(\frac{R}{0.3} \right)^2 \right)}{p_T(l)} \quad (6.3)$$

2421 where ρ is the pileup energy density, h^\pm, h^0, γ, l , represent the charged hadron, neutral
 2422 hadrons, photons, and the lepton, respectively. The radius R of the cone depends on
 2423 the p_T of the lepton according to

$$R = \frac{10\text{GeV}}{\min(\max(p_T(l), 50\text{GeV}), 200\text{GeV})}, \quad (6.4)$$

2424 The p_T dependence of the cone size allows for greater signal efficiency. Setting a
 2425 cut on I_{mini} below a given threshold ensures that the lepton is locally isolated, even
 2426 in boosted systems. The effect of pileup is mitigated using the so-called effective area
 2427 correction \mathcal{A} listed in Table 6.7.

$ \eta $ range	$\mathcal{A}(e)$ neutral/charged	$\mathcal{A}(\mu)$ neutral/charged
0.0 - 0.8	0.1607 / 0.0188	0.1322 / 0.0191
0.8 - 1.3	0.1579 / 0.0188	0.1137 / 0.0170
1.3 - 2.0	0.1120 / 0.0135	0.0883 / 0.0146
2.0 - 2.2	0.1228 / 0.0135	0.0865 / 0.0111
2.2 - 2.5	0.2156 / 0.0105	0.1214 / 0.0091

Table 6.7: Effective areas, for electrons and muons used to mitigate the effect of pileup by using the so-called effective area correction.

2428 A loose cut on I_{mini} is applied to pre-select the muon and electron candidates;
 2429 however, the full shape is used in the lepton MVA discriminator when performing the
 2430 signal lepton selection.

2431 **Jet-related variables.**

2432 In order to reject misidentified leptons from b -jets, mostly coming from $t\bar{t}$ +jets,
 2433 Drell-Yan+jets, and W+jets events, the vertexing and isolation described in previous
 2434 sections are complemented with additional variables related to the closest recon-
 2435 structed jet to the lepton, i.e., the PF jets reconstructed³ around the leptons with
 2436 $\Delta R = \sqrt{(\eta^l - \eta^{jet})^2 + (\phi^l - \phi^{jet})^2} < 0.5$. The identification variables used in the lep-
 2437 ton MVA discriminator are the ratio p_T^l/p_T^{jet} , the CSV b-tagging discriminator value
 2438 of the jet, the number of charged tracks of the jet, and the relative p_T given by

$$p_T^{rel} = \frac{(\vec{p}_{jet} - \vec{p}_l) \cdot \vec{p}_l}{\|\vec{p}_{jet} - \vec{p}_l\|}. \quad (6.5)$$

2439 **LeptonMVA discriminator.**

2440 Electrons and muons passing the basic selection process described above are referred
 2441 to as *loose leptons*. Additional discrimination between signal leptons and background
 2442 leptons is crucial considering that the rate of $t\bar{t}$ production is much larger than the
 2443 signal, hence, an overwhelming background from $t\bar{t}$ production. To maximally ex-
 2444 ploit the available information in each event to that end, the dedicated lepton MVA
 2445 discriminator, based on a boosted decision tree (BDT) algorithm, has been built so
 2446 that all the identification variables can be used together.

2447 The lepton MVA discriminator training is performed using simulated signal Loose
 2448 leptons from the $t\bar{t}H$ MC sample and fake leptons from the $t\bar{t}$ +jets MC sample,
 2449 separately for muons and electrons. The input variables used include vertexing, iso-
 2450 lation and jet-related variables, the p_T and η of the lepton, the electron MVA eID
 2451 discriminator and the muon segment-compatibility variables. An additional require-
 2452 ment known as *tight-charge* requirement, is imposed by comparing two independent

³ charged hadrons from PU vertices are not removed prior to the jet clustering.

measurement of the charge, one from the ECAL supercluster and the other from the tracker; thus, the consistency in the measurements of the electron charge is ensured so that events with a wrong electron charge assignment are rejected; this variable is particularly used in the 2lss channel to suppress opposite-sign events for which the charge of one of the leptons has been mismeasured. The tight-charge requirement for muons is represented by the requirement of a consistently well measured track transverse momentum given by $\Delta p_T/p_T < 0.2$. Leptons are selected for the final analysis if they pass a given threshold of the BDT output, and are referred to as *tight leptons* in the following.

The validation of the lepton MVA algorithm and the lepton identification variables is performed using data in various control regions; the details about that validation are not discussed here but can be found in Reference [143].

Selection definitions

Electron and muon object identification is defined in three different sets of selections criteria; the *Loose*, *Fakeable Object*, and *Tight* selection. These three levels of selection are designed to serve for event level vetoes, the fake rate estimation application region, and the final signal selection, respectively. The p_T of fakeable objects is defined as $0.85 \times p_T(\text{jet})$, where the jet is the one associated to the lepton object. This mitigates the dependence of the fake rate on the momentum of the fakeable object and thereby improves the precision of the method.

Tables 6.8 and 6.9 list the full criteria for the different selections of muons and electrons.

In addition to the previously defined requirements for jets, they are required to be separated from any lepton candidates passing the fakeable object selections by $\Delta R > 0.4$.

Cut	Loose	Fakeable object	Tight
$ \eta < 2.4$	✓	✓	✓
p_T	$> 5\text{GeV}$	$> 15\text{GeV}$	$> 15\text{GeV}$
$ d_{xy} < 0.05 \text{ (cm)}$	✓	✓	✓
$ d_z < 0.1 \text{ (cm)}$	✓	✓	✓
$\text{SIP}_{3D} < 8$	✓	✓	✓
$I_{\text{mini}} < 0.4$	✓	✓	✓
is Loose Muon	✓	✓	✓
jet CSV	—	< 0.8484	< 0.8484
is Medium Muon	—	—	✓
tight-charge	—	—	✓
lepMVA > 0.90	—	—	✓

Table 6.8: Requirements on each of the three muon selections. In the cases where the cut values change between the selections, those values are listed in the table. Otherwise, whether the cut is applied is indicated.

Cut	Loose	Fakeable Object	Tight
$ \eta < 2.5$	✓	✓	✓
p_T	$> 7\text{GeV}$	$> 15\text{GeV}$	$> 15\text{GeV}$
$ d_{xy} < 0.05 \text{ (cm)}$	✓	✓	✓
$ d_z < 0.1 \text{ (cm)}$	✓	✓	✓
$\text{SIP}_{3D} < 8$	✓	✓	✓
$I_{\text{mini}} < 0.4$	✓	✓	✓
MVA eID $> (0.0, 0.0, 0.7)$	✓	✓	✓
$\sigma_{in\eta} < (0.011, 0.011, 0.030)$	—	✓	✓
H/E $< (0.10, 0.10, 0.07)$	—	✓	✓
$\Delta\eta_{in} < (0.01, 0.01, 0.008)$	—	✓	✓
$\Delta\phi_{in} < (0.04, 0.04, 0.07)$	—	✓	✓
$-0.05 < 1/E - 1/p < (0.010, 0.010, 0.005)$	—	✓	✓
p_T^{ratio}	—	$> 0.5^\dagger / -$	—
jet CSV	—	$< 0.3^\dagger / < 0.8484$	< 0.8484
tight-charge	—	—	✓
conversion rejection	—	—	✓
Number of missing hits	< 2	$= 0$	$= 0$
lepton MVA > 0.90	—	—	✓

Table 6.9: Criteria for each of the three electron selections. In cases where the cut values change between selections, those values are listed in the table. Otherwise, whether the cut is applied is indicated. In some cases, the cut values change for different η ranges. These ranges are $0 < |\eta| < 0.8$, $0.8 < |\eta| < 1.479$, and $1.479 < |\eta| < 2.5$ and the respective cut values are given in the form (value₁, value₂, value₃). For the two p_T^{ratio} and CSV rows, the cuts marked with a \dagger are applied to leptons that fail the lepton MVA cut, while the loose cut value is applied to those that pass the lepton MVA cut.

2478 6.5.4 Lepton selection efficiency

2479 Efficiencies of reconstruction and selecting loose leptons are measured both for muons
 2480 and electrons using a tag and probe method on both data and MC, using $Z \rightarrow \ell^+ \ell^-$
 2481 [148]. The scale factors are derived from the ratio of efficiencies $\varepsilon_i(p_T, \eta)$ measured
 2482 for a given lepton in data/MC, according to

$$\rho(p_T, \eta) = \frac{\varepsilon_{\text{data}}(p_T, \eta)}{\varepsilon_{\text{MC}}(p_T, \eta)}. \quad (6.6)$$

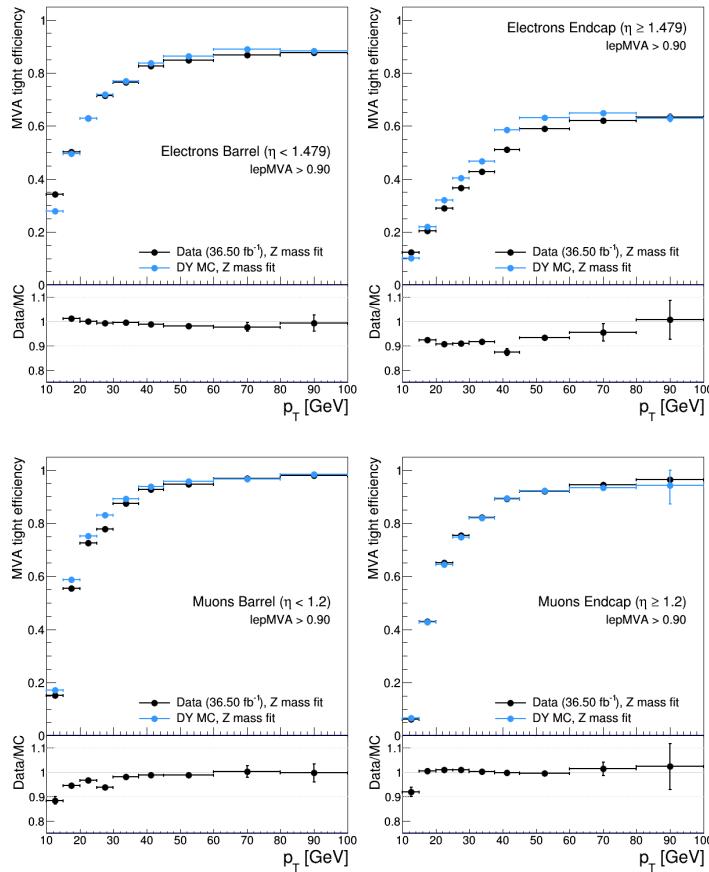


Figure 6.3: Tight vs loose selection efficiencies for electrons (top), and muons (bottom), for the 2lss definition, i.e., including the tight-charge requirement.

2483 The scale factor for each event is used to correct the weight of the event in the

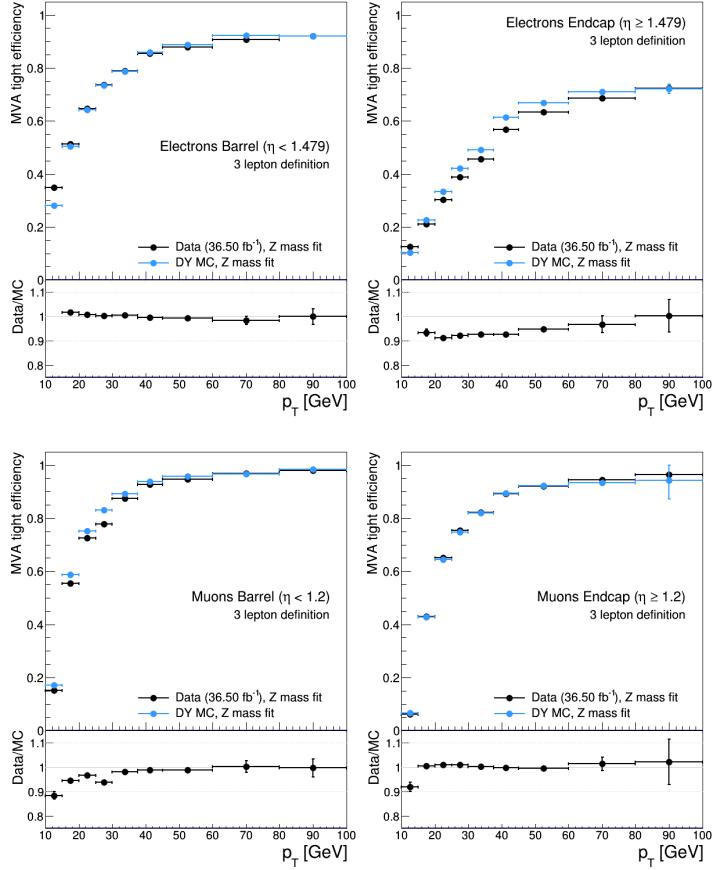


Figure 6.4: Tight vs loose selection efficiencies for electrons (top), and muons (bottom), for the 3l channel not including the tight-charge requirement.

2484 full sample; therefore, the full simulation correction is given by the product of all
 2485 the individual scale factors. The scale factors used in this thesis are inherited from
 2486 the reference [143] which in turns inherited them from leptonic SUSY analyses using
 2487 equivalent lepton selections.

2488 The efficiency of applying the tight selection as defined in Tables 6.8 and 6.9, on the
 2489 loose leptons are determined by using a tag and probe method on a sample of Drell-
 2490 Yan enriched events. Figures 6.3 and 6.4 show the efficiencies for the 2lss channel and
 2491 3l channel respectively. Efficiencies in the 2lss channel have been produced including
 2492 the tight-charge requirement, while for the 3l channel it is not included. Number

2493 of passed and failed probes are determined from a fit to the invariant mass of the
 2494 dilepton system.

2495 Simulation is corrected using these scale factors; note that they depends on η and
 2496 p_T .

2497 **6.6 Event selection**

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2508 The analysis is designed to efficiently identify and select prompt leptons from
 2509 on-shell W and

2510 Z boson decays and to reject non-prompt leptons from b quark decays and spurious
 2511 lepton

2512 signatures from hadronic jets. Events are then selected in the various lepton
 2513 channels, and are

2514 required to contain hadronic jets, some of which must be consistent with b quark
 2515 hadronization. Finally, the signal yield is extracted by simultaneously fitting the
 2516 output of two dedicated

2517 multivariate discriminants (trained to separate the tHq signal from the two dom-
 2518 inant backgrounds) in all categories

2519 . Multivariate techniques are used to discriminate the signal from the dominant
 2520 backgrounds. The analysis yields a 95% confidence level (C.L.) upper limit on the
 2521 combined $tH + ttH$ production cross section times branching ratio of 0.64 pb, with
 2522 an expected limit of 0.32 pb, for a scenario with $kt = \sqrt{1.0}$ and $kV = 1.0$. Values
 2523 of kt outside the range of $\sqrt{1.25}$ to $\sqrt{1.60}$ are excluded at 95% C.L., assuming kV
 2524 $= 1.0$.

2525 Dont forget to mention previous constrains to ct check reference ?? and references
 2526 <https://link.springer.com/content/pdf/10.1007%2FJHEP01%282013%29088.pdf> (para-
 2527 graph after eq 2)

2528 We selects events with three leptons and a b -jet tagged jet in the final state. The tHq
 2529 signal contribution is then determined in a fit of the observed data to two multivariate
 2530 classifier outputs, each trained to discriminate against one of the two dominant back-
 2531 grounds of events with non-prompt leptons from $t\bar{t}$ and of associated production of $t\bar{t}$
 2532 and vector bosons ($t\bar{t}W$, $t\bar{t}Z$). The fit result is then used to set an upper limit on the
 2533 combined $t\bar{t}H$, tHq and tHW production cross section, as a function of the relative
 2534 coupling strengths of Higgs and top quark and Higgs and W boson, respectively.

2535 6.7 Background predictions

2536 The modeling of reducible and irreducible backgrounds in this analysis uses the exact
 2537 methods, analysis code, and ROOT trees used for the $t\bar{t}H$ multilepton analysis. We
 2538 give a brief description of the methods and refer to the documentation of that analysis
 2539 in Refs. [138, 143] for any details.

2540 The backgrounds in three-lepton final states can be split in two broad categories:

irreducible backgrounds with genuine prompt leptons (i.e. from on-shell W and Z boson decays); and reducible backgrounds where at least one of the leptons is “non-prompt”, i.e. produced within a hadronic jet, either a genuine lepton from heavy flavor decays, or simply mis-reconstructed jets.

Irreducible backgrounds can be reliably estimated directly from Monte-Carlo simulated events, using higher-order cross sections or data control regions for the overall normalization. This is done in this analysis for all backgrounds involving prompt leptons: $t\bar{t}W$, $t\bar{t}Z$, $t\bar{t}H$, WZ , ZZ , $W^\pm W^\pm qq$, $t\bar{t}t\bar{t}$, tZq , tZW , WWW , WWZ , WZZ , ZZZ .

Reducible backgrounds, on the other hand, are not well predicted by simulation, and are estimated using data-driven methods. In the case of non-prompt leptons, a fake rate method is used,

Additional identification criteria are applied for electrons with p_T greater than 30 GeV to mimic the identification applied at trigger level in order to ensure consistency between the measurement region and application region of the fake-rate.

where the contribution to the final selection is estimated by extrapolating from a sideband (or “application region”) with a looser lepton definition (the fakeable object definitions in Tabs. 6.8 and 6.9) to the signal selection. The tight-to-loose ratios (or “fake rates”) are measured in several background dominated data events with dedicated triggers, subtracting the residual prompt lepton contribution using MC. Non-prompt leptons in our signal regions are predominantly produced in $t\bar{t}$ events, with a much smaller contribution, from Drell–Yan production. The systematic uncertainty on the normalization of the non-prompt background estimation is on the order of 50%, and thereby one of the dominant limitations on the performance of multilepton analyses in general and this analysis in particular. It consists of several individual sources, such as the result of closure tests of the method using simulated

2567 events, limited statistics in the data control regions due to necessary prescaling of
 2568 lepton triggers, and the uncertainty in the subtraction of residual prompt leptons
 2569 from the control region.

2570 The fake background where the leptons pass the looser selection are weighted
 2571 according to how many of them fail the tight criteria. Events with a single failing
 2572 lepton are weighted with the factor $f/(1-f)$ for the estimate to the tight selection
 2573 region, where f is the fake rate. Events with two failing leptons are given the negative
 2574 weight $-f_i f_j / (1-f_i)(1-f_j)$, and for three leptons the weight is positive and equal
 2575 to the product of $f/(1-f)$ factor evaluated for each failing lepton.

2576 Figures 6.5 show the distributions of some relevant kinematic variables, normalized
 2577 to the cross section of the respective processes and to the integrated luminosity.

2578 6.8 Signal discrimination

2579 The tHq signal is separated from the main backgrounds using a boosted decision
 2580 tree (BDT) classifier, trained on simulated signal and background events. A set
 2581 of discriminating variables are given as input to the BDT which produces a output
 2582 distribution maximizing the discrimination power. Table 6.10 lists the input variables
 2583 used while Figures 6.6 show their distributions for the relevant signal and background
 2584 samples, for the three lepton channel. Two BDT classifiers are trained for the two
 2585 main backgrounds expected in the analysis: events with prompt leptons from $t\bar{t}W$ and
 2586 $t\bar{t}Z$ (also referred to as $t\bar{t}V$), and events with non-prompt leptons from $t\bar{t}$. The datasets
 2587 used in the training are the tHq signal (see Tab. 6.1), and LO MADGRAPH samples
 2588 of $t\bar{t}W$ and $t\bar{t}Z$, in an admixture proportional to their respective cross sections (see
 2589 Tab. 6.4).

2590 The MVA analysis consist of two stages: first a “training” where the MVA method

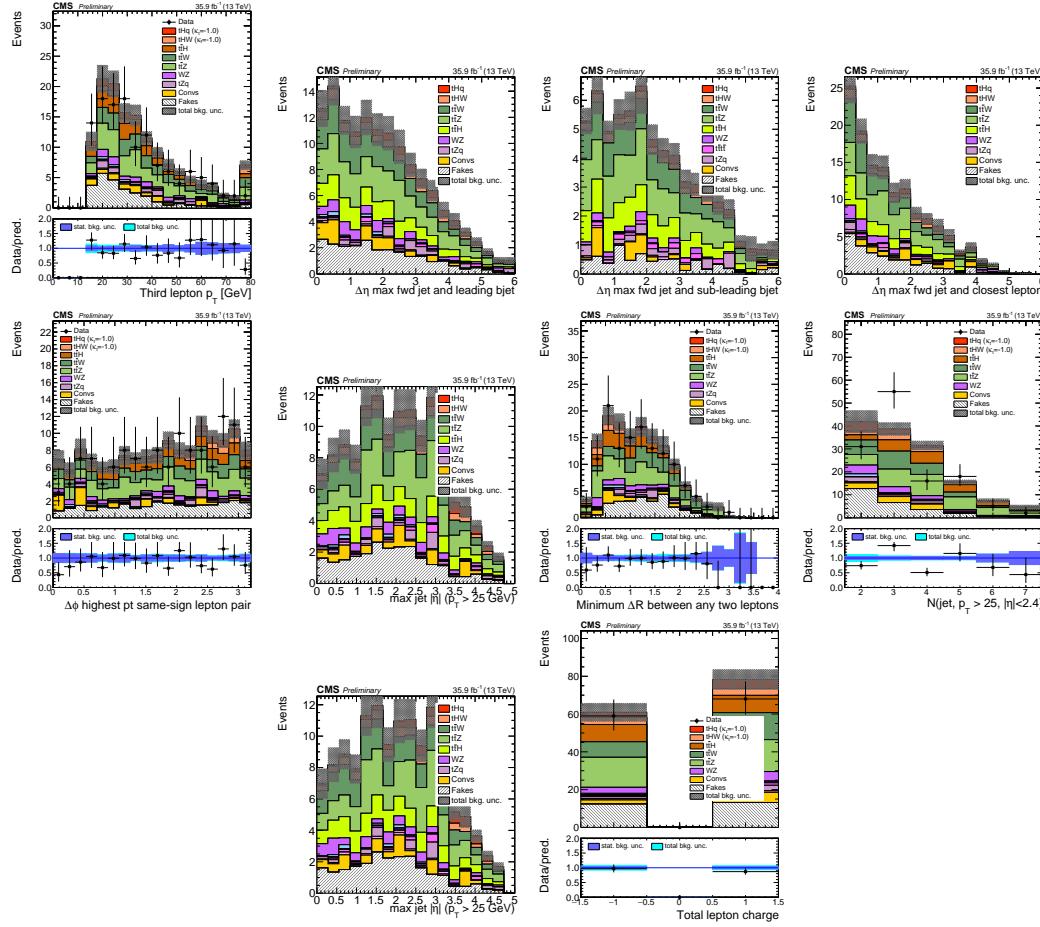


Figure 6.5: Distributions of input variables to the BDT for signal discrimination, three lepton channel, normalized to their cross section and to 35.9 fb^{-1} .

is trained to discriminate between simulated signal and background events, then a “test” stage where the trained algorithm is used to classify different events from the samples. The sample is obtained from a pre-selection (see Tab. ?? with pre-selection cuts). Figures 6.7 show the input variables distributions as seen by the MVA algorithm. Note that in contrast to the distributions in Fig. 6.6 only the main backgrounds ($t\bar{t}$ from simulation, $t\bar{t}V$) are included.

Note that splitting the training in two groups reveals that some variables show opposite behavior for the two background sources; potentially screening the discrimination power if they were to be used in a single discriminant. For some other variables

Variable name	Description
nJet25	Number of jets with $p_T > 25$ GeV, $ \eta < 2.4$
MaxEtaJet25	Maximum $ \eta $ of any (non-CSV-loose) jet with $p_T > 25$ GeV
totCharge	Sum of lepton charges
nJetEta1	Number of jets with $ \eta > 1.0$, non-CSV-loose
detaFwdJetBJet	$\Delta\eta$ between forward light jet and hardest CSV loose jet
detaFwdJet2BJet	$\Delta\eta$ between forward light jet and second hardest CSV loose jet (defaults to -1 in events with only one CSV loose jet)
detaFwdJetClosestLep	$\Delta\eta$ between forward light jet and closest lepton
dphiHighestPtSSPair	$\Delta\phi$ of highest p_T same-sign lepton pair
minDRll	minimum ΔR between any two leptons
Lep3Pt/Lep2Pt	p_T of the 3 rd lepton (2 nd for ss2l)

Table 6.10: MVA input discriminating variables

2600 the distributions are similar in both background cases.

2601 From table 6.10, it is clear that the input variables are correlated to some extend.
 2602 These correlations play an important role for some MVA methods like the Fisher
 2603 discriminant method in which the first step consist of performing a linear transfor-
 2604 mation to an phase space where the correlations between variables are removed. In
 2605 case a boosted decision tree (BDT) method however, correlations do not affect the
 2606 performance. Figure 6.9 show the linear correlation coefficients for signal and back-
 2607 ground for the two training cases (the signal values are identical by construction). As
 2608 expected, strong correlations appears for variables related to the forward jet activity.
 2609 Same trend is seen in case of the same sign dilepton channel in Figure ??.

2610 6.8.1 Classifiers response

2611 Several MVA algorithms were evaluated to determine the most appropriate method
 2612 for this analysis. The plots in Fig. 6.10 (top) show the background rejection as a
 2613 function of the signal efficiency for $t\bar{t}$ and $t\bar{t}V$ trainings (ROC curves) for the different

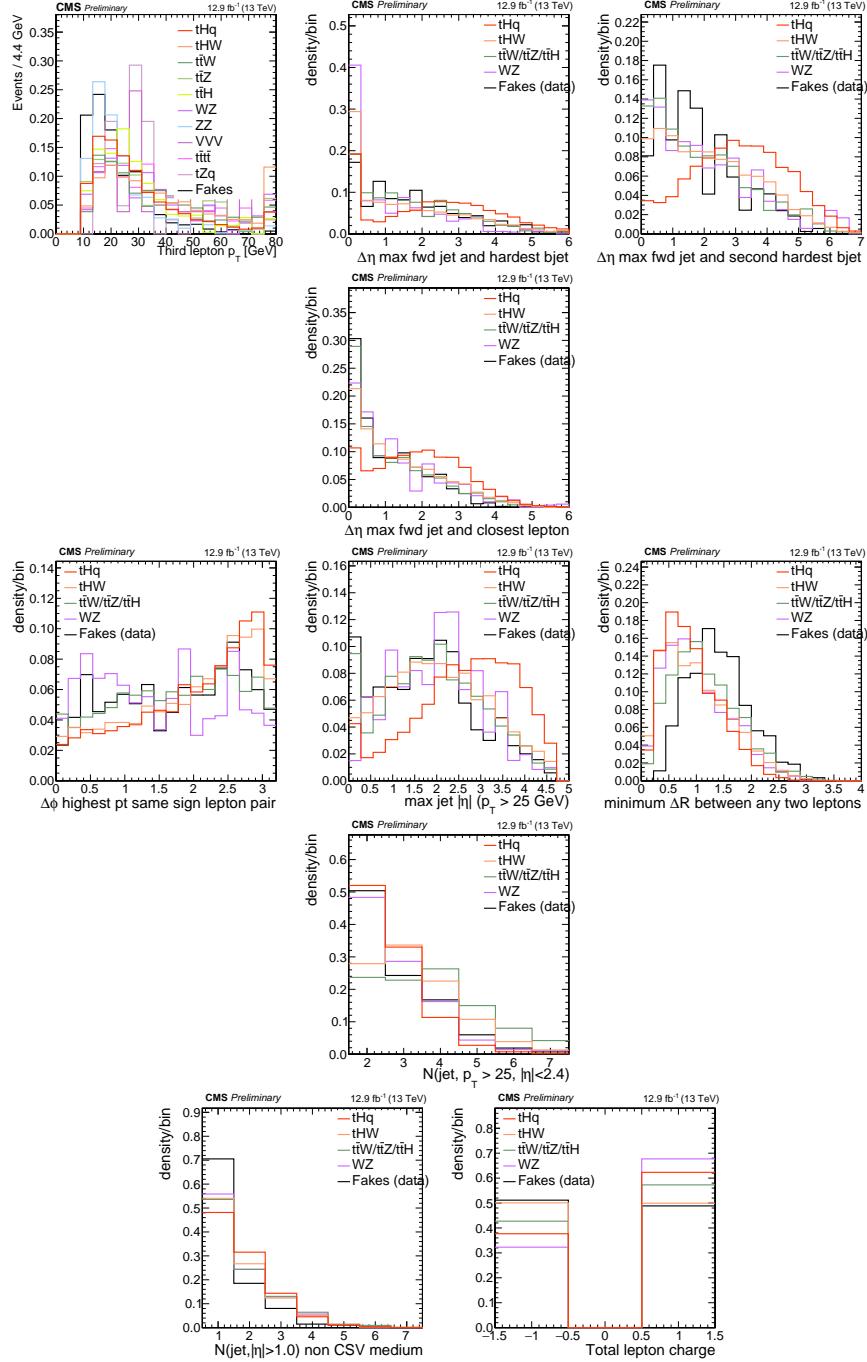


Figure 6.6: Distributions of input variables to the BDT for signal discrimination, three lepton channel.

2614 algorithms that were evaluated.

2615 In both cases the gradient boosted decision tree (“BDTA_GRAD”) classifier offers

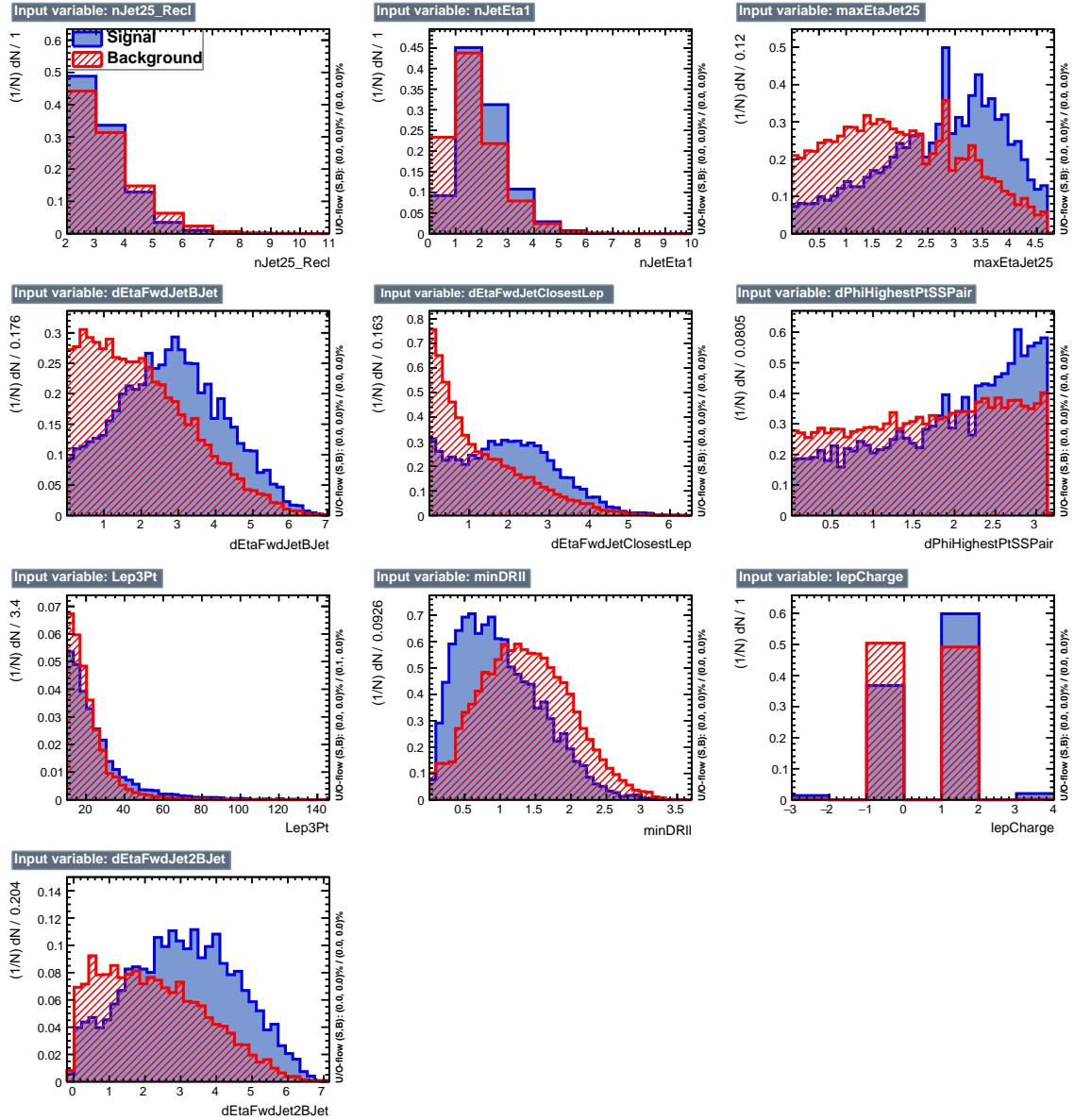


Figure 6.7: BDT inputs as seen by TMVA (signal, in blue, is tHq , background, in red, is $t\bar{t}$) for the three lepton channel, discriminated against $t\bar{t}$ (fakes) background.

the best results, followed by an adaptive BDT classifier (“BDTA”). The BDTA_GRAD classifier output distributions for signal and backgrounds are shown on the bottom of Fig. 6.10. As expected, a good discrimination power is obtained using default discriminator parameter values, with minimal overtraining. TMVA provides a ranking of the input variables by their importance in the classification process, shown in Tab. 6.11.

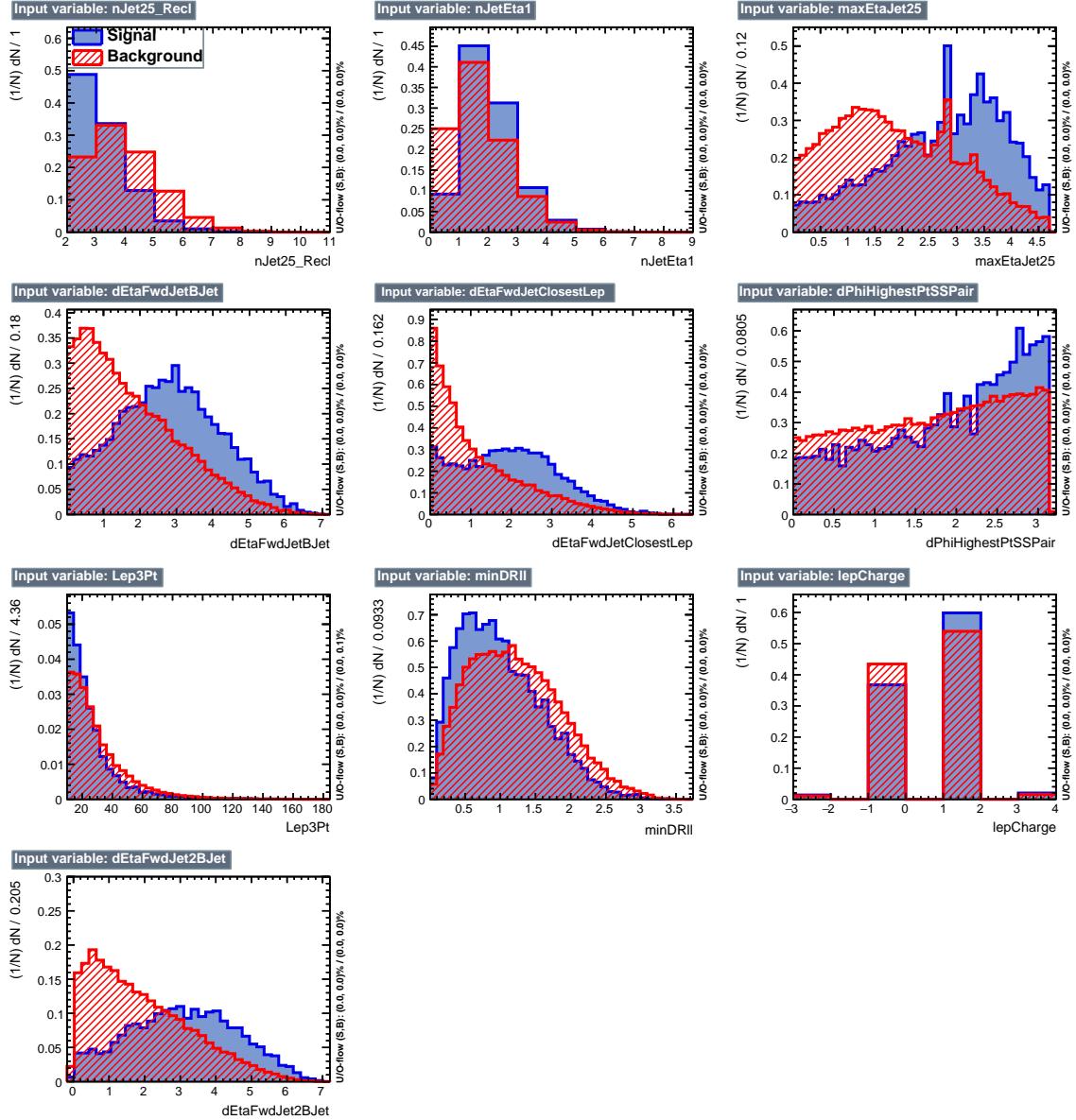


Figure 6.8: BDT inputs as seen by TMVA (signal, in blue, is tHq , background, in red, is $t\bar{t}W+t\bar{t}Z$) for the three lepton channel, discriminated against $t\bar{t}V$ background.

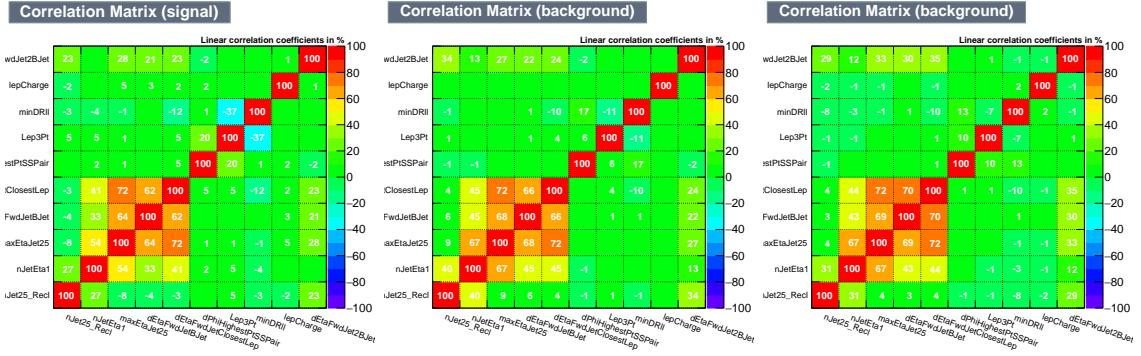


Figure 6.9: Signal (left), $t\bar{t}$ background (middle), and $t\bar{t}V$ background (right.) correlation matrices for the input variables in the TMVA analysis for the three lepton channel.

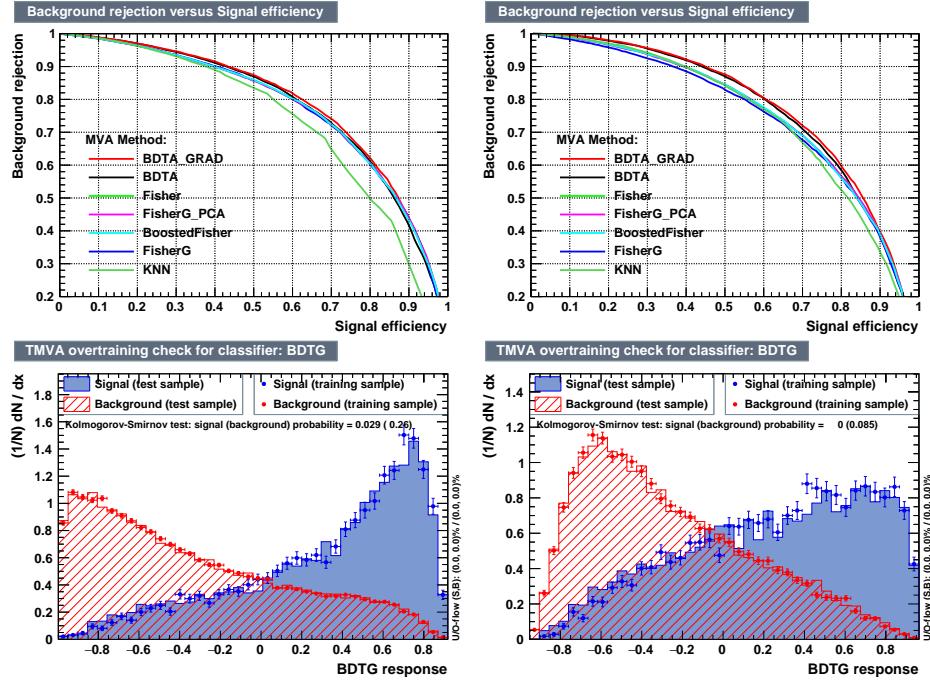


Figure 6.10: Top: background rejection vs signal efficiency (ROC curves) for various MVA classifiers (top) in the three lepton channel against $t\bar{t}V$ (left) and $t\bar{t}$ (right). Bottom: classifier output distributions for the gradient boosted decision trees, for training against $t\bar{t}V$ (left) and against $t\bar{t}$ (right).

2622 6.9 Additional discriminating variables

2623 Two additional discriminating variables were tested considering the fact that the
2624 forward jet in the background could come from the pileup; since we have a real forward

ttbar training			ttV training		
Rank	Variable	Importance	Variable	Importance	
1	minDRll	1.329e-01	dEtaFwdJetBJet	1.264e-01	
2	dEtaFwdJetClosestLep	1.294e-01	Lep3Pt	1.224e-01	
3	dEtaFwdJetBJet	1.209e-01	maxEtaJet25	1.221e-01	
4	dPhiHighestPtSSPair	1.192e-01	dEtaFwdJet2BJet	1.204e-01	
5	Lep3Pt	1.158e-01	dEtaFwdJetClosestLep	1.177e-01	
6	maxEtaJet25	1.121e-01	minDRll	1.143e-01	
7	dEtaFwdJet2BJet	9.363e-02	dPhiHighestPtSSPair	9.777e-02	
8	nJetEta1	6.730e-02	nJet25_Recl	9.034e-02	
9	nJet25_Recl	6.178e-02	nJetEta1	4.749e-02	
10	lepCharge	4.701e-02	lepCharge	4.116e-02	

Table 6.11: TMVA input variables ranking for BDTA_GRAD method for the trainings in the three lepton channel. For both trainings the rankings show almost the same 5 variables in the first places.

```

TMVA.Types.kBDT
NTrees=800
BoostType=Grad
Shrinkage=0.10
!UseBaggedGrad
nCuts=50
MaxDepth=3
NegWeightTreatment=PairNegWeightsGlobal
CreateMVAPdfs

```

Table 6.12: TMVA configuration used in the BDT training.

jet in the signal, it could give some improvement in the discriminating power. The additional variables describe the forward jet momentum (fwdJetPt25) and the forward jet identification(fwdJetPUID). Distributions for these variables in the three lepton channel are shown in the figure 6.11. The forward jet identification distribution show that for both, signal and background, jets are mostly real jets.

The testing was made including in the MVA input one variable at a time, so we can evaluate the dicrimination power of each variable, and then both simultaneously. fwdJetPUID was ranked in the last place in importance (11) in both training (ttV and tt) while fwdJetPt25 was ranked 3 in the ttV training and 7 in the tt training. When training using 12 variables, fwdJetPt25 was ranked 5 and 7 in the ttV and tt

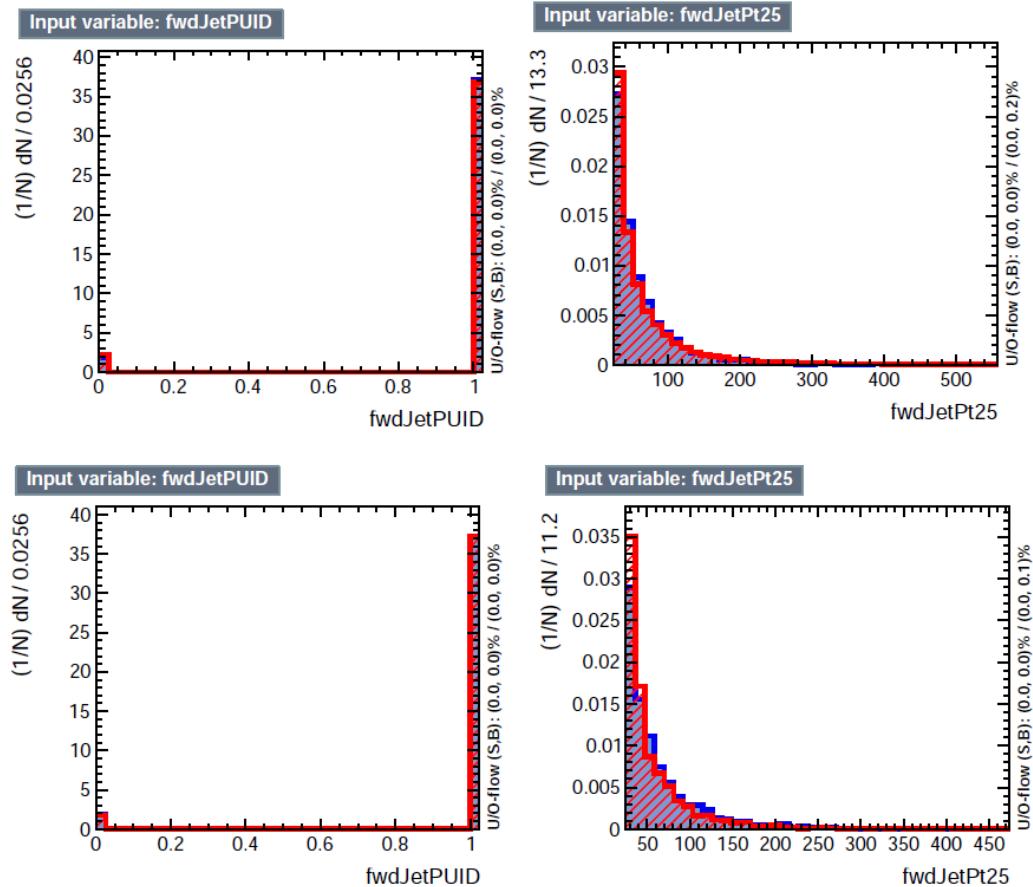


Figure 6.11: Additional discriminating variables distributions for ttv training (Top row) and tt training (bottom row) in the three lepton channel. The origin of the jets in the forward jet identification distribution is tagged as 0 for “pileup jets” while “real jets” are tagged as 1.

2635 trainings respectively, while fwdJetPUID was ranked 12 in both cases.

2636 The improvement in the discrimination performance provided by the additional
 2637 variables is about 1%, so it was decided not to include them in the procedure. Table
 2638 6.13 show the ROC-integral for all the testing cases we made.

ROC-integral	
base 10 var ttv	0.848
+ fwdJetPUID ttv	0.849
+ fwdJetPt25 ttv	0.856
12 var ttv	0.856
<hr/>	
base 10 var tt	0.777
+ fwdJetPUID tt	0.777
+ fwdJetPt25 tt	0.787
12 var	0.787

Table 6.13: ROC-integral for all the testing cases we made in the evaluation of the additional variables discriminating power. The improvement in the discrimination performance provided by the additional variables is about 1%

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