

Quantities to measure in EPP

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- *Physics quantities* (to be compared with theory expectations)
 - Cross-section
 - Branching ratio
 - Asymmetries
 - Particle Masses, Widths and Lifetimes
- *Quantities related to the experiment* (BUT to be measured to get physics quantities)
 - Efficiencies
 - Luminosity
 - Backgrounds

Cross-section - I

- Suppose we have done an experiment and obtained the following quantities for a given final state:
 - N_{cand} , N_b , ϵ , ϕ
- What is ϕ ? It is the “**flux**”, something telling us how many collisions could take place per unit of time and surface.

- Consider a “**fixed-target**” experiment (transverse size of the target \gg beam dimensions):

$$\phi = \dot{N}_{proj} N_{tar} \delta x = \frac{\dot{N}_{proj} \rho \delta x}{Am_N} = \frac{\dot{N}_{proj} \rho (g/cm^3) N_A \delta x (cm)}{A}$$

- Consider a “**colliding beam**” experiment

$$\phi = f_{coll} \frac{N_1 N_2}{4\pi \Sigma_X \Sigma_Y} = L$$

(head-on beams: N_1 and N_2 number of particles per beam, Σ_X , Σ_Y beam transverse gaussian areas, f_{coll} collision frequency) In this case we normally use the word “**Luminosity**”. Flux or luminosity are measured in: **$cm^{-2}s^{-1}$**

Cross-section - II

- In any case, the rate of events due to final state X is:

$$\dot{N}_X = \phi \sigma_X$$

- **σ_X is the cross-section**, having the dimension of a surface.
 - it doesn't depend on the experiment but on the process only
 - can be compared to the theory
 - for a given σ_X , the higher is ϕ , the larger the event rate
 - given an initial state, for every final state X you have a specific cross-section
 - the “**total cross-section**” is obtained by adding the cross-sections for all possible final states: *the cross-section is an **additive** quantity.*
 - The unit is the “**barn**”. $1 \text{ barn} = 10^{-24} \text{ cm}^2$.

Cross-section - III

- Suppose we have taken data for a time Δt : the total number of events collected will be:

$$N_X = \sigma_X \times \int_{\Delta t} \phi dt$$

The flux integral over time is the *Integrated Flux* or (in case of colliding beams) *Integrated Luminosity*. Integrated luminosity is measured in: $\mathbf{b^{-1}}$

- How can we measure this cross-section ?

$$\sigma_X = \frac{N_X}{\int \phi dt} = \frac{1}{\int \phi dt} \frac{N_{cand} - N_b}{\epsilon}$$

- Sources of uncertainty: we apply the uncertainty propagation formula. We assume no correlations btw the quantities in the formula (L_{int} = integral of flux)

$$\left(\frac{\sigma(\sigma_X)}{\sigma_X} \right)^2 = \left(\frac{\sigma(L_{int})}{L_{int}} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{\sigma(\epsilon)}{\epsilon} \right)^2 + \frac{\sigma^2(N_{cand}) + \sigma^2(N_b)}{(N_{cand} - N_b)^2}$$

Branching ratio measurement

- Given an unstable particle a , it can decay in several (say N) final states, $k=1, \dots, N$. If Γ is the **total width** of the particle ($\Gamma=1/\tau$ with τ particle lifetime), for each final state we define a “**partial width**” in such a way that

$$\Gamma = \sum_{k=1}^N \Gamma_k$$

- The **branching ratio** of the particle a to the final state X is

$$B.R.(a \rightarrow X) = \frac{\Gamma_X}{\Gamma}$$

- To measure the B.R. the same analysis as for a cross-section is needed. In this case we need the number of decaying particles N_a (not the flux) to normalize:

$$B.R.(a \rightarrow X) = \frac{N_{cand} - N_b}{\epsilon} \frac{1}{N_a}$$

Differential cross-section - I

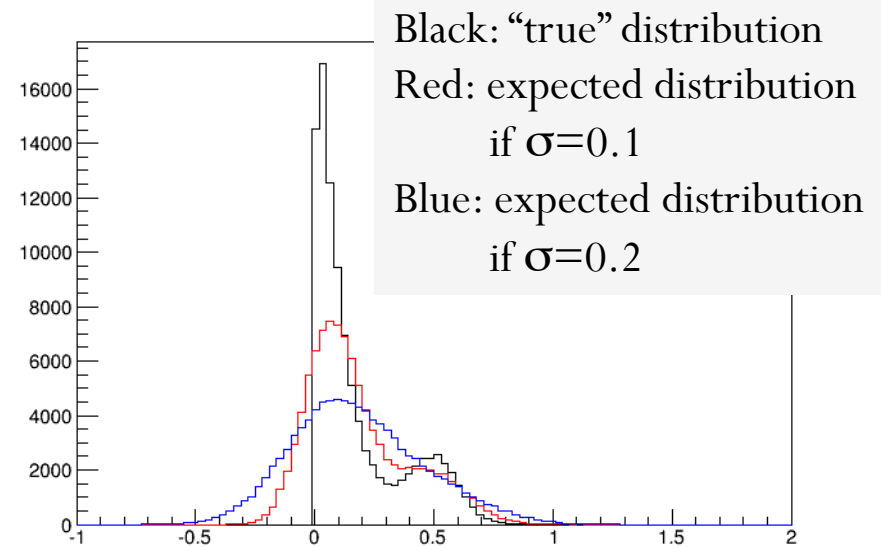
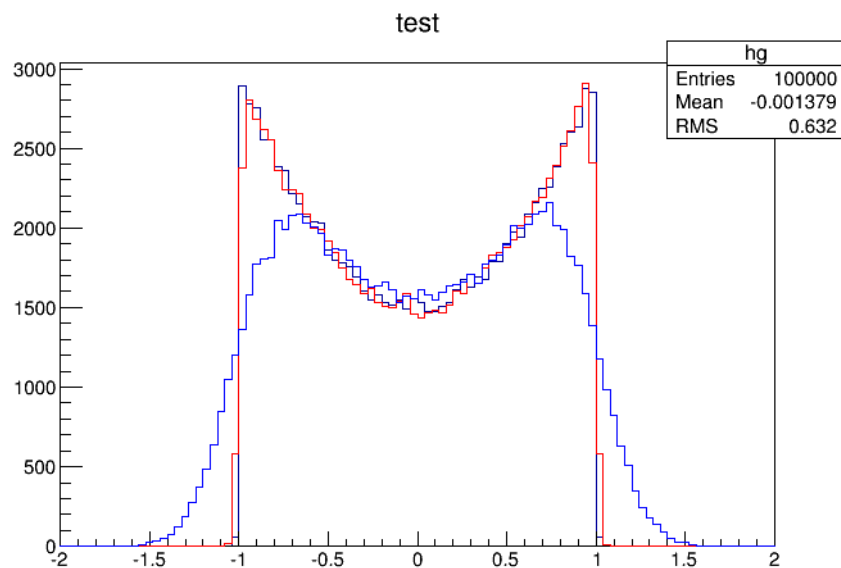
- If we want to consider only final states with a given kinematic configuration (momenta, angles, energies,...) and give the cross-section as a function of these variables
- Experimentally we have to divide in bins and count the number of events per bin.
- Example: differential cross-section vs. scattering angle

$$\left(\frac{d\sigma}{d\cos\theta}\right)_i = \frac{1}{\int \phi dt} \left(\frac{N_{cand}^i - N_b^i}{\epsilon_i}\right) \frac{1}{\Delta\cos\theta_i}$$

- NB: N_{cand} , N_b and ϵ as a function of θ are needed.

Differential cross-section - II

- Additional problems appear.
 - Efficiency is required per bin (can be different for different kinematic configurations).
 - Background is required per bin (as above).
 - The migration of events from one bin to another is possible:



Folding - Unfolding

- In case there is a substantial migration of events among bins (resolution larger than bin size), this affects the comparison btw exp.histo (n_i^{exp}) and theory (n_i^{th}). This can be solved in two different ways:

- **Folding** of the theoretical distribution: the theoretical function $f^{th}(x)$ is “smeared” through a smearing matrix M based on our knowledge of the resolution; $n_i^{th} \rightarrow n_i'^{th}$

$$n_i'^{th} = \sum_{j=1}^N n_j^{th} M_{i,j}$$

$$n_i^{th} = \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} dx f^{th}(x)$$

- **Unfolding** of the experimental histogram: $n_i^{exp} \rightarrow n_i'^{exp}$. Very difficult procedure, mostly unstable, inversion of M required

$$n_i'^{exp} = \sum_{j=1}^N n_j^{exp} M_{i,j}^{-1}$$

Asymmetry measurement

- A very useful and powerful observable:

$$A = \frac{N^+ - N^-}{N^+ + N^-}$$

- It can be “charge asymmetry”, Forward-Backward asymmetry”, ...

- Independent from the absolute normalization
- (+) and (-) could have different efficiencies, but most of them could cancel:

$$A = \frac{N^+ / \epsilon^+ - N^- / \epsilon^-}{N^+ / \epsilon^+ + N^- / \epsilon^-}$$

- Statistical error ($N = N^+ + N^-$) (*proof on blackboard*):

$$\sigma(A) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sqrt{1 - A^2}$$

Particle properties

- Once a particle has been identified (either directly or through its decay products), it is interesting to measure its properties:
 - Mass M
 - Total Decay Width Γ
 - LifeTime τ
 - Couplings g
- If the particle is identified through its decay, all these parameters can be obtained through a dedicated analysis of the kinematics of its decay products.

Invariant Mass - I

- Suppose that a particle X decays to a number of particles (N), and assume we can measure the quadri-momenta of all them. We can evaluate the Invariant Mass of X for all the candidate events of our final sample:

$$M_{inv}^2 = \left(\sum_{k=1}^N \tilde{p}_k \right)^2$$

- It is a relativistically invariant quantity. In case of $N = 2$

$$M_{inv}^2 = m_1^2 + m_2^2 + 2(E_1 E_2 - \vec{p}_1 \cdot \vec{p}_2)$$

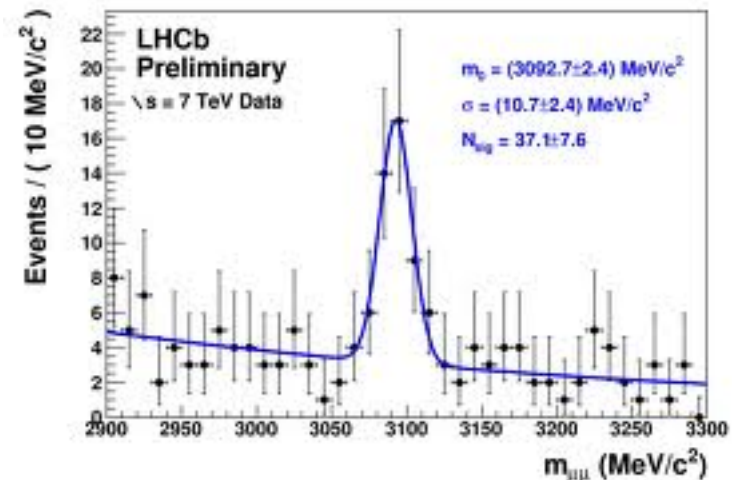
- If $N=2$ and the masses are 0 or very small compared to p

$$M_{inv}^2 = 2E_1 E_2 (1 - \cos\theta) = E_1 E_2 \sin^2 \theta / 2$$

- Where θ is the opening angle between the two daughter particles.

Invariant Mass - II

- Given the sample of candidates, we do the invariant mass distribution and we typically get a plot like that:
 - A peak (the signature of the particle)
 - A background (almost flat in this case) → **unreducible** background.
- What information can we get from this plot (by fitting it)?
 - (1) Mass of particle;
 - (2) Width of the particle (BUT not in this case...);
 - (3) Number of particles produced (related to σ or BR)



Parenthesys: 2 kinds of background

- **Unreducible background:** same final state as the signal, no way to disentangle. The only way to separate signal from unreducible background is to fit the inv.mass spectrum
- **Reducible background:** a different final state that mimic the signal (e.g. because you are losing one or more particles, or because you are confusing the nature of one or more particles)
- Example:
 - Signal: $pp \rightarrow H \rightarrow ZZ^* \rightarrow 4l$
 - Unreducible background: $pp \rightarrow ZZ^* \rightarrow 4l$
 - Reducible backgrounds: $pp \rightarrow Zbb$ with $Z \rightarrow 2l$ and two leptons, one from each b-quark jet; $pp \rightarrow tt$ with each $t \rightarrow Wb \rightarrow l\nu l^+ j$

Invariant Mass - III

- Which is the expected invariant mass distribution for an “unstable” particle ? How is the “peak” done ?
- We consider the wave function of a decaying particle and its Fourier transform:

$$\psi(t) = \psi(0)e^{-iWt} = \psi(0)e^{-iMt - \Gamma t/2}$$

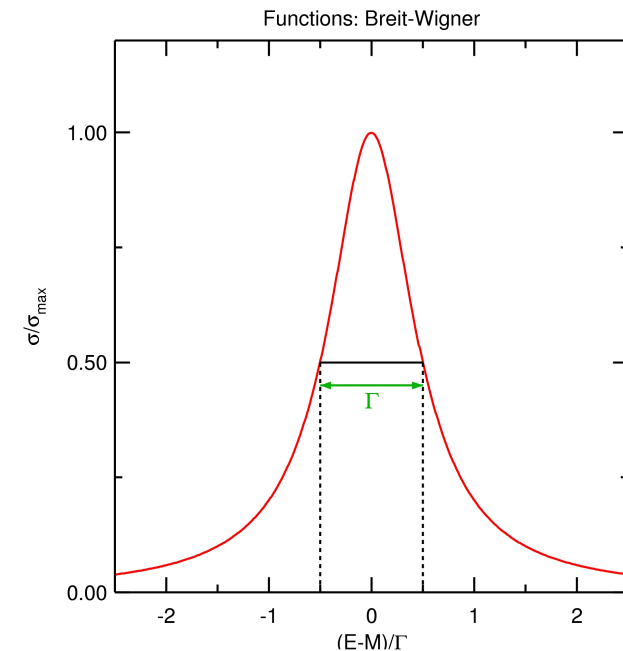
$$\chi(E) = \int \psi(t)e^{-iEt} dt = \psi(0) \int e^{-t(\Gamma/2 + i(M-E))} dt \propto \frac{1}{(E-M) - i\Gamma/2}$$

- $\Gamma = 1/\tau$: the higher is τ the smaller is Γ

$$\sigma(E) = |\chi(E)|^2 = \sigma_{\max} \frac{\Gamma^2/4}{(E-M)^2 + \Gamma^2/4}$$

- Relativistic formula (Breit-Wigner):

$$\sigma(E) = \sigma_{\max} \frac{M^2\Gamma^2}{(E^2 - M^2)^2 + M^2\Gamma^2}$$



NB: the Γ is NOT the σ of an equivalent gaussian

Mass and Width measurement

- Fit of the M_{inv} spectrum with a Breit-Wigner + a continuous background: BUT careful with mass resolution. It can be neglected only if $\sigma(M_{inv}) \ll \Gamma$
- If $\sigma(M_{inv}) \approx \Gamma$ or $\sigma(M_{inv}) > \Gamma$ there are two approaches (as we already know):

- Folding: correct the theoretical distribution to be used in the fit:

$$\sigma_{fit}(E) = \int G_{res}(E - E_0) \sigma_{BW}(E_0) dE_0$$

- Unfolding: correct the experimental data and fit with the theoretical function.
- Use a gaussian (or a “Crystal Ball” function) neglecting completely the width.
- In many cases only the mass is accessible: the uncertainty on the mass is the one given by the fit (taking into account the statistics) + possible scale systematics.

Gaussian vs. Crystal Ball

- Gaussian: 3-parameters, A , μ , σ . Integral $= A\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}$

$$f(m / A, \mu, \sigma) = A \exp\left(-\frac{(m - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

- Crystal-Ball: 5-parameters, m , σ , α , n , N

$$f_{CB}(m, \bar{m}, \sigma, \alpha, n) = N \cdot \begin{cases} e^{-\frac{(m-\bar{m})^2}{2\sigma^2}} & \text{per } \frac{m-\bar{m}}{\sigma} > -\alpha \\ A \cdot (B - \frac{m-\bar{m}}{\sigma})^{-n} & \text{per } \frac{m-\bar{m}}{\sigma} \leq -\alpha \end{cases}$$

$$A = \left(\frac{n}{|\alpha|}\right)^n e^{-\frac{\alpha^2}{2}}, \quad B = \frac{n}{|\alpha|} - |\alpha|$$

Essentially takes into account energy losses, useful in many cases.

Template fits: not functions but histograms

In this case the fit is not done with a function with parameters BUT it is a “template” fit:

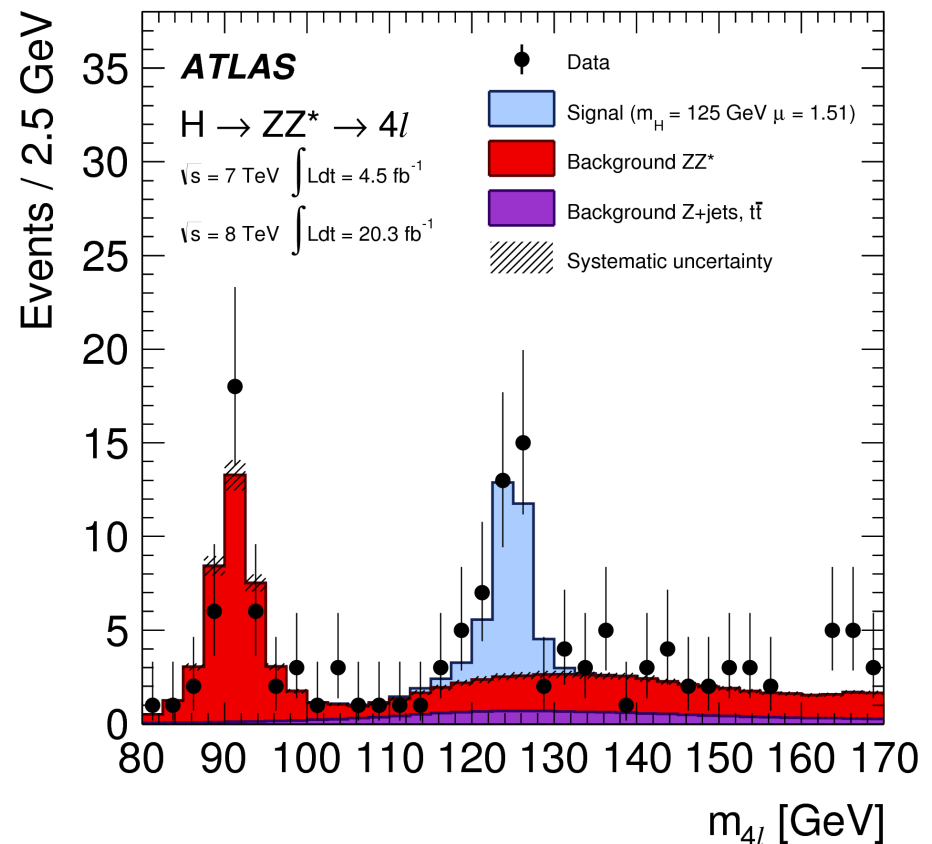
$$F = a\text{HIST1}(m_H, \dots) + b\text{HIST2}$$

a , b and m_H are free parameters

The method requires the knowledge (from MC) of the expected distributions. Such a knowledge improves our uncertainties.

NB: HIST1 and HIST2 take into account experimental resolution: so it is directly the folding method

An example: Higgs mass in the $4l$ channel.



Effect of the mass resolution on the significativity of a signal

- Let's consider now the case in which we look for a process and we expect a peak in a distribution at a definite mass: when may we say that we have observed that process ?
- Method of assessment: simple fit $S+B$ (e.g. template fit).
 $S \pm \sigma(S)$ away from 0 at least 3 (5) standard deviations.
- Ingredients:
 - Mass resolution;
 - Background
- Effect of mass resolution negligible if:

$$\sigma_M \ll \frac{S}{6b}$$

$H \rightarrow \gamma\gamma$ ATLAS: is the resolution negligible ?

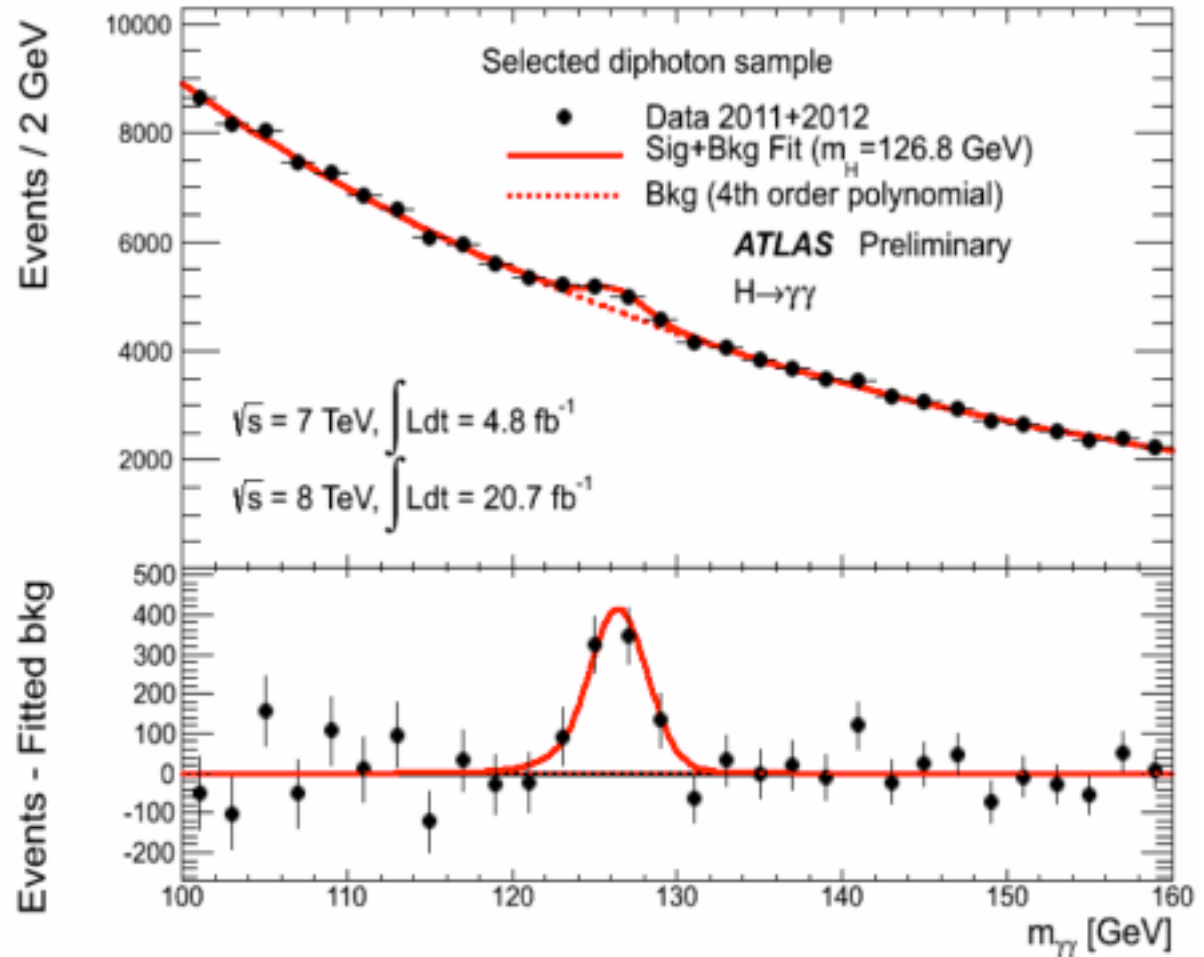
Numbers directly from the plot:

$$S \approx 1000$$

$$b \approx 5000 / 2 \text{ GeV} \\ = 2500 / \text{GeV}$$

$$\sigma_M \approx 10 \text{ GeV} / 6 \\ = 1.7 \text{ GeV}$$

$$\rightarrow S/6b \\ = 0.07 \text{ GeV} \ll \sigma_M$$

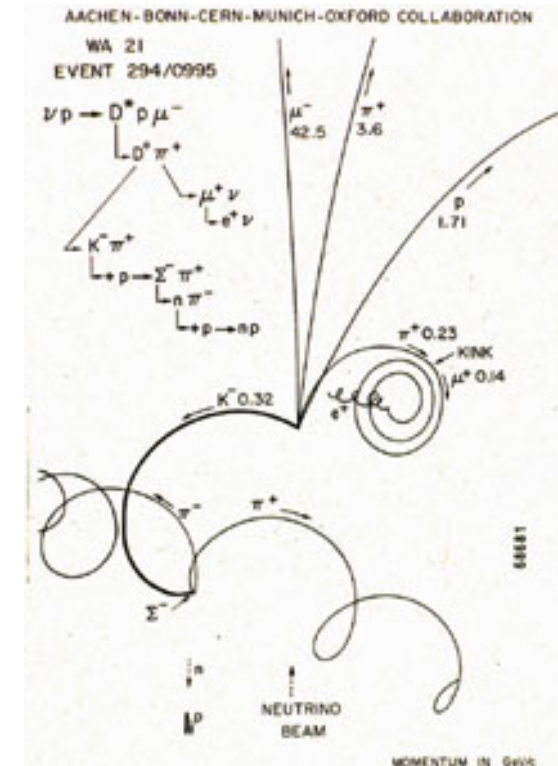
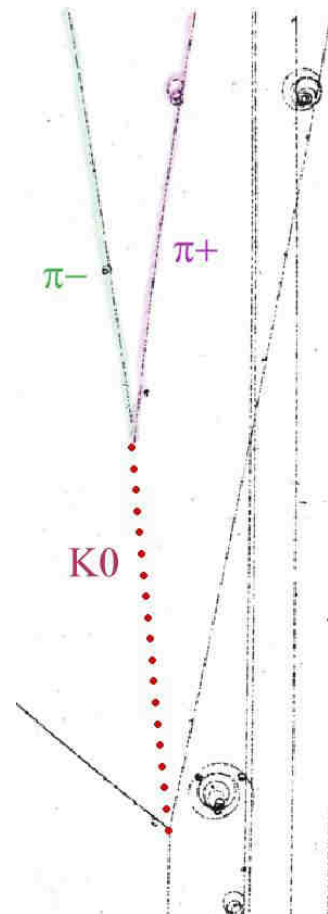
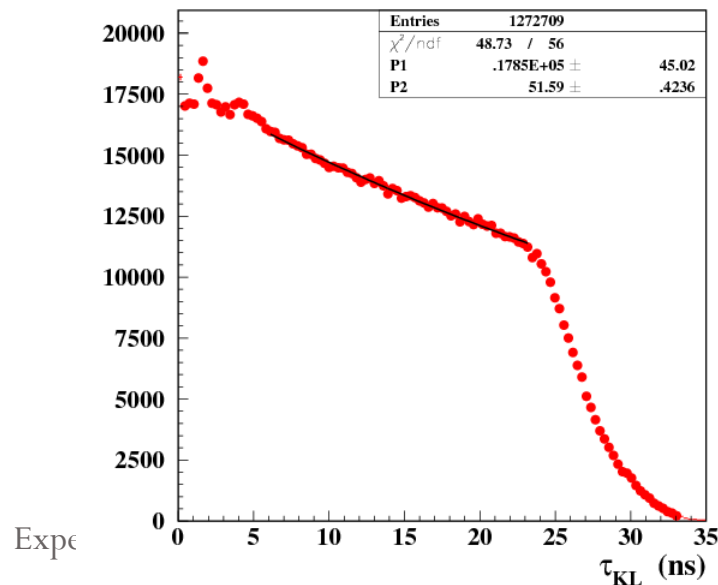


Lifetime measurement - I

→ In the first decades of EPP, bubble-chambers and emulsions allowed to see directly the decay length of a particle either neutral or charged (see Kaons);

→ The decay length l is related to the lifetime through the $l = \beta\gamma\tau c \rightarrow \tau = l / \beta\gamma c$

→ For a sample of particles produced we expect an exponential distribution



Lifetime measurement - II

- Example: pions, kaons, c and b-hadrons in the LHC context (momentum range $10 \div 100$ GeV).

	π	K	D	B
Mass (GeV)	0.140	0.494	1.869	5.279
Life Time (s)	2.6×10^{-8}	1.2×10^{-8}	1.0×10^{-12}	1.6×10^{-12}
Decay length (m) $p = 10$ GeV	557	72.8	1.6×10^{-3}	9.1×10^{-4}
Decay length (m) $p = 100$ GeV	5570	728	0.016	0.0091

NB When going to c or b quarks, decay lengths $O(<mm)$ are obtained
→ Necessity of dedicated “vertex detectors”

Lifetime measurement - III

For low- τ particles
(e.g. B-hadrons, τ , ...):
→ define the proper decay time:

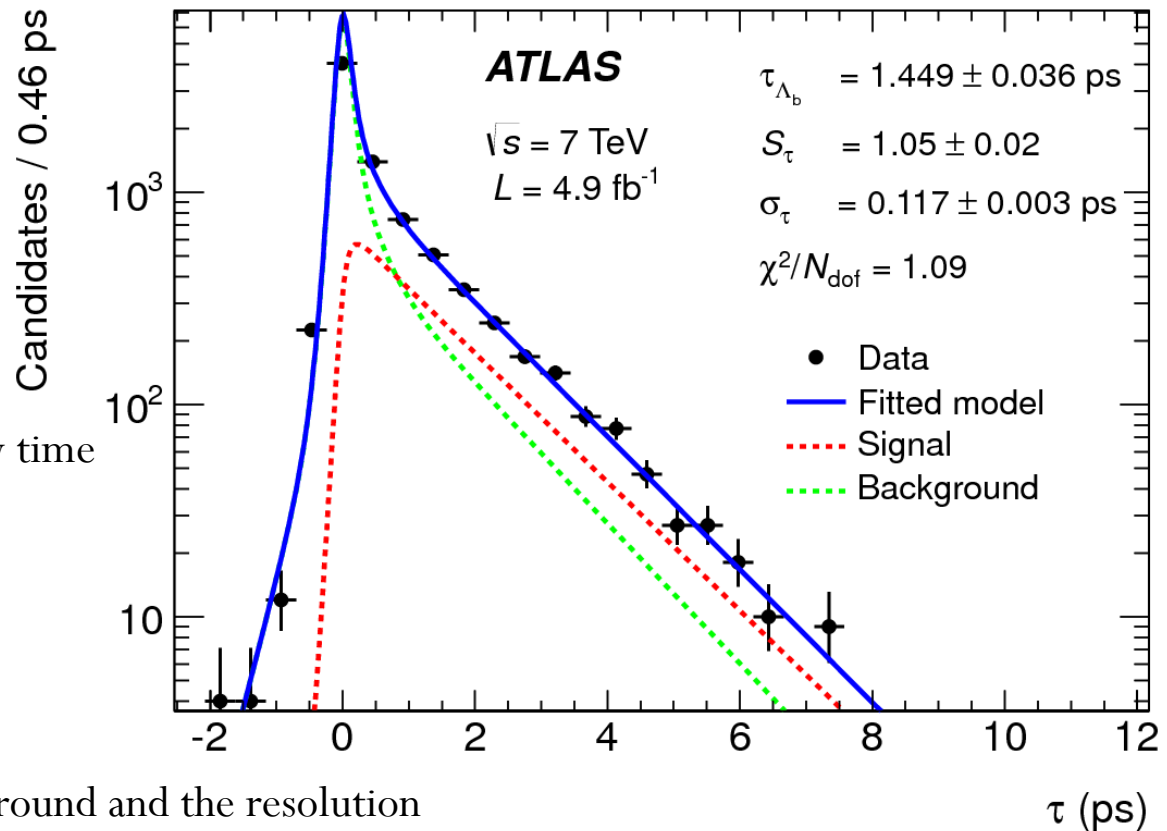
$$\tau = \frac{Lm}{p}$$

At hadron colliders the proper decay time is defined on the transverse plane:

$$\tau = \frac{L_{xy}m}{p_T}$$

The fit takes into account the background and the resolution

Typical resolutions: $O(10^{-13} \text{ s}) \rightarrow$ tens of μm



Efficiency measurement - I

- Suppose you want to measure the detection efficiency of a final state X : X contains N particles e.g. $Z \rightarrow \mu\mu$ contains 2 particles and whatever else. How much is the probability to select an event containing a $Z \rightarrow \mu\mu$?
- Let's suppose that:
 - Trigger is: at least 1 muon with $p_T > 10$ GeV and $|\eta| < 2.5$
 - Offline selection is: 2 and only 2 muons with opposite charge and $M_Z - 2\Gamma < M_{inv} < M_Z + 2\Gamma$
- Approach for efficiency
 - Full event method: apply trigger and selection to simulated events and calculate N_{sel}/N_{gen} (validation is required)
 - Single particle method: (see next slides)

Efficiency measurement - II

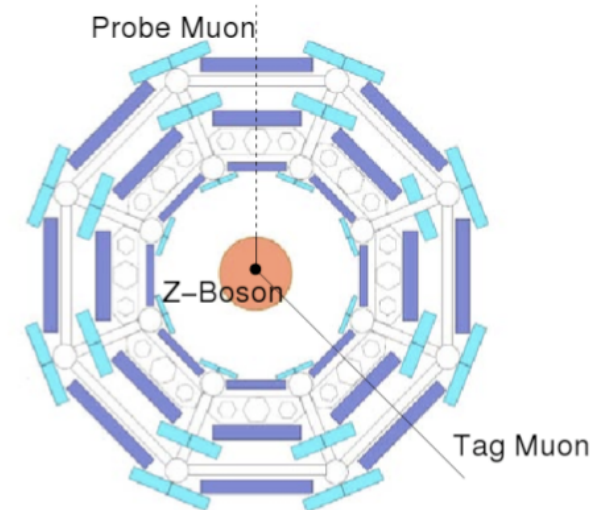
- Measure single muon efficiencies as a function of kinematics (p_T , η , ...); eventually perform the same “measurement” using simulated data.
 - Tag & Probe method: muon detection efficiency measured using an independent detector and using “correlated” events.
 - Trigger efficiency using “pre-scaled” samples collected with a trigger having a lower threshold.

$$\epsilon_{trigger} = \frac{\# \mu - triggered}{\# \mu - total}$$

T&P: a “Tag Muon” in the MS and a “Probe” in the ID
Tag+Probe Inv.Mass consistent
With a Z boson

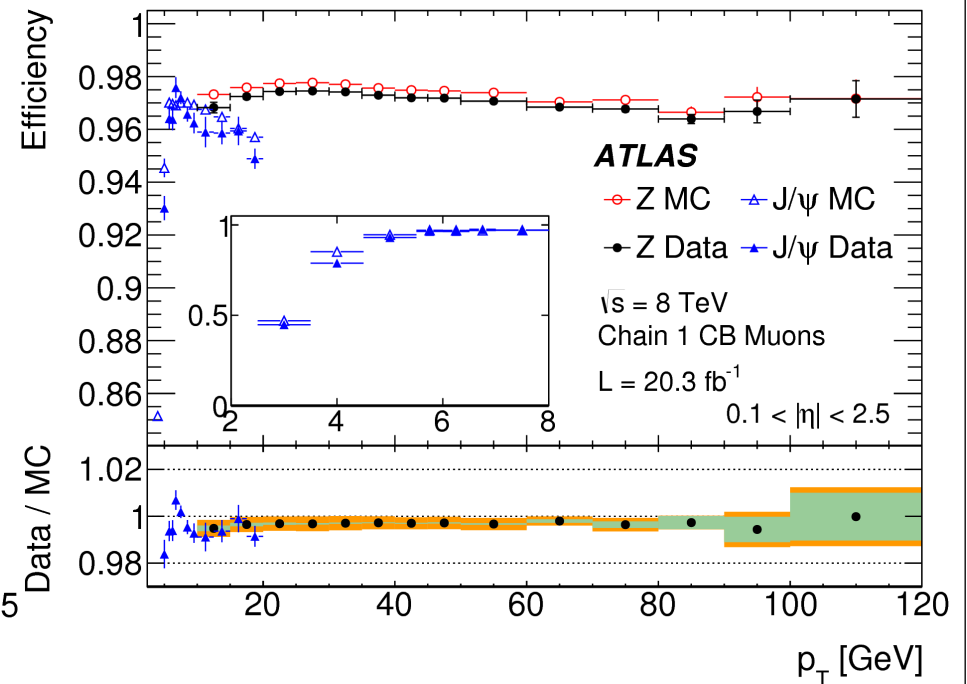
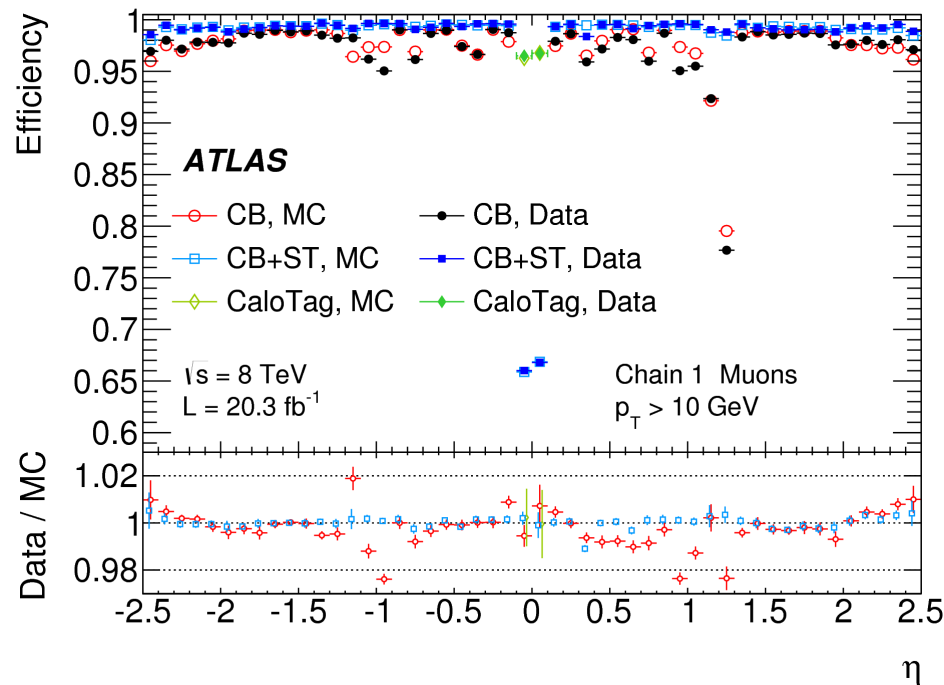
→ There should be a track in the MS

$$\epsilon_{TP} = \frac{\# \mu - reco}{\# \mu - expected}$$



Efficiency measurement - III

- Muon Efficiency – ATLAS experiment.
- As a function of η and p_T – comparison with simulation \rightarrow
Scale Factors



Efficiency measurement - IV

- After that I have: $\epsilon_T(p_T, \eta, \dots)$ and $\epsilon_S(p_T, \eta, \dots)$
- From MC I get the expected kinematic distributions of the final state muons and I apply for each muon its efficiency depending on its p_T and η . The number of surviving events gives the efficiency for X
- Or I simply apply the scale factors to the MC fully simulated events to take into account data-MC differences.

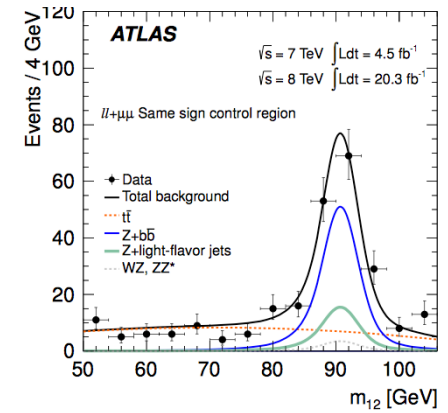
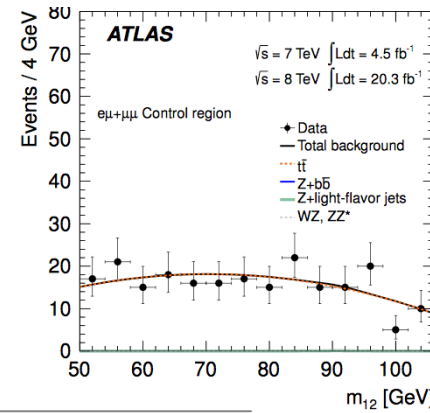
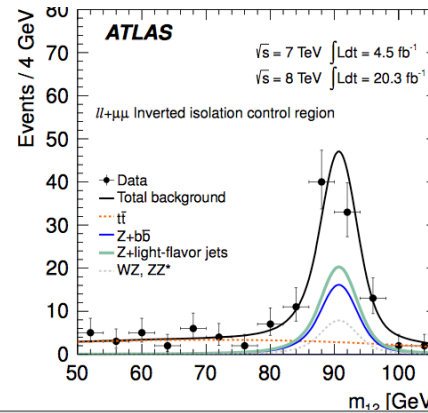
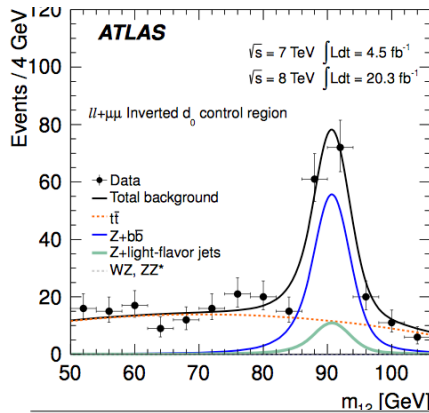
Background measurement - I

- Based on simulations:
 - define all possible background processes (with known cross-sections);
 - apply trigger and selection to each simulated sample;
 - determine the amount of background in the “signal region” after weighting with known cross-sections.
- Data-driven methods:
 - “control regions” based on a different selection (e.g. sidebands);
 - fit control region distributions with simulated distributions and get weights;
 - then export to “signal region” using “transfer-factors”.
- Example: reducible background of H4l ATLAS analysis (next slides)

Background measurement - II

Table 3: Expected contribution of the $ll + \mu\mu$ background sources in each of the control regions.

Background	Control region			
	Inverted d_0	Inverted isolation	$e\mu + \mu\mu$	Same-sign
$Zb\bar{b}$	$32.8 \pm 0.5\%$	$26.5 \pm 1.2\%$	$0.3 \pm 1.2\%$	$30.6 \pm 0.7\%$
$Z + \text{light-flavor jets}$	$9.2 \pm 1.3\%$	$39.3 \pm 2.6\%$	$0.0 \pm 0.8\%$	$16.9 \pm 1.6\%$
$t\bar{t}$	$58.0 \pm 0.9\%$	$34.2 \pm 1.6\%$	$99.7 \pm 1.0\%$	$52.5 \pm 1.1\%$



Reducible background yields for 4μ and $2e2\mu$ in reference control region

Control region	$Zb\bar{b}$	$Z + \text{light-flavor jets}$	Total $Z + \text{jets}$	$t\bar{t}$
Combined fit	159 ± 20	49 ± 10	208 ± 22	210 ± 12
Inverted impact parameter			206 ± 18	208 ± 23
Inverted isolation			210 ± 21	201 ± 24
$e\mu + \mu\mu$			–	201 ± 12
Same-sign dilepton			198 ± 20	196 ± 22

(d)

Extrapolate to “signal region”
using transfer factors
➔ (see next slide)

Background measurement - III

Table 5: Estimates for the $\ell\ell + \mu\mu$ background in the signal region for the full $m_{4\ell}$ mass range for the $\sqrt{s} = 7$ TeV and $\sqrt{s} = 8$ TeV data. The Z + jets and $t\bar{t}$ background estimates are data-driven and the WZ contribution is from simulation. The decomposition of the Z + jets background in terms of the $Zb\bar{b}$ and the Z + light-flavor-jets contributions is also provided.

Background	4μ	$2e2\mu$
$\sqrt{s} = 7$ TeV		
Z + jets	$0.42 \pm 0.21(\text{stat}) \pm 0.08(\text{syst})$	$0.29 \pm 0.14(\text{stat}) \pm 0.05(\text{syst})$
$t\bar{t}$	$0.081 \pm 0.016(\text{stat}) \pm 0.021(\text{syst})$	$0.056 \pm 0.011(\text{stat}) \pm 0.015(\text{syst})$
WZ expectation	0.08 ± 0.05	0.19 ± 0.10

Z + jets decomposition		
$Zb\bar{b}$	$0.36 \pm 0.19(\text{stat}) \pm 0.07(\text{syst})$	$0.25 \pm 0.13(\text{stat}) \pm 0.05(\text{syst})$
Z + light-flavor jets	$0.06 \pm 0.08(\text{stat}) \pm 0.04(\text{syst})$	$0.04 \pm 0.06(\text{stat}) \pm 0.02(\text{syst})$
$\sqrt{s} = 8$ TeV		
Z + jets	$3.11 \pm 0.46(\text{stat}) \pm 0.43(\text{syst})$	$2.58 \pm 0.39(\text{stat}) \pm 0.43(\text{syst})$
$t\bar{t}$	$0.51 \pm 0.03(\text{stat}) \pm 0.09(\text{syst})$	$0.48 \pm 0.03(\text{stat}) \pm 0.08(\text{syst})$
WZ expectation	0.42 ± 0.07	0.44 ± 0.06

Z + jets decomposition		
$Zb\bar{b}$	$2.30 \pm 0.26(\text{stat}) \pm 0.14(\text{syst})$	$2.01 \pm 0.23(\text{stat}) \pm 0.13(\text{syst})$
Z + light-flavor jets	$0.81 \pm 0.38(\text{stat}) \pm 0.41(\text{syst})$	$0.57 \pm 0.31(\text{stat}) \pm 0.41(\text{syst})$

The “ABCD” factorization method

- Use two variables (var1 and var2) with these features:
 - For the background they are completely independent
 - The signal is localized in a region of the two variables
- Divide the plane in 4 boxes: the signal is on D only

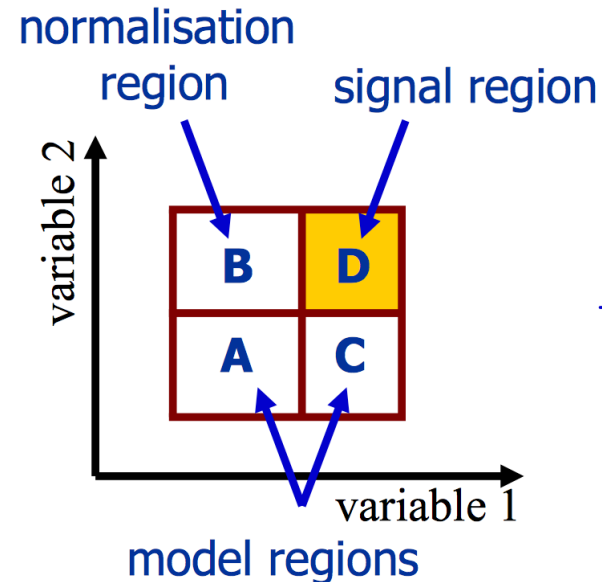
For the background, due to the independence we have few relations:

$$B/D = A/C$$

$$B/A = D/C$$

So: If I count the background (in data) events in regions A, B and C I can extrapolate in the signal region D:

$$D = CB/A$$



Luminosity measurement - I

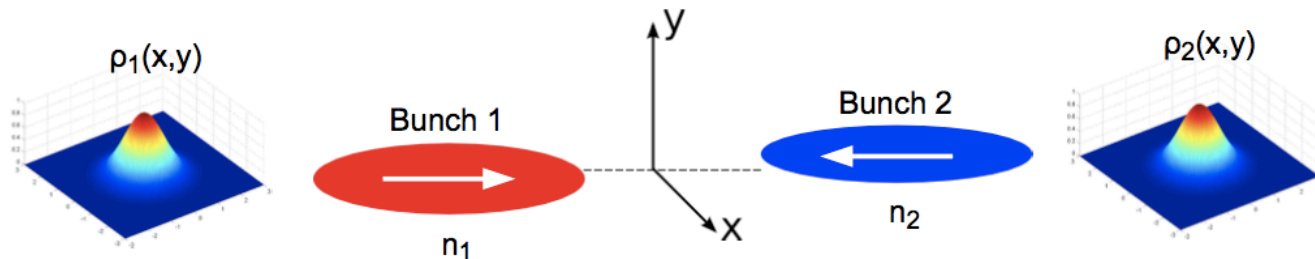
- In order to get the luminosity we need to know the “cross-section” of a candle process:

$$L = \frac{\dot{N}}{\sigma}$$

- In e^+e^- experiments QED helps, since Bhabha scattering can be theoretically evaluated with high precision ($< 1\%$).
- In pp experiment the situation is more difficult.
 - Two-step procedure: continuous “relative luminosity” measurement through several monitors. Count the number of “inelastic interactions”;
 - time-to-time using the “Van der Meer” scan the absolute calibration is obtained by measuring the effective σ_{inel} .

Luminosity measurement - II

Van der Meer scan: Measurement of the rate of inelastic interactions as a function of the bunch horizontal and vertical separations:



$$R(\delta x) = \int \rho_1(x,y) \rho_2(x + \delta x, y) dx dy \propto \exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{2\Sigma_x^2}\right)$$

→ Determine the transverse bunch dimensions Σ_x , Σ_y and the inelastic rate at 0 separation.

→ Using the known values of the number of protons per bunch from LHC monitors, one gets the *inelastic cross-section* that provides the absolute normalization.

$$L = n_b f \frac{N_1 N_2}{4\pi \Sigma_x \Sigma_y} = \frac{\dot{N}_{inel}}{\sigma_{inel}}$$

$$\sigma_{inel} = \left(\frac{\dot{N}_{inel}}{n_b f} \right) \frac{4\pi \Sigma_x \Sigma_y}{N_1 N_2}$$

Recap

- Let's remind at this point that our aim is to learn how to design an experiment.
- We have seen:
 - Definition of the process we want to study
 - Selection of the events corresponding to this process
 - Measurement of the quantities related to the process
 - Other measurements related to the physics objects we are studying.
- Now, in order to really design an experiment we need:
 - To see how projectiles and targets can be set-up
 - To see how to put together different detectors to measure what we need to measure