Z-pole observables in an effective theory

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(Dated: May 31, 2013)

There are two Z-peak observables related to the pair production of bottom quarks that show a deviation of about 2.5σ each from Standard Model expectations. While the discrepancy in the forward-backward asymmetry is a long-standing one, the tension for the second observable, namely the ratio of the partial width for a Z decaying to a pair of bottom quarks to the total hadronic decay width of the Z, has recently gone up due to a full two-loop evaluation of the Standard Model contributions. We show how both these discrepancies may be explained in the framework of new physics that couples only to the third generation of quarks. In the paradigm of effective operators, the Wilson coefficients of some of the possible operators are already very tightly constrained by flavour physics data. However, there still remain certain operators, particularly those involving right-chiral quark fields, which can successfully explain the anomalies. We also show how the footprints of such operators may be observed at the upgraded LHC.

PACS numbers: 13.38.Dg, 13.66.Jn, 13.85.Hd

Keywords: Electroweak precision data, Z-peak observables, Third generation, Effective theories

I. INTRODUCTION

The majority of the electroweak precision observables are in good agreement with the Standard Model (SM) [1]. However, there are two which show a marked tension, albeit not at the level where they can be claimed as incontrovertible evidence for New Physics (NP) beyond the SM. One of these is the long-standing anomaly of forward-backward asymmetry in the pair-production of b quarks, \( A_{FB}^b \), as measured at the Z-peak. The second is the ratio \( R_b \), defined as \( R_b = \Gamma(Z \rightarrow bb)/\Gamma(Z \rightarrow \text{hadrons}) \). Of much interest during the LEP-I and SLC era, the second tension has resurfaced due to a recent evaluation of \( R_b \) in the SM, taking into account all two-loop effects [2].

The Gfitter group [1] has updated the SM fit after the discovery of the Higgs boson at \( m_h = 125.7 \pm 0.4 \) GeV [3, 4]. The fit shows

\[
R_b \text{ (exp)} = 0.21629 \pm 0.00066, \quad R_b \text{ (SM)} = 0.21474 \pm 0.00003, \quad (1)
\]

with a pull of \(-2.35\), where for any observable \( O \) with a standard deviation \( \sigma_{\text{exp}} \), the pull is defined as\(^1\)

\[
\text{Pull} = \frac{O_{\text{SM}} - O_{\text{exp}}}{\sigma_{\text{exp}}} \quad (2)
\]

Note that the pull has increased to \(-2.35\) from \(-0.8\) (as calculated earlier using \( R_b \text{ (SM)} = 0.21576 \pm 0.00008 \)) thanks to the recent computation of the full 2-loop effects in the SM [2].

The pull for \( A_{FB}^b \) is \(2.5\), computed from

\[
A_{FB}^b \text{ (exp)} = 0.0992 \pm 0.0016, \quad A_{FB}^b \text{ (SM)} = 0.1032^{+0.0004}_{-0.0006}. \quad (3)
\]

Present ever since the LEP-I days, this discrepancy constitutes, perhaps, the most longstanding indicator of NP. Indeed, over the years, numerous attempts have been made to solve this problem in the context of specific NP scenarios. Prominent amongst these are those invoking extra Higgs scalars [6], low energy supersymmetry [7] or just

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\(^1\) This definition is consistent with Glitter but opposite in sign to that used by the Particle Data Group (PDG) [3].
mixing with exotic quarks. At the same time, the data has a significant constraining power and may be used to rule out certain classes of models particularly in the light of the discovery of the 126 GeV scalar.

There is another mild tension in the forward-backward asymmetry of the $\tau$ measured at the Z-peak. While this has not been updated in Ref. using the $m_h$ data, the value of the asymmetry hardly depends on whether $m_h$ is given as an input or is treated as a free parameter to be determined from the fit. We therefore quote the PDG result:

\[
A_{FB}^{\tau} \ (\text{exp}) = 0.0188 \pm 0.0017, \quad A_{FB}^{\tau} \ (\text{SM}) = 0.01633 \pm 0.00021, \tag{4}
\]

with a pull of $-1.5$. However, the branching ratio for $Z \rightarrow \tau^+\tau^-$ is consistent with that of the other leptons, viz.

\[
Br(Z \rightarrow \tau^+\tau^-) = (3.370 \pm 0.008)\%, \quad Br(Z \rightarrow e^+e^-) = (3.363 \pm 0.004)\%. \tag{5}
\]

Taking into account the electroweak corrections, $R_\tau = \Gamma(Z \rightarrow \text{hadrons})/\Gamma(Z \rightarrow \tau^+\tau^-)$ is slightly above the SM predictions, but consistent nevertheless, with a pull of only 0.6:

\[
R_\tau \ (\text{exp}) = 20.764 \pm 0.045, \quad R_\tau \ (\text{SM}) = 20.789 \pm 0.011. \tag{6}
\]

The partial width $\Gamma(Z \rightarrow b\bar{b})$ is best analysed by parametrizing the $Zb\bar{b}$ vertex as

\[
\frac{g}{\cos \theta_W} \Gamma^\mu \left[ (g^b_L + \delta g^b_L)P_L + (g^b_R + \delta g^b_R)P_R \right] bZ^\mu,
\]

where

\[
g^b_L = T^3_3 - \kappa_b Q_b \sin^2 \theta_W, \quad g^b_R = -\kappa_b Q_b \sin^2 \theta_W, \tag{7}
\]

with $\kappa_b = 1.0067$. The deviation of $\kappa_b$ from unity incorporates the electroweak corrections, whereas $\delta g^b_{L,R}$ comprise all possible corrections arising from NP sources. On analyzing all the electroweak data, the best fits are obtained for

\[
\begin{align*}
(i) & \quad \delta g^b_L = 0.001 \pm 0.001 & \delta g^b_R = 0.016 \pm 0.005 \\
(ii) & \quad \delta g^b_L = 0.001 \pm 0.001 & \delta g^b_R = -0.170 \pm 0.005
\end{align*} \tag{9}
\]

where both $\delta g^b_L$ and $\delta g^b_R$ have been treated as free parameters. It is easy to see the origin of these two solutions. Apart from some numerical constants,

\[
\Gamma(Z \rightarrow b\bar{b}) \propto \left[ (g^b_L)^2 + (g^b_R)^2 \right], \quad A_{FB}^b \propto \frac{(g^b_L)^2 - (g^b_R)^2}{(g^b_L)^2 + (g^b_R)^2}, \tag{10}
\]

with $g^b_R = 0.077$ and $g^b_L = -0.423$ within the SM. The partial width $\Gamma(Z \rightarrow b\bar{b})$ can be pushed upward by changes in either or both of $g^b_{L,R}$; however, the upward pull on $A_{FB}^b$ preferentially chooses a change in $g^b_R$. This change must be such that $|g^b_R + \delta g^b_R|^2$ is marginally higher than $(g^b_L)^2$, and so $\delta g^b_R$ must either be positive and small, or negative and large. It may seem that analogous solutions with large and negative $\delta g^b_L$ (so that the sign of $g^b_L$ is reversed without changing its magnitude appreciably) should also be admissible. Indeed, this is true as far as the Z-peak observables are concerned. However, away from the Z-peak, such a switch would essentially reverse the sign of $A_{FB}^b(e^+e^- \rightarrow b\bar{b})$ and, hence, run afoul of the data.

It is intriguing to note that such considerations do not choose between the two solutions of Eq. (9). It is obvious, though, that if the shifts $\delta g^b_{L,R}$ come only from perturbative quantum corrections, then the first solution would be much easier to achieve than the second.

The strongest phenomenological constraints on NP scenarios arise, typically, from flavour physics, especially from processes involving the first two families. This had prompted, over the years, many constructions wherein the coupling of the NP sector to the SM fermions is not flavour democratic, but is preferential to the third generation. Of particular

\[\text{Footnotes:}
\begin{enumerate}
    \item For example, no supersymmetric model, where the lighter chargino is dominantly a wino, is consistent with both $R_\tau$ and $A_{FB}^b$ measurements, if we assume the 126 GeV scalar to be the lightest CP-even neutral Higgs boson.
    \item It should be noted that had we concentrated only on $\Gamma(Z \rightarrow b\bar{b})$ and $A_{FB}^b$, to the exclusion of all else, the fit would have been substantially different, with $\delta g^b_L \sim 0.003$. This, however, would be illogical for such a simple-minded shift would cause the predictions for several other precision variables (such as $\Gamma_Z, \Gamma_{\text{had}}$ etc.) to deviate from the measurements.
    \item Away from the Z-peak, the dominant contribution to $A_{FB}^b$ accrues from the interference between the photon and Z-mediated amplitudes.
\end{enumerate}
interest in this context are scenarios that proclaim the Higgs to be a condensate effecting a dynamic breaking of electroweak symmetry rather than a fundamental scalar [11], or models with extensions of the gauge group associated with electroweak symmetry [12]. Other examples of models that envisage a special role for heavy fermions include Little Higgs models [13] and models with extra space-time dimensions [14–16]. A still different class of possibilities is afforded by the hypotheses where the SM is augmented by colour-triplet or colour-sextet scalars that have Yukawa couplings with the third generation [17].

With each such NP scenario being unique in certain respects, it is useful to concentrate on the essential aspects, rather than dwell on the specifics. In particular, if the NP sector is heavy, integrating it out would leave us with new operators in the effective low-energy theory. Moreover, if the NP sector couples preferentially with the third generation, these would primarily be four-fermion operators (and, perhaps, anomalous magnetic moment like operators) involving third generation currents with undetermined Wilson coefficients that have to be matched with the full NP. For example, considered the possibility of such operators explaining certain tensions in the B-physics sector. In this paper, we adopt a similar stance and investigate the implications of such an effective theory for the Z-peak observables, including $R_b$, $A_{FB}^b$, and $A_{FB}^s$ and whether some of these operators could possibly ameliorate the aforementioned discrepancies. While it might seem that, given the large number of operators available, it would always be possible to find a set that “solves” the problem, it turns out that, in reality, only a subset can play the requisite role.

Furthermore, a large Wilson coefficient for any such operator would lead to tell-tale signatures at the LHC, thereby offering us falsifiability of the ansatz.

This paper is organized as follows. In Sec. III we introduce new effective dimension-6 operators involving only the third generation fermions. As our aim is to enhance $\delta g^b_R$, we might expect that operators involving right-chiral fields would be more suitable for our purpose, and that indeed turns out to be the case. We also delineate the region allowed by the Z-peak observables in the parameter space of the new operators. In Sec. III we discuss some of the possible signals at the LHC that should show an unambiguous signature of such new physics. We summarize and conclude in the last Section. Some calculational details are relegated to the Appendix.

II. NEW OPERATORS

As we are interested essentially in $b$-sector observables, we begin by introducing generic four-fermion operators involving the $b$ quark, given by

$$\frac{\xi}{\Lambda^2} \left[ f \gamma_{\mu} (v_f + a_f \gamma_5) f \right] \left[ \bar{b} \gamma^{\mu} (v_b + a_b \gamma_5) b \right],$$

where $\xi$ is a dimensionless number which is a priori undetermined and can only be fixed with a knowledge of the full theory. $\Lambda$ is the scale up to which the effective theory is valid, and is essentially the scale of NP. The identity of $f$ is undetermined at this point. It is obvious, though, that low energy constraints on such an operator are the least severe if $f$ is a third generation fermion. For example, if $m_f < m_b$, we would need $\xi/\Lambda^2 \ll \alpha/M_Z^2$ so as not to run afoul of $\Upsilon(nS)$ decays\footnote{It might be argued that such a decay has non-trivial dependences on quantities (such as the wavefunction of the $\Upsilon$) that can only be calculated in a nonperturbative framework and, thus, the results are model-dependent. It is easy to see, though, that the bound quoted here is a very conservative one.}.

We will revisit such issues when we discuss specific operators. The operators in Eq. (11) are not the only relevant Lorentz invariant neutral current four-fermion operators that one can write. Scalar (pseudoscalar) and tensor (pseudotensor) structures are also admissible possibilities; however, as would be obvious immediately, the contributions of such operators to the effective $Zb\bar{b}$ vertex are chirality suppressed.

The operator of Eq. (11) gives rise to one-loop correction to the $Z \to b\bar{b}$ vertex (see Fig. 1). Formally, this amplitude is quadratically divergent and can be evaluated using a gauge invariant prescription such as dimensional regularization. While the infinite correction is cancelled by introducing appropriate counterterms\footnote{Although this might seem strange given the higher-dimensional nature of the interaction term, note that the calculation fully conforms to the spirit of effective field theories.}, the finite part of the correction to the $Zb\bar{b}$ vertex is given by

$$\delta g^b_L = \frac{(v_b - a_b)}{2} \frac{N_C \xi}{4 \pi^2 \Lambda^2} J \quad ; \quad \delta g^b_R = \frac{(v_b + a_b)}{2} \frac{N_C \xi}{4 \pi^2 \Lambda^2} J,$$

where $N_C = 3(1)$ if $f$ is a quark (lepton) and $J \equiv J(v_f, a_f, m_f, M_Z)$, the expression for which can be found in the Appendix. It should be appreciated that, had we attempted instead to calculate the effective $b\bar{b}\gamma$ vertex, the very form...
of the corresponding $\mathcal{J}$ would have ensured that the charge radius does not receive any correction. This, of course, is a consequence of gauge invariance and has been ensured by our use of dimensional regularization rather than a naive momentum cutoff\(^7\). If the scale $\Lambda$ of new physics is to be larger than the electroweak symmetry breaking scale, the four-fermion operators need to respect the full $SU(2)_L \otimes U(1)_Y$ symmetry. This is a further restriction on the generic operators of Eq. (11). As we need $\delta g^b_R \gg \delta g^L_L$, it stands to reason that the said operator should involve the $b_R$ field rather than $b_L$. One of the simplest such operators is given by

$$\mathcal{O}^b_{RR} = \frac{\xi}{\Lambda^2} (\bar{t} R \gamma_\mu t R) (\bar{b} R \gamma^\mu b R). \tag{13}$$

i.e. with the choice $v_b = a_b = v_t = a_t = \frac{1}{2}$.

![Diagram](image_url)

**FIG. 1:** The effective $Zb\bar{b}$ vertex arising from a single insertion of the operator in Eq. (11).

In the above, we have deliberately neglected the possibility of quark mixing. Since these operators were presumably generated above the electroweak scale, it is likely that they were generated in the weak basis instead. If the starting point be indeed so, after the symmetry breaking, the operators need to be re-expressed in terms of mass eigenstates through a CKM-type rotation [18]. This would, then, generate a plethora of new operators. The corresponding Wilson coefficients would be constrained by several B-physics observables such as the mass differences $\Delta M_d$ and $\Delta M_s$, and the CP violating phases $\beta$ and $\beta_s$. We apply the principle of Occam’s razor and refrain from considering the entire range of such new operators, restricting ourselves to considering the operator $\mathcal{O}^b_{RR}$ only.

![Graph](image_url)

**FIG. 2:** The allowed region in the $\xi$-$\Lambda$ plane that is consistent with the observed values of $R_b$ and $A_{FB}^b$.

Eq. (12) immediately gives $\delta g^L_L = 0$ and $\delta g^R_R \neq 0$. The region in the $\xi - \Lambda$ plane that generates the required $\delta g^R_R$ (as in Eq. (9)) is shown in Fig. 2. Requiring that the coupling $\xi$ be perturbative, at least at the TeV scale, means that only the $\delta g^R_R > 0$ solution proposed by Ref. [9] is realised. There is a caveat, though. The analysis of Ref. [9] was

\(^7\)Note that a naive application of a cutoff regularization would have given rise to leading corrections being independent of $\Lambda$ rather than being suppressed as $(m^2/\Lambda^2) \ln(m^2/\Lambda^2)$, with the consequence that a smaller $\xi$ would be required. Although such a dependence of the corrections would have been expected in a scalar theory, it is clearly not gauge invariant and, hence, inapplicable in the current context.
performed treating both \( \delta g_L^b \) and \( \delta g_L^t \) as free parameters, whereas invoking \( O_{RL}^t \) necessarily implies that \( \delta g_L^t = 0 \). In a strict sense, the fit would be different in the two cases. However, quantitatively, the 1\( \sigma \) (or 2\( \sigma \)) allowed regions in the two cases are not too different. Indeed, the required \( \delta g_L^b \) can be generated by positing, in addition, a \( O_{LL}^e \) with a Wilson coefficient much smaller than \( \xi \). This, though, would be tantamount to invoking two new operators to explain two discrepancies, and, hence, we desist from exploring this alternative any further.

It is obvious that the operator in Eq. (13) also modifies the \( Z\bar{b}b \) coupling, with the \( b \) now in the loop. However, probing this effect presents a bigger challenge. Even at an \( e^+e^- \) collider, \( t\bar{b} \) production is dominated by the photon mediated amplitude with \( e^+e^- \to Z^* \to t\bar{b} \) making a small contribution. Hence one needs to consider more complex processes. We shall return to this discussion in the next section.

### A. Other operator choices

As discussed in Sec. I, apart from the \( b \)-sector, some minor discrepancies also exist in the \( \tau \)-sector in the LEP data. One may, therefore, contemplate the introduction of an operator \( O_{RR}^t \) involving \( \tau s \) and \( b s \) analogous to \( O_{RR}^t \) above, in the hope that the two sets of discrepancies could perhaps be simultaneously explained. However, note that for \( O_{RR}^t \), \( N_C = 1 \) for \( \delta g_L^b \) and \( \delta g_L^t \), but for the corresponding corrections to \( g_{LL}^1 \) and \( g_{RR}^1 \). Thus, in general, the corrections to the \( Z\tau^+\tau^- \) couplings will be larger than those to \( Zbb \) couplings\(^8\). On the other hand, the disagreements between data and SM predictions are smaller in the case of the \( \tau \) observables. Hence, with \( O_{RR}^t \) alone, it is not possible to simultaneously generate the requisite corrections to all of \( g_{LL}^1 \), \( g_{RR}^1 \), \( g_{LL}^0 \), and \( g_{RR}^0 \). If one were to additionally consider \( O_{RL}^t \), \( O_{LR}^t \) and \( O_{LL}^t \) as well, it is indeed possible to arrange a conspiracy between the coefficients of the various operators such that the observed values of all couplings are obtained simultaneously. An easier path to such an explanation is offered by invoking a (set of) \( \tau\tau t \) operators along with \( O_{RR}^t \). This has the advantage of not upsetting any other low-energy observable to a significant degree. On the other hand, it is a construction that is barely testable in current experiments.

A much more intriguing possibility is offered where \( f \) (in Eq. (11)) is an exotic fermion. Clearly, few constraints apply to such operators, and it is much easier to arrange for the requisite shifts in \( g_{LR}^b \) as long as \( f \) itself does couple to the \( Z \). This is eminently possible, as for example in supersymmetric or extra-dimensional extensions of the SM. While many different choices for \( f \) are possible (as long as it is heavy enough not to have been found at the Tevatron or the LHC), a particularly interesting choice is that of \( f \) being the dark matter (DM) candidate itself. The tantalizing indications, over the years, for the existence of a DM particle (whether it be from cosmological data fitting, indirect evidence from satellite-based observations or direct earth-bound experiments), in the absence of actual discovery, has led to much speculation about its nature. It has been realized of late that, quite apart from dedicated DM search experiments, collider experiments can provide substantial information about the DM sector. Indeed, given the complete absence of any information, even dedicated DM searches only parametrize its interactions with matter through effective operators as in Eq. (11). The very same operators would also lead to DM pair production (in association with visible objects) at colliders. Thus, an excess in such channels (with the DM pair providing missing momentum) over the SM expectations would constitute a signal while a lack thereof would constrain the said interactions\(^9\).

The situation becomes particularly interesting if the DM particle couples to the SM sector preferentially through the third generation fermions\(^22\)\(^27\). Direct detection experiments would be rendered rather ineffectual. Even satellite-based indirect detection experiments would have reduced sensitivity. Although collider experiments too would suffer, the suppression in the cross-section is not that extreme. Aided by the possibility of tagging heavy flavours, LHC experiments would have the highest sensitivity (amongst all currently operating ones) to such operators\(^24\). Given this, it is worthwhile to consider this possibility as well. The formalism being identical to that we have delineated above, the results would only depend on the choices\(^9\) for the DM couplings to the \( b \)-current as well as to the \( Z \). And finally, while scalar DM is also a possibility, and may couple to both the \( Z \) as well as to a \( b \)-current, the corresponding corrections to the effective \( Zbb \) vertex would have a Lorentz structure that does not readily translate to a discernible shift in \( A_{FB}^L \).

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\(^8\) Although the correction term also carries a dependence on the mass of the fermion in the loop, the difference between \( m_\tau \) and \( m_b \) is small and cannot entirely offset the difference due to the colour factor.

\(^9\) It must be remembered though that if the DM is a Majorana fermion, it may not have a vector-like coupling to the \( Z \), whereas an axial coupling is allowed.
III. \( O_{RR} \) AT THE LHC

In the last section, we saw that the low energy constraints on the operator \( O_{RR} \) (or analogous ones) are not strong enough to call into question a possible role for it in the explanation of the anomaly in the \( Zb\bar{b} \) vertex. Thus, the only theatre for studying such an operator is provided by colliders. Although \( O_{RR} \) also engenders changes in the \( Zt\bar{t} \) vertex analogous to those wrought for the \( Zb\bar{b} \) one, such a change is of little relevance either at the LHC, or even at a linear collider\(^\text{10}\). And as we have already argued, loops induced by such operators do not generate any corrections to the electric or colour charge radii of the fermions. Although anomalous (chromo-)magnetic moments are indeed generated, once again, these are of little immediate concern as the change in, \( gg \rightarrow t\bar{t} \) is hardly discernible.

There, though, is a tree level subprocess that could receive a large contribution from \( O_{RR} \), namely \( b\bar{b} \rightarrow t\bar{t} \). Despite the smallness of the \( b \)-flux within the proton, the additional contribution to the cross-section, at \( \sqrt{s} = 13 \text{ TeV} \), can be as large as \( \sim 10\% \) for values of \( \xi/\Lambda^2 \) required to reproduce the correct \( \delta g_b \). While this might seem very promising in view of the accuracy in the \( t\bar{t} \) cross-section measurement (especially in the dilepton channel), note that the theoretical errors due to higher-order corrections and PDF ambiguities are much larger. The last mentioned is of particular relevance here as the \( b \)-flux is relatively poorly known. One might attempt to exploit the fact that owing to the higher-dimensional nature of the interaction term, the corresponding amplitude grows with energy. While this is certainly true at the subprocess level, the growth of the anomalous cross-section is muted owing to the rapid fall of the \( b \)-flux with Bjorken-\( x \). Moreover, reconstruction of \( m_{tt} \) is less efficient in the dilepton channel, whereas the use of the hadronic channels typically lead to larger experimental uncertainties. Given this situation, we desist from further consideration of this channel.

Instead, we consider the process \( pp \rightarrow t\bar{t}b\bar{b} \). With the introduction of \( O_{RR} \), several new diagrams come into play (see, for example, Fig. 3). At the LHC, the gluon-initiated contribution is, understandably, the dominant one. At first, it might seem that, owing to a different colour structure, the \( O_{RR} \) diagrams cannot interfere with the pure QCD ones. This argument, though, holds only for those pairs of diagrams wherein the \( O_{RR} \) vertex is replaced by a gluon propagator, and not in general.

![FIG. 3: Some of the new Feynman diagrams that come into play when \( O_{RR} \) is introduced.](image)

For a quantitative assessment, one must impose a minimal set of acceptance cuts on the final state particles. To this end, we require that the transverse momentum and the rapidity of the two primary \( b \)-jets satisfy

\[
p_T(b) > 50 \text{ GeV} , \quad |\eta(b)| < 2.5 , \quad \Delta R(b, \bar{b}) > 0.7 , \quad 75 \text{ GeV} < M(b, \bar{b}) < 135 \text{ GeV} .
\]

\(^{10}\) Even the best sensitivity, provided by a high-luminosity \( t\bar{t} \) threshold scan at the linear collider is not adequate to probe the required values of \( \xi \).
For a $pp$ collider operating at a centre-of-mass energy of 13 TeV, the SM prediction for the cross-section for this process as calculated using CalcHEP [26] is $\sim 60$ fb. This could be enhanced by as much as an order of magnitude for $(\Lambda, \xi)$ values consistent with the $Z \to b\bar{b}$ measurements (see Fig. 4). Owing to the higher-dimensional nature of the coupling, the excess would, typically, be concentrated in phase space regions corresponding to large momentum transfers. In Fig. 4 and Fig. 5, we show some such kinematic distributions. We find that rather than require individual particles to be harder or more central, as in Eq. (14), it is more profitable to impose stronger cuts on variables such as those appearing in Fig. 4 and Fig. 5.

Note that the QCD cross-section for the production of a $t\bar{t}$ pair alongside two well separated and hard jets is much larger than the $\sigma(t\bar{t}b\bar{b})$ that is quoted here. Thus, $b$-tagging is of prime importance. The corresponding efficiency has a strong dependence on $p_T(b)$, and thus, requiring it to be very large would lead to a drastic reduction in signal sizes. On the other hand, the typical values of $p_T(t/\bar{t})$ are not so large as to warrant worries pertaining to the identification of highly boosted tops. Thus, stiffening the cuts on the top momenta would seem to be called for. Reconstructing a top, however, is associated with certain limitations. With the additional bottom pair introducing further combinatoric ambiguities, the errors would be amplified to an extent. However, given that the NP cross-sections are significantly large, the nominal luminosity expected for the 13 TeV run of the LHC would be enough for a discovery even after accounting for the branching fractions, $b$-tagging efficiencies, combinatoric ambiguities as well as detector acceptance and efficiencies for a $\Lambda$ near 3 TeV. This contention is supported by the detailed simulation of Ref. [24], where production of Dark Matter particles in association with a top pair has been considered. Although the final state is different ($t\bar{t} + E_T$), the analysis is similar; the absence of the missing transverse momentum is amply compensated for by the two hard $b$-jets. Were one to admit smaller values of $\Lambda \sim 1$ TeV, large deviations from the SM would be expected even in the 8 TeV LHC data (see Fig 4). This mode, thus, is potentially the best bet for a direct confirmation of such an ansatz as presented here.

![Figure 4](image-url)

**FIG. 4:** $pp \to b\bar{b}t\bar{t}$ at $\sqrt{s} = 8$ TeV. **Left panel:** Invariant mass of the $b\bar{b}t\bar{t}$ system. **Right panel:** Transverse momentum of the $t\bar{t}$ system.

### IV. Conclusion

We have tried to gain some insight into the possible structure of NP at the TeV scale that might successfully address the mismatch between measurements and theoretical predictions of $R_\phi$ and $A_{FB}^b$. We have used a bottom-up approach, not being confined to any specific model, with the sole assumption being that the NP couples only to the third generation fermions. While there can be several such operators with different fermion fields and Lorentz structures, electroweak precision data and B physics observables already put severe constraints on the Wilson coefficients of most of these operators. The quest for an operator that can resolve the anomalies while being relatively unconstrained has motivated us to work with one involving right-chiral top and bottom quark fields. At the same time, other choices are also possible, e.g., one with $b$ quarks and dark matter particles that couple to the $Z$.

The four-fermion operators arise from a more fundamental theory at the higher scale. We perform our analysis in the spirit of an effective theory, with a high cut-off at the TeV scale (possibly indicative of the NP masses). The shifts in the $Zb\bar{b}$ couplings are caused by the parameters of the full theory, and we can only make the leading-order
FIG. 5: \( pp \rightarrow bb\bar{t} \) at \( \sqrt{s} = 13 \) TeV. Left panel: Invariant mass of the \( bb\bar{t} \) system. Right panel: Transverse momentum of the \( t\bar{t} \) system.

estimate of these in the effective theory. It turns out that there is a significant region in the parameter space that is consistent with the \( R_b \) and \( A_{FB}^{b\bar{b}} \) data, without being in contradiction with other observables.

Finally, we look for the possible signals of this operator at the LHC. Although \( bb \rightarrow t\bar{t} \) is the lowest order process that features the new coupling, given the experimental as well as theoretical uncertainties, the sensitivity is likely to be low. On the other hand, \( pp \rightarrow t\bar{b}b \) is far amenable to this task. We find that several observables would show a clear deviation from the SM, thus opening up clear channels to investigate such interactions. The results will be eagerly anticipated.

**Appendix A: Analytic Expressions**

We parametrize the \( Zb\bar{b} \) vertex within the Standard Model by

\[
\frac{ig}{2 \cos \theta_W} \bar{b} \gamma^\mu (v_b + a_b^\mu \gamma_5) b.
\]  

(A1)

The one-loop correction to this vertex on account of the interaction of eqn. (11) is given by the diagram of Fig. 6.

The expression for the corresponding correction is given by

\[
\frac{g_{NC} \xi}{2 \cos \theta_W \Lambda^2} [\bar{b} \gamma_\alpha (v_b + a_b \gamma_5) b] \cdot \Gamma^{\mu\alpha}.
\]  

(A2)

where

\[
\Gamma^{\mu\alpha} = - \int \frac{d^4 k}{(2\pi)^4} Tr \left[ \gamma^\mu (v_Z^\mu + a_Z^\mu \gamma_5) (\slashed{k} + m_f) \gamma^\alpha (v_f + a_f \gamma_5) (\slashed{k} + \slashed{p}_1 + m_f) \right] \left( k^2 - m_f^2 \right) \left( k^2 + m_f^2 \right) \left( k^2 - m_f^2 \right).
\]  

(A3)
Evaluating the integral using dimensional regularization, the finite part of the correction is given by (note that $\chi < 0$ denotes the presence of a threshold)

$$
\Gamma^{\mu \alpha} = \frac{i g^{\mu \alpha}}{4\pi^2} J 
$$

(A4)

with

$$
J = \frac{2}{3} A_+ p_1^2 \left[ \frac{1}{2} \ln \left( \frac{m_f^2}{\Lambda^2} \right) + \frac{1}{6} - \frac{3}{2} \chi - \frac{3}{2} + \sqrt{\chi} \left( 3 + 4 \chi \right) \tan^{-1} \left( \frac{1}{2\sqrt{\chi}} \right) \right]
$$

$$
- m_f^2 (A_+ - A_-) \left[ \ln \left( \frac{m_f^2}{\Lambda^2} \right) - 2 + 4\sqrt{\chi} \tan^{-1} \left( \frac{1}{2\sqrt{\chi}} \right) \right],
$$

(A5)

where

$$
\chi = \frac{m_f^2}{p_1^2} - \frac{1}{4}, \quad A_\pm = v_2^{\pm} v_f \pm a_2^{\pm} a_f.
$$

(A6)

In other words, on the inclusion of NP,

$$
v_2^{L} \rightarrow v_2^{L} + \frac{N_C}{4\pi^2} \xi J ; \quad a_2^{L} \rightarrow a_2^{L} + \frac{N_C}{4\pi^2} \xi J
$$

(A7)

or, in terms of $g_L^b$ and $g_R^b$,

$$
g_L^b \rightarrow g_L^b + \left( \frac{v_b - a_b}{2} \right) \frac{N_C}{4\pi^2} \xi J \quad \text{and} \quad g_R^b \rightarrow g_R^b + \left( \frac{v_b + a_b}{2} \right) \frac{N_C}{4\pi^2} \xi J
$$

(A8)

Acknowledgements

AK acknowledges support from CSIR, India, and the DRS programme of UGC, India. PS would like to acknowledge financial support from NSERC, Canada.

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