

Searching for beyond the Standard Model physics using direct and indirect methods at LHCb

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Abstract

It is known that the Standard Model of particle physics is incomplete in its description of nature at a fundamental level. For example, the Standard Model can neither incorporate dark matter nor explain the matter-dominated nature of the Universe. This thesis presents three analyses undertaken using data collected by the LHCb detector. Each analysis searches for indications of physics beyond the Standard Model in different decays of B mesons, using different techniques. Notably, two analyses look for indications of new physics using indirect methods, and one uses a direct approach.

The first analysis shows evidence for the rare decay $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi$ with greater than 3σ significance; this also constitutes the first evidence for a fully-hadronic annihilation-type decay of a B^+ meson. A measurement of the branching fraction of the decay $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi$ is seen to be higher than, but still compatible with, Standard Model predictions. The CP -asymmetry of the decay is also measured, and its value is precisely in line with the Standard Model expectations.

The second analysis claims the first observations of the decays $B^+ \rightarrow K^+ \pi^+ \pi^- \mu^+ \mu^-$ and $B^+ \rightarrow \phi K^+ \mu^+ \mu^-$ which are both flavour changing neutral currents, forbidden at leading order in the Standard Model. Branching fractions of both these decays are measured, and for the high statistics channel $B^+ \rightarrow K^+ \pi^+ \pi^- \mu^+ \mu^-$ the differential branching fraction, as a function of the invariant mass squared of the dimuon system, is also presented.

These first two analyses both constitute indirect searches for physics beyond the scope of the Standard Model, where the observables are sensitive to contributions from new physics entering at loop-level. In contrast, the third analysis presented in this thesis involves the direct search for a new dark boson, χ , which is a messenger particle between a dark sector and the Standard Model particles. Using a frequentist technique, the dimuon component of candidates of the decay $B^0 \rightarrow K^*(892)^0 \mu^+ \mu^-$ for an excess consistent with $\chi \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-$.

Chapter 2

The Standard Model and beyond

“Before beginning a Hunt, it is wise to ask someone what you are looking for before you begin looking for it.”

Winnie the Pooh, A.A. Milne

This thesis contains the work undertaken in three analyses; each of which concerns a different area of interest in high energy physics. The following chapter aims to motivate each analysis in turn after introducing the Standard Model of particle physics.

Firstly, the formulation of the SM will be outlined, with particular detail paid to the flavour sector. Various successes of the SM will then be discussed before going on to identify its shortcomings using arguments from both experiment and theory. These shortcomings will then be used to motivate the three analyses: a search for the decay $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi$ (Chap. 5); a search for the two related decays $B^+ \rightarrow K^+ \pi^+ \pi^- \mu^+ \mu^-$ and $B^+ \rightarrow \phi K^+ \mu^+ \mu^-$ (Chap. 6); a search for dark sector particles in $B^0 \rightarrow K^*(892)^0$ (Chap. 7). Theory specific to each of these analyses will be detailed in the relevant chapter.

2.1 The Standard Model

The behaviour of fundamental particles and forces are described by the SM of particle physics, which was concocted in the 1970s, when the Higgs mechanism was incorporated into Glashow’s electroweak theory by Salam and Weinberg. The theory prescribes a treatment as to how fundamental particles interact via three of the four fundamental forces, namely: the strong, weak and electromagnetic forces.

Mathematically, the SM is a locally gauge invariant quantum field theory. It inhabits a space-time with a global Poincaré symmetry that obeys a local $SU_C(3) \otimes SU_L(2) \otimes U_Y(1)$

Perhaps say whose framework
you are following -

Table 2.1: Fundamental, force-mediating, gauge bosons in the SM. All values are taken from Ref. [3].

Force	Particle	Mass	Charge
Electromagnetic	γ	0	0
Weak	W^\pm	80.4 GeV	± 1
	Z	90.2 GeV	0
Strong	G^a	0	0

symmetry¹. The $SU_L(2) \otimes U_Y(1)$ gauge group contains the electroweak formalism, and the $SU_C(3)$ group contains that of the strong force. Generators for each group correspond to the vector bosons which mediate interactions — the 3 + 1 electroweak gauge bosons (Z , W^\pm and the photon), and the eight gluons of the strong force. A summary of gauge bosons in the SM is given in Table 2.1.

Symmetries are fundamental to the dynamics of particle physics. It was shown by Emmy Noether that for each symmetry in the action of a physical system there is a conserved quantity [4]. This is Noether's theorem. For any sensible theory of physics, it is necessary that the laws remain the same independent of time and space, these symmetries lead to the conservations of momentum and energy, respectively. Discrete symmetries of importance are Time reversal (T) and Parity (P), so that physics occurs the same regardless of the direction of time, and under reflections in space.

Spin- $\frac{1}{2}$ particles in the SM are known as fermions, and are described by spinor fields, ψ , and obey the Dirac equation:

$$(i\gamma^\mu \partial_\mu - m)\psi = 0. \quad (2.1)$$

The fermions of the SM can be broadly categorized into those which couple to the strong force, *quarks*, and those which do not, *leptons*. There are six quarks: up, down, charm, strange, top, and bottom (u , d , c , s , t and b); and six leptons: the electronic leptons (ν_e , e), the muonic leptons (ν_μ , μ), and the tauonic leptons (ν_τ , τ). Due to the properties of the strong force, quarks can only be observed as colour-neutral bound states, usually these are *mesons* (quark-antiquark bound states) and *baryons* (bound states of three quarks). All fermions are organized into pairs forming three generations. For each fermion there is a corresponding antiparticle with the same mass and opposite charge — charge being the conserved quantity resulting from the global electroweak gauge symmetry by Noether's theorem. A summary of all fermions and some of their properties is given in Table 2.2. There is also a single scalar field in the SM: the Higgs boson.

¹ The convention of natural units is used throughout. Other conventions are that the indices μ and ν are used for four vectors, and generators for the $SU_L(2)$ and $SU_C(2)$ are denoted by $\{i, j, k\}$ and $\{a, b, c\}$, respectively.

Table 2.2: Fundamental fermions of matter. In the SM each has a corresponding anti-particle of opposite charge. All values are taken from Ref. [3].

Generation	Particle	Leptons		Particle	Quarks		Charge
		Mass	Charge		Mass	Charge	
1	e^+	0.511 MeV	-1	u	2.3 MeV	$+\frac{2}{3}$	<i>typsetting of fract 1/3</i>
	ν_e	0	0	d	4.8 MeV	$-\frac{1}{3}$	
2	μ^+	0.105 GeV	-1	c	95.0 MeV	$+\frac{2}{3}$	<i>typsetting of fract 1/3</i>
	ν_μ	0	0	s	1.275 GeV	$-\frac{1}{3}$	
3	τ^+	1.777 GeV	-1	t	173 GeV	$+\frac{2}{3}$	<i>typsetting of fract 1/3</i>
	ν_τ	0	0	b	4.18 GeV	$-\frac{1}{3}$	

The SM Lagrangian can be expressed as a sum of components:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{SM}} = \mathcal{L}_{\text{QCD}} + \mathcal{L}_V + \mathcal{L}_\ell + \mathcal{L}_q + \mathcal{L}_{\text{Higgs}} + \mathcal{L}_{\text{Yuk}}. \quad (2.2)$$

These Lagrangians describe the: strong force interactions between colour carrying particles in the theory of Quantum Chromodynamics (QCD) (\mathcal{L}_{QCD}); weak vector self-interactions (\mathcal{L}_V); electroweak behaviour of leptons (\mathcal{L}_ℓ); electroweak behaviour of quarks (\mathcal{L}_q); Higgs interaction ($\mathcal{L}_{\text{Higgs}}$); and Yukawa couplings (\mathcal{L}_{Yuk}).

As well as the discrete symmetries of P and T , there is also the Charge conjugation (C) symmetry. The violation of these symmetries are of fundamental interest to modern particle physics. Violation of the combined Charge-Parity (CP) symmetry, and flavour, arise in the Cabibbo-Kobayashi-Maskawa (CKM) matrix of the SM, which emerges after the Higgs mechanism breaks the local electroweak symmetry. The important terms for this are \mathcal{L}_q , ($\mathcal{L}_{\text{Higgs}}$), and \mathcal{L}_{Yuk} from Eq. 2.2.

The Higgs doublet, Φ , is defined to be

$$\Phi = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} \phi_1 + i\phi_2 \\ \phi_3 + i\phi_4 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (2.3)$$

where each ϕ_i is a real field. The Lagrangian of the Higgs field is:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}_{\text{Higgs}} &= (D_\mu \Phi)^\dagger (D^\mu \Phi) - V(\Phi) \\ &= (D_\mu \Phi)^\dagger (D^\mu \Phi) - \mu^2 (\Phi^\dagger \Phi) + \lambda (\Phi^\dagger \Phi)^2, \end{aligned} \quad (2.4)$$

where μ and λ are constants, and D_μ is the covariant derivative. Figure 2.1 shows that taking $\mu^2 < 0$ and $\lambda > 0$ shifts the ground state of the vacuum of $V(\Phi)$ away from zero. When the system collapses in to the ground state a direction is chosen, this breaks the symmetry of the system. The amount by which the ground state shifts with respect to the

and

$$e^{-i\delta} \sin \theta_{13} = A\lambda^3(\rho - i\eta), \quad (2.25)$$

which results in

$$\mathbf{V} \simeq \begin{pmatrix} 1 - \frac{1}{2}\lambda & \lambda & A\lambda^3(\rho - i\eta) \\ -\lambda & 1 - \lambda^2 & A\lambda^2 \\ A\lambda^3(1 - \rho - i\eta) & -A\lambda^2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (2.26)$$

The values of the Wolfenstein parameters A and λ are:

$$\lambda = 0.22537 \pm 0.00061,$$

and

$$A = 0.814^{+0.023}_{-0.024}.$$

SM dnf

since $A \neq 0$ and $\lambda \neq 0$ it is clear that \mathbf{V} is not diagonal, and therefore flavour-changing currents are allowed in the SM. However, it is most probable that a weak interaction is intra-generational, meaning that the CKM matrix exhibits a strongly hierachic structure.

It has been asserted that the CKM matrix is unitary, and therefore a unitarity condition can be expressed as $V_{\alpha\beta}^* V_{\beta\gamma} = \delta_{\alpha\gamma}$. When $\delta_{\alpha\gamma} = 0$, this condition gives six equations of the form:

$$\sum_{\beta=1}^3 V_{\alpha\beta}^* V_{\beta\gamma} = 0, \quad \sum_{\beta=1}^3 V_{\alpha\beta} V_{\beta\gamma}^* = 0, \quad \alpha \neq \gamma; \quad (2.27)$$

each mapping a closed triangles on the complex plane. Two of these triangles have all sides of similar length ($\mathcal{O}(\lambda^3)$), one of these is known as the Unitarity Triangle (UT) and is defined by

$$1 + \frac{V_{ud} V_{ub}^*}{V_{cd} V_{cb}^*} + \frac{V_{td} V_{tb}^*}{V_{cd} V_{cb}^*} = 0, \quad (2.28)$$

where the length of the base has been normalized to unity. The apex of the UT is at

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{\rho} + i\bar{\eta} &= (1 - \frac{1}{2}\lambda^2)(\rho + i\eta) \\ &= \frac{V_{ud} V_{ub}^*}{V_{cd} V_{cb}^*}, \end{aligned} \quad (2.29)$$

and forms the angles

$$\alpha = \arg \left(-\frac{V_{td} V_{tb}^*}{V_{ud} V_{ub}^*} \right), \quad \beta = \arg \left(-\frac{V_{cd} V_{cb}^*}{V_{td} V_{tb}^*} \right), \quad \gamma = \arg \left(-\frac{V_{ud} V_{ub}^*}{V_{cd} V_{cb}^*} \right). \quad (2.30)$$

which define phase differences between edges. Figure 2.2 depicts a schematic diagram of

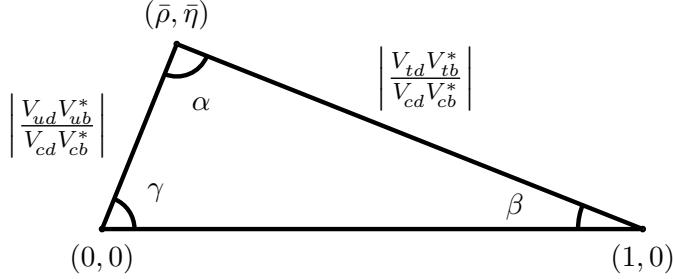


Figure 2.2: Schematic diagram of the Unitarity triangle given in Eq. 2.28 on the complex plane, where the base has been normalized to unit length. The angles α , β , and γ are defined in Eq 2.30.

the UT.

Each CKM matrix element is a fundamental parameter in the SM, and is therefore important to measure them all; particularly because the CKM matrix holds all the information about flavour violation and *CPV* that is allowed within the framework of the quark sector of the SM. All the measurements relating to the CKM matrix can be shown in the UT.

2.2 Physics beyond the Standard Model

For a long time the completion of the SM was reliant on the discovery of the Higgs boson. Finally, in 2012, the CMS [6] and ATLAS [7] collaborations observed a Higgs-like boson with a mass of $m_H \simeq 125$ GeV [8, 9]. This final piece of the picture has made the SM a remarkably robust theory with no predictions deviating significantly from experimental observations. Indeed, the theory of Quantum Electrodynamics (QED) — which describes interactions between photons and charged particles in the SM— is one of the most accurate theories yet constructed. The coupling constant in QED is the fine structure constant, α , which has been measured experimentally to be [10]

$$\alpha_{\text{exp}}^{-1} = 137.035\,999\,074(44),$$

and predicted theoretically to be [11]

$$\alpha_{\text{th}}^{-1} = 137.035\,999\,073(35).$$

These measurements have precisions which are better than one part per billion, and the extent to which they agree is testament to our understanding of QED interactions.

Despite its countless successes, there are a plethora of indications — both experimental and theoretical — that additional physics exists, Beyond the Standard Model (BSM).

2.2.1 Failures and inconsistencies of the Standard Model

There are some phenomena that have been observed experimentally which cannot be explained by the SM. Oscillations of neutrinos in flavour space mean that they must have mass; this is not accounted for in the SM framework. Neither are the observations of the Baryon Asymmetry of the Universe (BAU), or Dark Matter (DM).

The SM cannot reconcile the matter-antimatter asymmetry observed in the Universe today. The hypothesized process which caused this asymmetry is known as baryogenesis. Whatever this process may be it must satisfy the three Sakharov conditions [12], which outline the minimum requirements for baryogenesis. The first, most obvious, criteria is that baryogenesis must violate baryon number. The second Sakharov condition is that both C and CP are violated. Lastly, baryogenesis must occur out of thermal equilibrium. While the SM does contain some CPV , it is approximately ten orders of magnitude [13, 14] too small to explain the BAU. In Chap. 5 a measurement of the CP -asymmetry in the decay $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi$ is made in an effort to find NP processes that may introduce CPV and go towards explaining the BAU.

It is well known that the vast majority of mass in the Universe is unaccounted for. Luminous matter totals only $\sim 4.9\%$ of the Universe [3, 15], and the rest is known only as DM ($\sim 26.8\%$) and dark energy ($\sim 68.3\%$). Dark Matter is an old and well-motivated concept with the first evidence found in 1939 by H. W. Babcock in the form of flat galactic rotation curves [16, 17]. Since then, corroborating evidence from, for example, gravitational lensing around the Bullet cluster [18], and the Cosmic Microwave Background, have given further credence to its existence.

Observations of DM are used to motivate NP models which include *dark sectors*. A dark sector is a name for a particle, or group of particles, which is gauged under a different gauge group to the SM particles and therefore cannot interact with them directly. There are a plethora of such models, but generally dark particles can only interact with the SM via weakly interacting messenger particles, which could be either vector or scalar. In generality, these are known as *Dark Bosons*. This thesis documents a search for a dark boson in the dimuon spectrum of $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0} \mu^+ \mu^-$ in Chap. 7.

Some excitement was caused by a hint of a dark sector messenger particle from the Hyper- CP experiment [19], which observes three $\Sigma^+ \rightarrow p \mu^+ \mu^-$ events which survive a stringent selection. These three events also peak in the invariant mass of the dimuon pair. The narrowness of this peak is indicative of a two body decay, consistent with $\Sigma^+ \rightarrow p P^0$ and the subsequent decay of the NP particle via $P^0 \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-$, where $m_{P^0} = 214.3 \pm 0.5$ MeV [20]. The P^0 could be a supersymmetric Goldstone boson, or a dark boson from many other theories.

Supersymmetry (SUSY) is a theory which imposes a symmetry relating fermions to

bosons, and naturally supplies a DM candidate in the shape of the lightest supersymmetric particle. The lightest supersymmetric particle is stable, in most models, because the symmetry of R -parity is assumed to be conserved. R -parity is defined by the baryon number, lepton number, and spin of a particle; and the upshot is that for SM (SUSY) particles R -parity is 1(-1). The Higgs sector in SUSY comprises four Higgs doublets; two are spin-0 and two are spin- $\frac{1}{2}$, and then there are two each for $Y = \pm\frac{1}{2}$. After SUSY is broken there are five Higgs physical scalar particles, two are CP -even (h^0, H^0); one is a CP -odd scalar (A^0) and two are charged (H^\pm). Unfortunately, masses of the super-particles are unconstrained, and could be anywhere between a few TeV and the Planck scale.

Particle dynamics can be effected by massive NP particles, like those in SUSY, in lower order processes because at this level virtual particles can contribute. Flavour Changing Neutral Currents (FCNCs) are heavily suppressed in the SM. Firstly, they are forbidden at tree-level; secondly, loop-level diagrams are suppressed by factors coming from the CKM matrix. These rare, and low background processes provide ideal environments in which to search for BSM physics, since new massive off-shell particles can contribute to the loops and cause significant deviations from SM expectations. Chapter 6 details an observation of a high statistics FCNC decay, which could be used for future NP searches.

Theoretical shortcomings of the SM include: its inability to incorporate gravity at the quantum scale and the existence of dark energy. But theoretical arguments are often less tangible, and rather subjective, revolving around the idea of *naturalness*. Naturalness is a concept whereby a theory is deemed to be natural, or more plausible, if it has few free parameters, all of which have a magnitude $\mathcal{O}(1)$. The SM is not a natural theory: having a total of 18 free parameters, 13 of which reside in the flavour sector. Other unnatural features of the flavour sector of the SM are that the CKM matrix is strongly hierachic, and quark masses vary by four orders of magnitude.

Of all the fundamental parameters in the CKM matrix, V_{ub} is known to the lowest precision, and it is therefore important to accurately measure it. This parameter is particularly interesting because it is the source of the largest tension in the UT. A determination of V_{ub} can be made using inclusive and exclusive measurements of semi-leptonic $B \rightarrow X_u \ell \bar{\nu}_\ell$ decays; where X_u is some meson containing a u quark. Inclusive measurements are made difficult by large $B \rightarrow X_c \ell \bar{\nu}_\ell$ backgrounds, while exclusive semi-leptonic modes suffer from theoretical uncertainties. Both these methods are well established, and both rely on non-perturbative QCD calculations. Determinations of V_{ub} from inclusive and exclusive modes are [3, 21]:

$$|V_{ub}|_{\text{excl}} = (3.28 \pm 0.29) \times 10^{-3}$$

$$|V_{ub}|_{\text{incl}} = (4.41^{+0.21}_{-0.23}) \times 10^{-3}.$$

Currently, there is no explanation for this discrepancy between inclusive and exclusive

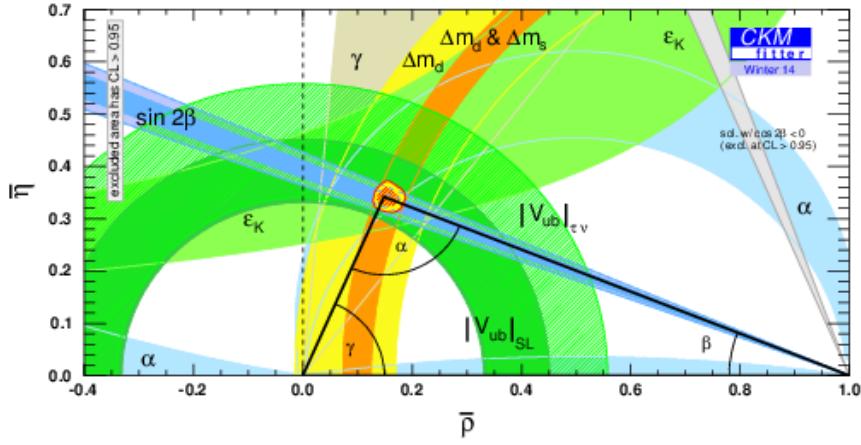


Figure 2.3: Diagram of the UT with coloured bands indicating various constraints on side lengths, angles and position of the apex, which is taken from the CKMfitter group in Ref. [25]. The constraints on V_{ub} from the combination of inclusive and exclusive modes ($|V_{ub}|_{SL}$) is given separately to a value obtained using $\mathcal{B}(B^+ \rightarrow \tau^+ \nu_\tau)$, ($|V_{ub}|_{\tau\nu}$).

measurements. A measurement from the LHCb experiment uses the baryonic decay $\Lambda_b^0 \rightarrow p \mu^- \bar{\nu}_\mu$ calculated a value of $|V_{ub}|$ to be $(3.27 \pm 0.23) \times 10^{-3}$ [22]. This is an exclusive measurement, and is in agreement with other exclusive measurements.

Another method to access the CKM matrix parameter $|V_{ub}|$ is via the annihilation-type decay $B^+ \rightarrow \tau^+ \nu_\tau$. Measurements from both the BaBar and Belle experiments of $\mathcal{B}(B^+ \rightarrow \tau^+ \nu_\tau)$ [23, 24] suffer from small statistics, but are found to be in better agreement with values of $|V_{ub}|$ determined using inclusive measurements than exclusive. Searching for the decay $B^+ \rightarrow \tau^+ \nu_\tau$ is not viable at LHCb; instead, decays of the same topologies can be searched for. The decay $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi$ is also an annihilation-type decay in which V_{ub} appears in the amplitude; an analysis of this decay is described in Chap. 5.

Current measurements of angles and side lengths of the UT, from Ref. [25], are shown in Fig. 2.3. This figure also shows global V_{ub} measurements from the semi-leptonic and $B^+ \rightarrow \tau^+ \nu_\tau$ modes alongside one another.

Unnatural NP models with parameters that differ wildly in magnitude tend to lead to parameters or processes that must cancel to absurdly high precision in order to agree with experimental observations. These precise cancellations are known as *fine tuning*. In the SM, quantum loop corrections to the Higgs mass are of the order 10^{19} for $m_H \simeq 125$ GeV [8, 9]. This means that the cancellations required to result in a Higgs mass comparable to the masses of the weak vector bosons must be exact to 17 orders of magnitude. This instance of fine tuning is known as the *hierarchy problem*. A solution for the hierarchy problem is to introduce NP particles, whose contributions to loop level processes reduce the magnitude of fine tuning required to a level deemed acceptable. SUSY immediately solves the hierarchy problem because for every SM particle that contributes to the Higgs mass, a SUSY particle

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for
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people

also contributes, but with the opposite sign. It should be noted, however, that while SUSY does solve a number of problems, it is not natural since it has far more free parameters than the SM.

Fine tuning also appears in QCD. A gauge invariant term that can be added to \mathcal{L}_{QCD} is

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{QCD}}^{\theta} = \theta \frac{g^2}{32\pi^2} G_{\mu\nu}^a \tilde{G}_a^{\mu\nu}, \quad \text{where } \theta \text{ does} \quad (2.31)$$

where θ and g are constants. The operator $G_{\mu\nu}$ is the gluon field strength tensor, and

$$\tilde{G}_a^{\mu\nu} = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_{\mu\nu\rho\sigma} G_a^{\rho\sigma}. \quad (2.32)$$

Check that this is correct Interactions in $\mathcal{L}_{\text{QCD}}^{\theta}$ would conserve C symmetry, but violate both P and T conjugation [26]. Such symmetry violations contradict the observed properties of the strong force, so \mathcal{L}_{QCD} must either be absent, or heavily suppressed. Bounds placed on the value of the neutron dipole moment, $|d_n| < 2.9 \times 10^{-26}$ ecm (at 90% CL) [27] leads to the constraint that $\theta < 10^{-19}$ [28], when *a priori* it could be in the range $0 < \theta < 2\pi$. This occurrence of fine tuning is referred to as the *strong CP problem*.

Despite the evidence for BSM physics and the list of problems that must be solved, its precise manifestation is unknown. There are numerous theories concerning NP scenarios which seek to solve various problems.

A solution to the strong *CP* problem is to introduce an additional chiral $U(1)$ symmetry, which is known as a PecceiQuinn (PQ) symmetry [26]. Breaking the $U_{\text{PQ}}(1)$ symmetry leads to θ , in Eq. 2.31, becoming a field with quanta known as *axions*. These axions could be the messenger particle between a dark and visible sector [26].

Some searches look directly for evidence of NP, this is the case for the analysis detailed in Chap. 7, where a new particle, χ , is searched for in the dimuon invariant mass spectrum of $B^0 \rightarrow K^*(892)^0 \mu^+ \mu^-$ consistent with $\chi \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-$. This is sensitive to a range of models which predict a light particle with a mass in the range $2m_\mu \lesssim m_\chi \lesssim 4000$ MeV, such as the axion model. It is also sensitive to the P^0 that was hinted at by the Hyper-*CP* experiment [20].

Instead of counting on NP to behave in an expected way, it is possible to search in a model-independent manner by exploring general physics couplings. To do this it is useful to introduce the Operator Product Expansion (OPE) [29].

2.3 Operator Product Expansion

When describing macroscopic physical systems, it is frequently necessary to simplify the situation by making assumptions about the distance scales involved. One would not, for

example, dream of using quantum mechanics to model a ball colliding with a wall despite the treatment being far more proper than a Newtonian approach. An Effective Field Theory (EFT) works in an equivalent way in particle physics by decoupling the short- and long-range interactions, and treating them separately. Contributions from particles with very high mass, much greater than some pre-defined energy scale⁵, are suppressed. These simplifications are advantageous, as they allow processes to be modelled at a scale relevant to the particles involved.

Creating an effective field theory for particle physics begins by defining an energy scale, Λ , which separates the long and short range interactions. For the case of a process involving a decaying b quark, with initial state $|i\rangle$ and final state $|f\rangle$, the energies are of order m_b . In the full treatment of the SM, contributions from the t quark and weak bosons — which all have masses $\mathcal{O}(100 \text{ GeV})$ — must be accounted for. Therefore, an appropriate choice for Λ is $\sim m_W$. Heavy fields above Λ are then integrated out and are parameterized by complex numbers, known as Wilson coefficients, C_i . The remaining physics is encapsulated in the long distances operators, \mathcal{O}_i , each having its own gauge group defining a particular type of process. Transition matrix elements for the interaction in the effective Hamiltonian are

$$\langle f | \mathcal{H}_{\text{eff}} | i \rangle = \sum_j C_j(\Lambda) \langle f | \mathcal{O}_j^{(d)} | i \rangle \Big|_{\Lambda} \quad (2.33)$$

⁵ Which is simply a weighted sum over the long distance matrix elements $\langle f | \mathcal{O}_j | i \rangle$ which operates in dimension d .

The above sum runs over an infinite number of operators — which is clearly impractical. To simplify matters one can extract factors of Λ^{-1} from the Wilson coefficients making the coefficients dimensionless, which modifies the effective Hamiltonian to be a sum over dimensions

$$\langle f | \mathcal{H}_{\text{eff}} | i \rangle = \sum_d \frac{1}{\Lambda^d} \sum_j c_j^{(d)} \langle f | \mathcal{O}_j^{(d)} | i \rangle \Big|_{\Lambda}. \quad (2.34)$$

This is entirely general, and one can calculate the Wilson coefficients to a high degree of accuracy — using perturbative methods — in the SM and many BSM extensions. Calculating the long distance operators is more challenging, however, because they contain QCD processes.

This approach leads to an effective Hamiltonian, with Wilson coefficients which are entirely independent of the underlying physical processes and can be calculated to a good degree of accuracy in a range of physics models. In this way very different observables can be used to make measurements of Wilson coefficients and compared independently of the actual process. Measurements can be used for predictions of processes, and to check the validity of NP models, enabling experiments to favour or disfavour entire classes of physics BSM.

2.4 Dealing with QCD

For the branching fraction measurements discussed in this thesis, theoretical uncertainties from QCD make predictions difficult². QCD describes the interactions of colour charged particles (quarks and gluons), and exhibits two peculiarities: confinement, and asymptotic freedom. Confinement means that over long distances (~ 1 fm) the interaction strength of the strong force does not lessen, unlike all other known forces. This means that as a quark is separated from others, there is enough energy in the gluon field to create new quark-antiquark pairs. The resulting bound states always have net zero colour charge. Therefore, free quarks are never observed over macroscopic distances and are observed as mesons, baryons, or tetra-quarks [31]. Asymptotic freedom means that forces between quarks become asymptotically weaker as the energy of the system increases — and the distance decreases.

Predictions of b -hadron processes involving QCD can also be made using an EFT. Despite the large mass of the b quark with respect to $\Lambda_{\text{QCD}} \simeq 200$ MeV, the system can be treated perturbatively since $\alpha_{\text{QCD}}(m_b)$ is sufficiently small. This is known as a Heavy Quark Effective Theory (HQET). In contrast to an EFT where the weak fields have been integrated out, in a HQET it is not possible to remove heavy quark contributions entirely because the b quark cannot decay without violating flavour number. Essentially the b -hadron system is treated akin to a hydrogen atom, where the b quark takes the place of the nucleus, allowing for a highly simplified theoretical treatment, with corrections of order m_b^{-1} .

Despite the use of HQET, the fact is that hadrons are inherently non-perturbative objects, and so it is useful to make further assumptions. An important supposition is that of *factorization*, which assumes that the short-distance, process dependent, QCD effects are separable from hadronization, the long distance effects. Hadronization is very difficult to calculate with QCD, for this reason *form factors* are used to empirically encapsulate the process. Form factors must be measured experimentally and are the dominant source of uncertainty in the calculation of B mesons decaying final states containing hadrons.

INFO

2.5 Summary

So far, this chapter has motivated the search for NP, and mentioned some of the problems it must address. Some reference to analyses covered in this thesis have also been made. The following paragraphs will summarize each analysis and motivate briefly motivate it. Complete motivations will be addressed in the relevant chapters.

² The following section is based on Ref. [30].

Feynman Diagrams

The decay $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi$ proceeds via the tree-level annihilation of the constituent quarks of the B^+ meson into a W^+ boson. This then decays into a $c\bar{s}$ pair, and an $s\bar{s}$ is created from the QCD field vacuum. In the SM, the decay contains the two CKM matrix elements V_{cs} (which is approximately unity) and V_{ub} , which is a source of some contention. The branching fraction $\mathcal{B}(B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi)$ is sensitive to NP, because any charged boson can mediate the decay, such as a charged Higgs. Furthermore, in the SM there should be no CP asymmetry observed, however additional diagrams could interfere and cause a significant deviation from zero. A study of this decay, in which its branching fraction and CP -asymmetry are measured, is given in Chap. 5.

The FCNC transition $b \rightarrow s\mu^+\mu^-$ is forbidden at tree-level in the SM, and instead the leading order processes are loop diagrams. Such transitions are CKM suppressed in the SM (by V_{tb} and V_{ts}). Virtual BSM particles can contribute to the decay and alter it significantly. The decays $B^+ \rightarrow K^+\pi^+\pi^-\mu^+\mu^-$ and $B^+ \rightarrow \phi K^+\mu^+\mu^-$ are both $b \rightarrow s\mu^+\mu^-$ FCNCs and could offer additional avenues for measuring, for example, $|V_{td}|/|V_{ts}|$. There are also an array of strange states that contribute to the $K^+\pi^+\pi^-$ system, the exact spectrum of which is unknown, the same can be said of the ϕK^+ spectrum. This analysis is outlined in Chap. 6.

Finally, Chap. 7 describes the direct search for a dark boson, of unknown mass and lifetime, decaying into two muons in the decay $B^0 \rightarrow K^*(892)^0 \mu^+\mu^-$. The dark boson could be a scalar or vector, and could belong to a plethora of dark sector scenarios.

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Chapter 3

The LHCb experiment

The following chapter first introduces the LHC and the LHCb detector before briefly describing data collection and processing. Other important features, such as particle identification and triggering, of the LHCb experiment will also be outlined.

3.1 The LHC

The LHC is a superconducting synchrotron which can simultaneously accelerate beams of proton bunches in opposite directions. Physically, the LHC is located at CERN, near Geneva, Switzerland; it is 27 km in circumference and spans the Franco-Swiss border at a depth of about 100 m. Protons are supplied to the LHC from the Super Proton Synchrotron (SPS) with an energy of 450 GeV, they can then be accelerated and collided with a centre-of-mass energy of up to 14 TeV. In the years 2011 and 2012 collisions operated with a centre-of-mass energy was 7 and 8 TeV respectively. Once the desired energy is reached the beams are collided at four interaction points. The LHCb detector is situated at one of them [32]. Collisions of proton bunches occur every 50 ns reaching luminosities of up to $7 \times 10^{32} \text{ cm}^2\text{s}^{-1}$, however the beams entering LHCb must be luminosity levelled, to $3(4) \times 10^{32} \text{ cm}^2\text{s}^{-1}$ in 2011(2012), in order to reduce detector occupancy. These high energy collisions produce a vast number of $b\bar{b}$ pairs which subsequently hadronize into b hadrons. It is the prospect of studying these bound states of b (and other heavy flavour) quarks that has motivated the design of the LHCb detector.

3.2 The LHCb detector

Before introducing the LHCb detector, it is helpful to first define the Cartesian coordinate system around which the LHCb detector is built. The z direction is defined by the LHC

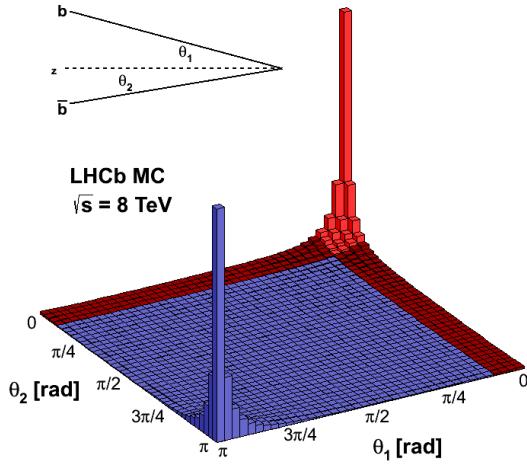


Figure 3.1: Simulation of the production of b and \bar{b} quarks leaving the pp interaction point with angles θ_1 and θ_2 , respectively. It is clear that the majority of these particles have momentum vectors that are close to the beam pipe, which justifies the geometry of the LHCb detector. The dark red indicates the LHCb acceptance region.

beam pipe, where the pp interaction point is located at $z = 0$, and the LHCb detector extends in the positive z direction. Often, the terms *upstream* and *downstream* are used to refer to negative or positive z direction, respectively. A vector originating at the interaction point has an angle θ with respect to the z axis. The x - and y -axes define the horizontal and vertical directions, respectively.

The LHCb detector is a single arm forward spectrometer, reminiscent of a fixed target experiment, with an acceptance of $1.8 < \eta < 4.9$, where pseudorapidity defined as

$$\eta = -\ln \left[\tan \left(\frac{\theta}{2} \right) \right]. \quad (3.1)$$

A small angular acceptance is used, because in hadronic interactions $b\bar{b}$ pairs are predominantly produced with momentum vectors aligned close to the beam line. Figure 3.1 shows the θ distribution of the b and \bar{b} quarks produced in simulated LHC collisions, with a centre-of-mass energy of 8 TeV.

A trajectory of a charged particle leaving the interaction region is measured with the tracking system, which consists of a vertex detector and four planar tracking stations. Part of the detector volume is immersed in a magnet field, provided by a large conventional magnet with an integrated field strength of 4 Tm. This bends particles in the x direction, providing information about charge and, in conjunction with the tracking system, momentum. Two Cherenkov detectors are used for offline Particle Identification (PID), allowing LHCb to distinguish between, for example, pions and kaons. Further downstream of the

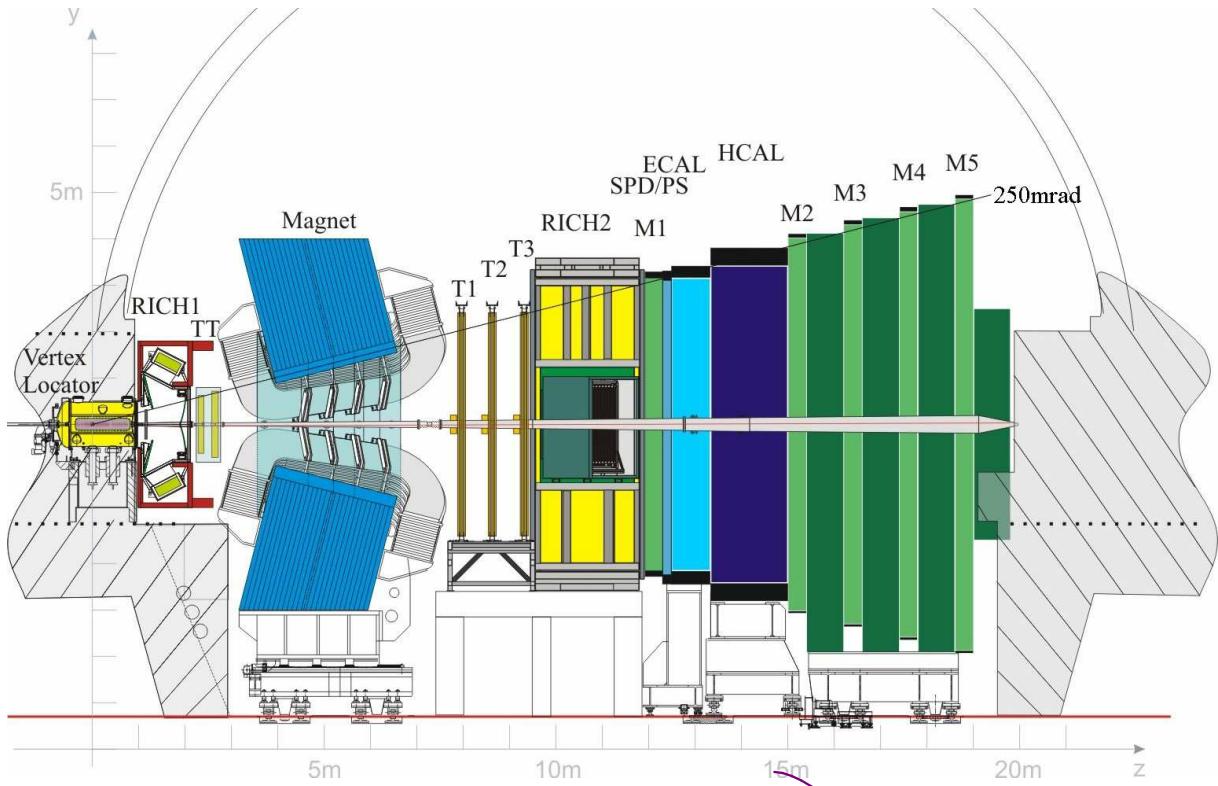


Figure 3.2: Schematic diagram of the LHCb detector with labeled subdetectors and coordinate system, the *x* direction comes out of the page.

tracking systems is the calorimetry system, which is primarily used for triggering; but is also used for some particle identification. The final subdetector system that a particle might traverse is the muon system; which consists of five stations, and is used for muon tracking, triggering, and PID. Figure 3.2 is a schematic diagram of the LHCb detector, indicating the coordinate system and subdetector modules. The following sections provide further information about LHCb subdetectors.

3.2.1 Tracking

A charged particle produced in a decay of a heavy flavour meson exiting the Primary Vertex (PV) is first detected as *hits* in the Vertex Locator (VELO). The VELO subdetector is made up of 21 modules orientated in the *xy*-plane, and each module consists of two layers of silicon strip detectors with (r, ϕ) coordinates. The pitch of the silicon strips vary from $\sim 40 \mu\text{m}$ nearest the centre, where detector occupancy is highest, to $\sim 100 \mu\text{m}$ at the extremities.

Spacial resolution is vitally important so close to the interaction point. The VELO must be able to resolve all tracks and distinguish PVs coming from pp interactions, and secondary vertices indicative of decaying heavy flavour hadrons. For example, a B^+ meson with a momentum of 100 GeV will travel approximately 1 cm before decaying. This must all be

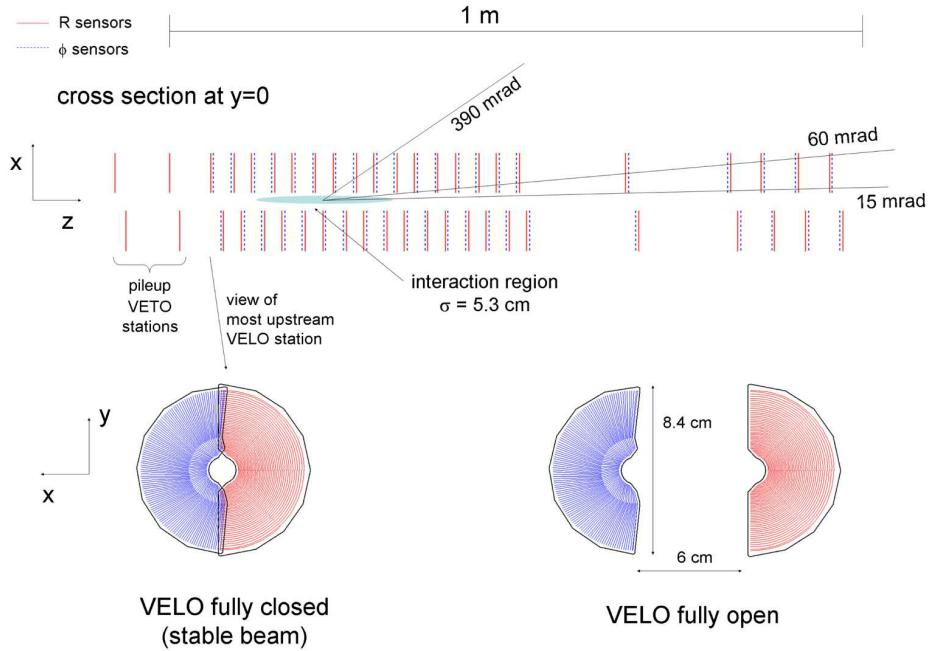


Figure 3.3: The layout of silicon sensors the VELO in showing r sensors in red and ϕ sensors in blue. A cross section at $y = 0$ in the xz -plane is shown while the VELO is closed. Along side these are slices in the xy -plane, with the VELO closed and open.

done in a high track multiplicity environment.

Hits recorded in the tracking system are fitted to tracks, and in order to decrease the distance of extrapolation of tracks to vertices and increase the spacial resolution of vertices, the active area of the VELO starts 8 mm from the beam line. This is made possible because each module is split into two halves which are retracted when the LHC beam is being injected, and then closed when the beam is declared stable and data taking can begin. Its design leads to a detector with high impact parameter resolution, which can detect tracks emerging from a pp interaction located in the range $1.6 < \eta < 4.9$ and $|z| < 10.6\text{cm}$. The geometry of the tracking stations is shown in Fig. 3.5.

Charged particles leaving the VELO are next observed traversing the TT — assuming that they remain within the LHCb detector volume — which uses silicon detector technology. Immediately downstream of the TT is the LHCb magnet, followed by the remaining three tracking stations (T1–3). The T1–3 tracking stations are each made of two different technologies: the area nearest the beam, aptly named the Inner Tracker (IT), shares the detector technology adopted by the TT; and the Outer Tracker (OT) uses straw drift-tube technology. Each tracking station exhibits an $x - u - v - x$ geometry, where u and v are rotated by -5° and $+5^\circ$ with respect to the y -axis.

Together, the TT and IT are referred to as the Silicon Tracker (ST) which uses silicon strip sensors with a pitch of 200\mu m . The TT is the only part of the tracking system that

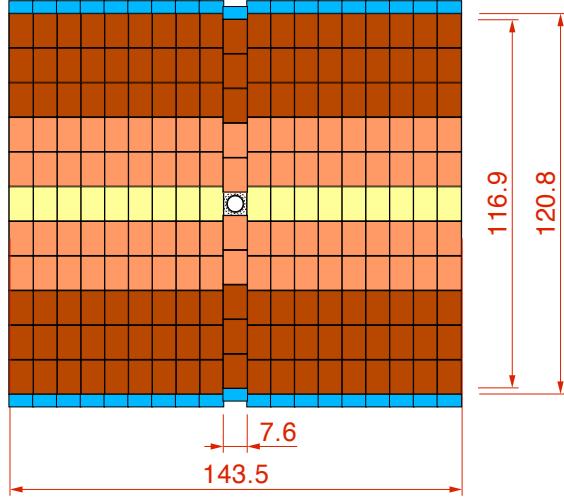


Figure 3.4: Schematic diagram of a single stereo Tracker Turicensis (TT) layer oriented in the x -direction. Different colours indicate readout density. All units are in cm.

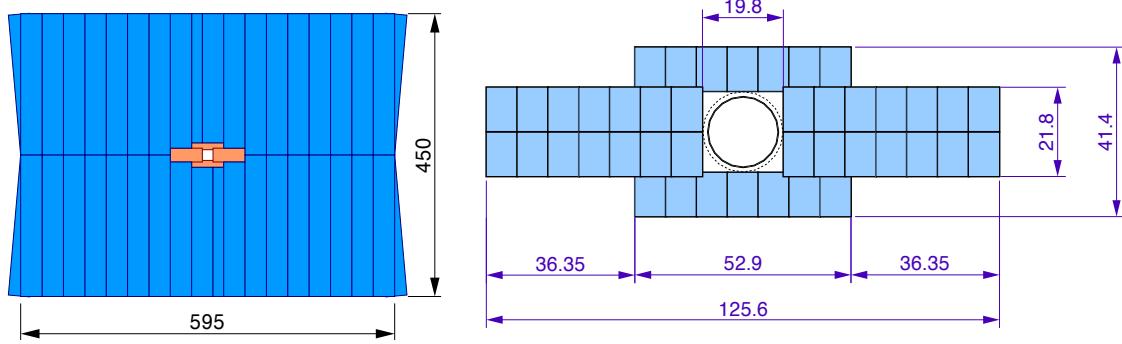


Figure 3.5: Schematic diagram of the (left) tracking stations T1–3, where the outer region is the OT, and the inner cross is the silicon IT. A zoom of an x oriented IT layer is also shown (right). All units are in cm.

is not used in the trigger, but is instead used to improve the resolution in reconstructing tracks offline. To do this, the TT aids the extrapolation of upstream tracks to hits in T1–3 and the muon station. Spacial resolution of the TT is increased by having a large gap, around 27 cm, between each stereo layer of the detector, whereas in the IT the gap is about 4 cm. To cope with higher occupancy nearest the beam line, the TT has a increased readout density closer to $y = 0$. A schematic diagram of a TT layer is shown in Fig. 3.4.

Figure 3.5 shows a diagram of T1–3. The ITs each occupy a small cross-shaped region closest to the beam in T1–3. The OT is constructed from modules each containing two staggered planes of densely packed straw tubes, each with a diameter of 4.9 mm. In all the VELO, ST and OT give the LHCb detector excellent momentum resolution; $\Delta p/p$ between 0.4 and 0.6 % for particles with momenta of 5 GeV and 100 GeV respectively.

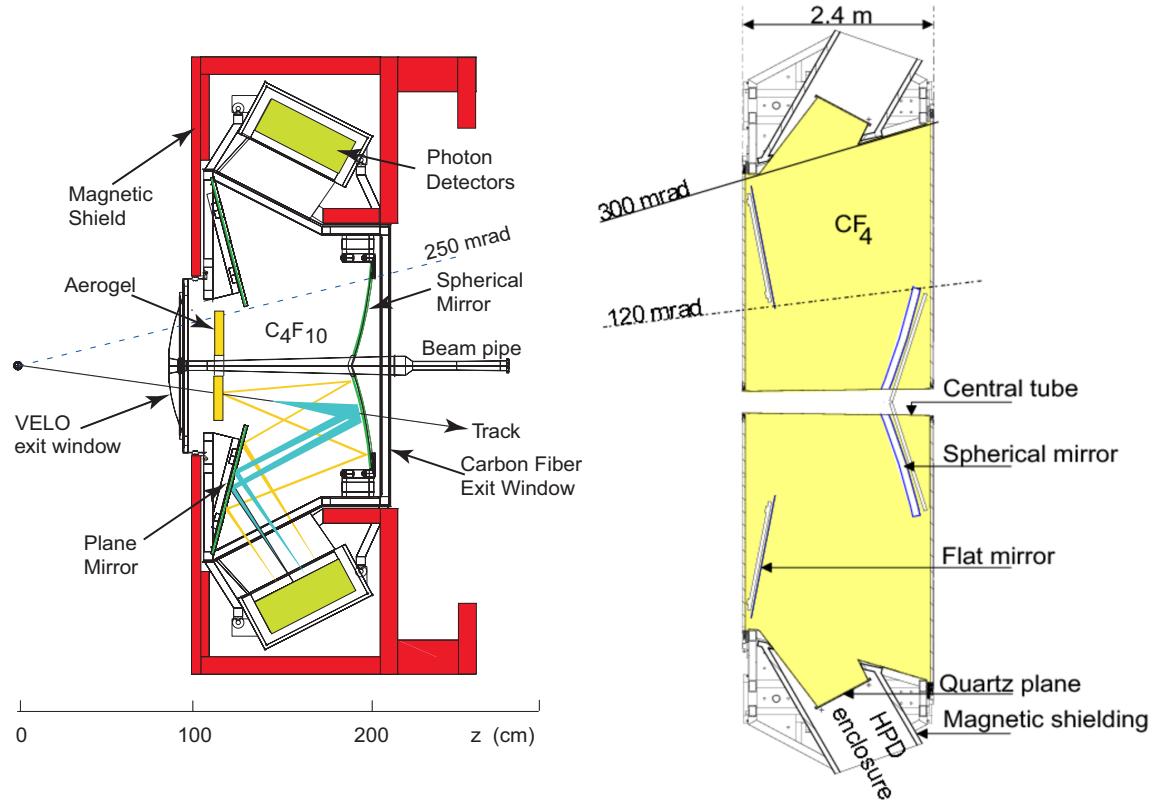


Figure 3.6: Schematic diagrams of (left) RICH1 and (right) RICH2, indicating the radiators, mirrors and HPDs.

3.2.2 RICH detectors

The primary aim of the LHCb Ring Imaging Cherenkov (RICH) system is to provide PID separation of charged hadrons (π , K , and p), although they are also used to help identify muons and electrons. The ability to correctly assign the correct mass hypotheses is a vital part of the LHCb physics program. Since interesting b -hadron decays frequently result in final states with multiple hadrons, misidentifying daughter particles would result in an increase of combinatorial background, and a decrease in signal significance.

The principle behind the operation of the RICH system is that of Cherenkov radiation. When a charged particle travels through a medium, with a refractive index n , at a greater speed than its phase velocity, v_p , it decelerates by emitting a cone of light (Cherenkov radiation) in the forward direction. The opening angle of this light cone, θ_{Ch} , is inversely proportional to, v_p :

$$\cos \theta_{\text{Ch}} = \frac{c}{nv_p}. \quad (3.2)$$

With a measurement of the particle's momentum from the tracking system and only a few possible masses (that of the e , μ , π , K or p) likelihoods are constructed for each track based on the ring of photons which such a particle would emit.

The LHCb RICH system provides PID information for a wide range of momentum with

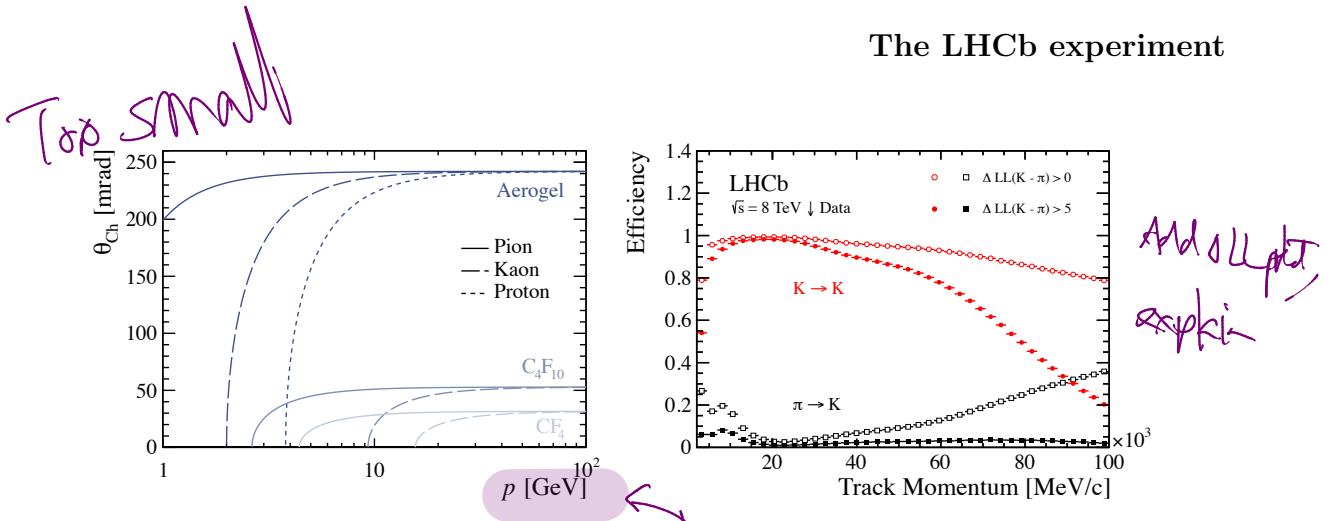


Figure 3.7: Cherenkov angle as a function of momentum for pions, kaons and protons in the three different radiators (left), and the kaons-pion separation performance as a function of momentum, from Ref. [33].

the use of two RICH detectors, containing three different radiators (aerogel and C₄F₁₀ in RICH1, and CF₄ in RICH2) between them. Particles passing through these radiators emit a cone of photons, which are focussed using spherical carbon fibre mirrors — which are only 1.5 % X_0 long — on to an array of Hybrid Photomultipliers (HPDs). Figure 3.6 shows schematic diagrams for RICH1 and RICH2.

Different radiator materials, with different values of n , give the RICH system sensitivity to a range of particle momenta. RICH1 is situated immediately downstream of the VELO and covers the low momentum range, $2 < p < 40$ GeV, while RICH2 lies downstream of T3 and covers the range $15 < p < 100$ GeV. The variation of θ_{Ch} on momentum for pions, kaons and protons is shown in Fig. 3.7. The variable available to analysts is that of the Delta Log Likelihood (DLL), where DLL_{XY} is the difference between the logarithm of the likelihood of the hypothesis of the particle X compared to the null hypothesis of the Y ; where Y is usually the π . In this way, the LHCb detector can achieve excellent pion-kaon separation, for typical kaon produced in a b -hadron decay, which has a momentum of ~ 20 GeV, the identification rate is near 100 % and the pion misidentification rate is a few percent as shown in Fig. 3.7.

3.2.3 Calorimetry system

The general structure of the calorimetry system is that of an Electromagnetic Calorimeter (ECAL) followed by an Hadron Calorimeter (HCAL), but before both these stations there are additional calorimetry systems designed to provide some PID information in the trigger; this is discussed later. The primary function of the calorimetry system is for triggering high p_T hadrons, electrons and photons — this is described in detail in Sec. 3.3.

The Scintillating Pad Detector (SPD) is positioned just downstream of M1, which in turn is immediately downstream of RICH2 and set apart from the other muon stations M2–4.

The SPD is made of scintillating tiles which detect charged particles, and therefore can be used to distinguish electrons from photons. Following the SPD is a 15 mm, $2.5 X_0$, thick lead plate followed by the Preshower detector (PS) detector, whose design is almost identical to the SPD. The PS exploits the showering caused by the lead plate to distinguish between electromagnetic particles and hadrons, it also helps to separate photons from π^0 decays.

The ECAL is a shashlik detector, made of alternating layers of lead, reflector, and scintillating material. Light from the scintillators is guided to photomultiplier tubes by wavelength-shifting fibres which penetrate the tiles for the length of each module. This ECAL subdetector is 25 radiation lengths long, ensuring that all electromagnetic energy is deposited before the HCAL. The energy resolution of the ECAL is

$$\frac{\sigma_E}{E} = \frac{10\%}{\sqrt{E}} \oplus 1\%, \quad (3.3)$$

where E is in GeV.

Figure 3.8 shows the difference in geometry between the ECAL and HCAL. The HCAL has a tiled structure, comprised of alternate layers of scintillating material and iron. The geometry is different to that of the ECAL, since where tiles in the ECAL are oriented towards the incoming particle flux, the HCAL tiles are oriented longitudinally. Each subdetector within the calorimetry system has increased cell density near the beam to cope with higher track multiplicity in this region. Due to restrictions in space, the HCAL is only 5.6 nuclear interaction lengths long and has a resolution of

$$\frac{\sigma_E}{E} = \frac{(69 \pm 5)\%}{\sqrt{E}} \oplus (9 \pm 2)\%, \quad (3.4)$$

where E is in GeV. Light produced in scintillation is guided to photomultiplier tubes by wavelength-shifting fibres.

3.2.4 Muon systems

Muons are the only charged particles that interact weakly enough to pass through the calorimeter system. Muons contribute to the final state of many b -hadron decays, including LHCb's flagship measurements of the branching fraction $B_s^0 \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-$ and the angular analysis of $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0} \mu^+ \mu^-$. The muon system is designed to give precise measurements of muon trajectories and triggering of decays with muons in the final state.

The muon system consists of five muon stations, M1–5. The first station, M1, is located directly upstream of the calorimeters; the other stations are all downstream of the calorimetry system and are interleaved with 80 cm thick iron absorbers. Layout of the LHCb muon system is shown in Fig. 3.9.

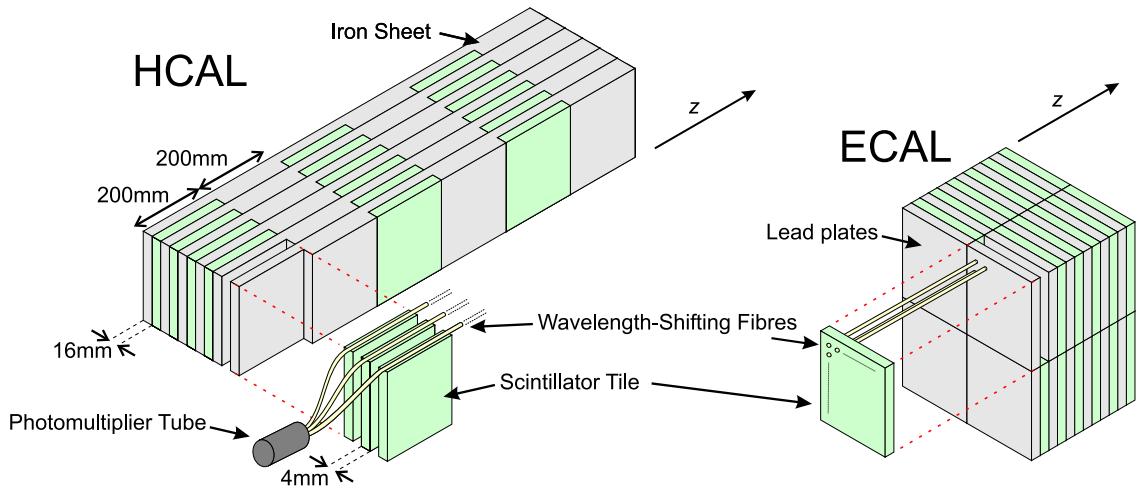


Figure 3.8: Diagrams of the LHCb HCAL and ECAL showing the arrangement of scintillating material, lead plates, and wavelength-shifting fibres.

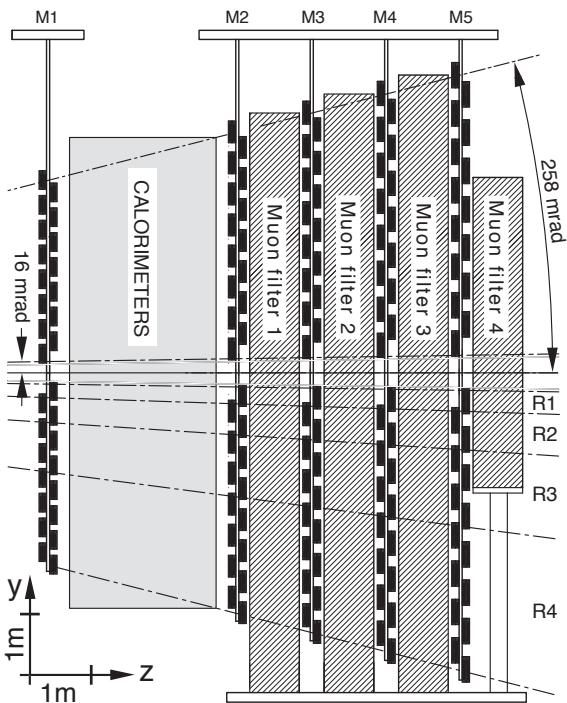


Figure 3.9: Side-on view of the LHCb muon system. The M1 station is located upstream of the calorimeters, and M2–5 are all downstream. Relative scales are the same, but absolute dimensions scale with distance from the pp interaction point, such that the angular coverage is identical for each station. Between stations M2–5 are 80 cm thick iron filters. Regions R1–4 indicate where the resolution is the same, this is shown clearly in Fig. 3.10.

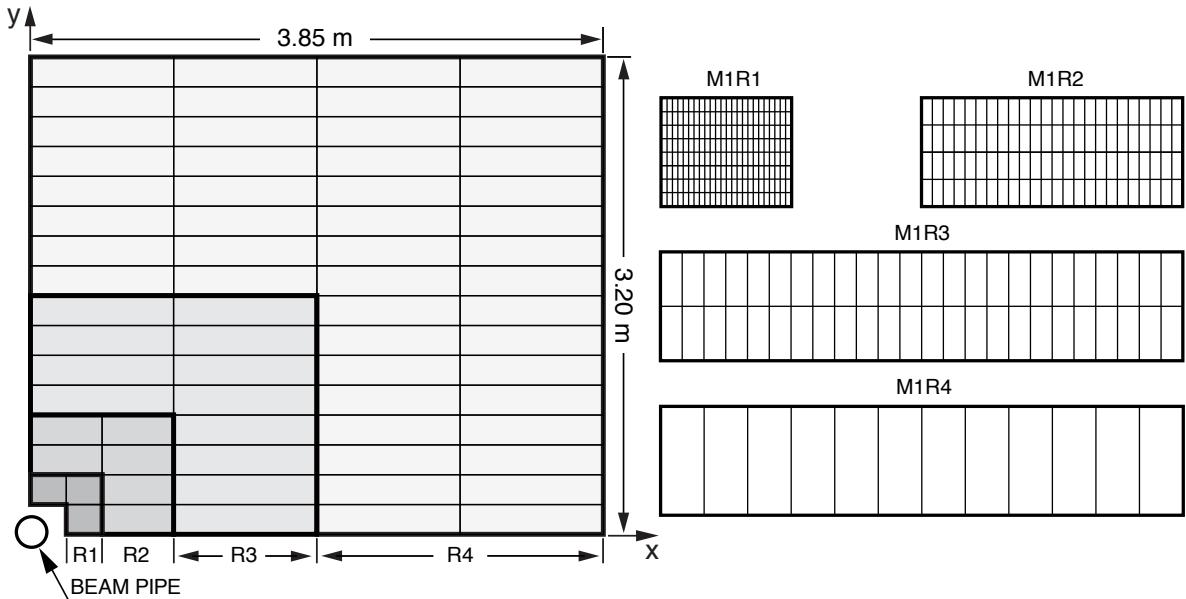


Figure 3.10: Front-on view of a single quadrant of a muon station. The left-hand pane shows the chambers distributed throughout regions R1–4. Each chamber comprises a logical pad structure as shown for M1 in the right-hand diagram. The resolution for the stations in M2–3(M4–5) are double(half) that of M1.

Each station uses Multi-Wire Proportional Chambers, except for the centre of M1, where the expected muon flux would age this technology too quickly; in this area Gas Electron Multiplier detectors are used. Detector resolution is defined by rectangular logical pads, which have varying spacial resolutions, becoming coarser as the distance from the beam axis increases. These regions are discretized, and labelled R1–4 as shown in Figure 3.10, where the segmentation ratios for R1 : R2 : R3 : R4 are 1 : 2 : 4 : 8, such that the occupancy in each region is approximately equal. The number of detection cells in the bending plane is greater than in the non-bending plane, in order to increase the momentum resolution. The inclusion of the M1 station is primarily to provide improved momentum resolution in the trigger, giving a momentum resolution of approximately 20 %. In total, the absorber material is 20 interaction lengths, such that only highly penetrating muons reach M4–5. In order to pass through all the muon stations a muon must have a p_T of at least 6 GeV. Therefore, stations M1–3 have considerably better spacial resolution than stations M4–5, which are primarily used to identify highly penetrating muons.

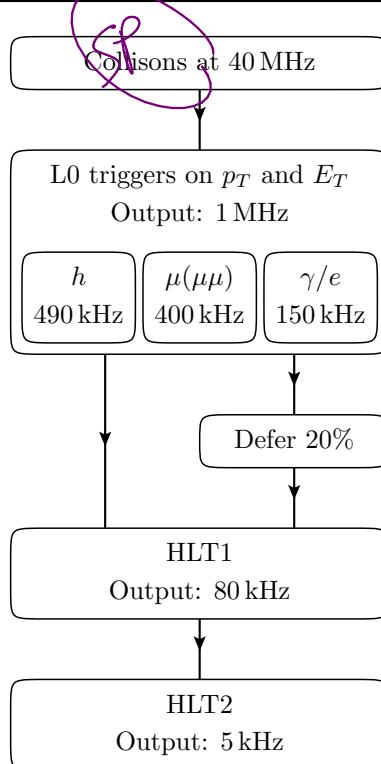
The muon system provides important PID information. In many LHCb analyses a muon is identified based on hits within the muon system, the criteria is known as `isMuon`. The criteria is dependent upon the muon momentum, and defined exactly in Table 3.1.

This criterion

Table 3.1: The `isMuon` flag is an important variable used to identify muons. The criteria depends on the particle's measured momentum. If the `isMuon` condition returns a true then the particle is identified to be a muon.

criteria depend
criterion depends

$p(\mu)$ range (GeV)	isMuon condition
$3 < p(\mu) < 6$	M2 and M3
$6 < p(\mu) < 10$	M2 and M3 and (M4 or M5)
$p(\mu) > 10$	M2 and M3 and M4 and M5



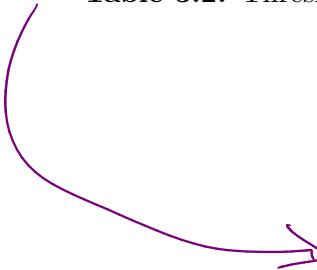
for consistency

Figure 3.11: The flow of the LHCb trigger system in 2012.

3.3 Trigger

With a pp interaction rate of 40 MHz and multiple subdetector stations, there is too much information associated with each event to write everything all to disk. Instead a multistage trigger is employed to filter potentially interesting events based on track momentum and energy. The Level 0 Trigger (L0) is embedded in the hardware of LHCb and is fully synchronous with the bunch crossing rate, it reduces the output 1 MHz. There are five L0 trigger lines; one each for objects identified as photons, electrons, hadrons, muons and pairs of muons (dimuon). Two software triggers follow L0, and are fast enough to perform tracking algorithms and use information from multiple subdetectors to reduce the events written to disk to 5 kHz. The flow of data through the trigger is shown in Fig. 3.11.

The L0 trigger algorithms for photons, hadrons, and electrons are based on calorimeter objects. A single calorimeter cluster is defined as two-by-two calorimeter cells in each the

Table 3.2: Thresholds in 2011 and 2012 for L0 trigger lines [34] used in this thesis.


	2011	2012
L0Muon	1.48 GeV	1.76 GeV
L0Dimuon	$(1.296 \text{ GeV})^2$	$(1.6 \text{ GeV})^2$
L0Hadron	3.5 GeV	3.7 GeV

ECAL and HCAL. For each cluster the transverse energy, E_T , is calculated:

$$E_T = \sum_{i=1}^4 E_i \sin \theta_i, \quad (3.5)$$

where E_i is the energy in cell i and θ_i is the angle between the average interaction point and the cell's centre. Clusters are categorized as follows. A hadron candidate is the largest E_T cluster in the HCAL summed with the E_T of the ECAL cluster in front, if there is one. A candidate photon (electron) is the largest E_T deposit with hits in the PS cells in front and no hits (at least one hit) in the nearest SPD cells. The E_T of each candidate is compared to thresholds, and the event is retained if one or more is exceeded.

L0 trigger lines associated with muons base their acceptance on measurements of p_T . Each quadrant of the muon system is read out independently, so muons which cross boundaries cannot be triggered. Muon candidates with the highest and second highest p_T are selected from each quadrant by searching for straight lines through M1-5 in the zy -plane, and in the zx -plane if $p_T > 0.5 \text{ GeV}$. The M1 station is used to increase the p_T resolution of muon tracks in the trigger without tracking information: this achieves a resolution of about 25 % that of fully reconstructed tracks. Events are accepted based on candidates from all quadrants with values of p_T^{\max} and $p_T^{\max} \times p_T^{2\text{nd}\max}$ greater than thresholds for the muon and dimuon lines respectively. Thresholds for L0 trigger lines used in this thesis are given in Table 3.2.

Mention for fig 3.1

Deferred triggering was introduced in 2012. It diverts around 20 % of events that pass the L0 trigger to hard disks for processing when the LHC is not colliding protons. The 80% of events accepted at are processed immediately by the software triggers, which are run on around 2000 computing nodes using C++ applications.

Following L0, there are software High Level Triggers (HLTs). The first software trigger, HLT1, performs the full three dimensional VELO track fitting algorithms (but with fewer passes than the offline version). Candidate VELO tracks for triggers which do not require muons are selected based upon the quality of the VELO track and the smallest IP with respect to any of the identified primary vertices. Primary vertices are defined to be points within $300 \mu\text{m}$ of the mean interaction point in the xy -plane, $\text{PV}_{xy}^{\text{mean}}$, from which at least five tracks originate. The position of $\text{PV}_{xy}^{\text{mean}}$ is measured at the start of each LHC machine

fill. For trigger lines requiring muons, each VELO track is extrapolated to a window in the M3 station. The size of this window is narrow in the non-bending direction but wide enough to accommodate a 6 GeV muon in x . If there is a deposit in this window then the VELO track is extrapolated to the cluster and if there are hits consistent with this track in any of the muon stations M2, M4 or M5 the track is tagged as belonging to a muon. The VELO tracks that are selected by IP or the muon system are extrapolated (or interpolated) into the IT and OT. This is known as forward tracking, and provides momentum measurements for all these tracks.

The HLT1 output rate of 80 kHz is sufficiently low to allow the forward tracking algorithm to be performed on all VELO tracks (rather than just those that appear to come from a PV). However, the HLT2 is not fast enough to perform the full off-line track reconstruction, and is limited to VELO tracks with $p > 5$ GeV and $p_T > 0.5$ GeV in 2011; which was relaxed to $p_T > 0.3$ GeV in 2012 thanks to deferred triggering.

The output of HLT2 is dominated by the *topological* trigger lines, which are designed to identify b -hadrons decaying into charged tracks using vertex and track information consistent with the decay topology of a b -hadron. Vertices formed of two, three and four reconstructed tracks displaced from PVs are triggered based on the response of a Bonsai BDT (BBDT) [35]. A BBBDT is a Boosted Decision Tree, which are detailed in Chap. 4, whose input and output distributions are distretized so that a simple look-up table can be used to calculate the response. This approach is not only fast, but 9 % more efficient than using a cuts-based selection for a 4-body signal [35]. *Vedurundant*

~~Events that are selected are flagged as either Triggered on signal Trigger On Signal (TOS), or Triggered independently of signal Trigger Independent of Signal (TIS)— the latter meaning that the event was triggered by a different particle in the event.~~ This allows the analyst the ability to calculate an estimate of the trigger efficiency in data using the TISTOS method. One can get an approximate trigger efficiency using

$$\varepsilon_{\text{trig}}^{\text{TISTOS}} = \frac{N_{\text{TIS}}}{N_{\text{TIS\&TOS}}} \quad (3.6)$$

This can be useful because while simulated events can contain events which were not triggered, this is, obviously, not the case for data. This is not perfect because TIS b -hadron candidates are usually fired by the other b -hadron in the event (from $g \rightarrow b\bar{b}$), and the kinematics between the two are highly correlated.

3.4 Data, stripping, and simulation

The data collected by the LHCb detector used in this thesis totals 3 fb^{-1} ; where 1 fb^{-1} was collected in the year 2011 with a centre-of-mass energy of 7 TeV, and 2 fb^{-1} at 8 TeV was

collected in 2012. In total, the data collected in 2011 and 2012 is known as Run-1 data.

Even the ~~much~~ much reduced, HLT2 output rate of 5 kHz is a vast amount of data for an analyst to sift through in a timely manner. To improve the speed to access data, additional selections are applied to the dataset biannually which further categorize each event. This is known as stripping. Stripped datasets are the only ones accessible to analysts, which makes the process of retrieving data of interest fast. Stripping selections in this thesis vary, and will be described when appropriate.

Reliable analysis of real data would not be possible without selections of simulated events. These allows collaborator's access to pure samples of specific, requested decays to aid their research. This can be for the evaluation of efficiencies, understanding effects in data, or making analysis decisions without compromising blinded data. These events are generated in two independent phases: generation and simulation. Proton-proton collisions are generated using PYTHIA [36] with a specific LHCb configuration [37], and subsequent hadronic decays are handled by the EVTGEN [38] package. The simulation phase is designed to mimic the LHCb detector's response to particles, this is done with GEANT4 [39] as described in Ref. [40]. Simulated events after the hadronization stage and before detector modelling are known as *generator level* simulation.

- ④ Summarise detector performance
conditions etc Handwritten
- ④ Explain simulations in detail
- ④ Reference for later chapter

Chapter 4

Multivariate selection techniques

The analyses detailed in Chap. 5, Chap. 6 and Chap. 7 make prodigious use of multivariate techniques to reduce combinatorial backgrounds. Combinatorial backgrounds are formed from random combinations of tracks which appear to form a vertex, pass selection criteria, and satisfy relevant PID assignments. To remove these backgrounds Multivariate Analysis (MVA) techniques can be employed. A multivariate discriminator¹⁹ exploits correlations between weakly discriminating variables to produce a single, more separating, classifier.

MVA techniques used in HEP tend to be supervised learning algorithms, whereby a selection of events are given input, and an algorithm produces a response based on how best to separate them. Input into the algorithms to separate a background are: a sample of the signal and background candidates that must be separated, and a set of variables to be used to do so. Samples of events are split in two²⁰; some are used for training the MVA, and the remaining are used for testing it. The input, or training, variables define an n -dimensional space populated by the input samples. The algorithm then classifies regions in this n -dimensional space as signal- or background-like; such that an arbitrary event placed somewhere in the space would also be classified based on the point it inhabits. The Boosted Decision Tree (BDT) algorithm is used throughout this thesis because it can handle a weighted training sample, including negative weights, and can exploit non-linear correlations between variables [41, 42].

A BDT is composed of a combination of numerous Decision Trees (DTs), each of which is a classifier in its own right — albeit a weak one — being able to distinguish between high density regions of signal and background populations.

Training a DT begins with a single parent node populated by the whole training sample, which inhabits the parameter space defined by the variables x_i , whose true distribution is $f(x_i)$. The sample on the parent node is split by selecting a cut based on maximizing some figure-of-merit. Child nodes are then split, and the process is repeated until there is no possible improvement in the separation of signal and background. The definition of

improvement is usually related to the signal and background purity of a node:

$$p_{\text{sig}} = (1 - \varepsilon_{\text{bkg}}) \quad p_{\text{bkg}} = (1 - \varepsilon_{\text{sig}}). \quad (4.1)$$

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The final child nodes, or leaves, are each associated with signal or background depending on the purity of the sample which populates it. Each leaf therefore maps out an area in n -dimensions, and is classified as a signal or background leaf depending on the purity of the training sample enclosed by that area. The hypothesised category, as output by the DT, $h(x_i)$, will ideally be equal to $f(x_i)$, but in reality there will be events which are misclassified. A figure-of-merit which is often used to determine the cut used at each node is the G_{ini} index, which is defined as

$$G_{ini} = 2p_{\text{bkg}}p_{\text{sig}} = 2(1 - \varepsilon_{\text{sig}})(1 - \varepsilon_{\text{bkg}}) = \frac{2sb}{(s + b)^2}, \quad (4.2)$$

where s and b are the weighted sum of signal and background candidates, respectively, after a given cut.

Decision Trees have the advantages over other machine learning algorithms — such as neural nets — of being able to deal with weighted training samples, and being insensitive to variables with very little separation power because the G_{ini} index never identifies a cut on them as being profitable. However, DTs are sensitive to statistical fluctuations in the training sample. To negate this problem DTs can be *Boosted* using any one of a number of algorithms. The procedure of boosting removes the power that statistical fluctuations has over the final BDT.

A different boosting method is used to train the BDTs in each analyses in this thesis. The algorithms used are outlined in the remainder of this chapter.

4.1 The bagging algorithm

Bootstrap aggregating, or bagging¹, is a method of boosting whereby the effects of statistical fluctuations are negated by making many independent DTs and using them to make a decision based on the average response. Training n DTs, it is possible to define three errors, namely: square of the error of a single estimator

$$\epsilon_t(x_i) = (f(x_i) - h_t(x_i))^2 \quad (4.3)$$

¹ This section is based on Ref. [43].

where the index t denotes a single DT; the weighted average of individual errors

$$\bar{\epsilon}(x_i) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=1}^n \epsilon_t(x_i); \quad w_i ? \quad (4.4)$$

and the error of an ensemble of DTs

$$e(x_i) = (f(x_i) - \bar{h}(x_i))^2. \quad (4.5)$$

The weighted variance of response of the estimators h_t around a weighted mean is defined as

$$V(x_i) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=1}^n (h_t(x_i) - \bar{h}(x_i))^2. \quad (4.6)$$

After some basic algebraic manipulation of Eq. 4.6, the relationship

$$e(x_i) = \bar{\epsilon}(x_i) - V(x_i) \quad (4.7)$$

emerges. This means that the error squared of the ensemble of DTs is equal to the average error squared of an individual estimator, minus the weighted variance. Therefore the process of bagging reduces the effect of statistical fluctuations in the training samples [44].

A bagged BDT is trained by randomly selecting events, with replacement, to train a single DT. Hundreds of DTs can then be trained, and the weighted response from all DTs is the result of the classifier, in the range zero to one.

The bagging algorithm is used to train two BDTs in Chap. 5, one to identify the D_s^+ meson, and the other to identify the ϕ meson, above background combinatorics. Both these BDTs are trained using a large number, $\mathcal{O}(50)$ variables, and therefore the simplicity of bagging is advantageous. Also, because the analysis uses two BDTs, it is better to cut on the product of the BDT responses, which is more natural in the case of the bagging algorithm because the response is between zero and one.

4.2 The AdaBoost algorithm

The Adaptive Boost, AdaBoost, algorithm² negates the effect of statistical fluctuations in a data set by increasing the weights of misclassified events. The algorithm begins by training a single DT as described above, where each event has unit weight. In subsequent DTs, the weight for each event, i , is modified for a tree t , to be

$$w_i^t = c_i^t \times w_i^{t-1}, \quad (4.8)$$

² This section is based on Ref. [45].

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where c based on the classification of the event in the previous tree, it is determined to be

$$c_i^t = \exp(\alpha_t \gamma_i^t), \quad \gamma_i^t = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{event } i \text{ classified incorrectly by tree } t-1 \\ 1 & \text{event } i \text{ classified correctly by tree } t-1 \end{cases}. \quad (4.9)$$

Weights are then renormalized such that they sum to unity. The value of α_t is the weight that the DT carries, and is given by

$$\alpha_t = \frac{1}{2} \ln \left(\frac{1 - \epsilon_t}{\epsilon_t} \right) \quad (4.10)$$

where ϵ is the weighted error rate. This reweighting procedure artificially fluctuates the training sample which is used to train each DT. Multiple DTs are made in this fashion, forming a forest; where the response of the BDT classifier is a combination of responses from all DTs in the forest. The total response of a BDT, T , is

$$T(x_i) = \sum_{t=1}^n \alpha_t T_t(x_i) \quad (4.11)$$

where $T_t(x_i)$ is the response of tree t , which returns one if it classifies x_i as being signal-like, and negative one if it is background-like.

The AdaBoost algorithm is fast, and often used in HEP analyses. It is implemented in Chap. 6 to distinguish signal $B^+ \rightarrow K^+ \pi^+ \pi^- \mu^+ \mu^-$ and $B^+ \rightarrow \phi K^+ \mu^+ \mu^-$ candidates from combinatorial backgrounds.

4.3 The uBoost algorithm

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The uniform Boosting, uBoost, algorithm³ is designed to give a uniform response in the signal efficiency of some variables ζ_i . The procedure of creating a uniform BDT, Uniform BDT (uBDT), builds from the weighting technique used in the AdaBoost algorithm, but additional weight is applied to events that lie in a region of parameter space which is not performing with the desired efficiency. Consider a BDT whose signal efficiency in the variables ζ_i is required to be ϵ . The weighting of each event is modified from that used in the AdaBoost algorithm in Eq. 4.8 to

$$w_i^t = u_i^t \times c_i^t \times w_i^{t-1}, \quad (4.12)$$

where u denotes a weighting proportional to the distance away from ϵ in the local region:

$$u_i^t = \exp(\beta_t(\bar{\epsilon} - \epsilon_i^t)), \quad (4.13)$$

³ This section is based on Ref. [46].

which can be calculated using a nearest neighbours algorithm or by binning. The boosting parameter β is calculated as

$$\beta_t = \frac{1}{2} \ln \left(\frac{1 - e_t}{e_t} \right) \quad (4.14)$$

where

$$e_t = \sum_i w_i^{t-1} c_i^t |\bar{\epsilon} - \epsilon_i^t|. \quad (4.15)$$

This leads to a single BDT whose response is analogous to Eq. 4.16 but with the addition of the target efficiency $\bar{\epsilon}$

$$T(x_i, \bar{\epsilon}) = \sum_{t=1}^n \alpha_t T_t(x_i, \bar{\epsilon}). \quad (4.16)$$

Therefore, a single of these BDTs is associated with a given target efficiency, where fraction of $T(x_i, \epsilon) > \bar{T}(\bar{\epsilon})$ is $\bar{\epsilon}$. An arbitrary number of BDTs, N , can be concatenated, each with a different target efficiency, and the total response is

$$\mathcal{T}(x_i) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{e=1}^n \Theta(T(x_i, \bar{\epsilon}) - \bar{T}(\bar{\epsilon})). \quad (4.17)$$

For $\mathcal{T}(x_i)$ to be a continuous distribution, $N \rightarrow \infty$, however in practice $N \sim 100$ is all that is needed for analysis.

Use of Using the uBoost algorithm is well motivated in Chap. 7, which is a search for a particle of unknown mass and lifetime. The uBoost technique allows a BDT to be trained, ensuring that the response does not bias the selection towards some lifetimes or masses.

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4.4 Summary

Multivariate selection techniques are a vital part of HEP analyses, and help rare processes to be separated from underlying combinatorial backgrounds. There are a number of algorithms available to the analyst, for many analyses the choice can be a matter of taste or convenience. However, there are circumstances where the use of a particular algorithm is very important. For example, the BBBDTs outlined in Sec. 3.3 must be fast; and the uBoost algorithm implemented for the analysis in Chap. 7 is required to prevent the selection being bias towards a region of mass and lifetime. Without these various machine learning techniques the field would be restricted to cut-based analyses and the sensitivity of many searches, especially those for very rare decays, would be considerably weakened.

The variables and training samples used to train the BDTs will be discussed in the relevant

chapters.

Chapter 5

Search for the decay $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi$

5.1 Introduction

In the SM the decay $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi$ proceeds via the annihilation of the constituent b and u quarks of a B^+ meson forming a virtual W^+ boson from the CC interaction, the processes is suppressed by the CKM matrix element V_{ub} ¹. To achieve the final state, the W^+ decays into a $c\bar{s}$ pair and an additional $s\bar{s}$ pair must be created from the QCD field. This is the only diagram that can perpetuate such a decay at tree-level, because the initial state quarks are all different to those in the final state. A Feynman diagram of the decay $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi$ is shown in Fig. 5.1, where the final state mesons can be formed in the way indicated, or the $s\bar{s}$ pair from the QCD field can form the ϕ , although this is colour-suppressed. Also, the gluon that forms the $s\bar{s}$ pair can originate from any of the initial or final state quarks. This analysis was published in Ref. [1].

Annihilation decays of B^+ mesons are rare in the SM due to the magnitude of $|V_{ub}| \sim 4 \times 10^{-3}$. In fact, no fully hadronic decays proceeding via annihilation-type diagrams have yet been observed.

Predictions for the branching fraction $\mathcal{B}(B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi)$ are calculated using the OPE defined by the effective Hamiltonian [47–50]:

$$\mathcal{H}_{\text{eff}} = -4 \frac{G_F}{\sqrt{2}} V_{ub} V_{cs}^* [C_1(\Lambda) \mathcal{O}_1 + C_2(\Lambda) \mathcal{O}_2] \quad (5.1)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{O}_1 &= (\bar{b}\gamma_\mu P_L u)(\bar{c}\gamma_\mu P_L s) \\ \mathcal{O}_2 &= (\bar{b}\gamma_\mu P_L s)(\bar{c}\gamma_\mu P_L u). \end{aligned} \quad (5.2)$$

¹ All mentions of the ϕ meson refers to the $\phi(1020)$.

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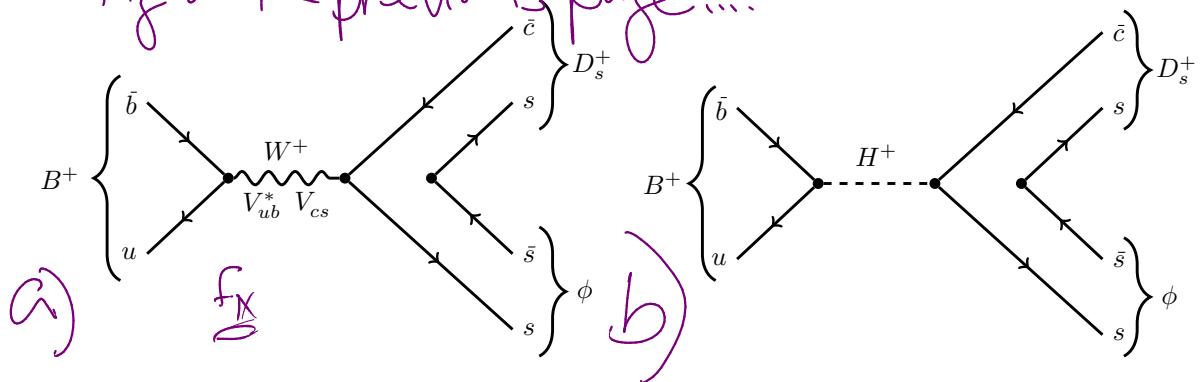


Figure 5.1: A Feynman diagram for the decay $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi$ being mediated by a (left) W^+ in the SM, and (right) H^+ in SUSY. The $s\bar{s}$ pairs shown here are formed from a gluon that can come from any quark. The arrangement of quarks forming the final state mesons shown is the colour favoured decay

The Wilson coefficients C_1 and C_2 are defined at the scale $\Lambda = m_b$, and the projection operators are defined as $P_L = \frac{1}{2}(1 - \gamma_5)$ and $P_R = \frac{1}{2}(1 + \gamma_5)$. The short distance operators \mathcal{O}_1 and \mathcal{O}_2 both describe the transition $b \rightarrow scu$. Therefore, not only is there uncertainty in the branching fraction introduced by V_{ub} , but the number of quarks in the decay make QCD calculations very difficult. Calculating the amplitude of the decay $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi$ is made particularly complicated because the decay is inherently non-factorizable, since the $s\bar{s}$ pair can come from any of the initial or final state quarks at leading order. There are also inherent uncertainties in the form-factors that describe the hadronization process of the final state quarks. Reference [48] predicts that

$$\mathcal{B}(B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi)|_{\text{SM}} = 1.88 \times 10^{-6},$$

by naively assuming factorizability holds, and by using an improved technique [51], whereby perturbative QCD corrections are applied to factorization method, a value of

$$\mathcal{B}(B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi)|_{\text{SM}} = 0.67 \times 10^{-6},$$

is calculated. The corrections lead to a factor two in the prediction of the branching fraction. Other SM predictions tend to lie between $\sim 1 \times 10^{-7}$ and $\sim 7 \times 10^{-7}$ [47–50].

Despite the theoretical uncertainties, enhancements in the value of $\mathcal{B}(B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi)$ could be significantly enhanced if the decay were mediated by additional BSM particles, particularly other charged bosons. For example, in a model with Two Higgs Doublet Model (2HDM)—such as SUSY—the decay $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi$ would be mediated by a charged Higgs H^+ , this is shown in Fig. 5.1. More particles mean more Feynman diagrams that could add to the total amplitude. Reference [48] also makes predictions for the branching

fraction of the decay $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi$ in a 2HDM and a model with R -Parity Violation (RPV):

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{B}(B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi)|_{\text{2HDM}} &= 8.0 \times 10^{-6}, \\ \mathcal{B}(B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi)|_{\text{RPV}} &= 3.06 \times 10^{-4}.\end{aligned}$$

These numbers indicate that, while the exact SM value of $\mathcal{B}(B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi)$ is not well known, the value for models with additional mediating particles could be enhanced by a factor of over 100.

The CP asymmetry, \mathcal{A}_{CP} , of a process is defined in terms of decay rates of B hadrons:

$$\mathcal{A}_{CP} = \frac{\Gamma(\bar{B} \rightarrow \bar{f}) - \Gamma(B \rightarrow f)}{\Gamma(\bar{B} \rightarrow \bar{f}) + \Gamma(B \rightarrow f)} \quad (5.3)$$

for some final state f . A positive value of \mathcal{A}_{CP} would indicate a preference of the antimatter process, above the matter process. In the SM $\mathcal{A}_{CP}(B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi) = 0$, because the process only contains one phase, in V_{ub} , but interference from BSM physics diagrams could alter this significantly. Predictions from Ref. [48] are:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{A}_{CP}(B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi)|_{\text{2HDM}} &\leq 59\%, \\ \mathcal{A}_{CP}(B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi)|_{\text{RPV}} &\leq 14\%.\end{aligned} \quad (5.4)$$

So, both measurements of $\mathcal{B}(B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi)$ and $\mathcal{A}_{CP}(B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi)$ could lead to evidence of NP.

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5.1.1 Other annihilation-type hadronic decays

The annihilation of the B^+ meson can perpetuate numerous decays resulting in fully hadronic states, including a charmed meson. The decay $B^+ \rightarrow D^+ K^{*0}$ proceeds in the same way as $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi$, but the former needs a $d\bar{d}$ pair to be created from the QCD vacuum, rather than an $s\bar{s}$ pair. Similarly, the decay $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \bar{K}^{*0}$ is identical to the $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi$ excepting that instead of $W^+ \rightarrow c\bar{s}$ the W^+ decays into an $c\bar{d}$ pair. The decays $B^+ \rightarrow D^+ \bar{K}^{*0}$ and $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ K^{*0}$ are non-trivial diagrams in the SM, and heavily suppressed, but have similar final states. The same final states can also come from the annihilation of the constituent quarks of the B_c^+ meson. While the following chapter only discusses the search for the decay $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi$, these other interesting decay modes are searched for in Ref. [1].

5.2 Data selection

The data sample used in this analysis amounts to 1 fb^{-1} of pp collisions at 7 TeV collected by the LHCb detector in 2011. Events are selected by the trigger at hardware level if they fulfil the requirements of the L0 hadron trigger, or any track in the event fulfills any L0 trigger line requirement (TIS). Further trigger requirements are applied at the HLT2 level, where events are required to pass at least one of the hadronic topological triggers (see Sec. 3.3 for more details) with TOS.

The D_s^+ meson is only reconstructed from the Cabibbo-favoured decay $D_s^+ \rightarrow K^+ K^- \pi^+$, which has a branching fraction of $(5.39 \pm 0.21) \times 10^{-2}$. Furthermore, the mass of the reconstructed particle must fall within 25 MeV of $m_{D_s^+}^{\text{PDG}} = 1968.30 \pm 0.11$ MeV; where the superscript PDG indicates the nominal mass of the indicated particle from Ref. [10]. The D_s^+ meson decays weakly, and therefore has a non-zero lifetime, $\tau_{D_s^+} = (5.00 \pm 0.07) \times 10^{-13}$ s, and thus an extremely narrow width, so the value of 25 MeV is primarily to account for detector resolution effects. In order for the candidate to have the correct decay topology, it is also required that the D_s^+ vertex lies downstream of the B^+ decay vertex.

Candidate ϕ mesons are reconstructed from the decay mode $\phi \rightarrow K^+ K^-$, where $\mathcal{B}(\phi \rightarrow K^+ K^-) = (0.498 \pm 0.005)$ and are accepted if the invariant $K^+ K^-$ mass, $m_{K^+ K^-}$, is within 40 MeV of $m_\phi^{\text{PDG}} = (1019.461 \pm 0.019)$ MeV [10]. The ϕ meson decays strongly, and therefore has an appreciable width, $\Gamma_\phi = (4.266 \pm 0.031)$ MeV, but the detector resolution is better for the ϕ than the D_s^+ because it has zero lifetime. Therefore, a mass window of 40 MeV is extremely wide; but further mass constraints of the ϕ are applied in the fit used to obtain the signal yield: a signal region is defined by a window that extends only 20 MeV from m_ϕ^{PDG} , and a sideband region ~ 20 MeV around it.

All tracks forming the candidate mesons must fulfill requirements on the transverse momentum, $p_T > 100$ MeV, and tracks from the D_s^+ (ϕ), $p > 1(2)$ GeV. Geometrical constraints are also placed on the tracks. One important geometrical variable is the Impact Parameter (IP), which is defined as the perpendicular distance between the vertex in question and the line of flight of a particle. The χ^2 per degree of freedom of the track fit, $\chi^2_{\text{trk}}/\text{DOF}$, must be less than four. The variable χ^2_{IP} is defined as the increase in the χ^2 of the vertex fit (χ^2_{vtx}) when the signal track is combined with the PV; the $\min(\chi^2_{\text{IP}})$ is the minimum χ^2_{IP} with respect to all PVs; this selection requires $\min(\chi^2_{\text{IP}}) > 4$. Loose PID requirements are also placed on all tracks, and further PID constraints are applied in the BDT, which is detailed later.

The B^+ vertex fit is performed by constraining the mass of the D_s^+ candidate to its known mass [10], and requiring a χ^2_{vtx} per degree of freedom of less than ten. The angle between the momentum vector of the B^+ candidate and the vector formed by the PV and decay vertex of the B^+ is known as the direction angle, θ_{dir} . Were the resolution of the

but

LHCb detector to be perfect, a real decay would have $\cos \theta_{\text{dir}} = 1$, here $\cos \theta_{\text{dir}}$ must be greater than 0.999. Prompt background from the PV is suppressed by requiring that the lifetime of the B^+ , τ_{B^+} , is greater than 0.2 ps. A cut on the Distance of Closest Approach (DOCA) is applied to the D_s^+ candidate; where the DOCA is defined as the maximum distance of closest approach between all pairs of daughter particles. Selection criteria are summarized in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1: Selection criteria applied to the $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi$ candidates.

Candidate	Selection criterion			
B^+	$\sum p_T^{\text{tracks}}$	>	5	GeV
	$\chi_{\text{vtx}}^2/\text{DOF}$	<	10	
	χ_{IP}^2	<	25	
	τ	>	0.2	ps
	$\cos \theta_{\text{dir}}$	>	0.999	
D_s^+	$\sum p_T^{\text{tracks}}$	>	1.8	GeV
	$\chi_{\text{vtx}}^2/\text{DOF}$	<	10	
	DOCA	<	0.5	mm
Tracks from D_s^+	p_T	>	100	MeV
	p	>	1	GeV
	$\chi_{\text{trk}}^2/\text{DOF}$	<	4	
	$\min(\chi_{\text{IP}}^2)$	>	4	
	χ_{FD}^2	>	36	
	$\text{DLL}_{K\pi}(K)$	>	-10	
	$\text{DLL}_{K\pi}(\pi)$	<	20	
ϕ	$\sum p_T^{\text{tracks}}$	>	1	GeV
	$\chi_{\text{vtx}}^2/\text{DOF}$	<	16	
Tracks from ϕ	p_T	>	100	MeV
	p	>	2	GeV
	$\chi_{\text{trk}}^2/\text{DOF}$	<	4	
	$\min(\chi_{\text{IP}}^2)$	>	4	
	χ_{FD}^2	>	16	
	$\text{DLL}_{K\pi}(K)$	>	-2	

5.2.1 Suppression of combinatorial background

A pair of BDTs are employed to separate $D_s^+ \rightarrow K^+ K^- \pi^+$ and $\phi \rightarrow K^+ K^-$ candidates from combinatorial background; referred to as $\text{BDT}_{D_s^+}$ and $\text{BDT}\phi$, respectively. The BDTs are designed to identify the decays $D_s^+ \rightarrow K^+ K^- \pi^+$ and $\phi \rightarrow K^+ K^-$, with topologies consistent with coming from a parent B -meson. The methodology used to train each BDT is the same. Both are trained using the bagging algorithm, as outlined in Chap. 4, with the StatPatternRecognition package [52], using the same set of input variables. This technique

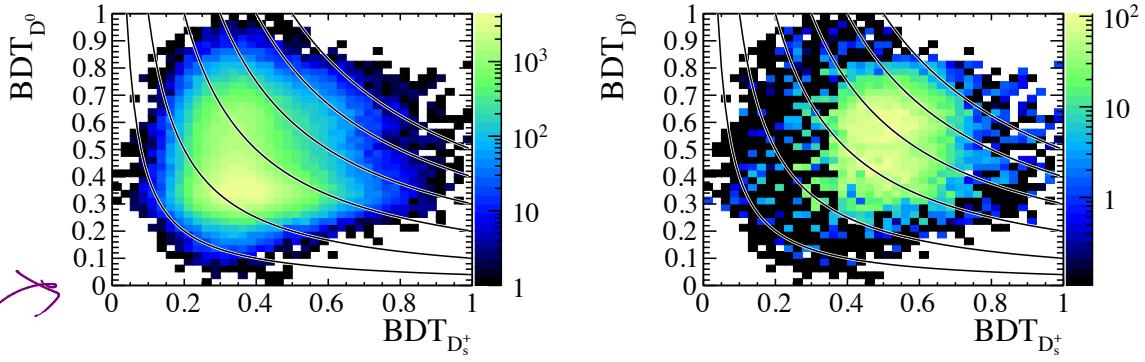


Figure 5.2: An example distribution of the response for a BDT_{D^0} against a $\text{BDT}_{D_s^+}$ for a sample of (left) $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \bar{D}^0$ candidates where the background dominates and occupies the lower left of the plots, and (right) the same candidates after sWeighting has been applied where the signal peak is observed further towards the upper right. The lines overlaid on the plot show the boundaries for the cuts of $\text{BDT}_{D_s^+} \times \text{BDT}_{D^0} > 0.01, 0.04, 0.10, 0.20, 0.30, 0.40$, and 0.50 . It is seen that using the product of the BDT discriminants is more effective for rare decays where a tighter cut will be needed, in this region candidates are selected if their response is particularly positive, at the expense of the other meson.

of using a BDT to identify each meson is also used in Ref. [53], which measures branching fraction ratios of various $B \rightarrow DD$ decays. The bagging boosting technique used gives a response between zero and one. Therefore, it is natural to cut on the product of the two BDT responses, $\text{BDT}_{D_s^+} \times \text{BDT}_\phi > X$, as opposed to $\text{BDT}_{D_s^+} > X_1$ and $\text{BDT}_\phi > X_2$. Cutting on the product of the BDTs improves the performance of the selection, because a very strong D_s^+ candidate (for example) will be selected at the expense of a slightly weaker ϕ selection, this is particularly true for tighter cuts. Figure 5.2 shows the effect of cutting on $\text{BDT}_{D_s^+} \times \text{BDT}_{D^0}$ in the normalization channel $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \bar{D}^0$.

The $D_s^+ \rightarrow K^+ K^- \pi^+$ BDT was trained using $D_s^+ \rightarrow K^+ K^- \pi^+$ decays from data taken from the high statistics channel $\bar{B}_s^0 \rightarrow D_s^+ \pi^-$. The signal sample of D_s^+ decays came from the $D_s^+ \rightarrow K^+ K^- \pi^+$ candidates that fell within 3σ of the known D_s^+ mass, the sample was background subtracted using the sWeighting technique [54] on the B^+ mass spectrum. Background data was taken from candidates falling in the upper mass sideband of the B^+ , and either sideband of the D_s^+ . Similarly, for the ϕ BDT, the signal sample was sWeighted and the background comes from the ϕ mass sidebands; but the sample is taken from the high statistics $B_s^0 \rightarrow J/\psi \phi$ mode.

In total, there are five kinematic and geometric training variables for the parent meson. For the daughter tracks there are a total of 23 variables, including kinematic, geometric and PID variables. Since the BDT was trained using data, it is possible to use PID variables that are poorly described in simulation. A summary of all training variables is given in Table 5.2.

The cut for the BDT was optimized using the metric $S/\sqrt{S + B}$, In this case, the number

Table 5.2: List of training variables used in the D_s^+ and ϕ BDTs. Each BDT uses five variables associated with the parent particle and 23 variables from each daughter track.

Particle		Variable
D_s^+, ϕ	Kinematic variables	p, p_T
	Geometric variables	$\chi_{\text{vtx}}^2, \chi_{\text{IP}}^2, \chi_{\text{FD}}^2$
Tracks	Kinematic variables	p, p_T
	Geometric variables	$\min(\chi_{\text{IP}}^2)$
	Track variables	4 variables characterizing the track quality
	PID variables	16 variables containing PID information, such as <code>isMuon</code> and DLL variables from the RICH detectors

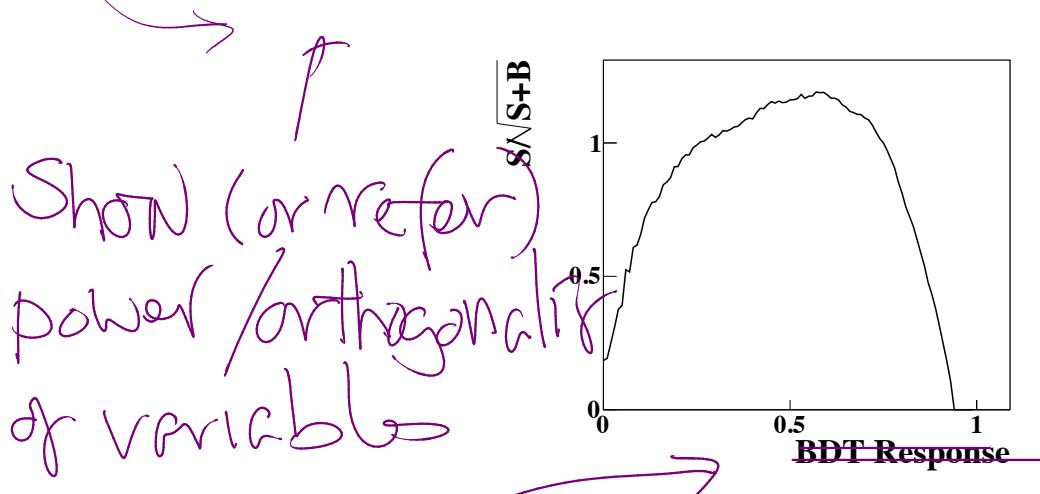


Figure 5.3: Value of the figure of merit $S/\sqrt{S + B}$ is shown as a function of the BDT response, $\text{BDT}_{D_s^+} \times \text{BDT}_\phi$. The maximum value of the figure of merit is 0.57, which is chosen as the final BDT cut.

of signal events, S , was estimated from the yield from the decay $B_s^0 \rightarrow D_s^- \pi^+$, according to:

$$S = \frac{\mathcal{B}(B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi)}{\mathcal{B}(\bar{B}_s^0 \rightarrow D_s^+ \pi^-)} \frac{\varepsilon_{\text{gen}}(B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi)}{\varepsilon_{\text{gen}}(\bar{B}_s^0 \rightarrow D_s^+ \pi^-)} \frac{f_d}{f_s} N(\bar{B}_s^0 \rightarrow D_s^+ \pi^-), \quad (5.5)$$

where

f_s/f_d quantifies the fraction of B_s^0 mesons produced relative to B^0 mesons. The generator level efficiency, ε_{gen} , is the efficiency introduced by the acceptance region of the LHCb detector, and the necessity that all daughter particles must travel through the detector. Background yield for a given cut is estimated as:

$$B = c \cdot N_c(B_s^0 \rightarrow D_s^- \pi^+) \cdot N_c(B_s^0 \rightarrow J/\psi \phi), \quad (5.6)$$

where N_c indicates the yield of the combinatoric background for the indicated decay, and c is a constant scaled such that $N_c(B_s^0 \rightarrow D_s^- \pi^+) \cdot N_c(B_s^0 \rightarrow J/\psi \phi) = N_c(B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi)$ with no BDT cut. The optimization procedure results in the optimal cut as $\text{BDT}_{D_s^+} \times \text{BDT}_\phi > 0.57$, as is shown in Fig. 5.3.

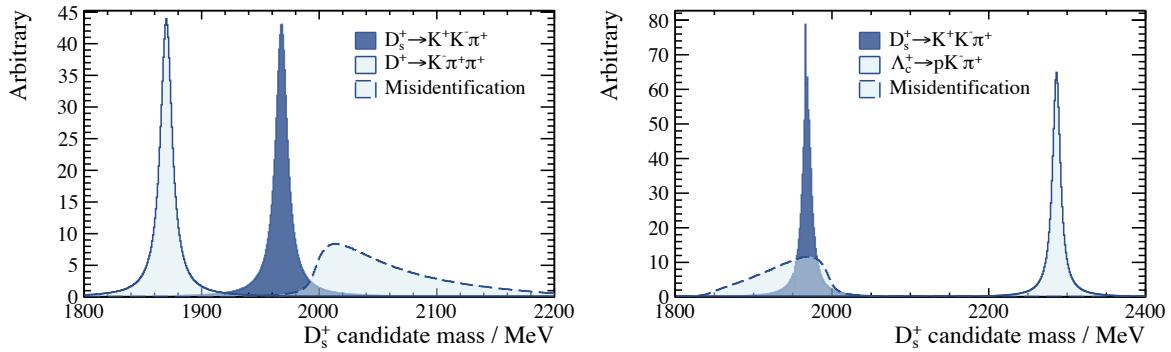


Figure 5.4: Simple phasespace simulations at generator level of the decay $D_s^+ \rightarrow K^+ K^- \pi^+$, along side (left) $D^+ \rightarrow K^- \pi^+ \pi^+$, and (right) $\Lambda_c^+ \rightarrow p K^- \pi^+$. The distributions of the D^+ and Λ_c^+ decays, where one particle has been misidentified as a K^+ are also shown. Distributions after the misidentification are shown with a dotted outline, and sit under the D_s^+ mass peak. Magnitudes of each peak are meaningless, each having the same integral.

5.2.2 Vetoing of D^+ and Λ_c^+ decays

Just say curves are area-Normalised

There are few backgrounds from real particles that could contaminate the final selection after the BDT selection. The decay topology of $D_s^+ \rightarrow K^+ K^- \pi^+$ is very similar to the other weak decays $D^+ \rightarrow K^- \pi^+ \pi^+$ and $\Lambda_c^+ \rightarrow p K^- \pi^+$, which both have relatively large branching fractions [10]:

$$\mathcal{B}(D^+ \rightarrow K^- \pi^+ \pi^+) = (9.13 \pm 0.19) \times 10^{-2},$$

and

$$\mathcal{B}(\Lambda_c^+ \rightarrow p K^- \pi^+) = (5.0 \pm 1.3) \times 10^{-2}.$$

If the daughter $\pi^+(p)$ from the $D^+(\Lambda_c^+)$ decay is misidentified as a K^+ the decay $D_s^+ \rightarrow K^+ K^- \pi^+$ can be mimicked. Henceforth, the notation h_i will be used to denote a particle assigned the mass of an h which has been identified as an i . Simple generator level simulations of phasespace, as shown in Fig. 5.4, illustrate that the mass combination of $K_\pi^+ K^- \pi^+$ and $K_p^+ K^- \pi^+$ from a real D^+ or Λ_c^+ , respectively, can fall within 25 MeV of $m_{D_s^+}^{\text{PDG}}$.

The cross-feed from the D^+ and Λ_c^+ is suppressed by vetoes, whereby tight PID constraints are applied if the $D_s^+ \rightarrow K^+ K^- \pi^+$ candidate could have come from either a D^+ or Λ_c^+ . Firstly, if the invariant mass of the $K^+ K^-$ pair lies within 10 MeV of the nominal ϕ mass then it is highly likely that it is a real D_s^+ decaying via $D_s^+ \rightarrow \phi \pi^+$, which has a branching fraction of $(4.5 \pm 0.4) \times 10^{-2}$ and therefore the $K^+ K^- \pi^+$ combination is immediately accepted as a D_s^+ candidate. Secondly, if the invariant mass of the $p_K K^- \pi^+$ ($K^- \pi_K^+ \pi^+$) object falls within 25 MeV of the known $D^+(\Lambda_c^+)$ mass the ambiguous particle is subject

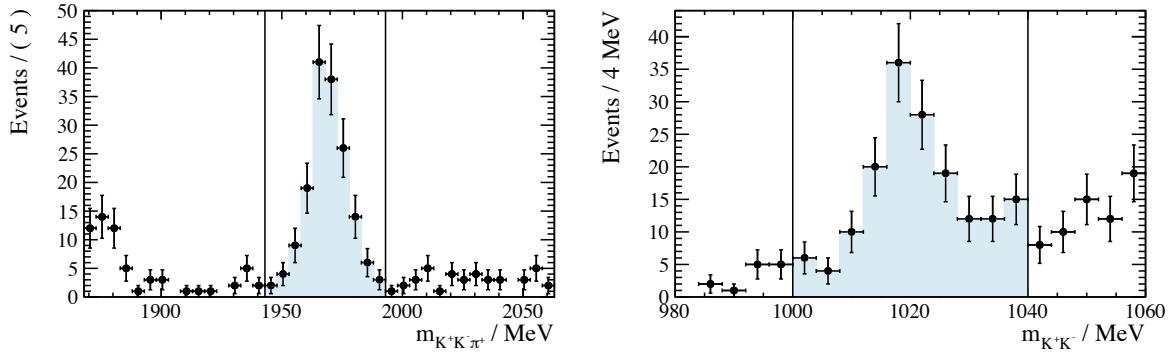


Figure 5.5: Invariant mass distributions of the candidate (left) $D_s^+ \rightarrow K^+ K^- \pi^+$, and (right) $\phi \rightarrow K^+ K^-$ candidates. The $K^+ K^- \pi^+$ spectrum shows a range of masses, where the vertical black lines indicate the boundaries of the mass cut $|m_{K^+ K^- \pi^+} - m_{D_s^+}^{\text{PDG}}| < 25$ MeV, where the shaded candidates are those that are accepted. On the far left of this distribution, a mass peak from $D^+ \rightarrow K^+ K^- \pi^+$ is also visible. The $\phi \rightarrow K^+ K^-$ spectrum is shown in the range $|m_{K^+ K^-} - m_\phi^{\text{PDG}}| < 40$ MeV, and the signal region is indicated by the vertical black lines and shaded data.

to harsh PID requirements, such that: $\text{DLL}_{K\pi} > 10(\text{DLL}_{Kp} > 0)$. These vetoes are highly, $\sim 95\%$, efficient.

Invariant mass distributions of selected candidate D_s^+ and ϕ mesons after the selection are shown in Fig. 5.5.

5.3 Calculation of the branching fraction

The branching fraction of the decay $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi$ is determined with respect to the normalization channel $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \bar{D}^0$, where $D^0 \rightarrow K^- \pi^+$, using

$$\mathcal{B}(B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi) = \frac{N(B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi)}{N(B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \bar{D}^0)} \cdot \frac{\varepsilon(B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \bar{D}^0)}{\varepsilon(B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi)} \cdot \frac{\mathcal{B}(\bar{D}^0 \rightarrow K^- \pi^+)}{\mathcal{B}(\phi \rightarrow K^+ K^-)} \cdot \mathcal{B}(B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \bar{D}^0), \quad (5.7)$$

where N denotes a yield and ε denotes an efficiency. Using $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \bar{D}^0$ as the normalization channel is advantageous because the decay topology is similar to $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi$, and the 5% uncertainty from $\mathcal{B}(D_s^+ \rightarrow K^+ K^- \pi^+)$ cancels. Reference [53] uses ~~and~~ almost identical selection, and finds that $N(B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \bar{D}^0) = 5182.0 \pm 73.9$, which is taken from the fit which is shown in Fig. 5.6.

5.3.1 Mass fits

Both the B^+ and D_s^+ mesons have quantum numbers $J^P = 0^-$, and the ϕ is 1^- . Therefore the decay $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi$ is a transition of a pseudoscalar to a pseudoscalar and a vector

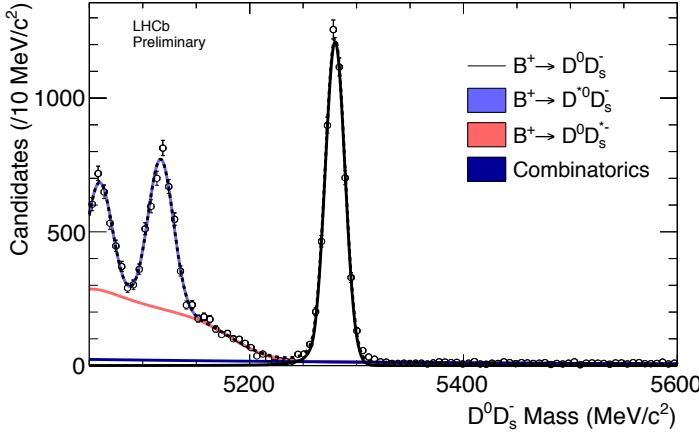


Figure 5.6: Invariant mass distribution for $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \bar{D}^0$ candidates in 1 fb^{-1} of LHCb data, from Ref. [53].

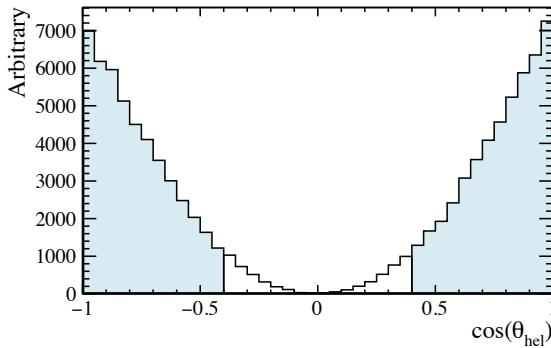


Figure 5.7: Distribution of $\cos \theta_{\text{hel}}$, where θ_{hel} is the angle between the B^+ and K^+ in the rest frame of the ϕ from simulated events. The shaded region indicates $|\cos \theta_{\text{hel}}| > 0.4$, which defines the signal region. For the decay $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi$, where the B^+ and D_s^+ mesons are both pseudoscalars, and the ϕ is a vector, the ϕ is forced into the $j = 0$ state. Therefore, the angular distribution of θ_{hel} is proportional to $\cos^2 \theta_{\text{hel}}$.

meson. In order for angular momentum to be conserved, the vector particle must be produced in the $j = 0$ state, where the spin is orthogonal to the particle's momentum. Therefore, the vector ϕ must be longitudinally polarized in the final state, and its daughter kaons have an angular distribution proportional to $\cos^2 \theta_{\text{hel}}$, as shown in Fig. 5.7. This proves to be an excellent variable for separating signal and background, because most backgrounds are flat in $\cos \theta_{\text{hel}}$. It transpired that a cut of $|\cos \theta_{\text{hel}}| > 0.4$ was 93 % signal — efficient.

Fit regions are further split according to the invariant mass of the ϕ candidate. A signal region is defined for $\phi \rightarrow K^+ K^-$ candidates with a mass within 20 MeV of the nominal ϕ mass, and a sideband region is defined for candidates with a mass in the range $20 < |m_\phi^{\text{PDG}} - m_{K^+ K^-}| < 40 \text{ MeV}$.

The four fit regions — defined by θ_{hel} and $m_{K^+ K^-}$ — have a signal region, **A**, containing

Table 5.3: Definitions of fit regions used to search for the decay $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi$. Approximately 89 % was expected to be in region **A**.

		$ m_{K^+ K^-} - m_\phi^{\text{PDG}} $ (MeV)	
		$\in [0, 20]$	$\in [20, 40]$
$ \cos \theta_{\text{hel}} $	> 0.4	A	B
	< 0.4	C	D

most of the signal, and a purely background region, **D**. Region **B** has a signal-like helicity angle, but is in the ϕ sideband region, while region **C** is the opposite. A summary of cuts defining the four fit regions is shown in Table 5.3. By simultaneously fitting $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi$ candidates in all four regions allows regions **B**, **C**, and **D** to help constrain the background in the signal region.

The signal yield of the decay $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi$ is determined with an unbinned maximum likelihood fit performed simultaneously to the invariant mass spectrum of the candidate B^+ mesons in the four regions defined above. In each region of the fit, there are several components: the signal $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi$; combinatorial background; and backgrounds from specific decays. The final state particles in this analysis of the decay $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi$ are $K^+ K^- \pi^+ K^+ K^-$. Given the mass cuts on the D_s^+ and ϕ candidates, there are no sources of background which peak at the B^+ mass. However, there are backgrounds from genuine B -hadron decays in which a particle — or multiple particles — are not reconstructed, and therefore the invariant mass of the $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi$ candidate falls below the mass of the B^+ .

After the selection requirements the most significant backgrounds above 5100 MeV of these are the decays²: $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^{*+} \phi$, $\bar{B}_s^0 \rightarrow D_s^+ K^{*0} K^-$, and $\bar{B}_s^0 \rightarrow D_s^{*+} K^{*0} K^-$. The decay $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^{*+} \phi$ proceeds via

$$\begin{array}{ccc} B^+ & \rightarrow & D_s^{*+} \\ & \downarrow & \phi \\ & D_s^+ \gamma & \\ & \downarrow & \boldsymbol{K^+ K^-} \\ & \downarrow & \boldsymbol{K^+ K^- \pi^+} \end{array}$$

where an emboldened particle indicates a reconstructed track. There is no measured branching fraction for the decay $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^{*+} \phi$, however there is a prediction from Ref. [47] of $(3.09^{+1.06}_{-1.10}) \times 10^{-6}$, compared to the prediction of $\mathcal{B}(B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi) = (0.13^{+0.06}_{-0.05}) \times 10^{-6}$ from the same reference, it is therefore likely to form a considerable background in region **A**, just below the B^+ mass after the γ is not reconstructed. The other background decay chains are:

² For these decays, the K^{*0} refers to the $K^*(892)^0$ meson.

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} \bar{B}_s^0 \rightarrow & D_s^+ & K^{*0} & \mathbf{K}^- \\ & \hookdownarrow \mathbf{K}^+ \mathbf{K}^- \pi^+ & & \hookdownarrow \mathbf{K}^+ \pi^- & \\ \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} \bar{B}_s^0 \rightarrow & D_s^{*+} & K^{*0} & \mathbf{K}^- \\ & \hookdownarrow D_s^+ \gamma & & \hookdownarrow \mathbf{K}^+ \pi^- \\ & & \hookdownarrow \mathbf{K}^+ \mathbf{K}^- \pi^+ & & \end{array}$$

where, once again, only the particles in bold are reconstructed in the vertex fit. The decay $\bar{B}_s^0 \rightarrow D_s^+ K^{*0} K^-$ has never been observed, but given that the branching fraction of the decay $B^0 \rightarrow D^- \bar{K}^{*0} K^+$ is $(8.8 \pm 1.9) \times 10^{-4}$ [10], it should be in the $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi$ selection. There is no contribution in the mass range of interest from the $B^0 \rightarrow D^- \bar{K}^{*0} K^+$ mode, because of the mass difference between the B_s^0 and B^0 mesons. Daughter particles from the unobserved decay $\bar{B}_s^0 \rightarrow D_s^{*+} K^{*0} K^-$ are also expected to be present in the sample. All these specific backgrounds are irreducible and must be accounted for in the fit.

5.3.2 Modelling components in the mass fit

The signal shape of $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi$ is described by a Gaussian function, with a mean μ and standard deviation σ . Combinatorial background is modelled using a decaying exponential function.

The shape of B^+ candidates originating from the $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^{*+} \phi$ background is taken from simulated events. The ϕ from the decay $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^{*+} \phi$ does not need to be longitudinally polarized because the D_s^{*+} is a vector meson ($J^P = 1^-$). Therefore the background from the decay $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^{*+} \phi$ contributes in all fit regions. Since the shapes of these reconstructed candidates are non-trivial, a kernel density estimation technique [55] is used to describe the shape. Figure 5.8 shows the kernelized distribution for the whole set of simulated events, as well as each individual helicity region. It was assumed that D_s^{*+} was unpolarized when generating events, some difference is observed in the shape of the mass distribution for this background caused by the helicity angle of the ϕ . Although there are differences, the rising edge near the B^+ mass is very similar in each region.

Backgrounds from the decay $\bar{B}_s^0 \rightarrow D_s^+ K^{*0} K^-$ result in highly non-trivial invariant mass shapes when the π^+ from the K^{*0} decay is missed. Once again, kernel density estimation techniques [55] are used to get an understanding of the background shape. Due to the low statistics, simulated $\bar{B}_s^0 \rightarrow D_s^+ K^{*0} K^-$ events falling in regions **A** and **B** are used to make the background distributions, and then shifted up by 35 MeV for regions **C** and **D**. The value of 35 MeV is an amount that was observed from data, the upwards shift is because of the shape of the S-wave under the ϕ mass peak. These shapes are shown in Fig. 5.9.

An estimate of the shape of the background distribution of $\bar{B}_s^0 \rightarrow D_s^{*+} K^{*0} K^-$ is estimated by taking the simulated $\bar{B}_s^0 \rightarrow D_s^+ K^{*0} K^-$ events, shifting them down in mass and smearing to account for the additional missing γ from the D_s^{*+} decay. The amount of shifting and

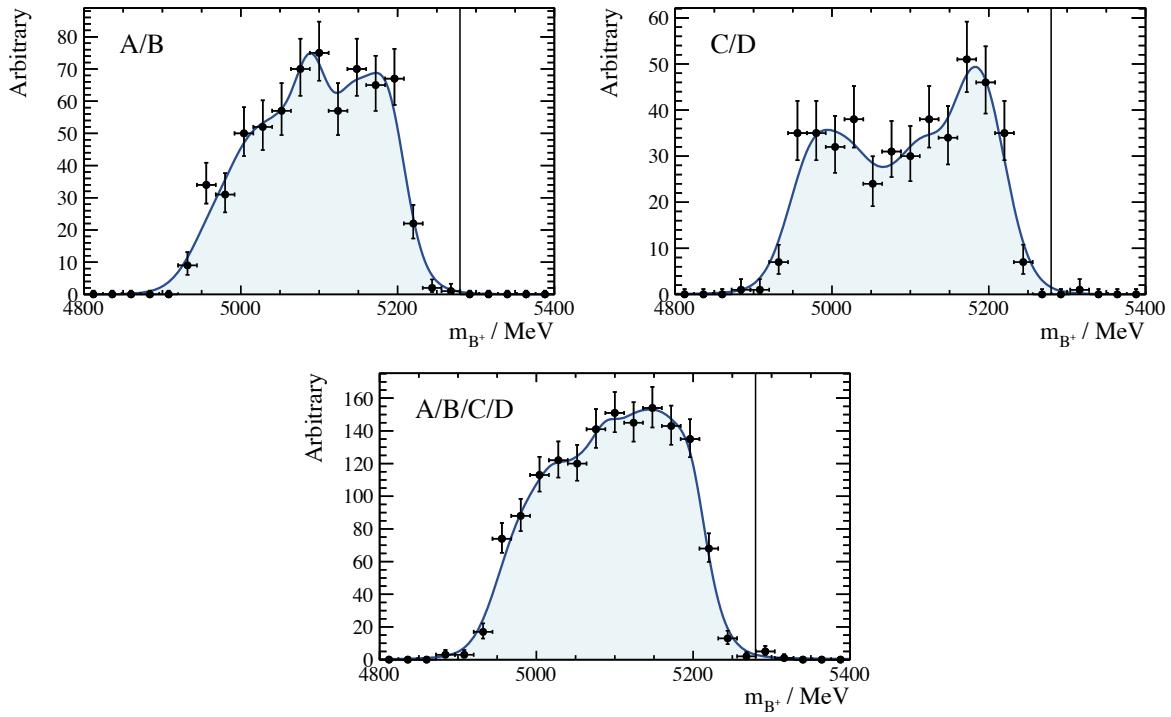


Figure 5.8: Distributions of the invariant mass distribution of simulated events of $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^{*+} \phi$ in the indicated fit regions and the resulting kernelized function. The shape of these background distributions varies depending on the helicity cut, but the rising edge on the right hand side is the same in each case. In the fit to the data, the distribution made from all events. The vertical line indicates the B^+ mass.

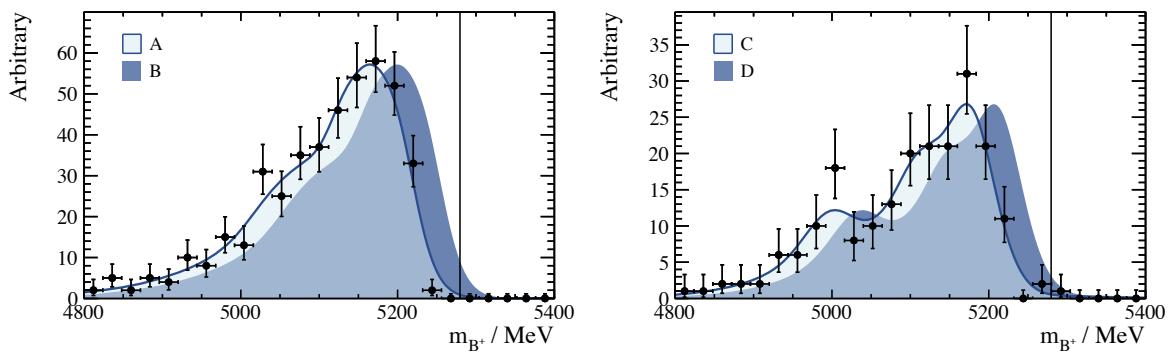


Figure 5.9: Distributions of the invariant mass distribution of simulated events of $\bar{B}_s^0 \rightarrow D_s^+ K^{*0} K^-$ in the (left) signal helicity regions **A** and **B**, and (right) background helicity regions **C** and **D**. The pale blue shapes at lower mass are from the the signal region in $m_{K^+ K^-}$, and the dark shapes are shifted up in mass by 35 MeV to model the ϕ mass sidebands.

Table 5.5: Efficiencies, in %, for the signal decay $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi$ and the normalization channel $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \bar{D}^0$. The veto efficiency of $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi$ is assumed to be the same as for $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \bar{D}^0$. All efficiencies were calculated using simulated events, with the exception of the BDT, which is calculated using a data driven method, as described in text.

Source of efficiency	$B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi$	$B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \bar{D}^0$
Geometry of the LHCb detector	14.62 ± 0.05	12.75 ± 0.05
Reconstruction and stripping	1.53 ± 0.04	1.98 ± 0.04
Trigger	95.8 ± 0.3	94.4 ± 0.3
Preselection	86.0 ± 0.9	75.0 ± 0.6
BDT	51.4 ± 0.2	99.2 ± 0.2
D^+ and Λ_c^+ vetoes	95.0	95.0 ± 0.2
Total	0.091 ± 0.003	0.166 ± 0.003

bin widths are chosen such that each two dimensional bin in (p_T, χ_{FD}^2) have approximately equal statistics. Here, χ_{FD}^2 is the flight distance of X in units of χ^2 . The variables p_T and χ_{FD}^2 are used because they are two of the most discriminating variables in the BDT, and well described by simulation. The large statistics of the validation sample mean that in each bin defined by p_T and χ_{FD}^2 there is a BDT distribution. Then, each individual simulated event is assigned an efficiency based on the BDT distribution in the bin defined by the p_T and χ_{FD}^2 of the X . These individual efficiencies can then be amalgamated into an overall efficiency. This method is also used in Ref. [56].

A summary of all efficiencies can be found in Table 5.5.

Figure 5.11 shows the results of the fit of the signal and background functions to the $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi$ candidates from data. The total signal yield gives a value of $N(B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi) = 6.7^{+4.5}_{-2.6}$, with a statistical significance of 3.6σ , as calculated using Wilks Theorem [57]. This is confirmed with an ensemble of 10^5 toy datasets.

The branching fraction of the decay $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi$ was determined to be

$$\mathcal{B}(B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi) = (1.87^{+1.25}_{-0.73}(\text{stat}) \pm 0.19(\text{syst}) \pm 0.32(\text{norm})) \times 10^{-6}, \quad (5.9)$$

where stat, syst, and norm refer to uncertainties introduced by statistics, systematical, and the normalization channel, respectively. This assumes the branching fraction values of $\mathcal{B}(B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \bar{D}^0) = (1.00 \pm 0.17) \times 10^{-2}$, $\mathcal{B}(\bar{D}^0 \rightarrow K^- \pi^+) = (3.88 \pm 0.05) \times 10^{-2}$, and $\mathcal{B}(\phi \rightarrow K^+ K^-) = (48.9 \pm 0.5) \times 10^{-2}$ [10]. The uncertainty of the total branching fraction of the normalization channel introduced a systematic uncertainty of 17 %. Other systematic uncertainties are included in the above result, and are discussed in Sec. 5.4.

Both the signal and normalization channels have a $D_s^+ \rightarrow K^+ K^- \pi^+$, and therefore efficiencies from the D^+ and A_c^+ vetoes cancel to a large extent. Given that these cuts are very efficient, the difference is negligible, and the efficiency ratio is assumed to be unity for the calculation. The only differences between the two modes are due the decay kinematics, since the ϕ is lighter than the D^0 . There is a difference of 1.5 % between $\varepsilon_{\text{veto}}$ for the decays $\bar{B}_s^0 \rightarrow D_s^+ \pi^-$ and $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \bar{D}^0$, and since the mass of the ϕ is nearer the D^0 mass than the pion mass, a systematic uncertainty of 1 % is assigned.

There are other systematic uncertainties that affected the selection. The BDT cut is assigned an uncertainty of 3 %, which is due to the sizes of the validation samples used to calculate the efficiencies. Mass windows around the D_s^+ and ϕ lead to a 3 % systematic uncertainty. Also, the low statistics of the simulation samples used to deduce efficiencies led to a 3 % uncertainty.

The mass fits introduced systematic uncertainties from each component. If the parameters describing the signal shape are allowed to float the fit results in a yield which is 5 % higher than the nominal fit. This is assigned as a systematic uncertainty.

The total uncertainty from the background shape is 5 %; and is estimated by making changes to the background model. By removing either the $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^{*+} \phi$ or $\bar{B}_s^0 \rightarrow D_s^{*+} K^{*0} K^-$ components, the yield changes by only 1 %. Changing the constraints on **A/B** and **C/D** for $\bar{B}_s^0 \rightarrow D_s^+ K^{*0} K^-$ by a factor of 2 results in a 1 % change in signal yield. The combinatorial background is estimated by allowing the slope to float free, this led to an approximate 3.5 % systematic uncertainty.

Contributions from all sources of systematic uncertainties are summarized in Table 5.6. The dominant systematic uncertainty — discounting the uncertainties on the branching fraction of the normalization channel — is from the mass fits, which is unsurprising considering the complexity of the fit, and the treatment of the backgrounds. Regardless of the constraints that are, or are not, included in the fit: the lowest significance obtained is still greater than 3σ . Therefore the significance is quoted as greater than 3σ .

*Doorbike fitting principle to constrain
effect of BDT cut value*

5.5 Direct CP asymmetry

The CP asymmetry is defined in Eq. 5.4, but this must be modified to account for background in the sample:

$$\mathcal{A}_{CP}(B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi) = \frac{N(B^- \rightarrow D_s^- \phi) - N(B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi)}{N(B^- \rightarrow D_s^- \phi) + N(B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi) - N_{\text{bkg}}}. \quad (5.10)$$

Here, the yields, N , refer to the decay with the indicated charge, and N_{bkg} denotes the amount of background contaminating the signal.

Table 5.6: Summary of the systematic uncertainties contributing to the branching fraction of the decay $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi$.

Source of systematic	Uncertainty (%)
Selection	1
Trigger	4
BDT	3
D^+ and Λ_c^+ vetoes	1
Mass windows	3
Simulation statistics	3
Mass shape	5
Background shapes	5
Total	10

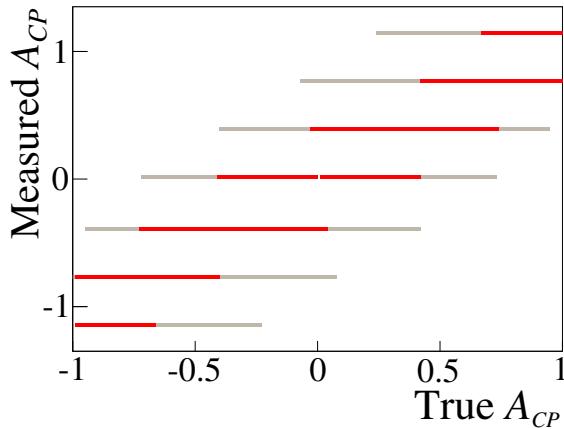


Figure 5.12: Feldman-Cousins intervals for the CP asymmetry, when six signal events are observed, and the background expectation is 0.75. The red stripes indicate 1σ intervals, and the grey are 2σ .

Values of N are determined by defining a signal region, which extends 2σ either side of the mean B^+ mass in region **A**, where $\mu = 5283$ MeV and $\sigma = 13.2$ MeV. In this region, the number of B^+ and B^- candidates are $N(B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi) = 3$ and $N(B^- \rightarrow D_s^- \phi) = 3$. The background prediction is determined by integrating across this region, which results in $N_{\text{bkg}} = 0.75$. From these values, $\mathcal{A}_{CP}^{\text{raw}}(B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi) = (0.0 \pm 0.41)$, where the coverage was obtained using the Feldman-Cousins method [58]; which gives a 1σ interval $\in [-0.41, 0.41]$. Figure 5.12 shows the Feldman-Cousins intervals for the CP asymmetry when observing six signal events with a background expectation of 0.75.

In order to find the final value of \mathcal{A}_{CP} , the CP asymmetries caused by production ($\mathcal{A}_{CP}^{\text{prod}}$), detection ($\mathcal{A}_{CP}^{\text{det}}$), and selection ($\mathcal{A}_{CP}^{\text{sel}}$) must be corrected for.

The B production asymmetry has been estimated by LHCb for the decays $B^+ \rightarrow J/\psi \pi^+$ [59] and $B^+ \rightarrow D^0 K^+$ [56] to be $-(0.3 \pm 0.9)\%$ and $-(0.8 \pm 0.7)\%$, respectively. For the decay $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi$, the only source of detection asymmetry is the pion from the D_s^+ decay. This

has been shown to be a very small effect, but the edges of the detector preferentially selects one charge or the other depending on the magnet polarity. Considering that the 2011 dataset had approximately 30 % more data in one polarity than the other, there could conceivably be an effect. Therefore, from these values an estimate of the total $\mathcal{A}_{CP}^{\text{prod}} + \mathcal{A}_{CP}^{\text{det}} = -(1 \pm 1) \%$ was used. Although there are no selection requirements that preferentially select one charge or the other, including input variables to the BDT, the selection did show a slight bias. The selection asymmetry was given a conservative value of $(2 \pm 3) \%$.

Corrections to the $\mathcal{A}_{CP}^{\text{raw}}$ total to $(1 \pm 3) \%$, where the error here is over a factor of ten less than the statistical uncertainty. Accounting for these corrections results in

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{A}_{CP}(B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi) &= \mathcal{A}_{CP}^{\text{raw}} - (\mathcal{A}_{CP}^{\text{prod}} + \mathcal{A}_{CP}^{\text{det}} + \mathcal{A}_{CP}^{\text{sel}}) \\ &= -(0.01 \pm 0.41(\text{stat}) \pm 0.03(\text{syst})),\end{aligned}\quad (5.11)$$

which is consistent with no observable CPV , as expected in the SM.

5.6 Summary

The analysis outlined in the preceding chapter shows first evidence for the decay $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi$, with greater than 3σ significance. While the measured branching fraction

$$\mathcal{B}(B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi) = (1.87^{+1.25}_{-0.73}(\text{stat}) \pm 0.19(\text{syst}) \pm 0.32(\text{norm})) \times 10^{-6}.$$

is somewhat higher than SM predictions, they are not incompatible when considering large theoretical uncertainties. Another measurement was the CP asymmetry, which could deviate significantly from zero were NP to be present at leading order. The value measured was

$$\mathcal{A}_{CP}(B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi) = -(0.01 \pm 0.41(\text{stat}) \pm 0.03(\text{syst})),$$

which is consistent with the SM expectation of zero CPV .

Chapter 6

Search for the decays

$B^+ \rightarrow K^+ \pi^+ \pi^- \mu^+ \mu^-$ and

$B^+ \rightarrow \phi K^+ \mu^+ \mu^-$

6.1 Introduction

The decays $B^+ \rightarrow K^+ \pi^+ \pi^- \mu^+ \mu^-$ and $B^+ \rightarrow \phi K^+ \mu^+ \mu^-$ both are $b \rightarrow s \mu^+ \mu^-$ FCNC transitions, which are forbidden at tree-level in the SM¹. Therefore, these processes are sensitive to virtual NP particles contributing to the decay amplitude in loops. The analysis described in the following chapter makes a measurement of the branching fractions of both decays and the differential branching fraction of $B^+ \rightarrow K^+ \pi^+ \pi^- \mu^+ \mu^-$ in bins of q^2 , where q^2 is the invariant mass of the dimuon system squared. This analysis was published in Ref. [2].

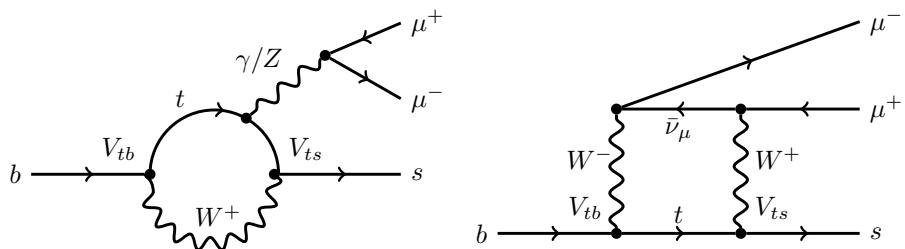


Figure 6.1: Schematic Feynman diagrams for the operators \mathcal{O}_7 , \mathcal{O}_9 , and \mathcal{O}_{10} which are most sensitive to the $b \rightarrow s \mu^+ \mu^-$ FCNC. The propagators are the (left) photonic and Z penguin diagram, and the (right) W^+ -mediated box diagram. Operator \mathcal{O}_7 describes the photonic penguin diagram; while \mathcal{O}_9 and \mathcal{O}_{10} are the vector and axial-vector parts of both the Z and W^+ diagrams.

¹All mentions of the ϕ refer implicitly to the $\phi(1020)$ meson.

Search for the decays $B^+ \rightarrow K^+\pi^+\pi^-\mu^+\mu^-$ and $B^+ \rightarrow \phi K^+\mu^+\mu^-$

Transitions of the FCNC $b \rightarrow s\ell^+\ell^-$ can be expressed with the effective Hamiltonian

$$\mathcal{H}_{\text{eff}} = -4 \frac{G_F}{\sqrt{2}} V_{ts}^* V_{tb} \frac{e^2}{16\pi^2} \sum_{i=1}^{10} [C_i(\Lambda) \mathcal{O}_i(\Lambda) + C'_i(\Lambda) \mathcal{O}'_i(\Lambda)]. \quad (6.1)$$

Operators which are particularly sensitive to NP contributions in $b \rightarrow s\mu^+\mu^-$ transitions are

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{O}_7 &= \frac{m_b}{e} (\bar{s}\sigma_{\mu\nu} P_R b) F^{\mu\nu} & \mathcal{O}'_7 &= \frac{m_b}{e} (\bar{s}\sigma_{\mu\nu} P_L b) F^{\mu\nu} \\ \mathcal{O}_9 &= (\bar{s}\gamma_\mu P_L b)(\bar{\ell}\gamma^\mu \ell) & \mathcal{O}'_9 &= (\bar{s}\gamma_\mu P_R b)(\bar{\ell}\gamma^\mu \ell) \\ \mathcal{O}_{10} &= (\bar{s}\gamma_\mu P_L b)(\bar{\ell}\gamma^\mu \gamma_5 \ell) & \mathcal{O}'_{10} &= (\bar{s}\gamma_\mu P_R b)(\bar{\ell}\gamma^\mu \gamma_5 \ell). \end{aligned} \quad (6.2)$$

The operator \mathcal{O}_7 describes the transition of $b \rightarrow s\gamma$, in the SM this is via a photonic penguin diagram. Operators \mathcal{O}_9 and \mathcal{O}_{10} are the vector and axial-vector components of the four point $b \rightarrow s\mu^+\mu^-$ interaction; in the SM these operators are made up of the Z mediated penguin, and the W^+ box diagrams. A penguin diagram is so called, because if one draws it on top of a picture of a penguin, it looks like a penguin. Figure 6.1 shows schematic Feynman diagrams for \mathcal{O}_7 , \mathcal{O}_9 , and \mathcal{O}_{10} . Primed operators are the suppressed helicity (usually right-handed), whose contributions are vanishingly small in the SM. The operators \mathcal{O}_{1-6} encapsulating long distance contributions, such as $c\bar{c}$ loops, and \mathcal{O}_8 is the gluonic penguin operator.

Both decays $B^+ \rightarrow K^+\pi^+\pi^-\mu^+\mu^-$ and $B^+ \rightarrow \phi K^+\mu^+\mu^-$ proceed via a $b \rightarrow s\mu^+\mu^-$ FCNC with a spectator u quark. The diagrams describing these decays mediated by penguin loops are shown in Fig. 6.2. It should be noted that the B^+ and K^+ in both these decays have the same charge assignment. In this way, both these decays are the same as the FCNC decay $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0}\mu^+\mu^-$, but differ in the $q\bar{q}$ pairs that are popped from the QCD field.

There is significant interest in the decay $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0}\mu^+\mu^-$ because it has access to a range of angular observables, many of which are sensitive to new physics. The angular observable P'_5 is a parameter formed of combinations of K^{*0} decay amplitudes, and designed to have reduced theoretical uncertainties: being nearly free form-factor dependence [60]. A measurement from LHCb indicates that P'_5 is 3.7σ above predictions in the region $4.0 < q^2 < 8.0 \text{ GeV}^2$ [61], indicating that C_9 is low with respect to the SM [62]. This either points to a new vector contribution or vastly misunderstood QCD effects.

In the decay $B^+ \rightarrow K^+\pi^+\pi^-\mu^+\mu^-$, the structure of the $K^+\pi^+\pi^-$ system's mass distribution results from the decay of a variety of strange resonances. Contributions of resonances to the $K^+\pi^+\pi^-$ system has been previously studied by the Belle collaboration in the tree-level decay $B^+ \rightarrow J/\psi K^+\pi^+\pi^-$, where $J/\psi \rightarrow \mu^+\mu^-$ [63]. This study indicated that the dominant contribution to the $K^+\pi^+\pi^-$ system should be expected to be from decaying $K_1(1270)^+$ mesons. The total branching fraction of the decay $K_1(1270)^+ \rightarrow K^+\pi^+\pi^-$ —

Search for the decays $B^+ \rightarrow K^+\pi^+\pi^-\mu^+\mu^-$ and $B^+ \rightarrow \phi K^+\mu^+\mu^-$

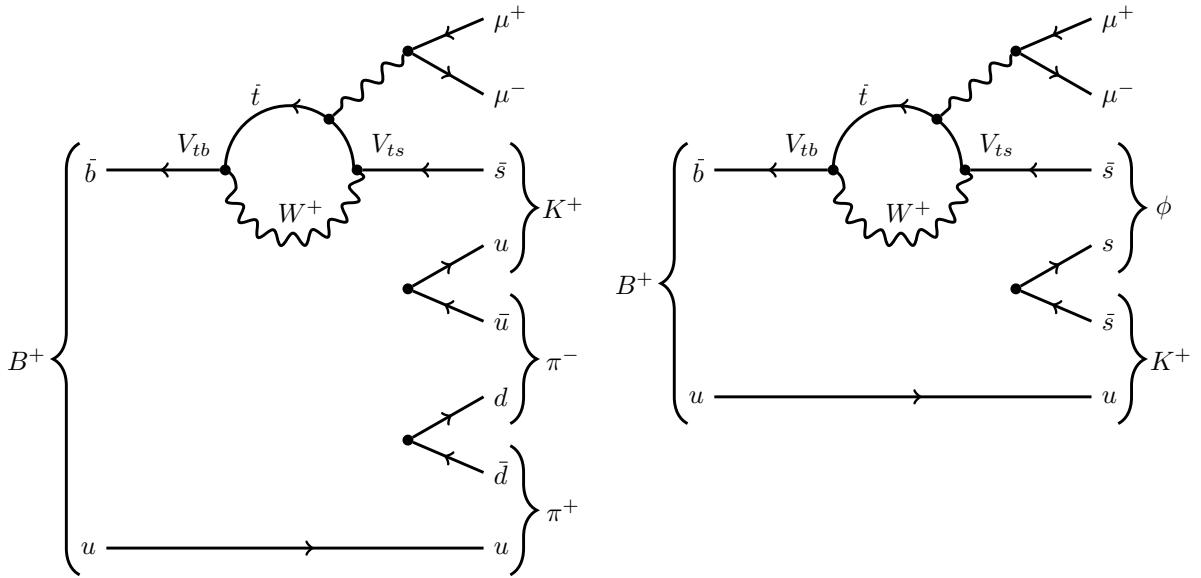


Figure 6.2: Feynman diagrams illustrating how the decays $B^+ \rightarrow K^+\pi^+\pi^-\mu^+\mu^-$ and $B^+ \rightarrow \phi K^+\mu^+\mu^-$ can proceed in the SM via operators \mathcal{O}_7 , \mathcal{O}_9 and \mathcal{O}_{10} . The operators \mathcal{O}_{1-6} also contribute a small amount.

?

via both a non-resonant decay and various resonances — with a branching fraction of $\mathcal{B}(K_1(1270)^+ \rightarrow K^+\pi^+\pi^-) = (35.7 \pm 3.7)\%$ [10]. The $K_1(1270)^+$ meson, together with the $K_1(1400)^+$, are mass eigenstates resulting from the mixing of the P -wave axial vector states K_{1A} and K_{1B} according to:

$$\begin{pmatrix} |K_1(1270)^+\rangle \\ |K_1(1400)^+\rangle \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \sin \theta_{K_1} & \cos \theta_{K_1} \\ \cos \theta_{K_1} & -\sin \theta_{K_1} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} |K_{1A}^+\rangle \\ |K_{1B}^+\rangle \end{pmatrix}. \quad (6.3)$$

Here, θ_{K_1} is the mixing angle and has been measured to have central values of both -34° and -57° [64–69]. However, more recent measurements favour a value of $-(34 \pm 13)^\circ$ [66–69], and the most recent rule out the solution at -57° entirely [68, 69] (but with a different sign convention).

Due to the unknown composition of the $m_{K^+\pi^+\pi^-}$ spectrum, an inclusive prediction of the branching fraction $\mathcal{B}(B^+ \rightarrow K^+\pi^+\pi^-\mu^+\mu^-)$ does not exist. However, the branching fraction of the rare decay $B^+ \rightarrow K_1(1270)^+\mu^+\mu^-$ is predicted to be [70]

$$\mathcal{B}(B^+ \rightarrow K_1(1270)^+\mu^+\mu^-) = (2.3^{+1.3}_{-1.0}{}^{+0.0}_{-0.2}) \times 10^{-6}, \quad (6.4)$$

where uncertainties arise from form-factor calculations and the mixing angle, respectively. Just as with theoretical predictions of the branching fraction $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+\phi$, QCD makes predictions very difficult, giving fractional errors of 50 %.

Figure 6.3 shows the theoretical q^2 distribution for the decay $B^+ \rightarrow K_1^+\mu^+\mu^-$, for both the $K_1(1270)^+$ and $K_1(1400)^+$ and varying θ_{K_1} . The $b \rightarrow s \mu^+\mu^-$ can be mediated by a

Search for the decays $B^+ \rightarrow K^+\pi^+\pi^-\mu^+\mu^-$ and $B^+ \rightarrow \phi K^+\mu^+\mu^-$

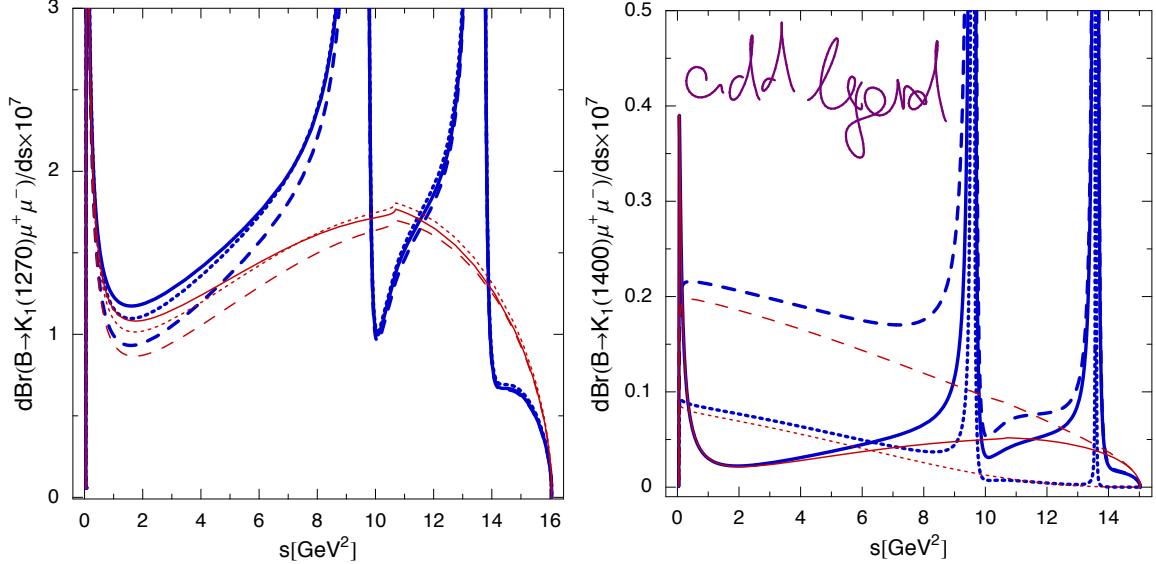


Figure 6.3: The dimuon invariant mass distributions for the differential decay rates, as taken from Ref. [70]. $d\mathcal{B}(B^+ \rightarrow K_1^{+} \mu^+ \mu^-)/dq^2$, (where $s = q^2$), for the $K_1(1270)^+$ and $K_1(1400)^+$. Central values of input form factors are used. The thick blue lines and thin red curves indicate the differential branching fractions with and without corrections from resonances, respectively. Solid, dotted and dashed lines correspond to values of the mixing angle $\theta_{K_1} = -34^\circ, -45^\circ, -57^\circ$ respectively.

virtual photon which, for some values of θ_{K_1} , can be transversely polarized. However, for some values of θ_{K_1} , the $\mu^+\mu^-$ pair is fully longitudinally polarized and the decay via a photon is forbidden.

There are no predictions for the branching fraction of the decay $B^+ \rightarrow \phi K^+\mu^+\mu^-$, but one would expect it to be smaller than that of the decay $B^+ \rightarrow K^+\pi^+\pi^-\mu^+\mu^-$. This is because it requires an $s\bar{s}$ to be created from the QCD field rather than a $u\bar{u}$ and $d\bar{d}$ pair.

It is possible to use some other decays to get an estimate using previously measured branching fractions. The decays $B^+ \rightarrow K^+\pi^+\pi^-$ and $B^+ \rightarrow \phi K^+$ proceed, at leading order, in the same way as $B^+ \rightarrow K^+\pi^+\pi^-\mu^+\mu^-$ and $B^+ \rightarrow \phi K^+\mu^+\mu^-$; being propagated by gluonic penguins. These fully hadronic branching fractions are measured to be

$$\mathcal{B}(B^+ \rightarrow K^+\pi^+\pi^-) = (5.10 \pm 0.29) \times 10^{-5} \mathcal{B}(B^+ \rightarrow \phi K^+) = (8.8^{+0.7}_{-0.6}) \times 10^{-6}.$$

One would expect that the ratio of branching fractions to be approximately the same

$$\frac{\mathcal{B}(B^+ \rightarrow K^+\pi^+\pi^-\mu^+\mu^-)}{\mathcal{B}(B^+ \rightarrow \phi K^+\mu^+\mu^-)} \simeq \frac{\mathcal{B}(B^+ \rightarrow K^+\pi^+\pi^-)}{\mathcal{B}(B^+ \rightarrow \phi K^+)} = 5.80^{+0.6}_{-0.5}. \quad (6.5)$$

Absent from this analysis are the searches for the decays $B^+ \rightarrow K^+K^-\pi^+\mu^+\mu^-$ and $B^+ \rightarrow \pi^+\pi^-\pi^-\mu^+\mu^-$. These were not included because they are suppressed by a factor of $|V_{td}/V_{ts}|^2 \simeq 23$ with respect to the decays that are studied. The more interesting of the

Search for the decays $B^+ \rightarrow K^+\pi^+\pi^-\mu^+\mu^-$ and $B^+ \rightarrow \phi K^+\mu^+\mu^-$

two decays is $B^+ \rightarrow \pi^+\pi^-\pi^-\mu^+\mu^-$ because this has the higher branching fraction, and so the easiest access to the ratio $|V_{td}/V_{ts}|$ using $B^+ \rightarrow K^+\pi^+\pi^-\mu^+\mu^-$; however, it suffers from large backgrounds because of the number of pions in the final state.

6.2 Selection

Signal candidates for the decays $B^+ \rightarrow K^+\pi^+\pi^-\mu^+\mu^-$ and $B^+ \rightarrow \phi K^+\mu^+\mu^-$ must first pass the L0 muon trigger. Subsequent software trigger stages required that at least one final-state muon has $p_T > 1.0 \text{ GeV}$ and at least one hadron has $p_T > 1.6 \text{ GeV}$, both of which have an IP larger than $100 \mu\text{m}$ with respect to any V in the event. The response of the topological BBDT, which was described in Sec. 3.3, in HLT2 must be consistent with a decaying B meson with muons in the final state. *Define all χ^2 's, ~~and~~ in D_{OF}s*

Candidate B^+ hadrons are then formed from combinations of three hadrons and a pair of opposite sign muons. Fully reconstructed candidates must form a good quality vertex, with a χ^2 of the vertex fit < 6 . This secondary vertex must be well displaced from any V , having a flight distance inconsistent with zero, $\chi^2_{FD} > 121$. Each track must satisfy $\chi^2_{IP} > 16$, where the χ^2_{IP} of a track is defined as the change in χ^2_{IP} when calculated with and without the track in question. The muons must both satisfy the `isMuon` criteria and have $DLL_{\mu\pi} > 0$, while PID criteria for hadrons are applied later. Each hadron must have $p_T > 500 \text{ MeV}$ and the total invariant mass of the $K^+\pi^+\pi^-$ system is required to be in the range $750 < m_{K^+\pi^+\pi^-} < 2400 \text{ MeV}$ in order to reduced the rate of accepted events at stripping level. For the ϕK^+ system, an additional constraint is that the $\phi \rightarrow K^+K^-$ object must have an invariant mass within 12 MeV of m_ϕ^{PDG} .

There are other decay channels which are used throughout this analysis, specifically: $B^+ \rightarrow J/\psi K^+\pi^+\pi^-$, $B^+ \rightarrow \psi(2S)K^+$, and $B^+ \rightarrow J/\psi \phi K^+$. In all these decays $\psi(2S) \rightarrow J/\psi \pi^+\pi^-$ and $J/\psi \rightarrow \mu^+\mu^-$. These are each selected by requiring that both J/ψ and $\psi(2S)$ candidates have an invariant mass within 50 MeV of their known masses [10].

6.2.1 Background contributions

The tree level decays $B^+ \rightarrow J/\psi K^+\pi^+\pi^-$ and $B^+ \rightarrow J/\psi \phi K^+$, where $J/\psi \rightarrow \mu^+\mu^-$, have large branching fractions:

$$\mathcal{B}(B^+ \rightarrow J/\psi K^+\pi^+\pi^-) \cdot \mathcal{B}(J/\psi \rightarrow \mu^+\mu^-) = (4.8 \pm 0.8) \times 10^{-5} \quad (6.6)$$

$$\mathcal{B}(B^+ \rightarrow J/\psi \phi K^+) \cdot \mathcal{B}(J/\psi \rightarrow \mu^+\mu^-) = (3.1 \pm 1.1) \times 10^{-6}, \quad (6.7)$$

and the same final state particles as the signal modes. They therefore constitute peaking backgrounds that lie under the signal peak. The same is true for the large contributions

Search for the decays $B^+ \rightarrow K^+\pi^+\pi^-\mu^+\mu^-$ and $B^+ \rightarrow \phi K^+\mu^+\mu^-$

Table 6.1: Selection criteria applied in the stripping.

Candidate	Selection criterion		
B^+	χ_{vtx}^2	<	6.0
	χ_{IP}^2	<	16.0
	χ_{FD}^2	>	121.0
$K^+\pi^+\pi^-$	$\text{Vtx } \chi^2$	<	12.0
	$m_{K^+\pi^+\pi^-}$	\in	$[750, 2400]$ MeV
	χ_{IP}^2	<	4.0
	χ_{FD}^2	>	25.0
$\mu^+\mu^-$ tracks	χ_{vtx}^2	<	12.0
	χ_{FD}^2	>	81.0
	χ_{IP}^2	>	16.0
	track χ^2/ndf	<	2.5
K^+, π^+ μ^+	p_T	>	500 MeV
	isMuon		

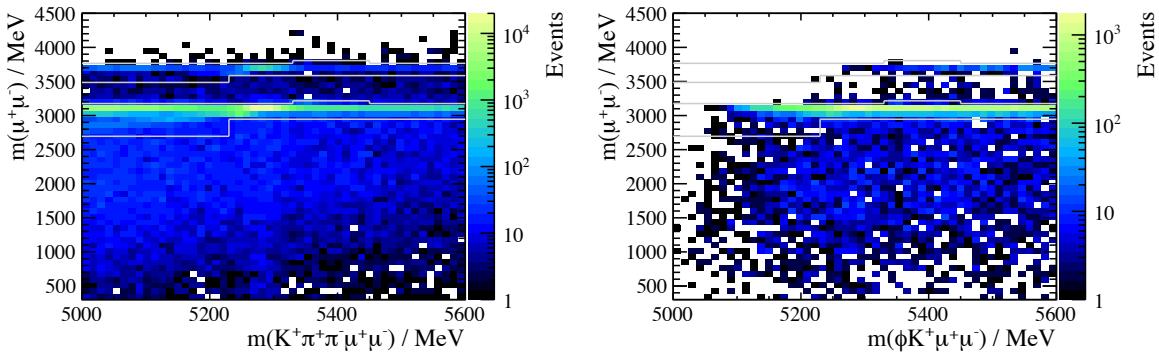


Figure 6.4: The variation of the invariant mass of the dimuon candidate with the mass of the B^+ candidate for (left) $B^+ \rightarrow K^+\pi^+\pi^-\mu^+\mu^-$, and (right) $B^+ \rightarrow \phi K^+\mu^+\mu^-$. The grey lines indicate the boundaries of the charmonium vetoes.

from $B^+ \rightarrow \psi(2S)K^+\pi^+\pi^-$ and $B^+ \rightarrow \psi(2S)\phi K^+$ decays, where $\psi(2S) \rightarrow \mu^+\mu^-$. These charmonium decays are large irreducible backgrounds that must be removed with vetoes around the J/ψ and $\psi(2S)$ masses. The vetoes used remove events where the invariant dimuon mass falls in either region $2946 < m_{\mu^+\mu^-} < 3176$ MeV or $3586 < m_{\mu^+\mu^-} < 3766$ MeV.

Figure 6.4 shows the boundaries defined by these vetoes on data. Mis-reconstructed decays to charmonium contribute to the upper mass sideband. To remove these, the veto windows are extended up by 40 MeV in the region $5330 < m_{K^+\pi^+\pi^-\mu^+\mu^-} < 5450$ MeV. Radiative tails from the decays $J/\psi \rightarrow \mu^+\mu^-\gamma$ and $\psi(2S) \rightarrow \mu^+\mu^-\gamma$ are suppressed by extending the vetoes down by 250 MeV and 100 MeV respectively in the region $m_{K^+\pi^+\pi^-\mu^+\mu^-} < 5230$ MeV.

Considering the large branching fractions of the charmonium decays given above, and the

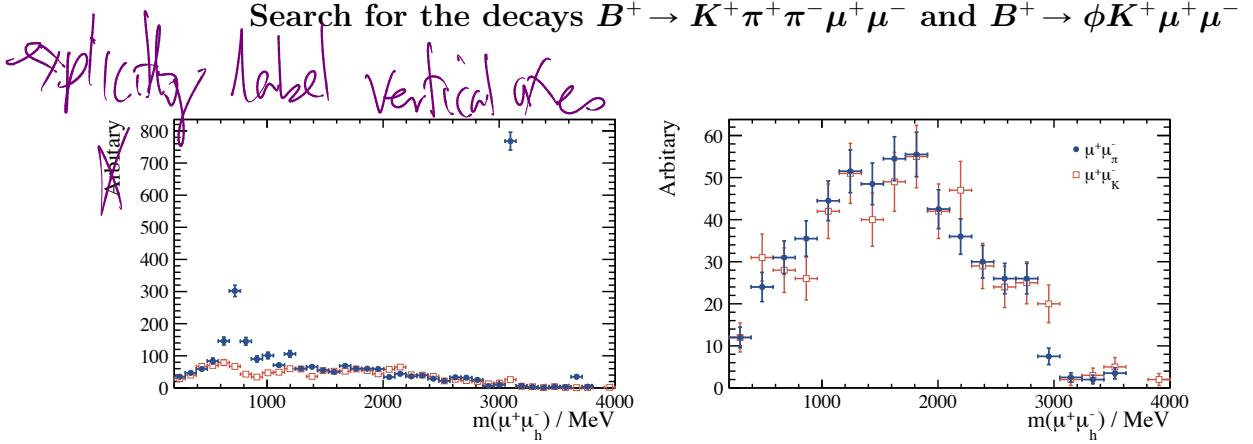


Figure 6.5: Invariant mass of the combination of a muon and a reconstructed hadron of the opposite charge under the muon mass hypothesis (left) before, and (right) after the veto in the decay $B^+ \rightarrow K^+\pi^+\pi^-\mu^+\mu^-$. Both pions are included in the same histogram and scaled such that it has the same number of entries as for the kaon. There is a feature at low mass in the $m(\mu^+\mu_\pi^-)$ spectrum which is removed by the vetoes, and originates from the background decay $B^+ \rightarrow J/\psi\rho(770)^0K^+$.

probability of misidentifying a pion as a muon is $\mathcal{O}(1\%)$ [71] (somewhat less for a kaon) there could be significant contamination from mis-identified candidates. This background was removed by calculating the invariant mass of each $\mu^+\pi^-$ and μ^+K^- combination, where the hadron was assigned the muon mass. If the mass of this object fell within 50 MeV of $m_{J/\psi}$ or $m_{\psi(2S)}$, then the candidate was vetoed. Figure 6.5 shows the effect on these vetoes, and demonstrates that a large part of the background that is removed by these vetoes is from the decay $B^+ \rightarrow J/\psi\rho(770)^0K^+$.

Other background contributions can come from doubly misidentified fully hadronic decays, such as the decay $B^0 \rightarrow \bar{D}^0\pi^+\pi^+\pi^-$ followed by $\bar{D}^0 \rightarrow K^+\pi^-$, which has a total branching fraction of $(2.21 \pm 0.85) \times 10^{-4}$ [10]. This decay has a final state of $K^+\pi^+\pi^-\pi^+\pi^-$. If a pair of opposite sign pions are misidentified as muons, the final state of $K^+\pi^+\pi^-\mu^+\mu^-$ is mimicked, and therefore should be considered as a background. The same can be said for the decay $B^0 \rightarrow \bar{D}^0\pi^+$ and $\bar{D}^0 \rightarrow K^-\pi^+\pi^+\pi^-$, which has a total branching fraction of $(3.88 \pm 0.15) \times 10^{-4}$.

In order to ascertain if these charmed decays are potential backgrounds, invariant mass distributions are inspected for evidence of D^0 mesons. The only distribution in which there is evidence of contamination is in the $K^+\pi_\mu^+$ distribution². To remove the small possible contribution from $B^0 \rightarrow \bar{D}^0\pi^+\pi^+\pi^-$ events which fall within 30 MeV of the nominal D^0 mass in the $K^+\pi_\mu^-$ spectrum are vetoed.

Semileptonic cascades, where a b decays via $b \rightarrow c\mu^-\bar{\nu}_\mu$ and subsequently $c \rightarrow s\mu^+\nu_\mu$, can have branching fractions as high as $\mathcal{O}(10^{-4})$. For example, the decay $B^+ \rightarrow D^-\pi^+\mu^+\nu_\mu$ followed by $D^- \rightarrow K^+\pi^-\mu^-\bar{\nu}_\mu$ has a total branching fraction of $(1.6 \pm 0.3) \times 10^{-4}$ [3].

² Where, as defined previously, the notation h_i is a particle under the mass hypothesis of h which was reconstructed as an i .

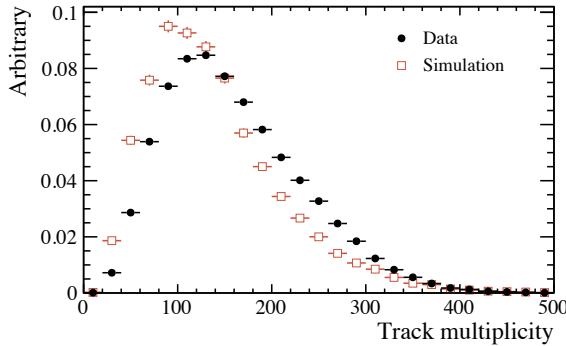


Figure 6.7: Distributions of track multiplicity for (black circles) data and (red squares) simulation. Simulated events are known to mis-model the track multiplicity, having a lower average number of tracks per event.

state where the discrepancy comes from

of this resampling technique, it is observed that the simulated PID distributions that have been resampled matches data distributions much better than the raw distributions; the differences that remain are accounted for in the systematic uncertainties. Muon PID distributions are sufficiently well modelled in simulation that correcting them is unnecessary.

Tracking efficiency varies depending upon the regions of the detector through which the particle passes, and the modelling of the detector in the simulation behaves differently to in actuality. To correct for this, each candidate is weighted based on the relative tracking efficiency between data and simulation, this is dependent upon p and η . The same is true for the response of the `isMuon` variable. Figure 6.9 shows how the tracking efficiency and `isMuon` criteria are corrected for throughout the detector volume. After all reweighting all the aforementioned variables in simulated events, the BDT distributions are seen to be in agreement, this is shown in Fig. 6.10.

Once the simulation has been corrected, the total efficiency, ε_{tot} was calculated for each normalization and signal mode using simulated events. The value for ε_{tot} is calculated to be $\varepsilon_{\text{gen}} \times \varepsilon_{\text{reco\&sel}} \times \varepsilon_{\text{trig}}$, where: ε_{gen} is the generator selection efficiency; $\varepsilon_{\text{reco\&sel}}$ is the reconstruction and selection efficiency; $\varepsilon_{\text{trig}}$ trigger efficiency. The generator efficiency defines the probability that a B^+ decays into daughter particles which all pass through the LHCb detector acceptance, and is approximately 15 % for each signal and normalization channel.

Since efficiency calculations require reliable simulated samples of decays, accurate physics models must, or should, be used. This raises a dilemma deciding how to calculate the efficiency of the signal decays $B^+ \rightarrow K^+\pi^+\pi^-\mu^+\mu^-$ and $B^+ \rightarrow \phi K^+\mu^+\mu^-$, because no physics models exist for them. For the decay $B^+ \rightarrow K^+\pi^+\pi^-\mu^+\mu^-$, an appropriate choice was the physics model for $B^+ \rightarrow K_1(1270)^+\mu^+\mu^-$ from Ref. [70] and $\theta_{K_1} = 34^\circ$, because this was assumed to be a dominant contribution. As there is no available physics model

Search for the decays $B^+ \rightarrow K^+\pi^+\pi^-\mu^+\mu^-$ and $B^+ \rightarrow \phi K^+\mu^+\mu^-$

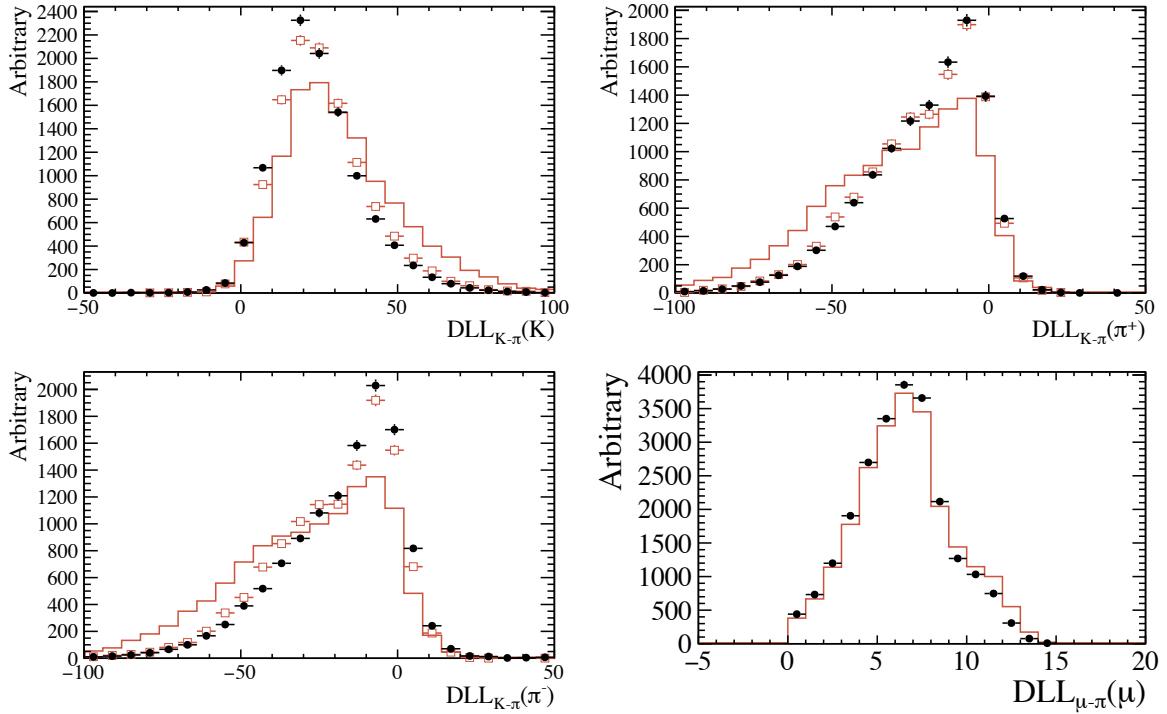


Figure 6.8: The effect of PID resampling for simulated tracks using pure samples of particles for kaons and pions. There is marked improvement in the similarity of the (black circles) $B^+ \rightarrow J/\psi K^+\pi^+\pi^-$ data and simulated events before (red line) resampling and after (red squares). Muon candidates need not be resampled since muon PID is well described in simulation.

for the decay $B^+ \rightarrow \phi K^+\mu^+\mu^-$, simulated events are produced using a phasespace model. These models introduce systematic uncertainties, which are discussed in Sec. 6.4.1 and Sec. 6.5.1. The efficiencies for signal decays in each q^2 bin are shown in Fig. 6.11. Reliable physics models exist for the normalization channels, which have efficiencies measured to be $\varepsilon(B^+ \rightarrow \psi(2S)K^+) = (0.41 \pm 0.01)\%$ and $\varepsilon(B^+ \rightarrow J/\psi \phi K^+) = (2.11 \pm 0.01)\%$ the inefficiency of the former is due to the soft pions from the $\psi(2S)$ decay failing p_T requirements in the stripping.

6.4 Differential branching fraction of the decay

$$B^+ \rightarrow K^+\pi^+\pi^-\mu^+\mu^-$$

Given the statistics available for this channel, the differential branching fraction, $d\mathcal{B}(B^+ \rightarrow K^+\pi^+\pi^-\mu^+\mu^-)/dq^2$ was calculated in five bins of q^2 with respect to the normalization channel $B^+ \rightarrow \psi(2S)K^+$. This normalization channel is chosen because it has the same final state particle if $\psi(2S) \rightarrow J/\psi \pi^+\pi^-$ and $J/\psi \rightarrow \mu^+\mu^-$. This has a total branching fraction of $\mathcal{B}_{\text{tot}}(B^+ \rightarrow \psi(2S)K^+) = (1.264 \pm 0.0052) \times 10^{-5}$ [10], which has a relative uncertainty of 4 %, the alternative normalization channel is $B^+ \rightarrow J/\psi K^+\pi^+\pi^-$ but this

Search for the decays $B^+ \rightarrow K^+\pi^+\pi^-\mu^+\mu^-$ and $B^+ \rightarrow \phi K^+\mu^+\mu^-$

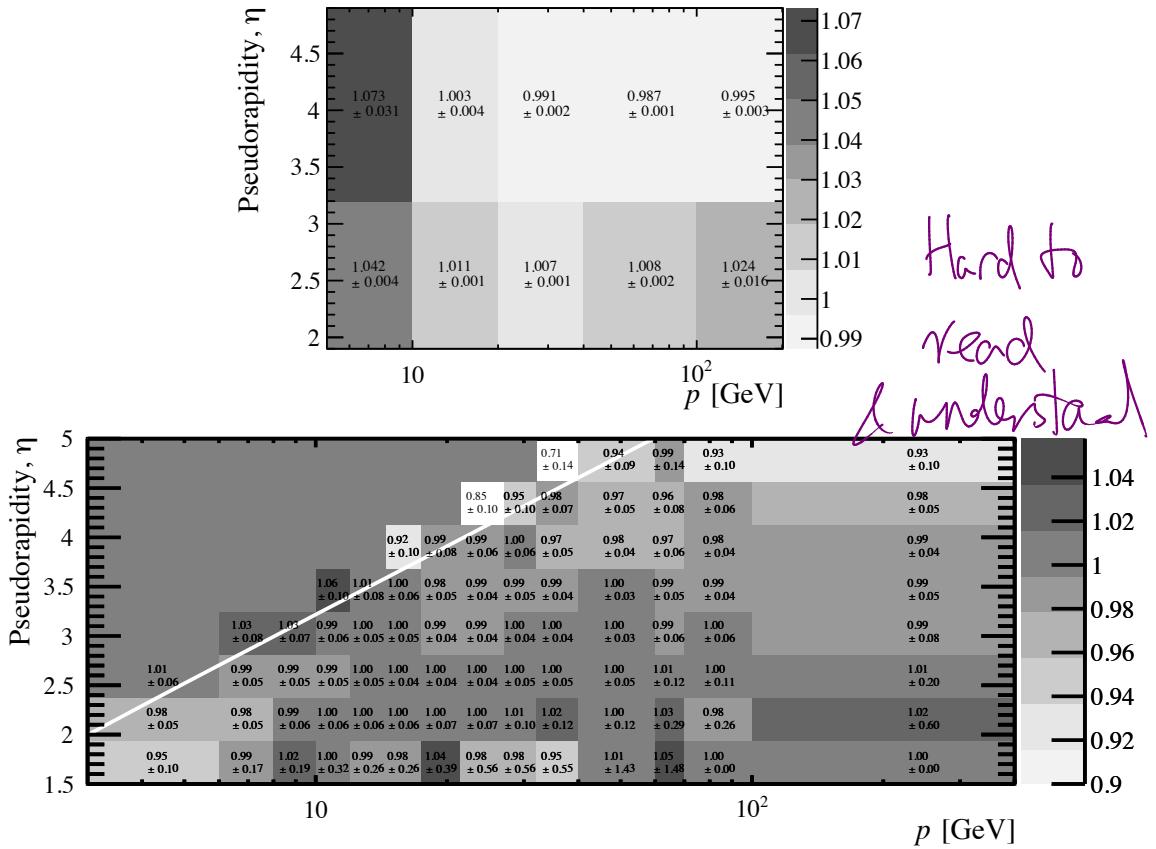


Figure 6.9: The ratio of efficiencies for (top) tracking, and (bottom) `isMuon` between data and simulation. Simulated tracks in simulation are reweighted according to their momentum and pseudorapidity. For the lower plot, the calibration sample does not contain muons with $p_T < 800$ MeV, this geometric threshold is indicated by the white line.

has a relative uncertainty of 16 %.

The differential branching fraction for a bin of width Δq^2 is calculated

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dq^2} \mathcal{B}(B^+ \rightarrow K^+\pi^+\pi^-\mu^+\mu^-) = \\ \frac{1}{\Delta q^2} \cdot \frac{N(B^+ \rightarrow K^+\pi^+\pi^-\mu^+\mu^-)}{N(B^+ \rightarrow \psi(2S)K^+)} \cdot \frac{\varepsilon(B^+ \rightarrow \psi(2S)K^+)}{\varepsilon(B^+ \rightarrow K^+\pi^+\pi^-\mu^+\mu^-)} \cdot \mathcal{B}_{\text{tot}}(B^+ \rightarrow \psi(2S)K^+) \end{aligned} \quad (6.12)$$

where N and ε denote yields and efficiencies, respectively.

The yield of the normalization channel is extracted from an unbinned extended maximum likelihood fit to the invariant mass distribution of $B^+ \rightarrow \psi(2S)K^+$ candidates. The signal shape is modelled using the sum of two Gaussian functions, each having a power-law tail at low-mass, where the tail parameters are shared between both Gaussians. Two Gaussian functions are due to different resolution effects, the wider one is due to events where tracks have been through the OT or undergone multiple scattering. Background

Search for the decays $B^+ \rightarrow K^+\pi^+\pi^-\mu^+\mu^-$ and $B^+ \rightarrow \phi K^+\mu^+\mu^-$

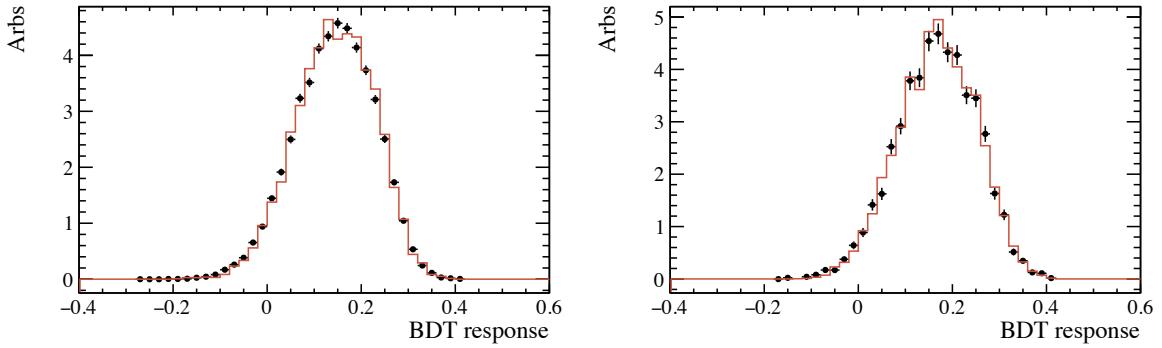


Figure 6.10: Distributions of the BDT for data (black points) and simulation (red line) for the decay (left) $B^+ \rightarrow J/\psi K_1(1270)^+$ (right) $B^+ \rightarrow \psi(2S)K^+$.

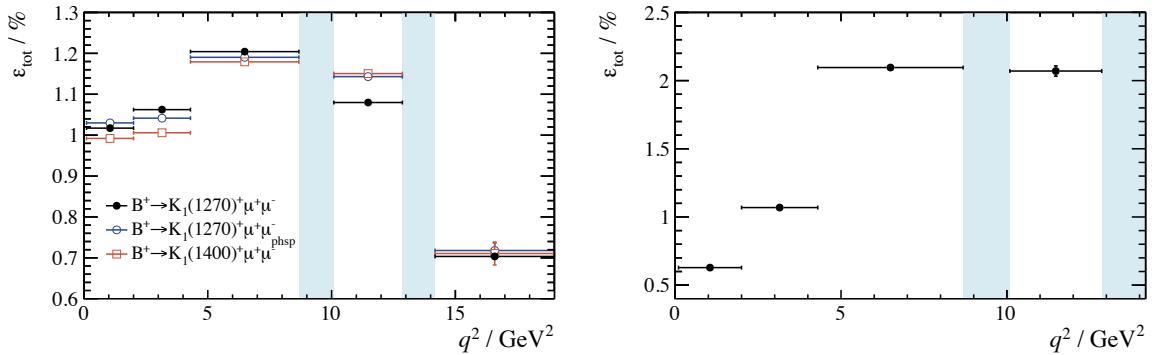


Figure 6.11: The efficiency of the signal decay (left) $B^+ \rightarrow K^+\pi^+\pi^-\mu^+\mu^-$, showing a range of decay models; and (right) $B^+ \rightarrow \phi K^+\mu^+\mu^-$ in bins of q^2 . For the $B^+ \rightarrow \phi K^+\mu^+\mu^-$ analysis, there are no events in the $14.18 < q^2 < 19.00 \text{ GeV}^2$ bin which is present in the $B^+ \rightarrow K^+\pi^+\pi^-\mu^+\mu^-$ analysis. Light blue shaded regions indicate the vetoed J/ψ and $\psi(2S)$ regions.

is modelled using the sum of an exponential to model combinatorial background, and a Gaussian at low mass to model partially reconstructed candidates. The control channel $B^+ \rightarrow J/\psi K^+\pi^+\pi^-$ is fit to the same model. These fits are shown in Fig. 6.12 and they yield $N(B^+ \rightarrow \psi(2S)K^+) = 5128 \pm 67$ and $N(B^+ \rightarrow J/\psi K^+\pi^+\pi^-) = 59\,335 \pm 343$.

Yields of the signal decay in regions of q^2 were extracted from fits using a distribution that was fixed to as large an extent as possible. The lower limit of the fit was taken to be 5150 MeV, because partially reconstructed background becomes significant below that. The combinatorial background shape is an exponential distribution, where the exponent and yield was allowed to float in the fit. In q^2 regions where charmonium vetoes are effective, the background distribution must account for the areas in which charmonium vetoes are extended, this is done by incorporating discrete steps in the combinatorial background; the size of which are determined from data. A fit from the crosscheck channel fixes the signal model used in the lower statistics signal channel. Figure 6.13 shows the invariant mass distribution for all signal candidates for the whole q^2 region and for each bin. The total signal yield is measured to be $N(B^+ \rightarrow K^+\pi^+\pi^-\mu^+\mu^-) = 367^{+24}_{-23}$.

Search for the decays $B^+ \rightarrow K^+\pi^+\pi^-\mu^+\mu^-$ and $B^+ \rightarrow \phi K^+\mu^+\mu^-$

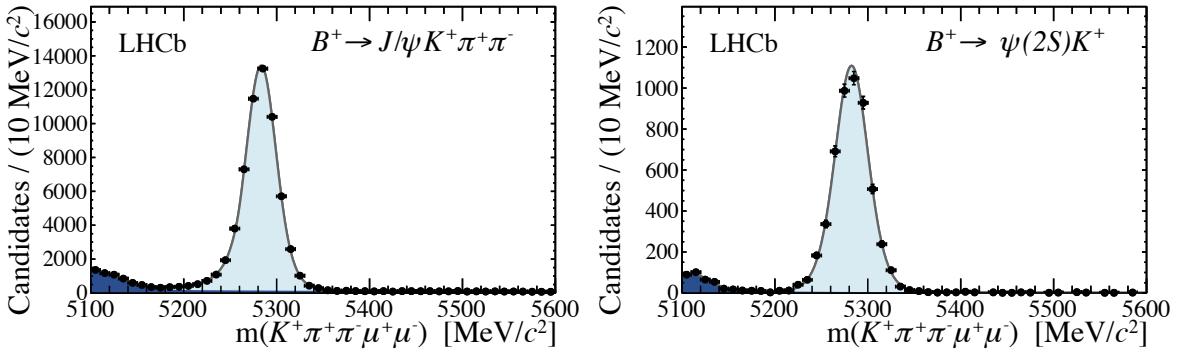


Figure 6.12: Distributions of the invariant mass of the (left) cross-check channel $B^+ \rightarrow J/\psi K^+\pi^+\pi^-$ and (right) normalization mode $B^+ \rightarrow \psi(2S)K^+$. Projections from the fit are overlaid, where the light blue is the yield of the indicated decay, and the dark blue is the background component.

Differential branching fractions were calculated according to Eq. 6.12, where yields were extracted from fits in Fig. 6.13. Results are shown graphically in Fig. 6.14 and are given numerically — along with signal yields — in Table 6.3. These results also quote a number for the $1.0 < q^2 < 6.0 \text{ GeV}^2$ region, which is an area of lower theoretical uncertainty for dimuon FCNC decays, as it is away from the photon pole at low mass, and away from the J/ψ at high mass. Uncertainty from the normalization channel is fully correlated between all q^2 bins. The sum over all q^2 bins results in an integrated branching fraction of

$$\mathcal{B}(B^+ \rightarrow K^+\pi^+\pi^-\mu^+\mu^-) = (3.43^{+0.23}_{-0.21}(\text{stat}) \pm 0.15(\text{syst}) \pm 0.14(\text{norm})) \times 10^{-7};$$

where quoted uncertainties are statistical, systematic and due to the errors on the branching fraction of the normalization channel. The fraction of signal events removed by the charmonium vetoes is determined from simulated $B^+ \rightarrow K_1(1270)^+\mu^+\mu^-$ events to be $(21.3 \pm 1.5)\%$. Finally, the adjusted integrated branching fraction is

$$\mathcal{B}(B^+ \rightarrow K^+\pi^+\pi^-\mu^+\mu^-) = (4.36^{+0.29}_{-0.27}(\text{stat}) \pm 0.21(\text{syst}) \pm 0.18(\text{norm})) \times 10^{-7}.$$

The statistical significance of this result is in excess of 20σ according to Wilks' theorem [57]. Since the uncertainty due to the normalization channel branching fraction is significant, the ratio of branching fractions is also quoted

$$\frac{\mathcal{B}(B^+ \rightarrow K^+\pi^+\pi^-\mu^+\mu^-)}{\mathcal{B}(B^+ \rightarrow \psi(2S)K^+)} = (6.95^{+0.46}_{-0.43}(\text{stat}) \pm 0.34(\text{syst})) \times 10^{-4}.$$

Figure 6.15 shows the background subtracted invariant mass distribution's of the $K^+\pi^+\pi^-$ system in the case of both decays $B^+ \rightarrow J/\psi K^+\pi^+\pi^-$ and $B^+ \rightarrow K^+\pi^+\pi^-\mu^+\mu^-$. Numerous broad resonances are visible in the distributions. The $K^+\pi^+\pi^-$ system from the resonant

Search for the decays $B^+ \rightarrow K^+\pi^+\pi^-\mu^+\mu^-$ and $B^+ \rightarrow \phi K^+\mu^+\mu^-$

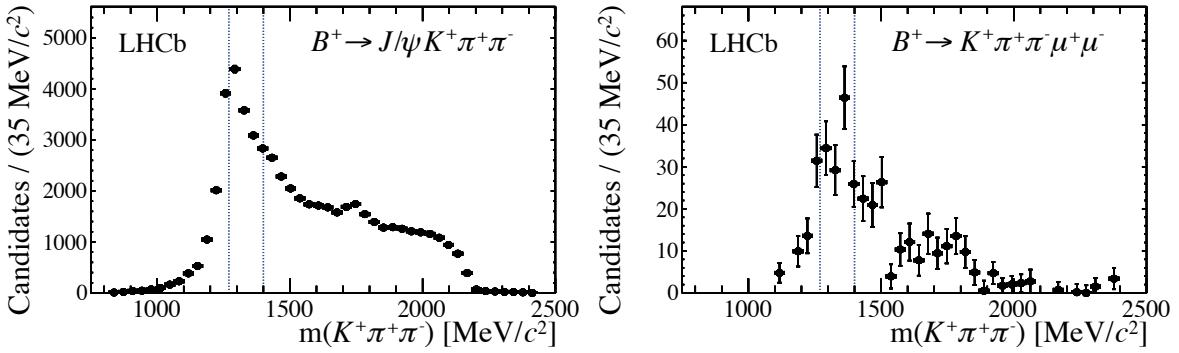


Figure 6.15: Invariant mass distributions of the $K^+\pi^+\pi^-$ system, from the (left) control channel $B^+ \rightarrow J/\psi K^+\pi^+\pi^-$, and the (right) signal decay $B^+ \rightarrow K^+\pi^+\pi^-\mu^+\mu^-$ which have been background subtracted using the *sPlot* [54] technique. The vertical lines indicate the central masses of the $K_1(1270)^+$ and $K_1(1400)^+$ resonances.

$B^+ \rightarrow J/\psi K^+\pi^+\pi^-$ decay shows significant, though not dominant, contributions from the $K_1(1270)^+$ state. There is also a contribution visible as $m_{K^+\pi^+\pi^-} \simeq 1750$ MeV, similar to resonances seen by Belle [63]. However, there are significant differences between the invariant mass distributions of the $K^+\pi^+\pi^-$ system in the decays $B^+ \rightarrow J/\psi K^+\pi^+\pi^-$ and $B^+ \rightarrow K^+\pi^+\pi^-\mu^+\mu^-$. These differences can be explained by differences in the allowed spin states due to the pseudoscalar J/ψ .

6.4.1 Systematic uncertainties

Systematic uncertainties introduced to the measurement of the differential branching fraction of $B^+ \rightarrow K^+\pi^+\pi^-\mu^+\mu^-$ can be categorised into three main categories: corrections applied to simulated events for the efficiency calculation; models used to describe the signal and normalization channel shapes; and modelling of the signal decay.

Section 6.3 describes the process of correcting simulated events such that they best describe data. This procedure introduces systematic uncertainties which must be accounted for. This is done by recalculating the relative efficiency for each q^2 bin: without reweighting track multiplicity and the χ^2 of the fit to the B^+ vertex; without accounting for differences in tracking and `isMuon` efficiencies; and without performing PID resampling. The resulting systematic uncertainty from the selection was assigned a value of 1 %. Each source of uncertainty is treated separately, and the total systematic uncertainty is taken to be the difference in the branching fraction with the newly calculated relative efficiency.

In order to assess the degree of uncertainty introduced by the distributions used to model the signal and background components. The systematic uncertainty is taken to be the difference between the nominal branching fraction, and the branching fraction recalculated using different signal or background components in the fit. A single Gaussian with a

Chapter 7

Search for the decay of a dark sector particle $\chi \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-$ in $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0} \mu^+ \mu^-$

7.1 Introduction

This chapter describes a procedure for searching for a dark boson, χ , of unknown mass and lifetime¹. A frequentist method is applied to the dimuon distribution of $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0} \mu^+ \mu^-$ candidates, to search for an excess of events above the SM background, consistent with a χ decaying into a pair of muons. Lifetime information is added by splitting candidates into two bins of decay time: those which are prompt, and the χ vertex is the same as the K^{*0} vertex; and those which are displaced.

Chapter 2 explains that the SM cannot explain the numerous experimental observations of DM. Little is known about dark matter, except that it interacts gravitationally, and does not interact with electromagnetic radiation to any significant extent. A possible extension to the SM is to introduce a dark sector, which can contain a rich variety of distinct particles operating through forces that are hitherto unknown. Dark sector particles would be gauge singlet states with respect to the SM, and only be able to communicate with known particles via weakly interacting messenger particles through one of four *portals*: the vector, axion, Higgs, and neutrino portals [73]. Interaction terms for messengers in each of these portals are given in Table 7.1.

Theories involving dark sectors are tremendously attractive because it is relatively easy to construct a complex theory that explains various unexplained phenomena. ~~Yet, these can have little impact on the SM observables since the interaction between the two sectors can be extremely weak.~~

The Higgs portal has a scalar messenger particle which can mix with the SM Higgs. There

¹ Throughout this chapter, the symbol χ shall denote a general dark boson and all references to a K^{*0} will be implicitly referencing the $K^*(892)^0$; unless explicitly stated otherwise.

Table 7.1: A summary of portals through which a new dark boson could operate, as given in Ref. [73]. Terms are defined as: $F_{\mu\nu}$ is the field strength tensor of the photon; $F'_{\mu\nu}$ is the dark photon field; ϵ characterizes mixing between the SM and the dark photon; f_χ is scale at which Peccei-Quinn global $U(1)$ symmetry is spontaneously broken; $G_{\mu\nu}$ is the gluon field strength tensor; S is a dark scalar field with coupling strengths μ and λ to the Higgs field; and the sterile neutrino couples to a H with a strength Y_N .

Portal	Particles	Operator(s)	
Vector	Dark photons	$-\frac{\epsilon}{2 \cos \theta_W} F_{\mu\nu} F'^{\mu\nu}$	
Axion	Pseudoscalars	$\frac{\chi}{f_\chi} F_{\mu\nu} \tilde{F}^{\mu\nu}$	$\frac{\chi}{f_\chi} G_{i\mu\nu} \tilde{G}_i^{\mu\nu}$
Higgs	Dark scalars		$(\mu\chi + \lambda\chi^2) H^\dagger H$
Neutrino	Sterile neutrinos		$Y_N \ell H \chi$

are a number of models which incorporate a scalar messenger particle that interacts with the Higgs. One class of models incorporate an *inflaton*, which is the quanta of the hypothesised inflaton field responsible for the inflationary period of the Universe; beginning around $t = 10^{-36}$ s. Figure 7.1 shows the allowed parameter space of the mixing angle between the DM and Higgs, θ , as a function of mass. It is possible that inflatons are light, in the range $270 < m_\chi < 10^4$ MeV [74], and might therefore be accessible in the decay $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0} \chi$. These models also help to solve other problems, such as the BAU [75, 76].

Chapter 2 introduces the idea of PQ symmetry breaking leading to an axion which resolves the strong CP problem. Unlike other dark boson portals, the axion portal introduces a term in the Lagrangian which couples messenger axions to fermions directly. In order for the axion portal to couple to a dark sector containing TeV-scale DM, the messenger particles are predicted to have a mass in the range $360 < m_\chi < 800$ MeV and a decay constant in the range $1 \lesssim f_\chi \lesssim 3$ TeV [78]. Figure 7.2 shows a Feynman diagram of how the decay $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0} \chi$ might proceed; it shows an FCNC where the χ results from a coupling to a t quark. Therefore, searching for evidence of a $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0} \chi$ where $\chi \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-$ is particularly sensitive to portals which couple strongly to mass, as is the case for axions.

It is known that SM would be a gauged field theory, and it is therefore reasonable to assume that the dark sector is also gauged, but under a different group. If this were to be the case, the SM $U_Y(1)$ generator could kinetically mix with the generator of the dark $U(1)$ group, giving rise to a particle, often called a *dark photon*, interacting through the vector portal.

In principle, the following analysis is sensitive to any dark sector particle. Practically, other experiments have searched directly for dark bosons with mass-independent couplings using much larger data samples. For example, the NA48/2 collaboration has searched for a dark photon directly in the decay $\pi^0 \rightarrow \gamma A'$ [79], and the BaBar collaboration have searched for evidence in the decay $e^- e^- \rightarrow \gamma A'$ [80]. The coupling here is mass independent,

Search for the decay of a dark sector particle $\chi \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-$ in $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0} \mu^+ \mu^-$

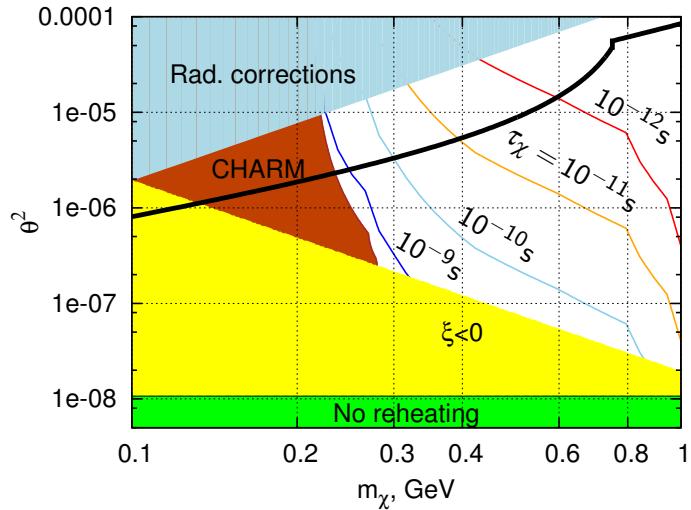


Figure 7.1: Allowed and excluded regions of the Higgs-inflaton mixing parameter-squared as a function of inflaton mass, taken from Ref. [77].

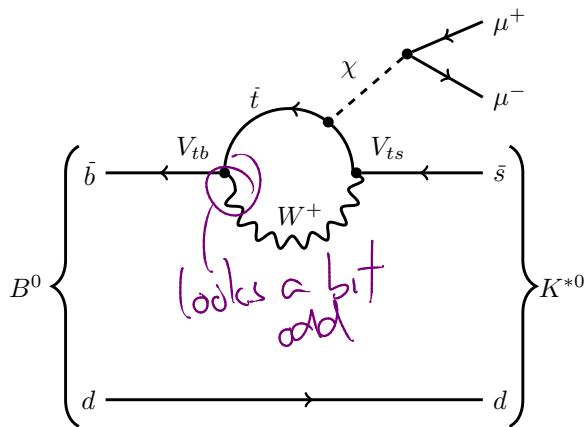


Figure 7.2: Feynman diagram showing the decay $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0} \chi$, and $\chi \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-$. Depending on the portal through which the χ acts, it couples directly to the muons, or need to mix with a SM Higgs, Z , or photon.

Search for the decay of a dark sector particle $\chi \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-$ in $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0} \mu^+ \mu^-$

and therefore this search is less sensitive to dark photons in comparison to these direct production searches.

SUSY could also be restricted, at energies reached thus far, to a dark sector. It is known that SUSY is a broken symmetry and thus must have associated Goldstone particles: a fermionic *goldstino* and associated super-partners called *sgoldstinos*, which are scalar and pseudoscalar. In some models, the sgoldstinos are the messenger particles between the SM and the dark SUSY sector. After SUSY breaking, the goldstino becomes the longitudinal component of the gravitino, and the sgoldstinos are massless particles, which gain mass from corrections at higher orders. Then, after electroweak symmetry breaking, these sgoldstinos interact with SM fermions via Yukawa-like interactions, but suppressed by the SUSY breaking parameter, F , [81]. This is interesting because although the sgoldstino masses are unknown, a measurement of its coupling to fermions would give access to F and the scale of SUSY breaking since $\sqrt{F} \sim \Lambda_{\text{SUSY}}$. The suppression of the coupling between the sgoldstinos and fermions means that the larger the scale Λ_{SUSY} , the longer the lifetime of the sgoldstinos.

Naïvely, one might expect that in the case that χ is a scalar or pseudoscalar, the decay $B^0 \rightarrow K^+ \mu^+ \mu^-$ to be more sensitive than $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0} \mu^+ \mu^-$. The latter mode for a spin-0 χ requires orbital angular momentum of one, because the B^0 is a pseudoscalar and the K^{*0} is a vector, and therefore leads to some suppression due to a barrier factor. However, this suppression is only significant at high dimuon masses, close to threshold, because of there is plenty of phasespace in the decay $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0} \chi$. A further complication of using the decay $B^+ \rightarrow K^+ \mu^+ \mu^-$ for this analysis is the lack of a good quality B^0 decay vertex. Decay rate predictions for a χ operating through the axion portal for decays of the type $B \rightarrow K \chi$ to be [82]:

$$\Gamma(B \rightarrow K \chi) = \Gamma_0 \frac{\lambda_K (m_B^2 - m_K^2)^2}{m_B^6} [f_0(m_\chi^2)] \quad (7.1)$$

$$\Gamma(B \rightarrow K^* \chi) = \Gamma_0 \frac{\lambda_{K^*}^3}{m_B^6} [A_0(m_\chi^2)] \quad (7.2)$$

where the phasespace factor is

$$\lambda_\kappa = \left[(m_B^2 - m_\chi^2 - m_\kappa^2)^2 - 4m_\chi^2 m_\kappa^2 \right]^{\frac{1}{2}}, \quad (7.3)$$

form factors are denoted as f_0 A_0 , and Γ_0 is a constant. Figure 7.3 shows that the phasespace factor is the dominant factor in the shape for all the decays, and that searching for a new scalar or vector particle in the decays $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0} \chi$ and $B^+ \rightarrow K^+ \chi$ is similarly sensitive for $m_\chi \lesssim 2000$ MeV, but at high masses $B^+ \rightarrow K^+ \chi$ is more sensitive.

The following chapter introduces the analysis strategy, an overview of the selection, and

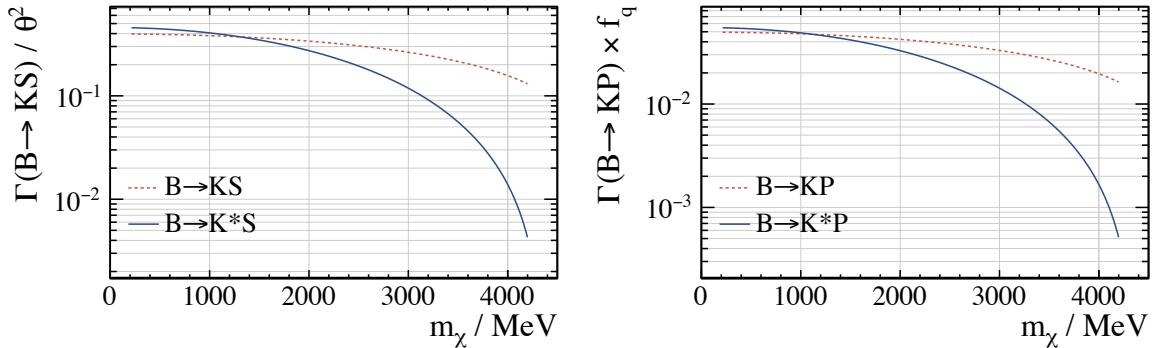


Figure 7.3: Decay rate predictions, from Eq. 7.3, for decays of the form $B \rightarrow KX$, where X is either (left) a scalar (S) or (right) an axial-vector (P). The parameters θ and f_q are parameters of the model in Ref [82]. The shapes of the curves are dominated by the available phasespace, and sensitivity is comparable for $m_\chi \lesssim 2000$ MeV.

how the discrete samples of $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0} \chi$ are used to parameterize various distributions at all masses. The analysis is performed blindly, some results of the unblinding procedure are given in the final selection along with a calculated p -value.

7.2 Analysis strategy

This analysis is a completely general search for a particle with unknown mass, m_χ , and lifetime, τ_χ . Exhaustive details of the analysis strategy can be found in Ref. [83], but the following section will outline the important points. Broadly, the search involves a frequentist scan of the dimuon invariant mass spectrum, separated into two bins in decay time, from $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0} \mu^+ \mu^-$ for an excess of events consistent with $\chi \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-$. Firstly, an explanation of the search in the mass dimension will be presented, and then extended to deal with the decay time dimension.

7.2.1 Searching in the mass dimension

A scan in mass is performed where the test mass, m_t , is incremented in steps of $\frac{1}{2}\sigma_m$, where σ_m is the local mass resolution defined at m_t . In this analysis, σ_m lies in the range $1 \lesssim \sigma_m \lesssim 6$ MeV. At each m_t a signal and background regions are defined as

$$|m - m_t| < 2\sigma_m \quad (7.4)$$

and

$$3\sigma_m < |m - m_t| < (2x + 3)\sigma_m, \quad (7.5)$$

respectively. The width of the sideband region with respect to the signal region is defined by x . Using two sideband regions, one either side of the signal means the background contribution to the signal region can be estimated by assuming that the background is, on average, linear over the range of interest. A gap of $1\sigma_m$ separates the signal and background regions to allow for leakage of signal candidates beyond $2\sigma_m$.

At each mass point in the search the number of events in the signal region, n_s , and the number of events in the background region, n_b , are counted. If the background is, on average, linear in the local mass region, and if there is no signal contribution: $\langle n_s \rangle = \frac{1}{x} \langle n_b \rangle$. However, if there is evidence of signal, then $n_s = s + b$, where s is the number of signal events, and b is the background component in the signal region, as estimated from the sideband regions. Thus, one can construct a likelihood:

$$\mathcal{L}(n_s, n_b | s, b) = \mathcal{P}(n_s, s + b) \cdot \mathcal{P}(n_b, xb), \quad (7.6)$$

where $\mathcal{P}(n, \lambda)$ is the probability of observing n from a Poisson distribution parameterized by λ . This is simply the likelihood of the background estimate from the sidebands fluctuating to the observed number of events in the signal region.

The likelihood given in Eq. 7.6 assumes that the background is, on average, exactly linear, and that the sideband region is always factor of x larger than the signal region. In reality, this is not precisely true, and local deviations mean that the actual scaling factor is an unknown y , with an uncertainty σ_y , which is accounted for by modifying the likelihood function to be

$$\mathcal{L}(n_s, n_b, x | s, b, y) = \mathcal{P}(n_s, s + b) \cdot \mathcal{P}(n_b, yb) \cdot \mathcal{G}(y, x, \sigma_y). \quad (7.7)$$

Here, $\mathcal{G}(n, \mu, \sigma)$ is the probability of observing n given a Gaussian distribution with a mean, μ , and standard deviation, σ . This modification allows the uncertainty on the background shape to be immediately accounted for in the method, meaning that no additional systematic uncertainty is required.

The profile likelihood, Λ , is defined as

$$\Lambda(s | n_s, n_b) = \frac{\mathcal{L}(s, \hat{b}(s), \hat{y}(s) | n_s, n_b, x)}{\mathcal{L}(\hat{s}, \hat{b}, \hat{y} | n_s, n_b, x)}, \quad (7.8)$$

where \hat{s} , \hat{b} , and \hat{y} are chosen to maximize the likelihood; the functions $\hat{b}(s)$ and $\hat{y}(s)$ maximize the likelihood for a given s . The function $-2 \ln (\Lambda(s | n_s, n_b))$ behaves like a χ^2 distribution with one degree of freedom.

7.2.2 Searching in the lifetime dimension

Sensitivity to the lifetime of the χ , τ_χ , is introduced by splitting the data at each test mass into two regions: a prompt and a displaced region, defined by $\tau < 3\sigma_\tau$ and $\tau > 3\sigma_\tau$ respectively; where σ_τ is defined to be the local decay time resolution. The joint likelihood is simply the product of the two individual likelihoods:

$$\mathcal{L}(n_s^p, n_b^p, n_s^d, n_b^d, x | s^p, b^p, y^p, s^d, b^d, y^d) = \mathcal{L}(n_s^p, n_b^p, x | s^p, b^p, y^p) \times \mathcal{L}(n_s^d, n_b^d, x | s^d, b^d, y^d), \quad (7.9)$$

where superscripts p and d denote the prompt and displaced regions, respectively. The combined profile likelihood is:

$$\Lambda_{\text{Tot}} = \Lambda(s^p | n_s^p, n_b^p) \cdot \Lambda(s^d | n_s^d, n_b^d), \quad (7.10)$$

and $-2 \ln(\Lambda_{\text{Tot}})$ behaves as a χ^2 distribution with two degrees of freedom. From this information a p -value for a given mass m_t can be calculated quantifying how incompatible the signal region is with the null hypothesis of zero signal.

The information supplied by the addition of two bins in the lifetime dimension is approximately optimal for all χ lifetimes, except for when $\tau \sim 3\sigma_\tau$. In this case, it is marginally more optimal to include shape information of the background distribution from the sidebands; but this introduces significantly more complications to the analysis. Therefore background shape information is not used.

7.2.3 Calculation of p -value

At each m_t , a p -value is calculated using the profile likelihood of the joint likelihood given in Eq. 7.9. Because there are $\mathcal{O}(1000)$ test masses, each of which is not completely independent the look-elsewhere effect must be accounted for. To do this the minimum local p -value is translated into a global p -value an ensemble of toys.

After the p -value at each m_t is calculated, the region in which the lowest p -value consistent with zero signal will be isolated and removed from the sample; leaving data which is entirely background. This is assuming that there is only one NP particle that can be observed in this analysis. The remaining background-like distribution is then turned into a Probability Density Function (PDF) — where the region that is removed is interpolated across — from which toy datasets can be generated. This procedure is undertaken later, and described more fully then.

Since this method requires the generation of $\mathcal{O}(10^7)$ datasets to probe down to 5σ , if the minimum local p -value corresponds to less than this, the asymptotic formula will be

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used [84]. The asymptotic formula uses a few toy datasets to set an upper bound on the conversion of local to global minimum p -value. As shown in Ref. [85], this bound is given by

$$P_{\text{global}} \leq P(\chi_s^2 > c) + \langle N(c) \rangle, \quad (7.11)$$

where s is the number of degrees of freedom of the χ^2 , in this case $s = 2$. The function $N(c)$ returns the number of *upcrossings* of a dataset above the level of c , where an upcrossing is defined to be when the p -value crosses from below the value of c , to above it. The value of c for a given p -value is its significance squared. Clearly, for large p -values, the ability to obtain a reliable value of $N(c)$ will be highly dependent on the toy datasets generated, and therefore an approximation is needed. Reference ?? shows that Eq. 7.11 can be approximated to be

$$P_{\text{global}} \leq P(\chi_s^2 > c) + \langle N(c_0) \rangle \exp\left(-\frac{c - c_0}{2}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{c}{c_0}\right)^{\frac{(s-1)}{2}}, \quad (7.12)$$

where c_0 is the number of upcrossings for a small value of c , optimally $c = s - 1$. Therefore, once $\langle N(c_0) \rangle$ has been determined using a few hundred toy datasets, the asymptotic boundary is trivial to calculate. This can be used to check the final conversion, and used to calculate the global p -value should a greater than 5σ be observed.

7.2.4 Limit setting

Upper limits will be set as a function of m_χ and τ_χ . This requires further modification to the likelihood function to account for the relationship between the number of signal events in the prompt and displaced regions for a given value of decay time. Additional Gaussian terms are added: one to account for the uncertainty in the fraction of signal events that are observed in the two lifetime regions, and another to account for the uncertainty in the efficiency ratio with respect to the normalization channel. The resulting likelihood for a given m_χ and τ_χ is

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}(n_s^p, n_b^p, n_s^d, n_b^d, x, \tau | \dots) &= \mathcal{L}(n_s^d, n_b^d, x | \varepsilon s f, b^p, y^p) \\ &\times \mathcal{L}(n_s^p, n_b^p, x | \varepsilon s(1-f), b^d, y^d) \\ &\times \mathcal{G}(f, \bar{f}(\tau_\chi), \sigma(f)) \times \mathcal{G}(\varepsilon, \bar{\varepsilon}(\tau_\chi), \sigma(\varepsilon)), \end{aligned} \quad (7.13)$$

where the fraction of signal events in the prompt region is given by f , which has an expected value from simulation \bar{f} and an uncertainty $\sigma(f)$. The same nomenclature is used for the efficiency measured relative to the normalization channel, ε .

The normalization channel used will be the SM decay $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0} \mu^+ \mu^-$, restricted to the region $1.1 < q^2 < 6.0 \text{ GeV}^2$. This range is chosen to minimize theoretical uncertainties at

Table 7.2: Selected particles properties for mesons which decay into a dimuon pair final state, and the branching fractions for the relevant decays [3]. Central values of mass and width are given in MeV.

Meson (X)	Mass	Width	$\mathcal{B}(B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0}X)$	$\mathcal{B}(X \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-)$	$\mathcal{B}_{\text{tot}}(B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0} \mu^+ \mu^-)$
η	547.9	0.001	$(1.59 \pm 0.10) \times 10^{-5}$	$(5.8 \pm 0.8) \times 10^{-6}$	$(9.2 \pm 1.4) \times 10^{-11}$
ρ	775.3	147.8	$(3.9 \pm 1.3) \times 10^{-6}$	$(4.55 \pm 0.28) \times 10^{-5}$	$(1.8 \pm 0.6) \times 10^{-10}$
ω	782.7	8.5	$(2.0 \pm 0.5) \times 10^{-6}$	$(9.0 \pm 3.1) \times 10^{-5}$	$(1.8 \pm 0.8) \times 10^{-10}$
ϕ	1019.5	4.3	$(1.00 \pm 0.05) \times 10^{-5}$	$(2.87 \pm 0.19) \times 10^{-4}$	$(2.9 \pm 0.2) \times 10^{-9}$
D^0	1864.8	10.1	$(4.2 \pm 0.6) \times 10^{-5}$	$< 6.2 \times 10^{-9}$	$< 2.6 \times 10^{-14}$
J/ψ	3096.9	0.093	$(5.96 \pm 0.03) \times 10^{-2}$	$(1.32 \pm 0.06) \times 10^{-3}$	$(7.9 \pm 0.4) \times 10^{-5}$
$\psi(2S)$	3686.1	0.299	$(7.9 \pm 0.9) \times 10^{-3}$	$(6.0 \pm 0.4) \times 10^{-4}$	$(4.7 \pm 0.6) \times 10^{-6}$

low and high q^2 and reduce experimental uncertainties by removing the region around the ϕ meson which is centred at $q^2 \simeq 1.04 \text{ GeV}^2$.

7.2.5 Resonant backgrounds

In the absence of resonances, the dimuon background from the SM decay $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0} \mu^+ \mu^-$ is expected to be locally-linear to within 1% over the entire mass range. However, the inclusion of resonances can lead to significant departures from linearity, dependent upon the resonance's width (Γ), magnitude, and the value of x . Table 7.2 lists a number of mesons that decay to a dimuon final state and could contribute as background to the decay $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0} \mu^+ \mu^-$. Wide resonances, $\Gamma \gtrsim 20\sigma_m$, such as the ρ , are sufficiently wide not to be problematic, even if they dominate the local background distribution. Conversely, narrow resonances where $\Gamma \lesssim 5\sigma_m$ lead to significant deviations from a locally-linear background and must be vetoed. Dimuon decays of the ϕ , J/ψ , and $\psi(2S)$ mesons have the highest branching fractions, and are also among the narrowest resonances; they are therefore vetoed. Intermediate resonances, $5 \lesssim \Gamma \lesssim 20\sigma_m$, are considered on a case-by-case basis since they are only troublesome if they account for a large fraction of the local background. For this analysis, these ranges roughly translate to requiring that resonances with $\Gamma < 25 \text{ MeV}$ will be vetoed, and those with $\Gamma > 125 \text{ MeV}$ shall be ignored. Other resonances in Table 7.2 are broad, and contribute to the dimuon structures at low mass. It is shown in Ref. [83] that the local-linearity approximation is accurate to $\sim 5\%$ in regions where there may be contributions from wide resonances. Below the mass of the J/ψ the values of $x = 5$ and $\sigma_y = 0.05$ are chosen.

Resonances that have a natural width in the intermediate region $5 \lesssim \Gamma \lesssim 20\sigma_m$, are various $c\bar{c}$ states with masses above the mass of the $\psi(2S)$. For example, there is contribution from the $\psi(4160)$ which was observed by LHCb in the decay $B^+ \rightarrow K^+ \mu^+ \mu^-$ [86]. All known charmonium resonances in this region are wide, $\Gamma \sim 70 \text{ MeV}$, and are dealt with by reducing the size of the sidebands and increasing the uncertainty on the background

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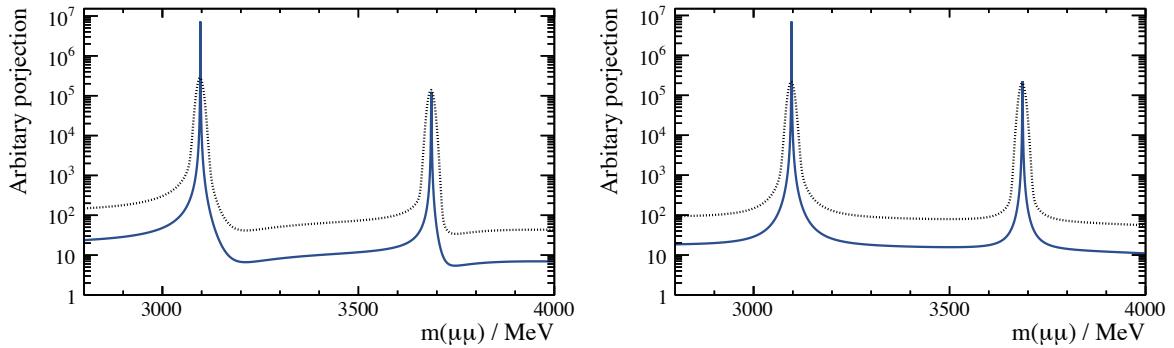


Figure 7.4: Theoretical distributions of the decays $J/\psi \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-$ and $\psi(2S) \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-$ interfering with a non-resonant dimuon component using a model in Ref. ?? with (left) no phase difference, and (right) maximal phase difference. The solid blue line shows the raw model, and the dotted line is the same distribution which has been convolved with a Gaussian to account for detector resolution effects.

shape, by setting $x = 1$ and $\sigma_y = 0.1$.

Interference effects between $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0} \mu^+ \mu^-$ and $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0} \rho$, where $\rho \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-$, could lead to non-linearity in the background shape, despite the fact that the total branching fractions of $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0} \rho(\rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-)$ decay ~~note~~ is so small that less than one event is expected in the data sample. However, this deviation can only be a maximum of $\sim 5\%$, which is already accounted for in the choice of $\sigma_y = 0.05$.

The contribution from the decay $\phi \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-$ to the $K^{*0} \mu^+ \mu^-$ final state is removed by excluding dimuon candidates in the range $1000 < m_{\mu^+ \mu^-} < 1040$ MeV. Vetoed regions for the J/ψ and $\psi(2S)$ are calculated using a theoretical model which can account for the interference effects between the $c\bar{c} \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-$ resonances and the non-resonant $\mu^+ \mu^-$ component [87]. The model is used to generate PDFs with different phase differences between the resonant and non-resonant components, which is then convolved with a double Gaussian function to account for detector resolution effects; these are shown in Fig. 7.4. After smearing, the PDFs are then used to calculate the regions around the J/ψ and $\psi(2S)$ where the background is locally linear to better than 5 % for various values of x . The resulting veto regions are very similar to those used in Ref. [61], except that the upper boundary of the $\psi(2S)$ veto is extended to cover the $\psi(3770)$. All the vetoed regions to remove narrow resonances are summarized in Table 7.3.

7.3 Selection

This analysis uses the full 3.0 fb^{-1} of data collected by the LHCb experiment [32] in the years 2011 and 2012. Since the properties of the χ are unknown, a variety of simulated samples of the decay $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0} \chi$, where $\chi \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-$, were generated with a range of m_χ

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Table 7.3: Summary of the vetoes regions in $m_{\mu^+ \mu^-}$ to remove the contributions from the decays $\phi \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-$ and various narrow $\psi \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-$ to the dimuon distribution.

Resonance(s)	Vetoed region (MeV)
ϕ	$1000 < m_{\mu^+ \mu^-} < 1040$
J/ψ	$2960 < m_{\mu^+ \mu^-} < 3204$
$\psi(2S), \psi(3770)$	$3614 < m_{\mu^+ \mu^-} < 3875$

Table 7.4: Samples of simulated $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0} \chi$ generated with given mass and lifetime. A total of 1.5 million events are generated for each sample, but only 150 000 for the samples with a m_χ of 220 and 235 MeV.

τ_χ (ps)		m_χ (MeV)									
10		2500									
100	214	220	235	250	500	800	1000	1500	2000	2500	4000
1000	250										2500

and τ_χ , a summary of these are shown in Table 7.4. Studies are also performed using simulated events of the decays $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0} \mu^+ \mu^-$ and $B^0 \rightarrow J/\psi K^{*0}$.

Reconstructed decays of $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0} \chi$ that must be selected by the L0 triggers for muon, dimuon, or hadronic candidates. Subsequent trigger levels require that the decay has a topology consistent with a B -meson decaying in to a multi-body final state which includes muons. Only **TOS** candidates are used in this analysis for two reasons: firstly, the ratio of trigger efficiency for the SM $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0} \mu^+ \mu^-$ to that of (possibly displaced) χ mode enters into the limits and, thus, must be precisely determined; and the use of **TIS** events would come with a substantial enhancement of the di- b -hadron backgrounds. The few percent gain in signal efficiency obtained using **TIS** is not worth the increase in these backgrounds di- b -hadron backgrounds.

Since the χ could be long lived, its decay vertex can lie downstream of the B^0 vertex, and could fly far enough to leave acceptance of the VELO before it decays. It is therefore wise to consider different *track types*. For most LHCb analyses, the only appropriate tracks to use are *long* tracks — as have been used implicitly throughout this thesis. Long tracks are fitted using hits in the tracking stations T1–3, the VELO, and can use TT information. But, it is also possible to reconstruct tracks using only some of the tracking stations; for example, a *downstream* track is reconstructed using hits in the TT and tracking stations T1–3, but not the VELO. Figure 7.5 shows the various definitions of track types. The problem with using downstream tracks is that they are not triggered efficiently in HLT2. For example, a simulated χ with a mass of 250 MeV and a lifetime of 100 ps has a reconstruction and stripping efficiency of $\sim 0.9\%$ if the muons are both long tracks, but the equivalent number for downstream tracks is $\sim 2.5\%$; due to the boost

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Table 7.5: Selection criteria applied to signal candidates in the stripping. Criteria definitions are defined in text. While the B^0 mass is constrained in the fit, the selection makes a cut on the unconstrained mass.

Candidate	Selection criterion			
B^+	$\chi_{\text{vtx}}^2/\text{ndf}$	<	25	state which have LHCb-standard values
	χ_{IP}^2	<	50	
	τ	>	0.2 ps	
	m	\in	[4800, 5800] MeV	
	p_T	>	1000 MeV	
	$\cos \theta_{\text{dir}}$	>	0	
χ	$\chi_{\text{vtx}}^2/\text{ndf}$	<	10	
	χ_{FD}^2	<	25	
	p_T	>	250 MeV	
	DOCA	<	0.2 mm	
	DOCA χ^2	<	25	
Tracks	$\chi_{\text{trk}}^2/\text{ndf}$	<	3	
	$\min(\chi_{\text{IP}}^2)$	>	9	
	\mathcal{P}_{gh}	<	0.3	
K^+, π^+	p_T	>	250 MeV	
	p	>	2000 MeV	
	χ_{IP}^2	>	9	
	\mathcal{P}_K	>	0.1	
	\mathcal{P}_π	>	0.2	
	p_T	>	100 MeV	
	PIDmu	>	-5	
	isMuon		True	

$$\text{DLL}_{K\pi}(\pi^+) > 10.$$

The decay $K_s^0 \rightarrow \pi^+ \pi^-$ has a branching fraction of $(69.20 \pm 0.05) \times 10^{-2}$ [3], and is removed in the preselection by requiring that $|m_{\pi_\mu^+ \pi_\mu^-} - m_{K_s^0}^{\text{PDG}}| < 25$ MeV. This roughly translates to a cut in the dimuon invariant mass spectrum of $436 < m_{\mu^+ \mu^-} < 490$ MeV.

Since the χ can be displaced from the B^0 decay vertex, a potential background for the decay $\chi \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-$ is from a $\mu^+ \mu^-$ pair directly from a PV. This is suppressed by requiring that the transverse flight distance (FD_T) of the χ vertex, with respect to the PV, is greater than 0.1 mm.

The high branching fraction of $B^0 \rightarrow J/\psi (\rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-) K^{*0}$ means that there is also contamination from decays where a hadron is misidentified as a muon, and vice versa. This background can be suppressed by requiring that neither of the K^{*0} daughters satisfy the `isMuon` criteria. Figure 7.6, shows the invariant mass of the hadron-muon pair before and after the requirement that the hadrons fail the `isMuon` criterion. A summary of all preselection cuts is shown in Table 7.6.

Table 7.7: Veto conditions to suppress double and single misidentification of particles. If, under the alternate hypothesis, the χ or K^{*0} candidate mass falls within the range indicated, the candidates are subject to the given PID requirements.

Mass criteria (MeV)	PID requirement
$ m(K^+ K_\pi^-) - m_\phi^{\text{PDG}} $	$< 10 \quad \mathcal{P}_\pi(\pi) > 0.3 \text{ and } \mathcal{P}_K(\pi) < 0.3$
$ m(K_\mu^+ \pi_\mu^-) - m_{D^0}^{\text{PDG}} $	$< 25 \quad \mathcal{P}_\mu(\mu) > 0.3$
$ m(p_\mu \pi_\mu^-) - m_{A^0}^{\text{PDG}} $	$< 10 \quad \mathcal{P}_p(\mu) < 0.3$
$ m(p_\pi K^- \mu^+ \mu^-) - m_{A_b^0}^{\text{PDG}} $	$< 50 \quad \mathcal{P}_p(\pi) < 0.2$

7.3.2 Other backgrounds from particle misidentification

Beyond backgrounds from ~~onia states~~ and the K_s^0 decay there are many mesons that decay into a two-body final state, which could mimic the signal decay given some particle misidentification. A meson that decays via $X \rightarrow hh'$ which is then reconstructed under the incorrect mass hypothesis could pass the selection criteria as either the χ or K^{*0} candidate. This type of contamination is studied by assigning different mass hypotheses to each final state particle and calculating the invariant mass of the $\mu^+ \mu^-$ and $K^+ \pi^-$ candidates. If the mass of one of these objects, after mass reassignment, is seen to peak at the mass of a known particle, then the contamination is removed by applying PID criteria.

Since a selection has been made on the $K^{*0} \rightarrow K^+ \pi^-$ candidate using both PID criteria and constraints on the $K^+ \pi^-$ invariant mass it is expected that there will be little contamination from background sources. To test this, candidate K^{*0} mesons coming from a B^0 candidate with an invariant mass within 80 MeV of the known B^0 mass are assigned different mass hypotheses to check for peaking components in the new $m_{K_h^+ \pi_{h'}^-}$ mass spectrum. The only background that must be removed from this category is from a real $\phi \rightarrow K^+ K^-$ where a kaon in the final state is misidentified as being a pion. If the mass of the $K^+ K_\pi^-$ candidate lies within 10 MeV of the known ϕ mass, the ambiguous pion is subject to the requirements that $\mathcal{P}_\pi < 0.3$ and $\mathcal{P}_K > 0.3$.

Resonances decaying into a pair of hadrons which are mistaken as a pair of muons are more problematic. Weak Decays of mesons can contribute to background, especially $D^0 \rightarrow K^+ \pi^-$ and $A^0 \rightarrow p \pi^-$, which are dealt with in a similar way to the vetoes described in Chap. 5. If the invariant mass of the $K_\mu^+ \pi_\mu^- (p_\mu \pi_\mu^-)$ candidate falls within 25(10) MeV of the nominal $D^0 (A^0)$ mass, then the muons are subject to the requirement that $\mathcal{P}_\mu(K_\mu^+, \pi_\mu^+) > 0.3 (\mathcal{P}_p(p_\mu) < 0.3)$.

Misidentifying the proton as a pion in the decay $\Lambda_b^0 \rightarrow p K^- \mu^+ \mu^-$ can contaminate the selected $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0} \chi$ candidates. Figure 7.7 shows the invariant mass distribution of the $p_\pi K^- \mu^+ \mu^-$ system for candidates where $\mathcal{P}_p(p_\pi) > 0.2$, a clear peak is observed at the

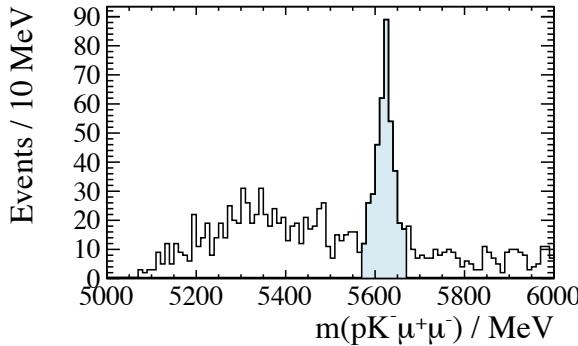


Figure 7.7: Contamination from the decay $\Lambda_b^0 \rightarrow p K^- \mu^+ \mu^-$, where the proton is misidentified as a pion, here a cut of $\mathcal{P}_p(p_\pi)$ has been applied and a clear peak at the known Λ_b^0 mass, 5219.4 MeV, is observed. Candidates are vetoed if they lie within 50 MeV of the Λ_b^0 mass, which is shown as the shaded region.

known mass of the Λ_b^0 . Candidates are removed by if the mass of the Λ_b^0 candidate falls within 50 MeV of the nominal Λ_b^0 mass and satisfies $\mathcal{P}_p(p_\pi) > 0.2$.

The sidebands are used to estimate the level of background in the signal region. Therefore, background contributions are only problematic if they produce a narrow peaking structure in the dimuon mass, because misidentification causes the $m_{\mu^+ \mu^-}$ distribution to be smeared. In general, misidentification is only problematic if the decaying particle has a very narrow natural width, so any remaining misidentification-type backgrounds have a negligible effect in the analysis.

7.3.3 Possible contamination from the $X(1070)$

While searching for potential backgrounds resulting from misidentifying two hadrons as muons, a peak is observed in the invariant mass spectrum of the $K_\mu^+ K_\mu^-$ candidates. This peak was consistent with the $X(1070)$ listed in Ref. [3], which has a mass of (1072 ± 1) MeV with a width of (3.5 ± 0.5) MeV and was observed in the $K_s^0 K_s^0$ distribution from a pion beam interacting with a liquid hydrogen target [88].

Initially the $\mu^+ \mu^-$ pair under the $K^+ K^-$ mass hypothesis appears to have a contribution from a decaying $X(1070)$. Figure 7.9 shows a comparison of simulated $K_s^0 \rightarrow \pi^+ \pi^-$ decays with the observed data near this excess. It is clear that $K_s^0 \rightarrow \pi^+ \pi^-$ decays produce a peak around 1072 MeV under the $K^+ K^-$ hypothesis. There is also a long tail but with low statistics and with a roughly uniform background this tail would not be expected to be visible in the data after the K_s^0 veto in the preselection.

It is clearly not the case that the $X(1070)$ is causing the peak at $m_{K_\mu^+ K_\mu^-} = 1072$ MeV, which is actually due to the decay $K_s^0 \rightarrow \pi^+ \pi^-$. Removing events satisfying $|m_{\pi_\mu^+ \pi_\mu^-} - m_{K_s^0}^{\text{PDG}}| < 25$ MeV removes much of the peak at 1072 MeV, bringing it in line with the background.

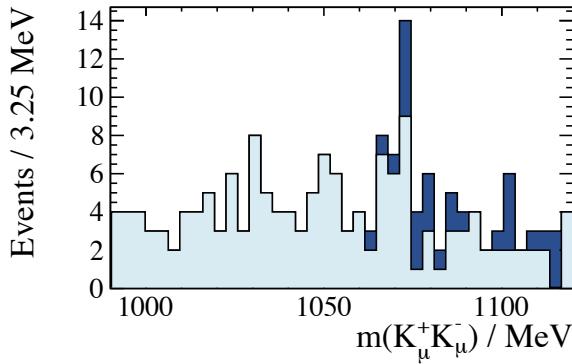


Figure 7.8: Invariant mass distribution of the $K_\mu^+ K_\mu^-$ candidates in data, showing a peak at ~ 1072 MeV in data. The dark and light blue regions show the distribution before and after vetoing the decay $K_s^0 \rightarrow \pi^+ \pi^-$ in the preselection.

Also, the fact that no $\phi \rightarrow K^+ K^-$ is observed in the $m_{K_\mu^+ K_\mu^-}$ spectrum, and that the peak is narrower than the resolution of the LHCb detector, indicate that there this is a false peak and need not be accounted for further.

7.3.4 Combinatorial background and multivariate selection

The data sample is purified from combinatorial background using a multivariate selection technique. Section 4.3 outlines the uBDT algorithm, which trains a BDT whereby events are boosted not only based on misclassification, but also on how uniform the local response of the BDT is for a given set of variables. For the case of this analysis, it is important that the BDT does not bias the sample towards a given mass and lifetime, which makes the uBDT ideal for this analysis.

A uBDT is trained using a signal-proxy from simulated events and background taken from the upper B^0 mass sideband where the B^0 candidate has a mass of over 150 MeV above the nominal B^0 mass. Specifically, the signal-proxy is a concoction of three different simulated samples in which the χ has a mass of: 214, 1000, and 4000 MeV; and each has a lifetime of 100 ps. These samples are chosen to give the uBDT algorithm input the largest range of masses possible; particularly a $m_\chi = 214$ MeV sample was chosen because it is close to threshold and equal to the mass of the P^0 evidenced in the Hyper- CP experiment [20]. It is observed that the response after a uBDT selection does result in a uniform signal efficiency in both the mass and lifetime distributions; this is shown in Fig. 7.10.

The uBDT cut is optimized by maximizing the Punzi figure-of-merit [89], which is defined as

$$\text{Punzi}_{\sigma_p} = \frac{S}{\sqrt{B + \frac{1}{2}\sigma_p}}, \quad (7.14)$$

where S and B are the signal and background yields, respectively; and σ_p is the desired level of observation. The signal and background yields are calculated as follows: S is the

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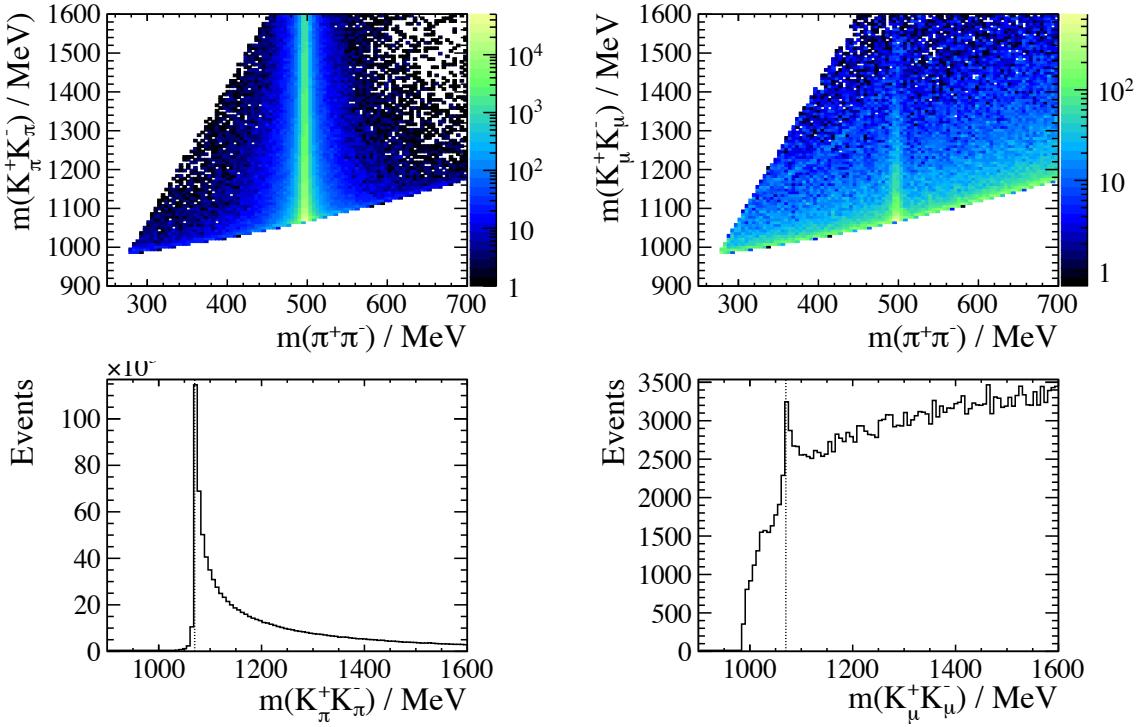


Figure 7.9: A comparison of $K_s^0 \rightarrow \pi\pi$ under different mass hypotheses, for (left) simulated events, and (right) events from data. The (top) plots show the two dimensional distributions of the invariant mass distributions of a $\pi^+\pi^-$ pair and the same candidates in the K^+K^- mass hypothesis, the (bottom) plots show the projections of the K^+K^- systems. Vertical lines in the lower plots indicate 1072 MeV.

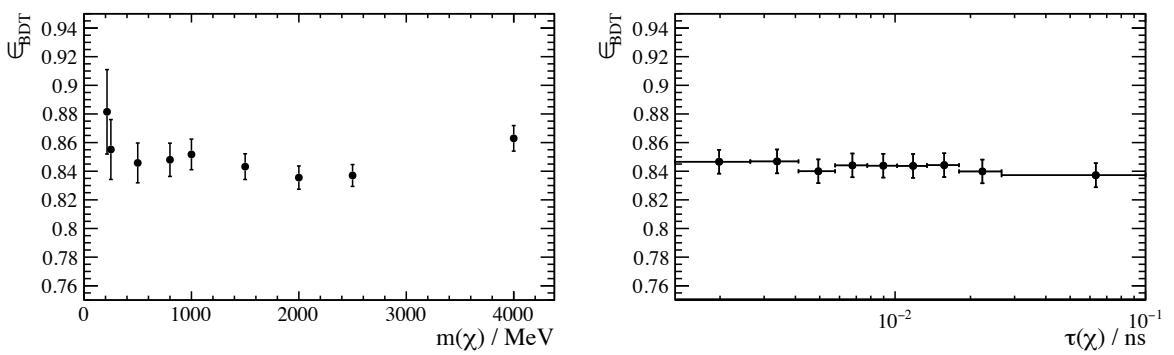


Figure 7.10: Signal efficiencies from simulation for a uBDT cut which is approximately 85 % efficient, the distributions are approximately flat in both the (left) mass and (right) lifetime dimensions.

number of simulated signal events which survive a uBDT cut; B is the background yield as estimated using $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0} \chi$ candidates that fall outside 80 MeV from the nominal B^0 mass [3]. The invariant mass distributions of these candidates in data are fit to a decaying exponential, and the background yield is taken to be the integral of this exponential within 60 MeV (approximately 3σ) of the known B^0 mass.

The figure-of-merit is considered separately for both the prompt and displaced candidates. The optimal working point varies from sample to sample due to the fact that the background yield depends on (m, τ) . However, the optimal point in the prompt case is approximately $\text{uBDT} > 0.15$ for all samples, a working point that is approximately 85 % efficient by construction. For this efficiency there is an estimated zero background in for a given value of m_χ . This point was calculated using a value of $\sigma_p = 5$, Eq. 7.14, although the result is seen to be insensitive to its exact value.

7.4 Evolution of parameters as a function of mass

Searching for a χ of unknown mass and lifetime requires knowledge of parameters such as: mass resolution, lifetime resolution, and efficiency; at every point on the (m_χ, τ_χ) plane that is searched. This is clearly not possible by generating an arbitrary number of simulated signal events. Instead, the available simulated samples are used to interpolate (and extrapolate) to all masses and lifetimes of interest.

7.4.1 Mass resolution of the χ candidate

The size of the signal and background regions are defined in terms of the local mass resolution, which varies across the whole mass range. To understand the evolution of σ_m , the mass distribution of various signal samples are fitted to a function constructed as the sum of two Gaussian distributions with the same mean, this is known as a double Gaussian. Fitted distributions are used to define the 2σ intervals, and then each point is intersected with a cubic spline. Figure 7.11 shows the resulting function. The mass resolution is observed to be ~ 1 MeV for very low m_χ and quickly increases to a plateau around $2\sigma = 15$ MeV before dropping off again, because the invariant mass of the $K^+ \pi^- \mu^+ \mu^-$ system is constrained to the known B^0 mass.

7.4.2 Lifetime resolution of the χ candidate

Similar to finding the mass resolution as a function of mass, the evolution of the lifetime distribution is obtained by extracting the $3\sigma_\tau$ limits from fitted distributions at known χ mass points. Linear splines are then used to interpolate to all values of m_χ , cubic splines

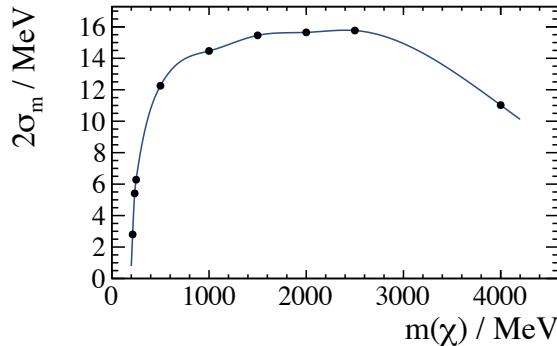


Figure 7.11: Evolution of $2\sigma_m$ as a function of mass. The mass distribution of each simulated signal sample is fit to a distribution constructed of two Gaussian functions with the same mean, the value of $2\sigma_m$ is then extracted by finding the 2σ interval of the fitted distribution. Each black point shows the value of $2\sigma_m$ for a given simulated $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0} \chi$ sample, and the red line is the cubic spline intersecting each point.

led to massive deviations from the obvious trend, so linear interpolation is used, but for the majority of m_{DM} , the lifetime resolution is flat and this approximation has negligible effect. For each $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0} \chi$ sample with $m \leq 250$ MeV, $\Delta\tau = \tau_\chi^{\text{meas}} - \tau_\chi^{\text{true}}$ distribution is fit to a double Gaussian function. In samples with $m_\chi < 250$ MeV the $\Delta\tau$ distribution is observed to be significantly distorted from a simple double Gaussian, as shown in Fig. 7.12.

The distortion from a double Gaussian is explained by the narrow opening angle, θ_{open} , between muons for low mass dark bosons. When a χ is produced near the dimuon mass threshold, the daughter particles are produced nearly at rest in the frame of the χ . Therefore, the two muons have a very small opening angle in the lab frame and so the separation of muon hits in the VELO are comparable to the resolution of the VELO strips. This leads to poor spatial resolution of the χ decay vertex. By the time that the two muons are resolved from one another the measured vertex is further downstream than it really is. This effect causes a tail to extend upwards in the $\Delta\tau$ distributions for low m_χ .

The effect of a small opening angle can be seen by comparing the measured and true opening angle distributions for simulated decays of $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0} \chi$, where $m_\chi = 214$ MeV. Figure 7.13 shows a significant discrepancy between the true and measured opening angles ~~X~~ distributions for $\theta_{\text{open}} \lesssim 0.002$ rad. In the same figure, the evolution of θ_{open} with m_χ at generator level is shown, ~~it~~ it can be seen that when $m_\chi = 250$ MeV, the opening angle is predominantly larger than 0.002 rad.

The discrepancy between real and true opening angle can be verified using data from a decay channel with very high statistics, such as the opening angle of the $K^+ \pi^-$ system in the decay $B^0 \rightarrow K^+ \pi^- \mu^+ \mu^-$ for $m_{K^+ \pi^-} < 640$ MeV. Figure 7.14 shows that the opening angle of the $K^+ \pi^-$ system is very low, and a similar peak at $\theta_{\text{open}} = 0$ when $m_{K^+ \pi^-}$ is near threshold, ($m_{K^+} + m_{\pi^-} = 633.3$ MeV).

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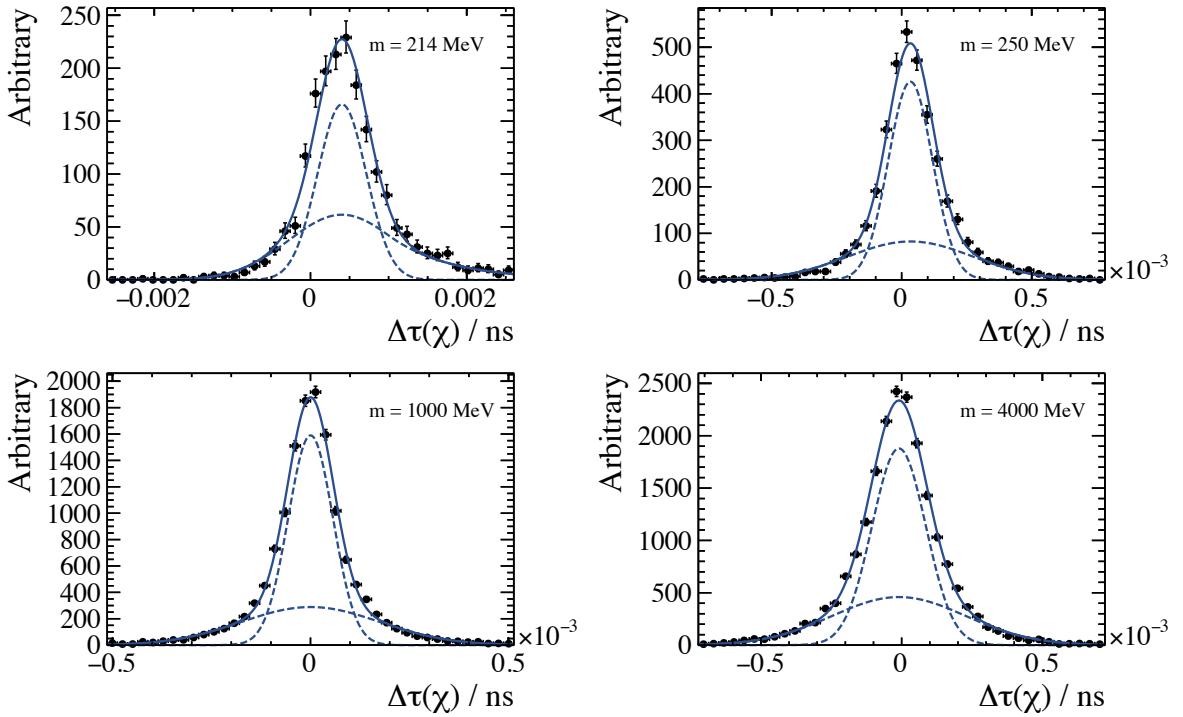


Figure 7.12: Fits to the lifetime resolution parameter, $\Delta\tau$, for individual mass samples. Each fit for $m \geq 250$ MeV is made using a double Gaussian function, and for $m < 250$ MeV the wider Gaussian has an exponential tail on the right-hand side. The solid line shows the total fit, and the dashed lines indicate the two components.

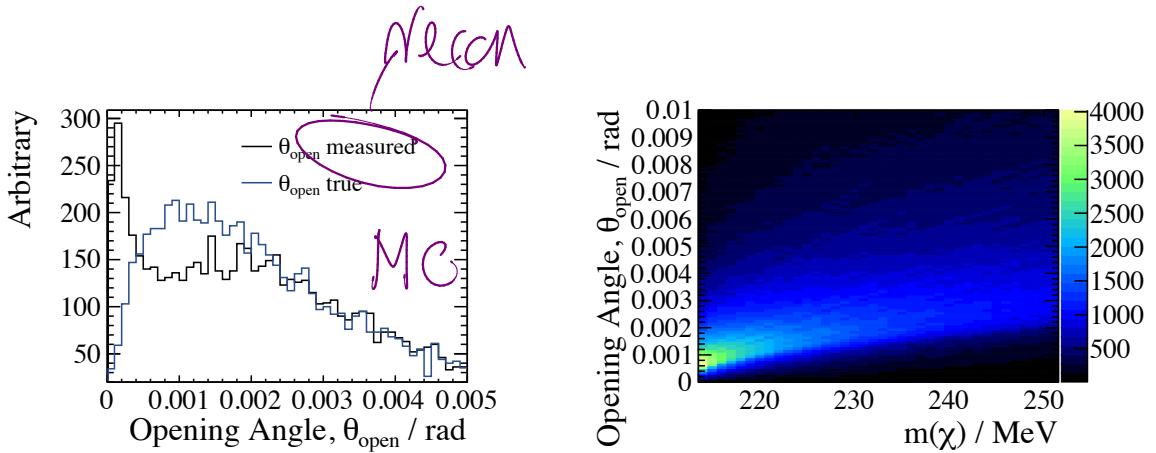


Figure 7.13: Opening angle of the two muons decaying from the χ is highly dependent on m_χ ; for low dimuon masses the opening angle measurement is biased. For $m_\chi = 214$ MeV the difference between generated and reconstructed opening angles are shown, (left) the greatest difference being below $\theta_{\text{open}} = 0.002$. Generator level distributions of opening angles for a range of masses, (right) show that most χ decays have $\theta_{\text{open}} > 0.002$ for $m_\chi \gtrsim 235$ MeV.

Search for the decay of a dark sector particle $\chi \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-$ in $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0} \mu^+ \mu^-$

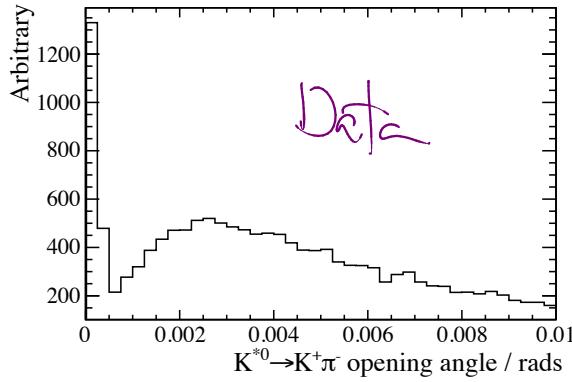


Figure 7.14: Opening angle of the $K^+\pi^-$ system in $B^0 \rightarrow K^+\pi^-\mu^+\mu^-$, where the invariant mass of the $K^+\pi^-$ system is close to threshold.

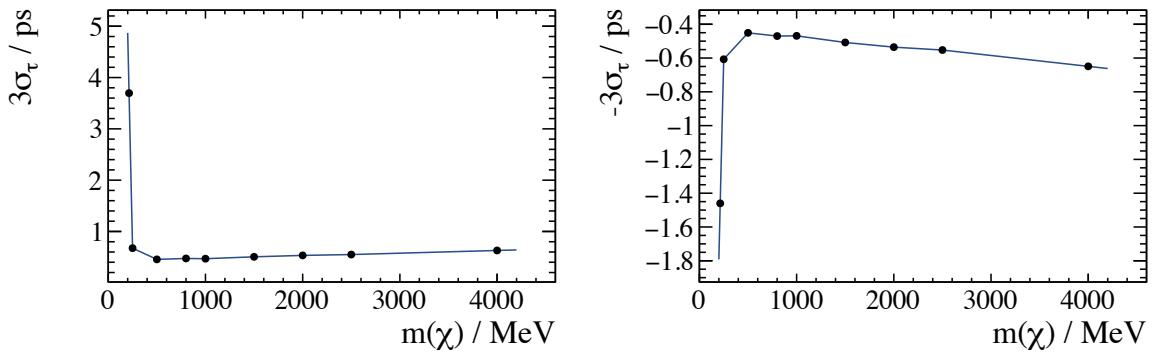


Figure 7.15: Resolutions for the lifetime of a particle as a function of mass in the (upper left) positive and (upper right) negative directions at the 3σ levels, used to define prompt and displaced regions. The black points are from fitted values and the red lines show spline interpolation.

Applying a cut to remove events where θ_{open} is small would be very inefficient for a low mass dark bosons, and therefore the function used to fit $\Delta\tau$ is modified to account for the positive skew. For simulated samples generated with $m_\chi < 250$ MeV the mean of the double Gaussian is allowed to float away from zero, and the wider of the two Gaussian functions is modified to incorporate an exponential tail extending to high $\Delta\tau$. Accounting for this effect allows the $\pm 3\sigma_\tau$ values to be taken directly from the fits in Fig. 7.12, and takes into account the bias in decay time resolution.

The prompt region is defined by $-3\sigma_\tau < \tau_\chi < 3\sigma_\tau$ and the displaced region by $\tau_\chi > 3\sigma_\tau$. Figure 7.15 shows how σ_τ varies with mass, where each point comes from the fits to $\Delta\tau$ described above, and linear spline interpolation is used to access σ_τ at all values of m_t .

Search for the decay of a dark sector particle $\chi \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-$ in $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0} \mu^+ \mu^-$

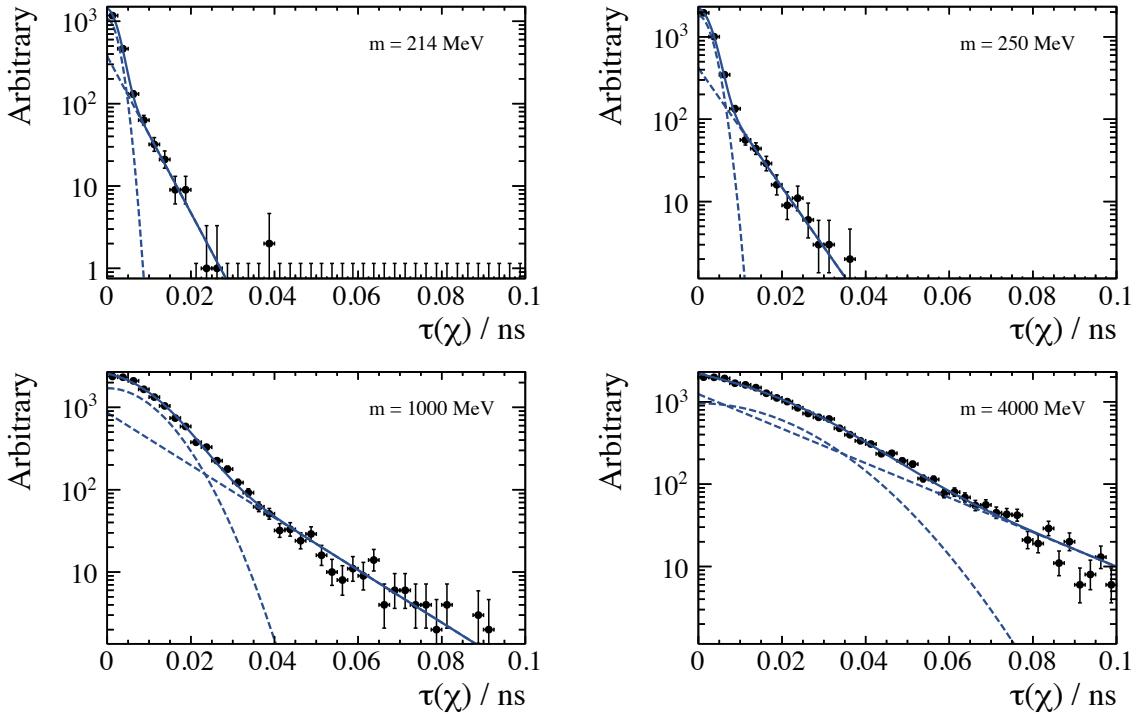


Figure 7.16: Fits, using the function in Eq. 7.15, to the decay time distributions of simulated events produced with the masses: 214, 250, 1000, and 4000 MeV (as indicated) each with $\tau_\chi = 100 \text{ ps}$. The black points are the simulated events, the solid line is the total fit, with dashed lines indicating the Gaussian and exponential components.

7.4.3 Parameterizing the efficiency of the χ selection

Setting limits as a function of mass and lifetime requires knowledge of the efficiency for any arbitrary dark boson, as outlined in Eq. 7.13. To do this, the lifetime distribution for a given mass is fit to a simple function:

$$\mathcal{T}(\tau) = f\mathcal{G}(\mu = 0, \sigma) + (1 - f)\exp(-\alpha\tau), \quad (7.15)$$

which depends upon only a few parameters: a f , σ , and α . There is excellent agreement between τ_χ distributions from simulated samples of $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0}\chi$ and this simple parameterization, as shown in Fig. 7.16.

The parameters σ , and α evolve smoothly as a function of mass, and ~~as~~ spline interpolation is used to determine their values for arbitrary masses. Linear regression is used to evolve f , because of the large errors on the values of f yielded by these fits. So, σ , α , and f , become functions of mass, therefore \mathcal{T} becomes a function of mass and lifetime: $\mathcal{T}(m, \tau)$. Figure 7.17 shows how the aforementioned parameters evolve as a function of mass.

Once the two-dimensional map of $\mathcal{T}(m, \tau)$ has been produced, it is scaled such that for all

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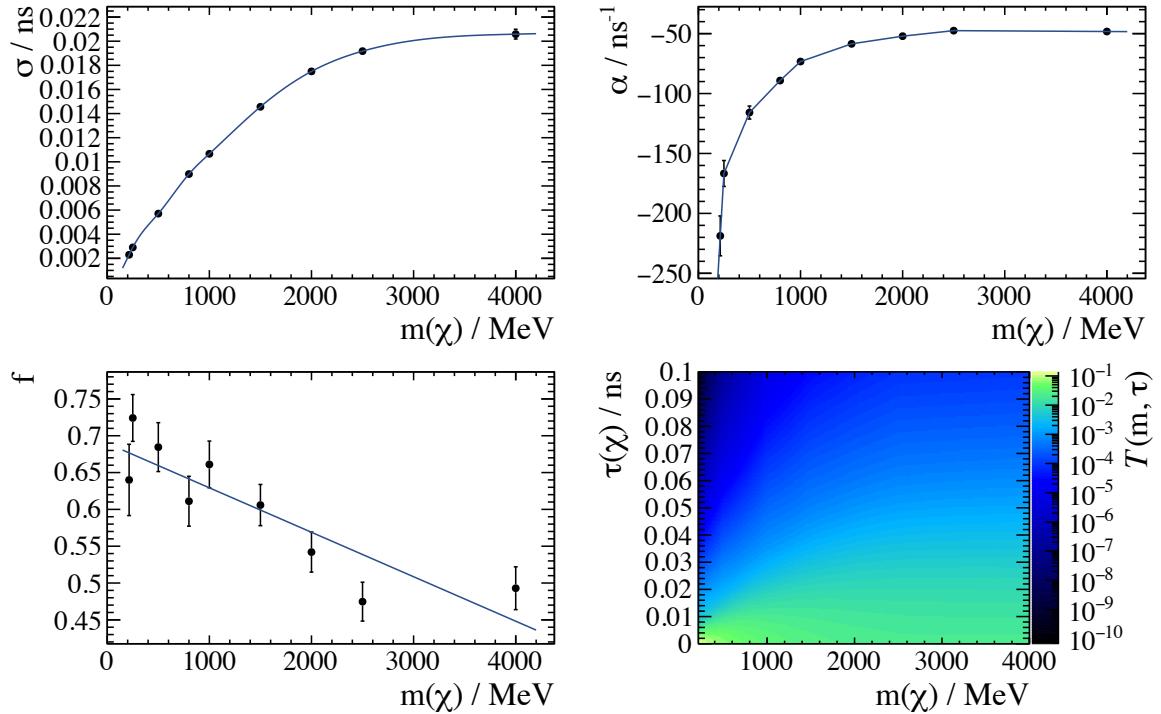


Figure 7.17: Parameters from Eq. 7.15 as a function of mass from simulated events. The parameters are (upper left) σ , (upper right) α , (lower left) f , and (lower right) the two-dimensional projection of the total parameterization. Splines are used to parameterize each shape, except for the parameter f , where a linear fit is used.

values of m ,

$$\mathcal{T}(m, \tau = 0 \text{ ns}) = \frac{\varepsilon_{\tau=0}(B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0} \mu^+ \mu^-)}{\varepsilon_{1.1 < q^2 < 6.0}(B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0} \mu^+ \mu^-)} \mathcal{T}(m, \tau). \quad (7.16)$$

Here, the numerator is q^2 dependent and is calculated using simulated events, and the denominator is the total efficiency for candidates in the indicated q^2 region, which is calculated to be 3.93 %. This efficiency ratio is approximately equal to one for all values of m_χ . Figure 7.18 shows both the efficiency for a prompt dimuon pair — or equivalently a χ — as a function of q^2 , and the rescaled distribution of $\mathcal{T}(m, \tau)$, which shall be called $\mathcal{R}(m, \tau)$.

In summary, $\mathcal{R}(m, \tau)$ is the lifetime distribution for a dark boson where $\tau_\chi = 100 \text{ ps}$, scaled such that at $\tau = 0$ the distribution is equal to $\varepsilon_{B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0} \mu^+ \mu^-}^{\tau=0} / \varepsilon_{B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0} \mu^+ \mu^-}^{1.1 < q^2 < 6.0}$. To assess limits for all values of mass and lifetime initial lifetime distribution must be taken into account by convolving $\mathcal{R}(m, \tau)$ with a decaying exponential to derive an efficiency map:

$$\varepsilon(m, \tau) = \frac{1}{\tau} \int_0^{100 \text{ ps}} \mathcal{R}(m, \tau') \exp\left(-\frac{\tau'}{\tau}\right) d\tau'. \quad (7.17)$$

The upper lifetime acceptance is chosen to be 100 ps, because the efficiency at longer

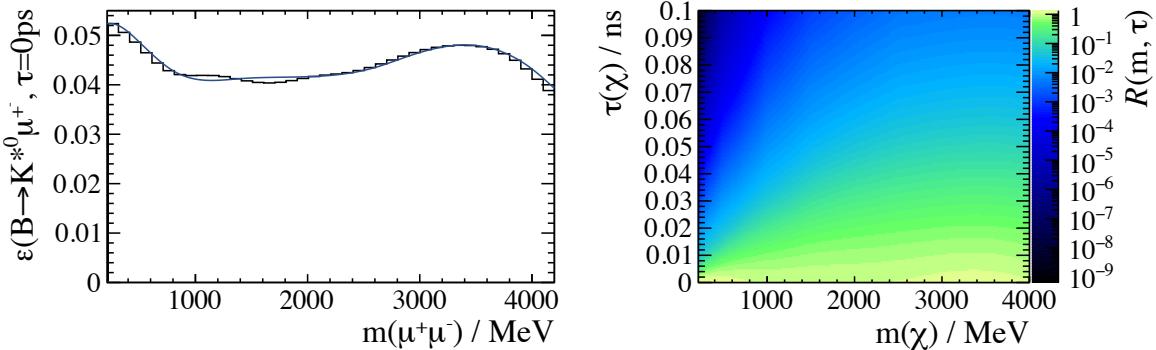


Figure 7.18: Efficiency $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0} \mu^+ \mu^-$ for prompt muons is shown on the left, in bins, and a spline is used to parameterize the shape, the deviations between 1000 and 2000 MeV are too small to have any significant impact on the limits. This is divided by the efficiency in the normalization region, and the $\tau = 0$ lifetime bin from Fig. 7.17 is set to this value for all masses; the decay time dimension is scaled.

lifetimes, for all values of m_χ , is very poor.

7.5 Unblinding results

This search for a new dark boson is done blindly to ensure that no bias is introduced in the course of the analysis. The data is unblinded in stages to ensure that the selection is behaving as expected on real data.

Selected $B^0 \rightarrow J/\psi K^{*0}$ events are used to check that the selection was not biased based on neither the year, nor the polarity of the LHCb magnet. No bias is observed, in fact efficiencies for the uBDT are observed to be consistent to the 10^{-4} level in all four regions.

The unblinding procedure begins by checking the yield of the normalization channel $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0} \mu^+ \mu^-$ in the range $1.1 < q^2 < 6.0 \text{ GeV}^2$ and comparing it with the yield from the SM analysis. The yield is taken from an unbinned fit to selected prompt $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0} \chi$ candidates using a mass model of two Gaussian functions sharing the same mean, and with a power-law tail on the low mass side. A simple exponential models the background component. This yields 527 B^0 candidates, which can be compared to ~ 625 events in the SM selection, where the drop in signal is, again, expected given the search is for a rare process. Together with the drop in signal, comes a drop in background yield, from ~ 630 background events over the full mass range, to only 290. Figure 7.19 shows the B^0 candidate mass spectrum for the normalization channel, and the fitted distribution overlaid.

After unblinding the region $1.1 < q^2 < 6.0 \text{ GeV}^2$, other prompt q^2 regions were also used to confirm that the ratio of BDT selection efficiencies $\varepsilon_{\text{BDT}}^{q^2 \text{ bin}}(B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0} \mu^+ \mu^-) / \varepsilon_{\text{BDT}}(B^0 \rightarrow J/\psi K^{*0})$ are approximately the same in data and simulation. To

Give it
a better
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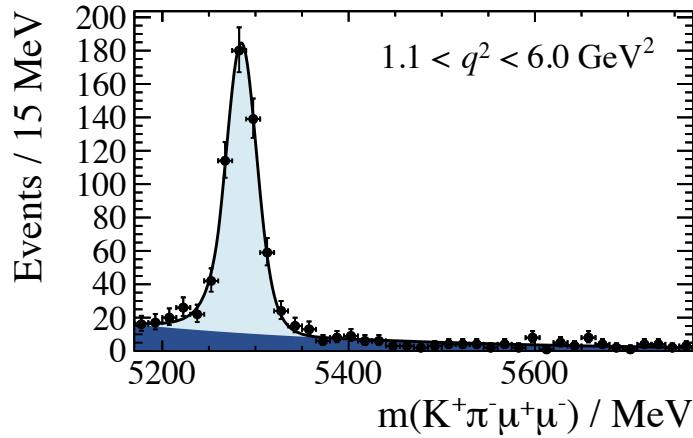


Figure 7.19: Fit to the invariant mass spectrum of the B^0 candidates in selected data in the range $1.1 < q^2 < 6.0 \text{ GeV}^2$. The signal model is the sum of two Gaussian functions with power-law tails on the low-mass side with parameters taken from the analysis described in Ref. [61], the background model is a decaying exponential. This fit results in a signal yield of (527 ± 26) compared to approximately 625 in the SM analysis.

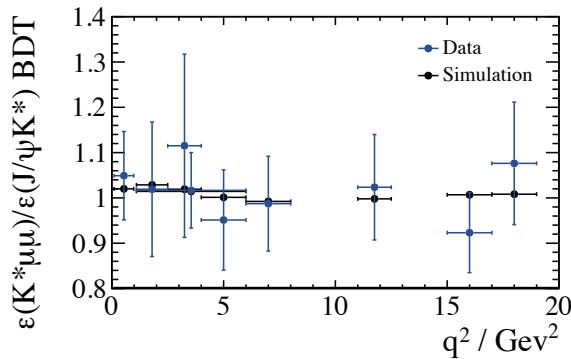


Figure 7.20: Ratio of the efficiencies of the BDT selection for a range of q^2 bins, as used in the SM $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0} \mu^+ \mu^-$ analysis, with respect to the efficiency for $B^0 \rightarrow J/\psi K^{*0}$. Data and simulation are shown to be in good agreement.

determine these efficiencies, the full selection without the BDT is taken, and a fit performed and the signal yield is extracted. Next, the BDT is applied and a second fit is performed, then take the ratio of the signal yields. A comparison between these numbers in data and simulation is shown in comparison is shown in Fig. 7.20, the two distributions are shown to be in good agreement, centred around unity with about 5–10 % precision.

Using the unblinded distributions it is possible to estimate the amount of combinatorial background that will remain in the final selection. Fitting an exponential to model the background across the signal region allows an approximate number of events in the combinatorial background to be deduced. This number of events can be taken from the upper-mass sideband, and the invariant mass of the dimuon pair can be plotted. With this method, it expected that a maximum of 10(2) events will contribute to the background in

Search for the decay of a dark sector particle $\chi \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-$ in $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0} \mu^+ \mu^-$

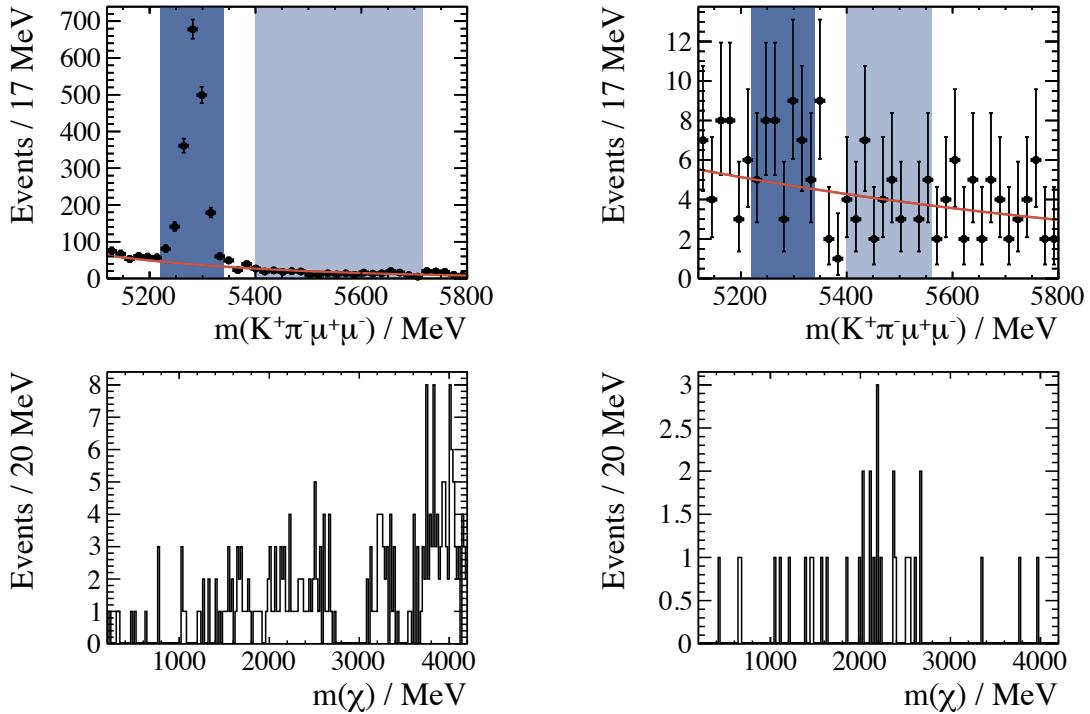


Figure 7.21: Fits to the background component of selected $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0} \mu^+ \mu^-$ events are shown in the upper plots, where the dark blue regions are not used in the fit, but are used to determine the number of events contributing to the combinatorial background by integrating across the region. The light blue region ~~is~~ covers the same number of background events as in the darker region; these are purely combinatorial background, and the invariant dimuon masses are plotted below, using a bin width that is approximately equal to the signal region in where the resolution is at its worst.

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the prompt(displaced) region at a single test mass, but on average the value is 1.8(0.2) events per bin. Figure 7.21 shows the shape and scale of the combinatorial background, and the fits used to calculate it.

7.5.1 Calculation of p -value

The unblinded distribution in $m_{\mu^+ \mu^-}$ is shown in Fig. 7.22. Using the statistical method described in Sec. 7.2 the following ranges in m_t are scanned:

$$\begin{aligned}
 & 253.4 < m_t < 369.5 \text{ MeV}, \\
 & 574.5 < m_t < 906.5 \text{ MeV}, \\
 & 1136.0 < m_t < 2813.0 \text{ MeV}, \\
 & 3246.5 < m_t < 3576.5 \text{ MeV}, \\
 & 3796.0 < m_t < 4356.0 \text{ MeV}.
 \end{aligned}$$

Search for the decay of a dark sector particle $\chi \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-$ in $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0} \mu^+ \mu^-$

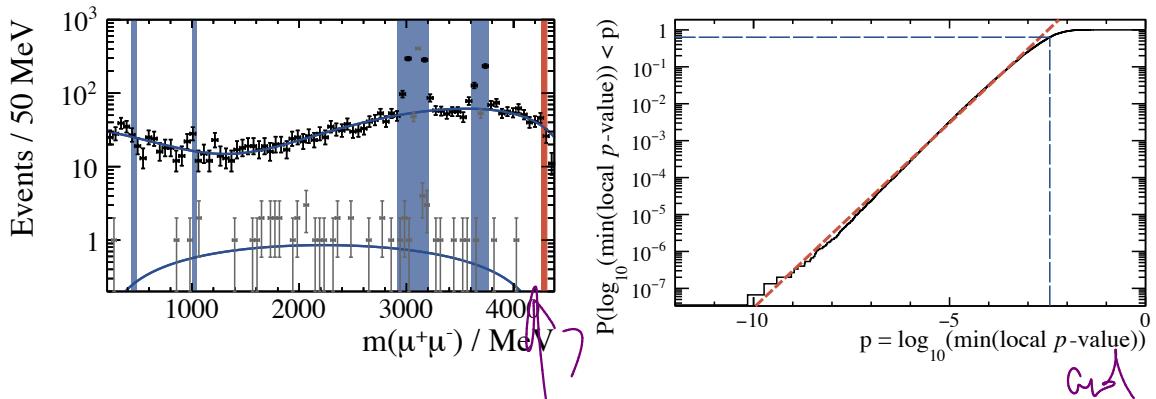


Figure 7.22: Invariant mass distributions of the dimuon pair are shown on the left, prompt and displaced candidates are black and grey points, respectively. Chebychev polynomials fitted to the data are shown as solid blue lines. The red region indicates $|m_t - 4285.0| < 5\sigma_m$ ($x = 1$ in this region). On the right is the result of running the method on 1.5×10^{-7} toy datasets, used to convert the local p -value (3.6×10^{-3}) to a global one (0.63). This conversion is indicated by the blue dashed line. The result of the asymptotic formula is shown by the red dashed line, and is seen to be an excellent approximation of the true distribution.

Values of m_t do not reach threshold boundaries because of the sidebands extending in either direction. The minimum local p -value is found to be 3.6×10^{-3} at $m_t^{\min} = 4285.0$ MeV.

The look-elsewhere effect must be considered. To convert the p -value to a global one, a PDF is fit to the $m_{\mu^+\mu^-}$ distribution of the prompt and displaced $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0}\chi$ candidates that lie outside of the vetoed regions, and outside of the signal region centred at m_t^{\min} . A fourth(second) order Chebychev polynomial is fit to candidates in the prompt(displaced) region. From these PDFs 1.5×10^7 toy datasets are generated, and the minimum p -value for each one is calculated. Constructing a cumulative distribution of these p -values makes an easy conversion from local to global p -values, this conversion is shown in Fig. 7.22. Shown alongside the cumulative histogram is the asymptotic approximation, which is seen to be in excellent agreement for local p -values less than about 10^{-4} . The histogram converts the local p -value to a global p -value of 0.63, equivalent to a shift in significance of 2.9σ to 0.48σ . These results show no evidence for a new dark boson in the mass ranges given above.

7.5.2 Systematic uncertainties

Systematic uncertainties must be assessed in order to set limits. Sources of systematic uncertainties are from: the ratio of efficiencies $\varepsilon(B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0}\chi)/\varepsilon(B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0}\mu^+\mu^-)$; the definition of prompt and displaced regions; and the uncertainty on the $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0}\mu^+\mu^-$ branching fraction in the range $1.0 < q^2 < 6.0$ GeV 2 .

The efficiency ratio $\varepsilon(B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0}\chi)/\varepsilon(B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0}\mu^+\mu^-)$ is approximately one, by construction, for each mass at zero lifetime. For larger lifetimes, the efficiency can be checked using

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data consistent with the decay $B^0 \rightarrow J/\psi K_s^0$. It should be noted that in the displaced region a large uncertainty on the efficiency ratio will translate to a small uncertainty in the limits, because of the low statistics in that region.

Studies undertaken in Ref. [83] show that the defining the boundary that separates the prompt and displaced regions to be $3\sigma_\tau$ is nearly optimal for any value of τ_χ . Only if $\tau_\chi \simeq 3\sigma_\tau$, then there may be some effect on the limits. The total effect of this must be demonstrated.

An important consideration is the spin of the χ . Since the spin of the χ is unknown, there are a range of possible angular distributions that may arise, each having a different detection efficiency. This can be studied using the angular acceptance models used in the $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0} \mu^+ \mu^-$ angular analysis [61].

It has been noted that this analysis relies on the assumption that the background is smoothly varying, and can be approximated as being locally linear. This assumption clearly introduces an uncertainty, but this is already accounted for in the method by the addition of the Gaussian, $\mathcal{G}(y, x, \sigma_y)$, in the likelihood shown in Eq. 7.7. There is no need to add a systematic uncertainty for the chosen value of σ_y , because it is, itself, and ~~uncertainty~~ maximal one.

7.6 Summary

A selection designed to be uniformly efficient in all regions of the dark boson's mass-lifetime parameter space has been presented with a view to embark in a search for a new dark boson. A frequentist method designed to search for an signal in any arbitrary mass spectrum has also been presented and used in the case of the dimuon mass spectrum from $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0} \mu^+ \mu^-$.

This strategy has extracted a p -value of a particle considering test masses which do not go all the way to the boundaries of various vetoes in the invariant dimuon mass spectrum. It is determined that the maximum deviation of the selected candidates from the null hypothesis of zero signal has a global significance of 0.48σ at $m_t = 4285.0$ MeV. This is consistent with no new particle in the $\mu^+ \mu^-$ distribution over the mass ranges probed. The full analysis will get much closer to these edges and probe the interesting $m_{\mu^+ \mu^-} = 214$ MeV region. The next step in the analysis is to set limits and present them in a model-independent way. Of course, they can be translated to specific models for interpretation.

Figure 7.23 shows the projected sensitivity of this analysis to the inflaton model in Ref. [77]. There is a region excluded by theory, where the model does not satisfy known cosmological constraints. It is predicted that it should be possible to rule out the mass range $250 < m_\chi < 450$ MeV entirely, and come within an order of magnitude of mixing

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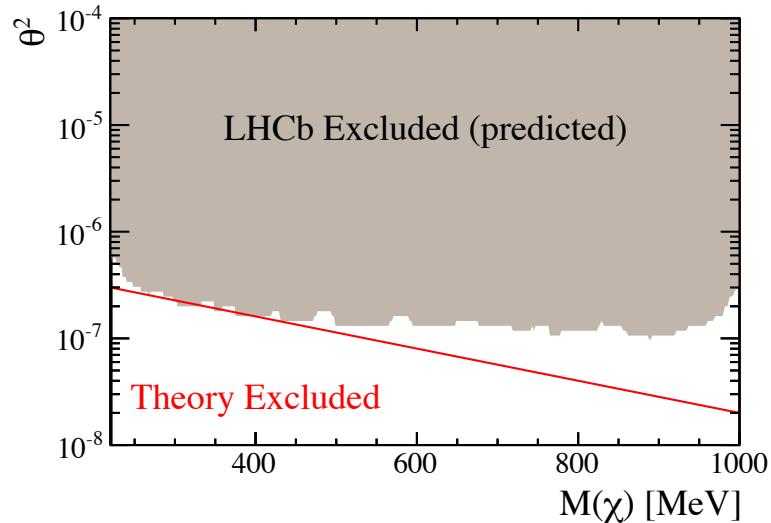


Figure 7.23: Projected exclusions for an inflaton model from Ref. [77], in the mass range $1 < m_\chi < 1000$ MeV. The region below the red line is excluded by theory, since the model fails cosmological constraints in this region. In this mass range, it is expected that this analysis will exclude all but a small area of parameter space for this model.

parameter θ^2 for masses up to 1000 MeV. Assumptions made in making this are that: the lifetime of the inflaton is in the range $1 < \tau_\chi < 1000$ ps, that $\mathcal{B}(B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0}\chi) \simeq 10^{-6}$, and that the χ has the same couplings as the Higgs boson.

Chapter 8

Conclusions

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This thesis presents three analyses: two have been published, claiming first observations [1, 2], and the third is currently under review; all were undertaken using data collected by the LHCb experiment [32]. Each has the objective of finding evidence of physics BSM in the decays of B mesons. The analysis techniques employed are all slightly different, most obviously the first two analyses are indirect searches for NP, while the third is a direct search for a dark boson of unknown mass and lifetime.

An analysis of the decay $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi$ is presented in Chap. 5. First evidence for the decay was seen with a statistical significance of greater than 3σ , this also constitutes the first evidence for a fully hadronic decay via an annihilation-type diagram. The branching fraction measurement made in this analysis is sensitive to NP effects contributing to the decay $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi$. This can only propagate via one diagram at tree-level, and this is suppressed by a factor $|V_{ub}|^2$. The element V_{ub} has the largest uncertainties in the CKM matrix and there are historic tensions between values of V_{ub} made using inclusive and exclusive modes.

The branching fraction measurement

$$\mathcal{B}(B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi) = (1.87^{+1.25}_{-0.73}(\text{stat}) \pm 0.19(\text{syst}) \pm 0.32(\text{norm})) \times 10^{-6}$$

is somewhat higher than SM predictions, which are of order 10^{-7} [47–50], but not incompatible considering large theoretical uncertainties. This value of $\mathcal{B}(B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi)$ sheds no light on the true value of V_{ub} . Reference [90] asserts that these discrepancies cannot be explained by physics BSM, and is rather due to underestimated uncertainties in either theory or experiment.

Since the decay $B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi$ is mediated by a W^+ boson, in NP scenarios another charged boson, such as a H^+ from a 2HDM, could contribute to the decay amplitude. These additional processes could alter the branching fraction significantly, which is not observed, or introduce extra phases into the decay, causing the CP -asymmetry to deviate from $\mathcal{A}_{CP} = 0$, as expected in the SM. The value measured, after correcting for production and

detection asymmetries, is

$$\mathcal{A}_{CP}(B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi) = -(0.01 \pm 0.41(\text{stat}) \pm 0.03(\text{syst})),$$

which is perfectly consistent with SM expectations.

Chapter 6 presents an analysis leading to the first observations of the two decays $B^+ \rightarrow K^+ \pi^+ \pi^- \mu^+ \mu^-$ and $B^+ \rightarrow \phi K^+ \mu^+ \mu^-$. Their branching fractions were measured, as was the differential branching fraction of $B^+ \rightarrow K^+ \pi^+ \pi^- \mu^+ \mu^-$ in bins of q^2 . The integrated branching fractions of these decays are

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{B}(B^+ \rightarrow K^+ \pi^+ \pi^- \mu^+ \mu^-) &= (4.36^{+0.29}_{-0.27}(\text{stat}) \pm 0.21(\text{syst}) \pm 0.18(\text{norm})) \times 10^{-7}, \\ \mathcal{B}(B^+ \rightarrow \phi K^+ \mu^+ \mu^-) &= (0.82^{+0.19}_{-0.17}(\text{stat})^{+0.10}_{-0.04}(\text{syst}) \pm 0.27(\text{norm})) \times 10^{-7},\end{aligned}$$

and both have statistical significances of greater than 5σ . The decay $B^+ \rightarrow K^+ \pi^+ \pi^- \mu^+ \mu^-$ has a large branching fraction and could be used for future analyses similar to those of interest in $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0} \mu^+ \mu^-$, since both are sensitive to the same operators. An angular analysis would help constrain the scalar, pseudoscalar, and tensor amplitudes of the decay, all of which are vanishingly small in the SM. This is made difficult by the number of contributing states to the $K^+ \pi^+ \pi^-$ system, but with more statistics it will be possible to gain a better understanding of strange states that decay into kaons and pions.

Given larger statistics, the additional channels $B^+ \rightarrow K^+ K^- \pi^+ \mu^+ \mu^-$ and $B^+ \rightarrow \pi^+ \pi^+ \pi^- \mu^+ \mu^-$ may be observable, and give access to the ratio of CKM matrix elements V_{td}/V_{ts} . These would be complimentary to the current measurements from B -meson oscillations.

The large uncertainties in the measurement of $\mathcal{B}(B^+ \rightarrow \phi K^+ \mu^+ \mu^-)$ are primarily due to uncertainties propagated from the branching fraction of the normalization channel $B^+ \rightarrow J/\psi \phi K^+$. The paper in Ref. [2] quotes the ratio of branching fractions in order for $\mathcal{B}(B^+ \rightarrow \phi K^+ \mu^+ \mu^-)$ to be calculated given an improved measurement.

Finally, a direct search for a NP particle, χ , belonging to some dark sector is presented. Using $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0} \mu^+ \mu^-$ candidates, the dimuon invariant mass spectrum is searched for a signal indicative of a dark boson decaying via $\chi \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-$. The selection is designed specifically not to bias any corner of the mass-lifetime space that the χ might inhabit, this is done primarily with the aid of the uBoost algorithm. Efficiencies and resolutions are parameterized using discrete simulated samples of $B^0 \rightarrow K^{*0} \chi$ and spline interpolation is used to understand selection and resolution effects for any value of m_χ . A novel frequentist strategy was employed which scans in mass and, at each point, calculates the local p -value that the observed signal is consistent with the null hypothesis of zero signal. One the look-elsewhere effect was accounted for, the significance of the minimum local p -value was equivalent to a significance of 0.48σ at 0.48σ at $m_{\mu^+ \mu^-} = 4285.0$ MeV. This

is consistent with with no new particle. Further studies will push tested masses to the boundaries of vetoed regions. The projected limits for an inflaton model indicate that much of the allowed parameter space will be excluded for $m_\chi < 1000$ MeV. A similar approach could be used in any arbitrary mass spectrum to search for a multitude of particles appearing above a smoothly varying background.

In conclusion, the SM continues in its resilience, seeming to be in agreement to the limit of accuracy that experimental high energy particle physics can reach. There is a complementarity that exists between indirect and direct measurements. Historically, it has often been the case that indications of future discoveries were first anticipated by observations made by indirect experiments. This has been the case because indirect

SQ measurements are sensitive to loop-level processes and therefore virtual particles. This pattern looks set to endure, as precision measurements in the flavour sector continue to play an important role in cornering the nature of NP. As of Run 1 of the LHC, there has been no clear indication of where new physics may lie; but, there are a number of discrepancies between SM predictions and measurements of observables in the flavour sector with significances greater than 3σ . Considering the current landscape, it is perhaps increasingly difficult to interpret these discrepancies, and how they impact various NP models.

Unfortunately, interpretation of precise measurements of B physics observables that can be made experimentally are often made difficult by the form-factor parameterization which must be adopted. It is these QCD effects, particularly the form-factors, that are the dominant sources of theoretical uncertainty. Difficulties in dealing with QCD has been demonstrated by a lack of consistent predictions for $\mathcal{B}(B^+ \rightarrow D_s^+ \phi)$, and the absence of any predictions for either $\mathcal{B}(B^+ \rightarrow K^+ \pi^+ \pi^- \mu^+ \mu^-)$ and $\mathcal{B}(B^+ \rightarrow \phi K^+ \mu^+ \mu^-)$.

The idea that nature is natural, is an attractive one. As such, it is not unreasonable to expect — or at least hope — that NP lives just around the corner. Run-2 of the LHC will collide protons with a centre-of-mass energy of about 14 TeV with the aim to see signals indicative of NP. That being said, there are still areas of parameter space of various theoretical scenarios that are accessible at lower masses to probe. In the absence of direct evidence from the high energy frontier, and the plethora of dark sector models which contain weakly interacting messenger particles, the intensity frontier may be a good place to search.

The interplay between direct and indirect searches in the arena of high energy physics has long been important, and will continue to be so.