

Thesis Title

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There are many people that have earned my gratitude for their contribution to my time in graduate school.

Dedication

To those who held me up over the years

Abstract

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Chapter 1

Introduction

The goal of this work is to study and understand properties of one of the most mysterious elementary particles in the universe - neutrinos. Neutrino is chargeless and has mass which is less by many orders of magnitude than masses of others fundamental particles. It is known that neutrinos could interact only through weak and gravitational forces which leads to a several light years of mean free path in the matter. Despite their tiny mass and weak interaction with the matter, they are very interesting not only to elementary particle physics community but also to cosmologists and astrophysicists. Neutrinos carry away almost all energy of supernova explosion and can tell a lot about a dying star's internal structure and the last seconds of its life. Neutrino telescopes may open a new window for Universe observation and give a unique look into phenomena which could not be seen by conventional telescopes. These light, electrically neutral particles also can show physicists a possible direction towards new physics. The list of examples why neutrinos are important continues to grow, and it gives a sense that neutrino physics is a very rich and interesting subject to study.

In addition, neutrinos take part in one more fascinating phenomenon called neutrino oscillations. While produced in one flavour after travel some distance neutrino is changing its flavour to another one in an oscillatory way. The NOvA - NuMI¹ Off-axis Neutrino Appearance - experiment was designed to study properties of these oscillations.

¹Neutrino at the Main Injector

There are several parameters which fully describe neutrino oscillations and analysis presented in this work is focused on measuring $\sin^2 \theta_{23}$ and $|\Delta m_{32}^2|$. The measurements come from studying a specific mode of the oscillations: $\nu_\mu \rightarrow \nu_\mu$.

Here is a brief outline of the work

- Chapter 2 briefly presents the history of neutrino discovery and observation of neutrino oscillations.
- Chapter 3 discusses corresponding theory behind the neutrino oscillation physics together with the current measurements of the parameters describing these oscillations.
- Chapter 4 describes the NOvA experiment design and its two most significant parts - Far and Near Detectors.
- Chapter 5 provides details on Monte Carlo simulations used in the analysis.
- Chapter 6 follows the reconstruction chain from raw data to high level objects such as slices, tracks etc. Energy estimation algorithm is considered.
- Chapter 7 hashes out the strategy for analysis and presents the data and simulated sets that will be used in the analysis.
- Chapter 8 discusses event selection and background reduction processes for the contained and uncontained samples.
- Chapter 9 gives predictions for selected events in Far Detector
- In Chapter 10 all the systematics are discussed.
- Chapter 11 presents a final discussion of the analyses presented in the thesis.

Chapter 2

Neutrino and its oscillation

2.1 History of neutrino discoveries

The energy spectrum of beta decay electrons was accurately measured by James Chadwick in 1914 [1]. Previous attempts by Lise Meitner and Otto Hahn in 1911 and Jean Danysz in 1913 showed hints that the electron energy spectrum was continuous. At the time this was an obvious contradiction with laws of energy and angular momentum conservation. A nucleus emitting an electron changes its state and energy of the electron should be equal to the energy difference of two nucleus' states. After several attempts to explain the mystery of beta decay Wolfgang Pauli postulated [2] that beta decay is actually a three particle decay. He called the third particle "neutron" - an electrically neutral and very light particle - and it was responsible for carrying away some portion of the energy which leads to continuous electron energy spectrum. Two years later in 1932 an actual neutron - the proton's partner inside a nucleus - was discovered by Chadwick [3]. To avoid confusion Enrico Fermi proposed a new name for Pauli's particle [4] - neutrino, which means "little neutral one".

It took more than 20 years for the first neutrino to be observed. In 1956 Reines and Cowan made a direct observation of a neutrino [5], whose flavor was later recognized as an electron anti-neutrino $\bar{\nu}_e$. An anti-neutrino was produced in a nuclear fission reactor via neutron decay

$$n \rightarrow p + e^- + \bar{\nu}_e. \tag{2.1}$$

An anti-neutrino interacted with a proton in a detector and produced positron and neutron

$$\bar{\nu}_e + p \rightarrow e^+ + n. \quad (2.2)$$

A signature of both processes, and thus evidence of the neutrino, was observed by a detector in the following way. An anti-neutrino interacted with a proton to produce a positron and neutron. The positron annihilated with an electron and produced two photons. Shortly after the neutron was captured by a nucleus and emitted another photon. Two photons followed by a third one gave an indication of a neutrino interaction inside the detector. For the detection of the neutrino the Nobel Prize was awarded to Reines in 1995.

In 1962 the neutrino family was expanded by observation of the second type of neutrino - a muon neutrino ν_μ . Leon Lederman, Melvin Schwartz, and Jack Steinberger used the world's largest accelerator at Brookhaven National Laboratory to direct protons into fixed target in order to produce charged pions. Those pions subsequently decayed to (anti)muons and muon (anti)neutrinos. At the end of pion decay pipe plates made of steel and lead were installed to absorb muons. Beyond the metal absorbers a spark chamber was placed where neutrino interactions similar to (2.2) occurred,

$$\nu_\mu + n \rightarrow \mu^- + p, \quad \bar{\nu}_\mu + p \rightarrow \mu^+ + n. \quad (2.3)$$

After processing all experimental data 34 muon neutrino interactions were found with a single muon track in the spark chamber [6]. In 1988 the group was awarded the Nobel Prize for their discovery of the muon neutrino.

The discovery of weak gauge bosons at CERN by UA1 and UA2 collaborations [7], [8] in 1983 provided new ways to study particles interacting via weak bosons. Careful measurements of the Z boson decay rates helped to establish the total number of neutrinos which interact through W^\pm and Z bosons. ALEPH detector on the Large Electron Positron collider at CERN determined [9] in 1989 that only three different neutrinos participate in weak interactions. Sterile neutrinos, which do not interact weakly, are still not ruled out and searches are on going.

ALEPH experiment had suggested that a third neutrino should be associated with the tau lepton which was discovered in 1975 [10]. The Direct Observation of Nu Tau

(DONUT) experiment was setup at Fermilab in 2000 and looked for reactions

$$\nu_\tau + n \rightarrow \tau^- + p, \quad \bar{\nu}_\tau + p \rightarrow \tau^+ + n. \quad (2.4)$$

The general idea of the DONUT experiment was similar to the experiment conducted at Brookhaven National Lab in the early 1960s. A proton beam was directed into a fixed target resulting in a shower of meson and baryons. In order to decrease the background of ν_μ neutrinos deflecting magnets were installed along the decay pipe to remove muons which produce ν_μ neutrinos upon decaying. Tau neutrinos were produced by the $D_S \rightarrow \tau + \nu_\tau$ process, and as many as 4 tau neutrino interactions were observed [11]. This number of interactions was sufficient to confirm the existence of the tau neutrino.

2.2 Neutrino oscillations

The first idea of neutrino oscillations appeared in the work of Bruno Pontecorvo in 1957 [12]. Even though at the time only one neutrino flavor was known, Bruno described the mixing of electron neutrinos and antineutrinos. Later when the muon neutrino was discovered the physicists Maki, Nakagawa, and Sakata used Pontecorvo's framework [13] to describe oscillations of neutrino flavor. After the discovery of the tau neutrino, a third neutrino was added to the oscillation picture.

Before Ray Davis and collaborators' observation of solar neutrino deficit in the 1960's [14], neutrino oscillations were considered possible but hardly realistic. Using the standard solar model the total number of electron neutrino coming from the sun was predicted by John Bahcall [15]. However, an obvious deficit of solar neutrinos was observed. Later, more advanced observations of solar neutrino flux were conducted in Japan - Super-Kamiokande [16], and in Sudbury Neutrino Observatory [17]. Both observations matched prior measurements, but contradicted predictions. This solar neutrino problem is eloquently explained in the framework of neutrino oscillations. In the following section a theoretical description of neutrino oscillations will be given.

Chapter 3

Physics of Neutrinos

3.1 Standard Model in a nutshell

Since ancient times people were trying to understand the world around them. From first world models of ancient Greeks to modern theories scientists tried to use limited number of entities to describe phenomena happened in nature - Democritus's indivisible atoms, Plato's elements (air, fire, water, earth) or elementary particles of the Standard Model. We do not have enough time to go over all theories but rather we concentrate on the latest and the most accurate one called Standard Model.

Elementary particles of the Standard Model are building blocks and glue of everything we can see around us¹. However, the most fascinating thing about the Model is that underlying principles which governs it are principles of symmetry, namely, gauge symmetry and Lorentz symmetry. The Standard Model's group is

$$SU(3) \times SU(2) \times U(1), \tag{3.1}$$

where group $SU(3)$ describes strong interactions and $SU(2) \times U(1)$ describes electroweak interactions². The different mathematical properties of the groups naturally split

¹As of today, Standard Model and Einstein's General Theory of Relativity could not fully explain motion of galaxies and exponential expansion of the Universe. Two more entities were introduced - dark matter for former phenomenon and dark energy for latter one.

²Gravitational interaction falls out of the picture since for the last one hundred years gravity is described by deformation of space-time continuum. Nevertheless, the attempts to rewrite gravity using the same language of groups and unified it with Standard Model never were given up. In fact, all latest

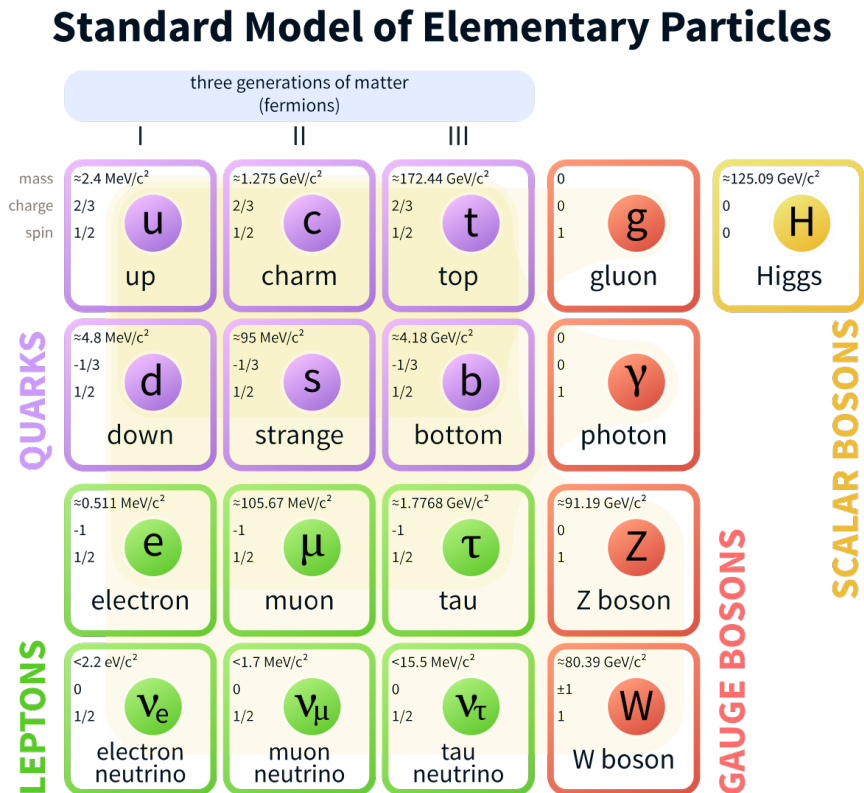


Figure 3.1: Elementary Particles in the Standard Model.

All particles could be divided into 2 groups: fermions and bosons. Fermions are further divided into quarks with fractional charges and leptons - charged ones (e, μ, τ) and neutral (ν_e, ν_μ, ν_τ). All the fermions participate in strong, weak and (only charged ones) electromagnetic interactions. These interactions are mediated by massless gluons (g), massive weak bosons W^\pm and Z^0 and massless photon (γ). The Higgs boson is last discovered particle and is responsible for all other particles' masses.

the particles into two categories based on their spins: bosons and fermions. Fermions are particles with half-integer spin and bosons are particles with integer spin (in units of \hbar). The matter consists of fermions while bosons serve for carrying interactions between matter particles.

Fermions in the Standard Model are represented by quarks and leptons. Quarks make up protons and neutrons and have fractional charge - up, charm and top quarks have charge $+\frac{2}{3}e$, while down, strange and bottom have $-\frac{1}{3}e$. Quarks also have strong charge - color - which could be one of three options: green, red or blue. The interesting fact is that the quarks are not observable in the same sense as electrons could be observable and only three (baryon) or two-quark (meson) combinations exist³. This phenomenon is called quark confinement with no complete explanation as of today.

The other sector of the Standard Model - lepton sector - consists of negatively charged electron, muon and tau particles as well as neutral neutrinos. These particles participate only in weak and electromagnetic interactions. Moreover, electron and electron neutrino possess an electron lepton number, similar for muon and tau. Lepton numbers are known to be conserved in every process, for example, muon decay produces not only electron but corresponding muon neutrino and electron antineutrino. Although attempts to observe lepton number violation are being made.

As can be seen from the figure (3.1) fermions are splitted into three generations. The mass of each subsequent generation is bigger by at least two orders of magnitude. The matter we observe around us is made of particles from first generation. Why do other generations exist? Why are there only three generations at all? Physicists do not know the answer to this questions yet as well as to the question of gigantic (10^{11}) mass difference between the lightest and the heaviest particles.

The last but not the least sector of the Standard Model is boson sector. This sector is represented by particles which mediate electromagnetic, weak and strong interactions. The photon (γ) is spin-1 massless electromagnetic force carrier and is responsible for almost all phenomena a person experiences in his/her life - from the Sun's light to the frictions and atoms bounds in chemical elements. Only charged particles interact through photon exchange.

unified theories were based on groups of high dimensions where one of the most promising theories is String Theory.

³Recently, five quark combinations have been discovered

The strong force carrier is spin-1 massless gluon (g). Gluon exchange makes quarks to be tightly bound inside baryons - protons, neutron etc - or mesons - π , ρ etc. While photon is electrically neutral and can not interact directly with other photons gluon is carrying color or rather color-anticolor and can interact with other gluons. As mentioned above only specific combinations of quarks are observable - colorless combinations - three quarks of different colors or quark-antiquark pair with color-anticolor charge. In strong interaction quark changes its color by emitting gluon, for example, a blue quark emits blue-antired gluon and becomes a red quark.

The weak force carriers are spin-1 massive W^\pm and Z^0 bosons. All the Standard Model fermions could interact via weak bosons exchange. The weak interaction plays a major role in radiodecays and is the only way to study neutrinos since these particles do not participate in strong or electromagnetic interactions.

Among Standard Model interactions only electromagnetic one has an infinite range while others are short range interactions due to massive (weak) and color charged (strong) force carriers. The relative strength of interactions are not very meaningful as it depends on energies one uses for measurements but still can provide useful information. Strong, electromagnetic and weak interactions relate to each other as $1 : 10^{-3} : 10^{-16}$.

The masses and couplings are free parameters of the Standard Model and could be chosen in a such way that theory's predictions match observations. The fact that weak bosons have masses makes it hard to incorporate them into the theory based on gauge symmetry. However, Higgs mechanism does it in an elegant way by introducing one more entity - Higgs field - and a corresponding carrier - Higgs boson. Higgs boson is the last particle of the Standard Model and the only one with spin-0.

In addition, each particle has an antiparticle with the same mass and spin but opposite charge. Interaction of the particle and its antiparticle leads to annihilation with two photons being emitted. It is known that our Universe consists primarily of matter and not antimatter⁴. Why did that happen during the early universe is a mystery for now, however, CP -symmetry⁵ violation is partially responsible for this and NOvA experiment can shed some light on the problem.

⁴What to call matter and what antimatter is an arbitrary choice.

⁵Charge-Parity symmetry - $q \rightarrow -q$, $\vec{r} \rightarrow -\vec{r}$.

3.2 Oscillations in Vacuum

Neutrinos are massive elementary particles which participate in weak interactions and are immune to electromagnetic and strong interactions. They also participate in gravitational interactions, but since gravity is many orders of magnitude smaller in comparison to other forces one can neglect gravity effects completely, at least on energy scale of modern experiments. There are three types of neutrinos - with definite flavor - electron (ν_e), muon (ν_μ) and tau (ν_τ) neutrinos. These flavor neutrinos are eigenstates of the weak Hamiltonian and they can be produced or destroyed only in weak interactions via exchange of the weak gauge bosons W^\pm and Z . The neutrino mass eigenstates do not coincide with flavor eigenstates, and this leads to neutrino oscillations.

As was mentioned before flavor neutrinos are produced in weak interactions, but mass eigenstates are responsible for neutrino propagation through space. One can decompose the flavor eigenstates ($|\nu_e\rangle, |\nu_\mu\rangle, |\nu_\tau\rangle$) into linear combinations of mass eigenstates ($|\nu_1\rangle, |\nu_2\rangle, |\nu_3\rangle$).

$$|\nu_f\rangle = \sum_{f=e,\mu,\tau} U_{fi} |\nu_i\rangle. \quad (3.2)$$

The matrix U_{fi} is a 3×3 unitary matrix and is called the lepton mixing matrix or PMNS (Pontecorvo, Maki, Nakagawa, Sakata) matrix. U_{fi} encodes the neutrino mixing parameters such as θ_{12} , θ_{13} , θ_{23} and phase δ which is responsible for CP violation in weak interactions. The convenient parametrization is as follows:

$$U_{fi} = \begin{pmatrix} c_{12}c_{13} & s_{12}c_{13} & s_{13}e^{-i\delta} \\ -s_{12}c_{23} - c_{12}s_{23}s_{13}e^{i\delta} & c_{12}c_{23} - s_{12}s_{23}s_{13}e^{i\delta} & s_{23}c_{13} \\ s_{12}s_{23} - c_{12}c_{23}s_{13}e^{i\delta} & -c_{12}s_{23} - s_{12}c_{23}s_{13}e^{i\delta} & c_{23}c_{13} \end{pmatrix}, \quad (3.3)$$

where $c_{ij} = \cos(\theta_{ij})$ and $s_{ij} = \sin(\theta_{ij})$.

Quantum mechanics governs how mass eigenstates propagate through space. Using the Schrodinger equation $-i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} |\psi\rangle = H |\psi\rangle$ one can derive a solution for neutrino wave function at the point (x, t) of space-time starting with the wave function at the point

$(0, 0)$. Using the free Hamiltonian for neutrino mass eigenstates one derives ⁶

$$|\nu_i(x, t)\rangle = e^{-i(E_i t - p_i x)} |\nu_i(0, 0)\rangle. \quad (3.4)$$

Neutrino masses m_i are much less in comparison neutrino energy in all experiments and the next ultra-relativistic approximation could be used

$$p_i = \sqrt{E_i^2 - m_i^2} \approx E_i - \frac{m_i^2}{2E_i}, \quad (3.5)$$

moreover, in this limit neutrino travels almost at the speed of light, so final solution for neutrino wave function with the mass m_i is

$$|\nu_i(L)\rangle = e^{-i\frac{m_i^2}{2E}L} |\nu_i(0)\rangle, \quad (3.6)$$

where L is distance which the neutrino traveled.

If one creates a neutrino of flavor f at $t = 0$ and energy E then the probability that at the distance L from the neutrino source one observes a neutrino with flavor f' is

$$\begin{aligned} P_{\nu_f \rightarrow \nu_{f'}}(L, E) &= |\langle \nu_{f'}(0) | \nu_{f'}(L) \rangle|^2 \\ &= \left| \left(\sum_i \langle \nu_i(0) | U_{fi}^* \right) \left(\sum_{i'} e^{-i\frac{m_{i'}^2}{2E}L} U_{f'i'} |\nu_{i'}(0)\rangle \right) \right|^2 \\ &= \left| \sum_i U_{fi}^* U_{f'i} e^{-i\frac{m_i^2}{2E}L} \right|^2 \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^3 \sum_{j=1}^3 U_{fi}^* U_{f'i} U_{f'j}^* U_{fj} e^{-i\frac{\Delta m_{ij}^2}{2E}L}, \end{aligned} \quad (3.7)$$

where standard notation $\Delta m_{ij}^2 = m_i^2 - m_j^2$ was used. After a little bit of mathematics the last expression can be rewritten in the following form

$$P_{\nu_f \rightarrow \nu_{f'}}(L, E) = \delta_{ff'} - 4 \sum_{i>i'} \Re(U_{fi} U_{f'i}^* U_{f'j}^* U_{fj}) \sin^2 \left(\frac{\Delta m_{ij}^2}{4E} L \right) +$$

⁶Natural units are used everywhere.

$$+ 2 \sum_{i>i'} \Im(U_{fi} U_{fi'}^* U_{f'i}^* U_{f'i'}) \sin\left(\frac{\Delta m_{ij}^2}{2E} L\right). \quad (3.8)$$

It is worth noting that the oscillation probabilities depend on neutrino mass difference squared, therefore all neutrino oscillation experiments are sensitive only to Δm_{ij}^2 . Also, in the case of a CP violation phase $\delta = 0$ the last term in (3.8) disappears and the oscillation probabilities are identical for neutrinos and antineutrinos. For the purpose of the experiment it is convenient to have the last equation when Δm_{ij} , E and L are expressed in eV^2 , GeV and km respectively

$$\frac{\Delta m_{ij}^2}{2E} L \rightarrow 1.27 \frac{\Delta m_{ij}^2 [eV^2]}{E [GeV]} L [km] = \Delta_{ij}. \quad (3.9)$$

The probabilities which are being measured by the NO ν A experiment are the probabilities of muon neutrino disappearance and electron neutrino appearance

$$P_{\nu_\mu \rightarrow \nu_\mu}(L, E) \approx 1 - \sin^2 2\theta_{23} \sin^2 \Delta_{32}, \quad (3.10)$$

$$P_{\nu_\mu \rightarrow \nu_e}(L, E) \approx P_{atm} + P_{sol} + 2\sqrt{P_{atm} P_{sol}} (\cos \Delta_{32} \cos \delta \mp \sin \Delta_{32} \sin \delta), \quad (3.11)$$

with

$$P_{atm} = \sin^2 \theta_{23} \sin^2 2\theta_{13} \sin^2 \Delta_{31}, \quad P_{sol} \approx \cos^2 \theta_{23} \cos^2 \theta_{13} \sin^2 2\theta_{12} \Delta_{21}^2, \quad (3.12)$$

where the "-" sign in (3.11) is for the neutrino and the "+" sign is for the anti-neutrino.

3.3 Oscillations in Matter

Each neutrino studied by the NO ν A experiment travels through the Earth's crust for more than 810 km. While propagating through matter, neutrinos interact with medium constituting particles which leads to changes in neutrino oscillations. Since interaction going through exchange of only weak gauge bosons there are two types of possible interaction: (i) neutrino emits Z boson - neutral current (NC) interaction and (ii) neutrino emits W^\pm boson - charged current (CC) interaction. In matter all three flavors of neutrinos interact through exchange Z boson with electrons, protons and neutrons.

But only for electron neutrino there is another possibility - interaction through exchange W^+ boson with electrons as can be seen in the figure (??).

Accounting for interactions between neutrinos and all matter found on Earth adds two additional terms to the Hamiltonian which describes neutrino propagation - effective potential,

$$V_C = \sqrt{2}G_F N_e \quad \text{and} \quad V_N = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}G_F N_n, \quad (3.13)$$

where G_F is Fermi constant, N_e and N_n electron and neutron number density respectively. The second term effectively shifts all $m_i^2 \rightarrow m_i^2 + 2|\mathbf{p}|V_N$ and does not have an effect on Δm_{ij} . The first term V_C enters the Hamiltonian in a such way that it has an influence only on the electron neutrino ν_e , and has the opposite influence on electron anti-neutrino $\bar{\nu}_e$. After further calculations one can derive the following corrected expressions for Δm_{32} and $\sin 2\theta_{13}$ in the presence of matter

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta m_{32}^2 \Big|_{mat} &= \sqrt{(\Delta m_{32}^2 \sin 2\theta_{13})^2 + (\Delta m_{32}^2 \cos 2\theta_{13} \mp 2E_\nu V_C)^2} \\ \sin 2\theta_{13} \Big|_{mat} &= \frac{\Delta m_{32}^2 \sin 2\theta_{13}}{\sqrt{(\Delta m_{32}^2 \sin 2\theta_{13})^2 + (\Delta m_{32}^2 \cos 2\theta_{13} \mp 2E_\nu V_C)^2}} \end{aligned} \quad (3.14)$$

The matter effect has a significant influence on ν_e appearance probability and in the first approximation

$$P_{\nu_\mu \rightarrow \nu_e}(E, L) \Big|_{mat} = \left(1 \pm \frac{2E_\nu V_C}{\Delta m_{32}^2}\right) P_{\nu_\mu \rightarrow \nu_e}(E, L), \quad (3.15)$$

where the "+" sign is for the neutrino and the "-" sign is for the antineutrino. This effect is known as the Mikheyev-Smirnov-Wolfenstein (MSW) effect, and for the NO ν A experiment it plays an important role in helping to determine the CP violating phase δ_{CP} .

It is worth noting that assigning specific masses to specific mass states are completely arbitrary, but it is known from experimental data that two masses are much closer to each other in comparison with the third mass. These two masses are called m_1 and m_2 , with $m_2 > m_1$ and $\Delta m_{12} \ll |\Delta m_{32}| \approx |\Delta m_{31}|$. However, the sign of Δm_{32} is still unknown. That leaves two possibilities which are called normal hierarchy (NH) and inverted hierarchy (IH). Figure (??) illustrates the neutrino mass distributions. The

$\text{NO}\nu\text{A}$ experiment will be able to determine which hierarchy is realized in nature.

Chapter 4

The NOvA Experiment

The neutrinos studied by NOvA begin at Fermi National Accelerator Laboratory (Fermilab) in Illinois. An intense muon (anti-)neutrino beam is created at Fermilab by the Neutrino at the Main Injector (NuMI) source. NOvA, which stands for NuMI Off-Axis ν_e Appearance, is a long baseline experiment which is designed to determine the neutrino mass hierarchy, the octant of θ_{23} , and to measure the CP violating phase δ_{CP} by measuring electron (anti-)neutrino appearance probability and muon (anti-)neutrino disappearance. It consists of the Near Detector (ND), which is located at Fermilab and measures total flux of neutrino, and the Far Detector (FD), which is located near Ash River, Minnesota and measures flux of muon and electron neutrinos. The structures of the NuMI source and the Near and Far Detectors, and the detector positions relative to the beam axis will be explained in the following sections.

4.1 NuMI and Off-Axis Detectors Position

Neutrinos for the NOvA experiments comes from decay of pions and kaons. To get a beam of the mesons Main Injector at Fermilab is used, which provides an intense beam of proton with energy 120 GeV. The structure of NuMI is illustrated on figure (4.1). It is designed to deliver 4.9×10^{13} proton on target (POT) with the repetition rate of 1.3s, which corresponds to 700 kW of beam power. The proton beam is directed into a graphite target. Collisions between the proton beam and graphite target produces many types of hadrons and mesons, with pions and kaons among them. Magnetic focusing

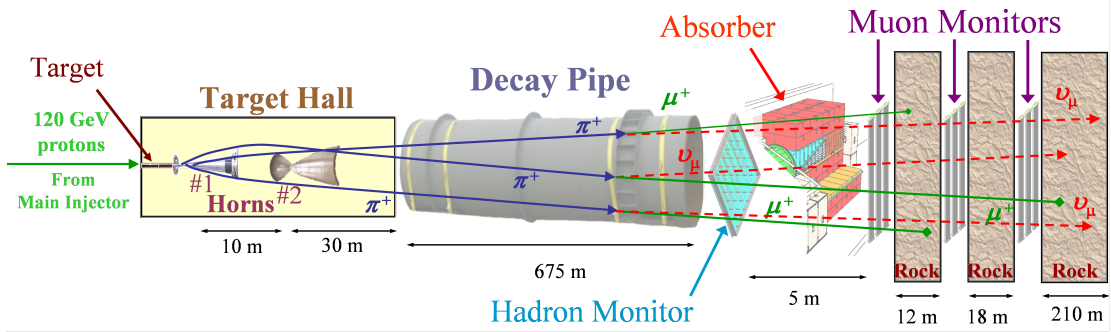
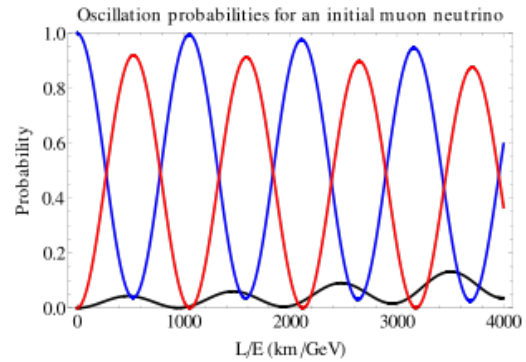


Figure 4.1: Schematics of neutrino production[?].

horns, which are supplied with current of 200kA, are used to focus and direct charged pions and kaons into a decay pipe. The decay pipe is long enough such that nearly all of the incoming pions and kaons decay before the end of the pipe. More than 99% of all pions and 63% of kaons decay into anti-muon/muon and muon/anti-muon neutrino, so the flux of particles at the end of the decay pipe consists of mostly muons and muon anti-neutrinos, or their antiparticles. By changing the electric current direction in the focusing horns one can switch between positively and negatively charged pions and kaons which enter the decay pipe. This gives an opportunity to make two types of neutrino beams - ν_μ 's and $\bar{\nu}_\mu$'s. Unfortunately, 5% of charged kaons have electron neutrinos among their byproducts, and this is an irreducible background for an electron neutrino analysis. All the relatively long lived charged particles such as muons and electrons do not reach Near Detector as they get absorbed in rock. A hadron monitor, absorber and muon monitor are placed at the end of decay pipe to better understand beam properties, but they do not play any role in the NOvA experiment.

After the neutrinos leave the decay pipe they begin their journey to the near and far detectors. There are a few reasons why the NOvA detectors are placed 14.6 mrad off-axis of the NuMI beam. As can be seen on the picture on the right, the first minimum of muon neutrino survival probability and first maximum of electron



neutrino appearance probability are around 400 km/GeV but on-axis neutrino spectrum (black line on left picture (4.2)) does not allow to observe first maximum of $P(\nu_\mu \rightarrow \nu_e)$ for a baseline 1000 km. The solution is simple: pions and kaons decay isotropically in their rest frame but after Lorentz boost to laboratory frame flux and neutrino energy at the far detector (for small off-axis angles θ) can be expressed in the following form

$$F = \left(\frac{2\gamma}{1 + \gamma^2\theta^2} \right)^2 \frac{A}{4\pi d} \quad (4.1)$$

$$E_\nu = \frac{0.43E_\pi}{1 + \gamma^2\theta^2}, \quad (4.2)$$

where $\gamma = \frac{E_\pi}{m_\pi}$, A is the size of the detector front area and d is the distance to the detector. For kaons numerical factor 0.43 should be changed to 0.96. Knowing the pion and kaon energy spectrum at the NuMI source, one can predict the neutrino energy spectrum at the far detector for different off-axis angles θ . As shown on left side of Figure 4.2, the neutrino energy distribution gets narrower and shifts toward smaller energies. At 14.6 mrad the neutrino flux is still moderate and peaked near 2 GeV, which allows NOvA to study the region of maximal $P(\nu_\mu \rightarrow \nu_e)$ at 810 km. Moreover, the narrow peak decreases the chance that NC events from more energetic neutrinos could be misidentified as CC events in the energy region of interest. In general, the off-axis detector placement significantly improves the sensitivity of the probability measurement.

4.2 NOvA Near and Far Detectors

The NOvA experiment utilizes two detectors for measuring muon neutrino disappearance probability $P(\nu_\mu \rightarrow \nu_\mu)$ and electron neutrino appearance probability $P(\nu_\mu \rightarrow \nu_e)$. In order to decrease systematic uncertainties, such as beam uncertainty and uncertainties due to variation in detector efficiency, two detectors are build with exactly the same material and similar geometry. The Near Detector is placed 1 km from the NuMI source at Fermilab, while the Far Detector sits 810 km away on the surface and 14.6 mrad off beam axis in Ash River, Minnesota. The Near Detector weighs 330 metric ton and is 105 m underground, while the Far Detector mass is 14,000 ton and has shielding equivalent

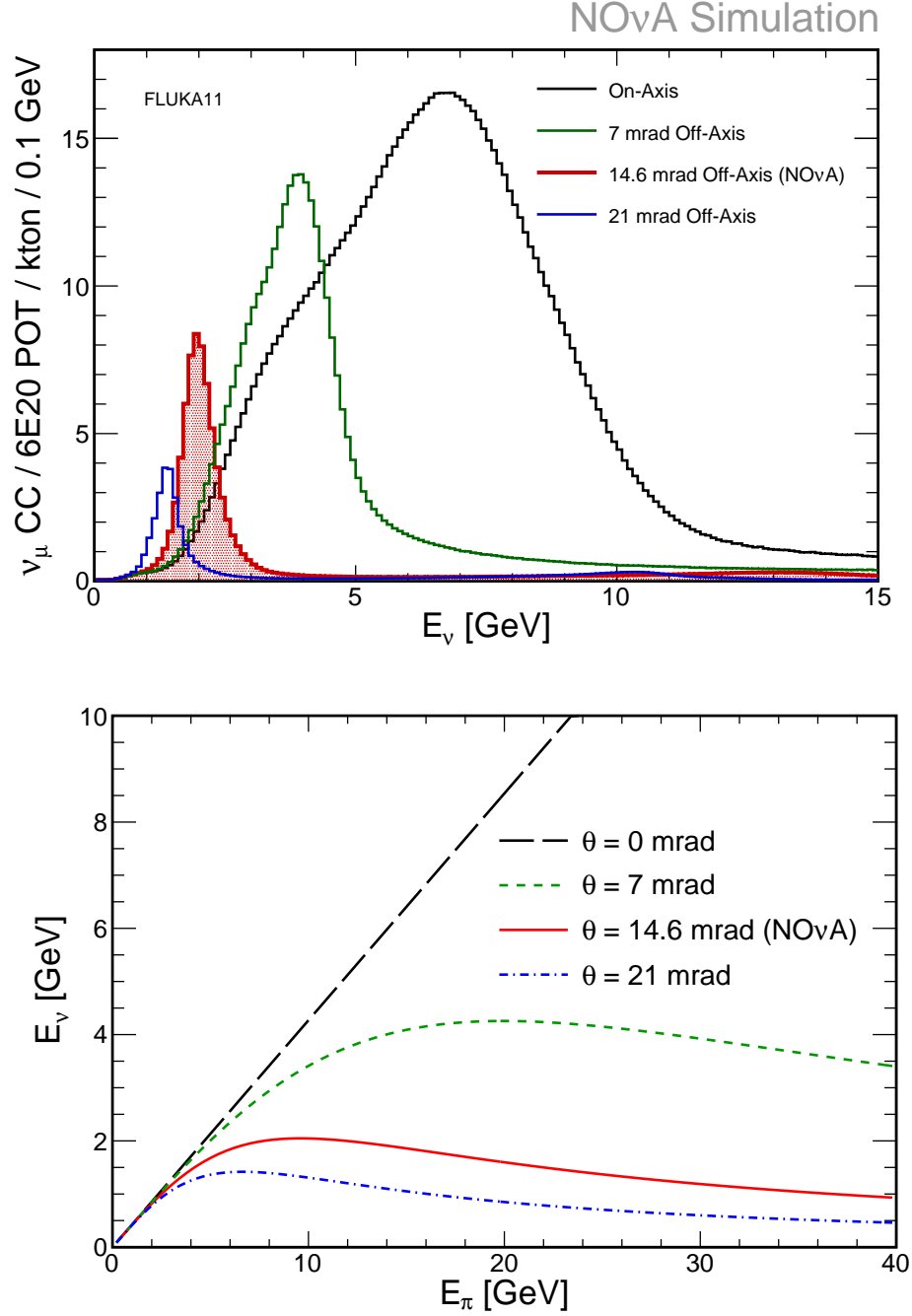


Figure 4.2: (Left) Expected unoscillated neutrino spectrum at the Far Detector as a function of angle relative to NuMI beam. (Right) Neutrino oscillation probabilities as a function of $\frac{L}{E}$, $P(\nu_\mu \rightarrow \nu_\mu)$ - blue line, $P(\nu_\mu \rightarrow \nu_e)$ - black line and $P(\nu_\mu \rightarrow \nu_\tau)$ - red line.

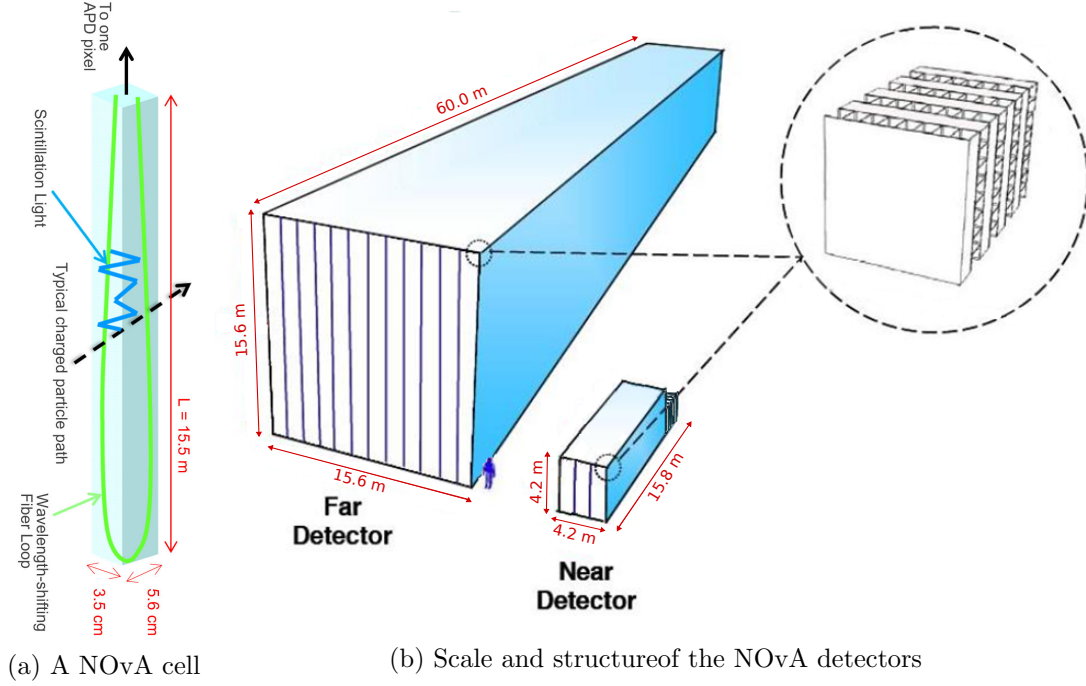


Figure 4.3: Structure of cell and the NOvA detectors

to 3 m of rock which reduces cosmic ray background.

4.2.1 From cells to planes and blocks

Each detector is made of cells which are made from polyvinyl chloride (PVC) doped with titanium dioxide to increase light reflectivity. The cross section of cells has rectangular shape with sizes approximately equal to 4 cm and 6 cm. The length of the cells is varies between the detectors and equals to 4 m for the Near Detector and 15 m for the Far Detector. 32 cells are bound together along 6 cm side to make a module and the set of modules produces plane. The number of modules in a plane depends on a detector - 3 and 12 modules per plane for the Near and Far Detector respectively. Planes are glued together in a such way that adjacent planes alternating between horizontal and vertical alignment. The scetch of the detectors structure can be seen in (4.3b). Furthermore, 32 planes make up a block and 28 blocks complete the full Far Detector while for the Near Detector block consists of 24 planes and 3 blocks make the active part of the detector. In addition, so called muon catcher block goes upstream and serves for

stopping muons which are produced in ν_μ CC interactions. Muon catcher, which helps to contain more muons as the relative size of the Near Detector is not big, consists of 22 active planes together with 10 steel 10 cm thick planes between every 2 active ones. The size of the muon catcher in XY plane is smaller than the active part of the Near Detector since horizontal planes have only 2 modules while vertical planes have 3 modules. The presence of the steel leads to extra muon energy absorption which makes muon tracks shorter.

Planes configuration allows to reconstruct three-dimensional tracks of the particles; vertical cells provide X measurements, horizontal cells give Y measurements, and planes positions provide Z measurements. Z-axis is directed along the beam, X-axis points to the west and Y-axis points upward. This choice of axes gives NOvA detectors a Cartesian right handed coordinate system.

4.2.2 Signal path part I: light production

In order to detect particles resulted in neutrino interactions in the detectors these particles should leave footprints. In NOvA experiment cells are filled with a liquid scintillator composed of mineral oil doped with pseudocumene¹. In every cell, one wavelength shifting fiber runs from one end of the cell to the opposite end, then back to the other end where it connects to an avalanche photodiode (APD) as can be seen in (4.3a). Photons are created by charged particle moving through the scintillator. These reflected by the cell walls and have a high chance to be captured by the wavelength shifting fiber. Inside the fiber photons after absorption and reemission increase its wavelength resulting in propagation without escaping due to total inner reflection.

Photons which reach APD get converted into photoelectrons through the process called avalanche breakdown, and produces currents which are detectable by commercial electronics. All 32 fiber from the module are connected to one APD. And the last step before signals might be processed with the help of conventional computers is to digitize the APD output signal. The digitization happens in front end board (FEB). Short APD signals are stretched in time in the Application Specific Integrated Circuit (ASIC) with the help of CR-RC circuit. After, the signal is passed to ADC - analog to digital converter - where continuous signal is translated to discrete one with 4096

¹1,2,3-Trimethylbenzene

distinct values. Every channel is read out every 500 ns and 125 ns for the Far and Near Detector respectively. Only the 4 last ADCs - value of the digitization sample - are stored as a hit and the hit is written when the difference

$$ADC_i - ADC_{i-3} \tag{4.3}$$

is greater than a threshold. These 4 values are then passed to the Data Concentration Module (DCM). Later, those 4 values are used to fit the signal shape and to determine signal amplitude, which is proportional to amount of energy charged particle deposited in a particular cell.

4.2.3 Signal path part II: data acquisition

Chapter 5

Simulation

Chapter 6

Event Reconstruction

Chapter 7

Data Analysis Strategy

Chapter 8

ν_μ CC Selection

Chapter 9

Analysis

9.1 Analysis Procedure

9.2 Analysis Result

Chapter 10

Systematics

Chapter 11

Conclusion and Discussion

In this chapter we will briefly summarize our results! Or maybe not! Or maybe yes!
QQWQWWQQQW

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Appendix A

Glossary and Acronyms

Care has been taken in this thesis to minimize the use of jargon and acronyms, but this cannot always be achieved. This appendix defines jargon terms in a glossary, and contains a table of acronyms and their meaning.

A.1 Glossary

- **Cosmic-Ray Muon (CR μ)** – A muon coming from the abundant energetic particles originating outside of the Earth’s atmosphere.

A.2 Acronyms

Table A.1: Acronyms

Acronym	Meaning
CR μ	Cosmic-Ray Muon