

# Identification of double $b$ -hadron jets from gluon-splitting with the ATLAS Detector

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**Identificación de jets con hadrones  $b$  producidos por  
desdoblamiento de gluones con el detector ATLAS.**

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# Identificación de jets con hadrones $b$ producidos por desdoblamiento de gluones con el detector ATLAS.

## Resumen

En esta tesis se presenta un estudio de la subestructura de jets que contienen hadrones  $b$  con el propósito de distinguir entre jets- $b$  genuinos, donde el quark  $b$  se origina a nivel de elemento de matriz (por ejemplo, en decaimientos de top, W, o Higgs) y jets- $b$  producidos en la lluvia partónica de QCD, por el desdoblamiento de un gluón en un quark y un antiquark  $b$  cercanos entre sí. La posibilidad de rechazar jets- $b$  producidos por gluones es importante para reducir el fondo de QCD en análisis de física dentro del Modelo Estándar, y en la búsqueda de canales de nueva física que involucren quarks  $b$  en el estado final. A tal efecto, se diseñó una técnica de separación que explota las diferencias cinemáticas y topológicas entre ambos tipos de jets- $b$ . Esta se basa en observables sensibles a la estructura interna de los jets, contruidos a partir de trazas asociadas a éstos y combinados en un análisis de multivariable. En eventos simulados, el algoritmo rechaza 95% (50%) de jets con dos hadrones  $b$  mientras que retiene el 50% (90%) de los jets- $b$  genuinos, aunque los valores exactos dependen de  $p_T$ , el momento transversal del jet. El método desarrollado se aplica para medir la fracción de jets con dos hadrones  $b$  en función del  $p_T$  del jet, con 4,7 fb<sup>-1</sup> de datos de colisiones  $pp$  a  $\sqrt{s} = 7$  TeV, recogidos por el experimento ATLAS en el Gran Colisionador de Hadrones en 2011.

*Palabras clave:* Experimento ATLAS, Jets, Subestructura de Jets, QCD, Producción de jets  $b$ , Etiquetado de Jets  $b$ .

# Identification of double $b$ -hadron jets from gluon-splitting with the ATLAS Detector.

## Abstract

This thesis presents a study of the substructure of jets containing  $b$ -hadrons with the purpose of distinguishing between “single”  $b$ -jets, where the  $b$ -quark originates at the matrix-element level of a physical process (e.g. top,  $W$  or Higgs decay) and “merged”  $b$ -jets, produced in the parton shower QCD splitting of a gluon into a collimated  $b$  quark-antiquark pair. The ability to reject  $b$ -jets from gluon splitting is important to reduce the QCD background in Standard Model analyses and in new physics searches that rely on  $b$ -quarks in the final state. A separation technique has been designed that exploits the kinematic and topological differences between both kinds of  $b$ -jets using track-based jet shape and jet substructure variables combined in a multivariate likelihood analysis. In simulated events, the algorithm rejects 95% (50%) of merged  $b$ -jets while retaining 50% (90%) of the single  $b$ -jets, although the exact values depend on  $p_T$ , the jet transverse momentum. The method developed is applied to measure the fraction of double  $b$ -hadron jets as a function of jet  $p_T$ , using  $4.7 \text{ fb}^{-1}$  of  $pp$  collision data at  $\sqrt{s} = 7 \text{ TeV}$  collected by the ATLAS experiment at the Large Hadron Collider in 2011.

*Keywords:* ATLAS Experiment, Jets, Jet Substructure,  $b$ -jet Production, QCD, Gluon Splitting,  $b$ -tagging.

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# Chapter 1

## Event reconstruction and *b*-Tagging

The event reconstruction packages, which in ATLAS are implemented in the software framework ATHENA [1], process the events, starting from the raw data obtained from the various sub-detectors (energy deposits and hits), through different stages to finally interpreting them as a set of charged tracks, electrons, photons, jets, muons and, in general, of possible kinds of final state objects with related four momenta. In this chapter the reconstruction of these objects is briefly described together with the algorithms for the identification of *b*-quark jets. These algorithms are mainly based on the reconstruction of the primary interaction vertex, on the reconstruction of charged particles in the Inner Detector and on the reconstruction of jets in the calorimeter.

### 1.1 Jet reconstruction and calibration

Hadronic jets used for ATLAS analyses are reconstructed by a jet algorithm, starting from the energy depositions of electromagnetic and hadronic showers

in the calorimeters. The ATLAS performance group, addressing the calibration of jets and the missing transverse energy (Jet/Etmiss), has made the decision to adopt the anti- $k_t$  algorithm (Chapter ??) as its default jet algorithm. This choice was driven by multiple requirements ranging from physics performance to those intimately involved with the computing, trigger and detector: the anti- $k_t$  algorithm is fast and its memory consumption is low, it is well adapted to algorithms used in the trigger, and it has the best jet reconstruction efficiency at low  $p_T$ . Moreover, this algorithm exhibits the smallest fluctuations of the jet area showing good stability under pile-up [2].

Two different size parameters are used:  $R = 0.4$ , for narrow jets, more adequate to describe the event substructure and associate matrix element partons to jets in multiparton final states; and  $R = 0.6$ , for wider jets, with very little out of cone radiation, more suitable for QCD studies.

The input to calorimeter jet reconstruction can be calorimeter towers or topological cell clusters. Charged particle tracks reconstructed in the Inner Detectors are also used to define jets. The latter have the further advantage of being insensitive to pile-up and they provide a stable reference for systematic studies. The jet inputs are combined as massless four-momentum objects in order to form the final four-momentum of the jet, which allows for a well-defined jet mass [3]. In the case of track-jets, the track four-momentum is constructed assuming the  $\pi$  meson mass for each track. In Monte Carlo simulation, reference jets (“truth jets”) are formed from simulated stable particles using the same jet algorithm as for the calorimeter jets.

Calorimeter towers are static,  $\Delta\eta \times \Delta\phi = 0.1 \times 0.1$ , grid elements built directly from calorimeter cells. There are two types of calorimeter towers: with or without noise suppression. The latter are called “noise-suppressed”, and use only the cells with energies above a certain noise threshold. The



noise of a calorimeter cell is measured by recording calorimeter signals in periods where no beam is present in the accelerator. The standard deviation  $\sigma$  around the mean no-beam energy is interpreted as the noise of the cell, and it depends on the sampling layer in which the cell resides and the position in  $\eta$ .

The results presented in this thesis use jets built from noise-suppressed topological clusters, also known as “topo-clusters” [4]. Topological clusters are groups of calorimeter cells that are designed to follow the shower development taking advantage of the fine segmentation of the ATLAS calorimeters. The topological cluster formation starts from a seed cell with  $|E_{cell}| > 4\sigma$  above the noise. In a second step, neighbor cells that have an energy at least  $2\sigma$  above their mean noise are added to the cluster. Finally, all nearest-neighbor cells surrounding the clustered cells are added to the cluster, regardless of the signal-to-noise ratio<sup>1</sup>. The position of the cluster is assigned as the energy-weighted centroid of all constituent cells (the weight used is the absolute cell energy).

## Jet calibration

The baseline EM energy scale of the calorimeters is the result of the calibration of the electronics signal to the energy deposited in the calorimeter by electromagnetic showers (see Chapter ??). The purpose of the jet energy calibration, or jet energy scale (JES), is to correct the measured EM scale energy to the energy of the stable particles within a jet. The jet energy calibration must account then for the calorimeter non-compensation; the energy lost in inactive regions of the detector, such as the cryostat walls or cabling; energy

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<sup>1</sup>Noise-suppressed towers also make use of the topological clusters algorithm [4] to select cells, i.e. only calorimeter cells that are included in topo-clusters are used.

that escapes the calorimeters, such as that of highly-energetic particles that “punch-through” to the muon system; energy of cells that are not included in clusters, due to inefficiencies in the noise-suppression scheme; and energy of clusters not included in the final reconstructed jet, due to inefficiencies in the jet reconstruction algorithm. The muons and neutrinos that may be present within the jet are not expected to interact within the calorimeters, and are not included in this energy calibration. Due to the varying calorimeter coverage, detector technology, and amount of upstream inactive material, the calibration that must be applied to each jet to bring it to the hadronic scale varies with its  $\eta$  position within the detector.

A number of complex calibration schemes, taking into account these effects, have been developed in ATLAS. The simplest procedure used for 2011 data, referred to as “EM+JES” calibration, utilizes an energy and  $\eta$ -dependent calibration scheme that is primarily based on Monte Carlo simulation with some direct in-situ measurements. This is the calibration used in this thesis. It consists of three subsequent steps:

- Pile-up correction: An offset correction is applied in order to subtract the additional average energy measured in the calorimeter due to multiple proton-proton interactions. This correction is derived from minimum bias data as a function of NPV, the jet pseudorapidity and the bunch spacing. This additional energy is subtracted before the hadronic energy scale is restored such that the derivation of the jet energy scale calibration is factorized and does not depend on the number of interactions in the event.
- Vertex correction: The jet four momentum is corrected such that the jet originates from the primary vertex of the interaction instead of the geometrical centre of the detector.

- Jet energy and direction correction: The jet energy and direction are corrected using constants derived from the comparison of the kinematic observables of reconstructed jets and those from truth jets in the simulation.

In the final step the calibration is derived in terms of the energy response of the jet, or the ratio of the reconstructed jet energy to that of a “truth” jet built of all truth stable interacting particles in the Monte Carlo. This response, written as

$$\mathcal{R} = E_{reco}/E_{truth} \quad (1.1)$$

may be defined at any energy scale. In Equation 1.1,  $E_{truth}$  is the energy of the closest isolated truth jet, within  $\Delta R < 0.3^2$ . The isolation requirement is applied in order to factorize the effects due to close-by jets from those due to purely detector effects such as dead material and non-compensation. The isolation criterion requires that no other jet with a  $p_T > 7$  GeV be within  $\Delta R < 2.5R$ , where  $R$  is the distance parameter of the jet algorithm.

The jet energy response is binned in truth jet energy and the calorimeter jet  $\eta$ . For each  $(E_{truth}, \eta)$ -bin, the averaged jet energy response is defined as the peak position of a Gaussian fit to the  $E_{reco}/E_{truth}$  distribution. The jet  $p_T$  response, which will be used later, uses the  $p_T^{reco}/p_T^{truth}$  distribution.

The EM+JES calibration constants consist in the inverse of the response:  $\mathcal{C}(p_T^{EM}) = \mathcal{R}_{reco}^{-1}(p_T^{EM})$ , where  $\mathcal{C}$  is the calibration constant and  $\mathcal{R}_{reco}$  is the response calculated as a function of reconstructed jet  $p_T$ . They are derived as a function of  $p_T^{truth}$ , to remove the impact of the underlying  $p_T$  spectrum on the response. The jet response determined as a function of  $p_T^{truth}$ ,  $\mathcal{R}_{truth}$ , is used to apply the constants as a function of  $p_T^{EM}$ , that

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<sup>2</sup>This value was chosen because it results in a reconstructed-to-truth jet match more than 99% of the times.

is  $\mathcal{R}_{reco}(p_T^{EM}) = \mathcal{R}_{truth}(\mathcal{R}_{truth} \cdot p_T^{truth})$ . This relationship is valid in ATLAS due to the linearity of the jet response as a function of  $p_T$ . The correct energy scale is obtained by multiplying the EM scale energy of a jet by the calibration constant

$$E^{EM+JES} = \mathcal{C} \cdot E^{EM}. \quad (1.2)$$

Other calibrations schemes are the global calorimeter cell weighting (GCW) calibration and the local cluster weighting (LCW) calibration. The GCW scheme exploits the observation that electromagnetic showers in the calorimeter leave more compact energy depositions than hadronic showers with the same energy. Energy corrections are derived for each cell within a jet. The cell corrections account for all energy losses of a jet in the detector. Since these corrections are only applicable to jets and not to energy depositions, they are called “global” corrections.

The LCW calibration method first classifies topo-clusters as either electromagnetic or hadronic, based on the measured energy density. Energy corrections are derived according to this classification from single charged and neutral pion Monte Carlo simulations. Dedicated corrections are derived for the effects of non-compensation, signal losses due to noise threshold effects, and energy lost in non-instrumented regions. Since the energy corrections are applied without reference to a jet definition they are called “local” corrections. Jets are then built from these calibrated clusters using a jet algorithm.

The final jet energy calibration can be applied to EM scale jets, with the resulting calibrated jets referred to as EM+JES, or to LCW (GCW) calibrated jets, with the resulting jets referred to as LCW+JES (GCW+JES) jets.

A further jet calibration scheme called global sequential (GS) calibration,

starts from jets calibrated with the EM+JES calibration and corrects the energy jet-by-jet, without changing the average response. This scheme exploits the topology of the energy deposits in the calorimeter to characterise fluctuations in the jet particle content of the hadronic shower development. Correcting for such fluctuations can improve the jet energy resolution. The correction uses several jet properties, and each correction is applied sequentially.

For the 2011 data the recommended calibration schemes were the EM+JES and the LCW calibrations. The simple EM+JES calibration does not provide the best resolution performance, but allows in the central detector region the most direct evaluation of the systematic uncertainties from the calorimeter response to single isolated hadrons measured *in situ* and in test-beams and from systematic variations in the Monte Carlo simulation. For the LCW+JES calibration scheme the JES uncertainty is determined from *in situ* techniques. For all calibration schemes, the JES uncertainty in the forward regions is derived from the uncertainty in the central region using the transverse momentum balance in events where only two jets are produced.

### **Jet energy scale uncertainties for the EM+JES scheme**

For many physics analyses, the uncertainty on the JES constitutes the dominant systematic uncertainty because of its tendency to shift jets in and out of analysis selections due to the steeply falling jet  $p_T$  spectrum. The uncertainty on the EM+JES scale is determined primarily by six factors: varying the physics models for hadronization and parameters of the Monte Carlo generators, evaluating the baseline calorimeter response to single particles, comparing multiple models for the detector simulation of hadronic showers, assessing the calibration scales as a function of pseudorapidity, and by ad-

justing the JES calibration methods itself. The final JES uncertainty in the central region,  $|\eta| < 0.8$ , is determined from the maximum deviation in response observed with respect to the response in the nominal sample. For the more forward region, the so called “ $\eta$ -intercalibration” contribution is estimated. This is a procedure that uses direct di-jet balance measurements in two-jet events to measure the relative energy scale of jets in the more forward regions compared to jets in a reference region. The technique exploits the fact that these jets are expected to have equal  $p_T$  due to transverse momentum conservation. Figure 1.1 shows the final fractional jet energy scale uncertainty and its individual contributions as a function of  $p_T$  for a central  $\eta$  region. The JES uncertainty for anti- $k_t$  jets with  $R = 0.4$  is between  $\approx 4\%$  (8%, 14%) at low jet  $p_T$  and  $\approx 2.5\%$ -3% (2.5%-3.5%, 5%) for jets with  $p_T > 60$  GeV in the central (endcap, forward) region.

In addition to the tests above, *in situ* tests of the JES using direct  $\gamma$ -jet balance, multi-jet balance, and track-jets indicate that the uncertainties in Fig. 1.1 reflect accurately the true uncertainties in the JES.

In the case of jets induced by bottom quarks ( $b$ -jets), the calorimeter response uncertainties are also evaluated using single hadron response measurements *in situ* and in test beams [5]. For jets within  $|\eta| < 0.8$  and  $20 \leq p_T < 250$  GeV the expected difference in the calorimeter response uncertainty of identified  $b$ -jets with respect to the one of inclusive jets is less than 0.5%. It is assumed that this uncertainty extends up to  $|\eta| < 2.5$ .

The JES uncertainty arising from the modelling of the  $b$ -quark fragmentation can be determined from systematics variations of the Monte Carlo simulation. The fragmentation function is used to estimate the momentum carried by the  $b$ -hadron with respect to that of the  $b$ -quark after quark fragmentation. The fragmentation function included in PYTHIA originates from

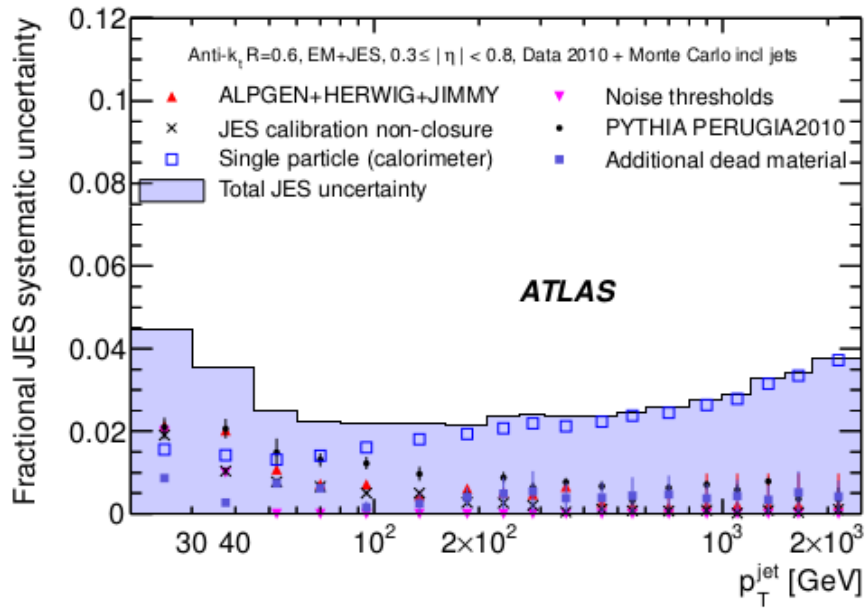


Figure 1.1: Fractional jet energy scale uncertainty as a function of jet  $p_T$  for jets in the pseudorapidity region  $0.3 < |\eta| < 0.8$  in the calorimeter barrel. The total uncertainty is shown as the solid tight blue area. The individual sources are also shown.

a detailed study of the  $b$ -quark fragmentation function in comparison with OPAL [6] and SLD [7] data. To assess the impact of the  $b$ -fragmentation, the nominal parameters of the PYTHIA fragmentation function are replaced by the values from a tune using the Professor framework [8]. In addition, the nominal fragmentation function is replaced by the modified Bowler-Lund fragmentation function [9]. The  $b$ -jet response uncertainty is evaluated from the ratio between the response of  $b$ -jets in the varied Monte Carlo samples to the nominal PYTHIA. The response variations are well within 2%.

The  $b$ -jet JES uncertainty is obtained adding the calorimeter response uncertainty and the uncertainties from the systematic Monte Carlo variations in quadrature. The resulting additional JES uncertainty for  $b$ -jets is shown in Fig. 1.2. It is about 2% up to  $p_T \approx 100$  GeV and below 1% for higher  $p_T$ . To obtain the overall  $b$ -jet uncertainty this uncertainty is added in quadrature to the JES uncertainty for inclusive jets.

## 1.2 Reconstruction of charged particle tracks

The Inner Detector layout and the characteristics of its main sub-detectors were presented in Section ?? of Chapter ?. The tracking algorithm is based on a modular software framework, which is described in more detail in Ref. [10]. The main steps of the tracking algorithm are the following:

- Firstly, the raw data from the pixel and SCT detectors are converted into clusters, while the TRT raw timing information is turned into calibrated drift circles. The SCT clusters need to be further transformed into space-points, by combining the clusters information from opposite sides of the SCT module (stereo strip layers).
- In a second stage, the track-finding is performed, in which the pattern



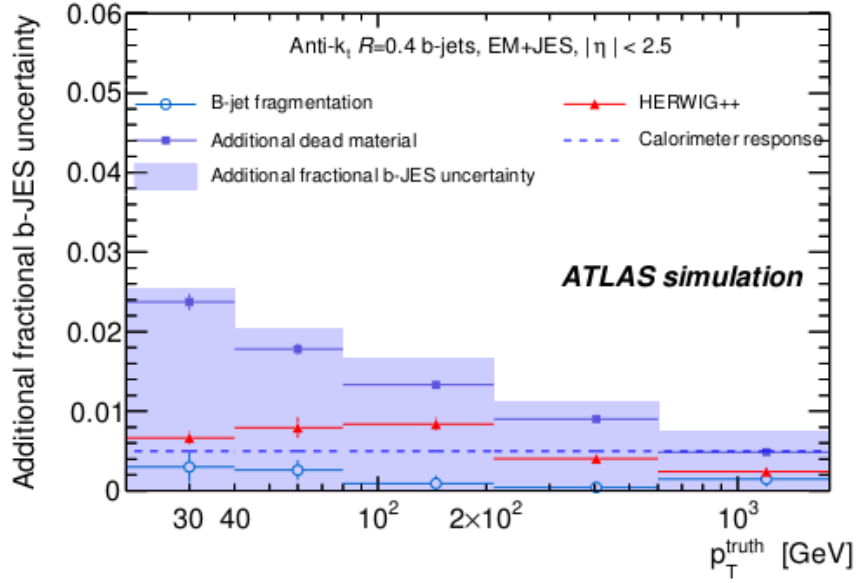


Figure 1.2: Additional fractional  $b$ -jet JES uncertainty as a function of the truth jet transverse momentum for anti- $k_t$  jets with  $R = 0.4$  calibrated with the EM+JES scheme for  $|\eta| < 2.5$ . Shown are systematic Monte Carlo variations using different modelling of the  $b$ -quark fragmentation and physics effects as well as variations in the detector geometry and the uncertainty in the calorimeter response to  $b$ -jets as evaluated from single hadron response measurements. Uncertainties in the individual points are statistical only.

recognition and a global  $\chi^2$  minimization procedure is implemented as a default.

In the track-finding stage, track seeds are found in the first three pixel layers and in the first SCT layer. These are extended throughout the SCT to form track candidates and a first track fit is performed. Afterwards, ambiguities in the track candidates found in the silicon detectors are resolved, and tracks are extended into the TRT (which covers up to  $|\eta| < 2.$ , while Pixel and SCT cover up to 2.5). The final track candidate is refitted with the full information from the three tracking subdetectors. The baseline algorithm is designed for the efficient reconstruction of primary charged particles. Primary particles are defined as particles with a meanlife of greater than  $3 \times 10^{-11}$  s directly produced in a proton-proton interaction, or from the subsequent decays or interactions of particles with lifetime shorter than  $3 \times 10^{-11}$  s. The tracks reconstructed in this stage are required to have  $p_T > 400$  MeV.

In a complementary stage, a track search starts from segments reconstructed in the TRT and extends them inwards by adding silicon hits, which is referred to as “back-tracking”. This recovers tracks for which the first hits in the pixel layers are missing, e.g. because they originate from secondaries, which are produced in decays or the interaction of primaries.

The final reconstructed track trajectory is usually specified at its closest point to the interaction region on the transverse plane by its impact parameters in the transverse plane and in the longitudinal direction, respectively called  $d_0$  and  $z_0$ <sup>3</sup>, and by its momentum, typically expressed in azimuthal angle  $\phi$ , polar angle  $\theta$  and inverse momentum  $1/p$ .

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<sup>3</sup>Strictly speaking the impact parameter is  $|z_0|\sin\theta$ , where  $\theta$  is the polar angle of the track.

The track reconstruction efficiency is defined as the fraction of primary particles with  $p_T > 400$  MeV and  $|\eta| < 2.5$  matched to a reconstructed track. The reconstruction efficiency for primary tracks with transverse momentum above 1 GeV and central  $\eta$  is above 80%, going down to values below 70% for tracks at the edge of the Inner Detector acceptance [11]. The dense environment of a jet decreases the track reconstruction efficiency and increases the fake rate. This is caused by the occurrence of shared hits between different tracks, which makes the pattern recognition and track fitting tasks more difficult.

The relative transverse momentum scale and resolution of tracks is defined as the Gaussian mean and width of

$$p_T^{MC} \times (1/p_T^{MC} - 1/p_T^{reco}) = 1 - \frac{p_T^{MC}}{p_T^{reco}} \quad (1.3)$$

where  $p_T^{MC}$  ( $p_T^{reco}$ ), refers to the track's transverse momentum given by simulation truth (MC) or by reconstruction (reco). It should be noted that the  $(1/p_T)$  resolution is used instead of  $\sigma(p_T)$  as the Inner Detector measures the sagitta and not directly the transverse momentum<sup>4</sup>. However, the resolution obtained from the equation above is the relative transverse momentum resolution,  $\sigma(p_T)/p_T$ . At low  $p_T$  the multiple scattering dominates the resolution, and at high momenta, the resolution is limited by the bending power of the solenoid field and by the intrinsic detector resolution. For a central track with  $p_T = 5$  GeV the transverse momentum resolution is around 75 MeV and the transverse impact parameter resolution is about 35  $\mu\text{m}$ .

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<sup>4</sup>The relation between sagitta  $s$  and transverse momentum ( $p_T$ ) is given by  $s \sim 1/p_T$ .

### 1.3 Vertex reconstruction

Primary vertices are reconstructed using an iterative vertex finding algorithm [12]. In a first step, a dedicated vertex finding algorithm associates tracks to vertex candidates. Vertex seeds are obtained by looking for the global maximum in the distribution of the  $z$  coordinates of the tracks. In a second stage, an iterative  $\chi^2$  fit is made using the seed and nearby tracks. Each track carries a weight which is a measure of its compatibility with the fitted vertex depending on the  $\chi^2$  of the fit. Tracks displaced by more than  $7\sigma$  from the vertex are used to seed a new vertex and the procedure is repeated until no additional vertices can be found. The parameters of the beam spot are used both during the finding to preselect compatible tracks and during the fitting step to constrain the vertex fit.

The knowledge of the position of the primary interaction point (primary vertex) of the proton-proton collision is important for  $b$ -quark jets identification since it defines the reference point with respect to which impact parameters and vertex displacements are measured. The typical vertexing resolution in  $z$  is  $\mathcal{O}(100\mu\text{m})$ .

To ensure a good resolution on the vertex position, the primary vertex must be reconstructed from at least five tracks. The choice of the primary vertex is less trivial in the presence of minimum-bias events from pile-up: the primary vertex from a pile-up event may be mistakenly used as the signal vertex, or a fake primary vertex built from tracks from two different vertices may be reconstructed. The current strategy is to choose the primary vertex candidate that maximizes  $\sum_{\text{tracks}} p_T^2$ .

## 1.4 $b$ -jet Tagging

The ability to identify jets originating from *bottom*-quarks (denoted as  $b$ -tagging in the following) is important for the high- $p_T$  physics program of a general-purpose experiment at the LHC such as ATLAS since many interesting physics processes contain  $b$ -quarks in the final state, while the most abundant backgrounds contain mostly up, down and strange quark or gluon jets or, in a smaller fraction of cases, charm quark jets. The aim of  $b$ -tagging is therefore to identify the  $b$ -quark jets with high efficiency, while rejecting most of the background contamination from jets originating from the fragmentation of light ( $u$ ,  $d$ , and  $s$ ) quarks, gluons and  $c$ -quarks.

A  $b$ -quark, once produced, fragments necessarily into a  $b$ -flavoured hadron,  $b$ -hadron in the following. In most of the cases ( $\approx 87\%$ ), first an excited  $b$ -hadron is produced, like a  $B^*$  or a  $B^{**}$ , which decays immediately, strongly or electromagnetically, into a ground state  $b$ -hadron plus one or more further particles; while in the remaining cases, a ground state  $b$ -hadron is produced directly. One is only interested in the transition from a  $b$ -quark into the final state  $b$ -hadron, since the typical timescale for electromagnetic or strong interactions is so small that the  $B^*$ ,  $B^{**}$  decay vertices are not significantly displaced with respect to the primary vertex. In most of the cases ( $\approx 91\%$ ) a  $b$ -meson is produced out of the fragmentation of an original  $b$ -quark (40%  $B^+$ , 40%  $B^0$  and 11%  $B_s^0$ ). The rest are  $b$ -baryons.

Due to the  $b$ -quark fragmentation function being very hard, most of the original  $b$ -quark energy is transmitted to the final  $b$ -hadron. This fraction is for example 70% for  $b$ -quarks with a momentum of  $\approx 45$  GeV. This property can be exploited during  $b$ -tagging, since the fragmentation for light quarks into light hadrons or  $c$ -quarks into  $c$ -hadrons is softer.

Any of the finally produced  $b$ -hadrons decay through weak interactions

and therefore have a significant lifetime, which is on average, for all  $b$ -hadrons considered,  $(1.568 \pm 0.009) \times 10^{-12}$  s. The effective distance travelled in the detector by the  $b$ -hadron before decaying depends on the  $b$ -hadron momentum, which enters the relativistic boost factor  $\beta\gamma$ . A  $b$ -quark with momentum of 50 GeV will travel around 3 mm, which is a visible flight length in the detector. Due to the combination of the  $b$ -hadron lifetime and relatively high mass ( $m_B \approx 5.28$  GeV), which results in a non-negligible decay angle of the  $b$ -hadron decay products with respect to the  $b$ -hadron flight direction, the charged particles produced at the decay vertex will be on average significantly displaced with respect to the primary vertex position.

This is the main signature which is exploited by the *lifetime* based  $b$ -tagging algorithms, which depend either on the presence of significantly displaced tracks, as in impact parameter based  $b$ -tagging algorithms, or on the explicit reconstruction of the  $b$ -hadron decay vertex, as in secondary vertex based  $b$ -tagging algorithms.

$b$ -hadrons decay preferably into a  $c$ -hadron plus additional particles<sup>5</sup>. The lifetime of a  $c$ -hadron is not much lower than for  $b$ -hadrons, but in general the momentum of the  $c$ -hadron will be lower than the original  $b$ -hadron momentum. However, the  $c$ -hadron can still travel for a significant path in the detector and form with its decay products a visible *tertiary* vertex.

Another property which is usually exploited by  $b$ -tagging is the fraction of  $b$ - and  $c$ -hadron decays into leptons: a lepton from the semi-leptonic decay of a  $b$ -hadron ( $b \rightarrow l$ ) or from the subsequent  $c$ -hadron decay ( $b \rightarrow c \rightarrow l$ ) is produced in  $\approx 21\%$  of the cases. This is valid both in case the lepton is an electron or a muon, which brings the overall fraction of  $b$ -quarks ending up into final state containing a lepton to  $\approx 42\%$ . Due to the  $b$ - or  $c$ -hadron

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<sup>5</sup>Weak decays are governed by the CKM matrix mechanism, and  $|V_{cb}|^2 \gg |V_{ub}|^2$ .

mass, the lepton will be emitted with an average transverse momentum comparable with  $m_{b-had}$  or  $m_{c-had}$ . By identifying either an electron or a muon originating from a jet and by requiring it to have sufficiently high  $p_T$  with respect to the jet axis, it is possible to identify  $b$ -jets.

### Association of tracks to jets

The  $b$ -tagging performance relies critically on the accurate reconstruction of the charged tracks in the ATLAS Inner Detector. The actual tagging is performed on the sub-set of tracks in the event that are associated to jets. The  $b$ -tagging algorithm takes as input the three-momenta of the jets, reconstructed by a jet algorithm, and uses the jet direction to associate the charged particles tracks to the jet. Since the 2 Tesla solenoidal magnetic field of the ATLAS Inner Detector bends charged particles in the transverse plane, in particular in the case of low  $p_T$  tracks, the tracks are best matched to the jet by using the direction of their momenta at the point of closest approach to the interaction region. The criterion for associating charged particle tracks to jets is simply:

$$\Delta R(jet, track) < \Delta R_{cut} \quad (1.4)$$

where usually the value of  $\Delta R_{cut} = R$  is used; with  $R$ , the distance parameter of the jet algorithm used for jet reconstruction.

After the tracks are associated to the jets, they are filtered in order to remove tracks with bad quality or which can easily be erroneously identified as secondary tracks from  $b$ -decays. These include tracks originating from decays of even longer lived particles, like  $K_s^0$  ( $c\tau \approx 2.69$  cm) and  $\Lambda$  baryons ( $c\tau \approx 7.89$  cm); from electromagnetic interactions in the detector material, like conversions in electron-positron pairs ( $\gamma \rightarrow e^+e^-$ ); or from hadronic interactions with the detector material, which result in two or more tracks

with high impact parameter. In order to reject badly reconstructed tracks, quality cuts are applied. Requirements are imposed on the number of silicon hits, the track fit quality, the track momentum, and the transverse and longitudinal impact parameters. The track selection needs to be particularly tight in the case of the impact parameter based  $b$ -tagging algorithms, since in that case the explicit presence of a vertex is not required, so that the influence of badly reconstructed tracks or tracks from long lived particles does directly limit the performance. The minimum track  $p_T$  required is of 1 GeV in the case of the impact parameter based algorithms and of 400-500 MeV otherwise. The transverse and longitudinal impact parameters must fulfill  $|d_0| < 1$  mm (3.5 mm) and  $|z_0| \sin \theta < 1.5$  mm (no cut on  $z_0$ ) in the case of the algorithms relying on the impact parameters of tracks (on the reconstruction of secondary vertices). The minimum number of precision hits required is typically 7, for both approaches.

#### 1.4.1 $b$ -tagging algorithms

For the 2011 data-taking a set of lifetime taggers were commissioned and calibrated. In this section a brief description of the main features of these algorithms will be given.

##### Impact parameter based $b$ -tagging algorithms

The charged particle tracks originating from  $b$ -hadrons are expected to have significantly higher transverse and longitudinal impact parameters compared to prompt tracks originating directly from fragmentation. If the effect of long lived particles, conversions and hadronic interactions can be reduced, the best discrimination between prompt tracks and displaced tracks from  $b$ - and  $c$ -hadron decays can be obtained using the impact parameter significance,



both in the transverse and longitudinal plane, with

$$IP_{r\phi} = d_0 \text{ and } IP_z = z_0 \sin \theta, \quad (1.5)$$

the transverse and longitudinal impact parameter significances are obtained by dividing  $IP_{r\phi}$  and  $IP_z$  by their respective errors,

$$IP_{r\phi}/\sigma(IP_{r\phi}) \text{ and } IP_z/\sigma(IP_z). \quad (1.6)$$

On the basis that the decay point of the  $b$ -hadron must lie along its flight path, and in order to increase the discriminating power of the impact parameter significance, a lifetime sign is assigned to these variables (replacing the sign of the geometrical definition of the impact parameter). The sign is positive if the track extrapolation crosses the jet direction in front of the primary vertex (i.e. is more compatible with having its origin in a secondary decay vertex in the direction of flight expected for the  $b$ -hadron) or negative if the track is more likely to intersect the flight axis behind the primary vertex, opposite to the jet direction. Both cases are illustrated in Fig. 1.3.

The lifetime sign can be defined in three-dimensions, according to the variables  $\vec{p}_{Tjet}$ ,  $\vec{p}_{Ttrk}$  and  $\vec{\Delta r}_{IP} = \vec{r}_{IP} = \vec{r}_{PV}$ , the three-dimensional impact parameter of the track with respect to the primary vertex:

$$\text{sign}_{3D} = \text{sign}([\vec{p}_{trk} \times \vec{p}_{jet}] \cdot [\vec{p}_{trk} \times \vec{\Delta r}_{IP}]). \quad (1.7)$$

The computation of the lifetime sign assumes that the jet direction reproduces, up to a good approximation, the  $b$ -hadron direction. Under this assumption and up to resolution effects both on the jet direction and on the impact parameter and momentum of the track, the lifetime sign of tracks originating from  $b$ -hadron decays is positive.

The lifetime sign can also be defined on the transverse plane ( $x - y$ ) or on the longitudinal plane ( $r\phi - z$ ) by considering respectively the transverse

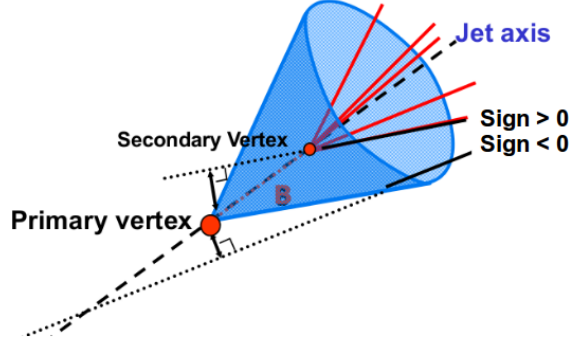


Figure 1.3: Lifetime sign of tracks. A positive and a negative lifetime signed track is shown.

and longitudinal impact parameters (the projections of the three-dimensional impact parameter on the respective planes):

$$\text{sign}_{r\phi} = \text{sign}(\sin(\phi_{jet} - \phi_{trk}) \cdot d_{0,trk}); \text{ and } \text{sign}_z = \text{sign}((\eta_{jet} - \eta_{trk}) \cdot z_{0,trk}). \quad (1.8)$$

The definition for  $\text{sign}_{r\phi}$  compared to  $\text{sign}_{3D}$  shields to a more positive shifted distribution for tracks from  $b$ -hadron decays, and thus potentially a better performance. This result is a bit surprising and seems to indicate that, since the lifetime sign is not taking into account the different errors on the longitudinal and transverse impact parameters, the longitudinal component of the lifetime sign is diluting the information from the transverse component. Distributions of the signed transverse impact parameter and signed transverse impact parameter significance for light,  $c$ -, and  $b$ -jets, are shown in Fig. 1.4 for experimental data and for simulation; the sign is defined by “ $\text{sign}_{r\phi}$ ”. Tracks from the fragmentation in light-jets tend to have a signed impact parameter distribution which is symmetric around 0, since they have no correlation with

the jet direction. Tracks from  $b$ - and  $c$ -hadron decays, as expected, have an asymmetric distribution, with the most significant contribution at positive significances; however a negative tail extending beyond the pure fragmentation contribution is also seen, corresponding to resolution effects and to an eventual mismatch between the  $b$ -jet and the  $b$ -hadron directions.

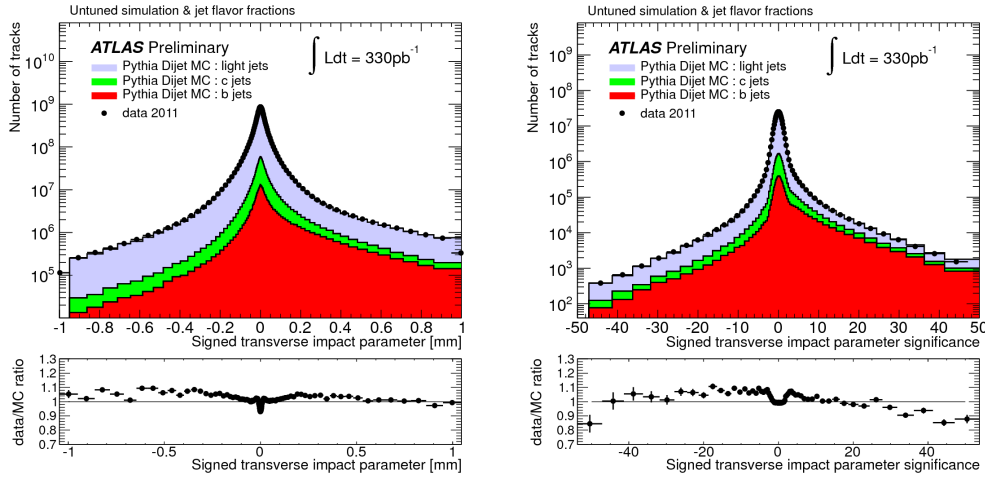


Figure 1.4: Distribution of the signed transverse impact parameter (left) and signed transverse impact parameter significance with respect to primary vertex for tracks associated to jets, for experimental data (solid black points) and for simulated data (filled histograms for the various flavors). The ratio data over simulation is shown at the bottom of the plot.

The significance, which gives more weight to tracks measured precisely, is the main ingredient of the tagging algorithms based on impact parameters. Now, the impact parameter significance of all  $N$  tracks associated to the jet to tag need to be combined into a single discriminating variable. It is assumed that tracks are uncorrelated, so their probability density functions (PDF), defined based on the transverse and/or longitudinal impact parameter significance distributions for the different hypothesis, are uniquely defined

as a function of the jet flavour. Using a likelihood function defined according to the product of these PDFs, under the hypothesis of uncorrelated tracks, the following likelihood ratio provides the optimal separation, according to Neyman-Person lemma [13]:

$$\text{LR}(IP_1, IP_2, \dots, IP_N) = \frac{\prod_{i=1}^N \text{PDF}_b(IP_i)}{\prod_{i=1}^N \text{PDF}_l(IP_i)} \quad (1.9)$$

For convention, the discriminant variable used for  $b$ -tagging is then defined as:

$$\text{weight}(IP_1, IP_2, \dots, IP_N) = \log(\text{LR}(IP_1, IP_2, \dots, IP_N)) \quad (1.10)$$

Using such a formalism, two impact parameter based  $b$ -tagging algorithms are constructed, based on the definition of  $\text{PDF}(IP_i)$ :

1. IP2D:  $\text{PDF}(IP_i) = \text{PDF}(IP_{i,r\phi})$
2. IP3D:  $\text{PDF}(IP_i) = \text{PDF}(IP_{i,r\phi}, IP_{i,z})$

In the first case the track PDF is one-dimensional, based on the transverse impact parameter significance. In the second case the PDF is based on a two-dimensional histogram of the transverse and longitudinal impact parameter significance.

The **IP3D** is one of the high-performance tagging algorithms supported for the 2011 data-taking, in which input variables are compared to pre-defined smooth Monte Carlo PDFs for both  $b$ -jet and light jet hypotheses [14]. Prior to the use of these advanced tagger, a simpler tagging algorithm, the **Jet-Prob**, combining the impact parameter significances of all tracks associated to the jet was devised to be used for early data, being extensively used during 2010 [15].

The impact parameter based algorithm permits to obtain a very good  $b$ -tagging performance, as will be shown at the end of this chapter. This

performance can be improved by using some information from the secondary vertex based algorithms in two aspects: tracks associated to long lived particle vertices can be removed from the tracks considered for the impact parameter based algorithms; and, the direction between the secondary and the primary vertex positions can be used to improve the reliability of the lifetime sign, substituting  $\vec{p}_{jet}$  with  $\vec{r}_{SV} - \vec{r}_{PV}$ . The latter improves significantly the estimation of the  $b$ -hadron direction. Both kinds of information improve the performance of the impact parameter based  $b$ -tagging algorithms.

### Secondary vertex based $b$ -tagging algorithms

The typical topology of particle decays in a  $b$ -jet is a decay chain with two vertices, one stemming from the  $b$ -hadron decay and at least one from  $c$ -hadron decays. The reconstruction of these secondary vertices is done in an inclusive way, where the number of charged particle tracks originating from the  $b$ - and  $c$ -hadron decays is not known a-priori. An exclusive reconstruction of the huge number of different possible  $b$ -decay modes cannot be performed, the set of selection cuts needed to reconstruct all of them would severely limit the reconstruction efficiency.

Two strategies to detect a secondary decay vertex in  $b$ -jets are available in ATLAS. The first one is based on the fit of a single geometrical vertex. Even if this hypothesis is not correct, this approximation works well for a large fraction of cases. The second algorithm is based on a kinematic approach, which assumes that the primary event vertex and the  $b$ - and the  $c$ -hadron decay vertices lie approximately on the same line, the flight path of the  $b$ -hadron.

The inclusive fit of a single displaced vertex in  $b$ -jets is based on the VKalVrt [16] reconstruction package. The main idea of the algorithm is to

maximise the  $b/c$ -hadron vertex detection efficiency, keeping at the same time the probability to find a vertex inside a light jet low.

The algorithm begins with all tracks associated to the jet and passing a loose cut selection. The vertex search starts with looking for all track pairs and trying to form a two-track vertex. Each track of the pair must have a three-dimensional impact parameter significance with respect to the primary vertex larger than  $2\sigma$  and the sum of these two significances must be larger than  $6\sigma$ . To reduce the influence of badly measured tracks, the two-tracks vertices are required to be produced in the direction of flight of the  $b$ -quark, by requiring the scalar product of  $(\vec{r}_{2-track} - \vec{r}_{PV}) \cdot \vec{p}_{jet}$  to be positive. Charged particles coming from long lived particles and conversions are not considered. All the tracks corresponding to the accepted two-track vertices are used to determine a single secondary vertex. If the resulting vertex has a very small vertex probability, the track with the highest contribution to the vertex  $\chi^2$  is removed and the vertex fit is repeated until the  $\chi^2$  of the fit is good. The result of this procedure is the (eventual) presence of a vertex, its position, and the list of associated tracks.

The **SV1** secondary vertex algorithm uses this procedure to reconstruct inclusive secondary vertices. This advanced tagger takes advantage of three of the reconstructed vertex properties: the invariant mass of all tracks associated to the vertex, the ratio of the sum of the energies of the tracks in the vertex to the sum of the energies of all tracks in the jet, and the number of two-track vertices. These variables are combined using a likelihood ratio technique. SV1 relies on a two-dimensional distribution of the two first variables and a one-dimensional distribution of the number of two-track vertices. In addition the distance  $\Delta R$  between the jet axis and the line joining the primary vertex to the secondary one is used.

The three-dimensional decay length significance alone, signed with respect to the jet direction can be used as a discriminating variable between  $b$ -jets and light jets: this is the principle of the early data **SV0** tagger, extensively used as well with the 2010 and 2011 data [17].

As opposed to the algorithm described above, in which the displaced tracks are selected and an inclusive single vertex is obtained, a second algorithm, called **JetFitter**, is based on a different hypothesis. It assumes that the  $b$ - and the  $c$ -hadron decay vertices lie on the same line defined through the  $b$ -hadron flight path. All charged particle tracks stemming from either decay intersect this  $b$ -hadron flight axis. This method has the advantage of reconstructing incomplete topologies, with, for instance, a single track from the  $b$ -hadron and a single track from the  $c$ -hadron decay. The fit in this case evaluates the compatibility of the given set of tracks with a  $b$ - $c$ -hadron like cascade topology, increasing the discrimination power against light quark jets. The transversal displacement of the  $c$ -hadron decay vertex with respect to the  $b$ -hadron flight path is small enough not to violate significantly the basic assumption within the typical resolutions of the tracking detector. The discrimination between  $b$ -,  $c$ - and light jets is based on a likelihood using similar variables as in the SV1 tagging algorithm above, and additional variables such as the flight length significances of the vertices.

### **Algorithm combinations and performance**

The IP3D and SV1 tagging algorithms both use the likelihood ratio method, and due to this they can be easily combined: the weights of the individual tagging algorithms are simply summed up.

The combination of the JetFitter and the IP3D algorithms can be performed using an artificial neural network technique with Monte Carlo sim-

ulated training samples and additional variables describing the topology of the decay chain.

Figure 1.5 compares the performance for the various ATLAS  $b$ -tagging algorithms described in a simulated sample of  $t\bar{t}$  events. It can be seen that by combining the vertexing techniques and the impact parameter information, the IP3D+SV1 and IP3D+JetFitter algorithms can reach very high tagging efficiencies.

The performance of a  $b$ -tagging algorithm is usually measured in terms of the *light-jet rejection* obtained for a given  *$b$ -jet tagging efficiency*. Curves are obtained by varying continuously the *operating point* of each tagger, i.e. the cut on its output discriminating variable (weight). The  $b$ -jet tagging efficiency,  $\epsilon_b$ , is the fraction of jets labeled as  $b$ -jets that are properly tagged while the light-jet rejection, defined as  $1/\epsilon_{light}$ , is the reciprocal of the fraction of jets that are labeled as light jets and are actually incorrectly tagged by the algorithm.

The labeling procedure used for  $b$ -tagging is based on the flavor of true quarks: a jet is labeled as a  $b$ -quark jet if a  $b$ -quark is found in a cone of size  $\Delta R = 0.3$  around the jet direction. The various labeling hypotheses are tried in this order:  $b$  quark,  $c$  quark and  $\tau$  lepton. When none of these hypotheses are satisfied, the jet is labeled as a light jet. No attempt is made to distinguish light jets originating from gluons from those originating from quarks at this stage.

### The MV1 tagging algorithm

The **MV1**  $b$ -tagging algorithm is a combined algorithm based on a neural network using the output weights of the IP3D and SV1 algorithms and the JetFitter+IP3D combination as input. Being the best performing algorithm



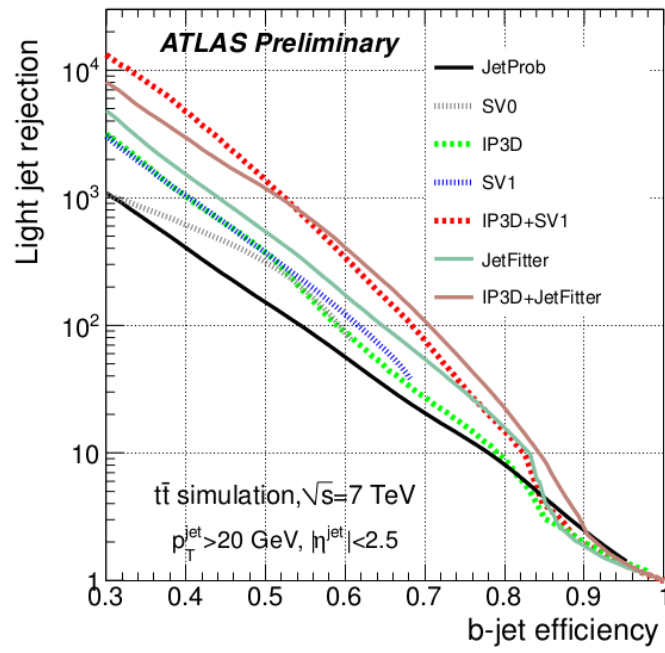


Figure 1.5: Light-jet rejection as a function of the  $b$ -jet tagging efficiency for the early tagging algorithms (JetProb and SV0) and for the high-performance algorithms, based on simulated  $t\bar{t}$  events.

(better light rejection for a given signal efficiency) it is the recommended tagger for 2011 and 2012 analyses. This is the  $b$ -tagging algorithm used in this thesis.

### 1.4.2 $b$ -tagging calibration

In order for  $b$ -tagging to be used in physics analyses, the efficiency with which a jet originating from a  $b$ -quark is tagged needs to be measured in data. Moreover, an appropriate description of the  $b$ -tagging efficiencies based on measurements with data is essential for correctly modelling the measurements in Monte Carlo simulation. A second necessary piece of information is the probability of mistakenly tagging a jet originating from a light-flavour ( $u$ -,  $d$ -,  $s$ -quark or gluon) jet as a  $b$ -jet, referred to as the mistag rate. The  $b$ -tagging “calibration” includes both the measurement of the mis-tag rates and  $b$ -tagging efficiency.

The measurements of the  $b$ -tag efficiency and mistag rate are provided in the form of jet  $p_T$ - and  $\eta$ -dependent scale factors that correct the  $b$ -tagging performance in simulation to that observed in data. The scale factors are defined as the ratio of the  $b$ -tag efficiency or mistag rate in data and simulation:

$$\kappa_{\epsilon_b}^{data/sim} = \frac{\epsilon_b^{data}}{\epsilon_b^{sim}}, \quad \kappa_{\epsilon_l}^{data/sim} = \frac{\epsilon_l^{data}}{\epsilon_l^{sim}}, \quad (1.11)$$

where  $\epsilon_b^{sim}$  and  $\epsilon_l^{sim}$  are the fractions of  $b$ - and light-flavour jets which are tagged in simulated events, with the jet flavour defined by matching to generator level partons as defined in the previous section.

In physics analyses, these  $p_T$ -dependent scale factors are then applied as weights to the jets in Monte Carlo simulation, to reproduce the  $b$ -tagging performance in data.

The main  $b$ -tagging efficiency calibration methods, the so called *system8* and  $p_{Trel}$  methods, are described in detail in ref [18]. These measurements are

based on a sample of jets with muons inside, where the muons are serving as a reference  $b$ -tagging algorithm to obtain a  $b$ -jet sample on which the calibrations can be performed. At the LHC, the large  $t\bar{t}$  production cross section of  $\sigma_{t\bar{t}} = 177 \pm 3(\text{stat.}) \pm 7(\text{lum.}) \pm 7(\text{syst.}) \pm 7(\text{lum.})$  pb [19] offers an alternative source of events enriched in  $b$ -jets. Calibrations using samples of  $t\bar{t}$  events have been obtained for SV0, IP3D+SV1, JetFitter and MV1  $b$ -tagging algorithms [20]. All these algorithms provide an output weight  $w$ , discriminating between  $b$ -jets and non- $b$ -jets. Lower values of  $w$  are assigned to  $c$ - and light-flavour jets, whereas the purity of  $b$ -jets increases with  $w$ . For each  $b$ -tagging algorithm a set of operating points, corresponding to a certain  $w$  cut value, are defined and calibrated:

- SV0:  $\epsilon_b^{\text{sim}} = 50\%$
- IP3D+SV1:  $\epsilon_b^{\text{sim}} = 60\%$ ,  $\epsilon_b^{\text{sim}} = 70\%$ ,  $\epsilon_b^{\text{sim}} = 80\%$
- JetFitter:  $\epsilon_b^{\text{sim}} = 57\%$ ,  $\epsilon_b^{\text{sim}} = 60\%$ ,  $\epsilon_b^{\text{sim}} = 70\%$ ,  $\epsilon_b^{\text{sim}} = 80\%$
- MV1:  $\epsilon_b^{\text{sim}} = 60\%$ ,  $\epsilon_b^{\text{sim}} = 70\%$ ,  $\epsilon_b^{\text{sim}} = 75\%$ ,  $\epsilon_b^{\text{sim}} = 85\%$

where  $\epsilon_b^{\text{sim}}$  is the nominal  $b$ -tagging efficiency derived from an inclusive sample of simulated  $t\bar{t}$  events.

The mistag rate is measured in data using two methods, both based on an inclusive sample of jets, referred to as the *negativetag* and *sv0mass* methods [21]. The first method uses the invariant mass spectrum of tracks associated with reconstructed secondary vertices to separate light and heavy-flavour jets, and the other is based on the rate at which secondary vertices with negative decay length, or tracks with negative impact parameter, are present in the data.

Currently, there is no explicit measurement of the  $c$ -tag efficiency available in ATLAS. As both the  $b$ - and  $c$ -tag efficiencies are dominated by decays of long-lived heavy flavour hadrons, they are expected to show a similar behaviour. In general, for physics analyses, it is thus assumed that the scale factor is the same for  $b$ - and  $c$ -jets. However, to take into account possible deviations from this assumption, the systematic uncertainty for the  $c$ -tag efficiency scale factor is inflated by a factor of two, which is considered to be a conservative choice based on simulation studies. In the future, the  $c$ -tag efficiency is expected to be measured in dedicated analyses.

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