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Chapter 1

The Higgs Bosons and the MSSM

This chapter is devoted to introduce the theoretical background to the experimental search presented in this thesis. A brief overview of the Standard Model of particle physics is given in Section 1.1 based on Reference [1]. Among all the extension of the Standard Model, the Minimal Supersymmetric extension of the Standard Model (MSSM) is a theoretically favoured scenario as one of the most predictive framework beyond the Standard Model. The MSSM is introduced in Section 1.2 with focus on its Higgs sector, based on References [2, 3]. Finally, a review of the MSSM Higgs bosons phenomenological aspects which are relevant to the presented search is given in Section 1.3, based on Reference [4].

1.1 The Standard Model of Particle Physics

1.1.1 Introduction

A detailed description of the Standard Model of particle physics may be found in Reference [6], only a brief overview is given in what follows.

The Standard Model (SM) of particle physics is a theory aimed to describe and quantitatively predict the phenomenology of fundamental interactions. At “microscopic” level the spectrum of all interactions between matter and radiation can be understood in terms of three classes of fundamental forces: the strong, the electromagnetic and the weak forces. These interactions are described by a local relativistic quantum field theory, where to each particle is associated a field with suitable transformation properties under the Lorentz group. The theory is based on the principle of gauge invariance, which means invariance under a symmetry transformations that operates on basic internal degrees of freedom and depends on the space-time coordinate. The gravitational force is negligible in atomic and nuclear physics, in fact, quantum effects of gravity are expected at energies corresponding to the Planck mass $E \sim M_{\text{planck}}c^2 \sim 10^{19}$ GeV.

The SM is a gauge field theory based on the symmetry group $SU(3)_c \otimes SU(2)_L \otimes U(1)_Y$. The group has $8 + 3 + 1 = 12$ generators with a non trivial commutator algebra. The electromagnetic and weak interactions [7–9] are described by the $SU(2)_L \otimes U(1)_Y$ symmetry group, while the $SU(3)_c$ is the colour group of the theory of strong interactions (QCD) [10]. To each generator of the symmetry group is associated a vector boson which act as mediator of the corresponding interactions. Eight gluons are associated to the $SU(3)_c$ colour generators, while four gauge bosons W^\pm , Z^0 and γ are associated to the generators of $SU(2)_L \otimes U(1)_Y$. Only the gluons and the photon are massless since the symmetry induced by the other three generators is spontaneously broken. In the SM the spontaneous symmetry breaking is realised by the Higgs mechanism [11–15]. The Higgs boson acts as mediator of a new class of interactions that, at tree level, are coupled in proportion to the particle masses. An Higgs boson with properties that resemble the one of the SM has recently been discovered at the LHC with $m_H \sim 126$ GeV [16, 17].

The fermionic matter fields of the SM are quarks and leptons. Quarks are subject to all SM interactions, each type of quark is a colour triplet and carries electroweak charges, in particular electric charges $+2/3$ for up-type quarks and $-1/3$ for down-type quarks. Leptons are colourless but have electroweak charges, in particular electric charge -1 for charged leptons e , μ and τ (opposite sign charge is intended for respective anti-particle) and charge 0 for neutrinos ν_e , ν_μ and ν_τ . Quarks and leptons are grouped in three “generations” with equal quantum numbers but different masses.

1.1.2 Precision Test and Limitation of the SM

The Standard Model has been successfully tested in a vast number of experiments over a wide range of energies during the last few decades. Precision tests of the electroweak theory performed at LEP, SLC and the Tevatron [20], has confirmed that the couplings of quark and leptons to the weak gauge bosons W^\pm and Z are

indeed precisely those prescribed by the gauge symmetry. The accuracy of a few per-mille for these tests implies that, not only the tree level, but also the structure of quantum corrections has been verified. Several other experimental results [19] including rare decays of hadrons provides low-energies test of the Standard Model. The recent discovery of a Higgs boson is also another success of the SM, its mass, spin and couplings are in agreement with expected values from a global fit of electroweak constraints [21].

Among all the parameters of the Standard Model only few of them presents tension with experimental data, the most significant discrepancies are slightly above three standard deviations and are given by: the anomalous magnetic moment of the muon [22], a_μ and the forward-backward asymmetry of top quarks [23], $A_{FB}^{t\bar{t}}$.

In spite of this success, the Standard Model is conceptually unsatisfactory for quite few deficiencies and is widely believed to be an effective theory valid only at the present accessible energies. Beside the fact that it does not include gravitational force, it does not explain the pattern of fermion masses and in its simplest version does not include neutrino masses, it has at least other three conceptual problems which indicates the need for physics Beyond the Standard Model (BSM):

Hierarchy Problem Calculating the radiative correction to the Higgs boson mass, quadratic divergences occur of the order of the cut-off scale Λ , where Λ defines the energy beyond which the theory ceases to be valid and new physics should appear [24]. If the cut-off is chosen to be $\sim M_{Planck}$, then a fine tuning with an unnaturally high precision, $\mathcal{O}(10^{-30})$, should occur to cancel these divergences leaving the Higgs boson with a mass of the order of the electroweak breaking scale, M_{EW} . A question that has no satisfactory answer in the SM is how these cancellations can occur and why $\Lambda \gg M_{EW}$, these problems are called the fine-tuning and hierarchy problem [25–27].

Dark Matter The SM does not have a candidate which can explain the large contribution of non-barionic, non-luminous matter to the density of the Universe [28–30]. To be a Dark Matter candidate a particle should be stable, massive and should interact only via very weak interactions.

Unification Problem Another unsatisfactory aspect of the SM is that does not provide the unification of the electroweak and strong interactions, their couplings do not meet at high energies. Considering the successful unification of electromagnetic and weak interaction, the existence of Grand Unified Theory (GUT) has been suggested [31, 32], which predicts the unification of all the three gauge coupling strength at the GUT energy scale, $\Lambda_{GUT} \simeq 10^{16}$ GeV and describes the three forces within a single gauge group with just one coupling constant.

Among all the extension of the SM, Supersymmetry is a theoretically favoured scenario as the most predictive framework beyond the Standard Model. As discussed in Section 1.2, it gives a natural answer to the hierarchy problem, provides a suitable candidate for Dark Matter and predicts unification of the three gauge couplings at GUT energy scale.

1.2 The Minimal Supersymmetric Standard Model

1.2.1 Introduction to the MSSM

Supersymmetry (SUSY) [33–35] was first introduced as a natural way to solve the hierarchy problem. In Supersymmetry a new symmetry that relates bosons to fermions is introduced. The SUSY generators Q transforms fermion into bosons and vice versa:

$$Q|\text{Fermion}\rangle = |\text{Boson}\rangle, \quad Q|\text{Boson}\rangle = |\text{Fermion}\rangle \quad (1.1)$$

In a supersymmetric extension of the SM each of the known fundamental particles is in either a chiral or gauge *supermultiplet* and must have a superpartner with spin differing by 1/2 unit. SUSY naturally solve the hierarchy problem since the quadratic divergent loop contribution to the Higgs mass of the SM particles are cancelled by the loop contribution of the corresponding superpartners. The name of the superpartner of the quarks and leptons are made by adding an “s” to the SM name, standing for scalar. Accordingly, the gauge bosons related to the generator of the group $SU(3)_c \otimes SU(2)_L \otimes U(1)_Y$ should also have a spin 1/2 partner, whose name will be made by adding a “ino” at the end of the SM name. The symbol of superpartners is defined by adding a ($\tilde{}$) to the SM symbol. The SUSY particles share the same couplings with their SM partner, since the left-handed and right-handed components of fermions transform differently under gauge transformations also their superpartner present this feature.

The Minimal Supersymmetric extension of the Standard Model (MSSM) [36–41], is defined by requiring the minimal gauge group (i.e., the SM one) and the minimal particle content: three generation of fermions (without right-handed neutrinos), gauge bosons and two Higgs doublet, each with its own superpartner. Tables 1.1 and 1.2 summarise chiral and gauge supermultiplets in the MSSM. Among the gauge eigenstates summarised in these tables, the superpartner of the Higgs bosons, the *higgsinos* mix with the *wino* and *bino* to give the “ino” mass eigenstates: two charginos $\chi_{1,2}^\pm$ and four neutralinos $\chi_{1,2,3,4}^0$.

R-parity conservation

The MSSM requires a discrete and multiplicative symmetry called *R*-parity [35], this symmetry assures baryon and lepton number conservation and it is defined as follows:

$$R_p = (-1)^{2s+3B=L} \quad (1.2)$$

where L and B are lepton and baryon numbers and s stands for the spin quantum number. The *R*-parity quantum number has value +1 for ordinary SM particles and −1 for their superpartners. This symmetry was first introduced as a simple way to overcome the problem of instability of the proton. Lepton and baryon number violation leads, in many cases, to unstable proton with life-time shorter than the experimental lower limit. The conservation of *R*-parity has also other important phenomenological consequences: SUSY particles are always produced in pairs and decays always in an odd number of SUSY particles. Furthermore, the lightest SUSY

Names	Supermultiplets	Spin 1/2	Spin 0
quark, squarks ($\times 3$ families)	Q	$(u_L \ d_L)$	$(\tilde{u}_L \ \tilde{d}_L)$
	\bar{u}	u_R^\dagger	\tilde{u}_R^*
	\bar{d}	d_R^\dagger	\tilde{d}_R^*
leptons, sleptons ($\times 3$ families)	L	$(\nu \ e_L)$	$(\tilde{\nu} \ \tilde{e}_L)$
	\bar{e}	e_R^\dagger	\tilde{e}_R^*
higgsinos, Higgs	H_1	$(\tilde{H}_1^0 \ \tilde{H}_1^-)$	$(H_1^0 \ H_1^-)$
	H_1	$(\tilde{H}_2^+ \ \tilde{H}_2^0)$	$(H_2^+ \ H_2^0)$

Table 1.1: This table is based on Reference [2] and summarise the chiral supermultiplets in the Minimal Supersymmetric Standard Model. The spin-0 fields are complex scalars and the spin-1/2 are left-handed two-component Weyl fermions.

Names	Supermultiplets	Spin 1	Spin 1/2
gluons, gluinos	G_a (a=1,...,8)	g	\tilde{g}
W bosons, winos	W_a (a=1,...,3)	$W^\pm \ W^0$	$\tilde{W}^\pm \ \tilde{W}^0$
B boson, bino	B	B^0	\tilde{B}^0

Table 1.2: This table is based on Reference [2] and summarise the gauge supermultiplets in the Minimal Supersymmetric Standard Model.

particle, often chosen as one of the neutralinos, is stable and provides a suitable candidate for dark matter.

The Soft SUSY Breaking

In case Supersymmetry is an exact symmetry of nature, the SM particles and their relative superpartners should have the same mass and quantum numbers except for the spin. However, the particle spectrum of SUSY has not yet been observed, suggesting that, if these particles exist, they should have an higher mass than their SM superpartners. To achieve SUSY-breaking in a way which does not reintroduce the quadratic divergences to the Higgs mass squared, a so called “soft-SUSY-breaking” term is introduced to the SUSY Lagrangian [42, 43]. This term explicitly break SUSY introducing the mass terms for Higgs, gauginos and sfermions, as well as trilinear coupling terms between sfermions and Higgs bosons. In general, if intergenerational mixing and complex phases are allowed, the soft-SUSY-breaking terms will introduce a huge number of unknown parameters $\mathcal{O}(100)$ [44]. However, in absence of phases and mixing, and if the soft terms obey a set of boundary conditions [42, 43], only few new parameters are introduced $\mathcal{O}(10)$.

1.2.2 The Higgs Sector in the MSSM

In the MSSM two doublets of complex scalar field of opposite hypercharge are required to break the electroweak symmetry, this requirement is necessary to generate masses separately for isospin up-type fermion and down-type fermions [34, 45, 46] and to cancel chiral anomalies that otherwise would spoil the renormalizability of the theory [47]. The two Higgs doublet are:

$$H_1 = \begin{pmatrix} H_1^0 \\ H_1^- \end{pmatrix} \text{ with } Y_{H_1} = -1, \quad H_2 = \begin{pmatrix} H_2^+ \\ H_2^0 \end{pmatrix} \text{ with } Y_{H_2} = +1 \quad (1.3)$$

In analogy with the SM, a similar Higgs mechanism is employed in the MSSM [36, 48] requiring that the minimum of the Higgs potential breaks $SU(2)_L \otimes U(1)_Y$ group while preserving the electromagnetic symmetry $U(1)_Q$. The neutral components of the two Higgs field acquire vacuum expectation values:

$$\langle H_1^0 \rangle = \frac{v_1}{\sqrt{2}}, \quad \langle H_2^0 \rangle = \frac{v_2}{\sqrt{2}} \quad (1.4)$$

Three of the original eight degrees of freedom of the scalar fields are absorbed by the W^\pm and Z bosons, which acquire their longitudinal polarisations and masses. The remaining degrees of freedom correspond to five scalar Higgs bosons: two CP-even and neutral h and H , a neutral CP-odd boson A and a pair of charged bosons H^\pm . Six parameters describes the MSSM Higgs sector: M_h , M_H , M_A , M_{H^\pm} , β and α , where the latter represents the mixing angle in the neutral CP-even sector, while $\tan \beta$ is equal to the ratio between the two vacuum expectation values $\tan \beta = v_1/v_2$. At tree level, only two of these parameters are actually independent, a common choice is to keep $\tan \beta$ and M_A as free the parameters of the Higgs sector. At tree level, the supersymmetric structure of the theory impose a strong hierarchical

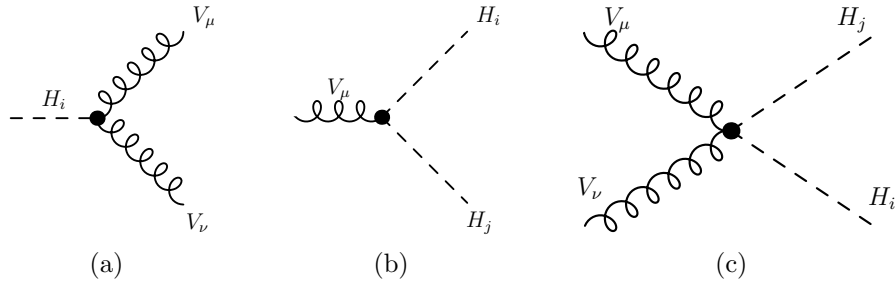


Figure 1.1: Feynman diagrams for the couplings between one Higgs boson and two gauge bosons (a), two Higgs bosons and one gauge boson (b) and two Higgs bosons and two gauge bosons (c). Based on [3].

structure on the Higgs bosons mass spectrum: the h boson is the lightest with $M_h < M_Z$, while $M_A < M_H$ and $M_{H^\pm}^2 = M_A^2 M_W^2$. Furthermore, the following relation holds between the mixing angles:

$$\cos^2(\beta - \alpha) = \frac{M_h^2(M_Z^2 - M_h^2)}{M_A^2(M_H^2 - M_h^2)} \quad (1.5)$$

These relations are broken by large radiative corrections to the Higgs bosons masses [49], which cause the constraint on the mass of h to move from the tree level value of M_Z to $M_h \lesssim 140$ GeV. Another restriction, coming from GUT assumptions gives $1 \lesssim \tan \beta \lesssim m_t/m_b$ [50].

1.3 Neutral Higgs Bosons Phenomenology in the MSSM

1.3.1 MSSM Higgs Couplings with SM Particles

The phenomenology of the MSSM Higgs bosons depends on their couplings with standard model and supersymmetric particles, a short overview of the former, based on the Reference [3], is given in this section.

The possible couplings between MSSM Higgs bosons and vector bosons are: the three-linear couplings $V_\mu V_\nu H_i$ among one Higgs boson and two gauge bosons and $V_\mu H_i H_j$ among one gauge boson and two Higgs bosons, as well as the couplings between two Higgs bosons and two gauge bosons $V_\mu V_\nu H_i H_j$. Figure 1.3.1 shows the Feynman diagram relative to these couplings. Among all of them, the most relevant for MSSM Higgs phenomenology are the trilinear couplings between two gauge bosons and one Higgs boson $V_\mu V_\nu H_i$. For this case, since the photon is massless, there are no Higgs- $\gamma\gamma$ and Higgs- $Z\gamma$ couplings at tree level. CP-invariance also forbids WWA , ZZA and WZH^\pm couplings. Then, for the $V_\mu V_\nu H_i$ couplings, only the following possibilities remains:

$$Z_\mu Z_\nu h : ig_Z M_Z \sin(\beta - \alpha) g_{\mu\nu}, \quad Z_\mu Z_\nu H : ig_Z M_Z \cos(\beta - \alpha) g_{\mu\nu} \quad (1.6)$$

$$W_\mu^+ W_\nu^- h : ig_W M_W \sin(\beta - \alpha) g_{\mu\nu}, \quad W_\mu^+ W_\nu^- H : ig_W M_W \cos(\beta - \alpha) g_{\mu\nu} \quad (1.7)$$

The couplings of the neutral CP-even Higgs bosons h and H with pair of vector bosons are proportional to $\sin(\beta - \alpha)$ and $\cos(\beta - \alpha)$ respectively, where $\cos(\beta - \alpha)$ is fixed at tree level following equation (1.5). An interesting phenomenological consequence is that, calling G_{VVh} and G_{VVH} the coupling between two generic vector bosons and one of the neutral CP-even Higgs bosons the following equation holds:

$$G_{VVh}^2 + G_{VVH}^2 = g_{VVH_{SM}}^2 \quad (1.8)$$

The equations (1.7) and (1.8) leads to the fact that the couplings with vector bosons for h (H) increase (decrease) with $\tan \beta$. For relatively large value of $\tan \beta$, h has SM-like couplings with vector bosons while H decouple from them. For an overview of all the other couplings between vector bosons and Higgs bosons, charged Higgs, trilinear and quartic coupling between Higgs bosons and couplings to SUSY particles refer to Reference [3].

The MSSM Higgs bosons couplings with isospin up-type u , and down-type d fermions also depend on $\tan \beta$ and may be written as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} G_{huu} &\propto m_u [\sin(\beta - \alpha) + \cot \beta \cos(\beta - \alpha)], & G_{hdd} &\propto m_u [\sin(\beta - \alpha) - \tan \beta \cos(\beta - \alpha)] \\ G_{Hu u} &\propto m_u [\cos(\beta - \alpha) - \cot \beta \sin(\beta - \alpha)], & G_{Hdd} &\propto m_d [\cos(\beta - \alpha) + \tan \beta \sin(\beta - \alpha)] \\ G_{Auu} &\propto m_u \cot \beta, & G_{Add} &\propto m_d \tan \beta \end{aligned}$$

The couplings with down-type (up-type) fermions of either the h or H boson is enhanced (suppressed) by a factor $\tan \beta$, depending on the magnitude of $\cos(\beta - \alpha)$ or $\sin(\beta - \alpha)$, while the coupling of A boson with down-type (up-type) fermions are directly enhanced (suppressed) by $\tan \beta$.

1.3.2 MSSM Higgs Benchmark Scenarios

At tree level, the MSSM Higgs bosons masses, decay branching fraction and production cross section are all determined by two parameters, by convention chosen to be M_A and $\tan \beta$. As it has been pointed out in Section 1.2.2, radiative corrections contribute significantly to the MSSM Higgs bosons masses and the prediction of physics observables becomes dependent on several MSSM parameters [49]. The main corrections arises from the top-stop (s)quark sector and for large $\tan \beta$ also the bottom-sbottom (s)quark sector becomes increasingly important. Furthermore, these corrections are dependent on the SUSY-breaking scale M_{SUSY} , the trilinear Higgs-stop, Higgs-sbottom Yukawa couplings, the electroweak gaugino and gluino mass parameters.

Due to the large number of free parameters, a complete scan of the MSSM parameter space is impractical in experimental analysis and phenomenological studies. To cope with this difficulty several benchmark scenarios has been proposed [4, 52], where the SUSY parameters entering via radiative corrections are fixed to particular benchmark values which exhibit interesting features of the MSSM Higgs phenomenology, while the parameters M_A and $\tan \beta$ are left free to vary. Usually results are presented in a $M_A - \tan \beta$ plane.

The m_h^{max} benchmark scenario [51] was used in the past searches for neutral MSSM Higgs bosons performed at LEP, Tevatron and LHC [64–67]. In this benchmark scenario the parameters that contributes to radiative corrections are fixed

such that the mass of the light CP-even Higgs boson, M_h , is maximal under the variation of M_A and $\tan\beta$. The m_h^{max} scenario allows to set conservative lower bounds on M_A , M_H^\pm and $\tan\beta$ [52]. However, given the recent discovery of a Higgs boson with mass ~ 126 GeV, this scenario tend to predict a too high mass for M_h , resulting to be, for large regions of the MSSM parameter space, inconsistent with this observation. This scenario is still currently used in the presented analysis since it offer the possibility to compare results with past experiments.

Recently, several benchmark scenarios has been updated [4] to accommodate the experimental constraints on past neutral MSSM Higgs searches and the observation of a SM-like Higgs boson. An interesting updated benchmark scenario is the m_h^{mod} scenario, which has the feature to predict $M_h \simeq 125.5 \pm 3$ GeV for large region of MSSM parameter space. The m_h^{mod} scenario configuration is obtained by reducing the amount of mixing in the stop sector with respect to the m_h^{max} scenario. This can be done for both signs of the MSSM parameter that regulate the stop mixing X_t , giving rise to two complementary scenarios m_h^{mod+} and m_h^{mod-} . The difference between these two scenarios is found to be negligible for experimental searches, the m_h^{mod+} benchmark scenario has been used throughout this thesis as reference scenario.

Other interesting benchmark scenario are the light stop scenario and the light stau scenario. The first may lead to relevant modification of the gluon fusion production cross section, while the second leads to modification of the di-photon decay branching fraction of the light CP-even MSSM Higgs boson. For an overview of other relevant benchmark scenarios refer to Reference [4].

1.3.3 Neutral MSSM Higgs Bosons Production and Decay at LHC

For large region of the MSSM parameter space a SM-like Higgs boson is expected, this role is commonly played by the lightest CP-even Higgs boson, h . Given the Higgs bosons couplings discussed in Section 1.3.1 turns out that the MSSM Higgs bosons H and A tend to be degenerate in mass and decouple from gauge bosons. Furthermore the coupling of the latter two Higgs bosons with down (up) type fermions are enhanced (suppressed) by $\tan\beta$, therefore, for large $\tan\beta$ bottom-quark and τ lepton will play an important role for the Higgs bosons production and its decays.

The production of the neutral CP-even MSSM Higgs bosons at hadron colliders proceeds via the same processes as for the SM Higgs production. The pseudoscalar A , instead, cannot be produced in association with gauge bosons or in vector boson fusion (VBF) processes at tree-level, as this coupling is forbidden due to CP-invariance. At the LHC one of the most relevant production mechanisms for the MSSM Higgs bosons is gluon fusion, $gg \rightarrow A/H/h$. In addition, the production in association with b -quarks becomes important for large value of $\tan\beta$. These are the only two production mechanism that are considered in the presented analysis. Figure 1.2 shows the Feynman-diagram for these processes, while Figure 1.3 shows the production cross section of the neutral MSSM Higgs bosons via these two processes in the m_h^{max} scenario.

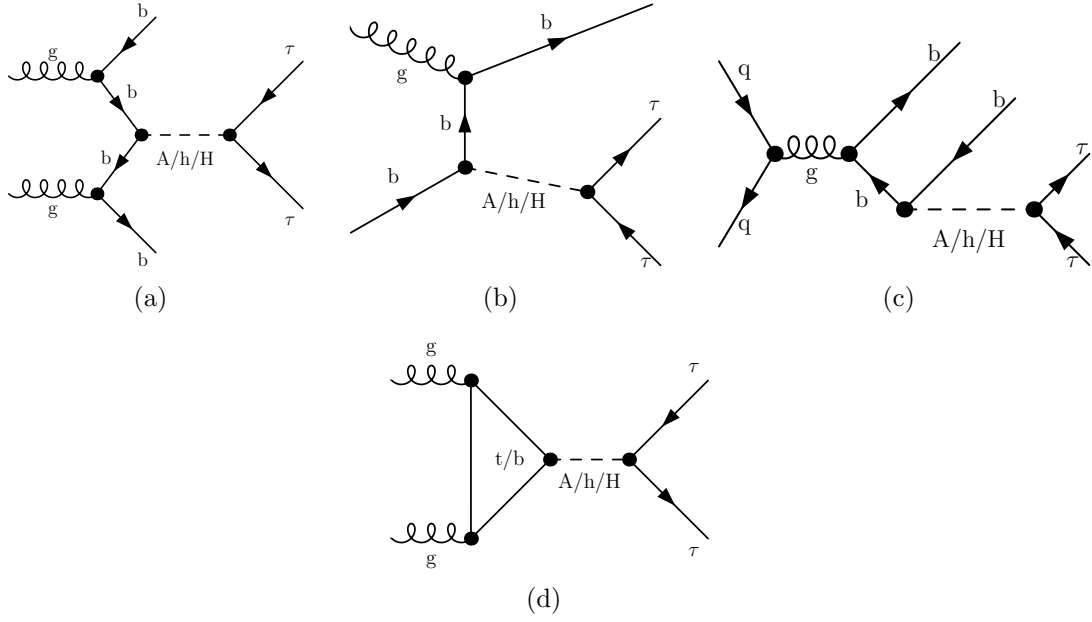


Figure 1.2: Feynman diagram for the production of the neutral MSSM Higgs bosons in association with b -quarks (a,b,c) and via gluon fusion (d) processes, subsequent decay in tau lepton pairs is considered.

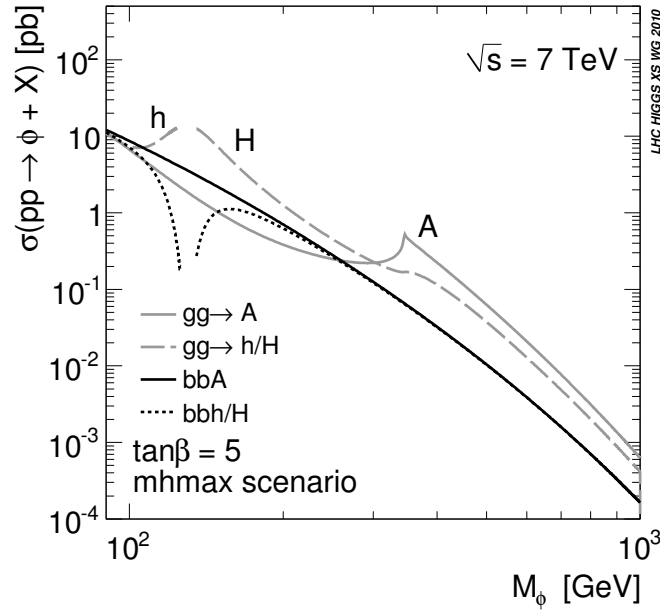
The decays of the neutral MSSM Higgs bosons (in the assumption that all supersymmetric particle are heavy enough) are the same as for the SM one with the already cited exception of A . Figure 1.3 shows the decay branching fractions in the m_h^{mod+} scenario for h , H and A as a function of the mass of A for two values of $\tan \beta$. The decay into tau lepton pairs is the most important after $b\bar{b}$ and the one used in this thesis.

1.3.4 Current Status of the Search for Neutral MSSM Higgs Bosons

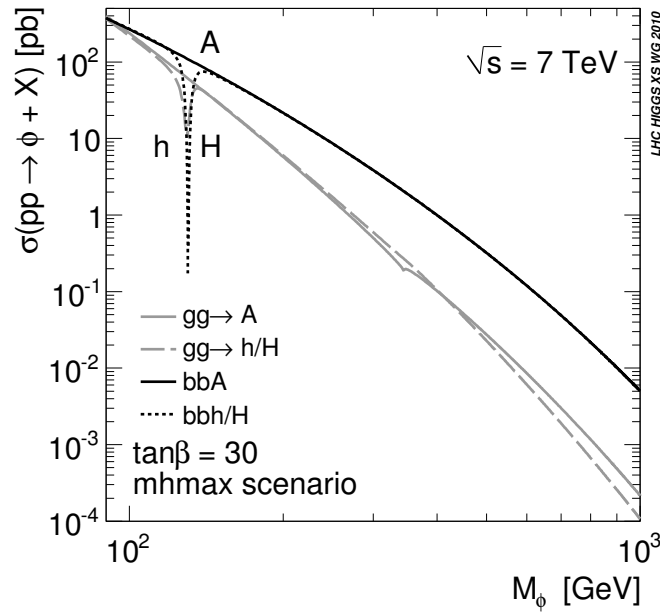
The measure of the couplings of the observed SM-like Higgs boson can shed light on the Higgs sector and determine if this boson is fully responsible for the generation of all the SM particles masses. There are two approaches to explore the Higgs sector: one, is to use the measured Higgs couplings with SM particles to set constraint on new physics, while the other is to directly search for additional Higgs bosons in a well defined model.

In case the SM-like Higgs boson is interpreted as the light CP-even Higgs boson of the MSSM, the couplings of the Higgs boson to vector bosons (k_V), up-type fermions (k_u) and down-type fermions (k_d), can be expressed as a function of m_A and $\tan \beta$ and this allow to set exclusion limits in the $m_A - \tan \beta$ plane [53]. Figure 1.5 shows the exclusion limits in a “simplified MSSM” model [54, 55] via fits to the measured rates of Higgs boson production and decay.

The current latest constraint on $m_A - \tan \beta$ by direct search of neutral MSSM Higgs bosons [] are shown in Figure 1.6 and are part of the work of this thesis.



(a)



(b)

Figure 1.3: Central predictions for the total MSSM Higgs bosons production cross sections via gluon fusion and Higgs radiation off bottom quarks for $\sqrt{s} = 7$ TeV using NNLO and NLO MSTW2008 PDFs m_h^{max} scenario; (a) $\tan\beta = 5$, (b) $\tan\beta = 30$. Reference [5].

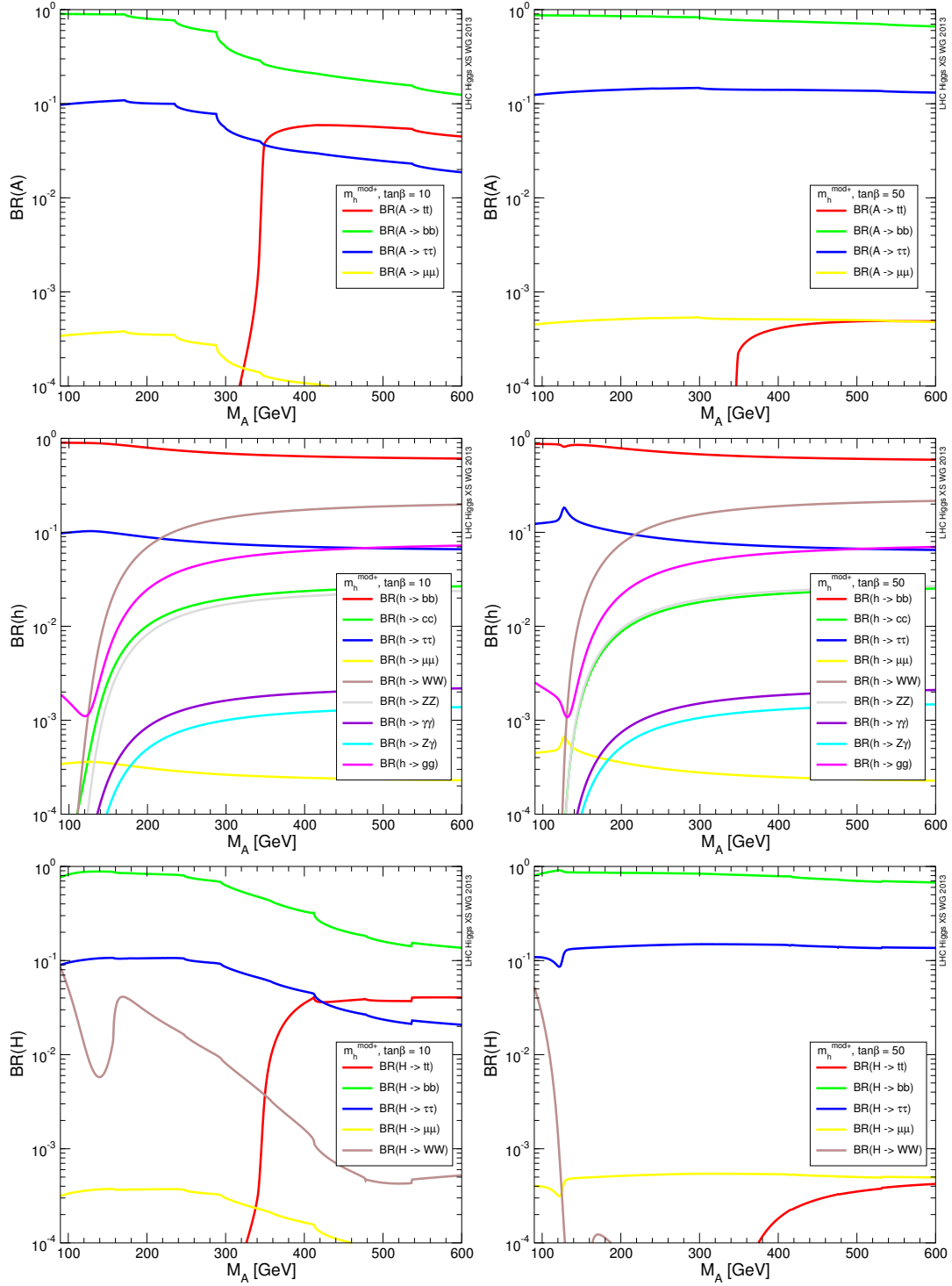


Figure 1.4: Branching fraction for the MSSM neutral Higgs bosons, $h/H/A$, in the m_h^{mod+} scenario for $\tan\beta = 10$ and $\tan\beta = 50$. Reference [4].

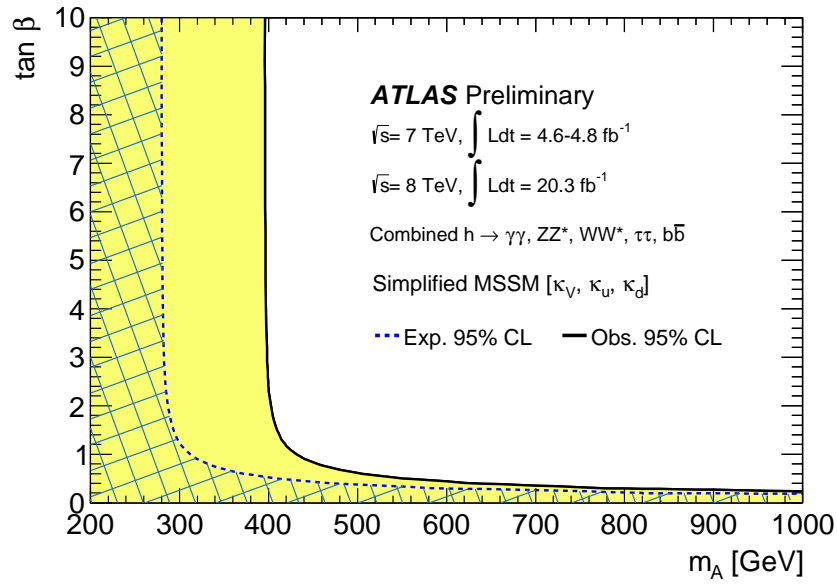


Figure 1.5: Regions of the $m_A - \tan \beta$ plane excluded in a simplified MSSM model via fits to the measured rates of Higgs boson production and decays. The likelihood contours where $2 \ln \Lambda = 6.0$, corresponding approximately to 95% CL (2σ), are indicated for the data and expectation assuming the SM Higgs sector. The light shaded and hashed regions indicate the observed and expected exclusions, respectively. The SM decoupling limit is $m_A \rightarrow \infty$. See Reference [53].



Figure 1.6: Limit CMS or ATLAS depending if we manage to publish in time

Chapter 2

The ATLAS Detector at the LHC

The Large Hadron Collider (LHC) located at the European Organization for Nuclear Research (CERN) is the largest particle collider facility in the world. The ATLAS experiment is one of the several experiment situated at the LHC, it is a general-purpose detector dedicated to explore a wide range of physics topics, from precision measurements of known Standard Model processes to the search for physics beyond the Standard Model. Proton-proton collision data recorded by the ATLAS experiment has been used in this thesis for the search for the neutral MSSM Higgs bosons.

This chapter is organised as follows: the design and performance of the LHC are summarised in Section 2.1 (based on Reference [56]), while a description of the ATLAS detector is given in Section 2.2 (based on Reference [57]).

2.1 The Large Hadron Collider

The LHC is a superconducting hadron synchrotron collider. It is installed in the tunnel of the former LEP electron-positron collider and has ~ 27 km circumference. LHC is designed to collide proton beams with a centre-of-mass energy of 14 TeV and an unprecedented luminosity of $10^{34} \text{ cm}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$. It can also collide heavy ions (lead) with an energy of 2.8 TeV per nucleon and a peak luminosity of $10^{27} \text{ cm}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$.

The LHC provides proton-proton collision for several experiments, the most relevant for the physics program are the ATLAS, CMS [59], LHCb [60] and ALICE [61] experiments. Figure 2.1 shows the layout of the CERN accelerator complex, the protons follows several acceleration steps before injection in the LHC machine. First a linac accelerator (*Linac 2*) accelerates the protons to an energy of 50 MeV, then they are injected in the *booster* which accelerates them further to 1.4 GeV. The energy is increased to 25 GeV and successively to 450 GeV by means of two synchrotron accelerators, the *Proton Synchrotron* (PS) and the *Super Proton Synchrotron* (SPS). Finally, two proton beams are injected with opposite direction into the LHC where they reach their final energy.

The LHC beams are constituted by bunches of protons which are housed in two separate vacuum pipes. Radiofrequency cavities are employed to accelerate the protons, while superconducting magnets bends and focuses the bunches. The LHC is designed to accelerate up to 2835 bunches per beam, each of them containing $\sim 10^{11}$ protons. The nominal bunch spacing allows collision every 25 ns representing a real challenge for any read-out electronics.

In 2010, fist collisions took place at the LHC between proton beams of energy of 3.5 TeV. The LHC was successfully in operation during years 2011 and 2012, beam of protons were initially delivered with energies of 3.5 TeV which was increased to 4 TeV in 2012. Peak luminosities of about $4 \times 10^{33} \text{ cm}^{-2}\text{s}^{-2}$ and $8 \times 10^{33} \text{ cm}^{-2}\text{s}^{-2}$ have been reached during years 2011 and 2012 respectively. The ATLAS experiment recorded in fully operational conditions an integrated luminosity of 4.57 fb^{-1} during year 2011, while an integrated luminosity of 20.3 fb^{-1} was recorded during year 2012. Data recorderd during these two years led to one of the major milestone in particle physics, the discovery in 2012 of a Higgs boson.

2.2 The ATLAS Detector

The ATLAS detector is a multi-purpose detector which aim to explore a wide range of physics topics. The physics programme of the ATLAS experiment ranges from precision measurements of known Standard Model processes to the search for physics beyond the Standard Model in a large variety of scenarios. The ATLAS detector is designed to satisfy the tight requirements on particle identification and measurements accuracy imposed by the physics goals. A schematic view of the ATLAS detector is shown in Figure 2.2. ATLAS is 44 m long and 25 m high, it has a typical design for a collider experiments with a forward-backward symmetry with respect the interaction point. It consist of four sub-detector which are built cylindrically around the beam pipe, going from the inside to outside they are: an Inner Detector tracker, an electromagnetic calorimeter, an hadronic calorimeter and finally a muon

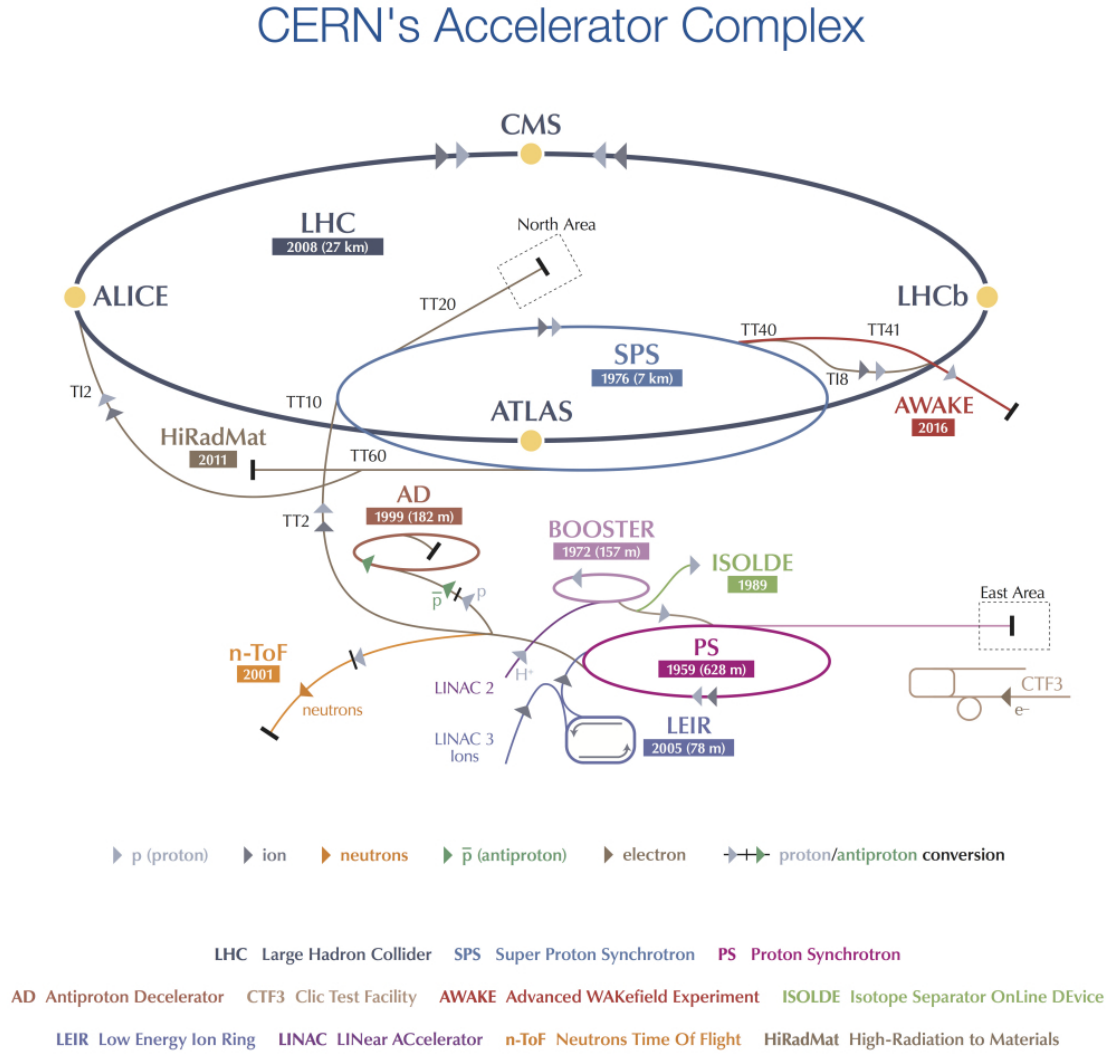


Figure 2.1: Illustration of the CERN accelerator complex [58]. The acceleration of protons starts with Linac2 followed by the acceleration in the Booster. The Proton Synchrotron (PS) and the Super Proton Synchrotron (SPS) accelerate further the protons before final injection into the LHC machine.

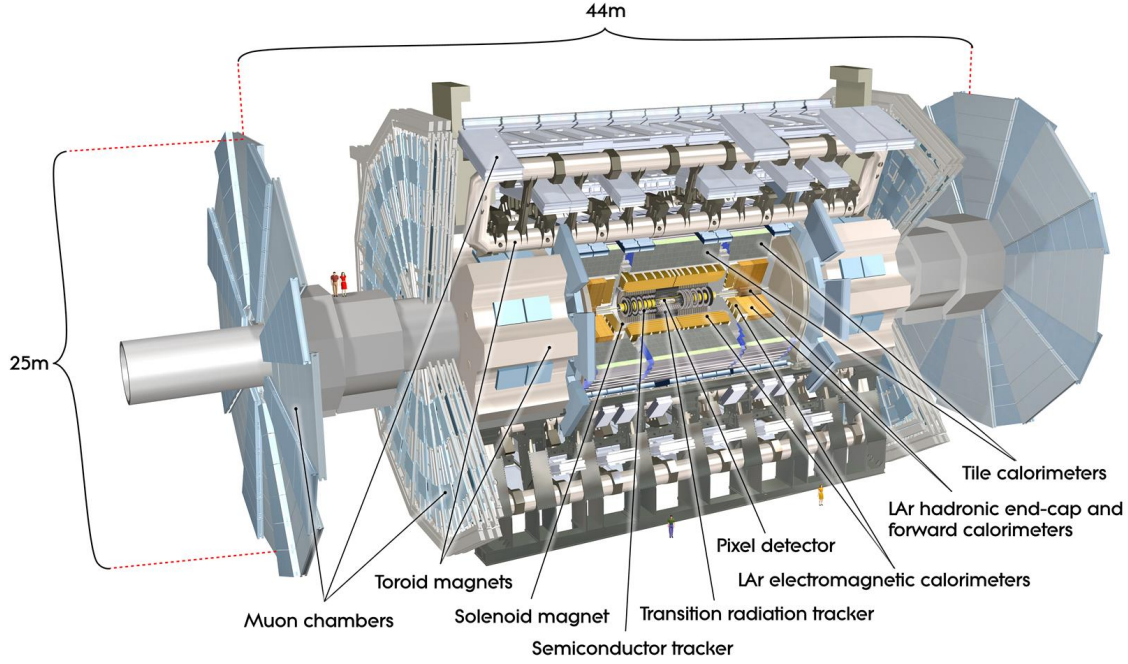


Figure 2.2: Cut-away view of the ATLAS detector with its sub-detectors system. Reference [57].

spectrometer surrounds the whole experiment. Each of these sub-detector is briefly described in what follows based on Reference [57].

2.2.1 The ATLAS coordinate system

The ATLAS coordinate system has its origin in the interaction region. The z -axis is pointing along the beam direction, the y -axis is pointing upwards and the x -axis towards the centre of the LHC ring. The angle ϕ is defined in the plane orthogonal to the beam axis, starting from the positive side of the x -axis. The angle θ is instead defined with respect to the z -axis. A commonly used spatial coordinate in experiments at collider is the rapidity y :

$$y = 1/2 \cdot \ln \left(\frac{E + p_z}{E - p_z} \right) \quad (2.1)$$

The difference in the rapidity of two particles is independent of Lorentz boosts along the beam axis. In the limit of β approaching to 1 or for massless particles the rapidity tend to the pseudorapidity η :

$$\eta = 1/2 \cdot \ln \left(\frac{\theta}{\frac{\theta}{2}} \right) \quad (2.2)$$

Given the symmetry of the ATLAS detector with respect to the interaction point, the detector is divided in two regions called *barrel* for $|\eta| \lesssim 1.5$ (depending on the

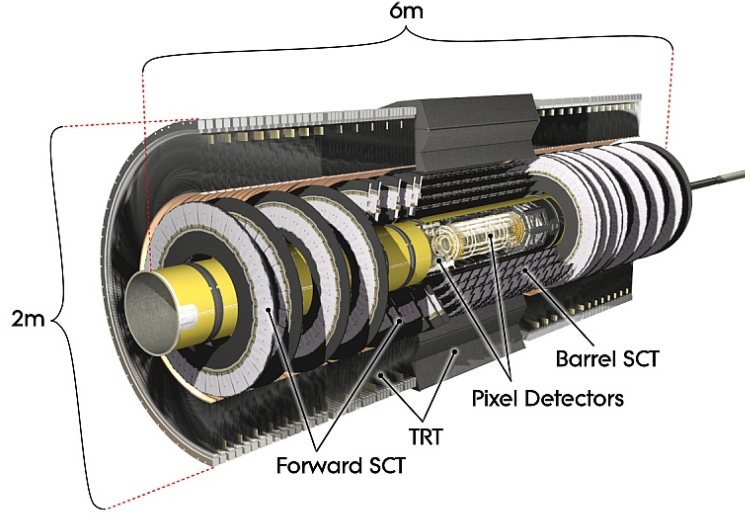


Figure 2.3: Cut-away view of the ATLAS Inner Detector tracker. Reference [57].

considered detector) and *endcap* for larger η . In ATLAS the angular separation between two particles is commonly measured by $\Delta R = \sqrt{\Delta\eta^2 + \Delta\phi^2}$.

2.2.2 The Inner Detector

The Inner Detector (ID) performs track reconstruction and momentum measurements of charged particles, it has a total length of 5.3 m and a diameter of 2.5 m . The momentum measurement is performed by measuring the tracks curvature in a 2 T magnetic field generated by a super-conducting solenoid. The layout of the Inner Detector is illustrated in Figure 2.3, it consist of three independent detector modules with fine granularity covering the region $|\eta| < 2.5$. The innermost of these detectors is the Pixel detector, which consist of three cylindrical layers of pixel silicon sensors in the barrel and three disks in the endcap region. The closest layer of pixels to the beam pipe is referred to as the B-layer. The spatial resolution of the pixel sensors is $10\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ in the transverse and $115\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ in the longitudinal direction with respect to the beam pipe.

The Semi-Conductor Tracker (SCT) surrounds the Pixel detector with four cylindrical layers of silicon microstrip sensor in the barrel and nine disks in the endcap region. The spatial resolution achieved by the SCT is of $17\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ in the transverse and $590\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ in the longitudinal direction respectively.

The outermost detector module is the Transition Radiation Tracker (TRT). It is composed of 4 mm diameter Kapton straw tubes with a tungsten wire in their centre. The tube is filled with a gas mixture which allows the detection of transition radiation photons. This detector can only measure position along the transverse direction.

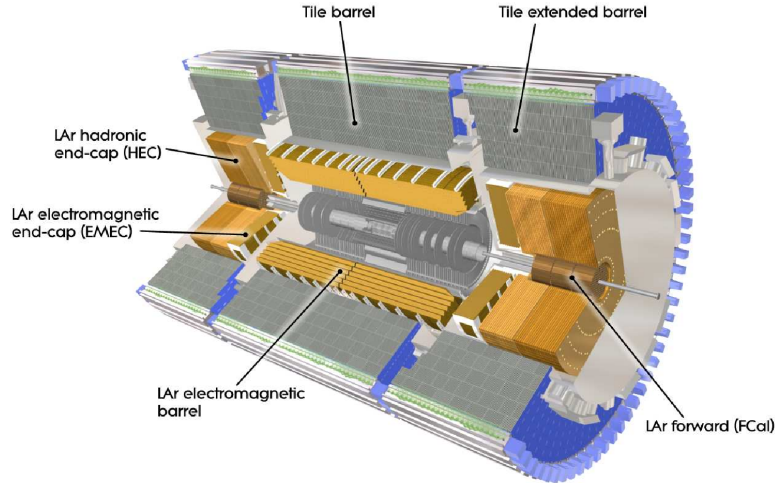


Figure 2.4: Cut-away view of the ATLAS calorimeter system. Reference [57].

2.2.3 The Calorimeter System

An illustration of the ATLAS calorimeter system is shown in Figure 2.4, it consists of an electromagnetic calorimeter (EM) surrounded by a hadronic calorimeter. These calorimeters cover the range $|\eta| < 4.9$ using different techniques suited to the widely varying radiation environment over this large η -range. Both these calorimeters are sampling calorimeters, they are built alternating active material which performs the detector response and a passive absorber. The total detector thickness at $\eta = 0$ is 9.7 interaction length.

The EM LAr calorimeter is ideally suited for precision measurements of electrons and photons. It uses lead as absorber material and liquid argon as active material. It extends up to $|\eta| < 3.2$.

The hadronic calorimeter has a coarser granularity with respect to the EM calorimeter and it is suited for jet reconstruction and missing transverse energy measurements. The hadronic calorimeter is divided into three sub-detectors which make use of different technology to cope with the changing radiation environment as a function of η . The Tile calorimeter covers region in pseudorapidity up to $|\eta| < 1.7$, it uses scintillating tiles as active material and steel as absorber. In the forward region ATLAS is instrumented with a LAr hadronic endcap calorimeter (HEC), which extends up to $|\eta| < 3.2$ and uses argon as active material and copper as absorber. The region in $3.1 < |\eta| < 4.9$ is instrumented instead with a liquid argon Forward CALorimeter (FCAL), which is divided into three modules, the closest to the interaction point uses copper as absorber material, while the other two use tungsten.

2.2.4 The Muon Spectrometer

The muon spectrometer is instrumented with separate high-precision tracking and trigger chambers. The measure of muon momenta is performed by reconstructing the track curvature in an intense magnetic field produced by the large supercon-

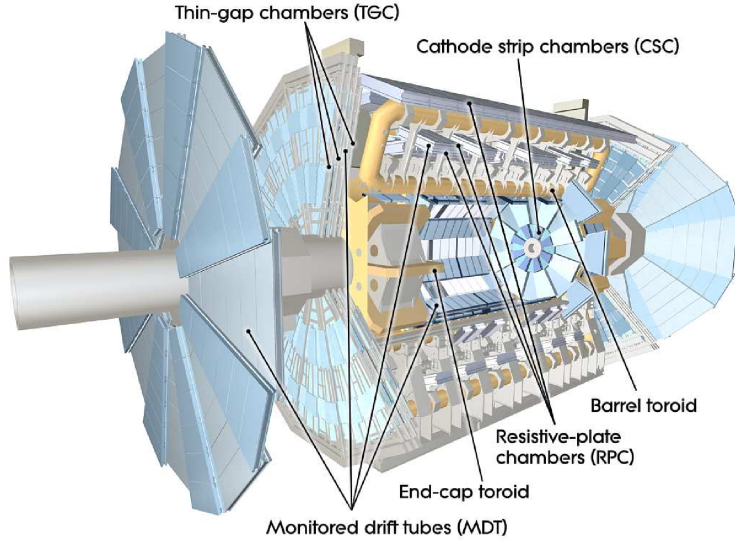


Figure 2.5: Cut-away view of the ATLAS muon spectrometer system. Reference [57].

ducting air-core toroid magnets. The layout of the muon spectrometer is shown in Figure 2.5.

Precision measurement of the track coordinates in the principal bending direction of the magnetic field is provided by Monitored Drift Tubes (MDTs) up to $|\eta| < 2.7$. Given the demanding rate and background conditions at large pseudorapidities, $2 < |\eta| < 2.7$, the innermost MDT layer is replaced by Cathode Strip Chambers (CSCs), which are multiwire proportional chambers with cathodes segmented into strips. Precise muon momentum measurement is achieved for muons with momenta up to 1 TeV. The best momentum resolution, 3-4%, is achieved for muons with transverse momenta ~ 100 GeV, while resolution of $\sim 10\%$ are reached for muons with momenta up to 1 TeV.

The trigger system covers the pseudorapidity range $|\eta| < 2.4$. Resistive Plate Chambers (RPCs) are used in the barrel and Thin Gap Chambers (TGCs) in the end-cap regions for the trigger information.

2.2.5 The Trigger System

The trigger system has three distinct levels: L1, L2, and the event filter (EF). Each trigger level refines the decisions made at the previous level and, where necessary, applies additional selection criteria.

The L1 trigger searches for high transverse-momentum muons, electrons, photons, jets, and τ leptons decaying into hadrons, as well as large missing and total transverse energy. Its selection is based on information from the set of detectors described previously. The L1 trigger defines in the interesting events one or more Regions-of-Interest (RoI), given by $\eta - \phi$ coordinates of interesting feature of the event.

The L2 selection is seeded by the RoI information provided by the L1 trigger, it uses the full granularity and precision of all the available detector data within the RoIs. The L2 triggers are designed to reduce the trigger rate to approximately 3.5 kHz.

The final stage of the event selection is carried out by the event filter, which reduces the event rate to roughly 200 Hz. Its selections are implemented using the offline analysis and reconstruction procedures described in Chapter ??.

2.2.6 Luminosity Measurement

A precise measurement of the recorded integrated luminosity is extremely important for all the physics measurements of the ATLAS physics program.

Several techniques are employed in ATLAS for the measure of the luminosity. The most relevant detectors that monitor the luminosity are the Inner Detector, the BMC and the LUCID detectors. For a detailed description of the ATLAS luminosity measurements and its performance see Reference [63]. The Inner Detector measures the luminosity by the average reconstructed proton-proton interaction per bunch crossing. The LUCID detector surrounds the beampipe on both sides of the interaction point at a distance of 17 m, providing with its Cherenkov detectors the measures of the particle flux from the interaction point in a very forward region. The BCM counts the number of collision per bunch crossing providing an independent luminosity estimate.

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