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Consolidation and longevity studies on CMS Resistive Plate Chamber system in the context of upgrade of CMS Muon System towards High Luminosity LHC

Alexis Fagot

Thesis to obtain the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy in Physics
Academic years 2012-2018

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Gent, ici la super date de la mort qui tue de la fin d'écriture
Alexis Fagot

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List of Acronyms

A

AFL	Almost Full Level
ALCTs	anode local charged track boards

B

BARC	Bhabha Atomic Research Centre
BLT	Block Transfer
BMTF	Barrel Muon Track Finder
BNL	Brookhaven National Laboratory
BR	Branching Ratio

C

CAEN	Costruzioni Apparecchiature Elettroniche Nucleari S.p.A.
CERN	European Organization for Nuclear Research
CFD	Constant Fraction Discriminator
CFEBs	cathode front-end boards
CMB	Cosmic Microwave Background
CMS	Compact Muon Solenoid
CSC	Cathode Strip Chamber
CuOF	copper-to-optical-fiber translators

D

DAQ	Data Acquisition
DCS	Detector Control Software
DQM	Data Quality Monitoring

DT	Drift Tube

E

ECAL	electromagnetic calorimeter
EMTF	Endcap Muon Track Finder

F

FCC	Future Circular Collider
FEE	Front-End Electronics
FEB	Front-End Board
FWHM	full-width-at-half-maximum

G

GE-/-	Find a good description
GE1/1	Find a good description
GE2/1	Find a good description
GEANT	GEometry ANd Tracking - a series of software toolkit platforms developed by CERN
GEB	GEM Electronics board
GEM	Gas Electron Multiplier
GIF	Gamma Irradiation Facility
GIF++	new Gamma Irradiation Facility
GWP	Global Warming Potential

H

HCAL	hadron calorimeter
HL-LHC	High Luminosity LHC
HPL	High-pressure laminate
HV	High Voltage

I

ICRU	International Commission on Radiation Units & Measurements
iRPC	improved RPC

IRQ	Interrupt Request
ISR	Intersecting Storage Rings

L

LEIR	Low Energy Ion Ring
LEP	Large Electron-Positron
LHC	Large Hadron Collider
LS1	First Long Shutdown
LS2	Second Long Shutdown
LS3	Third Long Shutdown
LV	Low Voltage
LVDS	Low-Voltage Differential Signaling

M

MiC1	first version of Minicrate electronics
mip’s	minimum ionizing particles
MC	Monte Carlo
MCNP	Monte Carlo N-Particle
ME-/-	Find good description
ME0	Find good description
MRPC	Multigap RPC

N

NIM	Nuclear Instrumentation Module logic signals

O

OH	Optohybrid Board
OMTF	Overlap Muon Track Finder

P

PAI	Photo-Absorption Ionisation
PAIR	Photo-Absorption Ionisation with Relaxation
PMT	PhotoMultiplier Tube

PS	Proton Synchrotron
PU	pile-up

Q

QCD	Quantum Chromodynamics
QED	Quantum Electrodynamics

R

RE-/-	Find a good description
RE2/2	Find a good description
RE3/1	Find a good description
RE3/2	Find a good description
RE4/1	Find a good description
RE4/2	Find a good description
RE4/3	Find a good description
RMS	Root Mean Square
ROOT	a framework for data processing born at CERN
RPC	Resistive Plate Chamber

S

SC	Synchrocyclotron
SLAC	Stanford Linear Accelerator Center
SM	Standard Model
SPS	Super Proton Synchrotron
SUSY	supersymmetry

T

TDC	Time-to-Digital Converter
TDR	Technical Design Report
ToF	Time-of-flight
TPG	trigger primitives

W

webDCS	Web Detector Control System

Y

YETS Year End Technical Stop

1 Introduction

2

Investigating the TeV scale

,,We may regard the present state of the universe as the effect of the past and the cause of the future. An intellect which at any given moment knew all of the forces that animate nature and the mutual positions of the beings that compose it, if this intellect were vast enough to submit the data to analysis, could condense into a single formula the movement of the greatest bodies of the universe and that of the lightest atom; for such an intellect nothing could be uncertain and the future just like the past would be present before its eyes."

\- Pierre Simon de Laplace, *A Philosophical Essay on Probabilities*, 1814

Throughout history, physics experiment became more and more powerful in order to investigate finer details of nature and helped understanding the elementary blocks of matter and the fondamental interactions that bond them in the microscopic world. Nowadays, the Standard Model (SM) of particle physics is the most accurate theory designed to explain the behaviour of particles and was able to make very precise predictions that are constantly verified, although some hints of new physics are visible as bricks are still missing to have a global comprehension of the Universe.

To highlight the limits of the SM and test the different alternative theories, ever more powerful machines are needed. This is in this context that the Large Hadron Collider (LHC) has been thought and built to accelerate and collide particles at energies exceeding anything that had been done before. Higher collision energies and high pile-up imply the use of enormous detectors to measure the properties of the interaction products. The Compact Muon Solenoid (CMS) is a multipurpose experiment that have been designed to study the proton-proton collisions of the LHC and give answers on various high energy physics scenari. Nevertheless, the luminosity delivered by the collider will in the future be increased to levels beyond the original plans to improve its discovery potential giving no choice to experiments such as CMS to upgrade their technologies to cope with the increased radiation levels and detection rates.

2.1 The Standard Model of Particle Physics

In this early 21^{st} century it is now widely accepted that matter is made of elementary blocks referred to as *elementary particles*. The physics theory that classifies and describes the best the behaviour and interaction of such elementary particles is the so calledStandard Model that formalizes 3 of the 4 fondamental interactions (electromagnetic, weak and strong interactions). It's development took place during the 20^{th} century thanks to a strong collaboration in between the theoretical and experimental physicists.

2.1.1 A history of particle physics

The idea that nature is composed of elementary bricks, called *atomism*, is not contemporary as it was already discussed by Indian or Greek philosophers during antiquity. In Greece, atomism has been rejected by Aristotelianism as the existance of *atoms* would imply the existance of a void that would violate the physical principles of Aristotle philosophy. Aristotelianism has been considered as a reference in the european area until the 15^{th} century and the italian *Rinascimento* where antic text and history started to be more deeply studied. The re-discovery of Platon's philosophy would allow to open the door to alternative theories and give a new approach to natural sciences where experimentation would become central. A new era of knowledge was starting. By the begining of the 17^{th} century, atomism was re-discovered by philosophers and the very first attempt to estimate an *atom* size would be provided by Magnetus in 1646. Although his *atoms* correspond to what would nowadays be called *molecules*, Magnetus achieved feats by calculating that the number of molecules in a grain of incense would be of the order of 10^{18} simply by considering the time necessary to smell it everywhere in a large church after the stick was lit on. It is now known that this number only falls short by 1 order of magnitude.

An alternative philosophy to atomism popularized by Descartes was corpuscularianism. Built on ever divible corpuscles, contrary to atoms, it's principles would be mainly used by alchemists like Newton who would later develop a corpuscular theory of light. Boyle would combine together ideas of both atomism or corpuscularianism leading to mechanical philosophy. The 18^{th} century have seen the development of engineering providing philosophical thought experiments with repeatable demonstration and a new point of view to explain the composition of matter and Lavoisier would greatly contribute to chemistry and atomism by publishing in 1789 a list of 33 chemical elements corresponding to what is now called *atoms*. In the early 19^{th} century Dalton would summarize the knowledge on composition of matter and Fraunhofer would invent the spectrometer and discover the spectral lines. The rise of atomic physics, chemistry and mathematical formalism would unravel the different atomic elements and ultimately, the 20^{th} century would see the very first sub-atomic particles.

Discovery of the inner structure of the atom

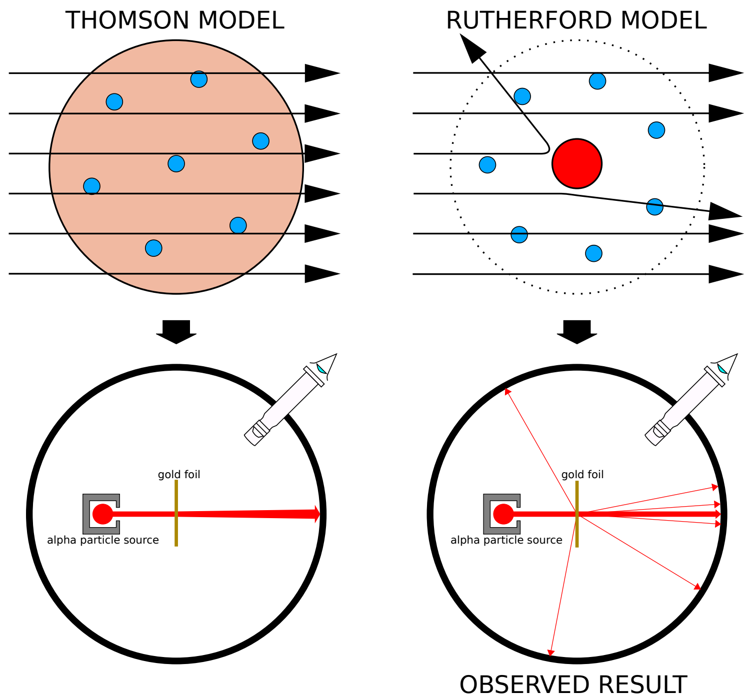


Figure 2.1: Through the gold foil experiment Rutherford could show that most of the mass of atoms was contained in a positively charged nucleus and could then propose a more accurate atomic model than that of Thomson.

The negative *electron* would be the first to be discovered in 1897 by Thomson after 3 decades of research on cathode rays by proving that the electrification observed in an electroscope, as reported by Perrin, was due to the rays themselves and that they had to be composed of electrically charged particles. In 1900, Becquerel would show the *beta rays* emitted by radium had the same charge over mass ratio than what measured by Thomson for cathode rays, pointing to eletrons as a constituant of atoms. In 1907, Rutherford and Royds showed that *alpha* particles, once captured in a tube and subjected to an electric spark causing an electron avalanche, where heluim ions as they could combine with 2 electrons to form a ^{4}He. This discovery was directly followed by the constraint of the atom structure in 1909 through the gold foil experiment in which the deflection angle of alpha particles fired at a very thin gold foil was measured and highlighted atoms where mainly empty with nearly all its mass contained into a tiny positively charged *nucleus*. With these two observations, he could formulate the Rutherford model of the atom in 1911, shown together with the Thomson plum pudding model in Figure 2.1. The link in between atomic number and number of positive and negative charges contained into the atoms would fast be understood and the different kind of element transmutation appeared to be purely nuclear processes making clear that the electromagnetic nature of chemical transformation could not possibly change nuclei. Thus a new branch in physics appeared to study nuclei exclusively: the nuclear physics.

Moreover, in 1913 quantum physics would be introduced into the atomic model by Bohr based on the asumptions of Plank to explain spectral lines, and other observed quantum effects. The same year, Moseley would confirm Borh's model and Debye would extend it by introducing eliptical orbits.

By studying alpha emission and the product of their interaction with nitrogen gas, Rutherford reported in 1919 the very first nuclear reaction leading to the discovery that the hydrogen nucleus was composed of a single positively charged particle that was later baptised *proton*. This idea came from 1815 Prout's hypothesis proposing that all atoms are composed of *"protyles"* (i.e. hydrogen atoms). By using scintillation detectors, Rutherford could highlight typical hydrogen nuclei signature and understand that the impact of alpha particles with nitrogen would knock out an hydrogen nucleus and produce an oxygen 17, as explicited in Formula 2.1 and would then postulate that protons are building bricks of all elements.

$$^{14}N + \alpha \rightarrow ^{17} O + p \tag{2.1}$$

With this assumption and the discovery of isotopes together with Aston, elements with identical atomic number but different masses, Rutherford would propose that all elements' nuclei but hydrogen's are composed of both charged particles, protons, and of chargeless particles, which he called *neutrons*, and that these neutral particles would help maintaining nuclei as one, as charged protons were likely to electrostatically repulse each other, and introduced the idea of a new force, a *nuclear* force. Though the first idea concerning neutrons was a bond state of protons and electrons as it was known that the beta decay, emitting electrons, was taking place in the nucleus, it was then showed that such a model would hardly be possible due to Heisenberg's uncertainty principle and by the recently measured *spin* of both protons and electrons. The spin, discovered through the study of the emission spectrum of alkali metals, would be understood as a "two-valued quantum degree of freedom" and formalized by Pauli and extended by Dirac, to take the relativist case into account. Measured to be $\frac{1}{2}\hbar$ for both, it was impossible to arrange an odd number of half integer spins and obtain a global nucleus spin that would be integer. Finally, in 1932, following the discovery of a new neutral radiation, Chadwick could discover the neutron as an uncharged particle with a mass similar to that of the proton whose half integer spin would reveal to be the solution to explain the nuclear spin.

Development of the Quantum Electrodynamics

Historically, the development of the quantum theory revolved around the question of emission and absorption of discrete amount of energy through light. Einstein used the initial intuition of Plank about the black-body radiation to develop in 1905 a model to explain the photoelectric effect in which light was described by discrete quanta now called *photons*. For this model, Einstein introduced the concept of wave-particle duality as classical theory was not able to describe the phenomenon. With the new understanding of atoms and of their structure, classical theories also proved unable to explain atoms stability. Indeed, using classical mechanics, electrons orbiting aroung a nucleus should radiate an energy proportionnal to their angular momentum and thus loose energy through time and the spectrum of energy emission should then be continuous, but it was known since the 19^{th} century and the discovery of spectral lines that the emission spectrum of material was discrete.

This was Bohr who first suggested that a quantum description of the atom was necessary in 1913. Using the correspondence principle stating that are large enough numbers the quantum calculations should give the same results than the classical theory, he proposed the very first quantum model of the hydrogen atom explaining the line spectrum by introducing the principal quantum number n describing the electron shell. This model would then be improved by Sommerfeld that would quantize the z-component of the angular momentum, leading to a the second and third quantum numbers, or azimuthal and magnetic quantum number, l and m defining for the second the orbital angular momentum of the electrons on their shells and thus, the shape of the orbital, and for the third the available orbital on the subshell for each electron. Nevertheless, although the model was not only limited to sperical orbitals anymore, making the atom more realistic, the Zeeman effect couldn't be completely explained by just using n, l and m. A solution would be brought after the discovery of Pauli in 1924, as Uhlenbeck, Goudsmit, and Kronig proposed in 1925 the idea of intrinsic rotation of the electron, introducing a new angular momentum vector associated to the particle itself, and not to the orbital, and associated to a new quantic number s, the *spin* projection quantum number explaining the lift of degeneracy to an even number of energy levels.

The introduction of the *spin* happened 1 year after another attempt of improvement of the theory was made by De Broglie in his PhD thesis. The original formulation of the quantum theory only considered photons as energy quanta behaving as both waves and particles. De Broglie proposed that all matter are described by waves and that there momentum is proportional to the oscillation of quantized electromagnetic field oscillators. This interpretation was able to reproduce the previous version of the quantum energy levels by showing that the quantum condition involves an integer multiple of 2π, as shown by Formula 2.2.

$$p = \hbar k \Leftrightarrow \int p dx = \hbar \int k dx = 2\pi\hbar n \tag{2.2}$$

Although the intuition of De Broglie about the wave-particle duality of all matter, his interpretation was semiclassical and it's in 1926 that the first fully quantum mechanical wave-equation would be introduced by Schrödinger to describe electron-like particles, reproducing the previous semiclassical formulation without inconsistencies. This complexe equation describes the evolution of the wave function Ψ of the quantum system, defined by it's position vector $\mathbf{r}$ and time t as an energy conservation law, in which the hamiltonian of the system $\hat{H}$ is explicit, by solving the Equation 2.3.

$$i\hbar\frac{\partial}{\partial t}|\Psi(\mathbf{r},t)\rangle = \hat{H}|\Psi(\mathbf{r},t)\rangle \tag{2.3}$$

In 1927, Dirac would go further in his paper about emission and absorption of radiation by proposing a second quantization not only of the physical process at play but also of the electromagnetic field, providing the ingredients to the first formulation of *Quantum Electrodynamics (QED)* and the description of photon emission by electrons dropping into a lower energy state in which the final number of particles is different than the initial one. To complete this model to the many-body wave functions of identical particles, Jordan included creation and annihilation operators for fields obeying Fermi-Dirac statistics leading to a model describing particles that would be referred to as *fermions*. Nevertheless, in order to properly treat electromagnetism, the incorporation of the relativity theory developed by Einstein. Including gravity into quantum physics still is a challenge nowadays, but in 1928 Pauli and Jordan would show that special relativity's coordinate transformations could be applied to quantum fields as the field commutators were Lorentz invariant. Finally derived the same year, the Dirac equation, shown as Equation 2.4, similarly to Schrödinger's equation, is a single-particle equation but it incorporates special relativity in addition to quantum mechanics rules. It features the 4×4 gamma matrices γ^μ built using 2×2 Pauli matrices and unitary matrix, the 4-gradient ∂_μ, the rest mass m of any half integer spin massive particle described by the wave function $\psi(x, t)$, also called a Dirac spinor, and the speed of light c. In addition to perfectly reproduce the results obtained with quantum mechanics so far, it also provided with *negative-energy solutions* that would later be interpreted as a new form of matter, *antimatter* and give a theoretical justification to the Pauli equation that was phenomenologically constructed to account for the spin as in the non-relativistic limit, the Dirac equation is similar.

$$i\hbar\gamma^\mu\partial_\mu\psi - mc\psi = 0 \tag{2.4}$$

The successes of the QED was soon followed with theoretical problems as computations of any physical process involving photons and charged particles were showed to be only reliable at the first order of perturbation theory. At higher order of the theory, divergent contributions were appearing giving nonsensical results. Only two effects were contributing to these infinities.

- The self-energy of the electron (or positron), the energy that the particle has due its own interaction with its environment.
- The vacuum polarization, virtual electron–positron pairs produced by a background electromagnetic field in the vacuum which is not an ”empty” space. These virtual pairs affect the charge and current distributions generated by the original electromagnetic field.

Solving this apparent problem was done by carefully defining the concepts of each observables, for example mass or charge, as these quantities are understood within the context of a non-interacting field equation, and that from the experiment point of view, they are abstractions as what is measured are ”renormalized observables” shifted from there ”bare” value by the interaction taking place in the measuring process. The infinities needed to be connected to corrections of mass and charge as those are fixed to finite values by experiement. This was the intuition of Bethe in 1947 who successfully computed the effect of such *renormalization* in the non-relativist case. Fully covariant formulations of QED including renormalization was achieved by 1949 by Tomonaga, Schwinger, Feynman and Dyson and Feynman is now famous for his association of diagrams to the term of the scattering matrix, greatly simplifying the representation and computation of interactions as the diagrams directly corresponded the measurable physical processes and would then be used in every quantum field theories. With the resolution of infinities, QED had mostly reached its final form, being still today the most accurate physical theory and would serve as a model to build all other quantum field theories.

Development of the quark model and Quantum Chromodynamics

To explain the nuclear force that holds *nucleons* (protons and neutrons) together, Yukawa theoretically proposed in 1934 the existence of a force carrier called *meson* due to it's predicted mass in the range in between the electron and nucleon masses. Discovered in 1936 by Anderson and Neddermeyer, and confirmed using bubble chambers in 1937 by Street and Stevenson, a first meson candidate was observed in the decay products of cosmic rays. Assuming it had the same electric charge than electrons and protons, this particle was observed to have a curvature due to magnetic field that was sharper than protons but smoother than electrons resulting in a mass in between that of electrons and protons. But its properties were not compatible with Yukawa's theory, which was emphasized by the discovery of a new candidate in 1947, again in cosmic ray products using photographic emulsions.

This new candidate, although it had a similar mass than the already believed *meson*, would rather decay into it. For distinction, the first candidate would then be renamed "*mu meson*" when the second would be the "*pi meson*". The *mu meson* was behaving like a heavy electron and didn't participate in the strong interaction whereas the pion was believed to be the carrier of the nuclear interaction. This lead to classify the *mu* in a new category of particles called *leptons* together with the electron that shared similar properties and *the* neutrino, and be renamed *muon*. The *pi meson* was finally found to be a triplet of particles: a positively charged, a negatively charged, and a neutral particle. The neutral *pi meson* has been more difficult to identify as it wouldn't leave tracks on emulsions nor on bubble chambers and needed to be studied via it's decay products. It was ultimately identified in University of California's cyclotron in 1950 through the observation of its decay into 2 photons.

Also discovered in 1947 but in cloud chamber photographs, the *K meson* as also been an important step towards the establishment of the Standard Model. A triplet of particle, 2 charged and a neutral, with a mass roughly half that of a proton, were reported. These particles were baptised *K meson* in contrast to the "light" *pi* and *mu* "L-mesons". The particularity of the *K* were there very slow decays with a typical lifetime of the order of 10^{-10}s much greater than the 10^{-23}s of *pi*-proton reactions. The concept of *strangeness*, a new quantum number was then introduced by Pais as an attempt to explain this phenomenom as *strange* particles appeared as a pair production of a strange and anti-strange particle.

With the development of synchrotrons, the particle *zoo* would grow to several dozens during the 1950s as higher energies were reachable through acceleration. In 1961, a first classification system, called Eightfold Way, was proposed by Gell-Mann and finding its roots in the Gell-Mann–Nishijima formula, which relates the electric charge Q, the third component of the isospin I_3, the *baryon* number B and the strangeness S, as explicited in Formula 2.5. The isospin was a quantum number introduced in 1932 to explain symmetries of the newly discovered neutron using representation theory of SU(2). The baryon number, was introduced by Nishijima as a quantum number for baryons, i.e. particles of the same family as nucleons. The mesons were classified in an octet and baryons of spin $\pm\frac{1}{2}$ and $\pm\frac{3}{2}$ were respectively classified into an octet and a decuplet, as shown in Figure 2.2. To complete the baryon decuplet, Gell-Mann predicted the existance of baryon Ω^- which would later be discovered in 1964.

$$Q = I_3 + \frac{1}{2}(B + S) \tag{2.5}$$

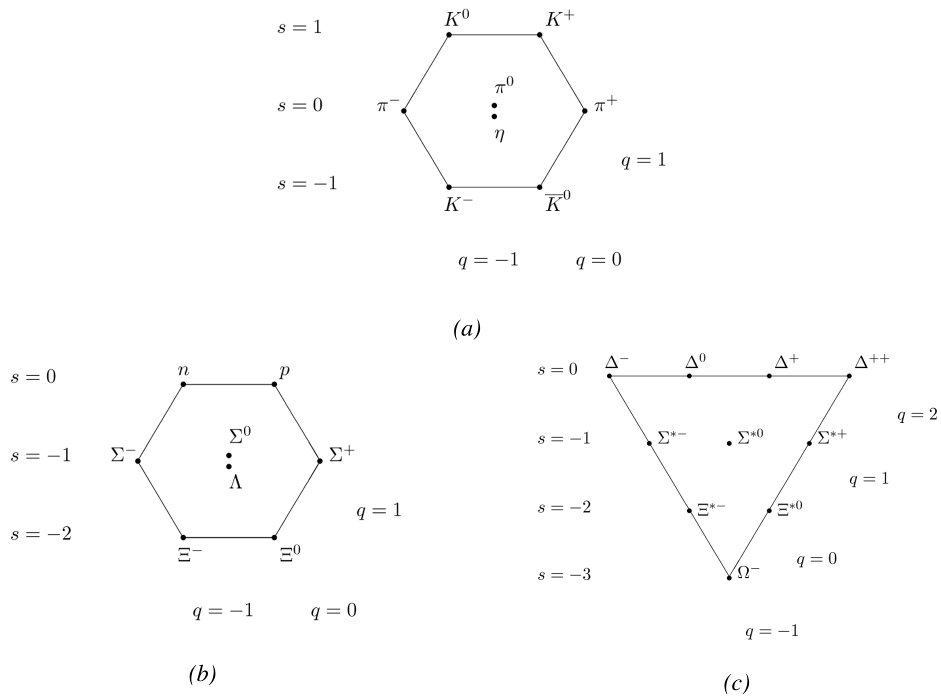


Figure 2.2: Figure 2.2a: Meson octet. Figure 2.2b: Baryon octet. Figure 2.2c: Baryon decuplet.

Strong of this classification using an SU(3) flavor symmetry, Gell-Mann, and independently Zweig, would propose a full theoretical model in which *hadrons* (strongly interacting particles, i.e. mesons and baryons) were not elementary particles anymore. They would rather be composed with 3 flavors of particles called *quarks* and there anti-particles. The 3 flavors were called *up*, *down* and *strange*. *Up* and *down* would be used to explain the nucleons and non-strange mesons, while *strange* would come into the composition of hadrons showing strangeness. *Up* and *down* flavors would be discovered in 1968 thanks to the deep inelastic scattering experiments conducted at the Stanford Linear Accelerator Center (SLAC), and *strange* could only be indirectly validated eventhough it provided a robust explanation to *kaon* (K) and *pion* (π). However, in the decade following the Gell-Mann-Zweig quark model proposition, several improvement to the model were brought, first by Glashow and Bjorken the same year that predicted the existence of a fourth quark flavor, the *charm*, that would equalize the then known number of quarks and leptons and finally in 1973 by Kobayashi and Maskawa that would increase the number of quarks to 6 to explain the experimental observation of CP violation. These two quarks would been refered to as *top* and *bottom* for the first time in 1975. It's only after these additions to the quark model that finally the *charm* would be discovered in 1974 at both SLAC and Brookhaven National Laboratory (BNL). A meson where the *charm* was bond with an *anti-charm*, called J/ψ, would help convince the physics community of the validity of the model. The *top* would be discovered soon after in 1977 in Fermilab and indicate the existence of the *bottom* that would resist to discovery until Fermilab's experiments CDF and D$\emptyset$ in 1995 due its very large mass and the energy needed to produce it.

As remarked by Struminsky, the original quark model proposal composed of 3 quarks should possess an additional quantum number due to mesons such as Ω^- or Δ^{++}. Indeed, these mesons are composed of 3 identical quarks, respectively 3 *strange* and *up* quark, with parallel spins, which should be forbidden by the exclusion principle. Independentle, Greenberg and Han-Nambu proposed an additional SU(3) degree of freedom possessed by the quarks, that would later be refered to as *color charge gauge*, that could interact through *gluons*, the gauge boson octet corresponding to this degree of freedom. Nevertheless, as observing free quarks proved to be impossible, two visions of the quarks were argued mainly due to the failures to observe these particles free to prove their existence. On one side, Gell-Mann proposed to see quarks as mathematical construct instead of real particles, as they are always confined, implying that quantum field theory would not describe entirely the strong interaction. Opposed to this vision, Feynman on the contrary argued that quarks were real particles, that he would call *partons*, that should be described as all other particles by a distribution of position and momentum. The implications of quarks as point-like particles would be verified at SLAC and the concept of *color* would be added to the quark model in 1973 by Fritzsch and Leutwyler together with Gell-Mann to propose a description of the strong interaction through the theory of Quantum Chromodynamics (QCD). The discovery the same year of asymptotic freedom within the QCD by Groos, Politzer and Wilczek, allowed for very precise predictions thanks to the perturbation theory. Nowadays, the confinement of quarks is studied in experiments such as ALICE, through exploration of the quark-gluon plasma.

The Weak interaction, spontaneous symmetry breaking, the Higgs mechanism and the Electroweak unification

The weak interaction is the process that causes radioactive decays. Thanks to the neutron discovery, Fermi could explain in 1934 the beta radiations through the beta decay process in which the neutron decays into a proton by emitting an electron. Though the missing energy observed during this process triggered a huge debate about the apparent non conservation of energy, momentum and spin of the process, Fermi, as Pauli before him, proposed that the missing energy was due to a neutral not yet discovered particle that would then be baptised *neutrino*. The impossibility to detect such a particle would leave some members of the scientific community sceptical, but hints of energy conservation and of the existence of the neutrino were provided by measuring the energy spectrum of electrons emitted through beta decay, as there was a strict limit on their energy. It's only 30 years later in 1953 that it would be discovered by the team of Cowan and Reines using the principle of inverse beta decay described through Formula 2.6. The experiment consisted in placing water tanks sandwiched in between liquid scintillators near a nuclear reactor with an estimated neutrino flux of $5 \times 10^{13}\mathrm{cm}^{-2}\,\mathrm{s}^{-1}$. However, in order to explain the absence of some reactions in the experiment of Cowan and Reines, and constraint the beta decay theory of Fermi and extend it to the case of the muon, Konopinski and Mahmoud proposed in 1953 that the muon decay would eject a particle similar to the neutrino and thus predicted the existence of a muon neutrino that would be different than the one involved in the beta decay, related to the electron. With this, the idea of lepton number would arise. The muon neutrino would successfully be detected in 1962 by lederman, Schwartz and Steinberger.

$$\overline{\nu} + p \rightarrow n + e^{+} \tag{2.6}$$

The theory could not be valid though as the probability of interaction, called cross-section, would have been increasing without bond with the square of the energy. Fermi assumed in a two vector current coupling but Lee and Yang noted that an axial current could appear and would violate parity. The experiment of Wu in 1956 would confirm the parity violation and Gamov and Teller would try to account for it by describing Fermi's interaction through allowed (parity-violating) and superallowed (parity-conserving) decays. But the success of QED as a quantum field theory would spark the development of such a theory to describe the weak interaction.

As previously discussed, the great success of QED was built on an underlying symmetry, interpreted as a gauge invariance so that the effect of the force is the same in all space-time coordinates, and of the possibility to renormalize it in order to absorb the infinites. Independently in 1958, Glashow, and Salam and Ward used 1957 Schwinger ideas about vector intermediary for the decay processes, could find a way to unite both the electromagnetic and weak interaction into a gauge theory involving 4 gauge bosons, 3 of which were massive and carried out the weak interaction and a massless boson carrying the electromagnetic interaction. Among the 3 massive bosons, 2 were charged and 1 was neutral, similarly to the previously theorized *pi meson* vector of the Yukawa model and all have a mass much greater than nucleons and thus a very short life time implying a finite very short range contrary to the contact interaction originally proposed by Fermi.

Breakthrough in other fields of physics contributed in giving theoretical support and interpretation to the unified electroweak theory. The stepping stone would be the use of spontaneous symmetry breaking that was inspired to Nambu at the end of the 1950s following the development of the BCS superconductivity mechanism in 1957. Cooper had shown that BCS pairs, pairs of electrons bound together at low temperature, could have lower energy than the Fermi energy and where responsible for superconductivity. This lead to the discovery of Goldstone-Nambu bosons as a result of the spontaneous breaking of the chiral symmetry in a theory describing nucleons and mesons developped by Nambu and Jona-Lasinio in 1961, and now understood as a low-ebergy approximation of QCD. Simmilarly to mechanism of energy gap appearance in superconductivity, the nucleon mass is suggested to the result of a self-energy of a fermion field and is studied through a four-fermion interaction in which, as a consequence of the symmetry, bound states of nucleon-antinucleon pairs appear and can be regarded as virtual pions. Though the symmetry is maintained in the equations, the ground state is not preserved. Goldstone would later the same year show that the bound states corresponds to spinless bosons with zero mass.

Although the model in itself didn't revolutionize particle physics, spontaneous symmetry breaking would be generalized to quantum field theories. As all fundamental interactions are described using gauge theories based on underlying symmetries, processes such as the chiral symmetry breaking would be introduced soon after the publication of Nambu and Jona-Lasinio. In 1962, Anderson, following an idea of Schwinger who suggested that zero-mass vector bosons were not necessarily required to describe the conservation of baryons contrary to the bosons emerging from chiral symmetry breaking, discussed the implications of spontaneous symmetry breaking in particles physics. A model was finally independently built in 1964 by Brout and Englert, Higgs, and Guralnik, Hagen, and Kibble, who discovered that combining an additional field into a gauge theory in order to break the symmetry, the resulting gauge bosons acquire a nonzero mass. Moreover, Higgs stated that this implied the existence of at least one new massive, i.e. self-interacting, scalar boson, that are now known as *Higgs bosons* corresponding to this additional field. The Higgs mechanism today specifically refers to the process through which the gauge bosons of the weak interaction acquire mass. In 1968, Weinberg could point to the Higgs mechanism to integrate a Higgs field into a new version of the electroweak theory in which the spontaneous symmetry breaking mechanism of the Higgs field would explicitely explain the masses of the weak interaction gauge bosons and the zero-mass of photons.

2.1.2 Construction and test of the model

The Standard Model of particle physics was built in the middle of the 1970s after the experimental confirmation of the existence of quarks. It is based on the assembly of the models previously introduced and describing the fondamental interactions, except for gravitation, and their gauge bosons as well as the way elementary ”matter” particles interact with the fields associated with these force carriers. In this sense, the development of QED and the unification of the electroweak interaction, of the Yukawa interaction and of QCD, and of the Higg mechanism made it possible to explain most of contemporary physics.

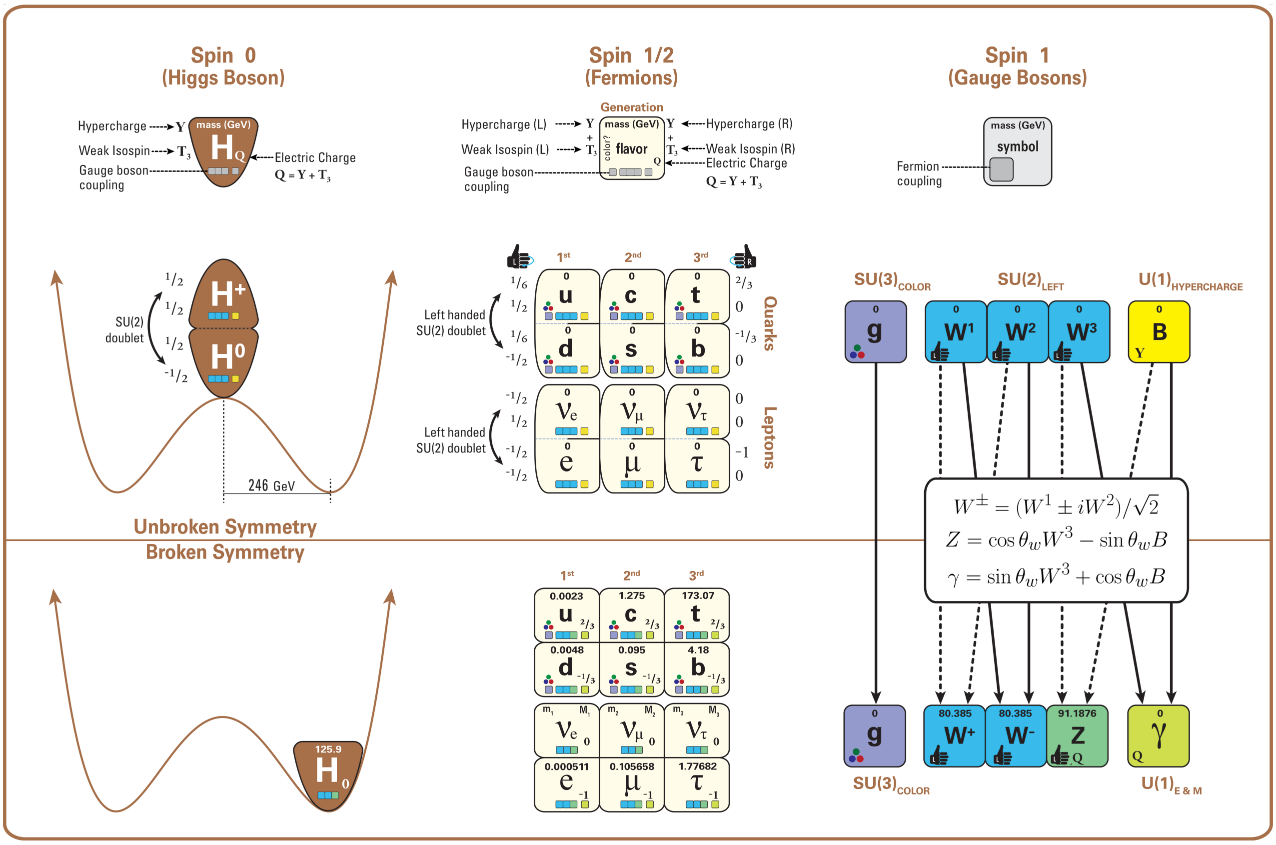


Figure 2.3: The elementary particles of the Standard Model are showed along with their names and properties. Their interactions with the strong, weak and electromagnetic forces have been explicited using color squares. In the left column, the scalar higgs boson is depicted, while the central is focused on the matter particles, the fermions, and the right on the force carriers, the gauge bosons. The role of the Higgs boson in electroweak symmetry breaking is highlighted, and the corresponding way properties of the various particles differ in the (high-energy) symmetric phase (top) and the (low-energy) broken-symmetry phase (bottom) are showed.

In the SM, ”matter” particles, are described by 12 fermion fields of spin $\frac{1}{2}$ obeying the Fermi-Dirac statistics, i.e. subjected to the Pauli exclusion principle. To each fermion is associated its corresponding antiparticle. The fermions are classified according to the way they interact and, thus, according to the charges they carry. 6 of them are classified as quarks (u, d, c, s, t, and b) and are subjected to all interactions and the 6 others as leptons (e^-, μ^-, τ^-, ν_e, ν_μ, and ν_τ). Leptons are not subjected to the strong interaction and among them, the 3 neutrinos only interact weakly as they are neutral particles, which explains why they are so difficult to detect. The gauge boson fields are the gluons g for the strong interaction, the photon γ for the electromagnetic interaction and the weak bosons W^+, W^-, and Z^0 for the weak interaction. Finally, the Higgs field H^0 is responsible, through the spontaneous symmetry breaking, of the mixing of the massless electroweak boson fields W_1, W_2, W_3, and B leading to the observable states γ, W^+, W^-, and Z^0 that can gain mass while interacting with the Higgs field. This picture of the SM is summarized through Figure 2.3 where the antifermions are not showed.

When the model was first finalized, the existence of the weak gauge bosons, of the charm, of the third quark generation composed of top and bottom quarks to explain the observed CP violation was not proven but the predictions were measured with good precision in the years following. First, the charm quark would be discovered in 1974, followed by the bottom quark in 1977. The weak bosons would be discovered during the next decade in 1983. The top quark would resist until 1995 due to its very large mass but would offer the last piece of the elementary QCD particles. The very last predicted elementary particle of the model that was not observed yet would prove to be very difficult to observe. the Higgs boson needed the start of the LHC to finaly be oberved in 2012. A few years more of tests were necessary to measure its properties to confirm the observation of a scalar boson compatible with the predicted Higgs boson H^0. Eventhough only quark-antiquark (mesons) and 3 quark states (baryons) were observed, exotic hadrons were not forbidden by QCD and no limit of quark is imposed by the theory. Moreover, gluons could form bond states by themselves and with quarks. These two types of states are called *glueballs* and *hybrid hadrons*. For decades, experiments have been conducted without confirmation of such possible states existing. Nevertheless, in 2014, tetraquarks were observed by LHCb, one of LHC's main experiments, and in 2015, the same experiment reported the discovery of pentaquarks making the SM one of the best tested theories of physics.

2.1.3 Investigating the TeV scale

Even though the SM is a well tested theory, several hints of physics going beyond its scope have been observed. First of all, gravity is not explained through this model and huge difficulties are encountered when trying to include gravitation. The strength of gravitational interaction is expected to be negligible at the scale of elementary particles, nevertheless, adding gravitation in the perspective of developing a *"theory of everything"* leads to divergent integrals that could not be fixed through renormalization.

Moreover, the SM considers neutrinos to be massless but it was shown in the late 1960s by the Homestake experiment that the flux of solar neutrinos (i.e. ν_e) measured didn't match the predicted values due to neutrino oscillations, confirmed in the early 2000s by the Sudbury Neutrino Observatory. This oscillation implies that neutrinos that can be observed are a superposition of massive neutrino states. The research on neutrino oscillation is already quite advanced with experiments looking at atmospheric, reactor or beam neutrinos in order to determine the elements of the mixing matrix similar to the CKM matrix describing the mixing of quarks. Nevertheless, no answer to the origin of neutrino mass is provided.

Another intriguing fact is that the universe is dominated by matter. However, the SM predicted that matter and antimatter should have been created in equal amounts and no mechanism is able to explain this matter-antimatter asymmetry. Although this asymmetry is seen from the visible universe, it may be possible that other unknown regions of the Universe are dominated by antimatter.

Another possibility to explain the apparent asymmetry would be the existence of a electric dipole in any fundamental particle that would permit matter and antimatter particles to decay at different rates.

The discrepancy of velocity dispersion of stars in galaxies with respect to the visible mass they contain is known since the end of the 19^{th} century where Kelvin proposed that this problem could be solved if a *"great majority of [the stars] would be dark bodies"*. Throughout the 20^{th} century, physicists like Kapteyn, Zwicky, showed the first hints of a *"dark matter"* by studying star velocities and galactic clusters, followed by robust measurements of galaxy rotation curves by Babcock which suggested that the mass-to-luminosity ratio was different from what would be expected from watching the visible light. Later in the 1970s, Rubin and Ford from direct light observations and Rogstad and Shostak from radio measurements showed that the radial velocity of visible objects in galaxies was increasing with increasing distance to the center of the galaxy. Finally observation of lensing effect by galaxy clusters, temperature distribution of hot gas in galaxies and clusters, and the anisotropies in the Cosmic Microwave Background (CMB) kept on pointing to a *"dark matter"*. From all the data accumulated, the visible matter would only account to no more than 5% of the total content on the visible universe. Alternative theories have tried to investigate modified versions of the General Relativity as this theory is only well tested at the scale of the solar system but is not sufficiently tested on wider ranges or even theories in which gravitation is not a fundamental force but rather an emergent one, but so far, such theories have difficulties to reproduce all the experimental observations as easily as through dark matter.

A possible theory to offer dark matter candidates would be supersymmetry (SUSY) which proposes a relationship in between bosons and fermions. In this model, each elementary particle, through a spontaneous spacetime symmetry breaking mechanism would have a *super partner* from the other family of particles. On top of providing heavy dark matter candidates, supersymmetry could also help solving the *Hierarchy problem*, the very large scale difference in between the weak interaction and gravity, although, as mentioned before, in the case gravity is found not to be a fundamental force, this problem would automatically fade.

All these different aspects of physics beyond the Standard Model of particle physics and the Standard model itself can be tested through the use of very energetic and intense hadron and ion colliders. The LHC at CERN is a perfect tool to seek answers to these open questions except maybe for the gravity as gravity is extremely weak at particles level. For example, one of LHCb experiment's goal is to investigate CP-violation and thus baryonic asymmetry. In 2017, the collaboration has announced to have so far a $3.3\,\sigma$ statistical significance over a CP-violation through the study of the decays of Λ_b^0 and $\overline{\Lambda_b^0}$ into a proton (or antiproton) and 3 pions. Many analysis teams are also working hard on supersymmetry both in ATLAS and CMS collaborations, the two multipurpose experiments of LHC, even though no evidence of a supersymmetrical theory was seen, the few hint having the tendency to confirm the standard model. These experiments also have the possibility to investigate ways to explain Majorana neutrino mass through Yukawa interactions of scalar particles.

The higher the center-of-mass energy, the smaller details the experiments will be able to see, the heavier the potential particle creation barrier will be, the stronger the cross-section of certain rare decay channels will be. As a comparison, with collisions happening at $14\,\mathrm{TeV}$, the LHC is approximately 2 orders of magnitude more sensitive to the Higgs than the Tevatron was with its already very powerful $2\,\mathrm{TeV}$. All these advantages eventually lead to new discoveries and deeper understanding of the models describing our Universe. But the LHC only is a step forward to gather more precise tests of the Standard Model and new knowledge about the physics beyond it. A successful physics campaign will probably serve to justify the building of new accelerators with even greater discovery potential like for example the Future Circular Collider (FCC) that would push even further the study of the unanswered questions of contemporary physics.

2.2 The Large Hadron Collider & the Compact Muon Solenoid

Throughout its history, CERN has played a leading role in high energy particle physics. Large regional facilities such as CERN were thought after the second world war in an attempt to increase international scientific collaboration and allows scientists to share the forever increasing costs of experiment facilties required due to the need for increasing the energy in the center of mass to deeper probe matter. The construction of the first accelerators at the end of the 50s, the Synchrocyclotron (SC) and the Proton Synchrotron (PS), was directly followed by the first observation of antinuclei in 1965 [1]. Strong from the experience of the Intersecting Storage Rings (ISR), the very first proton-proton collider that showed hints that protons are not elementary particles, the Super Proton Synchrotron (SPS) was built in the 70s to investigate the structure of protons, the preference for matter over antimatter, the state of matter in the early universe or exotic particles, and lead to the discovery in 1983 of the W and Z bosons [2–5]. These newly discovered particles and the electroweak intereaction would then be studied in details by the Large Electron-Positron (LEP) collider that will help to prove in 1989 that there only are three generations of elementary particles [6]. The LEP would then be dismantled in 2000 to allow for the LHC to be constructed in the existing tunnel.

2.2.1 LHC, the most powerful particle accelerator

The LHC has always been considered as an option to the future of CERN. At the moment of the construction of the LEP beneath the border between France and Switzerland, the tunnel was built in order to accomodate what would be a Large Hadron Collider with a dipole field of $10\,\mathrm{T}$ and a beam energy in between 8 and $9\,\mathrm{TeV}$ [7] directly followed in 1985 with the creation of a 'Working Group on the Scientific and Technological Future of CERN' to investigate such a collider [8]. The decision was finally taken almost 10 years later, in 1994, to construct the LHC in the LEP tunnel [9] and the approval of the 4 main experiments that would take place at the 4 interaction points would come in 1997 [10] and 1998 [11]:

- ALICE [12] has been designed in the purpose of studying quark-gluon plasma that is believed to have been a state of matter that existed in the very first moment of the universe.
- ATLAS [13] and CMS [14] are general purpose experiements that have been designed with the goal of continuing the exploration of the Standard Model and investigate new physics.
- LHCb [15] has been designed to investigate the preference of matter over antimatter in the universe through the CP violation.

These large scale experiments, as well as the full CERN accelerator complex, are displayed on Figure 2.4. The LHC is a $27\,\mathrm{km}$ long hadron collider and the most powerful accelerator used for particle physics since 2008 [16]. The LHC was originally designed to collide protons at a center-of-mass energy of $14\,\mathrm{TeV}$ and luminosity of $10^{34}\ \mathrm{cm}^{-2}\mathrm{s}^{-1}$, as well as Pb ions at a center-of-mass energy of $2.8\,\mathrm{TeV/A}$ with a peak luminosity of $10^{27}\ \mathrm{cm}^{-2}\mathrm{s}^{-1}$. Run 1 of LHC, when the center-of-mass energy only was half of the nominal LHC energy, was enough for both CMS and ATLAS to discover the Higgs boson [17] and for LHCb to discover pentaquarks [18] and confirm the existance of tetraquarks [19]. Nevertheless, after the Third Long Shutdown (LS3) (2024-2026), the accelerator will be in the so called High Luminosity LHC (HL-LHC) configuration [20], increasing its instantaneous luminosity to 10^{35} cm^{-2}s^{-1} for pp collisions and to 4.5×10^{27} cm^{-2}s^{-1}, boosting the discovery potential of the LHC. The HL-LHC phase should last at least another 10 years depending on the breakthrough this machine would lead to. Already a new accelerating device, the FCC, as been proposed to prepare the future of high energy physics after the LHC.

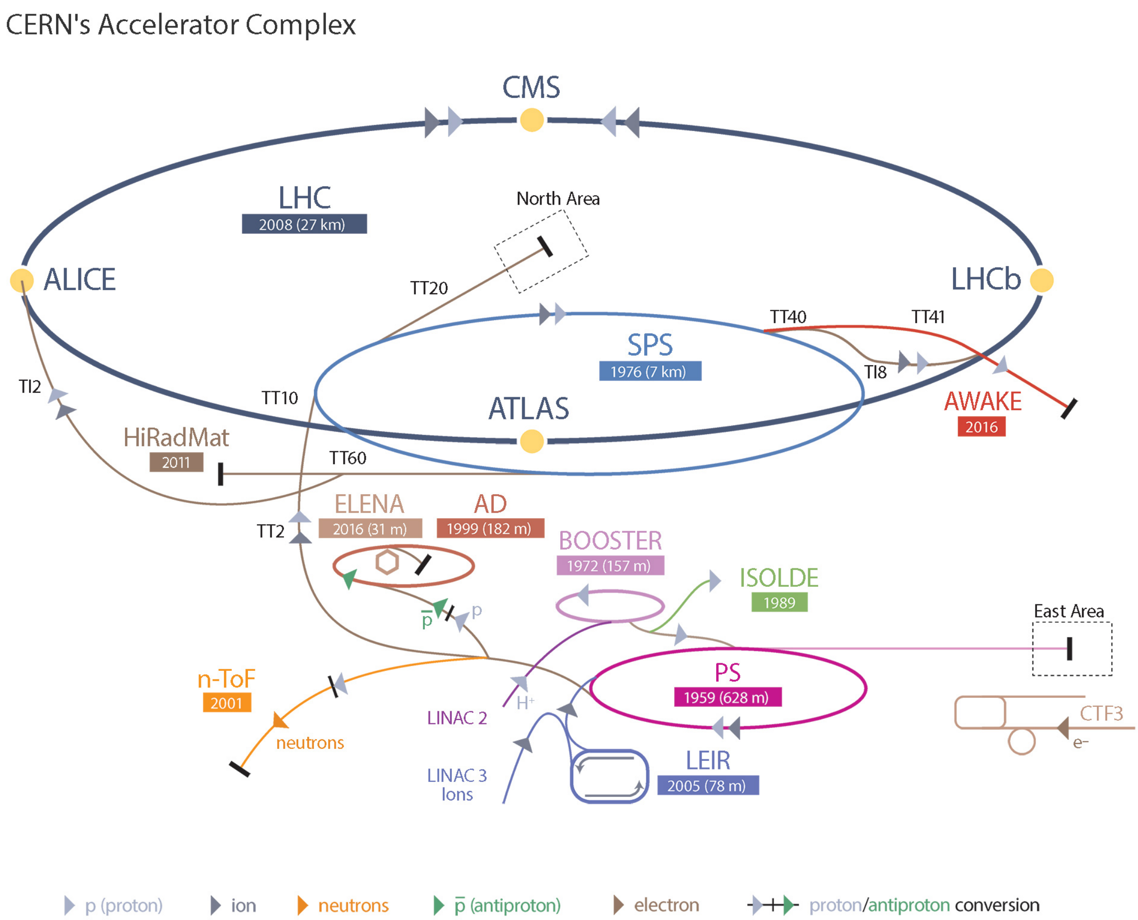


Figure 2.4: CERN accelerator complex.

2.2.1.1 Particle acceleration

The LHC is the last of a long series of accelerating devices. Before being accelerated by the LHC, the particles need to pass through different acceleration stages. All these acceleration stages are visible on Figure 2.4 and pictures of the accelerators are showed in Figure 2.5.

The story of accelerated protons at CERN starts with a bottle of hydrogen gas injected into the source chamber of the linear particle accelerator *LINAC 2* 2 in which a strong electric field strips the electron off the hygroden molecules only to keep their nuclei, the protons. The cylindrical conductors, alternatively positively or negatively charged by radiofrequency cavities, accelerate protons by pushing them from behing and pulling them from the front and ultimately give them an energy of $50\,\mathrm{MeV}$, increasing their mass by 5% in the process.

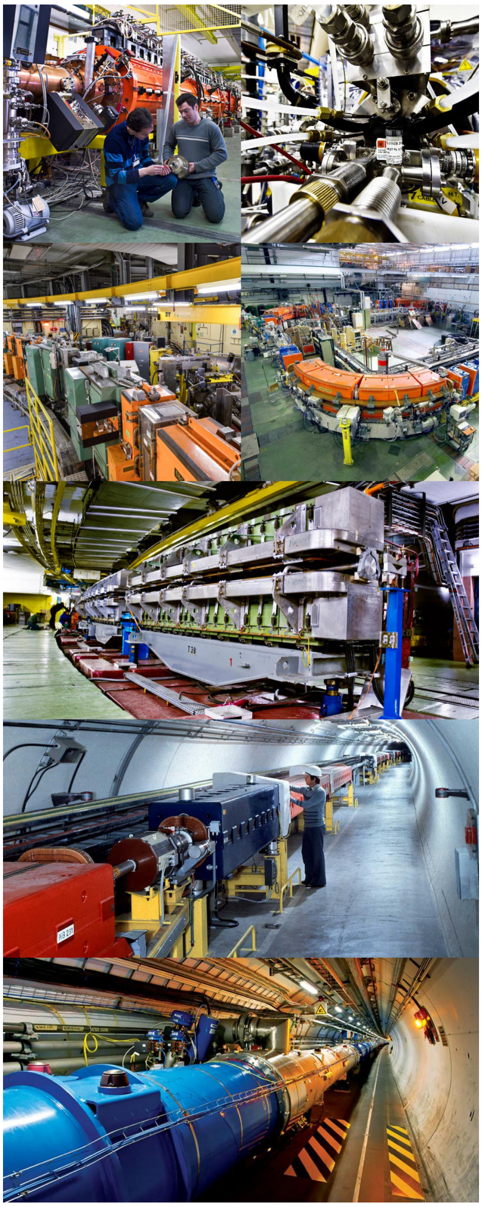


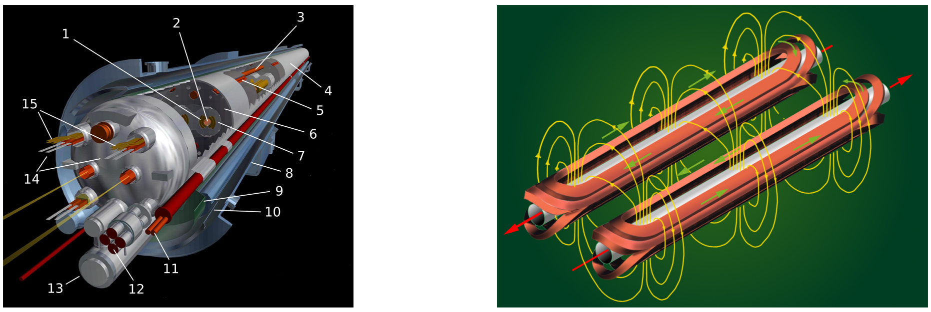
Figure 2.5: Pictures of the different accelerators. From top to bottom: first the LINAC 2 and the Pb source of LINAC 3. Then the Booster and the LEIR. Finally, the PS, the SPS and the LHC.

When exiting the LINAC 2, the protons are divided into 4 bunches and injected into the 4 superimposed synchrotron rings of the *Booster* where they are then accelerated to reach an energy of

$1.4\,\mathrm{GeV}$ before being injected into the *PS*. Before the Booster was operational in 1972, the protons were directly injected into the PS from the LINAC 2 but the low injection energy limited the amount of protons that could be accelerated at once by the PS. With the Booster, the PS accepts approximately 100 times more particles.

The 4 proton bunches are thus sent as one to the PS where their energy eventually reaches $26\,\mathrm{GeV}$. Since the 70s, the main goal of this $628\,\mathrm{m}$ circumference synchrotron has been to supply other machines with accelerated particles. Nowadays, not only the PS accelerates protons, it also accelerates heavy ions from the *Low Energy Ion Ring (LEIR)*. Indeed, the LHC experiments are not only designed to study pp-collinsions but also Pb-collisions. Lead is first injected into the dedicated linear collider *LINAC 3*, that accelerate the ions using the same principle than LINAC 2. Electrons are striped off the lead ions all along the acceleration process and eventually, only bare nuclei are injected in the LEIR whose goal is to transform the long ion pulses received into short dense bunches for LHC. Ions injected and stored in the PS were aceelerated by the LEIR from $4.2\,\mathrm{MeV}$ to $72\,\mathrm{MeV}$.

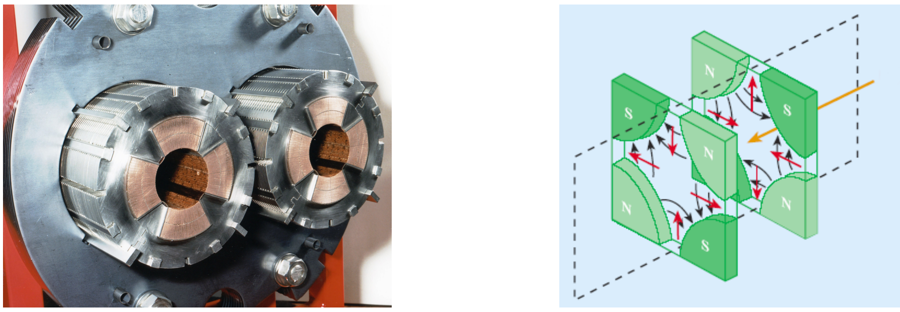
Directly following the PS, is finally the last acceleration stage before the LHC, the $7\,\mathrm{km}$ long *SPS*. The SPS accelerates the protons to $450\,\mathrm{GeV}$ and inject proton in both LHC accelerator rings that will increase their energy up to $7\,\mathrm{TeV}$. When the LHC runs with heavy lead ions for ALICE and LHCb, ions are injected and accelerated to reach the energy of $2.8\,\mathrm{TeV/A}$.



(a) *(b)*

Figure 2.6: Figure 2.6a: schematics of the LHC cryodipoles. 1: Superconducting Coils, 2: Beam pipe, 3: Heat exchanger Pipe, 4: Helium-II Vessel, 5: Superconducting Bus-bar, 6: Iron Yoke, 7: Non-Magnetic Collars, 8: Vacuum Vessel, 9: Radiation Screen, 10: Thermal Shield, 11: Auxiliary Bus-bar Tube, 12: Instrumentation Feed Throughs, 13: Protection Diode, 14: Quadrupole Bus-bars, 15: Spool Piece Bus-bars. Figure 2.6b: magnetic field and resulting motion force applied on the beam particles.

The LHC beams are not continuous and are rather organised in bunch of paticles. When in pp-collision mode, the beams are composed of 2808 bunches of 1.15×10^{11} protons separated by $25\,\mathrm{ns}$. When in Pb collision mode, the 592 Pb bunches are on the contrary composed of 2.2×10^{8} ions separated by $100\,\mathrm{ns}$. The two parrallel proton beams of the LHC are contained in a single twin-bore magnet due to the space restriction in the LEP tunnel. Indeed, building 2 completely separate accelerator rings next to each other was impossible. The dipoles of the 1232 twin-bore magnets are showed in Figure 2.6 alongside the magnetic field generated along the dipole section to accelerate the particles. The dipoles generate a nominal field of $8.33\,\mathrm{T}$, needed to give protons and lead nucleons their nominal energy. Some 392 quadrupoles, presented in Figure 2.7, are also used to focus to the beams, as well as other multipoles to correct smaller imperfections.



(a) *(b)*

Figure 2.7: Figure 2.7a: picture of the LHC quadrupoles. Figure 2.7b: magnetic fields and resulting focussing force applied on the beam by 2 consecutive quadrupoles.

2.2.2 CMS, a multipurpose experiment

Among the four main LHC experiment is the Compact Muon Solenoid used as a multipurpose tool to investigate the SM and physics beyond its scope. Proposed through a letter of intention in 1992 [14], and as its name suggests, this very compact detector's uses the muons as a clear tag of most of SM and new physics interesting channels. In the original 1997 Technical Design Report (TDR) [21], the very first sentences were stating that *"Muons are an unmistakable signature of most of the physics LHC is designed to explore. The ability to trigger on and reconstruct muons at the highest luminosities is central to the concept of CMS, the Compact Muon Solenoid."* CMS participated in the discovery of the Higgs boson and the measurement of its properties and couplings together with ATLAS and is also actively involved in the search for SUSY and heavy ion collisions. Other exotic physics are also being investigated using the data collected by CMS.

The CMS apparatus in itself is the heaviest detector ever built starring a SI15m diameter and a $29\,\mathrm{m}$ length for a total weight of $14\,\mathrm{kT}$. A thick $4\,\mathrm{T}$ solenoid magnet located at the beam interaction point hosts trackers and calorimeters. Extending in all directions around the magnet, heavy iron return yokes are installed to extend the magnetic field and support a muon system. The apparatus consists of a barrel, referring to the magnet and the detectors contained in it and the part of the muon system built directly in the cylinder around the magnet, and of 2 endcaps in the forward and backward region of the detector that closes the apparatus and complete the detection coverage along the beam line. A front view on the barrel is provided in Figure 2.8 while a detailed view of the apparatus is given in Figure 2.9.

In order to efficiently detect all long leaving particles and measure their properties with good precision, the CMS detector uses an onion like layout around of the interaction point in order to maximize the covered solid angle. As detailed in Figure 2.10, in the innermost region of the detector, closest to the interaction point, the silicon tracker records the trajectory of charged particles. Around it, the electromagnetic calorimeter (ECAL) stops and measure the energy deposition of electrons and photons. In the next layer, the hadron calorimeter (HCAL), hadrons are stopped are their energy measured. These layers are contained inside of the magnet of CMS, the superconducting solenoid. Outside of the magnet are the muon chambers embedded into iron return yokes used to control the magnetic field and gives muons, the only particles traveling completely through the whole detector, a double bending helping in reconstructing their energy and trajectory. Note that photons and neutral hadrons are differentiated from electrons and charged hadrons in the calorimeters by the fact that don't interact with the silicon tracker and that they are not influenced by the magnetic field.

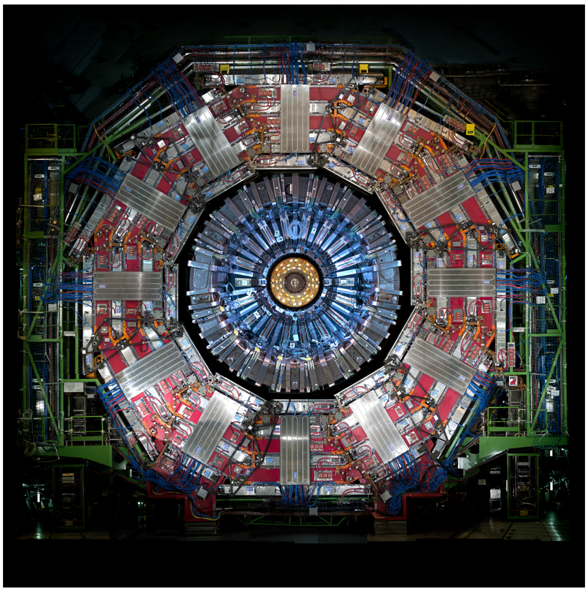


Figure 2.8: Picture of the CMS barrel. The red outer layer is the muon system hosted into the red iron return yokes. The calorimeters are the blue cylinder inside in magnet solenoid and the tracker is the inner yellow cylinder built around the beam pipe.

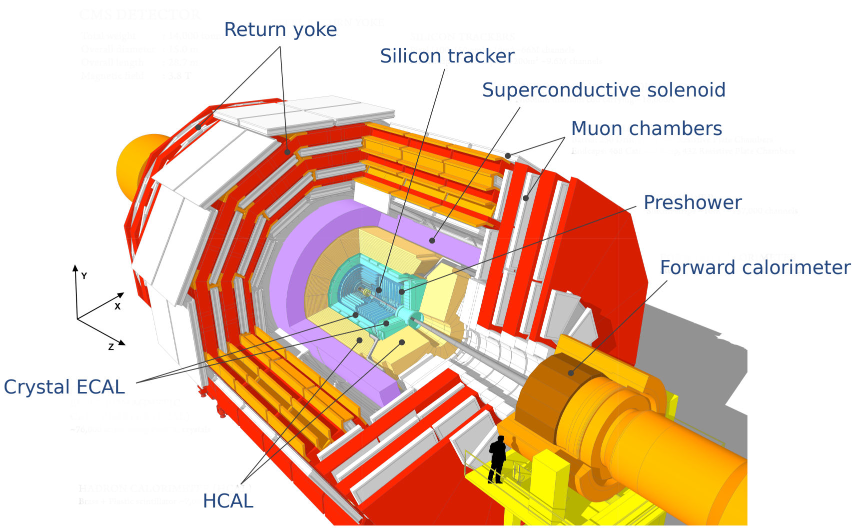


Figure 2.9: View of the CMS apparatus and of its different components.

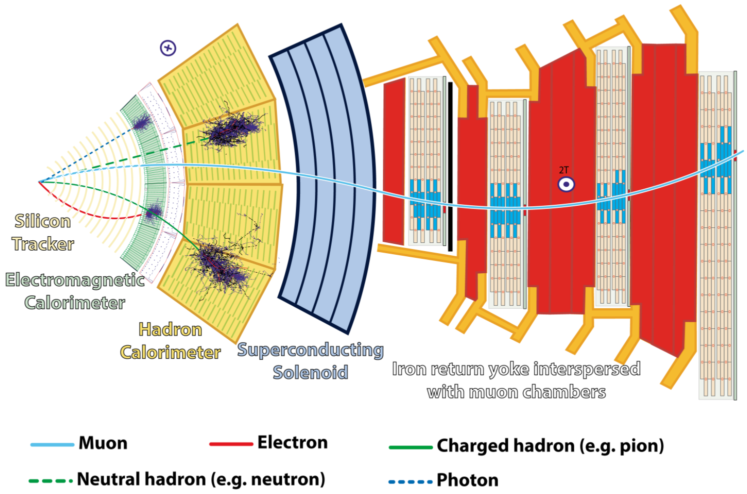


Figure 2.10: Slice showing CMS sub-detectors and how particles interact with them.

2.2.2.1 The silicon tracker, core of CMS

The silicon tracker visible on Figure 2.11 is divided into 2 different sub-systems: the *pixel detector* at the very core and the *microstrip detector* around it. This system is composed of 75 million individual readout channels with up to 6000 channels per squared centimeter for the pixels making it the world's biggest silicon detector. This density allows for measurements of the particle tracks with a precision of the order of $10\,\mu\mathrm{m}$. This is necessary to reconstruct all the different interaction vertices with precision and have a precise measure of the curvature of the charged particles traveling through the magnetic field to estimate their charge and momentum.

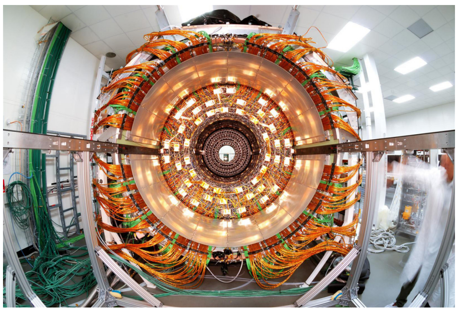
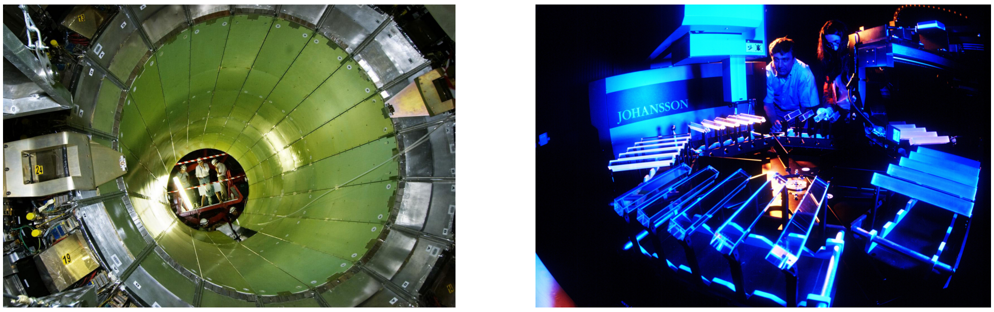


Figure 2.11: CMS tracker.

2.2.2.2 The calorimeters, measurement of particle's energy

The ECAL directly surrounding the tracker is composed of crystals of lead tungstate, $PbWO_4$, a very dense but optically transparent material used to stop high energy electrons and photons. These crystal blocks basically are extremely dense scintillators which scintillate in fast, short light bursts proportionally to the energy deposition. The light is yielded rapidly and contained at 80% in the corresponding $25\,\mathrm{ns}$ lasting bunch crossing. Each crystal is isolated from the other by the carbon fiber matrix they are embedded in. It is composed of a barrel containing more than 60,000 crystals and of closing endcaps containing another 15,000 crystals. In front of the ECAL endcap is installed a preshower detector made out of two layers of lead and silicon strip detectors to increase the spatial resolution close to the beam line for pion-photon and single-double photon discrimination purposes. Figure 2.12 shows the calorimeter inside of the magnet and the crystals.



(a) *(b)*

Figure 2.12: Figure 2.12a: picture of the ECAL. Figure 2.12b: picture of the lead tungstate crystals composing the ECAL.

The next layer is the HCAL measuring the hadrons momentum and providing indirect hints of non interacting neutral particles, such as neutrinos, as missing transverse momentum. Several layers of brass or steel are interleaved with plastic scintillators readout by photodiodes using wavelength-shifting fibers. The HCAL is also composed of a barrel, showed in Figure 2.13 and of endcaps. It also features forward calorimeters on both sides of CMS in the region very close to the beam line at high pseudorapidity ($3.0 < |\eta| < 5.0$). The role of these forward calorimeters, made using steel and quartz fibers, is to measure very energetic hadrons.

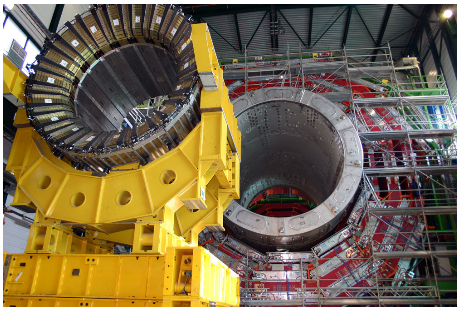


Figure 2.13: CMS hadron calorimeter barrel.

Finally, in the outer region of the apparatus, a muon system is used to trigger on potentially interesting event by identifying muons. Indeed, the muon system is a very important part of the CMS trigger infrastructure designed to efficiently select data from the enormous data flow received by the detectors as the LHC delivers collisions at a rate of $40\,\mathrm{MHz}$ with a pile-ip of 20 to 30 collisions per bunch crossing during Phase-I and up to 200 during Phase-II, representing billions of interactions per second among which a large quantity are low energy collisions that are not likely to produce new reactions, and which is physically impossible for nowadays technologies to cope with. Working at a maximum rate of $100\,\mathrm{kHz}$, the trigger system is able to select the 100,000 more interesting events by looking at the energy distribution of the interaction products and clear signatures like muons reconstructed by the muon system. the vast majority of these events will not finally be stored after physics tests are applied.

2.2.2.3 The muon system, corner stone of CMS

The challenge for the muon system is to provide a robust and fast measurement of muons. Three different subsystems, and soon 4 after LS2, compose the muon system as showed in Figure 2.14 in which a quadrant of the CMS detector focused on muon system. Drift Tube (DT) are found in the barrel region covering the low pseudorapidity region where particles traasverse momentum is lower and Cathode Strip Chamber (CSC) are found in the endcap region covering higher pseudorapidity region closer to beam line where particles have a stronger momentum. The redundancy of the system is insured by Resistive Plate Chamber (RPC) in both the barrel and endcap region. Nevertheless, the region closest to the beam line ($|\eta| > 1.8$) was not equipped with RPCs. This lack of redundancy in the high pseudo rapidity region will be solved during LS2, the following Year End Technical Stop (YETS) in 2021 and 2022, and LS3 where the necessary services, detectors and Link System, that collects the data and synchronizes them, will be installed.

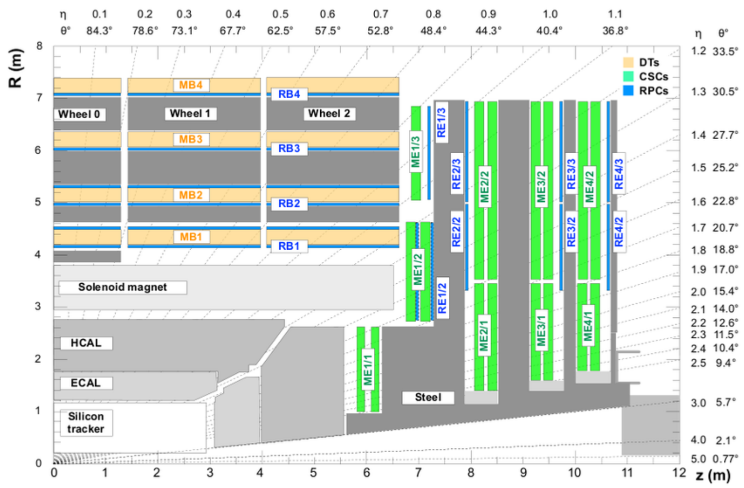
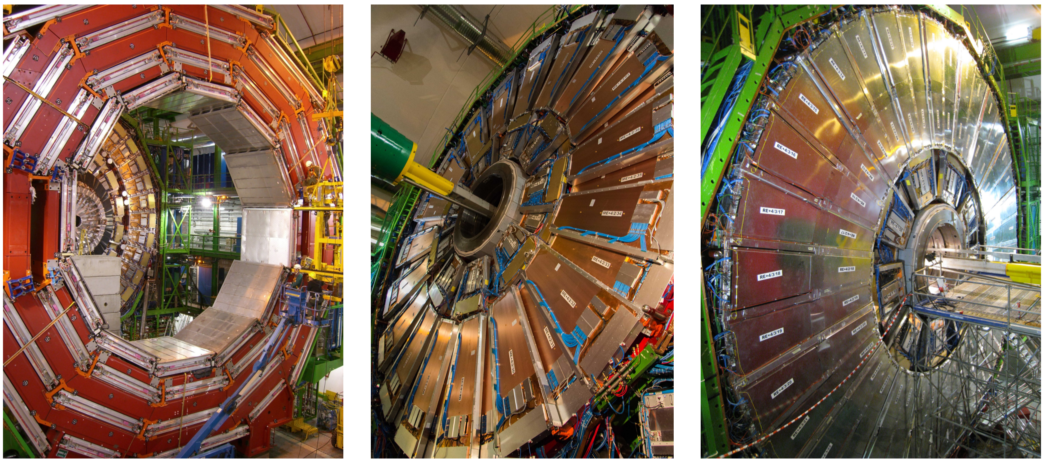


Figure 2.14: A quadrant of the muon system, showing DTs (yellow), RPCs (blue), and CSCs (green).

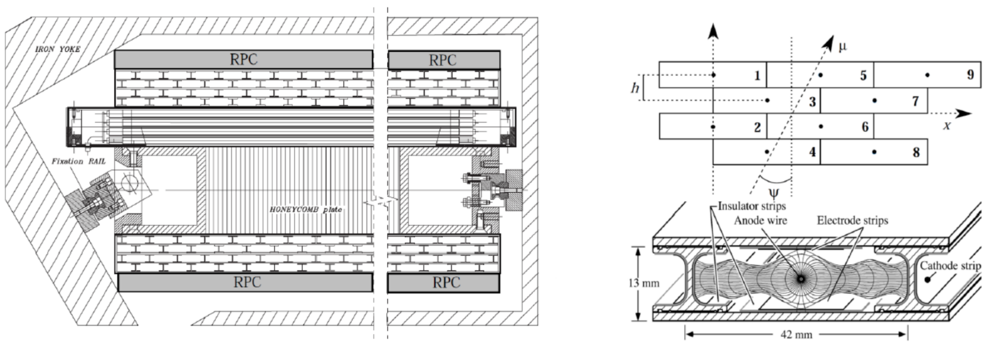
The barrel region is divided into 5 *wheels* made out of 4 *rings* of detectors with iron return yokes in between them whereas the endcaps are made out of 4 disks, each divided into pseudorapidity stations, 2 for CSCs (except for the first disk where 3 stations are equipped) and 3 for RPCs, although only 2 RPCs stations are equipped at present. The wheels and disks are showed in Figure 2.15. So far, each subsystem was dedicated to a particular task. DTs, in the barrel, and CSCs, in the endcaps, are used mainly for their spatial resolution. Indeed, DTs' resolution is of the order of $100\,\mu\mathrm{m}$ along both the $(r-\phi)$ and $(r-z)$ components while the resolution of CSCs is similar but varies in a range from $50\,\mu\mathrm{m}$ to $140\,\mu\mathrm{m}$ depending on the distance to the beamline. On the other hand, RPCs are used for their time resolution as they can deliver an information on the muon tracks within $1.5\,\mathrm{ns}$.

The 250 CMS DTs, found in the barrel covering the pseudorapidity region $0 < |\eta| < 1.2$ and whose structure is shown in Figure 2.16, are composed of 3 *superlayers* of DT cells. Two of these superlayers are dedicated to measuring the ϕ coordinate of the muons and while the last one measures the η (or z) coordinate. Each superlayer consists on 4 layers of 60 to 70 DT cells arranged in quincunx to allow for a precise reconstruction of the muon path through the DT layers. Each DT cell is a rectangular aluminium gas volume with a central anode wire. Cathode strips are placed on the narrow surface of the cells and electrode strips are placed on the wide surface to help shaping the electric field to ensure a consistent drift velocity of electrons in the drift volume. These detectors are operated using a 85/15 mixture of Ar and CO_2.



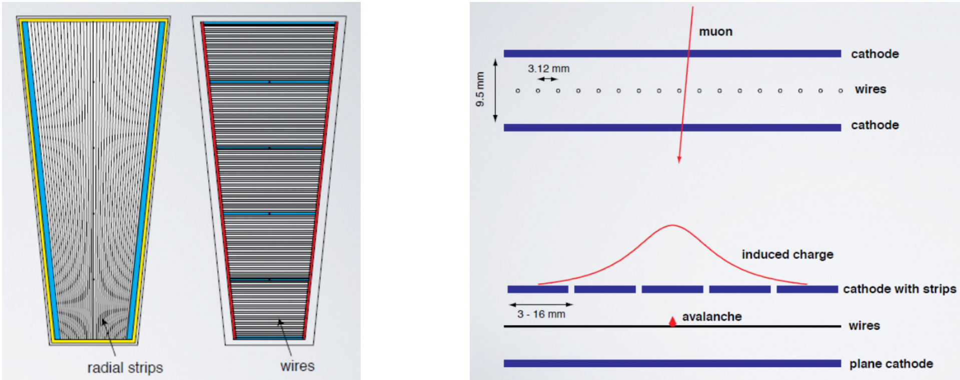
(a) *(b)* *(c)*

Figure 2.15: Figure 2.15a: Barrel wheel with its detector rings and return yokes. Figure 2.15b: CSC endcap disk with the 2 CSC stations. The outer station is made of 10 deg *detectors while the inner station is made of* 20 deg *detectors. Figure 2.15c: RPC endcap disk. The inner station is not equipped and the inner CSC station can be seen.*



(a) *(b)*

Figure 2.16: Figure 2.16a: Cross section of a DT module showing the two superlayers measuring the ϕ coordinate, perpendicular to the cross section plane, and the superlayer measuring the η coordinate, placed in between the two others with honeycomb and parallel to the cross section plane. The DT detector is sandwiched in between 2 RPCs whose readout strips are perpendicular to the cross section plane, measuring the ϕ coordinate. Figure 2.16b: A DT cell is shown together with its electric field. The path of a muon through a superlayer is shown.



(a) *(b)*

Figure 2.17: Figure 2.17a: cathode strips and anode wire layout of a CSC panel. Figure 2.17b avalanche development and charge collection by anode wires and induction on cathode strips inside of a CSC panel.

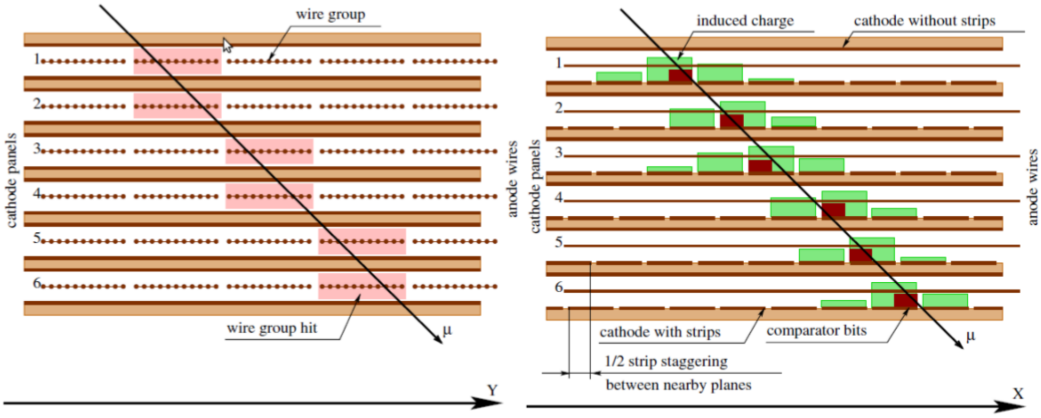


Figure 2.18: Muon track reconstruction through the 6 panels of a CMS CSC using the information of anode wire groups and cathode strip charge distribution combined with comparator bits to decide on which half strip the muon is more likely to have passed.

The 540 CMS CSCs, found in the endcaps covering the pseudorapidity region $0.9 < |\eta| < 2.5$ and described through Figure 2.17, are composed of 6 panels of CSC, each panel consisting in a wide gas volume of $9.5\,\mathrm{mm}$ ($7\,\mathrm{mm}$ in the case of ME1/1 station) containing anode wires and whose surfaces are cathodes. The top cathode is a wide copper plane of the size of the gas volume. The bottom cathode is divided into thin trapezoidal copper strips radially arranged to measure the azimuthal coordinate ϕ with a pitch ranging from 8 to $16\,\mathrm{mm}$. The $0.50\,\mu\mathrm{m}$ anode wires are placed perpendicularly to the strips to measure radial coordinate r and are grouped by 10 to 15 with a wire to wire space of $3.2\,\mathrm{mm}$. In he specific case of ME1/1 placed against the HCAL endcap, the $0.30\,\mu\mathrm{m}$ anode wires have a wire to wire distance of $2.5\,\mathrm{mm}$ and are not disposed perpendicularly to the strips but slightly tilted by an angle of $29\,\mathrm{deg}$ to compensate for the lorentz force due to the very strong local magnetic field of $4\,\mathrm{T}$. These detectors are operated with a 40/50/10 mixture of Ar, CO_2 and CF_4. Combining the information of the multiple CSC panels, the detectors achieve a very precise measurement of the muon track.

Despite their excellent spatial resolution, the wire chambers (DTs and CSCs) are limited in terms of time resolution by the fact that the charge needs to drift towards the anode wire and be collected before having the confirmation that a particle was detected as the drift volume is not used to develop avalanches. Indeed, the stronger electric field close to the anode wire triggers the avalanche and the gain of the detector. Due to the drift, the time resolution is thus limited at best to approximately 2 to $3\,\mathrm{ns}$. In addition, even though the intrinsic time resolution of the tracking chambers is rather good compared to the $25\,\mathrm{ns}$ in between successive collisions, the processing time of the trigger system doesn't allow for very fast triggering as it provides a time precision of only $12.5\,\mathrm{ns}$. Thus, detectors fully dedicated to timing measurement have been installed as a redundant system. These detectors are RPCs, also gaseous detectors but that use current induction instead of charge collection allowing for a time resolution of the order of $1.5\,\mathrm{ns}$ only. Theoretically, depending on the design used, RPCs could reach a time resolution of the order of $10\,\mathrm{ps}$ but in the context of LHC where bunch crossing happen every $25\,\mathrm{ns}$, a time resolution of $1.5\,\mathrm{ns}$ is sufficient to accurately assign the right bunch crossing to each detected muon.

The 1056 RPCs equipping the CMS muon system both in the barrel and endcap regions and covering the pseudorapidity region $0 < |\eta| < 1.6$ are composed of two layers of RPC *gaps* as described in Figure 2.19. Each gap consists in two resistive electrodes made out of $2\,\mathrm{mm}$ thick Bakelite enclosing a $2\,\mathrm{mm}$ thick gas volume containing a 95.2/4.5/0.3 mixture of $C_2H_2F_4$, $i-C_4H10$ and SF_6. Due to this geometry, the electric field inside of a gap is homogeneous and linear at every point in the gas translating into a uniform development of avalanches in the gas volume as soon as a passing muon ionises the gas. The two gaps sandwich a readout copper strip plane. A negative voltage is applied on the outer electrodes, used as cathodes, and the inner electrodes, the anodes, are simply connected to the ground as well as the readout panel that picks up the current induced by the accumulated charge of the growing avalanches in one or both of the gas gaps. This OR system allows for a lower gain (i.e. a lower electric field) on both gaps to reach the maximal efficiency of such a detector.

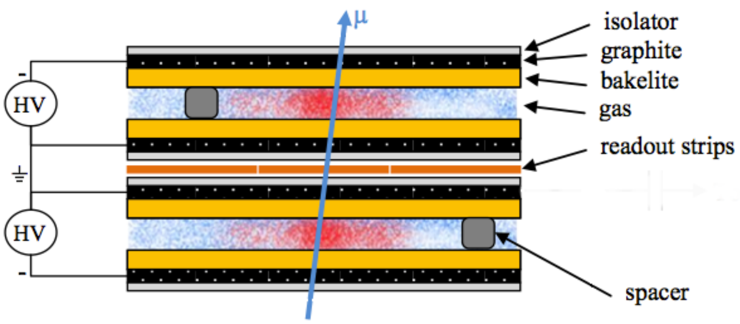


Figure 2.19: Double gap layout of CMS RPCs. Muons passing through the gas volumes will create electron-ions pairs by ionising the gas. this ionisation will immediately translate into a developing avalanche.

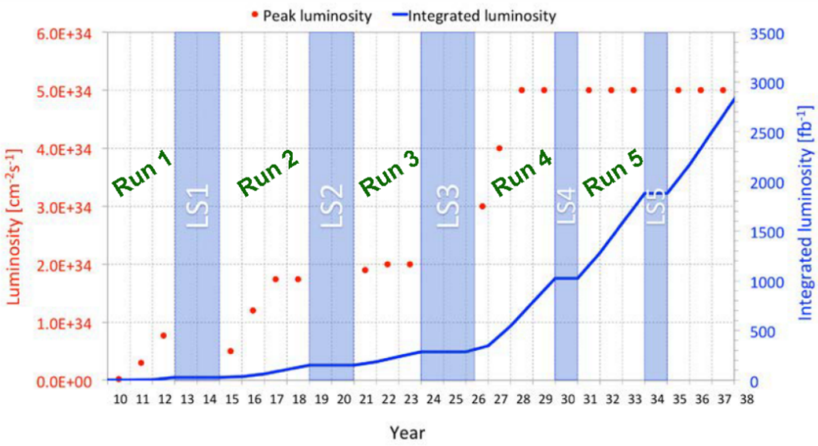
3

Muon Phase-II Upgrade

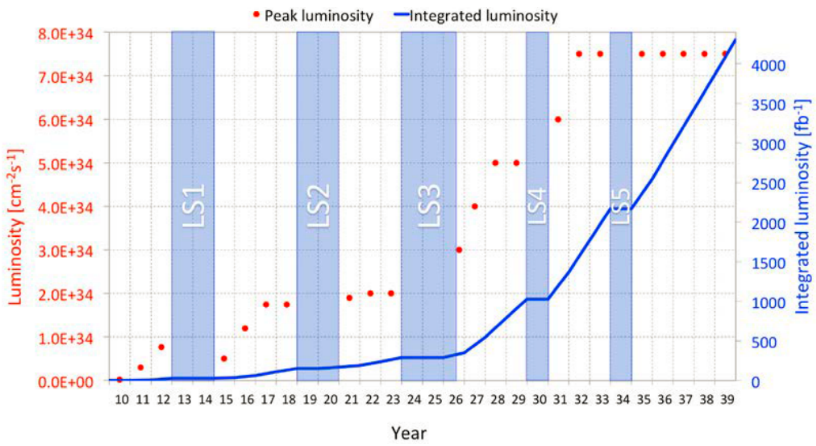
The very first proton beam successfully circulated in the LHC in September 2008 directly followed by an incident leading to mechanical damage that would delay the LHC program for a year until November 2009, the very first collisions at a center-of-mass energy of $7\,\mathrm{TeV}$ taking place in March 2010. The energy of the beam would be increased after a First Long Shutdown (LS1) starting early 2013 after less than 3 years of data taking. Nevertheless, this first data taking period at only $7\,\mathrm{TeV}$ was sufficient to claim the discovery of a new particle compatible with the Higgs boson in July 2012. During the 2 years of shutdown, the upgrade of the accelerator allowed for several maintainances along the beam pipes, repair and consolidation of magnet connection and high-current splices. But not only the LHC was upgraded. Indeed, the experiments at the 4 collision points also took the advantage of this time to upgrade their system in prevision of the next LHC run (Run-II) until 2018 and the Second Long Shutdown (LS2) as the luminosity and energy of the beam would be continuously increasing. By the end of Run-II, the luminosity will have reached twice its nominal value when the center-of-mass energy has already got close to its nominal value by reaching an historical $13\,\mathrm{TeV}$ for the first time in 2017.

The next long shutdown will occur at the end of this year and will again be the occasion for similar maintenance and consolidation in prevision of Run-III and the future upgrade of LS3. Still, the main occupation of LS2 on LHC side will be the upgrade of LHC injectors. On the experiments side, LHCb and ALICE will, in a very tight schedule, implement major upgrades while ATLAS and CMS will wait until LS3 to upgrade their detectors in prevision of high luminosity *LHC-Phase-II*. ALICE main challenge is an upgrade of their apparatus to cope with the $50\,\mathrm{kHz}$ $Pb-Pb$ collisions. Similarly, LHCb will upgrade their frontend readout electronics to cope with the full $40\,\mathrm{MHz}$ collisions delivered by LHC. ATLAS will perform standard maintenance and CMS will focus on the urgent upgrade of the pixel detector and on the installation of new muon detectors in order to take profit of LS2 time to mitigate the upgrade of detectors forseen during LS3. Run-III will start in 2021 with the LHC at its nominal center-of-mass energy and will bring LHC-Phase-I to an end at the end of 2023. By then the luminosity will only increase to reach 2.5 times the nominal luminosity but during these 3 years of run, the LHC will deliver as much integrated luminosity as what what brought during the almost 7 years of both Run-I and II of data taking. Phase-I will end with an overall $300\,\mathrm{fb}^{-1}$ delivered.

3.1 High Luminosity LHC and muon system requirements



(a)



(b)

Figure 3.1: Detailed timeline projection of for LHC and HL-LHC operation until 2039 showing the evolution of the instanteneous and integrated luminosity as designed (Figure 3.1a) and in the ultimate case where the instantaneous luminosity is increased to $7.5 \times 10^{34}\,\mathrm{cm}^{-2}\mathrm{s}^{-1}$ *(Figure 3.1b) [20, 22].*

After approximately 15 years of operation, the LHC will undergo a new series of upgrade during the LS3 in order to boost its discovery potential as showed in Figure 3.1. This moment onward is what is referred to HL-LHC or Phase-II. The goal is to aim for a luminosity 5 to 7 times stronger than the nominal one trying to reach even 10 times this value if possible. Increasing the luminosity means that the beam size at the collision points needs to be reduced to boost the number of collisions per bunch crossing. For this purpose, new focusing and bending magnets, and collimators will be installed at the collision points as well as newly developed *"crab cavities"* that will tilt the particle bunches just prior to the collisions by giving them transverse momentum and thus increasing their meeting area. In addition, the full proton injection line will be upgraded.

Over its full lifetime, the HL-LHC is expected to deliver an outstanding integrated luminosity of $3000\,\mathrm{fb}^{-1}$ leading, in the case of Higgs studies to measuring the couplings of the boson to a precision of 2 to 5% thanks to the estimated 15 millions of Higgs created every year providing a more precise measurement of potential deviations from the theoretical predictions. SUSY and heavy gauge boson studies would also see their mass range limits pushed away by at least $1\,\mathrm{TeV}$ and could lead to a new breakthrough. SUSY is a particularly important topic as it could give an answer to why the Higgs boson can stay so light while coupled to heavy particles by introducing the contributions of the super partners on top of providing dark matter candidates. Finally, the increase of luminosity will give the possibility to investigate ”exotic” mode like for example the models introducing extra dimensions to explain the hierarchy problem.

On the experiments side, the pile-up (PU) will be increased up to 150 to 200 interactions per bunch crossing in ATLAS and CMS, making necessary an strong upgrade of the trigger system and of the inner trackers and of the calorimeters. Both ATLAS and CMS will also need to upgrade the muon trigger at the level of the endcaps mainly focusing on the coverage near the beam line in order to increase the detection acceptance and event selection. Moreover, the increased luminosity will also lead to an increased background rate and a faster ageing of the detectors. This PhD work takes place into this very specific context of muon detector consolidation and certification for the HL-LHC period in order to provide the CMS experiment with robust new detectors and confirm that the present system will survive through the next 20 years of HL-LHC.

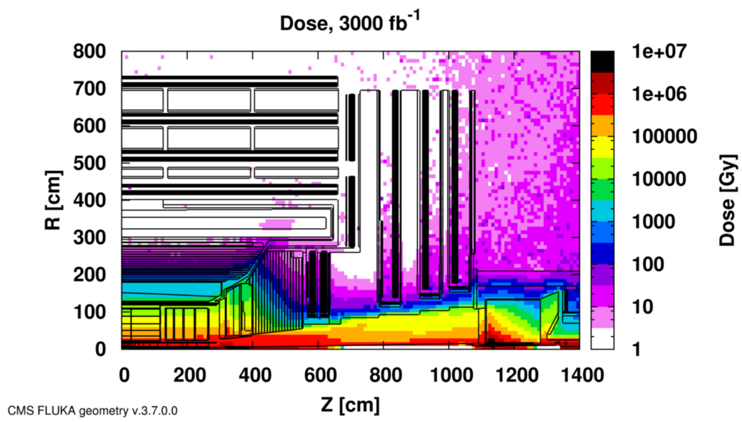


Figure 3.2: Absorbed dose in the CMS cavern after an integrated luminosity of $3000\,\mathrm{fb}$. *Using the interaction point as reference, R is the transverse distance from the beamline and Z is the distance along the beamline.*

The end of 2018 will mark the beginning of LS2 and the start of Phase-II upgrade activities. From the HL-LHC period onwards, i.e. past LS3, the performance degradation due to integrated radiation as well as the average number of inelastic collisions per bunch crossing, seen as pile-up into the detectors' readout that far exceeds this of the original LHC plans, will rise substantially and become a major challenge for all of the LHC experiments, like CMS, that were forced to address an upgrade program for Phase-II [23]. Dealing with the data from the muon detectors will force to upgrade the detectors and electronics towards the most recent technologies. Simultaneously, this will push new latency requirements onto the Level-1 trigger and the Data Acquisition (DAQ) that will only be fulfilled by upgrading the system with electronics having deeper buffering and faster processing. Simulations of the expected distribution of absorbed dose in the CMS detector under HL-LHC conditions show, in Figure 3.2, that detectors placed close to the beam line will have to withstand high irradiation, the radiation dose being of the order of a few tens of Gy.

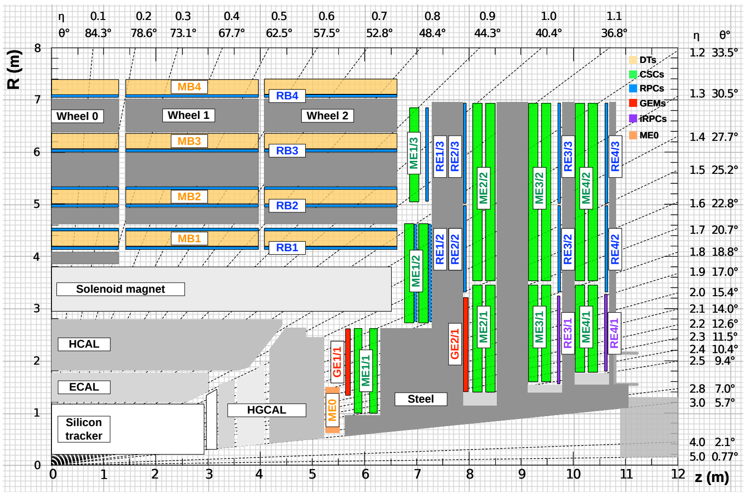


Figure 3.3: A quadrant of the muon system, showing DTs (yellow), RPCs (blue), and CSCs (green). The locations of new forward muon detectors for Phase-II are contained within the dashed box and indicated in red for GEM stations (ME0, GE1/1, and GE2/1) and dark blue for improved RPC (iRPC) stations (RE3/1 and RE4/1).

The increase of irradiation close to the beam line will affect the background rate seen by the muon detectors in this area and tracking muons will prove to be difficult as this region is not yet equipped with all the detectors that were already foreseen for Phase-I. Improving this situation will come with the increase of hit numbers recorded along the particle track to reduce the ambiguity on muon versus background detection. Moreover, the measurement of small production cross-section and/or decay branching ratio processes, such as the Higgs boson coupling to charge leptons, and in particular to muons, or the $B_s \longrightarrow \mu^+\mu^-$ decay, is of major interest and specific upgrades in the forward regions of the detector will be required to maximize the physics acceptance to the largest possible solid angle.

To ensure proper trigger performance within the present coverage, the muon system will be completed with new chambers and the electronics of the present system will need to be upgraded to ensure an efficient triggering. Figure 3.3 shows the addition of Gas Electron Multiplier (GEM) and improved RPC (iRPC) in the pseudo-rapidity region $1.6 < |\eta| < 2.4$ to complete the redundancy of the already existing CSCs as originally scheduled in the CMS Technical Proposal [24]. A first step into this direction will be taken by installing GEMs on the first endcap disk in position GE1/1 during LS2, during which preparations for the future installation of more GEMs and RPCs will take place by installing the needed services. During the YETS following LS2, iRPCs will be installed on the third and fourth endcap disks in position RE3/1 and RE4/1, and more GEMs will equip the second endcap in position GE2/1 and the inner layer, closest to the HCAL endcap called ME0 during LS3, finally completing the redundant coverage of the muon system and extending it a little by extending the reach to $|\eta| = 2.8$, the redundancy in the region $2.4 < |\eta| < 2.8$ being maintained by the 6 GEM layers contained in each ME0 detector that provide enough tracking points to efficiently reject neutron-induced background.

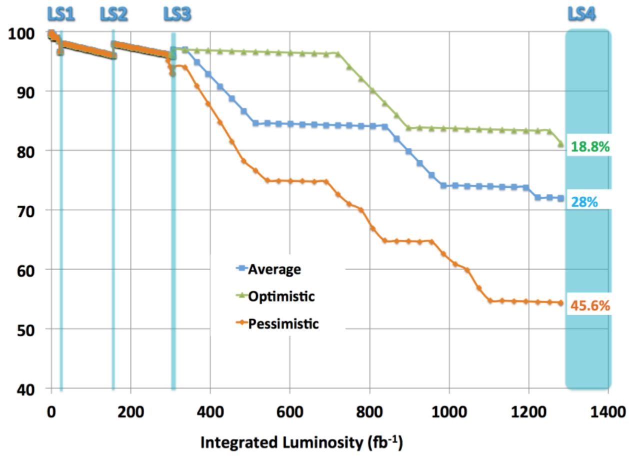
Nevertheless, the region beyond $|\eta| > 2.8$ and extending to $|\eta| = 5.0$ only is covered by the forward HCAL detectors and lack redundant muon detector coverage. Extensions of the tracker in the context of HL-LHC will increase its coverage up to $|\eta| = 4.0$ but the identification of muons and measurement of their energy with reasonable precision only using the tracker is nearly impossible. Thus, this increased tracker coverage range needs to be put in parallel with a matching muon detector and will open doors to multi-lepton final states in which leptons are likely to have a a low transverse momentum and to be found near the beam line.

Finally, as the muon system is composed only of gaseous detectors, strong environmental concerns have risen over the last years as the European directives will restrict the use of fluorine based gas mixtures. Both the CSC and RPC subsystems, using CF_4, $C_2H_2F_4$, or SF_6, will need to adapt their working gas in order to strongly reduce the greenhouse potential of the mixtures released into the atmosphere due to gas leaks.

3.2 Necessity for improved electronics

Drift Tubes and Cathode Strip Chambers are important components used to identify and measure muons, especially thanks to their spatial resolution of the order of $100\,\mu\mathrm{m}$. Nevertheless, the luminosity and irradiation during HL-LHC will cause serious event loss and ageing on the electronics of these subsystems that will comprise the triggering and data transfering needs of CMS. Thus, electronics upgrade are foreseen to address these expected problems. While only the RPCs' electronic system is able to operate under Phase-II requirements, DTs and CSCs will need to improve their trigger accept rate and latency to ensure that Level-1 trigger threshold stays at the same level [25], and DAQ data transfer rate, that respectively need to achieve a minimum of $500\,\mathrm{kHz}$, get down to $12.5\,\mu$s [26], and increase to $1082\,\mathrm{Gbit/s}$ DTs and to $1026\,\mathrm{Gbit/s}$ for CSCs. As of today, the Level-1 trigger accept rate of DTs doesn't reach $300\,\mathrm{kHz}$ while this of CSCs is bellow $250\,\mathrm{kHz}$ but the foreseen upgrades are expected to increase the rate way beyond the requirement in the of DTs and up to $4\,\mathrm{MHz}$ for CSCs [23].

The first version of Minicrate electronics (MiC1) used by DTs don't allow for high enough trigger rate. In addition to this problem, it was showed that these electronics contain components that are not radiation hard enough to sustain HL-LHC conditions and thus, a too large number of channels may fail due to radiations. Considering the most optimistic scenario, at least 19% of the channels could have failed by LS4, as explicited in Figure 3.4, far before the end of the HL-LHC campain. The MiC1 will be replaced on each detector by an improved version referred to as MiC2 while front-end electronics and high-voltage modules will not need any replacement. On the other hand, CSCs showed that there electronics would be able to live through the 10 years of Phase-II but the limited buffer depth might cause memory overflows and readout inefficiencies with a fraction of event loss ranging from 5 to more than 10% at an instantaneous luminosity similar to which of HL-LHC depending on the expected background, as showed on Figure 3.5 through the different detector positions. Thus the replacement of CSCs' cathode front-end boards (CFEBs) by digital ones, DCFEBs, with deeper buffer would permit to make event loss negligible and satisfy HL-LHC requirements [23].



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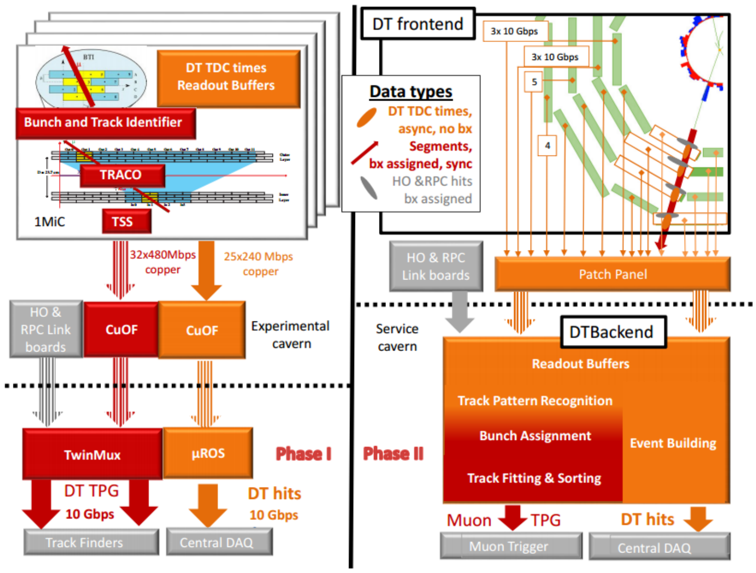
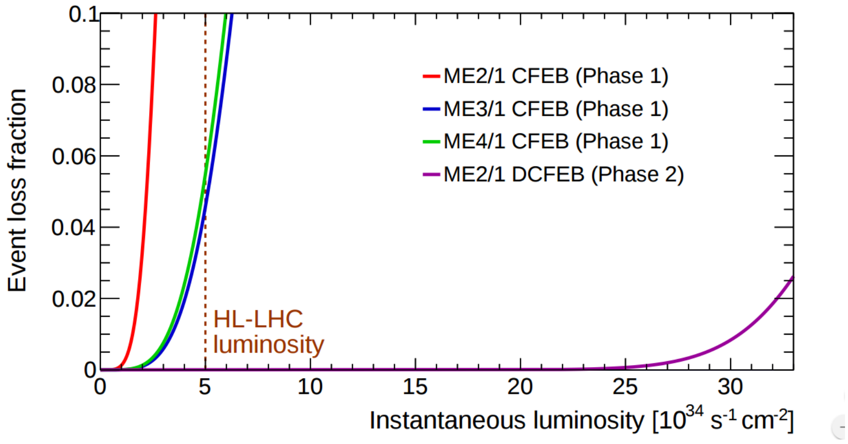
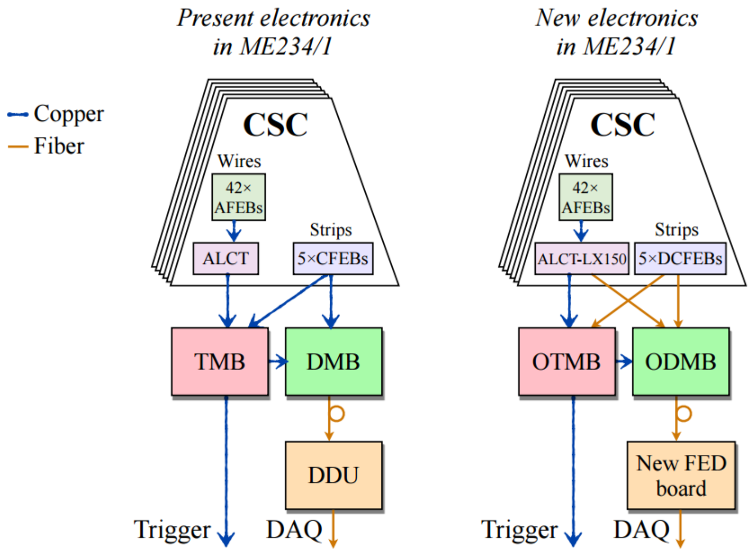


(b)

Figure 3.4: Figure 3.4a: Extrapolated fraction of failing channels of the present DT MiC1 electronics as a function of the integrated luminosity for different scenari until LS4. Figure 3.4b: Comparison of the current (left) and upgraded (right) DT data processing. So far, the data is sent to service cavern of CMS facility via copper-to-optical-fiber translators (CuOF) by each MiC1. There, data including RPCs and outer hadron calorimeter is combined into trigger primitives (TPG) and transmitted by the TwinMux system to CMS Track Finder. The time-to-digital converter (TDC) data is collected and sent to the CMS data acquisition system (DAQ) by the micro read-out server (µROS). After the upgrade, the TDC data will be sent via optical links to a patch panel inside the experimental cavern by each MiC2, and transferred to the back-end, where triggering and event building will be performed.



(a)



(b)

Figure 3.5: Figure 3.5a: The event loss fractions as a function of the instantaneous luminosity is compared for CFEBs (Phase-1) and DCFEBs (Phase-II) at different CSC locations. HL-LHC luminosity is marked with the dashed brown line. Figure 3.5b: Comparison of the current (left) and upgraded (right) CSC data processing. A part of the connections in between ALCTs and DCFEBs, and the trigger mother boards (TMBs) and data acquisition mother boards (DMBs) will be upgraded toward optical data transfer. The detector dependent units (DDUs) used as interface in betweend CSCs' front-end electronics and the CMS DAQ will be replaced by new FED boards.

All these new DT and CSC electronics will be connected to the trigger electronics via optical links to ensure a faster communication. The main change will come from the new DT minicrate modules which will not anymore be responsible for trigger and event building logic which will be transfered to the back-end electronics instead located in the service cavern via the patch pannels to which the Time-to-Digital Converter (TDC) data will be sent. The trigger and data transfer logic will barely change for CSCs. The existing copper cable connections of cathode and anode FEBs (CFEBs, and AFEBs which data is transmitted through the ALCTs) toward the trigger and data mother boards (TMBs and DMBs) will simply be replaced by optical fibers and the TMBs and DMBs upgraded with optical versions (OTMBS and ODMBs). As a new feature, the full anode wire data from ALCTs will be sent to the ODMBs causing a lack of FPGA memory resources in these ALCT boards that will thus need replacement.

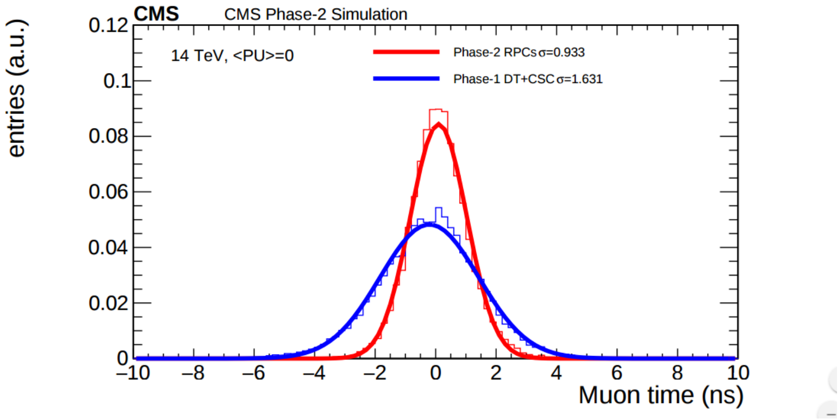


Figure 3.6: Comparison of the simulated time residuals in between reconstructed and true muon times without (blue) and with (red) the upgraded RPC link system.

The upgrade on the side of Resistive Plate Chambers will then not come from their on-board electronics but from the Link System located in the service cavern of CMS and that connects the front-end electronics data of RPCs into CMS trigger processors. The main motivation for such and upgrade is that the electronic board composing the link system are built using obsolete components and weak components that can easily suffer from the electromagnetic noise. These components may be the source of failing channels throughout Phase-II. Moreover, these link boards were originally designed only to match RPC digitized signals with the corresponding bunch crossing. Due to this feature, the time resolution of the full RPC chain is thus limited to 25 ns and does not exploit the full time resolution of the detectors. This would make the synchronization of the RPC system easier and allow to have a finer offline background removal within the 25 ns in between bunch crossings thanks to the order of magnitude gained in terms of time resolution.

Upgrading RPC link system will require the installation of 1376 new link boards and 216 control boards. The new boards will make use of the recent progress made with fast FPGAs and will be a great improvement to the ASICs formerly used as they will be able to process signals from several detectors in parallel. The benefice from using the full RPC time resolution thanks to the upgraded link system can be seen through Figure 3.6 where the resolution of the RPC system itself is better than which of DTs and CSCs that was used until now.

3.3 New detectors and increased acceptance

In the present muon system, the redundancy of was assured by RPCs used for their good timing performances. The extension of the muon system towards higher pseudo-rapidity in order to complete the redundancy in this very region and to contribute to the precision of muon momentum measurements will require muon chambers with a spatial resolution less or comparable to the contribution muon of multiple scattering through the detector volume [21]. Most of the plausible physics is covered only considering muons with p_T <100 GeV thus, in order to match CMS requirements, a spatial resolution of $\mathcal{O}$(few mm) will be necessary for the proposed new RPC stations while the GEMs will need a resolution better than 1 mm, as showed by the simulation in Figure 3.7.

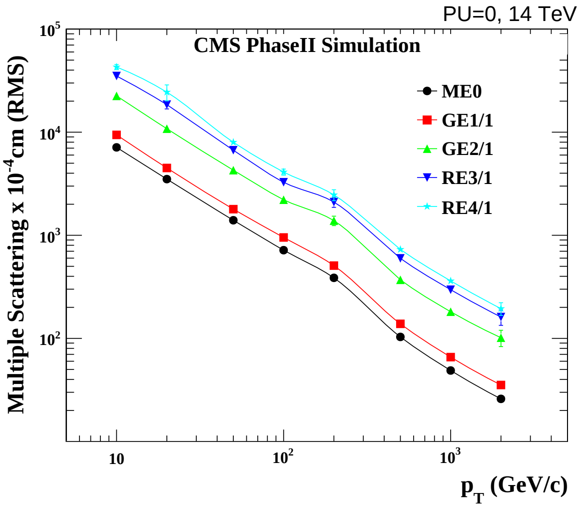


Figure 3.7: RMS of the multiple scattering displacement as a function of muon p_T for the proposed forward muon stations. All of the electromagnetic processes such as bremsstrahlung and magnetic field effect are included in the simulation.

3.3.1 Improved forward resistive plate chambers

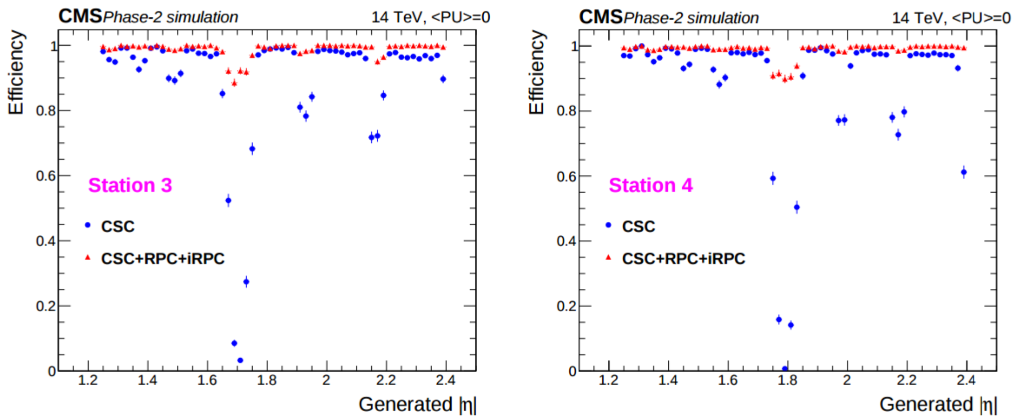


Figure 3.8: Simulation of the impact of RPC hit inclusion onto the local trigger primitive efficiency in station 3 (left) and station 4 (right). The contribution of iRPC starts above $|\eta| = 1.8$.

Figure 3.3 shows that the iRPCs that will equip the third and fourth endcap disks in position RE3/1 and RE4/1 will finally be the partners of the CSCs in position ME3/1 and ME4/1 and complete Phase-I plans but bringing the needed upgrades in the scope of Phase-II as the older chambers are not suitable to equip the forward region of CMS due to HL-LHC rates and charge deposition. By completing the redundancy, more track along the muon trajectory will be available and the lever arm will be improved. The benefits from extending the redundancy of the muon system with iRPCs to the forward most region is showed in Figure 3.8 in which the trigger efficiency is showed with and without RPCs in which it is possible to see that the efficiency of CMS trigger with the complete redundancy is improved is above 95% in the region $|\eta| > 1.8$ as the iRPCs help filling the holes in the CSC system.

The detectors that will be installed in the coming years will be similar to the already existing RPC system. 18 of the new chambers, each spanning 20° in φ around the beam axis with 96 radially oriented trapezoidal read-out strips, will cover each muon endcap disk leading to the production of 72 iRPCs.The main difference with the old RPC chambers is that these detectors will not have readout strips segmented in η as by using fast front-end electronics the strips will be read-out on both sides allowing for a radial spatial resolution of the order of $2\,\mathrm{cm}$ in order to contribute to the better reconstruction of muon in the forward region where the bending of muons by the magnetic field is low. This is motivated by the fact that, in the case a η segmentation was used, at least 5 pseudorapidity partitions would have been necessary to reach the minimal radial spatial resolution ($\approx 20\,\mathrm{cm}$). Having only one strip read-out from both along the chamber reduces by 60% the total number of channels and the necessary cabling and allows for a better spatial resolution. The strip pitch will range from $6.0\,\mathrm{mm}$ ($5.9\,\mathrm{mm}$) on the high pseudo-rapidity end to $12.3\,\mathrm{mm}$ ($10.9\,\mathrm{mm}$) on the low one on position RE3/1 (RE4/1). The spatial resolution in the direction perpendicular to the strips should reach approximately $3\,\mathrm{mm}$, better than the minimal needed resolution (Figure 3.7), and the overall time resolution of the new installation will be equally $1.5\,\mathrm{ns}$, as for the present due to the same link system being used.

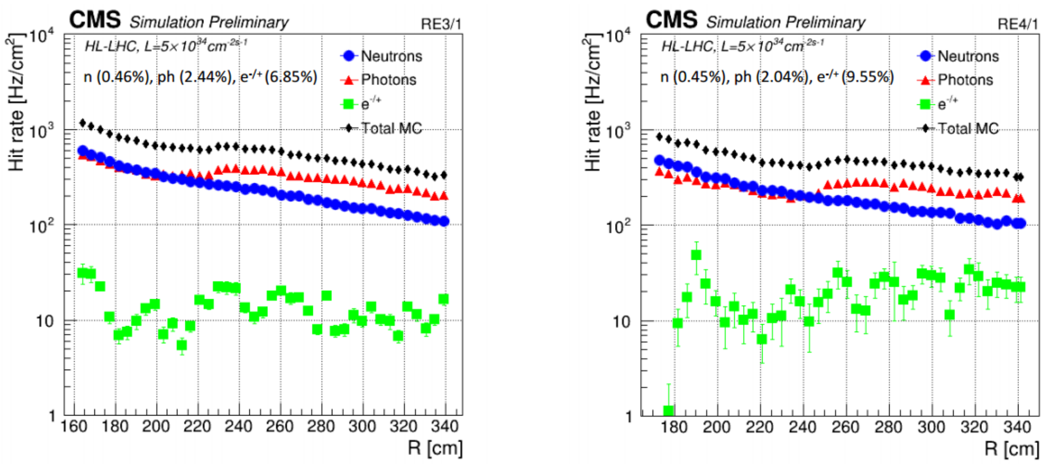


Figure 3.9: Expected hit rate due to neutrons, photons, electrons and positrons at HL-HLC instantaneous luminosity of $5\times10^{34}\,\mathrm{cm}^{-2}\mathrm{s}^{-1}$ *in RE3/1 and RE4/1 chambers. The sensitivities of iRPCs used in the simulation for each particle are reported and differ from one endcap disk to another as the energies of the considered particles varies with the increasing distance from the interaction point.*

Nevertheless, having only a single strip instead of pseudo-rapidity segmentation will increase the probability of double hits in the same channel. This probability was estimated to be low enough as it shouldn't exceed 0.7%. This estimation was made assuming an average hit rate per unit area of $600\,\mathrm{Hz/cm^2}$ in the iRPCs (see Figure 3.9), a cluster size (average number of strips fired per muon) of 2, a strip active area of $158.4 \times 0.87\,\mathrm{cm^2}$ and a safety factor 3 leading to an estimated rate per strip of $380\,\mathrm{kHz}$ corresponding to an average time interval of $2600\,\mathrm{ns}$ in between 2 consecutive hits. The time for a signal to go through the full strip length is about $10\,\mathrm{ns}$ to which can be added $1\,\mathrm{ns}$ of dead time and 2 TDC clock cycles of $2.5\,\mathrm{ns}$ for a minimal time interval of $16\,\mathrm{ns}$ necessary to avoid ambiguities. The probability of having ambiguous double hits in a strip in then the ratio in between this minimal time interval in between 2 consecutive hits and the average time interval estimated from the rate the detectors are subjected to.

The instantaneous luminosity at HL-LHC being very high, the rates at the level of the new chambers needed to be simulated in order to understand the necessary requirements for these detectors. The simulated results for different background components (neutrons, photons, electrons and positrons) are showed in Figure 3.9 assuming known sensitivities to these particles. It is showed that on average over the iRPC areas the rates would be of the order of $600\,\mathrm{Hz/cm^2}$ ($600\,\mathrm{Hz/cm^2}$ seen in RE3/1 and $480\,\mathrm{Hz/cm^2}$ in RE4/1) [27]. Thus, taking into account a safety factor of about 3, it was decided that improved RPCs should at least be certified for rates reaching $2\,\mathrm{kHz/cm^2}$ which would be achieved thanks to several improvements on the design and on the electronics. The detectors design will be based on the existing RPC design as they will be double gaps. Similarly to the existing RPC system, the electrode material will be HPL although the thickness of the electrodes and of the gas gap will be reduced to $1.4\,\mathrm{mm}$ as a thinner gas gap leads to a decrease of deposited charge per avalanche as showed in Figure 3.10. The smaller the gas gap, the more the detector becomes sensitive to gap non-uniformities across the electrode planes making a gap of $1.4\,\mathrm{mm}$ a good compromise in between these two competing factors.

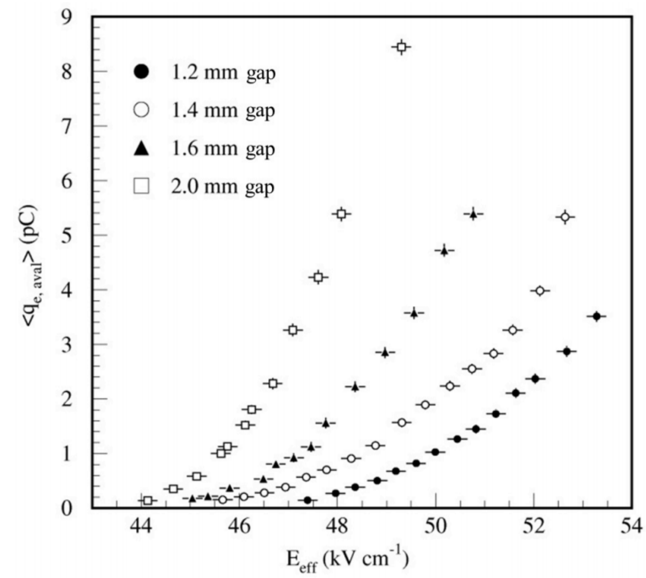


Figure 3.10: Measured average charge per avalanche as a function of the effective electric field for different gas gap thickness in double gap RPCs using HPL electrodes.

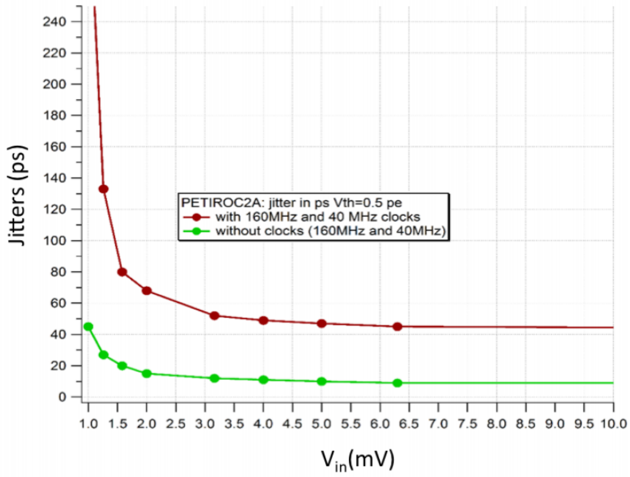


Figure 3.11: The PETIROC time jitter as a function of the input signal amplitude, measured with and without internal clocks.

A lower charge deposition inside of the detector volume means a slower ageing and a longer lifetime for detectors subjected to high irradiation. But, in order to take advantage of the lower detector gain, more sensitive electronics are required so that the part of gain that was formerly done in the gas volume can be moved to the electronics. Achieving this with the technology developed more than 10 years ago for the present system is not possible as the signal over noise ratio of such electronics doesn't allow to detect charges as low as $10\,\mathrm{fC}$. Moreover, the new front-end electronics will need to be radiation hard to survive to more than 10 years of HL-LHC conditions. The new technology that has been chosen is based on the PETIROC ASIC manufactured by OMEGA and is a 64-channel ASIC called CMS RPCROC on which the original SiGe technology will be replaced by CMOS to increase its radiation hardness while keeping fast pre-amplification and discrimination with a very low jitter that can reach less than $20\,\mathrm{ps}$ if no internal clock is used, as can be seen from Figure 3.11. The ASIC is associated with an FPGA which purpose is to measure time thanks to a TDC with a time resolution of 50-100 ps developed by Tsinghua University and that will provide a measurement of the signal position along the strip with a precision of a few cm by measuring the signal timing on both ends of the strips. In order to read-out all 96 strips, 3 ASICs and 3 TDCs, each having 64 channels, are hosted on a front-end board attached to the chamber.

[Wait for the analysis of 2018 GIF++ data to add interesting information about the time and spatial resoltution measured during test beam periods.]

3.3.2 Gas electron multipliers

In the region closer to the interaction point where the spatial resolution is requested to be better than $1\,\mathrm{mm}$ for the new detectors (at least for GE1/1 and ME0, GE2/1 being in the same order of requested spatial resolution than the new iRPCs that will equip the third and fourth endcaps), the choice has been made to use triple GEMs, micro pattern gaseous detectors, in the place of RPCs. The GE1/1 project had been the first to be approved and demonstrators had been installed in CMS already during LS1. The rest of the detectors will be installed during LS2 while the GE2/1 and ME0 projects are still under development. ME0, GE1/1 and GE2/1 will be installed respectively next to the HCAL endcap, on the first and on the second muon endcap disks as can be seen from Figure 3.3.

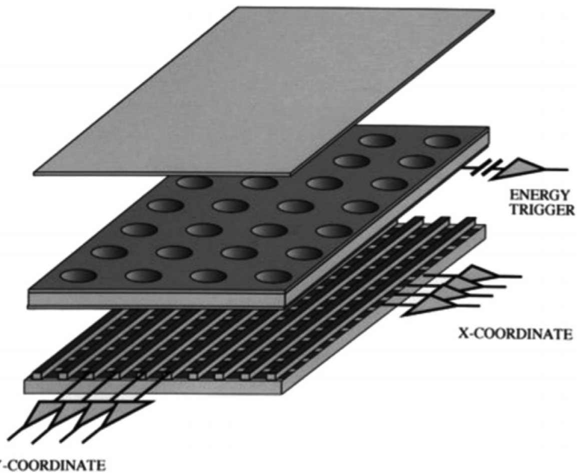


Figure 3.12: Schematics of a GEM showing the cathode on top, the GEM foil separating the gas volume into the drift region, in between the cathode and foil, and the induction region, in between the GEM foil and the anode, and the anode on which a 2D read-out is installed. A negative voltage is applied on the cathode while the anode is connected to the ground.

Gas Electron multipliers are gaseous detectors [28] which gas volume is confined in between 2 planar electrodes, the anode serving as read-out panel. The gas volume is divided in 2 or more regions by a single or multiple *GEM foils* as showed in Figure 3.12. These foils are very thin, of the order of a few tens of μm, and are pierced with holes as can be seen in Figure 3.13. Both surfaces of the GEM foils are clad with copper in order to apply a strong electric field in between each side that will generate very strong potentials in the holes. The gas region contained in between the cathode and the GEM foil is called the drift region as the electric field is not strong enough to cause avalanches and thus start an amplification. The primary electrons drift toward the foil and are accelerated and amplify by the very high potential within the holes, as showed in Figure 3.13. Then the electrons reach the second drift region in which they will induce signal on the read-out located on the anode. By restraining the amplification process at the level of the holes, the electrons can stay in a very confined space and thus induce a very localized current, providing the GEMs with a very good spatial resolution.

In order to achieve a stronger amplification, the amplification process can be repeated several times in a row. The GEMs that will be used in CMS are triple GEM detectors operated with a 70/30 gas mixture of Ar/CO_2. They contain 3 GEM foils and thus 3 electron amplifications, as can be seen in Figure 3.14. The GEM foils used in CMS are $50\,\mu m$ foils clad with $5\,\mu m$ of copper on each side. The foils are pierced with double-canonical holes which inner and outer diameters are respectively 50 and $70\,\mu m$ which are placed $140\,\mu m$ from each other in an hexagonal pattern, as showed in Figure 3.13. These detectors have a time resolution better than $10\,ns$ and reach very good spatial resolutions of less than $200\,\mu rad$ as indeed the position of the hits is not measured along the strips but following the azimuthal angle granularity of the radialy organized trapezoidal strips.

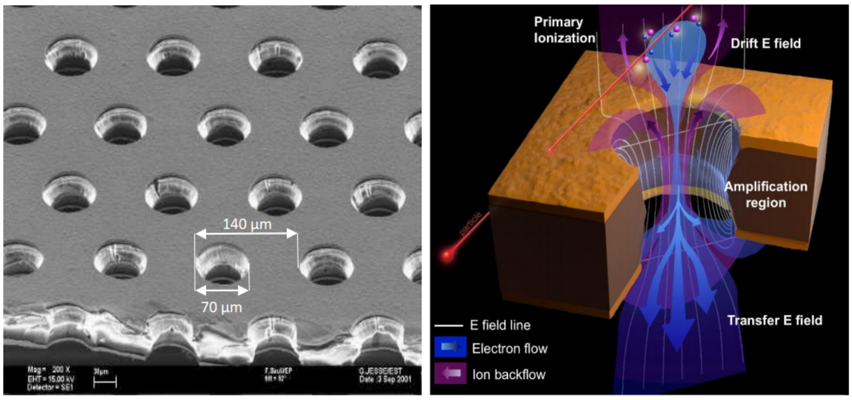


Figure 3.13: Left: Picture of a CMS GEM foil provided by a scanning electron microscope. Righ: Representation of the electric field lines in a GEM hole and of the amplification that electrons and ions undergo in the hole's volume due to the very intense electric field.

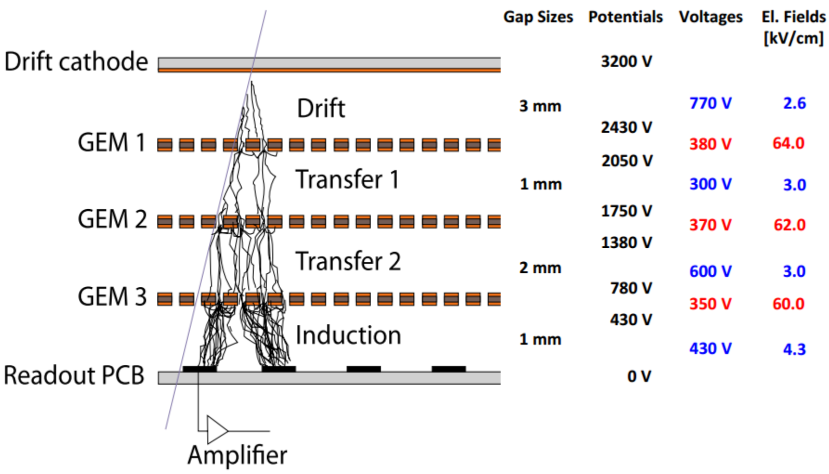


Figure 3.14: Schematic representation of CMS triple GEMs. The gas volume is divided into 4 areas. The drift area is the region where the primary electrons are created before being amplified a first time while passing through the first GEM foil. Then the process of drift and amplification is repeated twice in following two transfer areas and GEM foils. Finally, the charges have been amplified enough to induce current in the read-out strips while in the last drift area. The dimensions, potentials and electric fields are provided.

The GEM Upgrade is divided into 3 subsystems as GE1/1 was the first approved project [29] and that the detectors will already be installed during LS2. GE2/1 and ME0, on the other hand, will profit of the R&D knowledge and skills developed for GE1/1 while the requirements for each subsystem are different as they are not placed at the same distance from the interaction point. In this very forward region, a different position with respect to the center of the detector can change dramatically the conditions in which the detectors will have to be operated. In terms of rate capability, GE2/1, which is the furthest, is required to withstand $2.1\,\mathrm{kHz/cm^2}$ while GE1/1 needs to be better than $10\,\mathrm{kHz/cm^2}$ and ME), better than $150\,\mathrm{kHz/cm^2}$. In terms of ageing with respect to charge deposition, ME0 needs to be certified to $840\,\mathrm{mC/cm^2}$, GE1/1 to $200\,\mathrm{mC/cm^2}$ and GE2/1 only to

$9\,\mathrm{mC/cm^2}$. All 3 detectors need to have a time resolution better than $10\,\mathrm{ns}$ and an angular resolution better than $500\,\mu\mathrm{rad}$.

On each GE1/1 ring, 36 super chambers, consisting of 2 single GEM layers and spanning $10°$, will be installed covering the pseudo-rapidity region $1.6 < |\eta| < 2.2$ together with ME1/1 CSCs and the reach of the muon system will be improved thanks to the GE2/1 that will overlap with the GE1/1 and cover a region from $|\eta| > 1.6$ to $|\eta| < 2.4$ and complete the redundancy of ME2/1. The super chambers, built with 2 triple GEM layers each consisting of 4 single GEM modules due to the rather large surface of the GE2/1 chambers, that will be installed on the first ring of the second endcap will span $20°$ each, hence, a total of 72 chambers will be assembled to equip the muon system. Finally, the ME0 installed near the HCAl endcap will cover the region $2.0 < |\eta| < 2.8$ and this subsystem will consist in super modules of 6 layers of triple GEM detectors covering an azimuthal angle of $20°$ leading to the construction of 216 single detectors.

All these new GEM detectors will be using a similar internal layout which is described in Figure 3.14. The incoming muons will create detectable electron-ion pairs in the $3\,\mathrm{mm}$ thick drift volume in which an electric field of $2.6\,\mathrm{kV/cm}$ is applied for the electrons to drift to the first GEM foil on which a very intense field of $64\,\mathrm{kV/cm}$ is applied over a distance of only $60\,\mu\mathrm{m}$ which allows for an average electronic gain of 20 to 25. After the first amplification stage, the electrons drift over the $1\,\mathrm{mm}$ separating the 2 first GEM foils thanks to an electric field of $3.0\,\mathrm{kV/cm}$ and are again amplified by a factor 20 to 25 while going through the second GEM foil to which is applied an electric field of $62\,\mathrm{kV/cm}$. The electron drift another $2\,\mathrm{mm}$ towards the last GEM foil through a field of $3.0\,\mathrm{kV/cm}$ and are multiplied one last time from a similar factor passing through the $60\,\mathrm{kV/cm}$ of the last GEM foil holes. Finally, they drift along the $1\,\mathrm{mm}$ of the induction volume in a field of $4.3\,\mathrm{kV/cm}$ to reach the trapezoidal strips on the read-out PCB used as anode. The total detector gain is approximately of the order of 10^4 and the resulting output signal is both due to the induction of moving charges in the induction volume and of charge pic-up once they read the read-out strips.

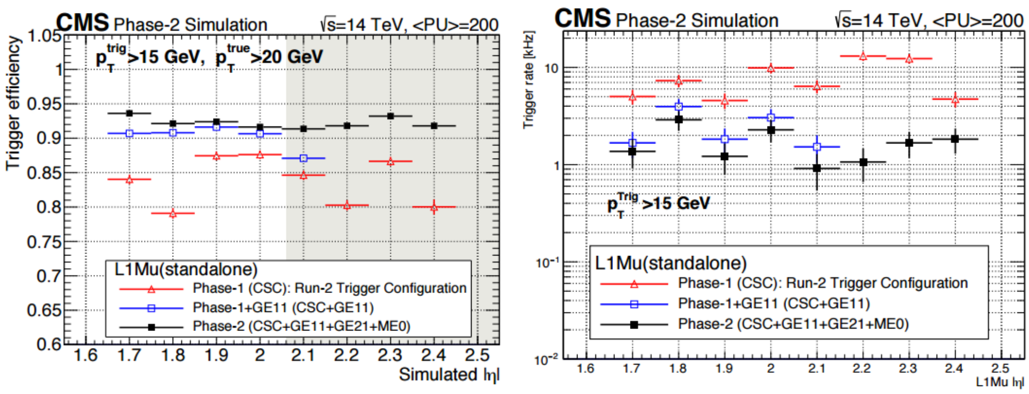
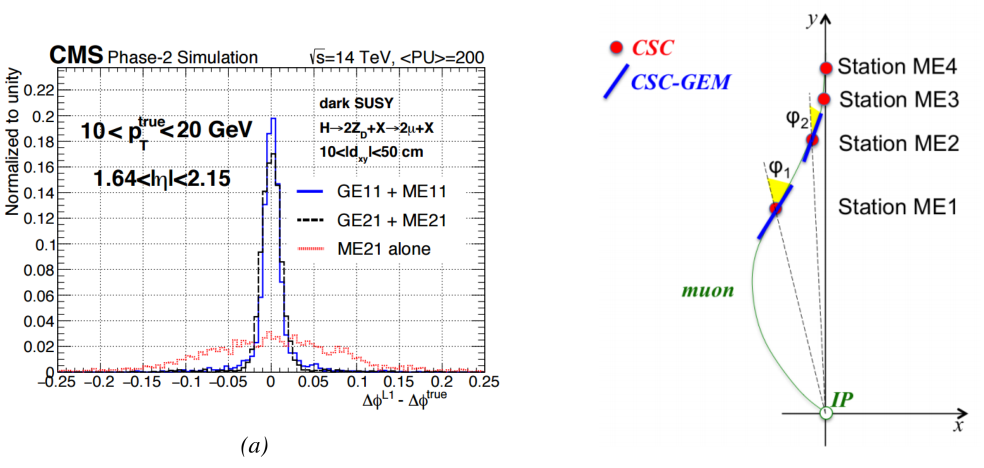


Figure 3.15: Simulated efficiency and rate of the standalone Level-1 muon trigger using tracks reconstructed in CSCs and all GEM stations compared with Phase-I values in the case where only CSCs are used or CSCs+GE1/1. The zones of inefficiency of the CSC subsystem are compensated by the addition of GEMs during Phase-II and the trigger rates is kept from increasing due to the high luminosity.

Adding the GEMs into the forward region of the muon system will allow to strongly enhance the Level-1 Trigger performance by reducing the inefficiency regions and the trigger rate as showed in Figure 3.15. Moreover, benefiting from the good spatial and angular resolution of the GEMs, the precision into the muon measurement will also be greatly improved by the addition of GEMs as can be seen from the simulation presented in Figure 3.16.



(a) *(b)*

Figure 3.16: Figure 3.16a: Simulated resolution of the muon direction measurement $\Delta\phi$ with Phase-II conditions. In the second endcap station, the resolution is compared in the case of CSCs (ME2/1) alone and CSCs+GEMs (GE2/1+ME2/1) while a similar resolution measurement is given in the case of the first station (GE1/1+ME1/1). Figure 3.16b: The addition of GEM detectors on stations 1 and 2 (ME0 is considered to contribute to station station 1) as redundant system to CSCs allows to improve the muon momentum improvement through a more accurate measurement of the local bending angles ϕ_1 and ϕ_2.

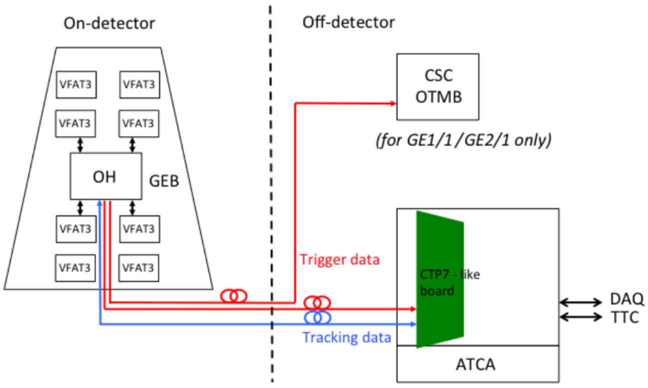
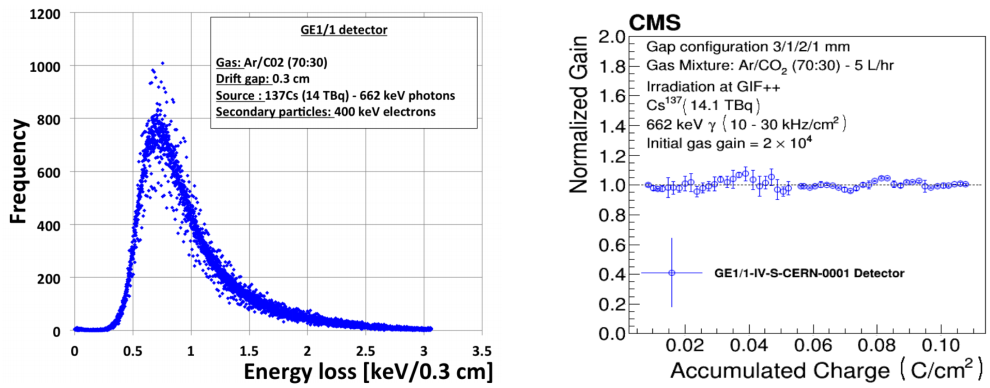


Figure 3.17: Schematics of the data communication chain for DAQ of the GEM subsystems. The sending of trigger data via optical links to the CSC OTMBs is only done for GE1/1 and GE2/1 to match the data with ME1/1 and ME2/1.

The read-out of GEMs will use the same technology. The anode planes used as read-out PCBs and referred to as GEM Electronics board (GEB) host on their outer surface VFAT3 ASICs that connect to a total of 128 strips for a very fine angular granularity. Along the endcap radius, the strips are divided into 8 pseudo-rapidity partitions. In the case of GE1/1 and ME0, each η-partition consist in 384 read-out strips connected into 3 VFAT3 ASICs and offering a while the large GE2/1 partitions contain twice as many channels. Both GE1/1 and GE2/1 strips have an angular pitch of $474\,\mu\mathrm{m}$ while this of ME0 is twice larger due to its proximity with the interaction point. The VFAT3 ASICs allow for a latency better than the $12.5\,\mu\mathrm{s}$ required by CMS Level-1 Trigger and there frequencies goes up to $1\,\mathrm{MHz}$. They are connected into the Optohybrid Board (OH) and this full ensemble (GEB+VAT3+OH) constitute the on-chamber electronics. The OH is then sending the data to the modules constituting the DAQ of the GEM system via optical fibers. These back-end electronics modules are located in the service cavern of CMS and host CMS communication devices, used to have a common clock, and control and links to the Endcap Muon Track Finder (EMTF) system. Moreover, GE1/1 and GE2/1 also have links with the CSC OTMBs as the OH of these 2 subsystems send data into these boards. This communication chain can be seen in Figure 3.17.

The detectors that will placed in CMS will have to live through Phase-II without significant performance degradation to ensure an efficient data taking and the possibility to investigate more exotic physics. As the 3 GEM subsystems will be using the same detector technology, the choice was made to certify the GEMs in the worst of the 3 environments, i.e. the ME0 station located right behind the HCAL. According to FLUKA simulation, including all the latest foreseen upgrades into the CMS detector geometry, it was shown that the maximal hit rate expected in ME0 would be of the order of $50\,\mathrm{kHz/cm^2}$ with contributions of neutrons ($6\,\mathrm{kHz/cm^2}$), photons ($35\,\mathrm{kHz/cm^2}$), and electrons and positrons ($8\,\mathrm{kHz/cm^2}$) resulting in a charge deposition a little lower than $300\,\mathrm{mC/cm^2}$ after 10 years of HL-LHC [23]. It is necessary to understand the classical ageing effects on the GEMs but also premature ageing due to contaminants in the gas mixture leading to polymerization on the surface of the GEM foils during operation and the effect of discharges on the detector operations if they have to happen during their lifetime.

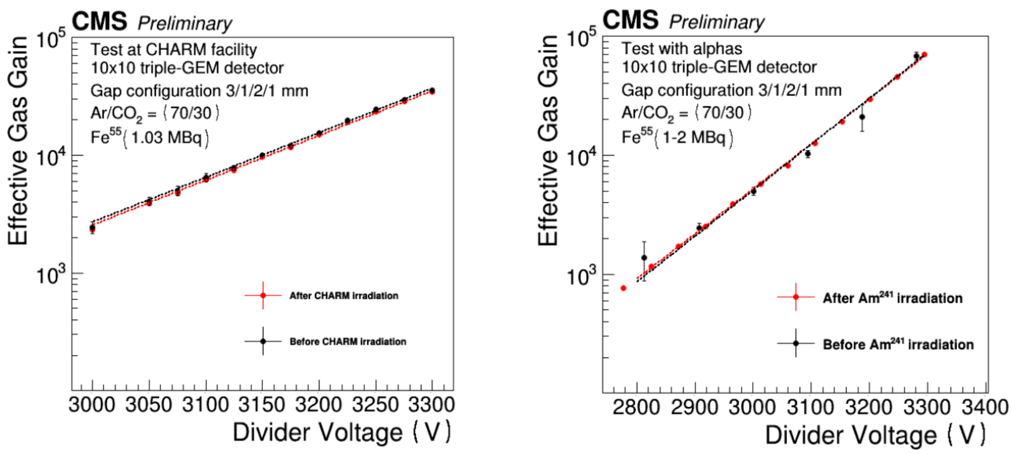


(a) *(b)*

Figure 3.18: Figure 3.18a: Energy spectrum of GIF++ ^{137}Cs source as measured by the GE1/1 detector installed in GIF++. Figure 3.18b: Evolution of the normalized gain of the GE1/1 detector installed at in GIF++ as a function of the integrated charge per unit area. The first part of the study, up to a charge of $55\,\mathrm{mC/cm^2}$ had been done in the former Gamma Irradiation Facility (GIF) that has now been dismantled following the construction of GIF++. No variation of the normalized gain can be observed after an accumulation of $110\,\mathrm{mC/cm^2}$.

To characterize the classical ageing effects, a campaign is being conducted in the new Gamma Irradiation Facility (GIF++) of CERN where a GE1/1 detector operated at its nominal gain is placed $50\,\mathrm{cm}$ from the facility's $14\,\mathrm{TBq}$ ^{137}Cs source which emits gammas at an energy of $662\,\mathrm{keV}$. In order to spot any ageing of the detector, the effective gain is kept monitored, as can be seen in Figure 3.18b, as its variations gives clues about different aspects of the detector such as the geometry of the holes, the electric field configuration or the gas composition. The monitoring of the gamma energy distribution, showed on Figure 3.18a, can give an idea on the evolution of the performance of the chamber and finally, the evolution of the currents through time also is a good indicator of the appearance of dark current in the detector that would be due to the emission of electrons by thin insulating layers of the detector subjected to a long lasting irradiation known as Malter effect. At the time the Technical Design Report (TDR) for the Phase-II upgrade of the muon system was written [23], the GEM group had reported a total integrated charge of $110\,\mathrm{mC/cm^2}$ which, if compared with 10 years of HL-LHC operation, represents a safety factor of 18 for the GE1/1 subsystem and a factor 37 for the GE2/1 subsystem but only 39% of the total expected ME0 integrated charge. It is estimated that reaching the total integrated charge necessary to certify the detectors for Phase-II operation will take another 2 to 3 years. Nevertheless, the present status of the longevity study shows no degradation of the performance of the detector installed in GIF++ as can be seen through Figure 3.18.

Aside of the classical ageing tests, outgassing of the different materials composing the GEMs have been conducted by placing the different materials to be tested into an outgassing box that consists in a stainless steel cylinder through which the CMS GEM 70/30 gas mixture of Ar/CO_2 with the possible contaminants is flowed while the detector is exposed to the continuous irradiation of a radioactive source and the heat is raised to enhance the outgassing. From the detector that was placed into this outgassing box, only one component was identified to cause loss of performance due to outgassing. This component was the polyurethane *Cell-Pack* used to coat the internal frame of the GEMs and the polymerization on its surface caused a 20% decrease of the gas gain. this polyurethane was replaced with a new one for which no outgassing effect causing a loss of performance was reported.



(a) *(b)*

Figure 3.19: Figure 3.19a: Comparison of the gas gain as a function of the divider voltage before and after the irradiation of a triple-GEM by neutrons in CHARM. Figure 3.19b: Comparison of the gas gain as a function of the divider voltage before and after the irradiation of a triple-GEM by alpha particles.

Finally, even though the triple-GEM technology makes the detectors safe of discharges thanks to its several amplification stages that allow to reach high gas gain using a relatively low electric field applied on the foils and to the distance separating the last foil from the read-out panel that is high enough to prevent discharging from developing all the way to the read-out, and hence, be stopped before it can cause any harm, it is important to have a good understanding of the discharge probability to ensure a safe operation over long periods. In order to further prevent discharges to develop in the detector volume, the GEM foils' power supply have been sectorized and protection resistors have been installed to limit the energy available for the discharge development. To reproduce the high-energy neutron background conditions of CMS, a GE1/1 detector have been placed in the CHARM facility of CERN. This facility allows to irradiate the detectors with a neutron fluence as high as $2.5 \times 10^8\ /\mathrm{cm}^2$. The detectors were operated with a slightly higher gain of 3.5×10^4. It was measured that the discharge probability for a GEM operated under CMS conditions was of 2.85×10^{-9} per heavily ionizing particle with a 95% confidence level that would correspond to 225 discharges per cm^2 in ME0, 17 in GE1/1 and 12 in GE2/1 during the full HL-LHC period. According to Figure 3.19a, no degradation of the performance was observed after the irradiation at CHARM were 24 discharges per unit area were reported. Nevertheless, another test were the detector was exposed to a $5.5\,\mathrm{MeV}$ alpha source and were 450 discharges per unit area were reported didn't show any drop of performances either, as can be seen in Figure 3.19b.

3.3.3 Installation schedule

The previous discussion on the different upgrade projects makes it clear that a lot of work is schedule for CMS to be ready at the end of LS3 for HL-LHC. Conducting all the upgrades of the muon system together with upgrades of the other subsystems like the replacement of the Tracker and of part of the ECAL, will prove to be very difficult as the opening of CMS to access the Barrel will be done by fully opening the endcaps leaving only the first disk to be accessible. Thus, most subsystems have planed early installation over LS2, and the following YETS until LS3 in order to give more space to LS3 schedule.

First of all, LS2 will see the installation of GE1/1 detectors, all the on-detector schedule of CSCs and the installation of the necessary services for the improved RPCs to be installed later, such as the HV and LV power supply lines, the gas and cooling lines or signal cables. CSCs will have a huge work to do during LS2 as they will need to extract all of their detectors to refurbish them with upgraded DCFEB and ALCT mezzanine boards. The GE1/1 services were installed during LS1 together with a few demonstrator and only the detectors needs to be integrated into the first endcap disk. The detectors are presently being built and tested at the different assembly site to prepare for a smooth LS2 work.

The work of GEMs will be continued during the following YETS during which is planned the installation of the GE2/1 stations to only leave the ME0 to be installed during LS3. The iRPC program will follow a similar path as the new detectors will be installed during the YETS preceding LS3 in prevision of the fact that the endcap disks will not be accessible during LS3. This way, all the subsystems, but DTs, made great effort on planing their installation and integration within CMS only to have to deal with off-detector issues during the LS3 period, such as the replacement of ODMBs and HV system in the case of CSCs or the upgrade of the RPC Link System. Finallly, during LS3 are schedules the replacement of DT minicrates electronics and the installation and integration of ME0 GEMs together with the HGCAL.

3.4 Implications of the different upgrades on the Level-1 Trigger. Improvement of physics performance.

The upgrades of the different subsystems will have a subsequent impact on the Level-1 Trigger. Indeed, although its main scheme will not be affected, the efficiency of the trigger in efficiency identifying muons and provide the DAQ with good and fast trigger that can cope with HL-LHC instantaneous luminosity is a major improvement. In addition to the upgrade of the muon system in terms of trigger accept rate and latency, the Level-1 Trigger will get extra information in including the Tracker Trigger into its Muon Track Finder logic and combine the L1 Muon Trigger with Tracker and Calorimeter Triggers to generate a Global L1 Trigger with a much better momentum resolution, as showed in Figure 3.20.

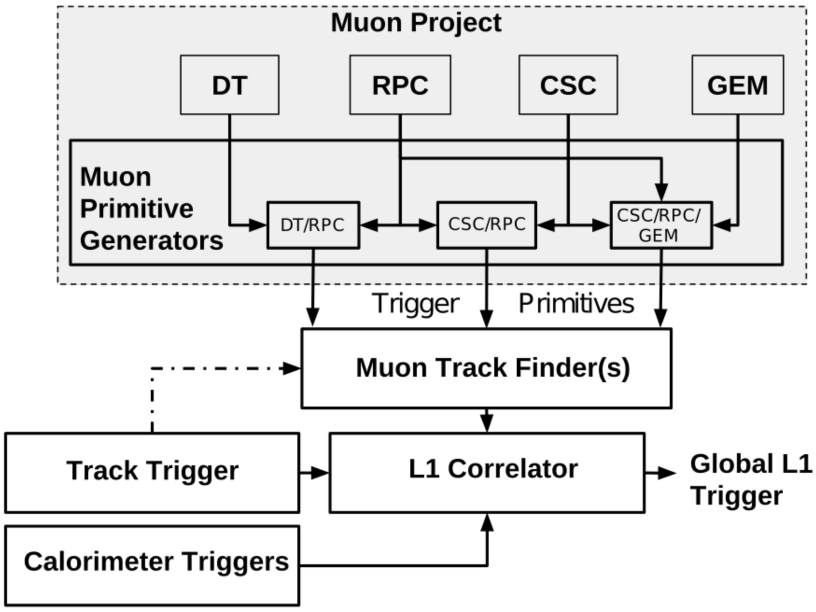


Figure 3.20: Data flow of the Level-1 Trigger during Phase-II operations.

In terms of muon trigger, 3 regions are considered due to their different track finding logic: the Barrel Muon Track Finder (BMTF), the Endcap Muon Track Finder (EMTF) for both the barrel and endcap regions, and finally the Overlap Muon Track Finder (OMTF) which concerns the pseudo-rapidity region in which there is a common coverage by both the barrel and endcap muon systems. This region can be seen in Figure 3.3 for $0.9 < |\eta| < 1.2$ and requires a specific more complex logic to provide with an efficient reconstruction of the muons due to the different orientation of the detectors and of the more complex magnetic field of this region that needs to be taken into account. The benefits of the upgrade for each of these track finders will be coming from different improvements and will be detailed sector by sector.

The main contribution to the improvement of the BMTF is the time resolution improvement of RPC link systems that will allow to take profit of the full $1.5\,\mathrm{ns}$ resolution of the detectors. From the perspective of RPCs only, this improvement will help reducing the neutron induced background and slightly improve the bunch crossing assignment. The upgrade of DT electronics is also to take into account as the trigger primitive generator will be renewed through the use of TDCs that will send the digitized signals directly to the back-end electronics instead of having an on-detector trigger logic as it will be the case until the end of Phase-I. The front data of both DTs and RPCs will be sent to the same back-end electronics. These upgrades were detailed in section 3.2 and will lead to a more robust operation of the trigger in the barrel region. Indeed, the combination of RPC hits together with DT primitives will bring improvement in the bunch crossing assignment and improve the efficiency of the trigger in between the wheels were the quality of DT primitives is the poorest. Moreover, having a redundant information is important in the case of failure and loos of efficiency of one of either subsystems.

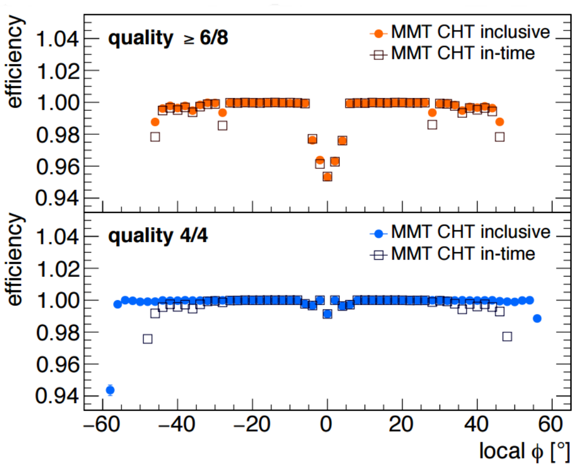
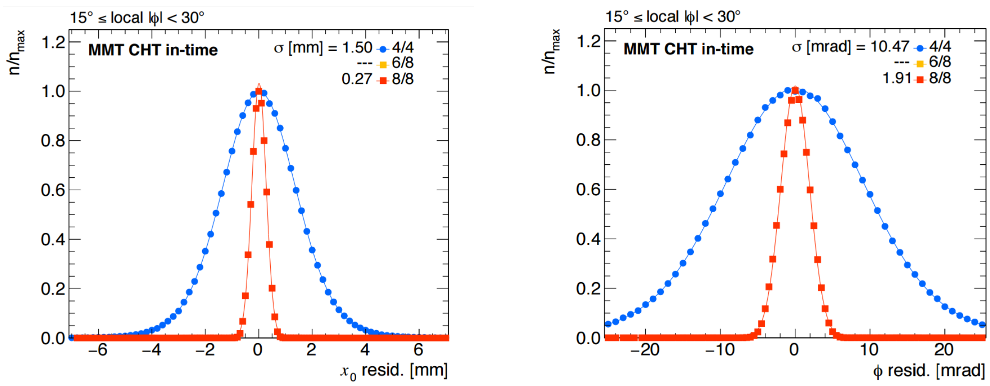


Figure 3.21: Comparison of Phase-II DT trigger primitives algorithmic efficiency for segments obtained with 2 super-layers (quality $\geq$ 6/8) and 1 super-lay only (quality = 4/4). The simulation was done by generating 2×10^6 muons. The candidate tracks with correct time identification is showed with open symbols.



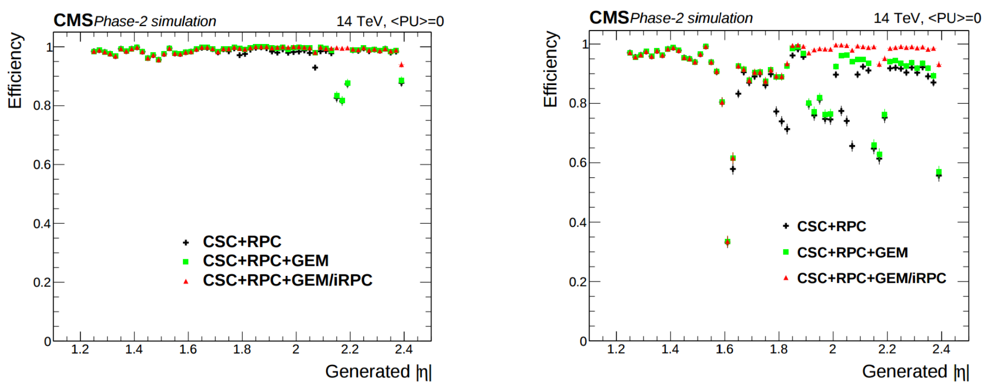
(a) *(b)*

Figure 3.22: Simulated spatial (3.22a) and angular (3.22b) resolution of the algorithm using 8 aligned hits in both super-layers (quality = 8/8) and 4 aligned hits in only one super-layer (quality = 4/4). The contribution of intermediate quality tracks (6 aligned hits) is negligible in the angular range shown. ***[Be careful to update this caption as it uses a text to close to the published one.]***

The loss of single hit efficiency of DTs due to ageing will also force the DT to change the algorithm use to identify tracks. So far, the identification was only performed at the level of a single DT super-layer, which is composed of 4 single DT layers. In the perspective the single efficiency drops, this will require to be upgraded to try to combine the data of more than a single super-layer to keep a high muon track identification efficiency. In addition to this change in trigger primitive candidate quality, new algorithms with higher efficiency are being developed. According to Figure 3.21, the efficiency of the new algorithm, both in the cases using 1 or 2 super-layers, is higher than with the current system [30]. Moreover, the overall efficiency of an algorithm requesting at least a muon detected in 6 DT layers out of the 8 composing the 2 super-layers of a DT module would stay comparable to the 4 DT layers out of 4 algorithm within the local bending angle range. On the other hand, despite the slight loss of efficiency in the low angle range, the algorithm using more DT layers achieves both higher spatial and angular resolution according to Figure 3.22.

With new detectors to cover the very forward region and the upgrade of RPC Link System, the EMTF will be greatly improved. The current EMTF already use more sophisticated algorithms by combining together RPC hits and CSC primitives and will also benefit from the improved time resolution of the RPC system. The GEMs, in stations 1 and 2, and the iRPCs, in stations 3 and 4, will be added into the EMTF algorithm. Both these contributions will help increasing the efficiency of the L1 trigger in the endcap region in one hand, and help lowering the L1 trigger rate in the other hand, especially in the most forward region. The improvement of the efficiency will come both from the better time resolution of RPC link boards and from the addition of more hits along the muon tracks and also a contribution from the GEMs to the lever arm of each track thanks to there high angular resolution.

The rate will be partly reduced in the forward region thanks to the better spatial resolution of iRPCs, with respect to the current RPC system, that will reduce the ambiguity brought by multiple local charged tracks in CSCs, as explained through Figure 3.24. Indeed, as the rates will increase, the probability to record more than a single local charged track will greatly increase. This is due to the fact that the trigger algorithm uses information from 3 consecutive bunch crossings to find muon tracks. It is estimated that with iRPCs operated at 95% efficiency the resolution of ambiguous events would be of the order of 99.7%.



(a) *(b)*

Figure 3.23: Efficiency of the L1 trigger in the endcap region after Phase-II upgrade in the case CSC/GEM/RPC hits are requested in at least 2 stations out of four (3.23a) and in all four stations (3.23b).

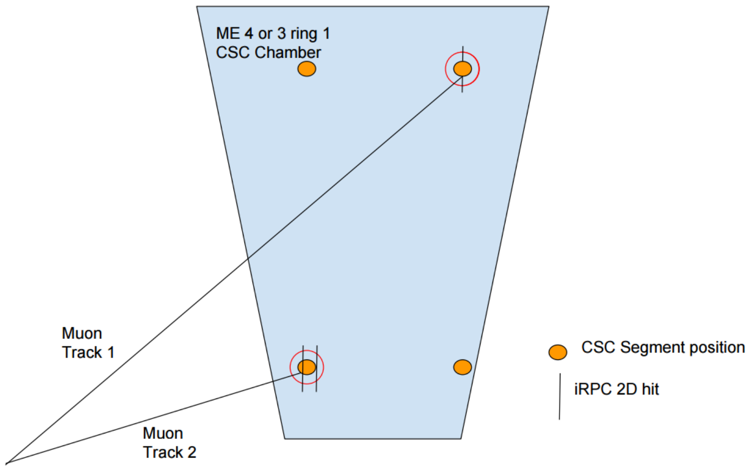
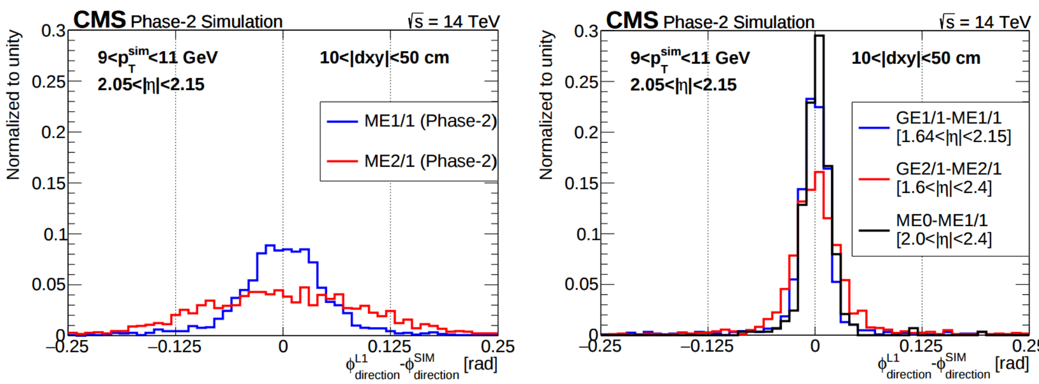


Figure 3.24: Resolution of the LCT ambiguous events thanks to the combination of CSC and iRPC readout data. Using CSCs only, 2 pairs of hits are possible.

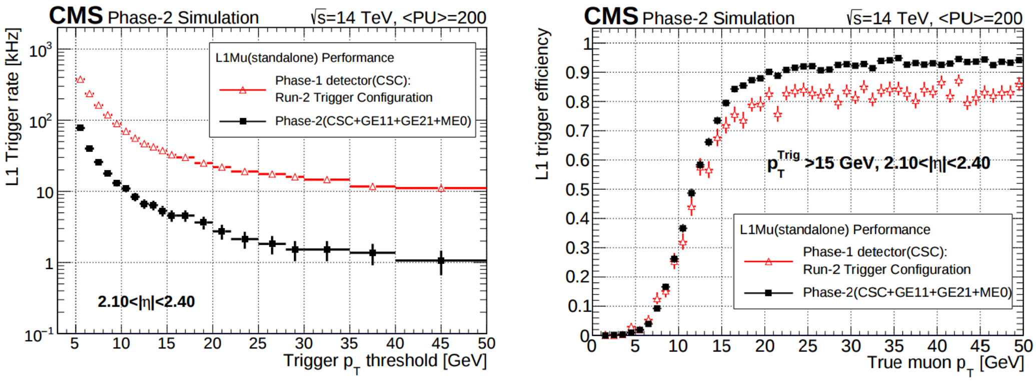
The addition of GEMs will improve greatly the measured muon momentum resolution by improving the global resolution of the direction of muon tracks, as can be seen in Figure 3.25, which will contribute to lowering the trigger rate and increase the efficiency, as can be seen from Figure 3.26 that focuses especially in the most challenging pseudo-rapidity region. Data from both CSCs and GEMs are combined into the OTMB to build on each station, GEM/CSC primitives matching space and time information from both subsystems.

Finally, the development of a track finder specific to the overlap region was already achieved during the Phase-I upgrade of the L1-Trigger [31]. Nevertheless, the improvements of DT spatial resolution and RPC timing will be carried and implemented into the OMTF.



(a) *(b)*

Figure 3.25: The angular resolution on reconstructed muon tracks in the GEM overlap region $2.0 < |\eta| < 2.15$ *is compared for Phase-II conditions in the case CSC are alone (Figure 3.25a) and in the case the GEMs' data, including ME0, is combined to which of CSCs (Figure 3.25b).*



(a) *(b)*

Figure 3.26: Comparison of L1 trigger performances for prompt muons with and without the addition of GEMs in the region $2.1 < |\eta| < 2.4$ at Phase-II conditions. GEMs would allow a reduction of the trigger accept rate by an order of magnitude (Figure 3.26a) while increasing the trigger efficiency (Figure 3.26b).

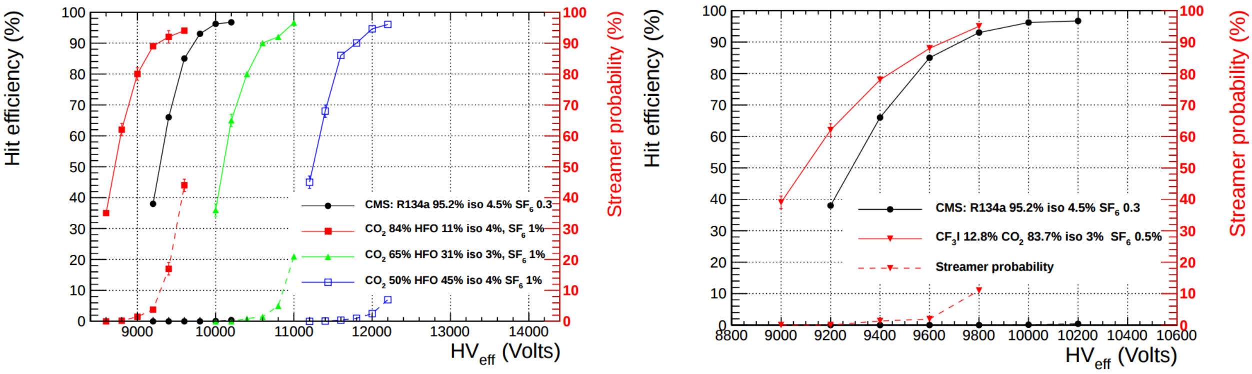
3.5 Ecofriendly gas studies

Future strict restrictions in the use of certain gases will affect the gaseous detectors of several experiment, including CMS. The European Commission adopted a new ”F-gas regulation” in 2014 [32] with the goal to strongly control and reduce the use of fluorinated gases with high Global Warming Potential (GWP). Using CF_4, $C_2H_2F_4$ and SF_6, both CSC and RPC subsystems will need to address this problem by finding new gas mixture for the operation of their detectors. Finding a replacement for these gas component that were used for very specific reasons will be a great challenge. Indeed, CSCs use CF_4 in order to enhance the longevity of the detectors, increase the drift velocity of electrons and quench photons with a non-flammable gas mixture. RPCs use a mixture mainly composed of $C_2H_2F_4$, or *R134a*, that features a high effective Townsend coefficient and the great average fast charge allowing for operations with a high threshold, and contains a small fraction of SF_6 that is used for its electronegative properties that prevents the development of delta-rays in the gas volume that might trigger multiple ionization and avalanches.

	CSC	RPC
Greenhouse gases used	CF_4	$C_2H_2F_4$ and SF_6
Greenhouse gases fraction in the gas mixture	10%	95.2% and 0.3%
Global Warming Potential (relative to CO_2)	6500	1300 and 23900
Gas mixture re-circulation	Yes, 90%	Yes, 85%
Gas mixture replenishing rate (l/hr)	700	1100
F-gas recuperation	Yes, ≈40%	No
F-gas venting rate (l/hr)	42	1047 and 3.3
CO_2-equivalent rate (m^3/h)	273	1440
Relative impact (entire muon system = 100%)	16%	84%

Table 3.1: Details of the greenhouse fluorinated gases used in CMS and of their GWP [23].

Nevertheless, all these gases have a very high GWP, as reported in Table 3.1, and only few options are left. The subsystems need to work on strongly decrease the loss of these gases due to leaks in the gas system or completely change their gas mixture for more ecofriendly ones. Reducing the amount of F-gas released in the atmosphere due to leaks on the current gas system will require installation of a F-gas recuperation system on RPCs side and an upgrade of CSCs existing one in addition to the repair of existing leaks. With such measures, it is expected that the total rate of greenhouses gas vented in the atmosphere would represent only 1.6% of the current levels [23]. In the most critical case the F-gas were to be banned, it would be necessary to have replacement mixtures to operate CMS. CSC is presently investigating replacement for CF_4 such as CF_3I, C_4F_6, IC_3F_6, C_3F_8 or CHF_3 while RPCs, in collaboration with the ATLAS RPC group which uses the same gas mixture and, hence, faces similar restrictions, have identified CF_3I (GWP ≤ 1) and $C_3H_2F_4$ (GWP ¡ 1), referred to as HFO-1234ze, as potential candidates with mixtures containing CO_2 but more R&D needs to be conducted for both subsystems before concluding on the best alternative. No good alternative to the present mixtures will require very efficient abatement system in CMS to burn and convert the greenhouse gases into less harmful ones. This way, the air pollution would be strongly reduced.



(a) (b)

Figure 3.27: The efficiency (solid lines) and streamer probability (dashed lines) of HFO/CO_2 (Figure 3.27a) and CF_3I/CO_2 (Figure 3.27b) based gas mixtures as a function of the effective high-voltage are compared with the present CMS RPC gas mixture represented in black. The detector used for the study is a single gap RPC with similar properties than CMS RPCs. The streamer probability is defined as the proportion of events with a deposited charge greater than $20\,\mathrm{pC}$.

The status of RPC studies are presented in Figure 3.27 in which the performance (efficiency and streamer probability) of an RPC operated with alternative gas mixtures is compared to the present CMS RPC mixture. Although the efficiency of detectors operated with mixtures containing CO_2/CF_3I or CO_2/HFO as a replacement for $C_2H_2F_4$ seem to reach similar levels than which of the detectors operated with the present mixture, the new gas mixtures feature a streamer probability (probability to have very large avalanches whose induced charge is greater than $20\,\mathrm{pC}$) that far exceeds which of the present fluorinated mixture. The SF_6, being a component of the mixture added in order to reduce the probability of large avalanches thanks to its electronegativity, doesn't seem to prevent streamers as efficiently even when used at levels more than 3 times higher than with the standard CMS RPC mixture. Nevertheless, it is important to note that these results were obtained with a single gap RPC while the use of a double gap RPC would reduce the operation voltage by 200 to $300\,\mathrm{V}$, lowering the induced charge. A compromise in between good efficiency and acceptable level of streamer probability and the fine tuned composition of potential replacement gas mixtures will be studied using a standard double-gap CMS RPC.

4

Physics of Resistive plate chambers

A Resistive Plate Chamber (RPC) is a gaseous detector used in high-energy physics experiments as described in Chapter 3. It has been developed in 1981 by Santonico and Cardarelli [33], under the name of *Resistive Plate Counter*, as an alternative to the local-discharge spark counters proposed in 1978 by Pestov and Fedotovich [34, 35]. Working with spark chambers implied using high-pressure gas and high mechanical precision which the RPC simplified by formerly using a gas mixture of argon and butane flowed at atmospheric pressure and a constant and uniform electric field propagated in between two parallel electrode plates. Moreover, a significant increase in rate capability was introduced by the use of electrode plate material with high bulk resistivity, preventing the discharge from growing throughout the whole gas gap. Indeed, the effect of using resistive electrodes is that the constant electric field is locally canceled out by the development of the discharge, limiting its growth.

Through its development history, different operating modes [36–38], gas mixtures [33, 38–43] and new detector designs [44–46] have been discovered, leading to further improvement of the rate capability of such a detector. The low developing costs and easily achievable large detection areas offered by RPCs, as well as the wide range of possible designs, made them a natural choice to as muon chambers and/or trigger detectors in multipurpose experiments such as CMS [21] or ATLAS [47], time-of-flight detectors in ALICE [48], calorimeter with CALICE [49] or even detectors for volcanic muography with ToMuVol [50].

4.1 Principle

RPCs are ionisation detectors composed of two parallel resistive plate electrodes in between which a constant electric field is set. The space in between the electrodes, referred to as *gap*, is filled with a dense gas that is used to generate primary ionization into the gas volume. The free charge carriers (electrons and cations) created by the ionization of the gas molecules are then accelerated towards the electrodes by the electric field, as shown in Figure 4.1 [51]. RPCs being passive detectors, a current on pick-up copper read-out placed outside of the gas volume is induced by the charge accumulation during the growth of the avalanche resulting from the acceleration of the charge carriers. As a consequence, the time resolution of the detector is substantially increased as the output signal is generated while the electrons are still in movement. The advantage of a constant electric field, over multi-wire proportional chambers, is that the electrons are being fully accelerated from the moment charge carriers are freed and feel the full strength of the electric field that doesn't depend on the distance to the readout and that the output signal doesn't need for the electrons to be physically collected.

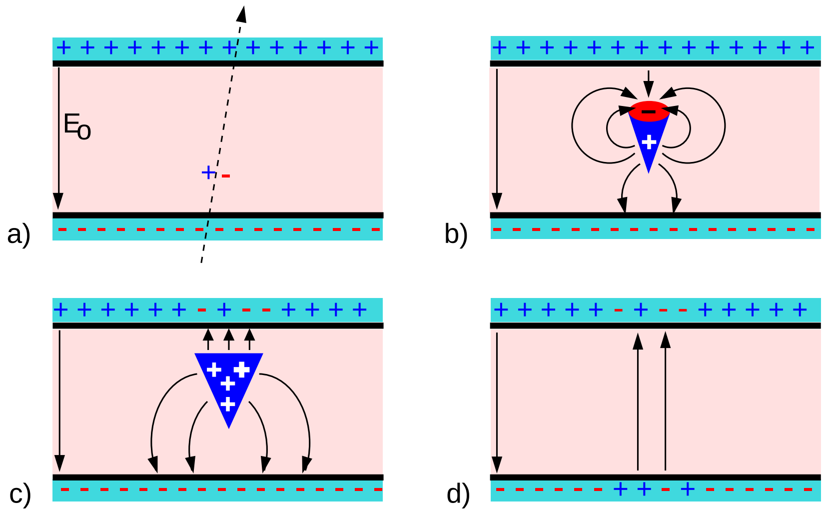


Figure 4.1: Different phases of the avalanche development in the RPC gas volume subjected to a constant electric field E_0. a) An avalanche is initiated by the primary ionisation caused by the passage of a charged particle through the gas volume. b) Due to its growing size, the avalanche starts to locally influence the electric field. c) The electrons, lighter than the cations reach the anode first. d) The ions reach the cathode. While the charges have not recombined, the electric field in the small region around the avalanche stays affected and locally blinds the detector.

After an avalanche developed in the gas, a time long compared to the development of a discharge is needed to recombine the charge carriers in the electrode material due to their resistivity. This property has the advantage of affecting the local electric field and avoiding sparks in the detector but, on the other hand, the rate capability is intrinsically limited by the time constant τ_{RPC} of the detector. Using a quasi-static approximation of Maxwell's equations for weakly conducting media, it can be shown that the time constant τ_{RPC} necessary to the charge recombination at the interface in between the electrode and the gas volume is given by the Formula 4.1 [52].

$$\tau_{RPC} = \frac{\epsilon_{electrode} + \epsilon_{gas}}{\sigma_{electrode} + \sigma_{gas}} \tag{4.1}$$

A gas can be assimilated to vacuum, leading to $\epsilon_{gas} = \epsilon_0$ and $\sigma_{gas} = 0$, and the electrodes permittivity and conductivity can be written as $\epsilon_{electrode} = \epsilon_r \epsilon_0$ and $\sigma_{electrode} = 1/\rho_{electrode}$, showing the strong dependence of the time constant to the electrodes resistivity in Formula 4.2.

$$\tau_{RPC} = (\epsilon_r + 1)\epsilon_0 \times \rho_{electrode} \tag{4.2}$$

Very few materials with a low enough resistivity exist in nature. The resistivity targeted to build

RPCs ranges from 10^9 to 10^{12} $\Omega \cdot \mathrm{cm}$. The most common RPC electrode materials are displayed in Table 4.1. When the doped glass and ceramics can offer short time constants of the order of $1\,\mathrm{ms}$, the developing cost of such materials is quite high due to the very low demand. Thus, High-pressure laminate (HPL) is often the choice for high rate experiments using very large RPC detection areas. Other experiments working at cosmic muon fluxes can safely operate with ordinary float glass.

Material	$\rho_{electrode}$ ($\Omega \cdot$ cm)	ϵ_r	τ_{RPC} (ms)
Float glass	10^{12}	$\sim$7	$\sim$700
High-pressure laminate	10^{10} to 10^{12}	$\sim$6	$\sim$6 to 600
Doped glass (LR S)	10^9 to 10^{11}	$\sim$10	$\sim$1 to 100
Doped ceramics (SiN/SiC)	10^9	$\sim$8.5	$\sim$1
Doped ceramics (Ferrite)	10^8 to 10^{12}	$\sim$20	$\sim$0.2 to 2000

Table 4.1: Properties of the most used electrode materials for RPCs.

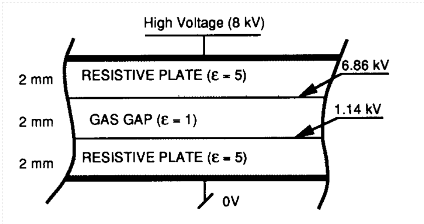
4.2 Rate capability and time resolution of Resistive Plate Chambers

The electrode material plays a key role in the maximum intrinsic rate capability of RPCs. R&D is continuously being done to develop at always cheaper costs material with lower resistivity. Nevertheless, the amount of charge released, i.e. the size of the discharge, if reduced leads to a smaller blind area in the detector, increasing the rate capability of the detector. On the other hand, the drift velocity of electrons in the gas volume being quite stable with the applied electric field, the design of a detector and the associated read-out and pulse-processing electronics will be a major component of the time resolution of RPCs. Moreover, the sensitivity of the electronics will also help increasing the rate capability by lowering the gain the gas volume needs to be operated at, increasingly lowering the gas volume in which the signals will develop.

4.2.1 Operation modes

Being a gaseous detector using an accelerating electric field to amplify the signal of primary charge carriers, the RPC can be operated into different modes as the electric field intensity varies. Each mode offers different performances for such a detector, and it will be showed that the operating mode corresponding to the lowest electric field possible is best suited for high rate detectors working in collider experiments.

RPCs where developed early 1980s. At that time it was using an operating mode now referred to as *streamer mode*. Streamers are large discharges that develop in between the 2 electrodes enough to locally discharge the electrodes. If the electric field inside of the gas volume is strong enough, with electrons being fast compared to ions, a large and dense cloud of positive ions will develop nearby the anode and extend toward the cathode while the electrons are being collected, eventually leading to a streamer discharge due to the increase of field seen at the cathode. The field is then strong enough so that electrons are pulled out of the cathode. Electrodes, though they are a unique volume of resistive material, can be assimilated to capacitors. At the moment an electric field is applied in between their outer surfaces, the charge carriers inside of the volume will start moving leading to a situation where there is no voltage across the electrodes and a higher density of negative charges, i.e. electrons, on the inner surface of the cathode. Finally, when a streamer discharge occurs, these electrons are partially released in the gas volume contributing to increase the discharge strength until the formation of a conductive plasma, the streamer. This can be understood through Figure 4.2 [36]. Streamer signals are very convenient in terms of read-out as no further amplification is required with output pulses amplitudes of the order of a few tens to few hundreds of mV as can be seen on Figure 4.3.



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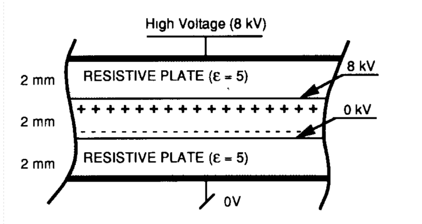

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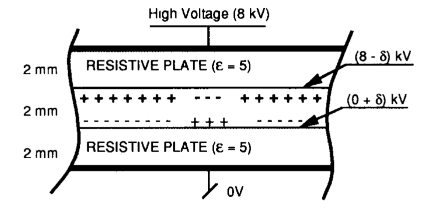
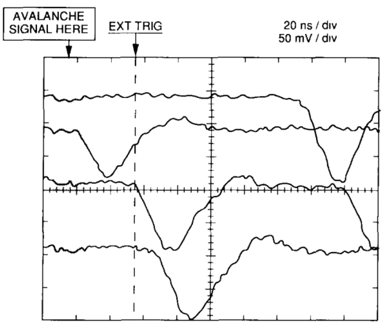


(c)

Figure 4.2: Movement of the charge carriers in an RPC. Figure 4.2a: Voltage across an RPC whose electrode have a relative permittivity of 5 at the moment the tension s applied. Figure 4.2b: After the charge carriers moved, the electrodes are charged and there is no voltage drop over the electrodes anymore. The full potential is applied on the gas gap only. Figure 4.2c: The streamer discharge initiated by a charged particle transports electrons and cations towards the anode and cathode respectively.



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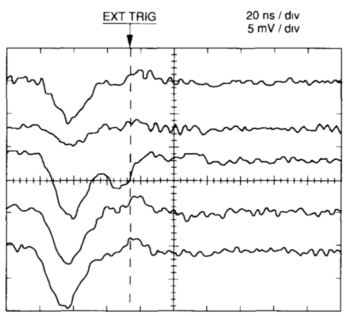


(b)

Figure 4.3: Typical oscilloscope pulses in streamer mode (Figure 4.3a) and avalanche mode(Figure 4.3b). In the case of streamer mode, the very small avalanche signal is visible.

When the electric field is reduced though, the electronic gain is small until the electrons get close enough to the anode and the positive ion cloud is much smaller. The electric field cannot rise to the point a field emission of electrons on the cathode is possible. The resulting signal is weak, of the order of a few mv as shown on Figure 4.3, and requires amplification. This is the *avalanche mode* of RPC operation. This mode offers a higher rate capability by providing smaller discharges that don't affect the electrodes charge and are more locally contained in the gas volume as was demonstrated by Crotty with Figure 4.4 [36]. The detector only stays locally blind the time the charge carriers are recombined and there is no need for electrode recharge which is a long process affecting a large portion of the detector. Another advantage of avalanche signals over streamer is the great time consistency. Figure 4.3 shows very clearly that avalanche signals have a very small time jitter. Thus, using such a mode is a natural choice for experiments in which the detectors are required to have a high detection rate.

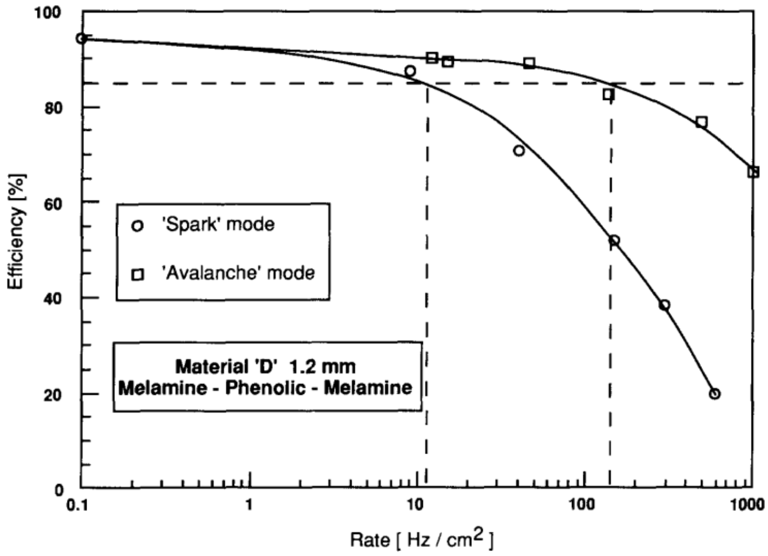
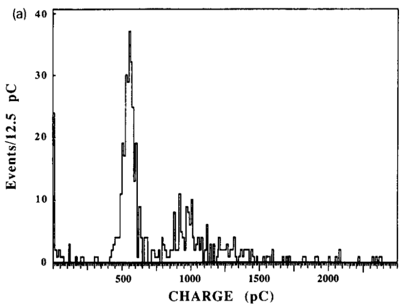


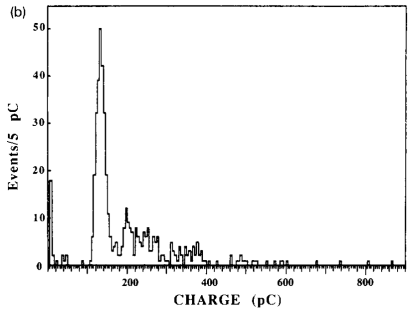
Figure 4.4: Rate capability comparison for the streamer and avalanche mode of operation. An order of magnitude in rate capability for a maximal efficiency drop of 10% is gained by using the avalanche mode over the streamer mode.

4.2.2 Standard gas mixture for RPCs operated in collider experiments

The first RPC working in streamer mode was operated with a 50/50 mixture of argon and butane [33], a standard mixture used at that time in multi-wire proportional chambers, taking profit of the good effective Townsend coefficient of argon to maximize the number of primary charge carriers freed in the gas by ionizing particles and of the quenching properties of butane. Before the discovery of the avalanche mode of RPC operation and concerned about the rate capability of RPCs operated in streamer mode, the performance improvement of the detectors through the increase of fast charge ratio in the signal development ,decreasing the charge induced per avalanche as can be seen through Figure 4.5, was studied by adding Freon based gases, such as CF_3Br, into the typical Ar/C_4H_{10} gas mixture was studied and showed that a lower induced charge could lead to an improvement the rate capability [39]. This consideration lead to the discovery of the avalanche mode which confirmed that the smaller the induced charge, the better the rate capability of the RPCs [36]. This discovery could happen thanks to the increased number of lower induced charge events allowed by adding a fraction of strong quencher in the gas mixture.



(a)



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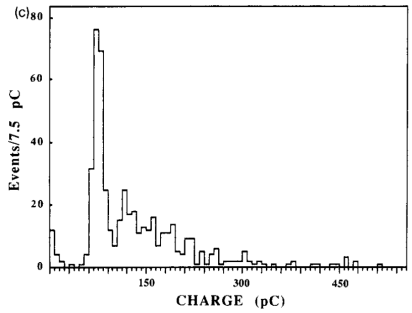
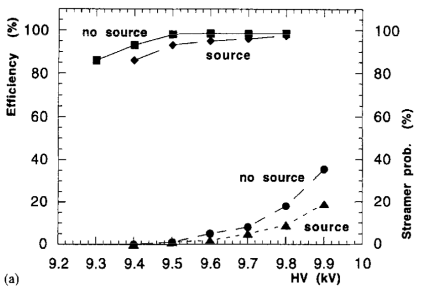


(c)

Figure 4.5: Comparison of the charge distribution of signals induced by cosmic muons in an RPC operated with a gas mixture of argon, butane and bromotrifluoromethane (CF_3Br). The Ar/C_4H_10 is kept constant at 60/40 in volume while the total amount of CF_3Br in the mixture is varied: 0% (Figure 4.5a), 4% (Figure 4.5b) and 8% (Figure 4.5c) [39].



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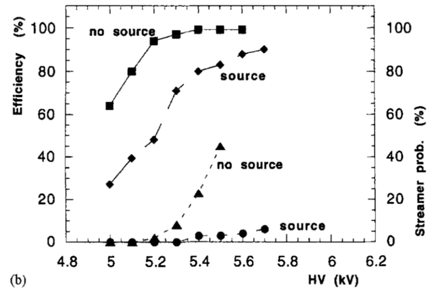
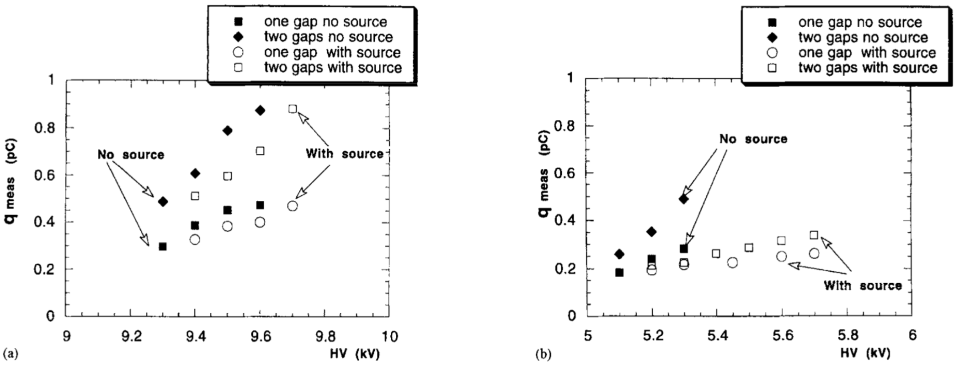


(b)

Figure 4.6: Comparison of the efficiency and streamer probability, defined as the fraction of events with an induced charge 10 times larger than that of the average avalanche, with and without irradiation by a $24\,\mathrm{GBq}$ *^{137}Cs source of an RPC successively operated with a 90/10 mixture $C_2H_2F_4$/i-C_4H_{10} (Figure 4.6a) and a 70/5/10/15 mixture of Ar/i-C_4H_{10}/CO_2/$C_2H_2F_4$ (Figure 4.6b) [40].*

From this moment onward, more and more studies were conducted in order to find a gas mixture that would allow for the best suppression of streamers for the benefit of low charge avalanches. Most R&D groups working with narrow gaps started using freon-based gas mixtures while users of wide gap RPCs kept using Ar/CO_2 based mixtures. The differences in between narrow and wide gaps will be later discussed in Section 4.2.3. The CF_3Br having a high GWP, tetrafluoroethane ($C_2H_2F_4$) was preferred to it as more suitable ecofriendly gas in the middle of the 90s. An advantage of this new freon component is that it featured a high primary ionization and a low operating voltage, as reported by Cardarelli [38]. Thus, the new gas mixtures used were mainly composed of tetrafluoroethane alone with lower content of isobutane in order to reduce the flammability of the mixtures in the case it were to be used in accelerator experiments for safety reasons. Performance and models about such mixtures were discussed in papers of Abbrescia [40, 41] and showed a better suitability of such a gas mixture, with respect to argon based ones, for operations with high radiation backgrounds leading to a need for high rate capability of the detectors, as can be seen from Figures 4.6 and 4.7. Indeed, although the operating voltage of a tetrafluoroethane based mixture is higher than which of an argon based mixture but the efficiency under irradiation is more stable, the voltage range with negligible streamer probability is much wider, and the fast charge ratio available is much greater, providing with more stable operation of the detector.



(a) *(b)*

Figure 4.7: Comparison of the fast charge ratio with and without irradiation by a $24\,\mathrm{GBq}$ ^{137}Cs *source of an RPC successively operated with a 90/10 mixture* $C_2H_2F_4$*/i-*C_4H_{10} *(Figure 4.7a) and a 70/5/10/15 mixture of Ar/i-*C_4H_{10}*/*CO_2*/*$C_2H_2F_4$ *(Figure 4.7b). The results are provided for both single gap and double gap operation [40].*

Aside of the improvement of the rate capability through linseed oil surface treatment of HPL electrodes, which allowed for a lower intrinsic noise rate and dark current of the detectors by improving the smoothness of the electrodes surface [53], it was later found that the streamers could be further suppressed by adding an electronegative compound into the gas mixture. The benefits of adding SF_6 in order to push the transitions from avalanche to streamers towards high voltages has been discussed in 1998 [42, 43] and eventually the high rate RPC destined to be used in accelerator physics would unanimously start using this compound into RPC gas mixtures. Being able to control the creation of streamers allows for slower ageing of the detector and lower power consumption as the currents driven by the electrodes consecutively to the induced charges would be smaller. In summary, the typical gas mixture RPCs are operated with is generally composed of the following 3 gas compounds, although, as mentioned in Chapter 3.5, research is being conducted into new more ecofriendly gas mixture using gases with a much lower Global Warming Potential:

- Tetrafluoroethane ($C_2F_4H_2$), also referred to as *Freon* or *R134a*, is the principal compound of the RPC gas mixtures, with a typical fraction above 90%. It is used for it's high effective

Townsend coefficient and the great average fast charge that allows to operate the detector with a high threshold with respect to argon, for example, that has similar effective Townsend coefficient but suffers from a lower fast charge. To operate with similar conditions, argon would require a higher electric field leading to a higher fraction of streamers, thus limiting the rate capability of the detector [40, 41].

- Isobutane (i-C_4H_{10}), only present in a few percent in the gas mixtures, is used for its UV quenching properties [54] helping to prevent streamers due to UV photon emission during the avalanche growth.

- Sulfur hexafluoride, (SF_6), simply referred to as *SF6*, is used in very little quantities for its high electronegativity. Excess of electrons are being absorbed by the compound and streamers are suppressed [42, 43]. Nevertheless, a fraction of SF_6 higher than 1% will not bring any extra benefice in terms of streamer cancelation power but will lead to higher operating voltage [42], as can be understood through Figure 4.8.

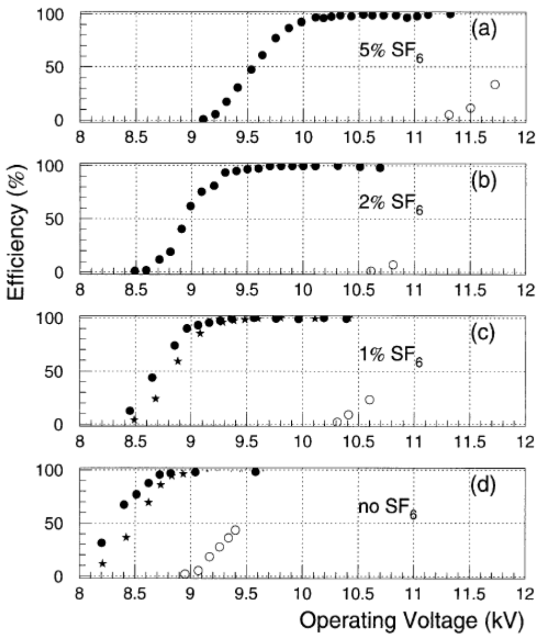
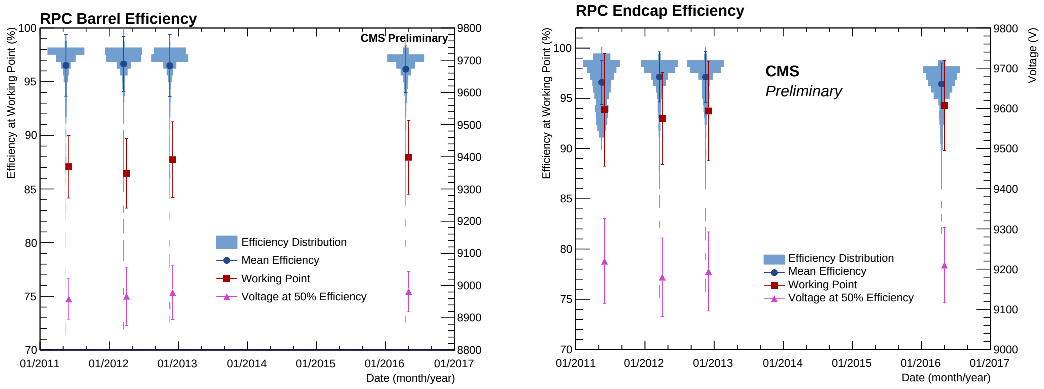


Figure 4.8: Effeciency (circles and stars with $30\,\mathrm{mV}$ *and* $100\,\mathrm{mV}$ *thresholds respectively) and streamer probability (opened circles) as function of the operating voltatge of a* $2\,\mathrm{mm}$ *single gap HPL RPC flushed with a gas mixture containing (a) 5%, (b) 2%, (c) 1% and (d) no* SF_6 *[42].*

In the last steps of R&D, the gas mixture of CMS RPCs was forseen to be a 96.2/3.5/0.3 composition of $C_2H_2F_4$/i-C_4H_{10}/SF_6 [55] but finally it was slightly changed into a 95.2/4.5/0.3 mixture of the same gases [56]. A summary of the operation performance of the RPCs since the start of LHC and of CMS data taking is given in Figure 4.9 [57]. The performance of the detectors is regularly monitored and the operating voltages updated in order to obtain a very stable performance through time. Nevertheless, the detectors will face new challenges during Phase-II during which they will exposed to more extreme radiation conditions. Description of the longevity tests with extreme irradiation and the conclusions regarding the operation of the present RPC system will be given in Chapter 5.



(a) *(b)*

Figure 4.9: Evolution of the efficiency, working voltage, and voltage at 50% of maximum efficiency for CMS Barrel (Figure 4.9a) and Endcap (Figure 4.9b) RPCs obtained through yearly voltage scans since 2011. The working voltage of each RPC is updated after each voltage scan to ensure optimal operation [57].

It was already discussed that in the future, it is likely that the use of freon gases could be banned. As potential replacement for tetrafluoroethane was proposed the trifluoroiodomethane (CF_3I), a molecule with similar properties than CF_3Br which was replaced by the tetrafluoroethane, and the 1,3,3,3-tetrafluoropropene ($C_3H_2F_4$ or HFO-1234re), a molecule with similar properties than the actual tetrafluoroethane and proposed as a replacement in refrigirating and air conditioning systems [58]. These 2 gases have stronger quenching properties than $C_2H_2F_4$ which means a much stronger electric field needs to be applied on the parallel electrodes of the RPCs in order to reach full efficiency. But the power supply system of CMS RPC is limited to $15\,\mathrm{kV}$ and so is ATLAS power supply system which is participating in a joined R&D. As can be seen from Figure 3.27, reducing the working voltage was achieved by mixing the potential replacements together with CO_2. Introducing carbon dioxide into the mixture while keeping similar levels of isobutane and SF_6 increases the streamer probability and the best candidate identified for a compromise in between low enough working voltage and acceptable levels of streamers corresponds to a mixture containing 50% of CO_2, 45% of HFO, 4% of isobutane and 1% of SF_6 but is not yet considered satisfactory. On the other hand, no good replacement for SF_6 has yet been identified. With its very high Global Warming Potential (23900), even small fraction of this gas in the mixture (it only represents 0.3% of CMS standard mixture but more than 5% of its overall GWP) substantially increase the danger for the environment. Although finding a replacement for this gas is less critical than for the tetrafluoroethane composing more than 90% of usual RPC standard mixtures, the problem will need to be addressed.

4.2.3 Detector designs and performance

Different RPC design have been used and each of them present its own advantages. Historically, the first type of RPC to have been developed is what is now referred to as *narrow gap* RPC [33, 59].

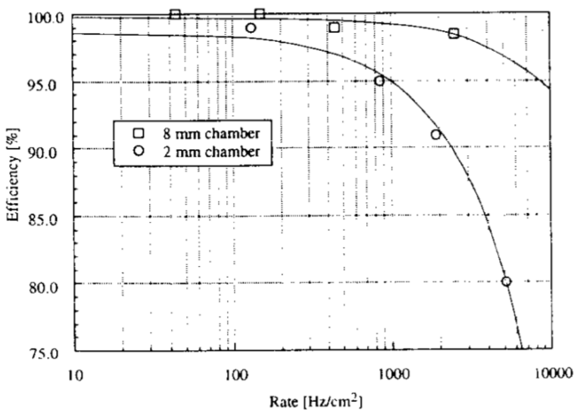


Figure 4.10: Comparison of the rate capability of 8 mm *and* 2 mm *wide RPCs. The lines are linear fits on the data [59].*

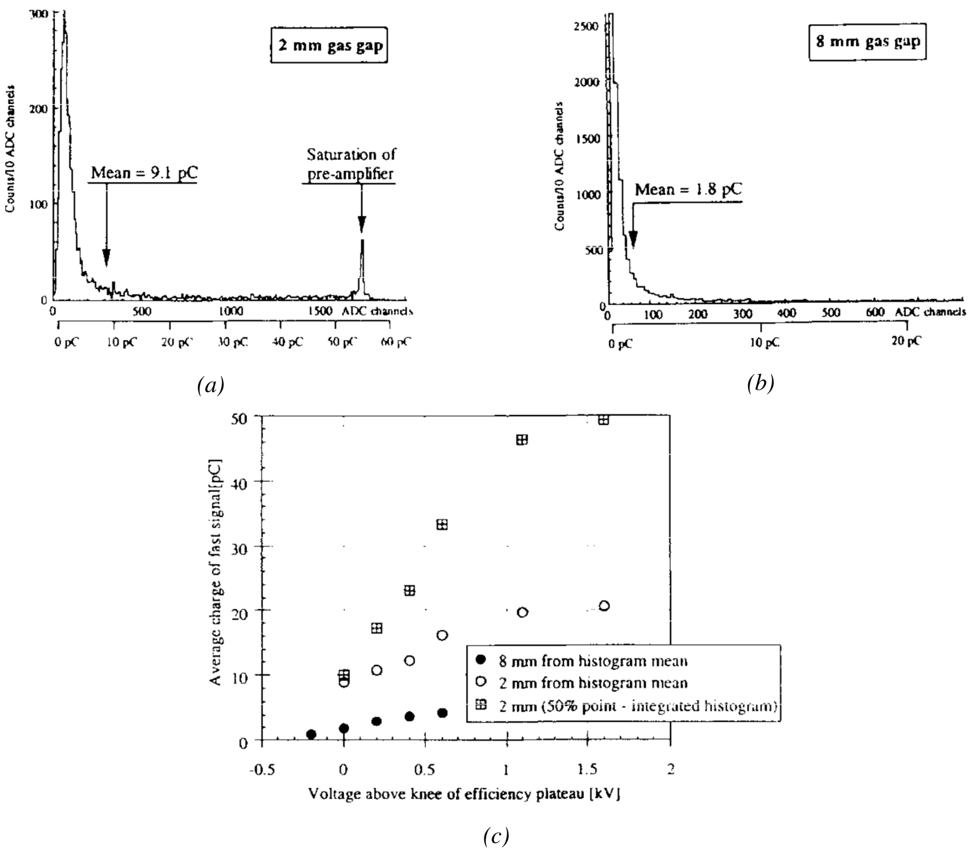


Figure 4.11: Distributions of the induced charge of fast signals on 2 mm *(Figure 4.11a) and* 8 mm *(Figure 4.11b) RPCs exposed to a radiation rate of* $100\,\mathrm{Hz/cm^2}$*. Average induced charge of fast signals as a function of the high voltage applied on* 2 mm *and* 8 mm *RPCs (Figure 4.11c). In the case of the* 2 mm *RPC, a saturation of the pre-amplifier was observed. The average of the distribution is underestimated and the median is showed together with the average to account for this bias [59].*

After the avalanche mode has been discovered [36], it has been showed that increasing the width of the gas gap lead to higher rate capability, due to lower charge deposition per avalanche, and lower power dissipation [59], as is showed in Figures 4.10 and 4.11. The distance in between the electrode being greater, a weaker electric field can be applied and a lower gain used as a longer gas volume will contribute to the signal induction on the read-out circuit. Nevertheless, by increasing the gas gap width, the time resolution of the detector decreases. This is a natural result if the increase of active gas volume in the detector is taken into account. Indeed, for a given detection threshold on the induced charge per signal, only the small fraction of gas closest to the cathode will provide enough gain to have a detectable signal. In the case of a wider gas volume, the active region is then larger and a larger time jitter is introduced with the variation of starting position of the avalanche, as discussed in [44] and showed in Figure 4.12.

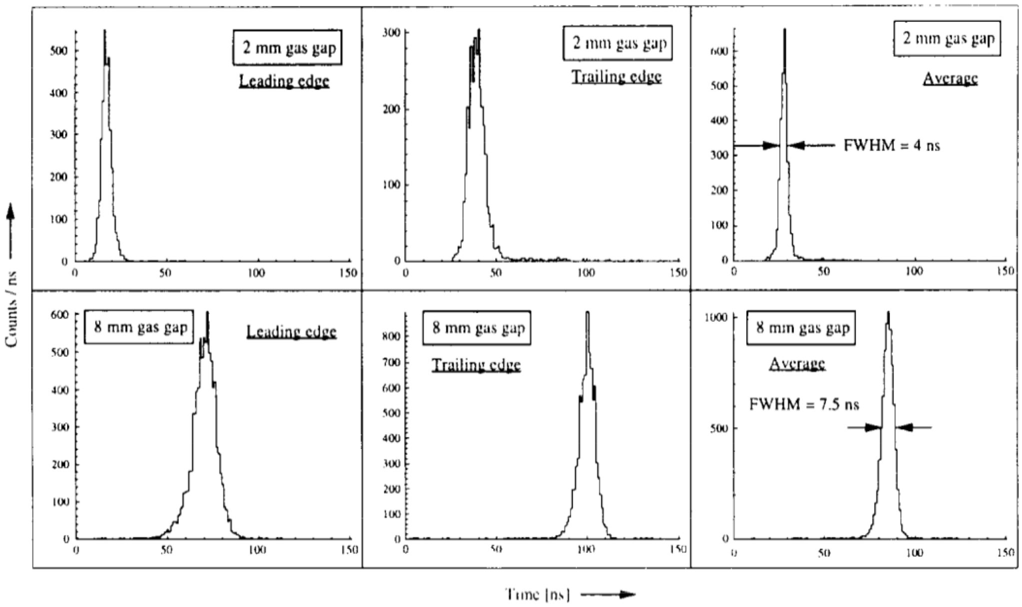


Figure 4.12: Time distributions of the leading, trailing, and average of both leading and traling edges for $2\,\mathrm{mm}$ *(top row) and* $8\,\mathrm{mm}$ *(bottom row) RPCs exposed to a* $100\,\mathrm{Hz/cm^2}$ *radiation rate. The data was collected with RPCs operated at the voltage corresponding to the knee of the efficiency distribution, defined as the point where 95% of the maximum efficiency is obtained [59].*

To improve both the time resolution and the rate capability, different methods were used trying to take advantage of both narrow and wide gap RPCs into a single design. Thus, double gap RPCs, combining two narrow gaps into a single detector to increase the effective sensitive volume, and multigap RPCs, which divided the large volume of a wide gap RPC into thinner sub-gaps by adding intermediate electrodes in between the cathode and anode to improve the time resolution by mimicking narrow gap RPCs, were developed starting from the middle of the 90s.

4.2.3.1 Double gap RPC

Made out of 2 narrow RPC detectors stacked on top of each other as shown in Figure 4.13, this detector layout, popularized by the two multipurpose experiments CMS [21] and ATLAS [47] at LHC, can be used as an OR system in which each individual chamber participates in the ouput signal and increases the overall sensitive volume of the detector apparatus. Keeping the copper strip read-out system at the ground, CMS and ATLAS, due to different goals, have chosen different designs as CMS RPCs possess a 1D read-out while ATLAS RPCs offer a 2D read-out. The difference comes from placing the read-out in between the gaps, the anodes facing each other, or to have both RPC gaps in between 2 layers of read-out panels, one along the X-axis and one along the Y-axis, the cathodes facing each other.

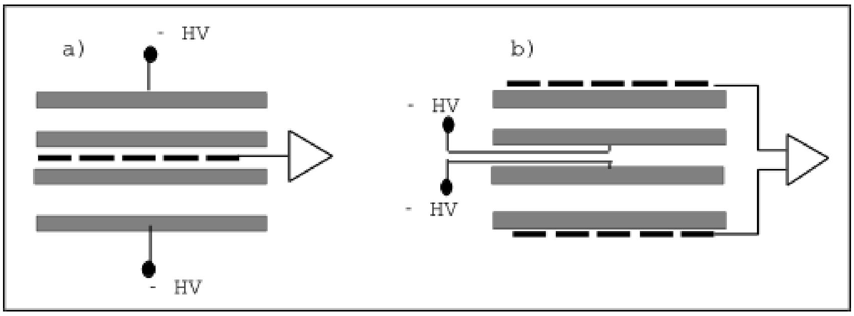
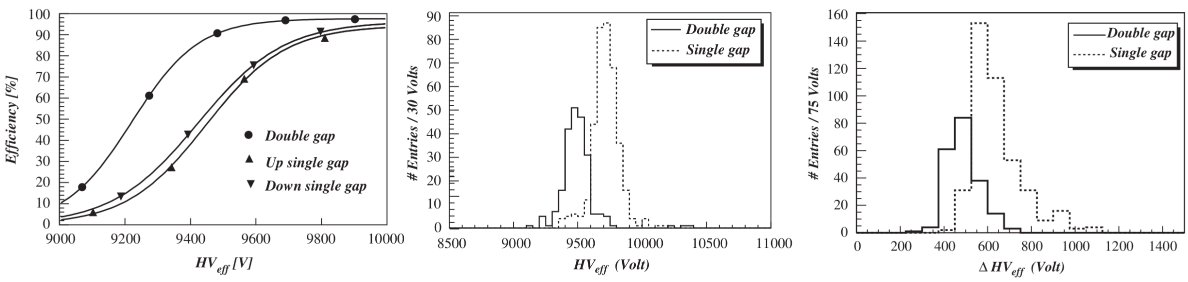


Figure 4.13: Possible double-gap RPC layouts: a) "standard" 1D double-gap RPC, as used in CMS experiment, where the anodes are facing each other and a 1D read-out plane is sandwished in between them, b) double read-out double-gap RPC as used in ATLAS experiment, where the cathodes are facing each other and 2 read-out planes are used on the outter surfaces. This last layout can offer the possibility to use a 2D reconstruction by using orthogonal read-out planes.



(a) *(b)* *(c)*

Figure 4.14: Comparison of performance of CMS double and single gap RPCs using cosmic muons [55]. Figure 4.14a: Comparison of efficiency sigmoids. Figure 4.14b: Voltage distribution at 95% of maximum efficiency. Figure 4.14c: $\Delta^{90\%}_{10\%}$ distribution.

The gain of such a detector is reduced by a factor 2 with respect to single-gap RPCs with an efficiency plateau reached at lower voltage, as visible on Figure 4.14, due to the two gas gaps contributing to the signal formation and offering a dynamic range closer to witch of a wide gap RPC. A double gap is then fully efficient while the individual RPC gaps composing it are only 70 to 80% efficient. Naturally, by operating the double gap at a lower voltage, the rate capability in found to be increased as the induced charge per gap is then lower than in the can than a single gap detector also leading to a reduction of the streamer probability and a better extraction of the fast charge of the total signal as could be seen through previously presented Figure 4.7.

4.2.3.2 Multigap RPC (MRPC)

MRPCs are layouts in which floating sub electrode plates are placed into a wide gap RPC to divide the gas volume and create a sum of narrow gaps [44, 45]. Similarly to the double gap RPC for which the gain could be reduced by increasing the dynamic range, the multigap reduces the gain while keeping a total dynamic range similar to which of a wide gap RPC by reducing the size of each individual sub-gap composing the detector. The dynamic range, associated to the sensitive volume, and the comparison of each detector layout to the wide gap RPC is showed in Figure 4.15.

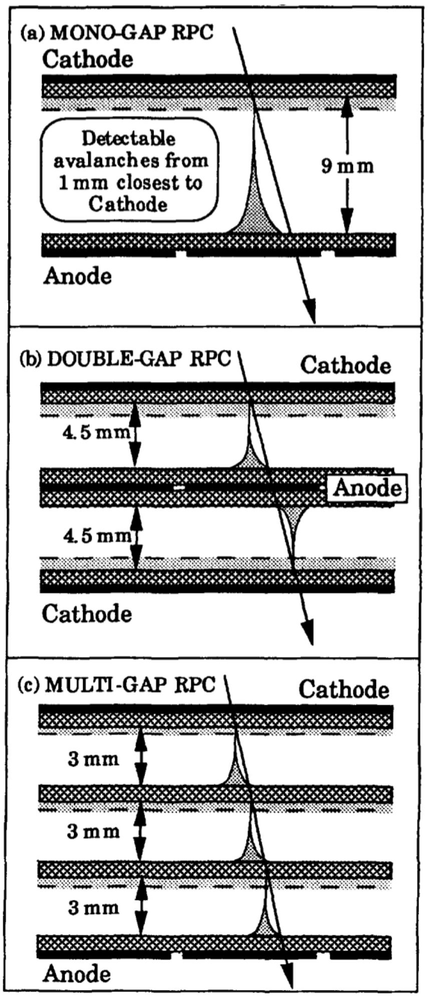
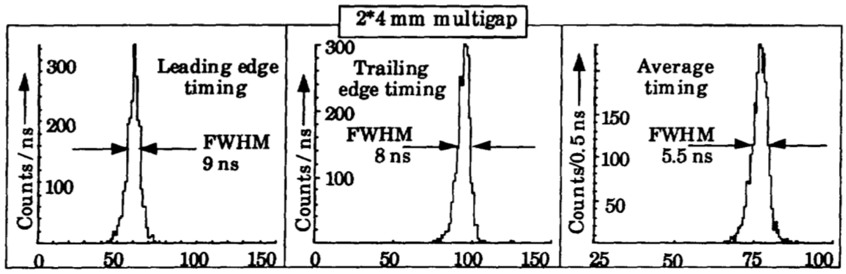
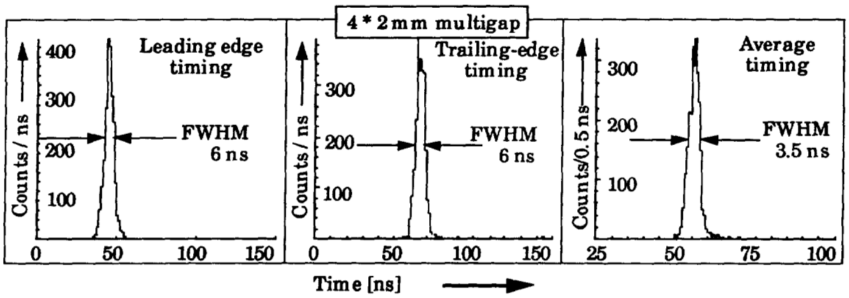


Figure 4.15: Representation of different RPC layouts (wide gap on Figure (a), double gap on Figure (b) and multigap on Figure (c)), of the corresponding sensitive volume in gray, and of the associated avalanche size [45].

By operating the detector with thinner gaps, the time resolution is improved. Comparatively to the time resolution presented in Figure 4.12 for the wide gap RPC of 8 mm, a complementary study was conducted on multigaps using two 4 mm and four 2 mm subgaps and showed, via Figure 4.16, an improvement of the time resolution with the reduction of the gap width and of the number of gaps while the same sensitive volume was kept [45].

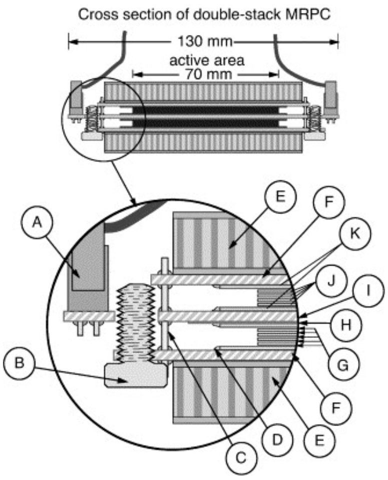


(a)

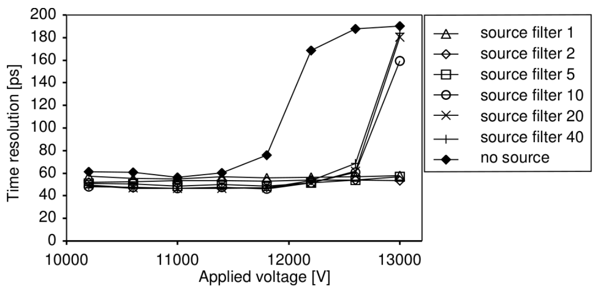


(b)

Figure 4.16: Time distributions of the leading, trailing, and average of both leading and traling edges for multigap RPCs consisting in two $4\,\mathrm{mm}$ *(Figure 4.16a) and four* $2\,\mathrm{mm}$ *(Figure 4.16b) exposed to a* $100\,\mathrm{Hz/cm^2}$ *radiation rate. The data was collected with RPCs operated at the voltage corresponding to the knee of the efficiency distribution, defined as the point where 95% of the maximum efficiency is obtained [45].*



(a)



(b)

Figure 4.17: Presentation of a study of a possible ALICE MRPC cell using $250\,\mu\mathrm{m}$ *gas gaps,* $620\,\mu\mathrm{m}$ *outer glass electrodes, and* $550\,\mu\mathrm{m}$ *inner floating electrodes (Figure 4.17a), and of its time resolution performance as a function of the applied high voltage for different radiation levels referred through different filter settings of the* $740\,\mathrm{GBq}$ ^{137}Cs *source the former CERN GIF facility [60].*

After the problem of streamers was solved by adding SF_6 into the gas mixture, the size of the MRPCs decreased as the research groups started applying the concept of dividing the gas volume into subvolumes to the narrow gap RPCs leading to the now widely used micro gap MRPCs. The time resolution of such a detector can reach of few tens of ps, with gas gaps of the order of a few hundred $\mu\mathrm{m}$ as showed in Figure 4.17 representing a single cell of ALICE Time-of-flight (ToF) system consisting of double MRPCs, as it was studied in the early 2000s [60].

Sometimes used as a double multigap RPC, taking advantage of the OR of double gap RPCs to both be able to operate a higher number of gaps while keeping a reasonable high voltage applied in between the cathode and anode and to further reduce the gain, the MRPC is mainly used as ToF detector [60–64] due to its excellent timing properties that allow to perform particle identification as explained by Williams in [65]. The principle of particle identification using ToF is simply the measurement of the velocity of a particle. Indeed, particles are defined by their mass (for the parameter of interest here, their electric charge being measured using the bending angle of the particles traveling through a magnetic field) and this mass can be calculated by measuring the velocity β and momentum of the particle:

$$\beta = \frac{p}{\sqrt{p^2 + m^2}} \tag{4.3}$$

Intuitively, it is trivial to understand that 2 different particles having the same momentum will have a different velocity due to the mass difference and thus a different flight time T_1 and T_2 through the detector and this is used to separate and identify particles. The better the time resolution of the ToF system used, the stronger will the separation be:

$$T = \frac{L}{v} = \frac{L}{c \cdot \beta}, \quad \Delta T = T_1 - T_2 = \frac{L}{c}\left(\sqrt{1 + m_1^2/p^2} - \sqrt{1 + m_2^2/p^2}\right) \cong (m_1^2 - m_2^2)\frac{L}{2cp^2} \tag{4.4}$$

An example of particle identification is given for the case of STAR experiment in Figure 4.18.

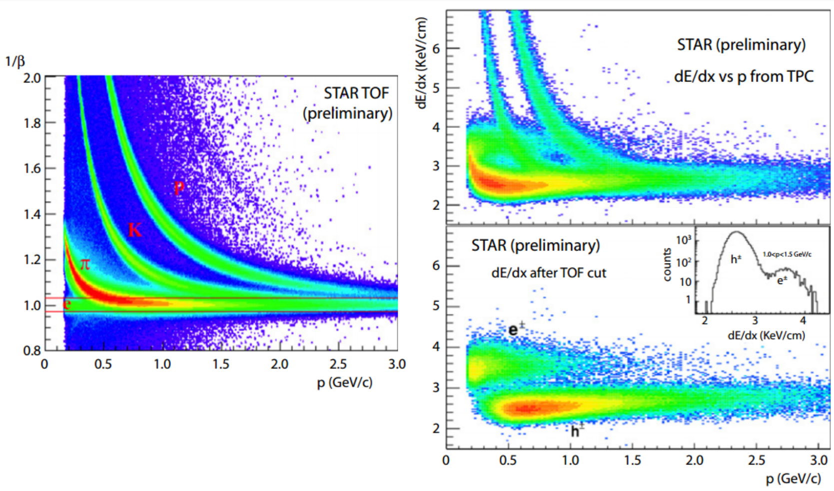


Figure 4.18: Particle identification applied to electrons in the STAR experiment. The identification is performed combining ToF and dE/dx measurements [65].

Taking into account the distortion effect on the electric field inside of a MRPC built using micro gaps due to the exposition to irradiation, distortion that can be understood by monitoring the current drawn by the detector which should stay constant at constant electric field, another benefice of using such small gas gaps is the strong reduction of the average avalanche volume and thus of the blind spot on MRPCs leading to an improved rate capability. Multigaps can sustain backgrounds of several $\mathrm{kHz/cm^2}$ as demonstrated in Figure 4.19.

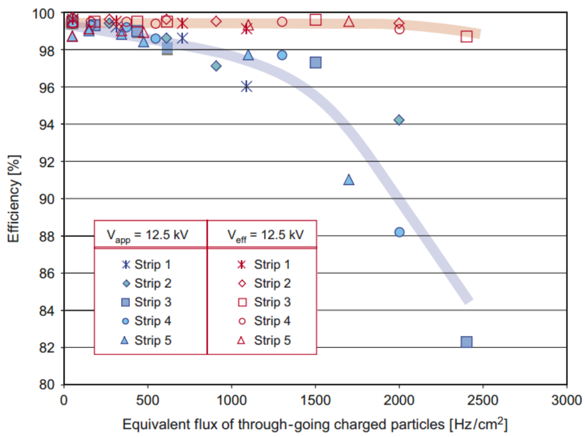


Figure 4.19: Comparison of the detector performance of ALICE ToF MRPC [66] at fixed applied voltage (in blue) and at fixed effective voltage (in red). The effective voltage is kept fixed by increasing the applied voltage accordingly to the current drawn by the detector.

4.2.3.3 Charge distribution and performance limitations

[This part could be moved in the next section of the chapter and deepened using the perspective of the avalanche physics.]

The direct consequence of the different RPC layouts is a variation of intrinsic time resolution of the RPC as the gap size decreases and of the rate capability when the deposited charge per event is spread over a larger number of amplification volumes, allowing for a reduction of the overall gain of the detectors which is replaced by an on-electronics pre-amplification of the signals. in this sense, an advantage is given to multigaps whose design use sub-millimeter gas volumes providing very consistent signals.

From the charge spectrum point of view, each layout has its own advantages. When the double-gap has the highest induced over drifting charge ratio, as seen in Figure 4.20, the multigap has a charge spectrum strongly detached from the origin, as visible in Figure 4.21. A high induced over drifting charge ratio means that the double gap can be safely operated at high threshold or that at similar threshold it can be operated with a twice smaller drifting charge, meaning a higher rate capability if operated with sensitive enough electronics. On the other hand, the strong detachment of the charge spectrum from the origin in the MRPC case allows to reach a higher efficiency with increasing threshold as most of the induced charge is not low due to the convolution of several single gap spectra. The range of stable efficiency increases with the number of gap, as presented in Figure 4.22.

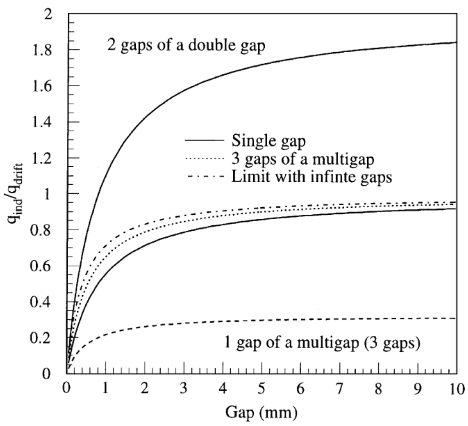


Figure 4.20: Ratio between total induced and drifting charge have been simulated for single gap, double-gap and multigap layouts [67]. The total induced charge for a double-gap RPC is a factor 2 higher than for a multigap.

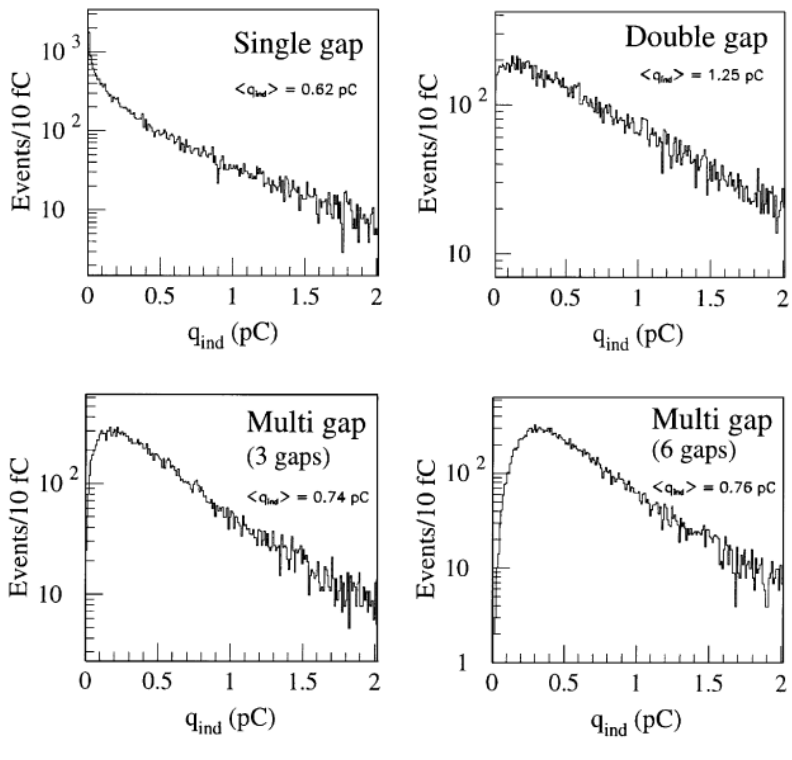


Figure 4.21: Charge spectra have been simulated for single gap, double-gap and multigap layouts [67]. It appears that when single gap shows a decreasing spectrum, double and multigap layouts exhibit a spectrum whose peak is detached from the origin. The detachment gets stronger as the number of gaps increases.

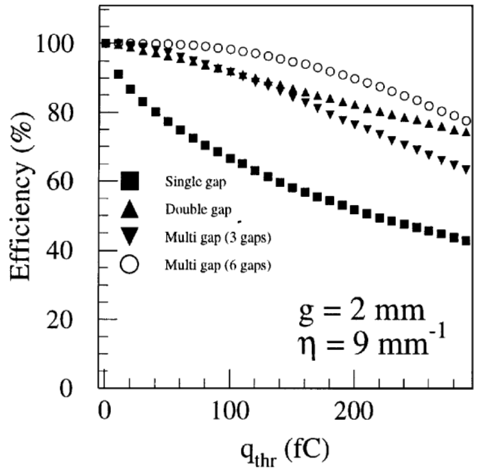


Figure 4.22: The maximal theoretical efficiency is simulated for single gap, double-gap and multigap layouts [67] at a constant gap thickness of 2 mm *and using an effective Townsend coefficient of* $9\,\mathrm{mm}^{-1}$.

4.3 Signal formation

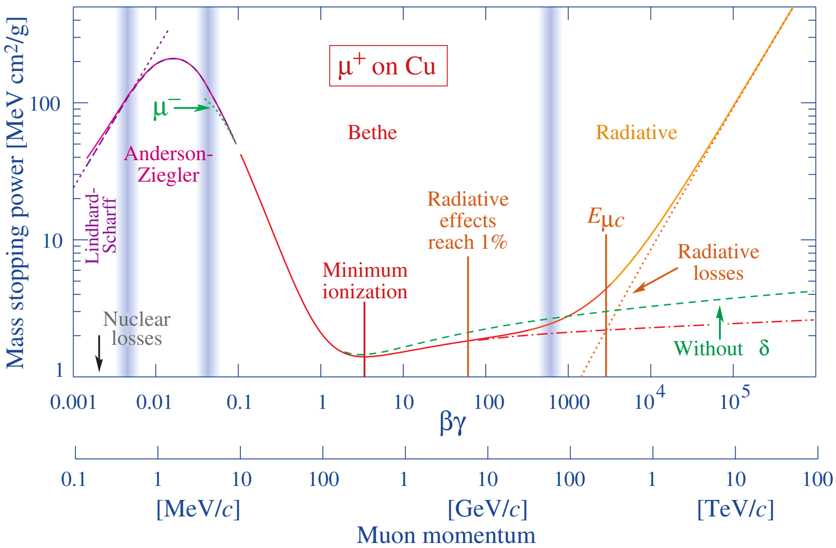


Figure 4.23: Mass stopping power as a function of $\beta\gamma = p/Mc$ *for positive muons in copper [68]. The total stopping power is indicated with solid line and local components with dashed lines. the vertical bands are used to indicate boundaries between different approximations used at different energy range.*

The physics of Resistive Plate Chambers still is far from being fully understood and work is regularly being accomplished in trying to model these detectors the best way possible by phenomenological models using well-defined physics [51, 69, 70]. These theoretical works have nevertheless lead to a better understanding of the key principles that account for RPCs signal formation. As previously discussed, the typical mixture of such a detector is in great majority composed by a ionizing gas with some quenching properties and a low ionization potential to easily produce electrons, with the addition of UV quencher and electronegative compounds. The electronic avalanche formation will be triggered by a charged particle passing through the gas, typically a muon in the case of most uses of RPCs. The production of electrons in the gas of a detector is related to the energy lost by the incoming particle traveling through a material medium. The example of the mass stopping power of copper on muons is given in Figure 4.23 on which the different energy loss mechanisms at different energy ranges are visible. Once primary electrons have been freed in the gas volume, the electric field applied in between the electrodes of the RPC will make the charges move and there will be a competition in the gas in between the Townsend and attachment coefficient which describe the evolution of the number of electrons in an avalanche. While drifting through the gas, the electrons are also subjected to diffusion that will affect the evolution of the avalanches. Finally, when the avalanche is big enough, the accumulation of negative (electrons) and positive (ions) charges in the gas volume will start affecting the local electric field. This effect is known as space charge effect.

4.3.1 Energy loss at intermediate energies

Intuitively, a particle traveling through a medium will interact with its components, losing energy. When a muon travels through the gas of a gaseous detector, at the energy range usually observed, it interacts with the molecules of the gas leading to dissipation of the transferred energy in the form of inelastic diffusion or ionization. The photons and electron-ion pairs resulting from these interaction can trigger avalanches in the gas which will contribute to feed the avalanche growth thanks to the strong electric field applied in between the 2 electrodes of a RPC.

The mass stopping power of moderately relativistic ($0.1 \lesssim \beta\gamma \lesssim 1000$) heavy particles ($M \gg m_e$) traveling through a medium via excitation and ionization processes was studied by Bethe in 1930 [71] and is well described by the so called the Bethe Formula given in Equation 4.5.

$$\left\langle -\frac{dE}{dx} \right\rangle = Kz^2 \frac{Z}{A} \frac{1}{\beta^2} \left(\frac{1}{2} ln \frac{2m_e c^2 \beta^2 \gamma^2 W_{max}}{I^2} - \beta^2 - \delta(\beta\gamma) \right) \tag{4.5}$$

The different parameters used in this equation are

E	-	incident particle energy $\gamma M c^2$	MeV
x	-	mass per unit area	$\mathrm{g\,cm^{-2}}$
N_A	-	Avogadro's number	6.022 140 857(74) $\times 10^{23} \mathrm{mol^{-1}}$
c	-	speed of light in vacuum	299 792 458$\mathrm{m\,s^{-1}}$
μ_0	-	permeability of free space	$4\pi \times 10^{-7} \mathrm{N\,A^{-2}}$
ϵ_0	-	permittivity of free space $\epsilon_0 = 1/\mu_0 c^2$	8.854 187 817 . . . $\times 10^{-12} \mathrm{F\,m^{-1}}$
α	-	fine structure constant $\alpha = e^2/4\pi\epsilon_0 \hbar c$	1/137.035 999 139(31)
r_e	-	classical electron radius $r_e = e^2/4\pi\epsilon_0 m_e c^2$	2.817 940 3227(19)fm
e	-	elementary charge of the electron	-1.6021766208(98) $\times 10^{-19}\mathrm{C}$
$m_e c^2$	-	electron mass $\times c^2$	0.510 998 9461(31)MeV
K	-	constant defined as $K = 4\pi N_A r_e^2 m_e c^2$	0.307 075 $\mathrm{MeV\,mol^{-1}\,cm^2}$
z	-	charge number of incident particle	
Z	-	atomic number of absorbing medium	
A	-	atomic mass of absorbing medium	$\mathrm{g\,mol^{-1}}$
β	-	velocity of particle $\beta = v/c$	
γ	-	Lorentz factor $\gamma = (1-\beta^2)^{-1/2}$	
W_{max}	-	maximum energy transfer through a single collision	MeV

I	-	mean excitation energy of absorbing medium	eV
$\delta(\beta\gamma)$	-	density effect correction to ionization energy loss	

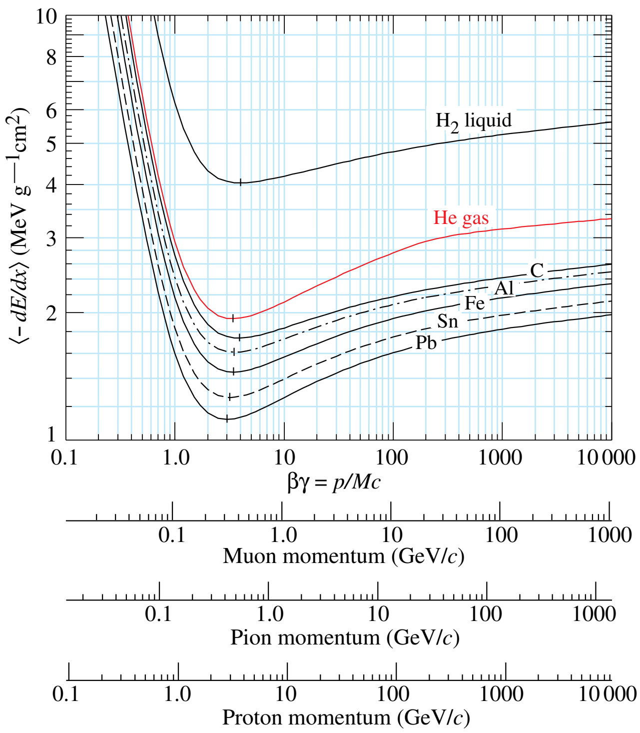


Figure 4.24: Mean mass stopping power for liquid hydrogen, as used in bubble chambers, gaseous helium, carbon, aluminum, iron, tin, and lead without the inclusion of radiative effect at higher $\beta\gamma$ necessary for pions and muons in denser materials [68].

In this equation, the maximum energy transfer W_{max} is defined as function of the incident particle mass M, expressed in $\mathrm{MeV}/\mathrm{c}^2$

$$W_{max} = \frac{2m_e c^2 \beta^2 \gamma^2}{1 + 2\gamma m_e/M + (m_e/M)^2} \tag{4.6}$$

and the mean excitation energy I depends on the absorber and its determination is non-trivial but recommendation are given by the International Commission on Radiation Units & Measurements (ICRU) based on experimental measurements and interpolations as showed in Figure 4.25.

For the case of copper, the mean stopping power is visible in Figure 4.23. The mean stopping power corresponding only to the Bethe range for other materials is given in Figure 4.24 and shows that $\langle -dE/dx \rangle$ is similar for each material with a slow decrease with Z. The factor affecting the equation the most is β as the dependence on M is introduced at higher energies in the logarithm via the max transfer energy per single collision but in most practicle cases, only the dependence on β is considered as most of the relativistic particles are closed to the lowest mean energy loss rate and are referred to as minimum ionizing particles (mip's). The almost logarithmic relation in between the mean energy loss rate for minimum ionizing particles and Z is showed in Figure 4.26.

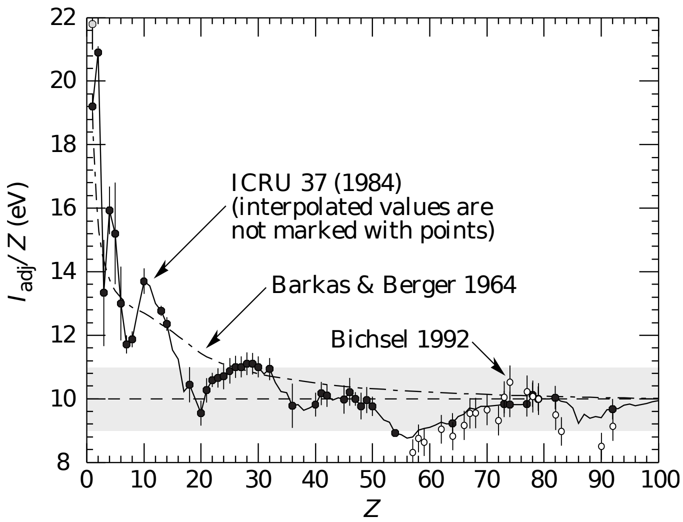


Figure 4.25: Mean excitation energies normalized to the atomic number as adopted by the ICRU [68, 72, 73].

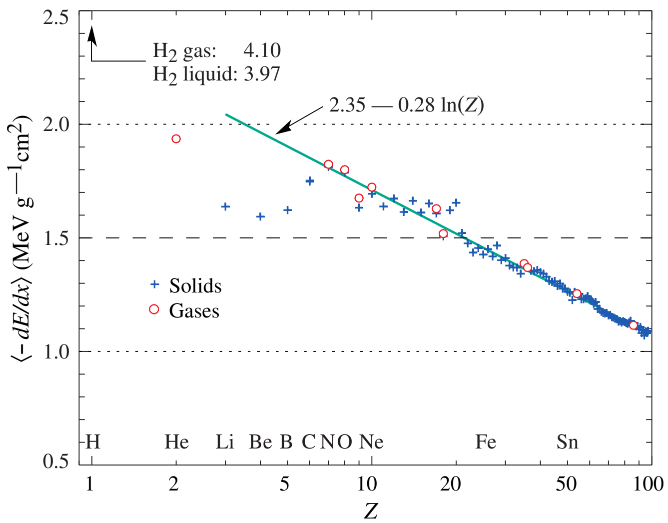


Figure 4.26: Mean mass stopping power at minimum ionization as a function of the atomic number [68].

Finally, the term $\delta(\beta\gamma)/2$ corresponds to the density effect correction introduced to account for the polarization of a real media that limits the spatial extension of the electric field of relativistic particles. Indeed, as the energy of a particle increases, the associated electric field will flatten and extend. Due to this effect, the distant collision contribution to Equation 4.5 will increase as $ln(\beta\gamma)$ but the polarization of the media trunc this rise. At high energies, the correction is given by Equation 4.7

$$\delta/2 \longrightarrow ln(\hbar\omega_p/I) + ln(\beta\gamma) - 1/2 \tag{4.7}$$

where $\hbar\omega_p$ represents the plasma energy that depends on the electron density of the media and the electron mass and can be calculated as $\sqrt{\rho\langle Z/A\rangle} \times 28.816$ eV. The introduction of this correction term reduces the increase of the mean stopping power at higher energies as can be seen in Figure 4.23. Moreover, due to poorer electron density, the effect is less visible on gases than on liquids and solids has van be seen from Figure 4.24.

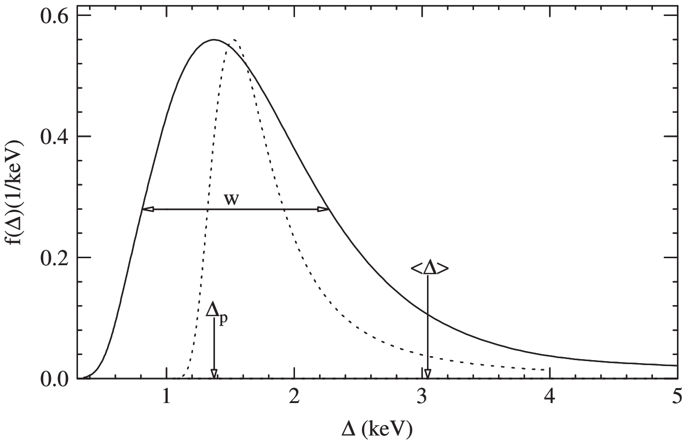


Figure 4.27: Example of straggling function $f(\Delta)$ of particles passing through $1.2\,\mathrm{cm}$ of Argon gas with a $\beta\gamma$ of 3.6 and represented with a solid line. The original Landau distribution is showed with a dashed line [74].

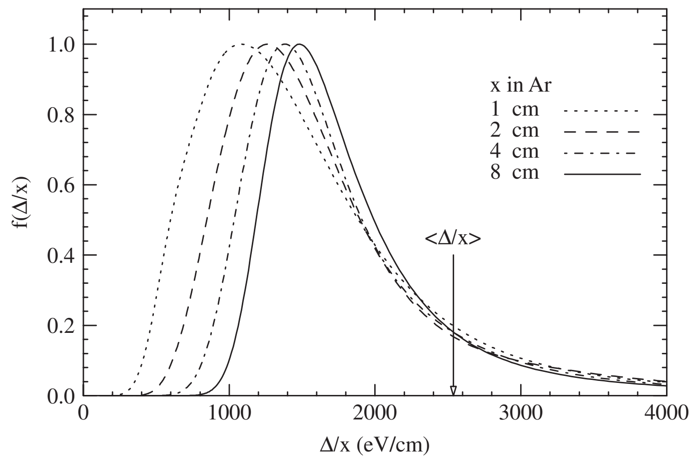


Figure 4.28: Evolution of straggling functions $f(\Delta)$ of particles passing through a volume of Argon gas with a $\beta\gamma$ of 3.6 with increasing thickness x [74].

The mean energy loss per collision can be difficult to measure for low data samples and is not always representative of the energy loss distribution for a given incident particle energy. Hence, it is easier to access the most probable energy loss which is a lower value than than the average loss due to the distribution of the energy transfer. This value is well described by a highly skewed Landau distribution for detectors with "moderate" thickness x, expressed in $\mathrm{g\,mol^{-1}}$. But for gas volumes, a Landau distribution greatly underestimates the width w of the distribution and only succeeds to provide with a correct value for the most probable energy loss, as showed in Figure 4.27. Thus, the energy loss distribution is better represented by its most probable energy loss Δ_p and its full-width-at-half-maximum (FWHM) w. As showed by Figure 4.28, the distribution is affected by the thickness of the gas volume and the most probable energy loss normalized to the thickness is increased and the width decreased, converging towards the Landau distribution, whereas the mean energy loss is unchanged. Correction are brought to the original Landau equation in order to account better for the number of collisions leading to an increased width of the energy loss distribution [74].

In the case of gas mixtures, composed of several elements, using Bragg additivity it can be understood that the mean energy loss of the mixture is the sum of the mean energy losses in each individual element j layer of weight w_j.

$$\left\langle \frac{dE}{dx} \right\rangle = \sum w_j \left\langle \frac{dE}{dx} \right\rangle_j \tag{4.8}$$

4.3.2 Primary ionization

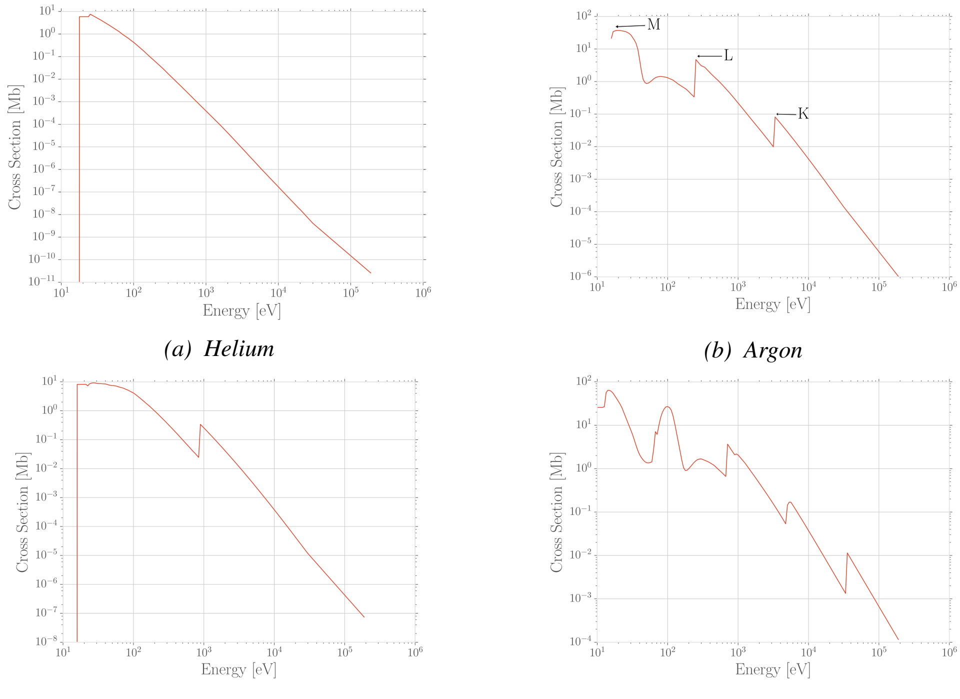
Using Bethe formula to understand the mean energy transfer of charged particle when traveling through a gas volume give an intuition of the physics that affect the particle but doesn't provide a detailed enough information about the individual ionizations along its tracks at a microscopic level. In order to simulate efficiently an RPC and hence understand the processes governing avalanches creation and growth, knowledge on the ionization process is necessary.

To convert the energy loss rate into a number of primary ionizations was developed in 1980 the Photo-Absorption Ionisation (PAI) model [75] based on the cross section of ionization of gas atoms to real photons and the dielectric constant of the medium through which the charged particles are going. Indeed, the interaction of charged particles with the gas molecules being of electromagnetic nature, it is mediated by quasi-real photons and, hence, the cross section to photon ionization is important to understand. This approach is nevertheless semi-classical as it relies on classical electrodynamics and it only gives access to the energy transfer to the gas atoms and no information on the energy dissipation and secondary emissions is available on the output of the model. The energy transfered to the medium is not all used for ionization. For an energy deposition Δ, the number of electron-ion pairs produced is:

$$\Delta = n_i W \tag{4.9}$$

W corresponds to the mean work per pair production that depends on the medium and is greater than the ionization potential leading to the conclusion that part of the transfered energy is dissipated through other processes [70, 76]. In order to understand the energy dissipation and the secondary emissions, the fine structure of each atom is taken into account. Through the PAI model, the incident charged particle interacts is assumed to interact with the full atom rather than with a single electron.

Although, considering that the particle interacts with a single electron, leads to the possibility to study the excited state of the atom once the photo-electron has been emitted with an energy corresponding to the transfered energy minus the binding energy of the electronic shell. The resulting vacancies in the electronic shell will be filled through emission of photons or Auger electrons and can contribute to further ionization or excitation in the gas volume. Fluorescence photons are usually not considered as they only constitute a very small fraction of secondary emissions [77]. Assuming that the transfered energy is absorbed in its totality by a single electronic shell, the PAI model was modified to include relaxations and constitute the new Photo-Absorption Ionisation with Relaxation (PAIR) model [77]. In this model, the cross section corresponding to the whole atom is re-expressed using a sum of partial cross sections corresponding to the different electronic shells. When one or more electrons are knocked out of the atom, the vacancies are filled by electrons of the shell above with relaxation by Auger electron emission. These processes happen in cascade from the inner shell to the outer one until all the vacancies are filled and the energy has been released.



(a) Helium *(b) Argon*

(c) Neon *(d) Xenon*

Figure 4.29: Photo-absorption cross section as computed by `HEED` *for nobles gases with different electric shell numbers [70].*

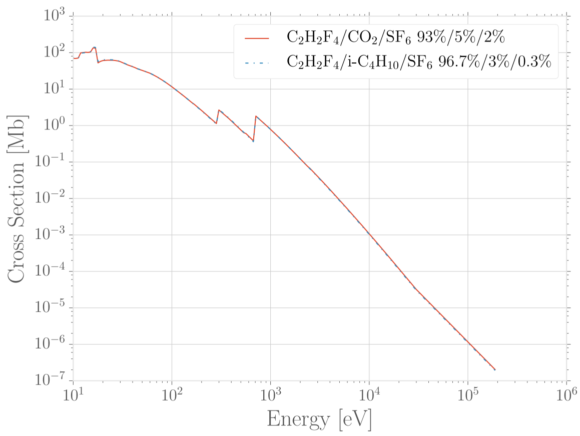
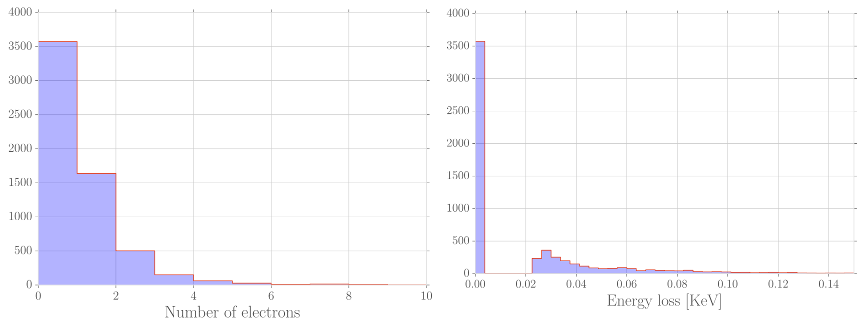
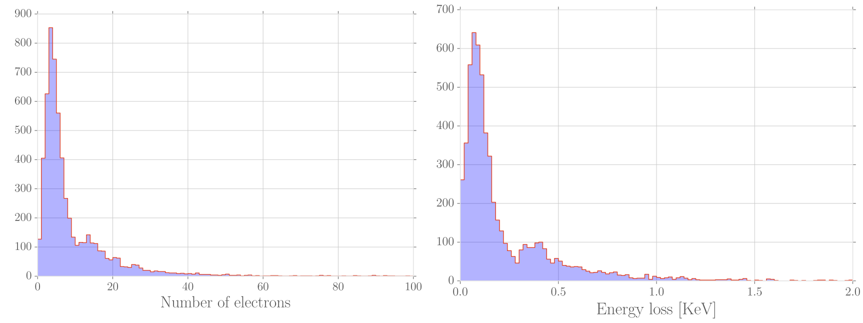


Figure 4.30: Photo-absorption cross section as computed by `HEED` *for typical RPC gas mixtures [70]. The RPC mixture with CO_2 corresponds to the mixture used by CALICE SDHCAL [78] while the other one was forseen for the experiement ATLAS [79] but has been changed since then.*

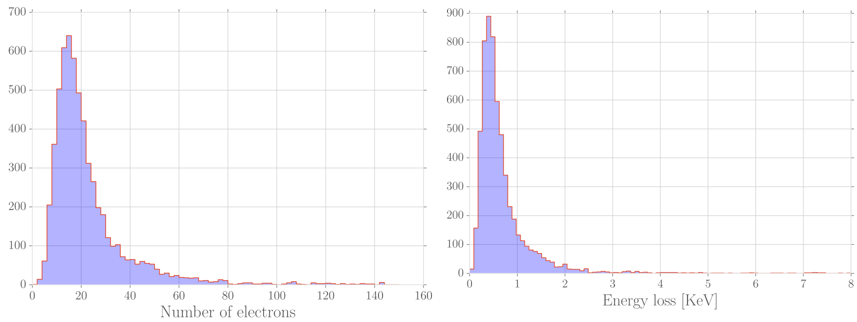
This model is included in the program HEED developed at CERN [80] and called by Garfield, a program developed for the simulation of gaseous detectors. The results for the cross section for a few noble gases are given in Figure 4.29. It can be seen that for each shell, the cross section is increased. More complex patterns are seen with bigger atoms such as Xenon on Figure 4.29d. For gas mixtures, like the typical RPC mixtures, the cross section is showed in Figure 4.30. Both mixtures being mainly composed of $C_2H_2F_4$, the variations in between the 2 cross section profiles are very subtle and depends on the concentration of the other compounds.



(a) Helium



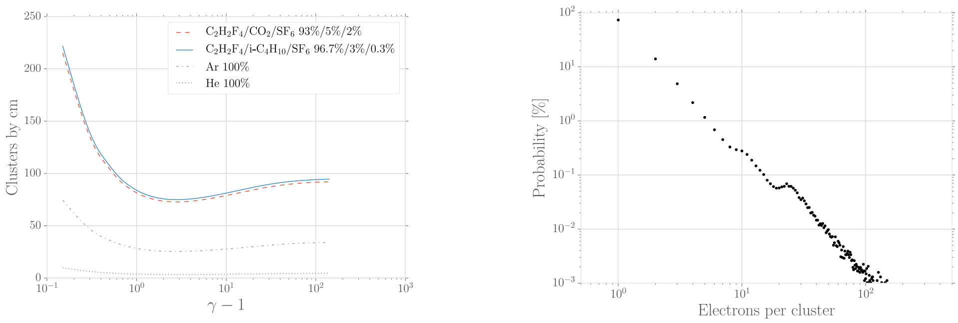
(b) Argon



(c) 96.7% $C_2H_2F_4$, 3% i-C_4H_{10} and 0.3% SF_6 [79]

Figure 4.31: Distributions of number of electrons (left) and energy loss (right) for a $5\,\mathrm{GeV/c}$ muon passing through $1.2\,\mathrm{mm}$ of Helium (Figure 4.31a), Argon (Figure 4.31b) or a typical RPC gas mixture (Figure 4.31c) [70].

Once the cross section of interaction is known, it is possible to extract the distribution of energy loss and of the number of electron produced, as showed in Figure 4.31 for Helium, Argon, which is used in gaseous detectors, and for a typical RPC mixture [70]. The distributions are computed using HEED and show typical straggling function profiles with some complex structures that can be related to interaction of the incoming particle with the different electronic shells. Helium does not have a great photo-absorption cross-section according to Figure 4.29a and a muon will not be likely to lose a lot of energy and to create a lot of electrons whereas in a more complex atom like Argon, the cross-section is greater and will lead to a greater energy loss of muons and more electron produced. Finally, a complex gas mixture used in RPCs will offer an even greater cross-section, a wider energy loss distribution and will be able to produce more electrons. The same information is seen by looking at the evolution of the mean number of cluster as a function of the lorentz factor associated to muons showed in Figure 4.32a. Indeed, the greater photo-absorption cross-section of RPC mixtures allow for a much greater amount of clusters to be created by charged particles. The size of these clusters is studied through Figure 4.32b which shows that, in most of the cases (≈80%), the clusters only are composed of a single electron which is consistent with minimum ionizing particles.



(a) *(b)*

Figure 4.32: Figure 4.32a: Mean cluster density for muons through different gas volumes [70]. Figure 4.32b: Distribution of the number of electrons per cluster for a $5\,\mathrm{GeV/c}$ *muon traveling through a mixture of 96.7%* $C_2H_2F_4$*, 3% i-*C_4H_{10} *and 0.3%* SF_6 *[70, 79].*

4.3.3 Development and propagation of avalanches

From the clusters released in the gas volume by the charged particles, free electrons will start drifting due to the electric applied in between the electrodes of the RPC. Gaining velocity and energy, these electrons in their turn will be able to ionize the gas. This process being repeated by all the produced electrons will trigger an avalanche to develop.

The growth of the avalanche can be intuitively understood as a competition between 2 effects. Due to their increasing energy, electrons have a probability to trigger new ionizations by interacting with gas molecules. On the other hand, before the minimal amount of energy is reached, the electrons can get attached to a gas molecule instead. These two effects can be described using a simple model in which the multiplication and attachment processes are given by the Townsend coefficient α and the attachment coefficient η, assuming that the history of previous interactions in the gas does not influence new interactions. This model simply takes into account probabilities to have at the gas depth z for a given number n of free electrons in the gas $n+1$ or $n-1$ electrons at the depth $z+\mathrm{d}z$ (respectively $n\alpha\mathrm{d}z$ and $n\eta\mathrm{d}z$). Then, the mean number of electrons $\bar{n}$ and cations $\bar{p}$ can be written for single compound gases as

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}\bar{n}}{\mathrm{d}z} = (\alpha - \eta)\bar{n}\,, \quad \frac{\mathrm{d}\bar{p}}{\mathrm{d}z} = \alpha\bar{n} \tag{4.10}$$

which, assuming the initial conditions $\bar{n}(0) = 1$ and $\bar{p}(0) = 0$, lead to the mean number of electrons and cations at a depth z

$$\bar{n}(z) = e^{(\alpha-\eta)z}\,,\ \bar{p}(z) = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha-\eta}\left(e^{(\alpha-\eta)z} - 1\right) \tag{4.11}$$

The Townsend and attachment coefficient as a function of the applied electric field are given in Figure 4.33 for a standard RPC gas mixture using `Magboltz` [81].

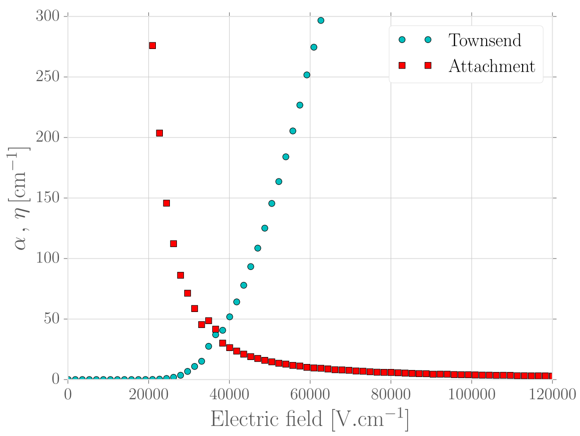


Figure 4.33: Townsend and attachment coefficient for a typical 96.7/3/0.3 mixture of $C_2H_2F_4$/i-C_4H_{10}/SF_6, at a temperature T =296.15 K and a pressure P =1013 hPa [70, 79].

Nevertheless, there are more to the avalanche growth than simply these two factors. Throughout the 20th century, models have been developed to better understand the physics of discharges in gas. In 1937, Furry developed a model to describe electromagnetic cascades [82] that would be used for electron avalanches in gas during the 1950s. Furry realized that the use of a Poisson law to describe the distribution of shower sizes could not be accurate as he understood that the events occurring in the development of a cascade are not independent from each other, as a Poisson law would suggest. Indeed, part of the particles produce others and this process depends on both their original energy and energy lost. Experimental results showed excess of small showers and an under estimate of very large ones. To solve this problem, Furry proposed a distribution of sizes of following the likelihood described in Equation 4.12, in which $\bar{n} = e^{\alpha z}$, compared with a Poisson law in Figure 4.34.

$$P(n, \bar{n}) = \bar{n}^{-1}(1 - \bar{n}^{-1})^{n-1} \tag{4.12}$$

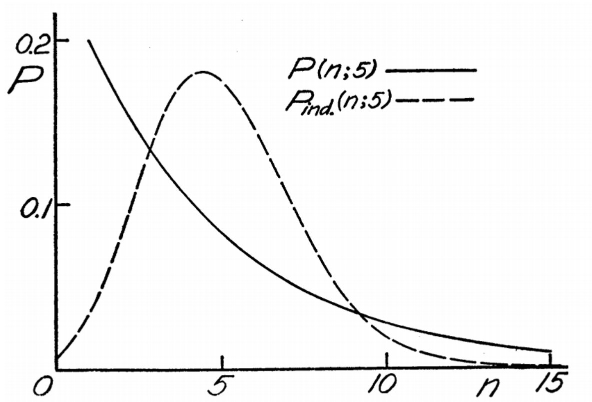


Figure 4.34: Comparison of the distribution law of Furry and the Poisson law for $\bar{n} = 5$ [82].

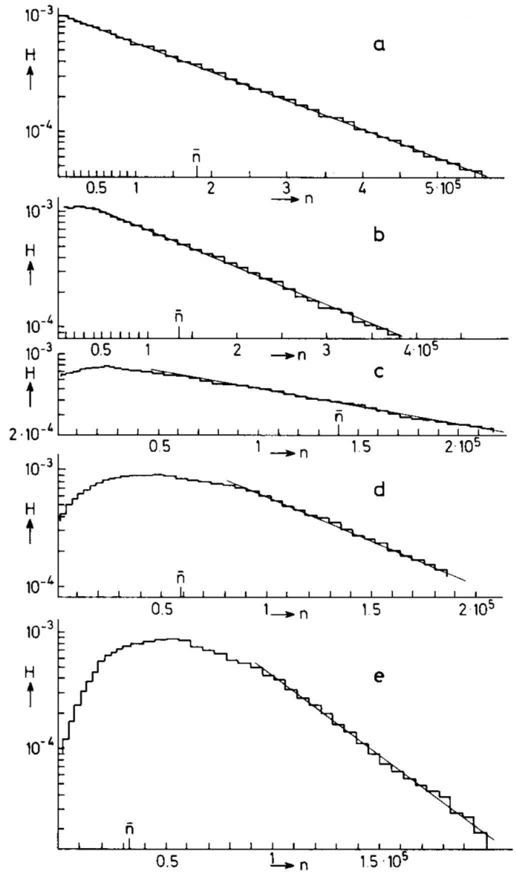


Figure 4.35: Single-electron avalanche size distribution in a proportionnal counter filled with methylal at different E/p values. (a) 70, (b) 76.5, (c) 105, (d) 186.5, (e) 426$\mathrm{V/cm\,torr}$ *[83].*

In this model, no extra energy is brought to the electrons in the showers, contrary to the case of a gaseous detector such as a RPC where an electric field accelerates them. Using the Furry model, Genz studied the fluctuations in electron avalanches in gaseous detectors [83]. Collisions leading to ionizations leave electrons with an energy much smaller than the ionization energy eU_i, where U_i is the ionization potential of a gas molecule. Hence, the electrons need to travel a distance $s = U_i/E$ along the electric field E to acquire a high enough energy to trigger a new ionization. For the probability of a new ionization to be independent from the path followed by the electrons since the previous ionization, the mean free path $1/\alpha$ of electrons in the gas has to be large compared to s and thus $E/\alpha \gg U_i$. The Townsend coefficient is related to the gas pressure leading to conditions on the value of E/p. Avalanches in gas are large compared to the showers Furry has studied in his original paper. For very large avalanche sizes, Equation 4.12 can be written as an exponential, as showed in Equation 4.13.

$$P(n, \bar{n}) = \bar{n}^{-1} e^{-n/\bar{n}} \tag{4.13}$$

This exponential behaviour is showed through Figure 4.35. In practice, to fully understand the avalanche growth, taking into account the path followed by electrons from one ionization to another will become necessary. In the same paper, Genz then discusses models using Polya distributions to estimate the multiplication by looking at the size of the avalanche it self. Indeed, the number of charge carriers in the avalanche might become important enough to have an effect on the multiplication process. To account for this, it was proposed to use a varying Townsend coefficient such as described by Equation 4.14 depending on the position x in which θ is an empirical parameter leading to the probability distribution of Equation 4.15. In the limit case where θ goes to 0, the formula describes again the Furry model. But the data deviates from this model as well at large n values. Moreover, the introduction of an empirical parameters makes the model hard to interpret physically.

$$\alpha(n, x) = \alpha(x) \left(1 + \frac{\theta}{n} \right), \quad n > 0 \tag{4.14}$$

$$P(n, x) = \frac{1+\theta}{\bar{n}} \frac{1}{\theta!} \left(\frac{n(1+\theta)}{\bar{n}} \right)^{\theta} e^{-\frac{n(1+\theta)}{\bar{n}}} \tag{4.15}$$

In order to have a model that describes reality better, the introduction of the attachment into the model is an important step. Despite its limitations, the Furry model had the advantage to describe well avalanches occurring when the attachment could be ignored. This is only natural that this model was then extended to included attachment. This was done by Riegler, Lippmann and Veenhof [79] which showed that was important was to consider both the Townsend coefficient describing the multiplication *and* the attachment coefficient, not only the effective multiplication coefficient $\bar{\alpha} = \alpha - \eta$. The probability to see an avalanche started by a single electron grow to a size n after having traveled a distance z through the gas is given by Equation 4.16.

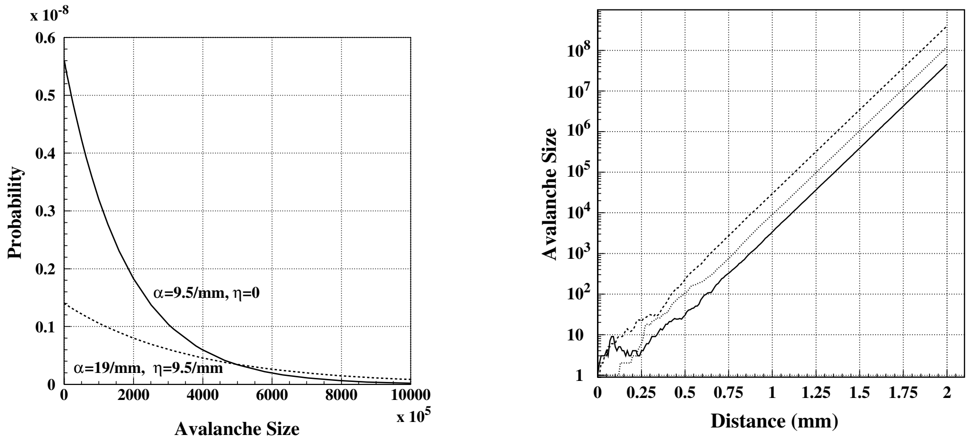
$$\begin{aligned} P(n, z) = {} & P(n-1, z)\,(n-1)\alpha \mathrm{d}z\,(1 - (n-1)\eta \mathrm{d}z) \\ & + P(n, z)\,(1 - n\alpha \mathrm{d}z)\,(1 - n\eta \mathrm{d}z) \\ & + P(n, z)\, n\alpha \mathrm{d}z\, n\eta \mathrm{d}z \\ & + P(n+1, z)\,(1 - (n+1)\alpha \mathrm{d}z)\,(n+1)\eta \mathrm{d}z \end{aligned} \tag{4.16}$$

The first term of this probability that from a state with $n-1$ electrons, only 1 multiplies while the others don't get attached. Both the second and third terms describes the probability that from a state with already n electrons the total number of electrons stay the same. On the second term, no electron gets attached nor multiplies while on the third term, 1 electron gets multiplied and 1 gets attached to compensate. Finally, the fourth term describes the probability to fall from a state with $n+1$ to a state with n electrons due to the attachment of a single electron. At the first order, the evaluation of the previous expression leads to Equation 4.17 which general solution is given in Equation 4.18 in which are introduced the variables $\bar{n}(z)$, defined as in Equation 4.11, and $k = \eta/\alpha$ making explicit the fact that the distribution not only depends on the effective Townsend coefficient.

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}P(n,z)}{\mathrm{d}z} = -P(n,z)n(\alpha+\eta) \; + \; P(n-1,z)(n-1)\alpha \; + \; P(n+1,z)(n+1)\eta \tag{4.17}$$

$$P(n,z) = \begin{cases} k\frac{\bar{n}(z)-1}{\bar{n}(z)-k}\,, & n=0 \\ \bar{n}(z)\left(\frac{1-k}{\bar{n}(z)-k}\right)^2\left(\frac{\bar{n}(z)-1}{\bar{n}(z)-k}\right)^{n-1}\,, & n>0 \end{cases} \tag{4.18}$$

The example given through Figure 4.36 shows the importance of each individual process in the growth of avalanches and the fluctuation of their size. The values of α and η will influence the probability distribution, as can be seen from Figure 4.36a. Then, Figure 4.36b shows that the fluctuation really takes place within the very first interactions. Indeed, when the avalanche contains a large enough amount of charge carriers (a few hundreds), its size then increases like $e^{z(\alpha-\eta)}$.

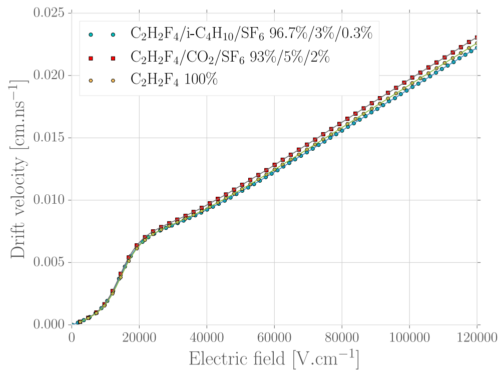


(a) *(b)*

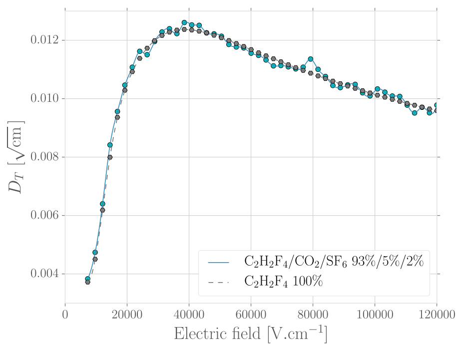
Figure 4.36: Figure 4.36a: Comparison of avalanche size distributions for different values of Townsend and attachment coefficients. The effective Townsend coefficient is the same for both distributions. Figure 4.36b: Fluctuation in avalanche size for avalanche started by a single electron with α = $13\,\mathrm{mm}^{-1}$ and η = $3.5\,\mathrm{mm}^{-1}$ [79].

4.3.4 Drift and diffusion of the electron cloud

During the growth of avalanches, an electron cloud drifting along the electric field through the gas will undergo thermal diffusion due to random collisions with the gas molecules. This phenomenon can be studied using Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution whose mean is defined by the thermal energy of the cloud $\langle E\rangle = 3/2kT$ with an extra component coming from the constant drift motion. The drift of electrons along the field lines is usually observed on a macroscopic scale through which the speed can be assimilated to a constant v_D which corresponds to the mean drift speed over a large number of collisions in the gas.



(a)



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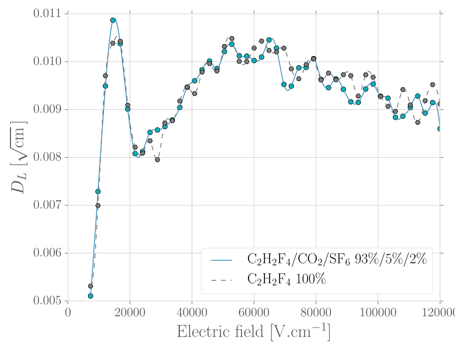
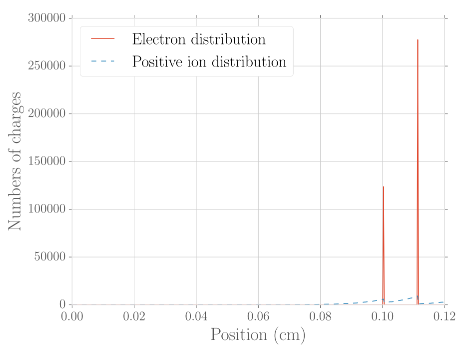
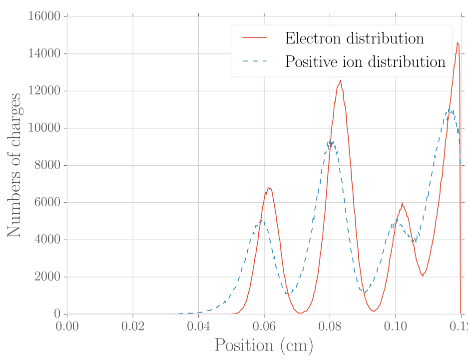


(c)

Figure 4.37: Figure 4.37a: Electron mean drift velocity v_D in pure $C_2H_2F_4$ and typical RPC gas mixtures. Figure 4.37b: Transverse diffusion coefficient in pure $C_2H_2F_4$ and a typical RPC gas mixture. Figure 4.37c: Longitudinal diffusion coefficient in pure $C_2H_2F_4$ and a typical RPC gas mixture. All results are given with a pressure $P = 760\,\mathrm{Torr}$ and a temperature $T = 296.15\,\mathrm{K}$ [70].



(a) $n_e = 4.01 \times 10^5$



(b) $n_e = 1.25 \times 10^6$

Figure 4.38: Comparison of the free charge carriers in the gas after a time $t = 7.90\,\mathrm{ns}$ in the case where no diffusion is taken into account to simulate the avalanche (Figure 4.38a) and in the case where the diffusion is implemented (Figure 4.38b) [70].

Indeed, at the microscopic scale, the electrons are drifting over a distance δz while acquiring the corresponding kinetic energy $T = e_0|\overrightarrow{E}|\delta z$ until they are slowed down by a collision in which they lose part of their energy. This process is repeated as long as electrons are free carriers. Starting from a point-like electron cloud, the Gaussian density distribution at $\overrightarrow{r_0}$ will be described by Formula 4.19 in which the width of the isotropic distribution is $\sigma = 2\bar{D}t$, with $\bar{D}$ being a diffusion coefficient expressed in m^2/s [51].

$$\varphi(\overrightarrow{r}, t) = \frac{1}{\left(\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma(t)\right)^3} exp\left(-\frac{(\overrightarrow{r} - \overrightarrow{r_0})^2}{2\sigma^2(t)}\right) \tag{4.19}$$

Now, if the constant drifting motion is added, the distribution is anisotropic and can be divided onto transversal (Formula 4.20) and longitudinal (Formula 4.21) terms, $\varphi(r, z, t) = \varphi_T(r, t)\varphi_L(z, t)$, with a cylindrical symmetry around the field axis [51]. The variables t and $\sigma_{T,L}(t)$ can be hidden to the profit of the diffusion coefficients by using the relations $v_D = l/t$ and $\sigma^2_{T,L}(t) = 2\bar{D}_{T,L}l/v_D$ and introducing new diffusion coefficients $D_{T,L} = \sqrt{2\bar{D}_{T,L}/v_D}$ in order to explicitly show the dependence of the Gaussian width in drifted distance l.

$$\varphi_T(r, t) = \frac{1}{D_T^2 l} exp\left(-\frac{(r - r_0)^2}{2D_T^2 l}\right) \tag{4.20}$$

$$\varphi_L(z, t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi l}D_L} exp\left(-\frac{(z - z_0)^2}{2D_L^2 l)}\right) \tag{4.21}$$

These coefficients, as well as the drift velocity of the electrons, can be calculated thanks to `Magboltz` as showed in Figure 4.37. The influence of the diffusion on the distribution of charge carriers throughout the gas volume is depicted in Figure 4.38. From very localised electron clusters in the gas in Figure 4.38a, a Gaussian diffusion is then visible in Figure 4.38b. Due to the interactions with gas molecules during the drift, diffusions can occur in the forward and backward direction. Electrons diffused backward will effectively drift over a longer distance and multiply more than electrons diffused forward that will see a shorter drift length. As an effect, the avalanche develops over a longer time and extends over a greater gas volume than in the case the electron cloud is considered as point like and without diffusion. Moreover, as a side effect to the longer growth of the avalanche due to backward longitudinal diffusion, the total production of electrons is increased.

4.3.5 Space charge effect & streamers

Now that have been considered the basic processes that influence the development of avalanches in a gaseous detector in the previous sections, it is now important to consider the influence of the charge carriers present in the avalanche on the electric field seen by the avalanche. Indeed, each charged particle induces an electric field and it is only natural that the increasing density of electrons and ions in the detector volume will affect the electric field. Thus, parameters such as the Townsend and attachment coefficients, drift velocity or diffusion coefficients will find themselves to be modified along the gas gap length due to this effect referred to as *space charge effect*. Figure 4.39 is a more detailed version of Figure 4.1 *(b)* in which three electric regions are distinguished [51]. When compared to the linear electric field of strength E_0 that is developed in between the detector's electrodes, the accumulation of negative charges (electrons) on the front of the avalanche will reinforce the effective electric field in between the anode of the avalanche front. Deeper in the gas volume, the positive charges (cations) slowly drift towards the cathode and can induce together with the avalanche front opposite electric field loops. Finally, due to the density of positive charges, the electric field seen in between the ions tails and the cathode charged with negative charges is on average stronger than E_0 and compensate for the locally reversed field E_2. Lippmann roughly estimated by considering that 10^6 charges were contained in a sphere of radius $r_d = 0.1\,\mathrm{mm}$ that the space charge effect could change the electric field by 3% and the Townsend and attachment coefficient up to 14% [51, 70].

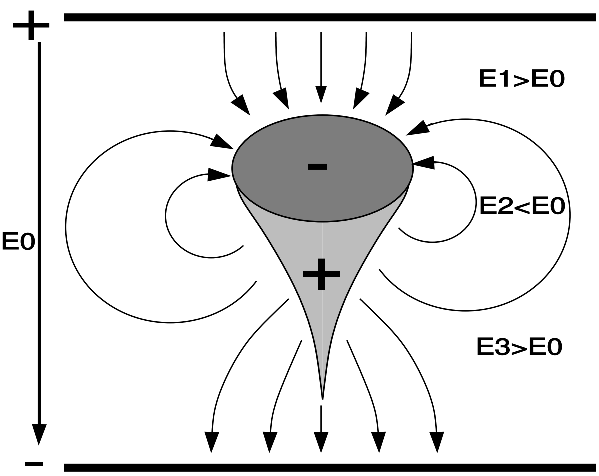
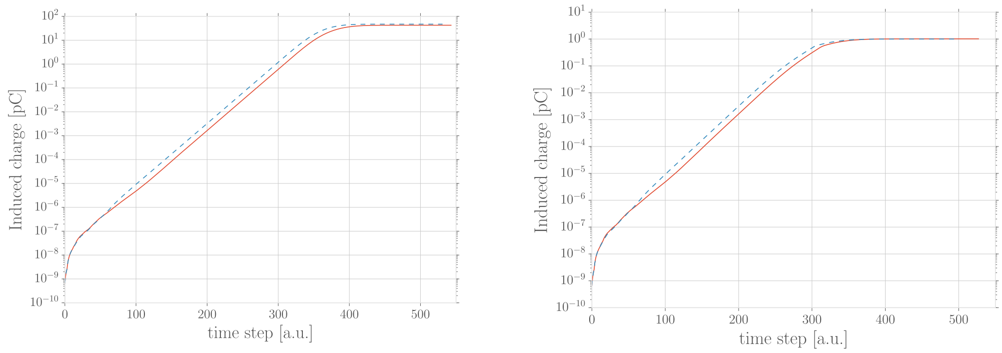


Figure 4.39: Schematic representation of an avalanche and of the electric field deformation it causes due to the local concentration of charge carriers [51].

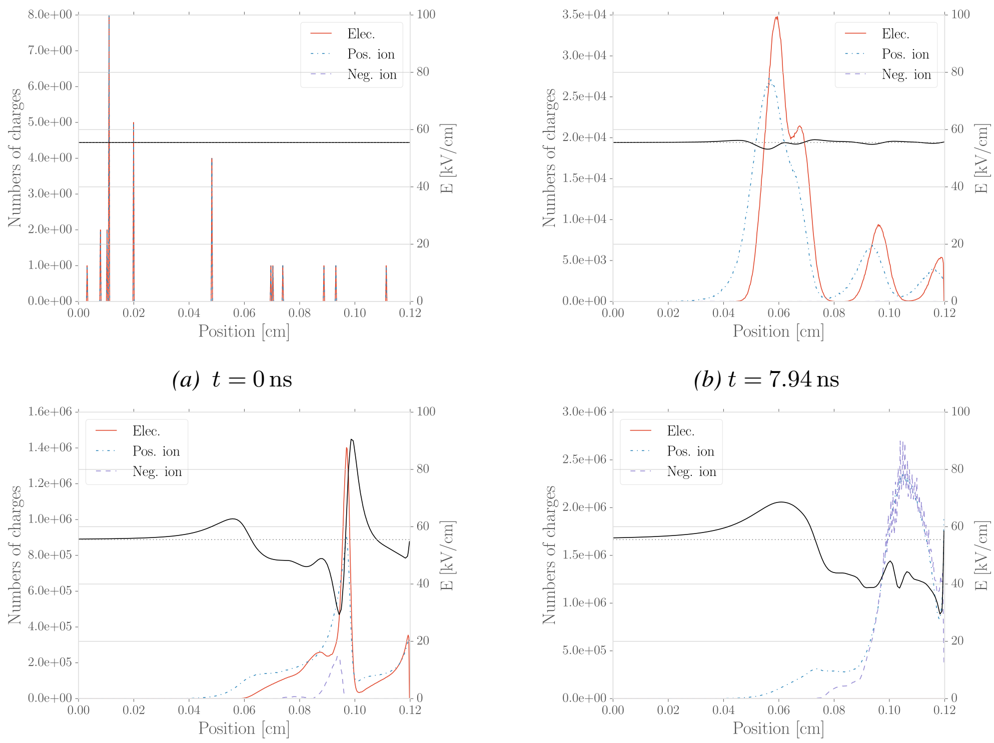
To account for the space charge effect, the electric potential and field of free charges are solved and applied to each charges in the avalanche [51, 70]. As discussed by Français who has been working on simulating RPCs similar to that used by the SDHCAL project of ILC, the computation of these equations for each individual charge carrier to dynamically know the space charge field at every stage of an avalanche development is a difficult task and would require far too much computation time and a solution is to pre-compute an interpolation table keeping an adequately large number of values of the space charge field for each positions in space thanks to which the values stored in the interpolation table become very close to the analytic solution and allow for a much faster simulation.

The study of space charge effect through simulation shows that the it can lead to a saturation of the avalanche growth due to the deformation of the electric field, as showed through Figure 4.40. Additionnally, a more precise understanding of the space charge effect is given through Figure 4.41 which looks at the distribution of charges and the distortion of the electric field at different steps of the evolution of an avalanche in a RPC. At the moment a $5\,\mathrm{GeV}$ muon ionizes the gas, electron-ion pairs are created in the gas in different clusters (Figure 4.41a). Later, the first clusters have reached the anode while the clusters that where created the closest to the cathode are now big enough to start influencing the electric field in the gap (Figure 4.41b). When a cluster is big enough, the electric field in front of it locally increases a lot and contributes to a stronger but very localised multiplication. At the same moment, the positive ions right behind the cluster avalanche front decrease the electric field, saturating the electron multiplication on the tail of the electron cloud (Figure 4.41c). Finally, when all the electrons have reached the anode and are relaxing, the electric field still is very deformed by the distribution of both positive and negative ions in the the gas volume closest to the anode (Figure 4.41d).



(a) *(b)*

Figure 4.40: Evolution of the charge induced by an avalanche started by a single electron in a $1.2\,\mathrm{mm}$ *thick RPC with an applied electric field of* $54\,\mathrm{kV/cm}$ *in the case space charge is not taken into account (Figure 4.40a) and in the case it is implemented into the simulation (Figure 4.40b). The total induced charge is correlated to the size of the avalanche [70].*



(a) $t = 0\,\mathrm{ns}$ *(b)* $t = 7.94\,\mathrm{ns}$

(c) $t = 8.94\,\mathrm{ns}$ *(d)* $t = 23.9\,\mathrm{ns}$

Figure 4.41: Distributions of charge carriers within the gas volume of a $1.2\,\mathrm{mm}$ *thick RPC and the corresponding deformation of the electric field at different time steps with an applied electric field of* $55.5\,\mathrm{kV/cm}$ *[70].*

The electric field following the development of an avalanche can stay perturbed for a long time with respect to the avalanche development due to the slow drift of the much heavier ions. This can result in powerful secondary avalanches triggered by the fluctuation of the electric field together with the emission of UV-photons leading to emission of electrons at the surface of the electrode. This is a slow phenomenon compared to the development of avalanches. Experimentally, it is observed that the stronger the electric field applied over the gap, the sooner after the avalanche, referred to as *precursor signal* in this context, and the stronger will the secondary avalanche be, possibly reaching the streamer regime. This could be due to the amount of UV-photons emitted by the growing precursor. These photons will be able to trigger new avalanches in a radius of a few mm around the precursor by knocking electrons from the cathode by photoelectric effect. The strong distortions of the electric field due to a large avalanche will be more likely to emit UV-photons as the electric field at the front of the precursor avalanche will be large, providing the electrons with a larger energy. Eventually, the new avalanches can grow to form streamers.

4.4 Effect of atmospherical conditions on the detector's performance

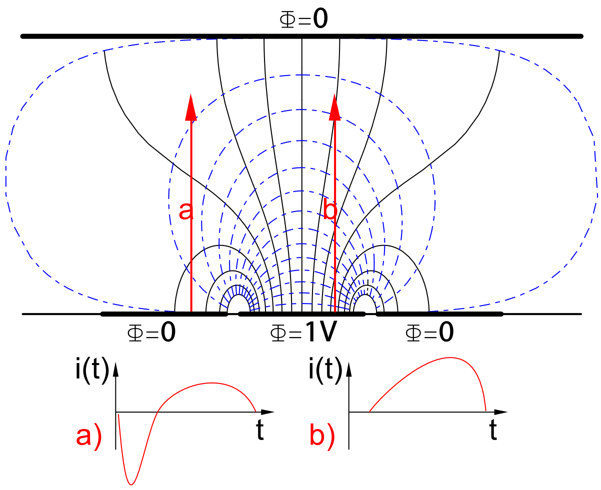


Figure 4.42: Representation of the weighting field in the volume of a RPC and the resulting induced current in the strip placed at $1\,\mathrm{V}$ *and its neighbour connected to the ground. The induced current corresponds, as can be understood from Formula 4.22 [51].*

Accordingly to Ramo's theorem, the movement of charge carriers, and in particular, the movement of a dense electron cloud toward the anode induces a current signal on one or more of the readout electrodes (strips or pads). The ions on the other hand induce only a very small current as their movement is much slower than which of the electrons. The current induced by $n_C l$ clusters of $N_j(t)$ charge carriers drifting at velocities $\overrightarrow{v_{Dj}}(t) = \overrightarrow{x_j}(t)$ at a time t is given by Formula 4.22 in which e_0 is the unit charge and $\overrightarrow{E_w}$ is the *weighting field*.

$$i(t) = \sum_{j=1}^{n_C l} \overrightarrow{E_{wj}}(\overrightarrow{x_j}(t)) \cdot \overrightarrow{v_{Dj}}(t) e_0 N_j(t) \tag{4.22}$$

The weighting field, that has been schematised in Figure 4.42, corresponds to the electric field that would be oberved in the gas gap if a readout electrode is placed at a potential of $1\,\mathrm{V}$ while keeping all the other electrodes grounded. Then the induced charge in the readout can be simply obtained by integrating Formula 4.22 over the duration T of the signal, as given by Formula 4.23.

$$Q(t) = \int_0^T \sum_{j=1}^{n_C l} \overrightarrow{E_{wj}}(\overrightarrow{x_j}(t)) \cdot \overrightarrow{v_{Dj}}(t) e_0 N_j(t) \tag{4.23}$$

The signal induced in the readout of RPCs operated in avalanche mode is then sent into Front-End Electronics in which they will be pre-amplified and discriminated. The discrimination and digitization of signals in CMS FEE is described through Figure 4.43. On a first stage, analogic signals are amplified, following the curve given on Figure 4.44, and then sent to the Constant Fraction Discriminator (CFD) described in Figure 4.45. At the end of the chain, $100\,\mathrm{ns}$ long pulses are sent in the LVDS output. The digital signals are both used as trigger for CMS and to evaluate the performance of the detectors. The performance will dependent on the applied HV, i.e. on the electric field inside of the gas volume, but also on the threshold applied on the CFDs. Indeed, in order to reduce the probability to measure noise, the threshold is set to a level where the noise is strongly suppressed while the signals are not too affected. Typically, CMS FEEs are set to a threshold of $215\,\mathrm{mV}$ after pre-amplification, corresponding to an input charge of about $140\,\mathrm{fC}$.

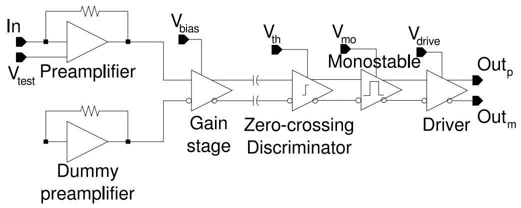


Figure 4.43: Schematics of CMS RPC FEE logic.

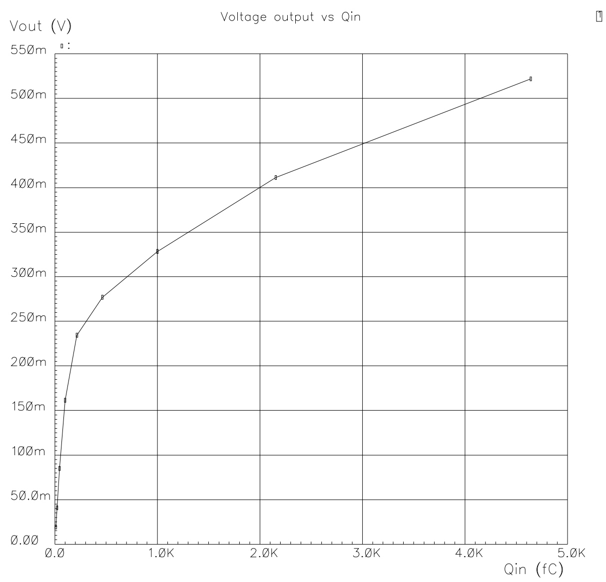
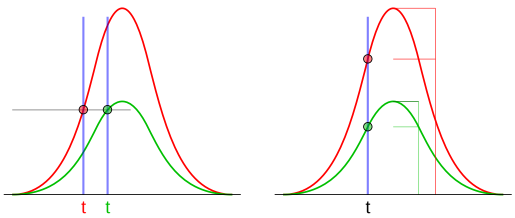
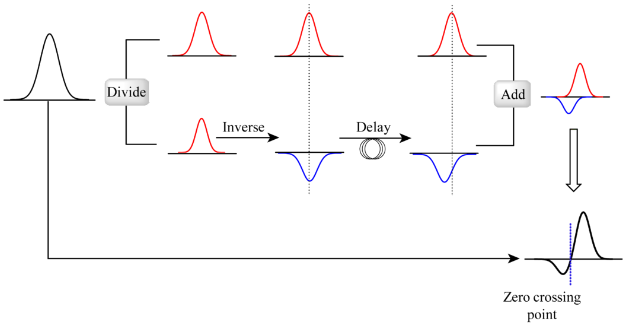


Figure 4.44: Equivalence in between the charge of the induced signal in input of the CMS FEE and the signal strength on the output of the pre-amplier.



(a)



(b)

Figure 4.45: Description of the principle of a CFD. A comparison of threshold triggering (left) and constant franction triggering (right) is shown in Figure 4.45a. Constant franction triggering is obtained thanks to zero-crossing technique as explained in Figure 4.45b. The signal arriving at the input of the CFD is split into three components. A first one is delayed and connected to the inverting input of a first comparator. A second component is connected to the noninverting input of this first comparator. A third component is connected to the noninverting input of another comparator along with a threshold value connected to the inverting input. Finally, the output of both comparators is fed through an AND gate.

The performance of a detector is then simply measured relatively to which of a reference detector used as trigger as the ratio in between the number of events recorded in coincidence in the detector and the reference and the total amount of trigger events, $\epsilon = n_{events}/n_{triggers}$. An example of efficiency measured as a function of the effective voltage HV_{eff} is given in Figure 4.46 and can be fitted thanks to a sigmoidal function described as in Formula 4.24 and where ϵ_{max} is the maximal efficiency of the detector, λ is proportional to the slope at half maximum and HV_{50} is the value of the voltage when the efficiency reaches half of the maximum.

$$\epsilon(HV_{eff}) = \frac{\epsilon_{max}}{1 + e^{-\lambda(HV_{eff} - HV_{50})}} \tag{4.24}$$

CMS RPC also define two points on this sigmoid that called *knee* and *working point*. The corresponding voltages HV_{knee} is defined as the voltage at 95% of the maximum efficiency, and HV_{WP} is defined as in Formula 4.25.

$$HV_{WP} = HV_{knee} + \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} 100\text{V} & \text{(barrel)} \\ 150\text{V} & \text{(endcap)} \end{array} \right. \tag{4.25}$$

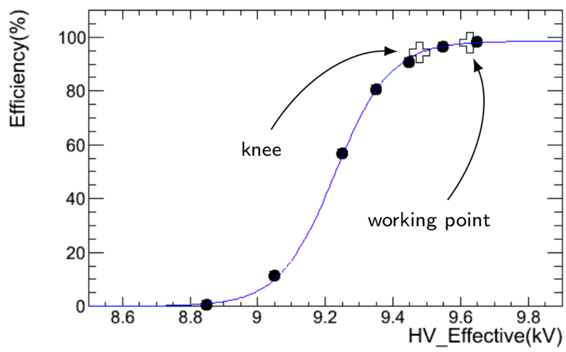
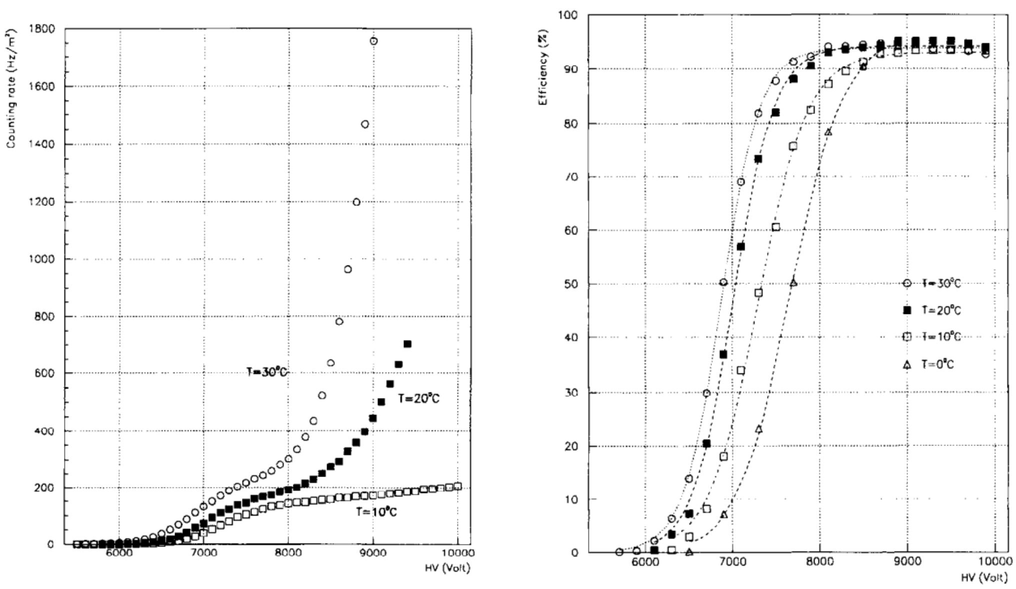


Figure 4.46: Typical efficiency sigmoid of a CMS RPC detector. The black dots correspond to the data, the blue line to the sigmoid fit and the opened cross to the knee and working extracted from the fit line.

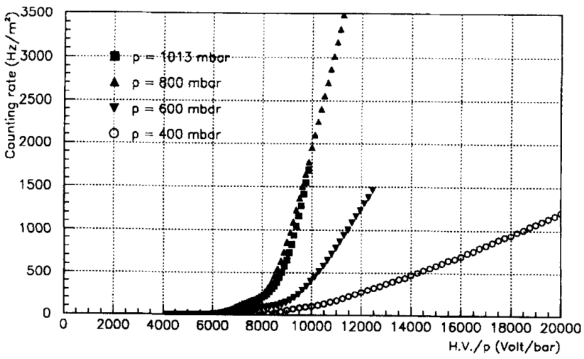
Nevertheless, the voltage applied on a detector may vary due to a change in environmental conditions. Indeed, the variation of temperature and/or pressure will have effects on the gas density and the electrodes' resistivity which can be overcome by changing the electric field accordingly. The variation in temperature and pressure are depicted respectively in Figure 4.47 and Figure 4.48. A standard procedure to correct for temperature and pressure variations is to keep the factor $HV \cdot T/P$ constant using Formula 4.26 [84, 85] with reference values for T_0 and P_0. For example, CMS uses $T_0 = 293.15\,\mathrm{K}$ and $P_0 = 965\,\mathrm{hPa}$.

$$HV_{app} = HV_{eff} \frac{P_0}{P} \frac{T}{T_0} \tag{4.26}$$

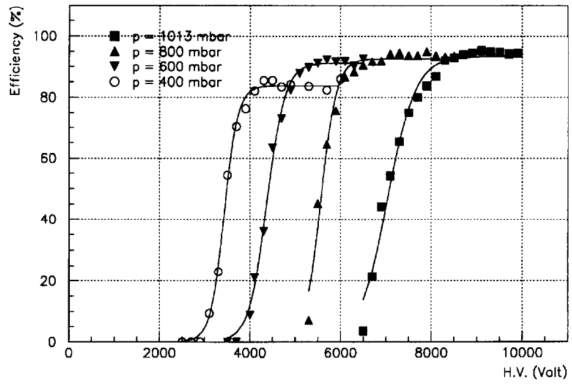


(a) *(b)*

Figure 4.47: Effect of the temperature variation on the rate (Figure 4.47a) and the efficiency (Figure 4.47b) of a RPC [84].



(a)



(b)

Figure 4.48: Effect of the pressure variation on the rate (Figure 4.48a) and the efficiency (Figure 4.48b) of a RPC [85].

It was actually found that such a simple procedure would overcorrect the applied voltage in the case the variations of temperature or pressure were too important [86–89]. CMS, considering that the temperature variations in the detector cavern were very small, decided only to improve the pressure correction, giving rise to Formula 4.27 [86] while on the other hand, ATLAS decided to have a more robust correction for both parameters and uses Formula 4.28 instead [89]. The coefficients α, in the case of CMS, and α, β, in the case of ATLAS, are extracted from fit on available dataset obtained during the operation of the detectors.

$$HV_{app} = HV_{eff}\left(1 - \alpha + \alpha\frac{P_0}{P}\right)\frac{T}{T_0}\ , \quad \alpha = 0.8 \tag{4.27}$$

$$HV_{eff} = HV_{app}\left(1 + \alpha\frac{\Delta T}{T_0}\right)\left(1 - \beta\frac{\Delta P}{P_0}\right)\ , \quad \alpha = 0.5\ ,\ \beta = 0.71 \tag{4.28}$$

5

Longevity studies and Consolidation of the present CMS RPC subsystem

The RPC system, located in both barrel and endcap regions, provides a fast, independent muon trigger with a looser $p_T$threshold over a large portion of the pseudo-rapidity range ($|\eta| < 1.6$). During HL-LHC operations the expected conditions in terms of background and pile-up will make the identification and correct $p_T$assignment a challenge for the muon system. The goal of RPC upgrade is to provide additional hits to the Muon System with more precise timing. All this information will be elaborated by the Trigger System in a global way enhancing the performance of the trigger in terms of efficiency and rate control. The RPC Upgrade is based on two projects: an improved Link Board System and the extension of the RPC coverage up to $|\eta| = 2.4$.

The Link Board System is responsible for the processing, the synchronization and the zero-suppression the signals coming from the RPC FEBs. The Link Board components have been produced between 2006 and 2007 and will be subjected to ageing and failure on a long term scale. An upgraded Link Board System will overcome the ageing problems and will allow for a more precise timing information to the RPC hits from 25 to $1.5\,\mathrm{ns}$.
In order to develop an improved RPC that fulfills CMS requirements, an extensive R&D program is being conducted. The benefits of adding two new RPC layers in the innermost ring of stations 3 and 4 will be mainly observed in the neutron-induced background reduction and efficiency improvement for both trigger and offline reconstruction.

The coverage of the RPC System up to higher pseudo-rapidity $|\eta| = 2.1$ was part of the original CMS TDR. Nevertheless, the expected background rates being higher than the certified rate capability of the present CMS RPCs in that region and the budget being limited, RPCs were restricted to a shorter range. Even though the iRPC technology that will equip the extension of the Muon System will be different than the current CMS RPC technology, it is necessary to certify the rate capability and longevity of the existing detectors as the radiation level will increase together with the increase of instantaneous luminosity of the LHC. For this purpose, spare RPC detectors built but not installed in CMS have been installed in different irradiation facilities, first of all, to certify the detectors to the new levels of irradiation they will be subjected to and, finally, to study their ageing and certify their good operation throughout the HL-LHC program.

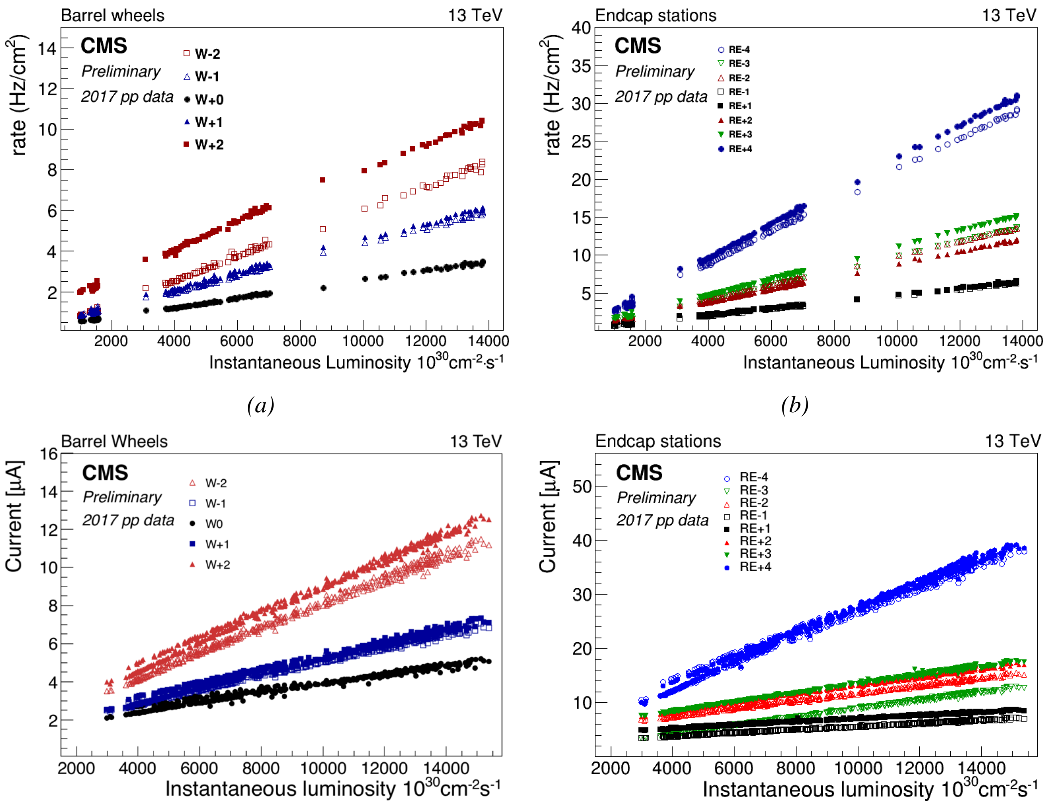
5.1 Testing detectors under extreme conditions

The upgrade from LHC to HL-LHC will increase the peak luminosity from $10^{34}\ \mathrm{cm}^{-2}\,\mathrm{s}^{-1}$to reach $5 \times 10^{34}\ \mathrm{cm}^{-2}\,\mathrm{s}^{-1}$, increasing in the same way the total expected background to which the RPC System will be subjected to. Mainly composed of low energy gammas, neutrons, and electrons and positrons from p-p collisions, but also of low momentum primary and secondary muons, punch-through hadrons from calorimeters, and particles produced in the interaction of the beams with collimators, the background will mostly affect the regions of CMS that are the closest to the beam line, i.e. the RPC detectors located in the endcaps.

Data collected over 2017, presented through Figure 5.1, allows to study the values of the background rate in all the RPC System. This was achieved thanks to a monitoring of the rates in each RPC rolls, where rolls correspond to the pseudo-rapidity partitioning of the readout electronics, and of the current in each HV channel. A linear dependence in between the mean rate or current with instantaneous luminosity is showed in selected runs with identical LHC running parameters. In Figure 5.2, a linear extrapolation of the distribution of the background hit rate per unit area as well as the integrated charge is showed at a HL-LHC condition. The maximum rate per unit area in the endcap detectors at HL-LHC conditions is expected to be of the order of $600\,\mathrm{Hz/cm^2}$ while the charge deposition should reach approximately $800\,\mathrm{mC/cm^2}$. These extrapolations are provided with a required safety factor 3 for the certification study.

In the past, extensive long-term tests were carried out at several gamma and neutron facilities certifying the detector performance. Both full size and small prototype RPCs have been irradiated with photons up to an integrated charge of $\sim 0.05\,\mathrm{C/cm^2}$ and $\sim 0.4\,\mathrm{C/cm^2}$ respectively and were certified for rates reaching $200\,\mathrm{Hz/cm^2}$ [90, 91]. Since the beginning of Run-I until December 2017, the RPC system provided stable operation and excellent performance and did not show any ageing effects for a maximum integrated charge in a detector of the order of $0.01\,\mathrm{C/cm^2}$ - the average being of the order of $2\,\mathrm{mC/cm^2}$ in the Barrel and $5\,\mathrm{mC/cm^2}$ in the Endcap, closer to the beam line, as can be seen from Figure 5.3 - and a peak luminosity reaching $1.4 \times 10^{34}\ \mathrm{cm}^{-2}\,\mathrm{s}^{-1}$during 2017 data taking period.

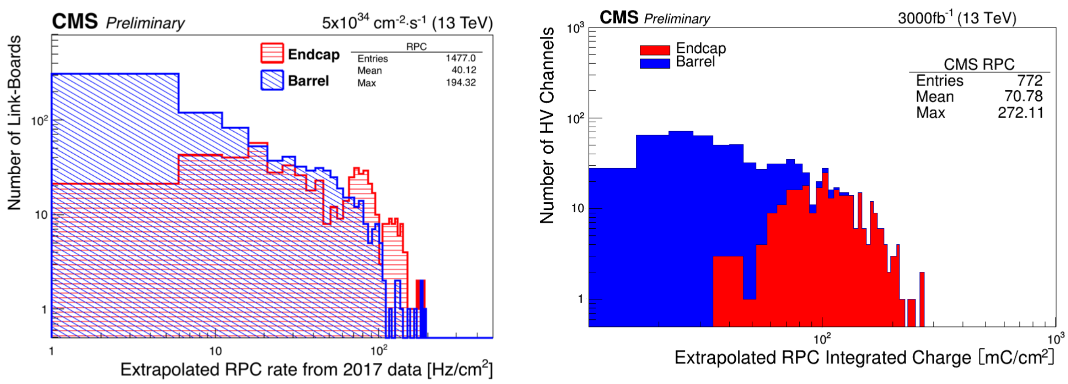
To perform the necessary studies on the present CMS RPC detectors, facilities offering the possibility to irradiate the chambers are necessary in order to recreate HL-LHC conditions or stronger and study their performance through time. Such facilities exist at CERN and were exploited to conduct this study. A first series of preliminary studies were conducted in the former gamma facility of CERN (GIF) before its dismantlement. This preliminary study was used as a stepping stone towards the building of a more powerful irradiation fully dedicated to longevity studies of CMS and ATLAS subsystems in the perspective of HL-LHC. The period of preliminary work has also been a key moment in the elaboration and improvement of data acquisition, offline analysis and online monitoring tools that are extensively used in the new gamma irradiation facility.



(a) *(b)*

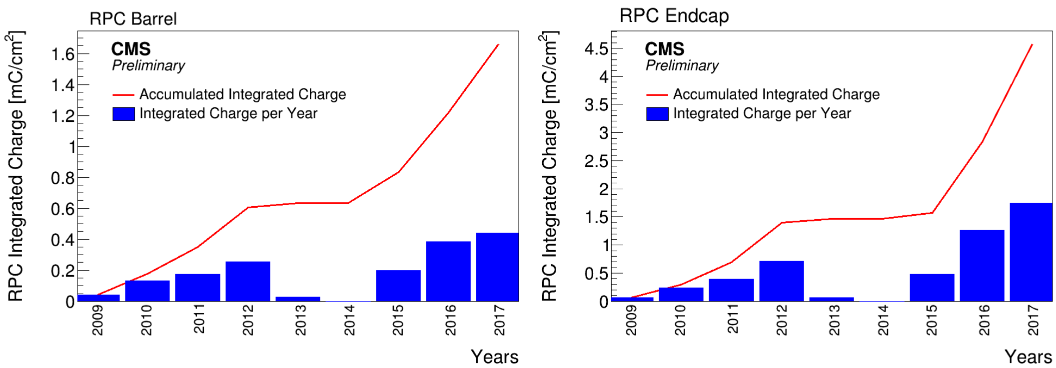
(c) *(d)*

Figure 5.1: Mean RPC Barrel (left column) and Endcap (right column) rate (top row) and current (bottom row) as a function of the instantaneous luminosity as measured in 2017 p-p collision data.



(a) *(b)*

Figure 5.2: Figure 5.2a: The hit rate per region (Barrel, Endcap) is linearly extrapolated to HL-LHC highest instantaneous luminosity (5×10^{34} $\mathrm{cm}^{-2}\,\mathrm{s}^{-1}$) using the rate as a function of instantaneous luminosity recorded by RPCs in 2017 showing a linear dependence. Figure 5.2b: The integrated charge per region (Barrel, Endcap) is extrapolated to HL-LHC integrated luminosity ($3000\,\mathrm{fb}^{-1}$) using the data accumulated in 2016 in every HV channels.



(a) *(b)*

Figure 5.3: CMS RPC mean integrated charge in the Barrel region (Figure 5.3a) and the Endcap region (Figure 5.3b). The integrated charge per year is shown in blue. The red curve shows the evolution of the accumulated integrated charge through time. The blank period in 2013 and 2014 corresponds to LS1. The total integrated charge for the entire operation period (Oct.2009 - Dec.2017) is estimated to be about $1.66\,\mathrm{mC/cm^2}$ *in the Barrel and* $4.58\,\mathrm{mC/cm^2}$ *in the Endcap.*

5.1.1 GIF

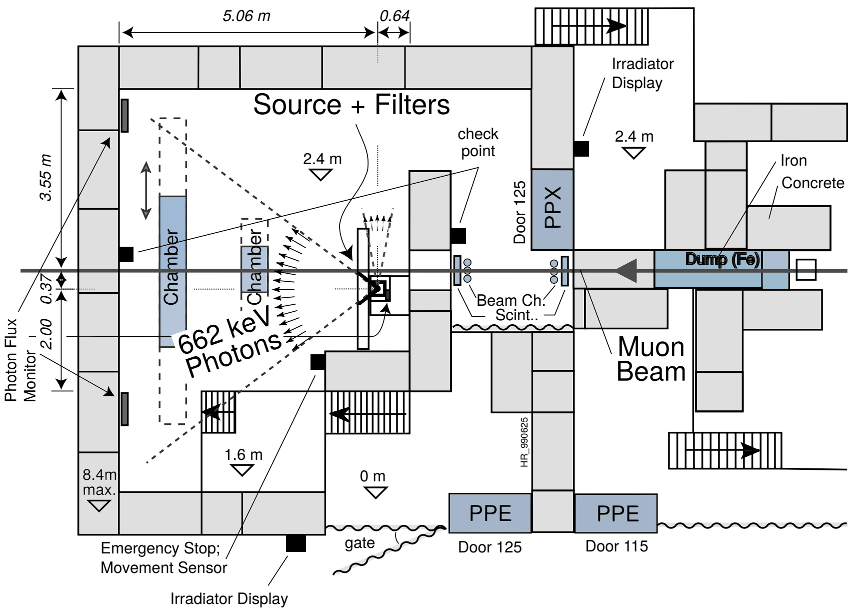


Figure 5.4: Layout of the test beam zone called X5c GIF at CERN. Photons from the radioactive source produce a sustained high rate of random hits over the whole area. The zone is surrounded by $8\,\mathrm{m}$ *high and* $80\,\mathrm{cm}$ *thick concrete walls. Access is possible through three entry points. Two access doors for personnel and one large gate for material. A crane allows installation of heavy equipment in the area.*

Located in the SPS West Area at the downstream end of the X5 test beam, the Gamma Irradiation Facility (GIF) was a test area in which particle detectors were exposed to a particle beam in presence of an adjustable gamma background [92]. Its goal was to reproduce background conditions these detectors would suffer in their operating environment at LHC. GIF layout is showed in Figure 5.4. Gamma photons are produced by a strong ^{137}Cs source installed in the upstream part of the zone inside a lead container. The source container includes a collimator, designed to irradiate a $6 \times 6\,\mathrm{m}^2$ area at $5\,\mathrm{m}$ maximum to the source. A thin lens-shaped lead filter helps providing with a uniform out-coming flux in a vertical plane, orthogonal to the beam direction. The photon rate is controlled by further lead filters allowing the maximum rate to be limited and to vary within a range of four orders of magnitude. Particle detectors under test are then placed within the pyramidal volume in front of the source, perpendicularly to the beam line in order to profit from the homogeneous photon flux. Adjusting the background flux of photons can then be done by using the filters and choosing the position of the detectors with respect to the source.

As described on Figure 5.5, the ^{137}Cs source emits a $662\,\mathrm{keV}$ photon in 85% of the decays. An activity of $740\,\mathrm{GBq}$ was measured on the 5^{th} of March 1997. To estimate the strength of the flux in 2014, was considered the nuclear decay through time associated to the Cesium source whose half-life is well known ($t_{1/2} = (30.05 \pm 0.08)\,\mathrm{y}$). The GIF tests where done in between the 20^{th} and the 31^{st} of August 2014, i.e. at a time $t = (17.47 \pm 0.02)\,\mathrm{y}$ resulting in an attenuation of the activity from $740\,\mathrm{GBq}$ in 1997 to $494\,\mathrm{GBq}$ in 2014.

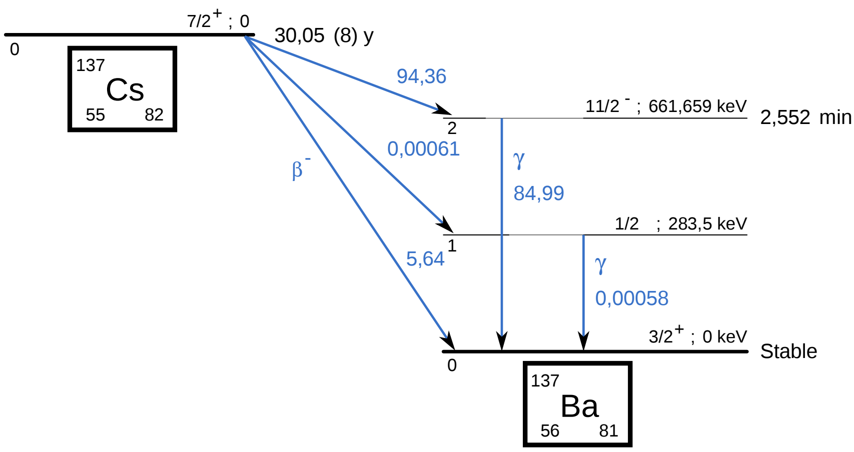


Figure 5.5: ^{137}Cs decays by β^- emission to the ground state of ^{137}Ba (BR = 5.64%) and via the $662\,\mathrm{keV}$ isomeric level of ^{137}Ba (BR = 94.36%) whose half-life is 2.55min.

5.1.2 GIF++

The new Gamma Irradiation Facility (GIF++), located in the SPS North Area at the downstream end of the H4 test beam, has replaced its predecessor during LS1 and has been operational since spring 2015 [93]. Like GIF, GIF++ features a ^{137}Cs source of $662\,\mathrm{keV}$ gamma photons, their fluence being controlled with a set of filters of various attenuation factors. The source provides two separated large irradiation areas for testing several full-size muon detectors with continuous homogeneous irradiation, as presented in Figure 5.6.

The source activity was measured to be about $13.5\,\mathrm{TBq}$ in March 2016. The photon flux being far greater than HL-LHC expectations, GIF++ provides an excellent facility for accelerated ageing tests of muon detectors. The source is situated in a bunker designed to perform irradiation test along a muon beam line, the muon beam being available during selected periods throughout the year.

The H4 beam, providing the area with muons with a maximum momentum of about $150\,\mathrm{GeV/c}$, passes through the GIF++ zone and is used to periodically study the performance of the detectors placed under continuous irradiation. Its flux is of $104\,\mathrm{particles/s/cm^2}$ focused in an area similar to $10 \times 10\,\mathrm{cm}^2$. Therefore, with properly adjusted filters, one can simulate the background expected at HL-LHC and study the performance and ageing of muon detectors in HL-LHC environment.

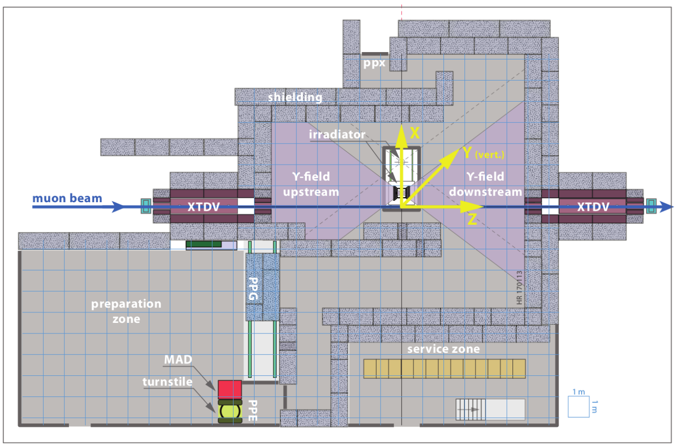
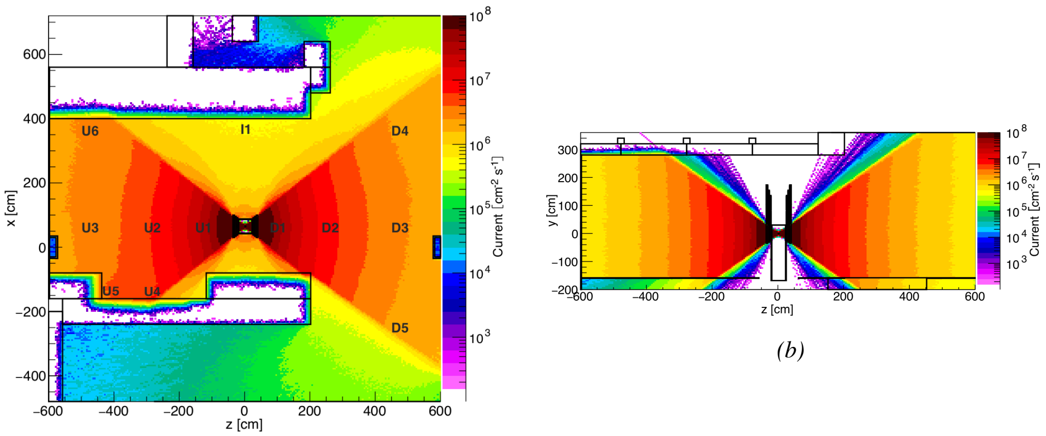


Figure 5.6: Floor plan of the GIF++ facility. When the facility downstream of the GIF++ takes electron beam, a beam pipe is installed along the beam line (z-axis). The irradiator can be displaced laterally (its center moves from $x = 0.65\,\mathrm{m}$ to $2.15\,\mathrm{m}$), to increase the distance to the beam pipe.



(a) *(b)*

Figure 5.7: Simulated unattenuated current of photons in the xz plane (Figure 5.7a) and yz plane (Figure 5.7b) through the source at $x = 0.65\,\mathrm{m}$ and $y = 0\,\mathrm{m}$. With angular correction filters, the current of $662\,\mathrm{keV}$ photons is made uniform in xy planes.

5.2 Preliminary studies at GIF

5.2.1 Resistive Plate Chamber test setup

During summer 2014, preliminary tests have been conducted in the GIF area on a newly produced RE4/2 chamber labeled `RE-4-2-BARC-161`. This chamber has been placed into a trolley covered with a tent. The position of the RPC inside the tent and of the tent with respect to the source in the bunker are described in Figure 5.8. The goal of the study were to have a preliminary understanding of the rate capability of the present technology used in CMS. It was decided to measure the efficiency of the RPC under irradiation at detecting cosmic muons as, at the time of the tests, the beam not operational anymore. Three different absorber settings were used and compared to the case where the detector was not irradiated in order to study the evolution of the performance of the detector with increasing exposition to gamma radiation. First of all, measurements were done with fully opened source. To complete this preliminary study, the gamma flux has been attenuated by a factor 2, a factor 5 and finally the source was shut down. Was measured the efficiency of the RPC at detecting the cosmic muons in coincidence with a cosmic trigger as well as the background rate as seen by the detectors.

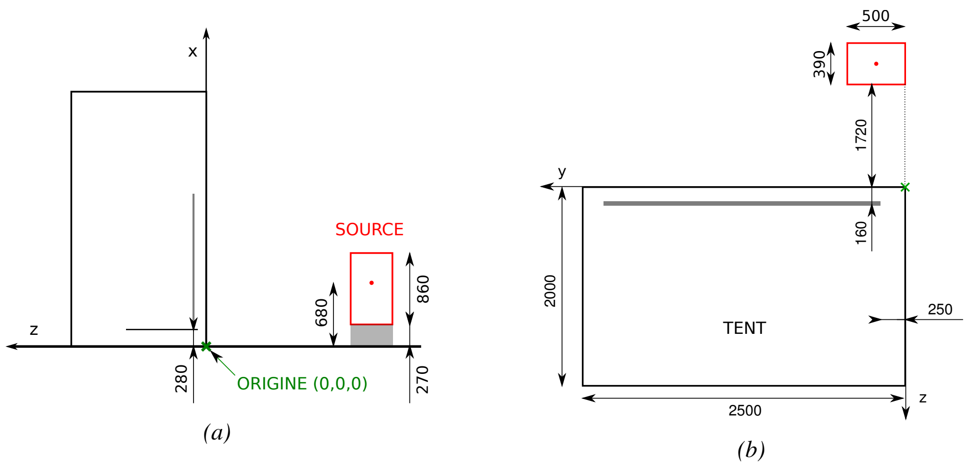


Figure 5.8: Description of the RPC setup. Dimensions are given in mm. *A tent containing RPCs is placed at* 1720 mm *from the source container. The source is situated in the center of the container. RE-4-2-BARC-161 chamber is* 160 mm *inside the tent. This way, the distance between the source and the chambers plan is* 2060 mm. *Figure 5.8a provides a side view of the setup in the xz plane while Figure 5.8b shows a top view in the yz plane.*

The trigger system was composed of 2 plastic scintillators and was placed in front of the setup with an inclination of 10° with respect to the detector plane in order to look at cosmic muons. Using this particular trigger layout, showed in Figure 5.9, leads to a cosmic muon hit distribution into the chamber similar to the one of Figure 5.10. Measured without gamma irradiation, two peaks can be seen on the profile of readout partition B, centered on strips 52 and 59. Section 5.2.2 will help us understand that these two peaks are due respectively to forward and backward coming cosmic particles where forward coming particles are first detected by the scintillators and then the RPC while the backward coming muons are first detected in the RPC.

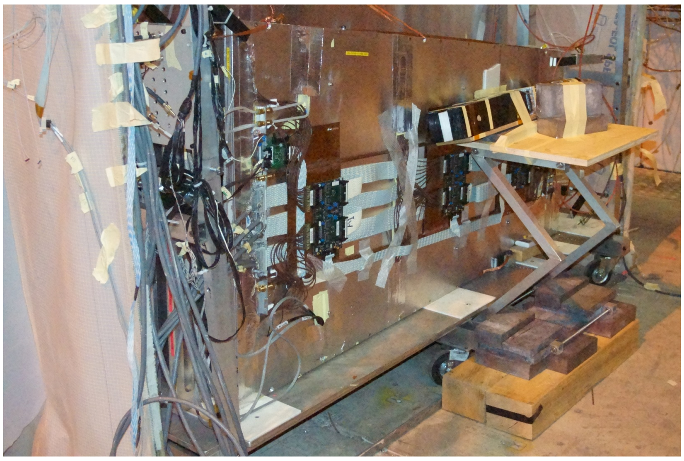


Figure 5.9: `RE-4-2-BARC-161` *chamber is inside the tent as described in Figure 5.8. In the top right, the two scintillators used as trigger can be seen. This trigger system has an inclination of* 10° *relative to horizontal and is placed above half-partition B2 of the RPCs. PMT electronics are shielded thanks to lead blocks placed in order to protect them without stopping photons from going through the scintillators and the chamber.*

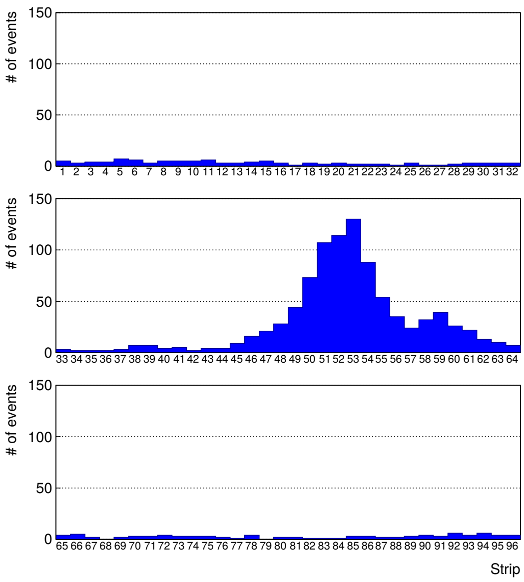
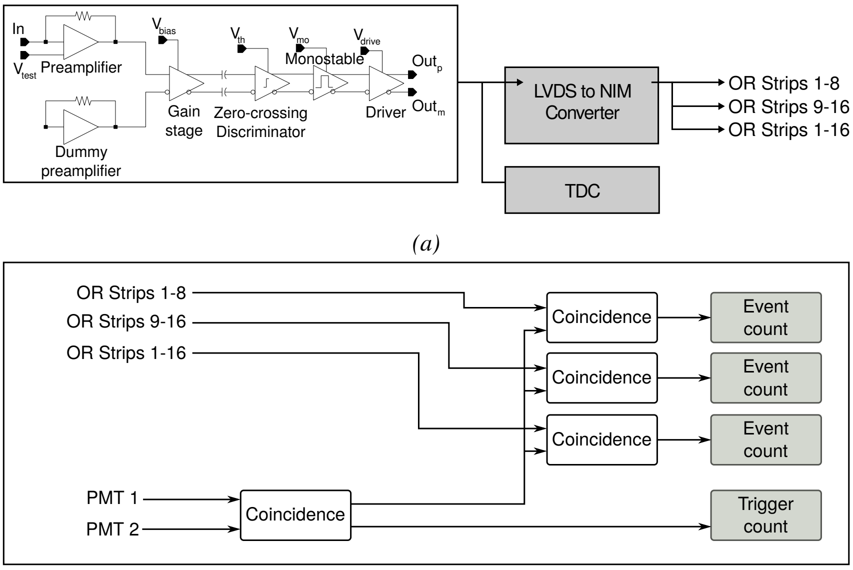


Figure 5.10: Hit distributions over all 3 partitions of `RE-4-2-BARC-161` *chamber is showed. Top, middle and bottom figures respectively correspond to partitions A, B, and C. The profiles show that some events still occur in other half-partitions than B2, which corresponds to strips 49 to 64, in front of which the trigger is placed, contributing to the inefficiency of detection of cosmic muons. In the case of partitions A and C, the very low amount of data can be interpreted as noise. On the other hand, it is clear that a little portion of muons reach the half-partition B1, corresponding to strips 33 to 48.*

The data taking is then performed thanks to a `CEAN` TDC module of type `V1190A` [96] to which is connected the digitized output of the RPC Front-End Board, as described in Figure 5.11a and the trigger signal from the telescope. The communication with the computer is performed thanks to a `CAEN` communication module of type `V1718` [97]. In order to control the rates recorded by the detector, the digitized RPC signals are also sent to scalers as described in Figure 5.11b. The `C++` DAQ software used in GIF was developed as an early attempt towards the understanding of the `CAEN` libraries and the data collected by the TDCs was saved into `.dat` files is analysed with an algorithm computing parameters such as efficiency, hit profile, cluster size, or gamma and noise rates which was developed with `C++` as well. Finally, histograms and curves are produced using `ROOT`.



(a)

(b)

Figure 5.11: Signals from the RPC strips are shaped by the FEE described on Figure 5.11a. Output LVDS signals are then read-out by a TDC module connected to a computer or converted into NIM and sent to scalers. Figure 5.11b describes how these converted signals are put in coincidence with the trigger.

5.2.2 Geometrical acceptance of the setup layout to cosmic muons

In order to profit from a constant gamma irradiation, the detectors inside of the GIF bunker need to be placed in a plane orthogonal to the beam line. The muon beam that used to be available was meant to test the performance of detectors under test. This beam not being active anymore, an other solution to test detector performance had to be used. Thus, it has been decided to use cosmic muons detected through a telescope composed of two scintillators. Lead blocks were used as shielding to protect the photomultipliers from gammas as can be seen from Figure 5.9.

An inclination of $\sim 10°$ has been given to the cosmic telescope to maximize the muon flux. A good compromise had to be found between good enough muon flux and narrow enough hit distribution to be sure to contain all the events into only one half partitions as required from the limited available readout hardware. It was then foreseen to detect muons and read them out only from half-partition B2, the last 16 channels of readout partition B (i.e. strips 49 to 64). Nevertheless, a consequence of the misplaced trigger, that can be seen as a loss of events in half-partition B1 (strips 33 to 48) in Figure 5.10, is an inefficiency. The observed inefficiency of approximately 20% highlighted in Figure 5.12 by comparing the performance of chamber `RE-4-2-BARC-161` as measured prior to the study at GIF and at GIF without irradiation seems too important, compared to the 12.7% of data contained into the first 16 strips observed on Figure 5.10, to only be explained by the geometrical acceptance of the setup itself. Simulations have been conducted to show how the setup brings inefficiency.

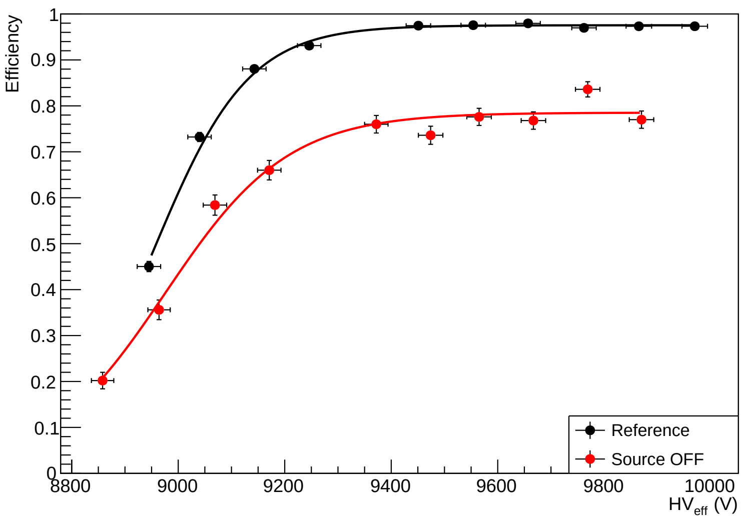
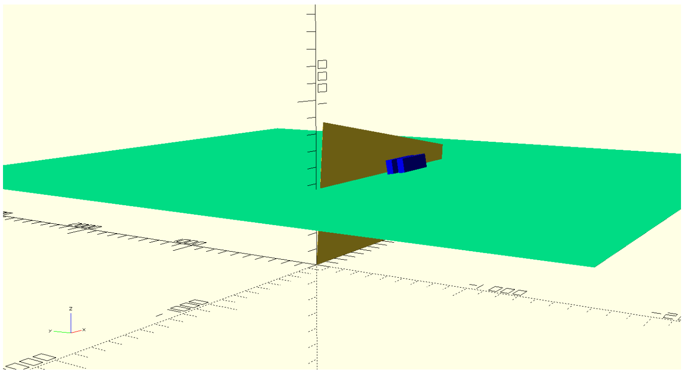


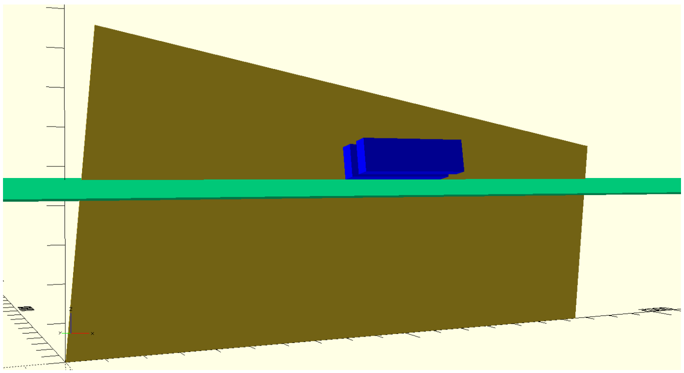
Figure 5.12: Results are derived from data taken on half-partition B2 only. On the 18th of June 2014, data has been taken on chamber `RE-4-2-BARC-161` at CERN building 904 (Prevessin Site) with cosmic muons providing us a reference efficiency plateau of (97.54 ± 0.15)*% represented by a black curve. A similar measurement has been done at GIF on the 21st of July with the same chamber giving a plateau of* (78.52 ± 0.94)*% represented by a red curve.*

5.2.2.1 Description of the simulation layout

The layout of GIF setup has been reproduced, only roughly using Figure 5.9 due to the lack of measures, and incorporated into a `C++` Monte Carlo (MC) simulation to study the geometrical acceptance of the telescope projected onto the readout strips [94]. A 3D view of the simulated layout is given into Figure 5.13. Muons are generated randomly in a horizontal plane located at a height corresponding to the lowest point of the PMTs. This way, the needed size of the plane in order to simulate events happening at very large azimuthal angles (i.e. $\theta \approx \pi$) can be kept relatively small while the total number of muon tracks to propagate is kept relatively small. The muon flux is designed to follow the usual $cos^2\theta$ distribution for cosmic particles. The goal of the simulation is to look at muons that pass through the telescope composed of the two scintillators and define their distribution onto the RPC read-out plane. During the reconstruction, the read-out plane is then divided into read-out strips and each muon track is assigned to a strip.



(a)



(b)

Figure 5.13: Representation of the layout used for the simulations of the test setup. The RPC read-out plane is represented as a yellow trapezoid while the two scintillators as blue cuboids looking at the sky. The green plane corresponds to the muon generation plane within the simulation. Figure 5.8a shows a global view of the simulated setup. Figure 5.8b shows a zoomed view that allows to see the 2 scintillators as well as the full RPC plane.

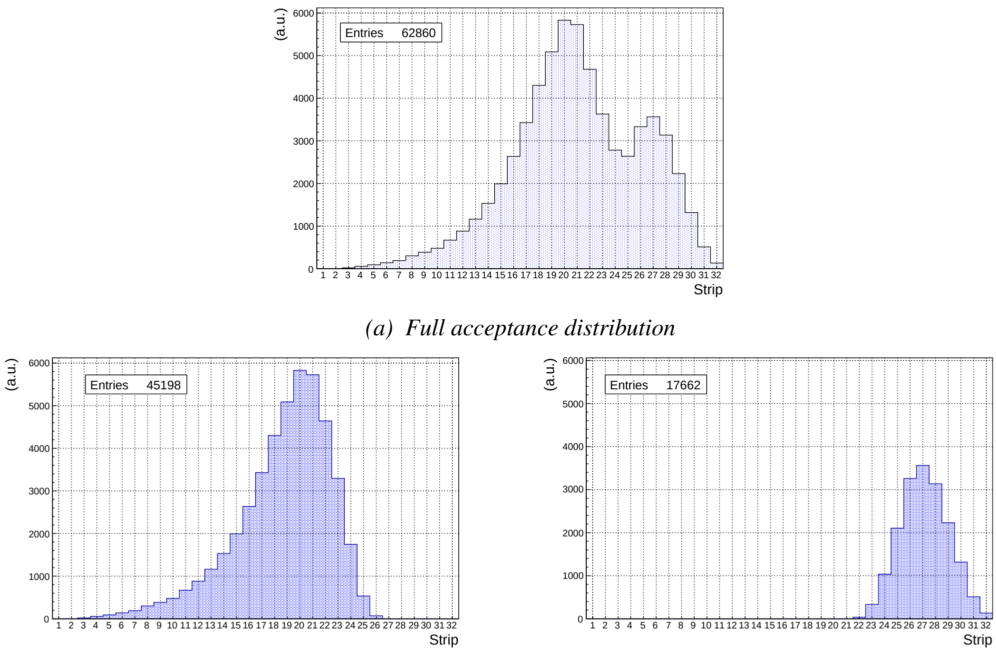
5.2.2.2 Simulation procedure

$N_\mu = 10^8$ muons are randomly generated inside the muon plane with an azimutal angle θ chosen to follow a $cos^2\theta$ distribution. Infinite planes are associated to each surface of the scintillators. Knowing the muon position into the muon generation plane and its direction allows, by assuming that muons travel in a straight line, to compute the intersection of the muon track with these planes. Applying conditions to the limits on the contours of the scintillators' faces then gives an answer to weither or not the muon passed through the scintillators. In the case the muon was not *detected* into both scintillators, the simulation discards the muon and generates a new one.

On the contrary, if the muon is labeled as good, its position within the RPC read-out plane is computed and the corresponding strip, determined through geometrical tests, gets a *hit*. Muon hits fill different histograms weither they are associated to forward or backward coming muons. A discrimination is performed according to their direction components. An (x, y, z) position into the generation plane as well as a (θ;ϕ) pair are associated to each generated muon providing with information on the direction the track follows. This way, muons satisfying the condition $0 \leq \phi < \pi$ are labeled as *backward* coming muons while muons satisfying $\pi \leq \phi < 2\pi$ as *forward* coming muons.

5.2.2.3 Results and limitations

The output from the simulation is given in Figure 5.14 in which the distribution is showed for all muons but also for the separate contributions of forward and backward coming muons. The strip number is here given in a range of 1 to 32 corresponding to the 32 strips contained in each RPC read-out partition, without taking into account the fact that partition B of an RPC correponds, by convention, to strips 33 to 64. Comparing the number of muons recoreded respectively in the first 16 strips and the in all of the 32 strips of the RPC read-out panel, it can be established than, out of the total amount of muons that have passed through the telescope and reached the RPC, 16.8% where to be detected in the 16 first strip of the read-out plane corresponding to half partition B1. This brings a geometrical inefficiency of the same amount that can then be used to correct the data by scaling up by a factor $c_{geo} = 1/(1 - 0.168)$ the maximum efficiency measured during data taking.



(a) Full acceptance distribution

(b) Forward acceptance

(c) Backward acceptance

Figure 5.14: Geometrical acceptance distribution as provided by the Monte Carlo simulation.

Nevertheless, it is difficult to evaluate a systematical uncertainty on this geometrical correction for different reasons. First of all, eventhough the dimensions of the scintillators and of the RPC are well known, the position of each element of the setup with respect to one another was not measured. It was then necessary, using known dimensions, to extract the positions of each element from Figure 5.9 with unknown uncertainty. The inclination is also roughly measured to be $10°$ and even if the position of each peak, distant in the simulation of 7 strips, tends to confirm this assumption, the geometrical inefficiency would be affected by a variation of the inclination angle. Introducing in the simulation an error of $\pm 2°$ would lead to a correction factor $c_{geo} = 1.20^{+0.04}_{-0.03}$ that allows for a good improvement of the efficiency measured in GIF, as can be seen from Figure 5.15. GIF measurement is in agreement

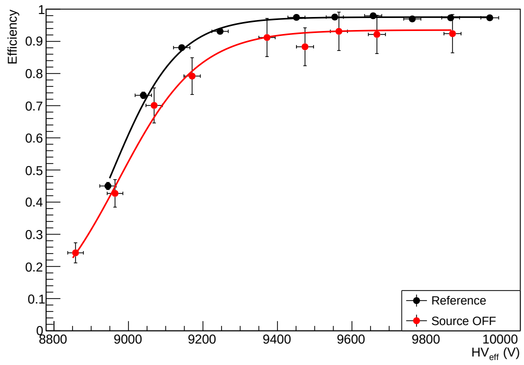


Figure 5.15: Correction of the efficiency without source. The efficiency after correction gets much closer to the Reference measurement performed before the study in GIF by reaching a plateau of (93.52 ± 2.64)*%.*

Further corrections could be also be brought as it can easily be understood that the distribution showed through Figure 5.14a differs from the measured hit profile showed in Figure 5.10. The contributions of forward and backward muon indicate that 28.1% of the total geometrical acceptance should contribute to detecting backward muons whereas it is measured that the hit profile contains 22.0% of backward data only. This estimation of the backward versus forward content in the data was done through a fit using a sum of two skew distribution, one acting on the forward muon peak while the other acts on the backward muon fit, as showed in Figure 5.16. Although a skew distribution lacks physical interpretation, it allows to easily fit such kind of data. A description of a skew distribution, as the product of a gaussian and a sigmoid (Formula 5.1), is given through Formula 5.2.

$$g(x) = A_g e^{\frac{-(x-\bar{x})^2}{2\sigma^2}} \quad , \quad s(x) = \frac{A_s}{1 + e^{-\lambda(x-x_i)}} \tag{5.1}$$

$$sk(x) = g(x) \times s(x) = A_{sk} \frac{e^{\frac{-(x-\bar{x})^2}{2\sigma^2}}}{1 + e^{-\lambda(x-x_i)}} \tag{5.2}$$

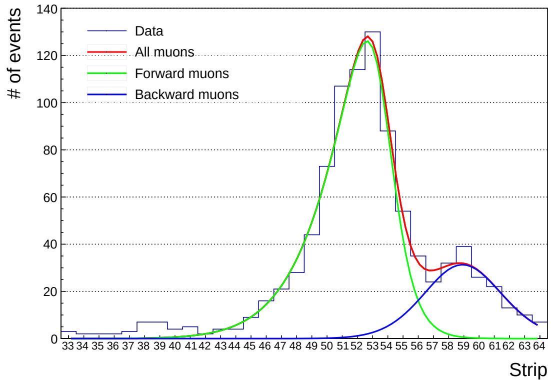


Figure 5.16: Hit distributions over read-out partition B of `RE-4-2-BARC-161` *chamber together with skew distribution fits corresponding to forward and backward coming muons.*

From the obvious difference in between geometrical simulation and data, it is necessary to realize that the geometrical acceptance and the hit profile are two dinstinct information. When the geometrical acceptance only provides with the information about what the detector can expect to see in a perfect world where all muons are detected in the exact same way independantly from their energy, angle of incidence, fluctuation of the detector gain due to complexe avalanche development, thresholds applied on the scintillators and on the RPC FEEs to reduce the noise, the cross-talk and corresponding spread of the induced charge observed on the read-out strips, the hit profile provides the final product of all the previously mentioned contributions and can greatly differ from purely geometrical considerations. A full physics analysis involving softwares such as `GEANT` would be required to further refine the correction on the measured efficiency at GIF.

5.2.3 Photon flux at GIF

In order to understand and evaluate the γ flux in the GIF area, simulations had been conducted at the time GIF was opened for research purposes [92]. Table 5.1 presented in this article gives the γ flux for different distances D to the source. The simulation was done using GEANT and a Monte Carlo N-Particle (MCNP) transport code, and the flux F is given with the estimated error from these packages expressed in %.

Nominal ABS	Photon flux F [$\mathrm{cm}^{-2}\,\mathrm{s}^{-1}$]			
	at $D = 50\,\mathrm{cm}$	at $D = 155\,\mathrm{cm}$	at $D = 300\,\mathrm{cm}$	at $D = 400\,\mathrm{cm}$
1	$0.12 \times 10^8 \pm 0.2\%$	$0.14 \times 10^7 \pm 0.5\%$	$0.45 \times 10^6 \pm 0.5\%$	$0.28 \times 10^6 \pm 0.5\%$
2	$0.68 \times 10^7 \pm 0.3\%$	$0.80 \times 10^6 \pm 0.8\%$	$0.25 \times 10^6 \pm 0.8\%$	$0.16 \times 10^6 \pm 0.6\%$
5	$0.31 \times 10^7 \pm 0.4\%$	$0.36 \times 10^6 \pm 1.2\%$	$0.11 \times 10^6 \pm 1.2\%$	$0.70 \times 10^5 \pm 0.9\%$

Table 5.1: Total photon flux ($E\gamma \leq 662\,\mathrm{keV}$) with statistical error predicted considering a ^{137}Cs activity of $740\,\mathrm{GBq}$ *at different values of the distance D to the source along the x-axis of irradiation field [92].*

The simulation does not provide with an estimated flux at the level of the RPC under test. First of all, it is necessary to extract the value of the flux from the available data contained in the original paper and then to estimate the flux in 2014 at the time the experimentation took place. In the case of a pointlike source emiting isotrope and homogeneous gamma radiations, the gamma flux F at a distance D from the source with respect to a reference point situated at D_0 where a known flux F_0 is measured will be expressed like in Formula 5.3, assuming that the flux decreases as $1/D^2$, where c is a fitting factor that can be written from Formula 5.3 as Formula 5.4. Finally, using Equation 5.4 and the data of Table 5.1, with $D_0 = 50\,\mathrm{cm}$ as reference point, Table 5.2 can be built. It is interesting to note that c for each value of D doesn't depend on the absorption factor.

$$F^{ABS} = F_0^{ABS} \times \left(\frac{cD_0}{D}\right)^2 \tag{5.3}$$

$$c = \frac{D}{D_0}\sqrt{\frac{F^{ABS}}{F_0^{ABS}}}\,, \quad \Delta c = \frac{c}{2}\left(\frac{\Delta F^{ABS}}{F^{ABS}} + \frac{\Delta F_0^{ABS}}{F_0^{ABS}}\right) \tag{5.4}$$

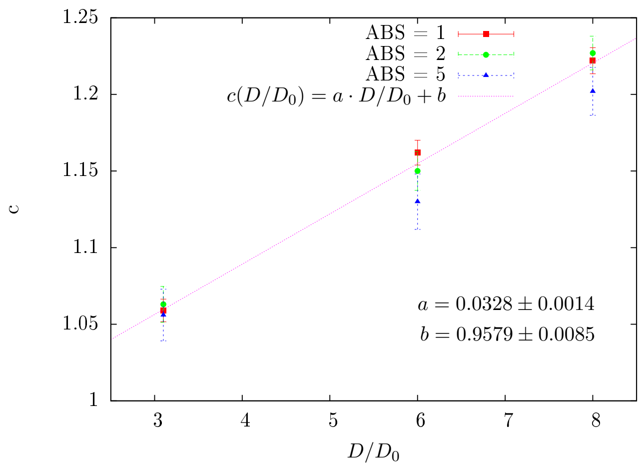
Nominal ABS	Correction factor c at $D = 155\,\mathrm{cm}$	at $D = 300\,\mathrm{cm}$	at $D = 400\,\mathrm{cm}$
1	$1.059 \pm 0.70\%$	$1.162 \pm 0.70\%$	$1.222 \pm 0.70\%$
2	$1.063 \pm 1.10\%$	$1.150 \pm 1.10\%$	$1.227 \pm 0.90\%$
5	$1.056 \pm 1.60\%$	$1.130 \pm 1.60\%$	$1.202 \pm 1.30\%$

Table 5.2: Correction factor c is computed thanks to Formula 5.4 taking as reference $D_0 = 50\,\mathrm{cm}$ and the associated flux F_0^{ABS} for each absorption factor available in table 5.1.

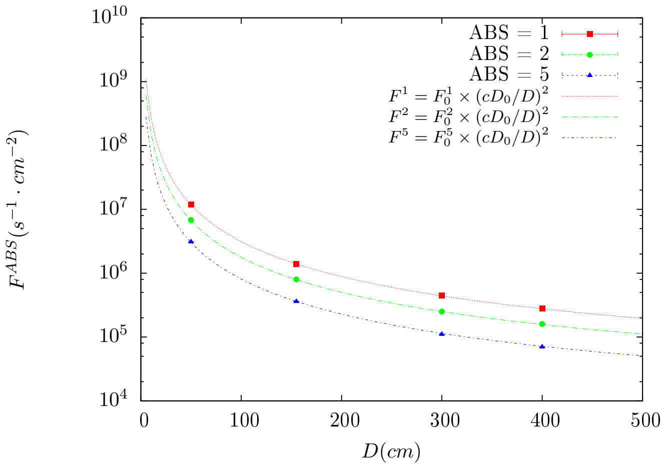
For the range of D/D_0 values available, it is possible to use a simple linear fit to get the evolution of c that can be expressed as $c(D/D_0) = aD/D_0 + b$. Using Formula 5.5, but neglecting the incertainty on D that will only be used when extrapolating the values for the position of the RPC under test whose position is not perfectly known, the results showed in Figure 5.17 is obtained. Figure 5.17b confirms that using only a linear fit to extract c is enough as the evolution of the rate that can be obtained superimposes well on the simulation points.

$$F^{ABS} = F_0^{ABS}\left(a + \frac{bD_0}{D}\right)^2\,, \quad \Delta F^{ABS} = F^{ABS}\left[\frac{\Delta F_0^{ABS}}{F_0^{ABS}} + 2\frac{\Delta a + \Delta b\frac{D_0}{D} + \Delta D\frac{bD_0}{D^2}}{a + \frac{bD_0}{D}}\right] \tag{5.5}$$

In the context of the 2014 GIF tests, the RPC read-out plane is located at a distance $D = 206\,\mathrm{cm}$ from the source. Moreover, to estimate the strength of the flux in 2014 it is necessary to consider the nuclear decay through time assiciated to the Cesium source whose half-life is well known ($t_{1/2} = (30.05 \pm 0.08)\,\mathrm{y}$). The very first source activity measurement has been done on the 5^{th} of March 1997 while the GIF tests where done in between the 20^{th} and the 31^{th} of August 2014, i.e. at a time $t = (17.47 \pm 0.02)\,\mathrm{y}$ resulting in an attenuation of the activity from $740\,\mathrm{GBq}$ in 1997 to $494\,\mathrm{GBq}$ in 2014. All the needed information to extrapolate the expected flux through the detector at the moment of GIF preliminary tests has now been assembled, leading to Table 5.3. By assuming a sensitivity of the RPC to γ of 2×10^{-3}, the order of magnitude of the expected hit rate per unit area would be of the order of the kHz for the fully opened source, as reported in the last column of the table.



(a)



(b)

Figure 5.17: Figure 5.17a shows the linear approximation fit performed on data extracted from table 5.2. Figure 5.17b shows a comparison of Formula 5.5 with the simulated flux using a and b given in figure 5.17a in formulae 5.3 and the reference value $D_0 = 50\,\mathrm{cm}$ *and the associated flux for each absorption factor* F_0^{ABS} *from table 5.1*

Nominal ABS	Photon flux F [$\mathrm{cm^{-2}\,s^{-1}}$] at $D_0^{97} = 50\,\mathrm{cm}$	at $D^{97} = 206\,\mathrm{cm}$	at $D^{2014} = 206\,\mathrm{cm}$	Rate [$\mathrm{Hz/cm^2}$] at $D^{2014} = 206\,\mathrm{cm}$
1	$0.12 \times 10^8 \pm 0.2\%$	$0.84 \times 10^6 \pm 1.2\%$	$0.56 \times 10^6 \pm 1.2\%$	1129 ± 14
2	$0.68 \times 10^7 \pm 0.3\%$	$0.48 \times 10^6 \pm 1.2\%$	$0.32 \times 10^6 \pm 1.2\%$	640 ± 8
5	$0.31 \times 10^7 \pm 0.4\%$	$0.22 \times 10^6 \pm 1.2\%$	$0.15 \times 10^6 \pm 1.2\%$	292 ± 4

Table 5.3: The data at D_0 *in 1997 is taken from [92]. Using Formula 5.5, the flux at D, including an error of* $1\,\mathrm{cm}$*, can be estimated in 1997. Then, taking into account the attenuation of the source activity, the flux at D can be estimated at the time of the tests in GIF in 2014. Assuming a sensitivity of the RPC to* γ $s = 2 \times 10^{-3}$*, an estimation of the hit rate per unit area is obtained.*

The goal of the study will be to have a good measurement of the intrinsic performance without source irradiation. Then, taking profit of the two working absorbers, at absorbtion factors 5 (300 Hz) and 2 ($\sim$600 Hz) the goal will be to show that the detectors fulfill the performance certification of CMS RPCs. Finally, a first idea of the performance of the detectors at higher background will be provided with absorbtion factor 1 (no absorbtion and $>$1 kHz)).

5.2.4 Results and discussions

The data taking at GIF has been conducted in between the 21^{st} and the 31^{st} of August, 2014. Data has been collected with both source OFF and ON using three different absorber settings (ABS 5, 2 and 1) in order to vary the irradiation on the RPC. For each source setting, two HV scans have been performed with two different trigger settings. During a first scan the trigger sent to the TDC module was the coincidence of the two scintillators composing the telescope while during a second scan the trigger was a pulse coming from a pulse generator in order to measure the noise or gamma rate seen by the chamber. Indeed, using a pulse allows to trigger at moments not linked to any physical event and thus to obtain a *RANDOM* trigger on noise and gamma events to measure the associated rates, the probability to have a pulse in coincidence with a cosmic muon being negligible.

From the cosmic trigger scans, a summary of the effiencies and corresponding cluster sizes is showed in Figures 5.18 and 5.19. The efficiency curves with Source ON show a shift with respect to the case without irradiation. With ABS 5, the general shape of the efficiency curve stays unchanged whereas a clear alteration of the performance is observed at ABS 2 and ABS 1. From the cluster size results, a reduction of the cluster size under irradiation can be oberved at equivalent efficiency. This effect can be due to the perturbation of the electric field by the strong rate of gamma particles starting avalanches in the gas volume of the detector.

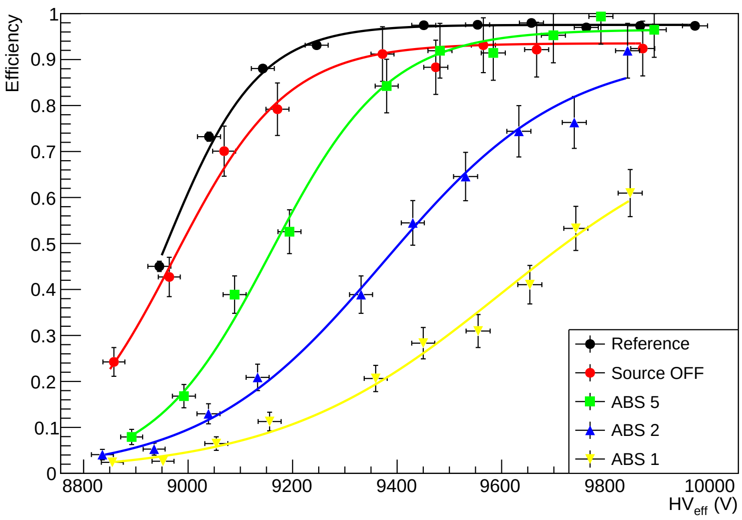


Figure 5.18: Efficiency of chamber `RE-4-2-BARC-161` *measured at GIF with Source OFF (red) and Source ON using different absorber settings: ABS 5 (green), ABS 2 (blue) and ABS 1 (yellow). The results are compared to the Reference values obtained with cosmics.*

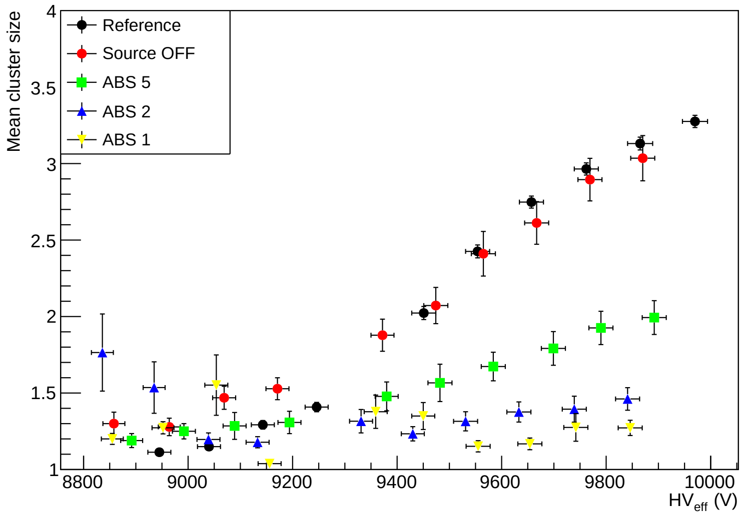


Figure 5.19: Cluster size of chamber `RE-4-2-BARC-161` measured at GIF with Source OFF (red) and Source ON using different absorber settings: ABS 5 (green), ABS 2 (blue) and ABS 1 (yellow). The results are compared to the Reference values obtained with cosmics.

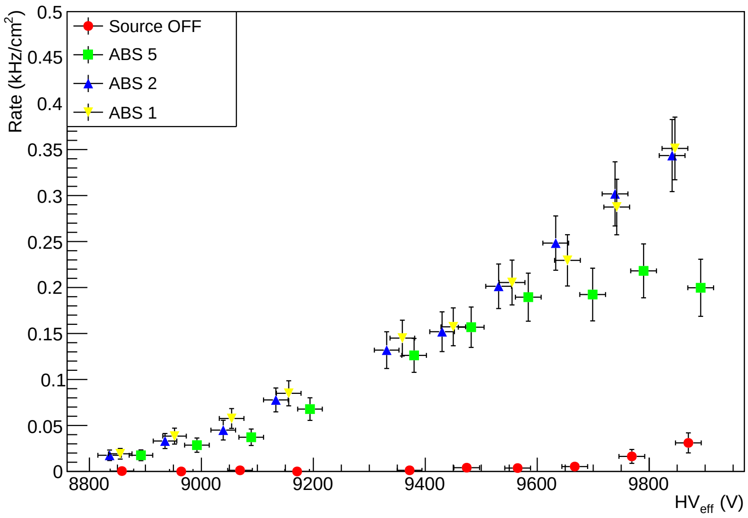


Figure 5.20: Rates in chamber `RE-4-2-BARC-161` measured at GIF with Source OFF (red) and Source ON using different absorber settings: ABS 5 (green), ABS 2 (blue) and ABS 1 (yellow).

It is necessary to study the evolution of the performance of the chamber with the increasing rate. In Figure **??**, the noise rate when the source is OFF stays low but increases at voltages above $9700\,\mathrm{V}$. The rise of the noise rate in the detector can be related to the increased probability of streamer oserved with such a large electric field. The rates with source ON measured at GIF all show a similar behaviour until a high voltage of approximately 9600 V at which the rate of ABS 5 saturates, corresponding to the chamber reaching full efficiency. It is important to note that, eventhough the rates look similar independently from the gamma flux, relatively to the effiency of the chamber, the rate actually increases at similar efficiency. A rough way to measure the rate actually observed by the detector for each source setting would be to unconvolute the measured rates from the efficiency of the detector. This exercise was done with Figure 5.21 from which constant fits where done on the data of Source ON in order to extract the rate the chamber was subjected to.

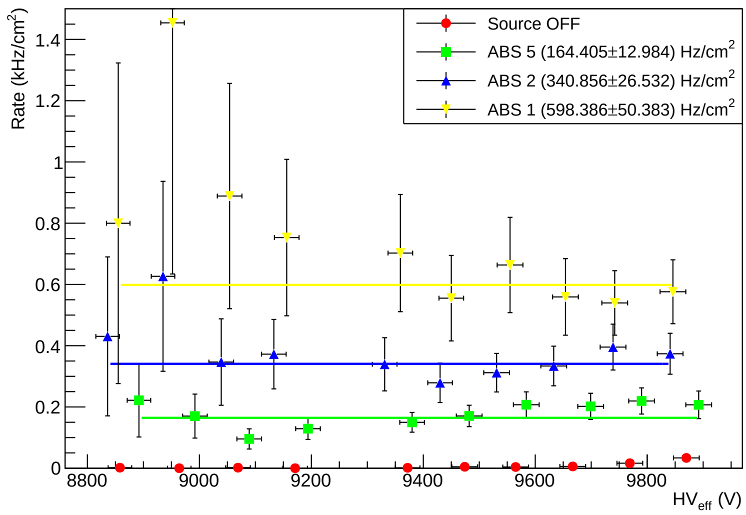


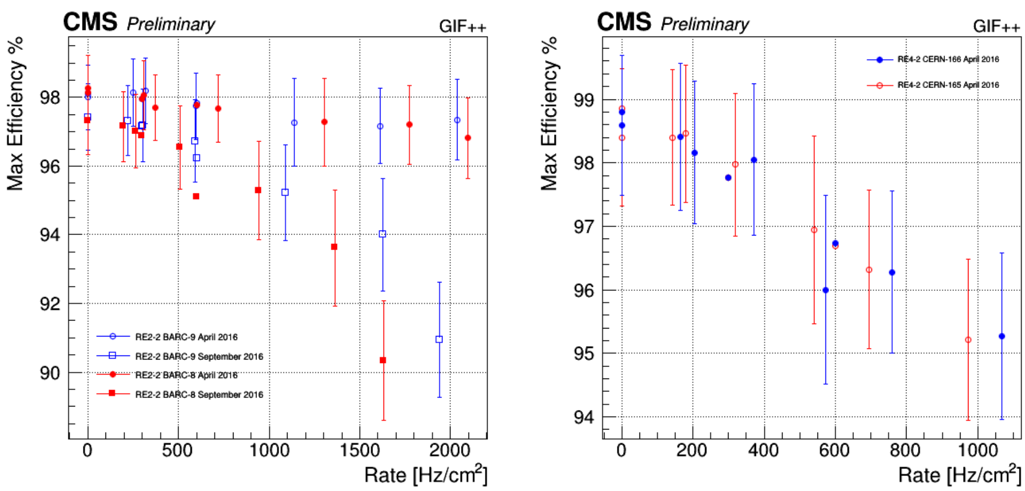
Figure 5.21: Rates in chamber `RE-4-2-BARC-161` *unconvoluted from the corresponding efficiency measured at GIF with Source OFF (red) and Source ON using different absorber settings: ABS 5 (green), ABS 2 (blue) and ABS 1 (yellow). Constant fits are performed on Source ON data showing the gamma rate in the chamber.*

5.3 Longevity tests at GIF++

Longevity studies imply a monitoring of the performance of the detectors probed using a high intensity muon beam in a irradiated environment by periodically measuring their rate capability, the dark current running through them and the bulk resistivity of the Bakelite composing their electrodes. GIF++, with its very intense ^{137}Cs source, provides the perfect environment to perform such kind of tests. Assuming a maximum acceleration factor of 3, it is expected to accumulate the equivalent charge in 1.7 years.

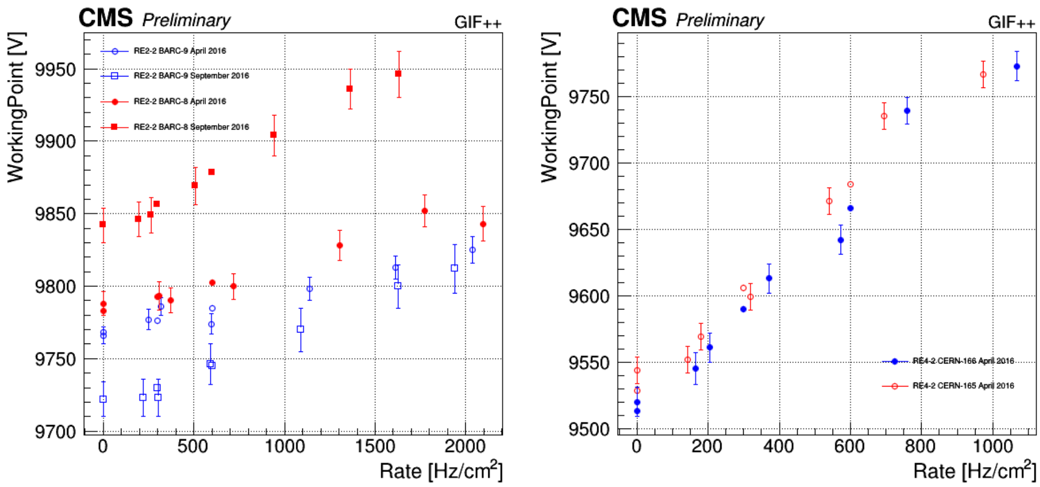
As the maximum background is found in the endcap, the choice naturally was made to focus the GIF++ longevity studies on endcap chambers. Most of the RPC system was installed in 2007. Nevertheless, the large chambers in the fourth endcap (RE4/2 and RE4/3) have been installed during LS1 in 2014. The Bakelite of these two different productions having different properties, four spare chambers of the present system were selected, two RE2,3/2 spares and two RE4/2 spares. Having two chambers of each type allows to always keep one of them non irradiated as reference, the performance evolution of the irradiated chamber being then compared through time to the performance of the non irradiated one.

The performance of the detectors under different level of irradiation is measured periodically during dedicated test beam periods using the H4 muon beam. In between these test beam periods, the two RE2,3/2 and RE4/2 chambers selected for this study are irradiated by the ^{137}Cs source in order to accumulate charge and the gamma background is monitored, as well as the currents. The two remaining chambers are kept non-irradiated as reference detectors. Due to the limited gas flow in GIF++, the RE4 chamber remained non-irradiated until end of November 2016 where a new mass flow controller has been installed allowing for bigger volumes of gas to flow in the system.
Figures 5.22 and 5.23 give us for different test beam periods, and thus for increasing integrated charge through time, a comparison of the maximum efficiency, obtained using a sigmoid-like function, and of the working point of both irradiated and non irradiated chambers [55]. No aging is yet to see from this data, the shifts in γ rate per unit area in between irradiated and non irradiated detectors and RE2 and RE4 types being easily explained by a difference of sensitivity due to the various Bakelite resistivities of the HPL electrodes used for the electrode production.
Collecting performance data at each test beam period allows us to extrapolate the maximum efficiency for a background hit rate of $300\,\mathrm{cm^{-2}\,s^{-1}}$ corresponding to the expected HL-LHC conditions. Aging effects could emerge from a loss of efficiency with increasing integrated charge over time, thus Figure 5.24 helps us understand such degradation of the performance of irradiated detectors in comparison with non irradiated ones. The final answer for an eventual loss of efficiency is given in Figure 5.25 by comparing for both irradiated and non irradiated detectors the efficiency sigmoids before and after the longevity study. Moreover, to complete the performance information, the Bakelite resistivity is regularly measured thanks to Ag scans (Figure 5.26) and the noise rate is monitored weekly during irradiation periods (Figure 5.27). At the end of 2016, no signs of aging were observed and further investigation is needed to get closer to the final integrated charge requirements proposed for the longevity study of the present CMS RPC sub-system.



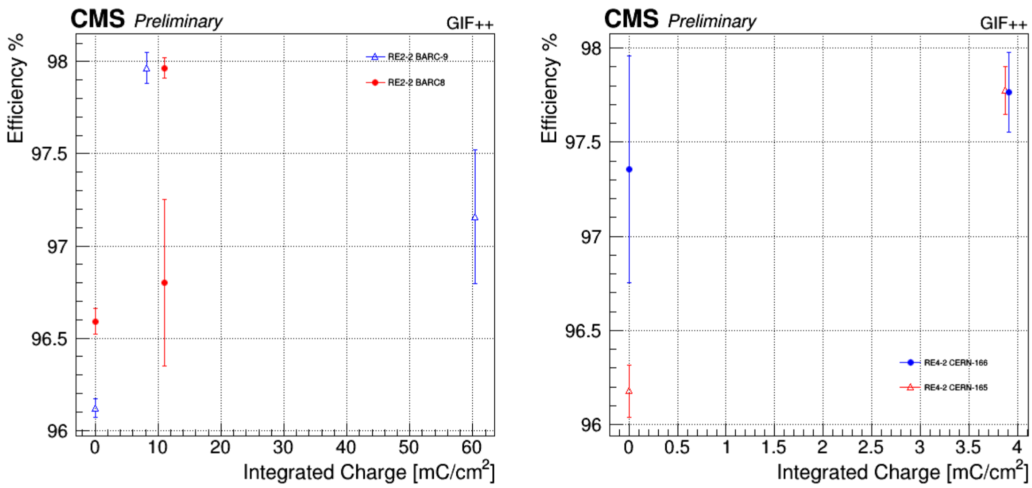
(a) *(b)*

Figure 5.22: Evolution of the maximum efficiency for RE2 (5.22a) and RE4 (5.22b) chambers with increasing extrapolated γ rate per unit area at working point. Both irradiated (blue) and non irradiated (red) chambers are shown.



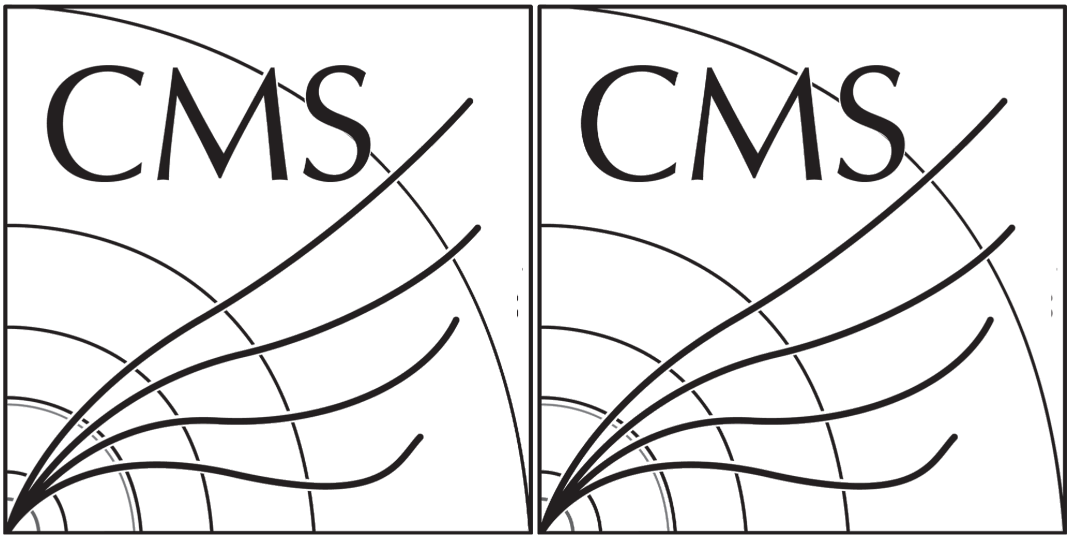
(a) *(b)*

Figure 5.23: Evolution of the working point for RE2 (5.23a) and RE4 (5.23b) with increasing extrapolated γ rate per unit area at working point. Both irradiated (blue) and non irradiated (red) chambers are shown.



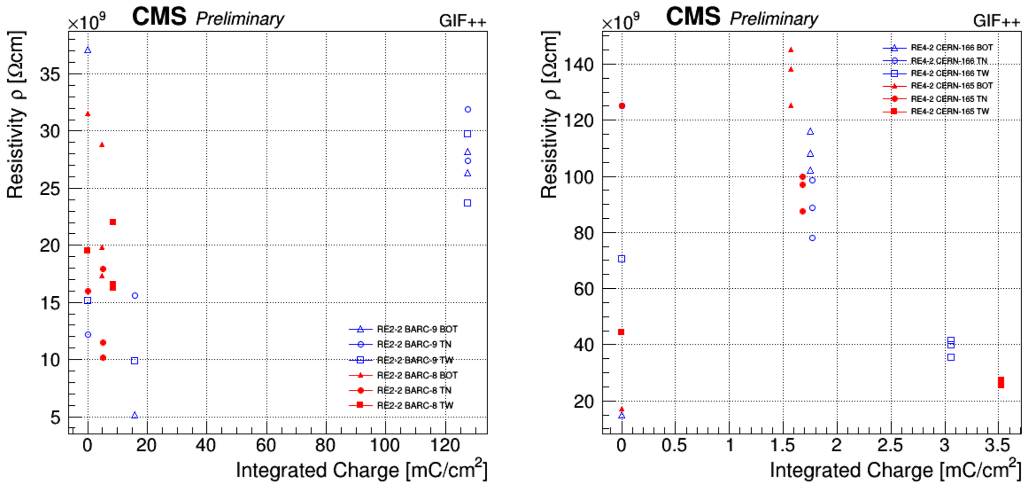
(a) *(b)*

Figure 5.24: Evolution of the maximum efficiency at HL-LHC conditions, i.e. a background hit rate per unit area of $300\,\mathrm{Hz/cm^2}$*, with increasing integrated charge for RE2 (5.24a) and RE4 (5.24b) detectors. Both irradiated (blue) and non irradiated (red) chambers are shown. The integrated charge for non irradiated detectors is recorded during test beam periods and stays small with respect to the charge accumulated in irradiated chambers.*



(a) (b)

Figure 5.25: Comparison of the efficiency sigmoid before (triangles) and after (circles) irradiation for RE2 (5.25a) and RE4 (5.25b) detectors. Both irradiated (blue) and non irradiated (red) chambers are shown.



(a) (b)

Figure 5.26: Evolution of the Bakelite resistivity for RE2 (5.26a) and RE4 (5.26b) detectors. Both irradiated (blue) and non irradiated (red) chambers are shown.

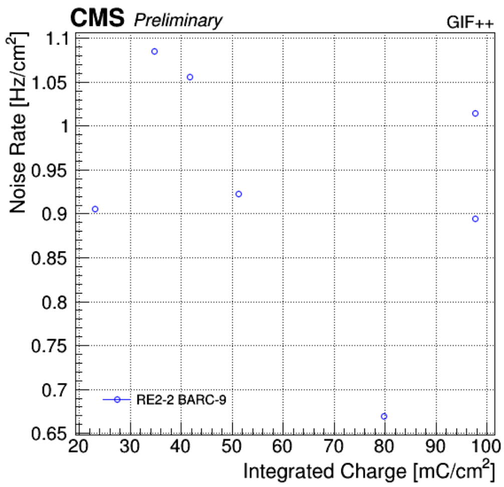


Figure 5.27: Evolution of the noise rate per unit area for the irradiated chamber RE2-2-BARC-9 only.

5.3.1 Description of the Data Acquisition

For the longevity studies, four spare chambers of the present system are used. Two spare RPCs of the RE2,3 stations as well as two spare RPCs from the new RE4 stations have been mounted in a Trolley. Six RE4 gaps are also placed in the trolley. The trolley is placed inside the GIF++ in the upstream region of the bunker, taking the cesium source as a reference. The trolley is oriented for the detection surface of the chambers to be orthogonal to the beam line. The system can be moved along the orthogonal plane in order to have the beam in all η-partitions. For the aging the trolley is moved outside the beam line and is placed in a distance of $5.2\,\mathrm{m}$ to the source, which irradiates the bunker using an attenuation filter of 2.2 which corresponds to a fluence of $10^7 \mathrm{gamma}/\mathrm{cm}^2$.

During GIF++ operation, the data collected can be divided into different categories as several parameters are monitored in addition to the usual RPC performance data. On one hand, to know the performance of a chamber, it is need to measure its efficiency and to know the background conditions in which it is operated. To do this, the hit signals from the chamber are recorded and stored in a ROOT file via a DAQ software. On the other hand, it is also very important to monitor parameters such as environmental pressure and temperature, gas temperature and humidity, RPC HV, LV, and currents, or even source and beam status. This is done through the GIF++ web DCS that stores this information in a database.

Two different types of tests are conducted on RPCs via the DAQ. Indeed, the performance of the detectors is measured periodically during dedicated test beam periods using the H4 muon beam. In between these test beam periods, when the beam is not available, the chambers are irradiated by the ^{137}Cs in order to accumulate deposited charge and the gamma background is measured.

RPCs under test are connected through LVDS cables to V1190A TDC modules manufactured by CAEN. These modules, located in the rack area outside of the bunker, get the logic signals sent by the chambers and save them into their buffers. Due to the limited size of the buffers, the collected data is regularly erased and replaced. A trigger signal is needed for the TDC modules to send the useful data to the DAQ computer via a V1718 CAEN USB communication module.

In the case of performance test, the trigger signal used for data acquisition is generated by the coincidence of three scintillators. A first one is placed upstream outside of the bunker, a second one is placed downstream outside of the bunker, while a third one is placed in front of the trolley, close by the chambers. Every time a trigger is sent to the TDCs, i.e. every time a muon is detected, knowing the time delay in between the trigger and the RPC signals, signals located in the right time window are extracted from the buffers and saved for later analysis. Signals are taken in a time window of $400\,\mathrm{ns}$ centered on the muon peak (here we could show a time spectrum). On the other hand, in the case of background rate measurement, the trigger signal needs to be ”random” not to measure muons but to look at gamma background. A trigger pulse is continuously generated at a rate of $300\,\mathrm{Hz}$ using a dual timer. To integrate an as great as possible time, all signals contained within a time window of 10us prior to the random trigger signal are extracted form the buffers and saved for further analysis (here another time spectrum to illustrate could be useful, maybe even place both spectrum together as a single Figure).

The signals sent to the TDCs correspond to hit collections in the RPCs. When a particle hits a RPC, it induce a signal in the pickup strips of the RPC readout. If this signal is higher than the detection threshold, a LVDS signal is sent to the TDCs. The data is then organised into 4 branches keeping track of the event number, the hit multiplicity for the whole setup, and the time and channel profile of the hits in the TDCs.

5.3.2 RPC current, environmental and operation parameter monitoring

In order to take into account the variation of pressure and temperature between different data taking periods the applied voltage is corrected following the relationship :

$$HVeff = HVapp \times \left(0.2 + 0.8 \cdot \frac{P_0}{P} \times \frac{T}{T_0}\right) \tag{5.6}$$

where T_0 (=293 K) and P_0 (=990 mbar) are the reference values.

5.3.3 Measurement procedure

Insert a short description of the online tools (DAQ, DCS, DQM).
Insert a short description of the offline tools : tracking and efficiency algorithm.
Identify long term aging effects we are monitoring the rates per strip.

5.3.4 Longevity studies results

6 Conclusions and outlooks

6.1 Conclusions

6.2 Outlooks

A

A data acquisition software for CAEN VME TDCs

Certifying detectors in the perspective of HL-LHC required to develop tools for the GIF++ experiment. Among them was the C++ Data Acquisition (DAQ) software that allows to make the communications in between a computer and TDC modules in order to retrieve the RPC data [95]. In this appendix, details about this software, as of how the software was written, how it functions and how it can be exported to another similar setup, will be given.

A.1 GIF++ DAQ file tree

GIF++ DAQ source code is fully available on github at `https://github.com/afagot/GIF_DAQ`. The software requires 3 non-optional dependencies:

- CAEN USB Driver, to mount the VME hardware,
- CAEN VME Library, to communicate with the VME hardware, and
- ROOT, to organize the collected data into a TTree.

The CAEN VME library will not be packaged by distributions and will need to be installed manually. To compile the GIF++ DAQ project via a terminal, from the DAQ folder use the command:

```
make
```

The source code tree is provided below along with comments to give an overview of the files' content. The different objects created for this project (`v1718`, `v1190a`, `IniFile` & `DataReader`) will be described in details in the following sections.

```
GIF_DAQ
├── bin
│   └── daq ........................................................ EXECUTABLE
├── include ........................................ LIST OF C++ HEADER FILES
│   ├── CAENVMElib.h ................................................ CAEN C++ LIBS
│   ├── CAENVMEoslib.h ........................................... CAEN OS C++ LIBS
│   ├── CAENVMEtypes.h ............................................ CAEN VARIABLES
│   ├── DataReader.h ........................... DECLARATION OF OBJECT DATAREADER
│   ├── IniFile.h .................. DECLARATION OF OBJECT INIFILE FOR INI PARSER
│   ├── MsgSvc.h ............................. DECLARATION OF DAQ LOG MESSAGES
│   ├── utils.h ........ DECLARATION OF USEFUL VARIABLES AND COMM. FUNCTIONS
│   ├── v1190a.h ................................... DECLARATION OF OBJECT V1190A
│   └── v1718.h ..................................... DECLARATION OF OBJECT V1718
├── lib ............................................................ CAEN LIBRARY
│   ├── install
│   └── x86
│       └── libCAENVME.so.2.41
├── obj ..................................... BINARY FILES CREATED BY COMPILER
│   └── ...
├── src ............................................. LIST OF C++ SOURCE FILES
│   ├── daq.cxx ........................................................ MAIN FILE
│   ├── DataReader.cxx ........................ DEFINITION OF DATAREADER'S METHODS
│   ├── IniFile.cxx .............................. DEFINITION OF INIFILE'S METHODS
│   ├── MsgSvc.cxx ....................... DEFINITION OF LOG MESSAGING FUNCTIONS
│   ├── utils.cxx ............... DEFINITION OF USEFUL COMMUNICATION FUNCTIONS
│   ├── v1190a.cxx ............................ DECLARATION OF V1190A'S METHODS
│   └── v1718.cxx .............................. DECLARATION OF V1718'S METHODS
├── makefile ............................................ COMPILER INSTRUCTIONS
└── README.md ........................................ REAMDE FILE FOR GITHUB
```

A.2 Usage of the DAQ

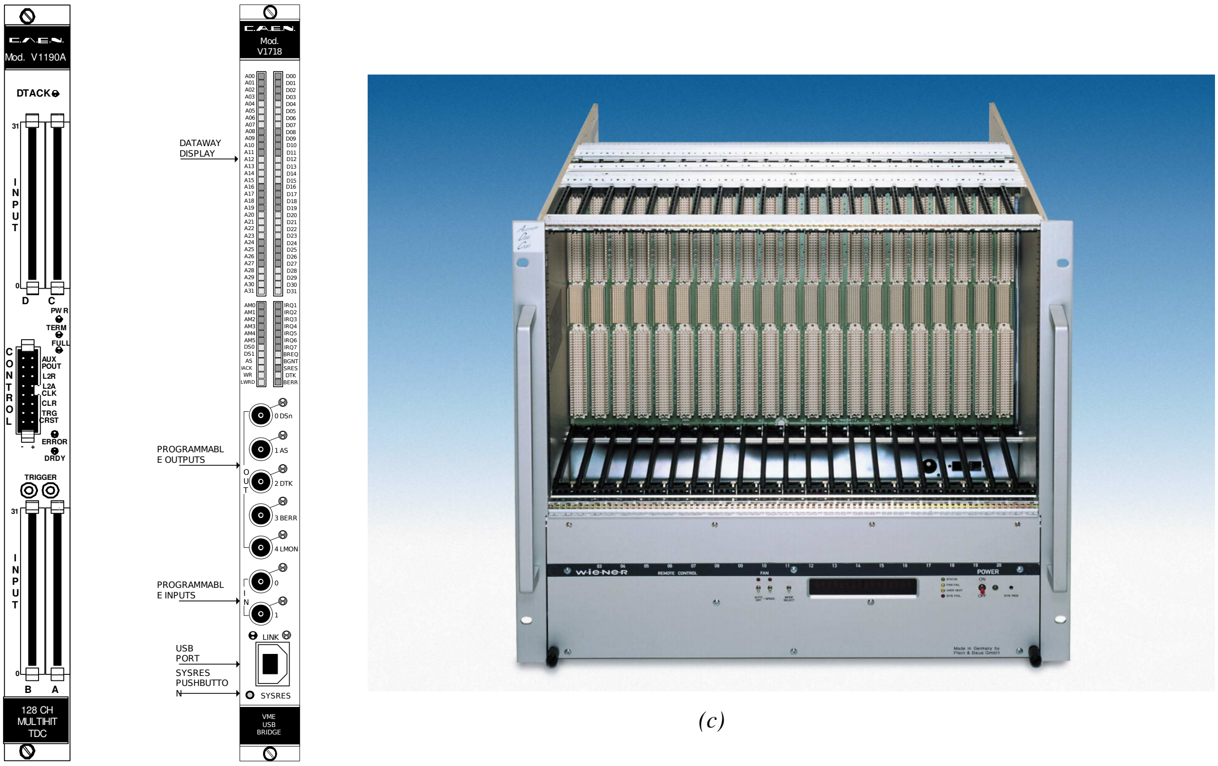
GIF++ DAQ, as used in GIF++, is not a standalone software. Indeed, the system being more complexe, the DAQ only is a sub-layer of the software architecture developped to control and monitor the RPCs that are placed into the bunker for performance study in an irradiated environment. The top layer of GIF++ is a Web Detector Control System (webDCS) application. The DAQ is only called by the webDCS when data needs to be acquired. The webDCS operates the DAQ through command line. To start the DAQ, the webDCS calls:

```
bin/daq /path/to/the/log/file/in/the/output/data/folder
```

where `/path/to/the/log/file/in/the/output/data/folder` is the only argument required. This log file is important for the webDCS as this file contains all the content of the communication of the webDCS and the different systems monitored by the webDCS. Its content is constantly displayed during data taking for the users to be able to follow the operations. The communication messages are normally sent to the webDCS log file via the functions declared in file `MsgSvc.h`, typically `MSG_INFO(string message)`.

A.3 Description of the readout setup

The CMS RPC setup at GIF++ counts 5 V1190A Time-to-Digital Converter (TDC) manufactured by CAEN [96]. V1190A are VME units accepting 128 independent Multi-Hit/Multi-Event TDC channels whose signals are treated by 4 100 ps high performance TDC chips developped by CERN / ECP-MIC Division. The communication between the computer and the TDCs to transfer data is done via a V1718 VME master module also manufactured by CAEN and operated from a USB port [97]. These VME modules are all hosted into a 6U VME 6021 powered crate manufactured by W-Ie-Ne-R than can accomodate up to 21 VME bus cards [98]. These 3 components of the DAQ setup are shown in Figure A.1.



(c)

(a) (b)

Figure A.1: (A.1a) View of the front panel of a V1190A TDC module [96]. (A.1b) View of the front panel of a V1718 Bridge module [97]. (A.1c) View of the front panel of a 6U 6021 VME crate [98].

A.4 Data read-out

To efficiently perform a data readout algorithm, C++ objects to handle the VME modules (TDCs and VME bridge) have been created along with objects to store data and read the configuration file that comes as an input of the DAQ software.

A.4.1 V1190A TDCs

The DAQ used at GIF takes profit of the *Trigger Matching Mode* offered by V1190A modules. This setting is enabled through the method `v1190a::SetTrigMatching (int ntdcs)` where `ntdcs` is the total number of TDCs in the setup this setting needs to be enabled for (Source Code A.1). A trigger matching is performed in between a trigger time tag, a trigger signal sent into the TRIGGER input of the TDC visible on Figure A.1a, and the channel time measurements, signals recorded from the detectors under test in our case. Control over this data acquisition mode, explained through Figure A.2, is offered via 4 programmable parameters:

- **match window:** the matching between a trigger and a hit is done within a programmable time window. This is set via the method
  `void v1190a::SetTrigWindowWidth(Uint windowWidth,int ntdcs)`
- **window offset:** temporal distance between the trigger tag and the start of the trigger matching window. This is set via the method
  `void v1190a::SetTrigWindowWidth(Uint windowWidth,int ntdcs)`
- **extra search margin:** an extended time window is used to ensure that all matching hits are found. This is set via the method
  `void v1190a::SetTrigSearchMargin(Uint searchMargin,int ntdcs)`
- **reject margin:** older hits are automatically rejected to preven buffer overflows and to speed up the search time. This is set via the method
  `void v1190a::SetTrigRejectionMargin(Uint rejectMargin,int ntdcs)`

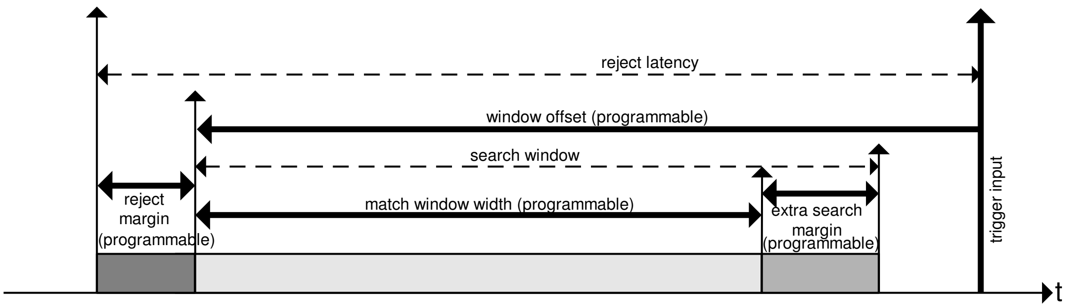


Figure A.2: Module V1190A Trigger Matching Mode timing diagram [96].

Each of these 4 parameters are given in number of clocks, 1 clock being 25 ns long. It is easy to understand at this level that there are 3 possible functionning settings:

- **1:** the match window is entirely contained after the trigger signal,
- **2:** the match window overlaps the trigger signal, or
- **3:** the match window is entirely contained before the trigger signal as displayed on Figure A.2.

In both the first and second cases, the sum of the window width and of the offset can be set to a maximum of $40\,\mathrm{clocks}$, which corresponds to $1\,\mu\mathrm{s}$. Evidently, the offset can be negative, allowing for a longer match window, with the constraint of having the window ending at most $1\,\mu\mathrm{s}$ after the trigger signal. In the third case, the maximum negative offset allowed is of $2048\,\mathrm{clocks}$ (12 bit) corresponding to $51.2\,\mu\mathrm{s}$, the match window being strictly smaller than the offset. In the case of GIF++, the choice has been made to use this last setting by delaying the trigger signal. During the studies performed in GIF++, both the efficiency of the RPCs, probed using a muon beam, and the noise or gamma background rate are monitored. The extra search and reject margins are left unused.
To probe the efficiency of RPC detectors, the trigger time tag is provided by the coïncidence of scintillators when a bunch of muons passes through GIF++ area is used to trigger the data acquisition. For this measurement, it is useful to reduce the match window width only to contain the muon information. Indeed, the delay in between a trigger signal and the detection of the corresponding muon in the RPC being very contant (typically a few tens of ns due to jitter and cable length), the muon signals are very localised in time. Thus, due to a delay of approximalety $325\,\mathrm{ns}$ in between the muons and the trigger, the settings where chosen to have a window width of $24\,\mathrm{clocks}$ ($600\,\mathrm{ns}$) centered on the muon peak thanks to a negative offset of $29\,\mathrm{clocks}$ ($725\,\mathrm{ns}$).
On the otherhand, monitoring the rates don't require for the DAQ to look at a specific time window. It is important to integrate enough time to have a robust measurement of the rate as the number of hits per time unit. The triggerring signal is provided by a pulse generator at a frequency of $300\,\mathrm{Hz}$ to ensure that the data taking occurs in a random way, with respect to beam physics, to probe only the irradiation spectrum on the detectors. The match window is set to $400\,\mathrm{clocks}$ ($10\,\mu\mathrm{s}$) and the negative offset to $401\,\mathrm{clocks}$ as it needs to exceed the value of the match window.

```
class v1190a
{
 private :
    long                Handle;
    vector<Data32>      Address;
    CVDataWidth         DataWidth;
    CVAddressModifier AddressModifier;

 public:

    v1190a(long handle, IniFile *inifile, int ntdcs);
    ~v1190a();
    Data16 write_op_reg(Data32 address, int code, string error);
    Data16 read_op_reg(Data32 address, string error);
    void   Reset(int ntdcs);
    void   Clear(int ntdcs);
    void   TestWR(Data16 value,int ntdcs);
    void   CheckTDCStatus(int ntdcs);
    void   CheckCommunication(int ntdcs);
    void   SetTDCTestMode(Data16 mode,int ntdcs);
    void   SetTrigMatching(int ntdcs);
    void   SetTrigTimeSubstraction(Data16 mode,int ntdcs);
    void   SetTrigWindowWidth(Uint windowWidth,int ntdcs);
    void   SetTrigWindowOffset(Uint windowOffset,int ntdcs);
    void   SetTrigSearchMargin(Uint searchMargin,int ntdcs);
    void   SetTrigRejectionMargin(Uint rejectMargin,int ntdcs);
    void   GetTrigConfiguration(int ntdcs);
    void   SetTrigConfiguration(IniFile *inifile,int ntdcs);
    void   SetTDCDetectionMode(Data16 mode,int ntdcs);
    void   SetTDCResolution(Data16 lsb,int ntdcs);
    void   SetTDCDeadTime(Data16 time,int ntdcs);
    void   SetTDCHeadTrailer(Data16 mode,int ntdcs);
    void   SetTDCEventSize(Data16 size,int ntdcs);
    void   SwitchChannels(IniFile *inifile,int ntdcs);
    void   SetIRQ(Data32 level, Data32 count,int ntdcs);
    void   SetBlockTransferMode(Data16 mode,int ntdcs);
    void   Set(IniFile *inifile,int ntdcs);
    void   CheckStatus(CVErrorCodes status) const;
    int    ReadBlockD32(Uint tdc, const Data16 address,
               Data32 *data, const Uint words, bool ignore_berr);
    Uint   Read(RAWData *DataList,int ntdcs);
};
```

Source Code A.1: Description of C++ object `v1190a`.

The v1190a object, defined in the DAQ software as in Source Code A.1, offers the possility to concatenate all TDCs in the readout setup into a single object containing a list of hardware addresses (addresses to access the TDCs' buffer through the VME crate) and each constructor and method acts on the list of TDCs.

A.4.2 DataReader

Enabled thanks to `v1190a::SetBlockTransferMode(Data16 mode, int ntdcs)`, the data transfer is done via Block Transfer (BLT). Using BLT allows to tranfer a fixed number of events called a *block*. This is used together with an Almost Full Level (AFL) of the TDCs' output buffers, defined through `v1190a::SetIRQ(Data32 level, Data32 count,int ntdcs)`. This AFL gives the maximum amount of 32735 words (16 bits, corresponding to the depth of a TDC output buffer) that can writen in a buffer before an Interrupt Request (IRQ) is generated and seen by the VME Bridge, stopping the data acquisition to transfer the content of each TDC buffers before resuming. For each trigger, 6 words or more are written into the TDC buffer:

- **a global header** providing information of the event number since the beginning of the data acquisition,
- **a TDC header**,
- **the TDC data** (*if any*), 1 for each hit recorded during the event, providing the channel and the time stamp associated to the hit,
- **a TDC error** providing error flags,
- **a TDC trailer**,
- **a global trigger time tag** that provides the absolute trigger time relatively to the last reset, and
- **a global trailer** providing the total word count in the event.

As previously described in Section **??**, CMS RPC FEEs provide us with $100\,\mathrm{ns}$ long LVDS output signals that are injected into the TDCs' input. Any avalanche signal that gives a signal above the FEEs threshold is thus recorded by the TDCs as a hit within the match window. Each hit is assigned to a specific TDC channel with a time stamp, with a precision of $100\,\mathrm{ps}$. The reference time, $t_0 = 0$, is provided by the beginning of the match window. Thus for each trigger, coming from a scintillator coïncidence or the pulse generator, a list of hits is stored into the TDCs' buffers and will then be transfered into a ROOT Tree.

When the BLT is used, it is easy to understand that the maximum number of words that have been set as ALF will not be a finite number of events or, at least, the number of events that would be recorded into the TDC buffers will not be a multiple of the block size. In the last BLT cycle to tranfer data, the number of events to transfer will most propably be lower than the block size. In that case, the TDC can add fillers at the end of the block but this option requires to send more data to the computer and is thus a little slower. Another solution is to finish the transfer after the last event by sending a bus error that states that the BLT reached the last event in the pile. This method has been chosen in GIF++.

Due to irradiation, an event in GIF++ can count up to 300 words per TDC. A limit of 4096 words (12 bits) has been set to generate IRQ which represent from 14 to almost 700 events depending on the average of hits collected per event. Then the block size has been set to 100 events with enabled bus errors. When an AFL is reached for one of the TDCs, the VME bridge stops the acquisition by sending a BUSY signal.

The data is then transfered one TDC at a time into a structure called `RAWData` (Source Code A.2).

```
struct RAWData{
    vector<int>              *EventList;
    vector<int>              *NHitsList;
    vector<int>              *QFlagList;
    vector<vector<int> >     *ChannelList;
    vector<vector<float> >   *TimeStampList;
};
```

Source Code A.2: Description of data holding C++ structure `RAWData`*.*

In order to organize the data transfer and the data storage, an object called `DataReader` was created (Source Code A.3). On one hand, it has `v1718` and `v1190a` objects as private members for communication purposes, such as VME modules settings via the configuration file `*iniFile` or data read-out through `v1190a::Read()` and on the other hand, it contains the struture `RAWData` that allows to organise the data in vectors reproducing the tree structre of a ROOT file.

```
class DataReader
{
    private:
        bool      StopFlag;
        IniFile  *iniFile;
        Data32    MaxTriggers;
        v1718    *VME;
        int       nTDCs;
        v1190a   *TDCs;
        RAWData   TDCData;

    public:
        DataReader();
        virtual ~DataReader();
        void      SetIniFile(string inifilename);
        void      SetMaxTriggers();
        Data32    GetMaxTriggers();
        void      SetVME();
        void      SetTDC();
        int       GetQFlag(Uint it);
        void      Init(string inifilename);
        void      FlushBuffer();
        void      Update();
        string    GetFileName();
        void      WriteRunRegistry(string filename);
        void      Run();
};
```

Source Code A.3: Description of C++ object `DataReader`*.*

Each event is tranferred from `TDCData` and saved into branches of a ROOT `TTree` as 3 integers that represent the event ID (`EventCount`), the number of hits read from the TDCs (`nHits`), and the quality flag that provides information for any problem in the data transfer (`qflag`), and 2 lists of *nHits* elements containing the fired TDC channels (`TDCCh`) and their respective time stamps (`TDCTS`), as presented in Source Code A.4. The ROOT file file is named using information contained into the configuration file, presented in section A.5.2. The needed information is extracted using method `DataReader::GetFileName()` and allow to build the output filename format `ScanXXXXXX_HVX_DAQ.root` where `ScanXXXXXX` is a 6 digit number representing the scan number into GIF++ database and `HVX` the HV step within the scan that can be more than a single digit. An example of ROOT data file is provided with Figure A.3.

```
RAWData TDCData;
TFile *outputFile = new TFile(outputFileName.c_str(),"recreate");
TTree *RAWDataTree = new TTree("RAWData","RAWData");

int           EventCount = -9;
int           nHits = -8;
int           qflag = -7;
vector<int>   TDCCh;
vector<float> TDCTS;

RAWDataTree->Branch("EventNumber",&EventCount, "EventNumber/I");
RAWDataTree->Branch("number_of_hits",&nHits,"number_of_hits/I");
RAWDataTree->Branch("Quality_flag",&qflag,"Quality_flag/I");
RAWDataTree->Branch("TDC_channel",&TDCCh);
RAWDataTree->Branch("TDC_TimeStamp",&TDCTS);

//...
//Here read the TDC data using v1190a::Read() and place it into
//TDCData for as long as you didn't collect the requested amount
//of data.
//...

for(Uint i=0; i<TDCData.EventList->size(); i++){
    EventCount  = TDCData.EventList->at(i);
    nHits       = TDCData.NHitsList->at(i);
    qflag       = TDCData.QFlagList->at(i);
    TDCCh       = TDCData.ChannelList->at(i);
    TDCTS       = TDCData.TimeStampList->at(i);
    RAWDataTree->Fill();
}
```

Source Code A.4: Highlight of the data transfer and organisation within `DataReader::Run()` after the data has been collected into `TDCData`.

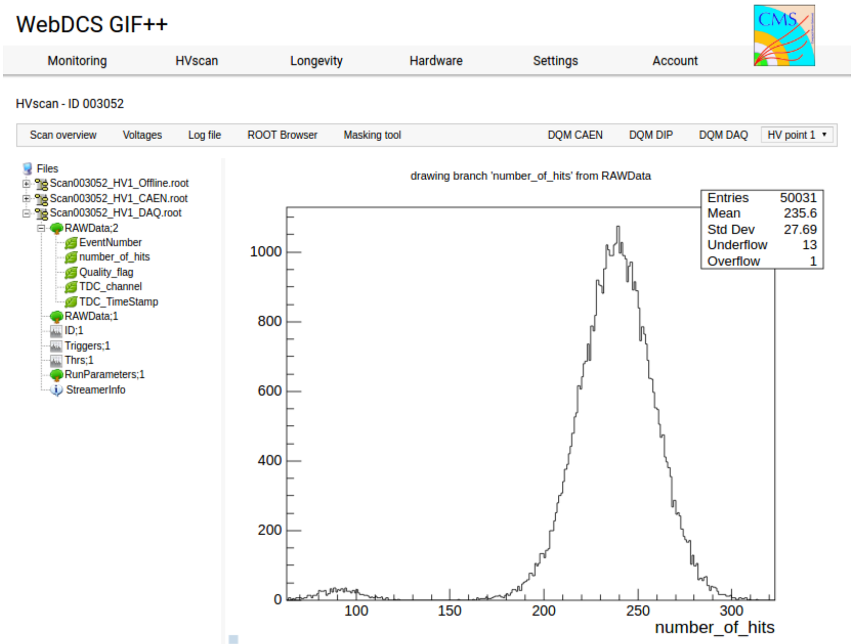


Figure A.3: Structure of the ROOT output file generated by the DAQ. The 5 branches (`EventNumber`, `number_of_hits`, `Quality_flag`, `TDC_channel` and `TDC_TimeStamp`) are visible on the left panel of the ROOT browser. On the right panel is visible the histogram corresponding to the variable `nHits`. In this specific example, there were approximately 50k events recorded to measure the gamma irradiation rate on the detectors. Each event is stored as a single entry in the `TTree`.

A.4.3 Data quality flag

Among the parameters that are recorded for each event, the quality flag, defined in Source Code A.5, is determined on the fly by checking the data recorded by every single TDC. From method `v1190a::Read()`, it can be understood that the content of each TDC buffer is readout one TDC at a time. Entries are created in the data list for the first TDC and then, when the second buffer is readout, events corresponding to entries that have already been created to store data for the previous TDC are added to the existing list element. On the contrary, when an event entry has not been yet created in the data list, a new entry is created.

```
typedef enum _QualityFlag {
    GOOD      = 1,
    CORRUPTED = 0
} QualityFlag;
```

Source Code A.5: Definition of the quality flag **`enum`**.

It is possible that each TDC buffer contains a different number of events. In cases where the first element in the buffer list is an event for corresponds to a new entry, the difference in between the intry from the buffer and the last entry in the data list is recorded and checked. If it is greater than 1, what should never be the case, the quality flag is set to `CORRUPTED` for this TDC and an empty entry is created in the place of the missing ones. Missing entries are believe to be the result of a bad hold on the TDC buffers at the moment of the readout. Indeed, the software hold is effective only on 1 TDC at a time and no solution as been found yet to completely block the writting in the buffers when an IRQ is received.

At the end of each BLT cycle, the ID of the last entry stored for each TDC buffer is not recorded. When starting the next cycle, if the first entry in the pile corresponds to an event already existing in the list, the readout will start from this list element and will not be able to check the difference in between this entry's ID and the one of the last entry that was recorded for this TDC buffer in the previous cycle. In the case events were missing, the flag stays at its initial value of 0, which is similar to `CORRUPTED` and it is assumed that then this TDC will not contribute to `number_of_hits`, `TDC_channel` or `TDC_TimeStamp`.

Finally, since there will be 1 `RAWData` entry per TDC for each event (meaning `nTDCs` entries, referring to `DataReader` private attribute), the individual flags of each TDC will be added together. The final format is an integer composed `nTDCs` digits where each digit is the flag of a specific TDC. This is constructed using powers of 10 like follows:

TDC 0: `QFlag` $= 10^0 \times$ `_QualityFlag`

TDC 1: `QFlag` $= 10^1 \times$ `_QualityFlag`

...

TDC N: `QFlag` $= 10^N \times$ `_QualityFlag`

and the final flag to be with N digits:

`QFlag` = `n....3210`

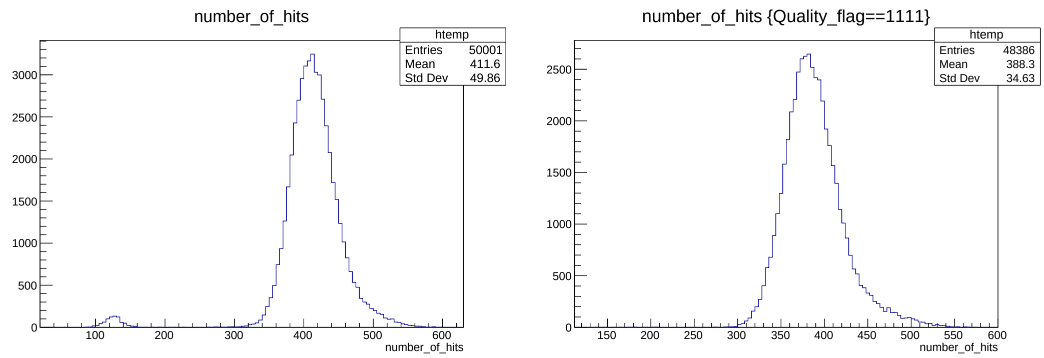
each digit being 1 or 0. Bellow is given an example with a 4 TDCs setup.

If all TDCs were good : `QFlag` = `1111`,

but if TDC 2 was corrupted : `QFlag` = `1011`.

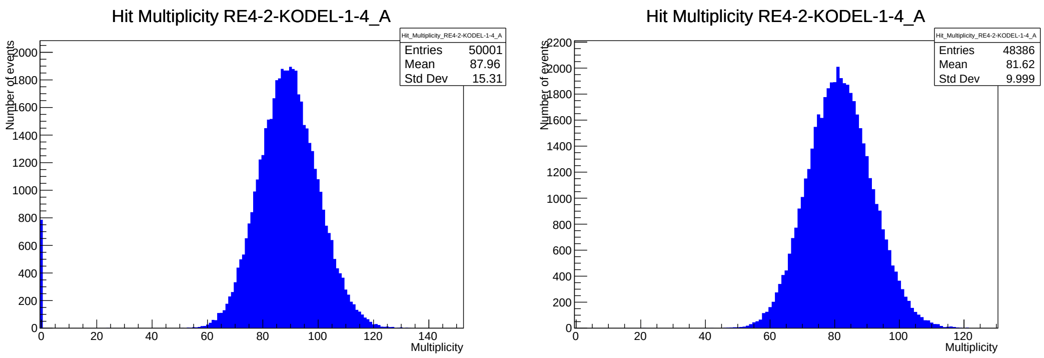
When data taking is over and the data contained in the dynamical `RAWData` structure is transfered to the ROOT file, all the 0s are changed into 2s by calling the method `DataReader::GetQFlag()`. This will help translating the flag without knowing the number of TDCs beforehand. Indeed, a flag `111` could be due to a 3 TDC setup with 3 good individual TDC flags or to a more than 3 TDC setup with TDCs those ID is greater than 2 being `CORRUPTED`, thus giving a 0.

The quality flag has been introduced quite late, in October 2017 only, to the list of GIF++ DAQ parameters to be recorded into the output ROOT file. Before this addition, the missing data, corrupting the quality for the offline analysis, was contributing to artificially fill data with lower multiplicity. Looking at `TBranch number_of_hits` provides an information about the data of the full GIF++ setup. When a TDC is not able to transfer data for a specific event, the effect is a reduction of the total number of hits recorded in the full setup, this is what can be seen from Figure A.4. After offline reconstruction detector by detector, the effect of missing events can be seen in the artificially filled bin at multiplicity 0 shown in Figure A.5. Nontheless, for data wih high irradiation levels, as it is he case for Figure A.5a, discarding the fake multiplicity 0 data can be done easily during the offline analysis. At lower radiation, the missing events contribution becomes more problematic as the multiplicity distribution overlaps the multiplicity 0 and that in the same time the proportion of missing events decreases. Attempts to fit the distribution with a Poisson or skew distribution function were not conclusive and this very problem has been at the origin of the quality flag that allows to give a non ambiguous information about each event quality.



(a) *(b)*

Figure A.4: The effect of the quality flag is explained by presenting the content of `TBranch number_of_hits` *of a data file without* `Quality_flag` *in Figure A.4a and the content of the same* `TBranch` *for data corresponding to a* `Quality_flag` *where all TDCs were labelled as* `GOOD` *in Figure A.4b taken with similar conditions. It can be noted that the number of entries in Figure A.4b is slightly lower then in Figure A.4a due to the excluded events.*



(a) *(b)*

Figure A.5: Using the same data as previously showed in Figure A.4, the effect of the quality flag is explained by presenting the reconstructed hit multiplicity of a data file without `Quality_flag` *in Figure A.5a and the reconstructed content of the same RPC partition for data corresponding to a* `Quality_flag` *where all TDCs were labelled as* `GOOD` *in Figure A.5b taken with similar conditions. The artificial high content of bin 0 is completely suppressed.*

A.5 Communications

To ensure data readout and dialog in between the machine and the TDCs or in between the webDCS and the DAQ, different communication solutions were used. First of all, it is important to have a module to allow the comminication in between the TDCs and the computer from which the DAQ operates. When this communication is effective, shifters using the webDCS to control data taking can thus send instructions to the DAQ.

A.5.1 V1718 USB Bridge

In the previous section, the data transfer as been discussed. The importance of the `v1718` object (Source Code A.6), used as private member of `DataReader`, was not explicited. VME master modules are used for communication purposes as they host the USB port that connects the powered crate buffer to the computer were the DAQ is installed. From the source code point of view, this object is used to control the communication status, by reading the returned error codes with `v1718::CheckStatus()`, or to check for IRQs coming from the TDCs through `v1718::CheckIRQ()`. Finally, to ensure that triggers are blocked at the hardware level, a NIM pulse is sent out of one of the 5 programmable outputs (`v1718::SendBUSY()`) to the VETO of the coïndidence module where the trigger signals originate from. As long as this signal is ON, no trigger can reach the TDCs anymore.

```
class v1718{
    private:
        int                 Handle;
        Data32              Data;           // Data
        CVIRQLevels         Level;          // Interrupt level
        CVAddressModifier   AM;             // Addressing Mode
        CVDataWidth         DataSize;       // Data Format
        Data32              BaseAddress;    // Base Address

    public:
        v1718(IniFile *inifile);
        ~v1718();
        long                GetHandle(void) const;
        int                 SetData(Data16 data);
        Data16              GetData(void);
        int                 SetLevel(CVIRQLevels level);
        CVIRQLevels         GetLevel(void);
        int                 SetAM(CVAddressModifier am);
        CVAddressModifier   GetAM(void);
        int                 SetDatasize(CVDataWidth datasize);
        CVDataWidth         GetDataSize(void);
        int                 SetBaseAddress(Data16 baseaddress);
        Data16              GetBaseAddress(void);
        void                CheckStatus(CVErrorCodes status) const;
        bool                CheckIRQ();
        void                SetPulsers();
        void                SendBUSY(BusyLevel level);
};
```

Source Code A.6: Description of C++ object `v1718`.

A.5.2 Configuration file

The DAQ software takes as input a configuration file written using INI standard [99]. This file is partly filled with the information provided by the shifters when starting data acquisition using the webDCS, as shown by Figure A.6. This information is written in section `[General]` and will later be stored in the ROOT file that contains the DAQ data as can be seen from Figure A.3. Indeed, another `TTree` called `RunParameters` as well as the 2 histograms `ID`, containing the scan number, start and stop time stamps, and `Triggers`, containing the number of triggers requested by the shifter, are available in the data files. Moreover, `ScanID` and `HV` are then used to construct the file name thanks to the method `DataReader::GetFileName()`.

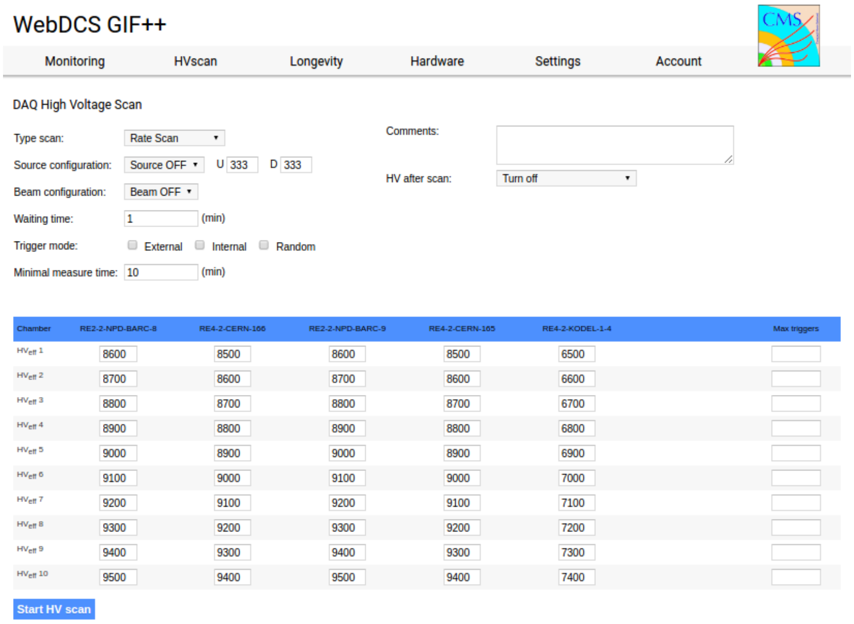


Figure A.6: WebDCS DAQ scan page. On this page, shifters need to choose the type of scan (Rate, Efficiency or Noise Reference scan), the gamma source configuration at the moment of data taking, the beam configuration, and the trigger mode. These information will be stored in the DAQ ROOT output. Are also given the minimal measurement time and waiting time after ramping up of the detectors is over before starting the data acquisition. Then, the list of HV points to scan and the number of triggers for each run of the scan are given in the table underneath.

The rest of the information is written beforehand in the configuration file template, as explicited in Source Code A.7, and contains the hardware addresses to the differents VME modules in the setup as well as settings for the TDCs. As the TDC settings available in the configuration file are not supposed to be modified, an improvement would be to remove them from the configuration file and to hardcode them inside of the DAQ code itself or to place them into a different INI file that would host only the TDC settings to lower the probability for a bad manipulation of the configuration file that can be modified from one of webDCS' menus.

3278

```
[General]
Tdcs=4
ScanID=$scanid
HV=$HV
RunType=$runtype
MaxTriggers=$maxtriggers
Beam=$beam
[VMEInterface]
Type=V1718
BaseAddress=0xFF0000
Name=VmeInterface
[TDC0]
Type=V1190A
BaseAddress=0x00000000
Name=Tdc0
StatusA00-15=1
StatusA16-31=1
StatusB00-15=1
StatusB16-31=1
StatusC00-15=1
StatusC16-31=1
StatusD00-15=1
StatusD16-31=1
[TDC1]
Type=V1190A
BaseAddress=0x11110000
Name=Tdc1
StatusA00-15=1
StatusA16-31=1
StatusB00-15=1
StatusB16-31=1
StatusC00-15=1
StatusC16-31=1
StatusD00-15=1
StatusD16-31=1
```

3279

```
[TDC2]
Type=V1190A
BaseAddress=0x22220000
Name=Tdc2
StatusA00-15=1
StatusA16-31=1
StatusB00-15=1
StatusB16-31=1
StatusC00-15=1
StatusC16-31=1
StatusD00-15=1
StatusD16-31=1
[TDC3]
Type=V1190A
BaseAddress=0x44440000
Name=Tdc3
StatusA00-15=1
StatusA16-31=1
StatusB00-15=1
StatusB16-31=1
StatusC00-15=1
StatusC16-31=1
StatusD00-15=1
StatusD16-31=1
[TDCSettings]
TriggerExtraSearchMargin=0
TriggerRejectMargin=0
TriggerTimeSubstraction=0b1
TdcDetectionMode=0b01
TdcResolution=0b10
TdcDeadTime=0b00
TdcHeadTrailer=0b1
TdcEventSize=0b1001
TdcTestMode=0b0
BLTMode=1
```

Source Code A.7: INI configuration file template for 4 TDCs. In section `[General]`, the number of TDCs is explicited and information about the ongoing run is given. Then, there are sections for each and every VME modules. There buffer addresses are given and for the TDCs, the list of channels to enable is given. Finally, in section `[TDCSettings]`, a part of the TDC settings are given.

In order to retreive the information of the configuration file, the object `IniFile` has been developped to provide an INI parser, presented in Source Code A.8. It contains private methods returning a boolean to check the type of line written in the file, whether a comment, a group header or a key line (`IniFile::CheckIfComment()`, `IniFile::CheckIfGroup()` and `IniFile::CheckIfToken()`). The key may sometimes be referred to as *token* in the source code. Moreover, the private element `FileData` is a map of `const string` to `string` that allows to store the data contained inside the configuration file via the public method `IniFile::GetFileData()` following the formatting (see method `IniFile::Read()`):

```
string group, token, value;
// Get the field values for the 3 strings.
// Then concatenate group and token together as a single string
// with a dot separation.
token = group + "." + token;
FileData[token] = value;
```

More methods have been written to translate the different keys into the right variable format when used by the DAQ. For example, to get a `float` value out of the configuration file data, knowing the group and the key needed, the method `IniFile::floatType()` can be used. It takes 3 arguments being the group name and key name (both `string`), and a default `float` value used as exception in the case the expected combination of group and key cannot be found in the configuration file. This default value is then used and the DAQ continues on working after sending an alert in the log file for further debugging.

```cpp
typedef map< const string, string > IniFileData;

class IniFile{
    private:
        bool        CheckIfComment(string line);
        bool        CheckIfGroup(string line,string& group);
        bool        CheckIfToken(string line,string& key,string& value);
        string      FileName;
        IniFileData FileData;
        int         Error;

    public:
        IniFile();
        IniFile(string filename);
        virtual    ~IniFile();

        // Basic file operations
        void        SetFileName(string filename);
        int         Read();
        int         Write();
        IniFileData GetFileData();

        // Data readout methods
        Data32      addressType (string groupname, string keyname, Data32 defaultvalue);
        long        intType     (string groupname, string keyname, long defaultvalue);
        long long   longType    (string groupname, string keyname, long long defaultvalue );
        string      stringType  (string groupname, string keyname, string defaultvalue );
        float       floatType   (string groupname, string keyname, float defaultvalue );

        // Error methods
        string      GetErrorMsg();
};
```

Source Code A.8: Description of C++ object `IniFile` used as a parser for INI file format.

A.5.3 WebDCS/DAQ intercommunication

When shifters send instructions to the DAQ via the configuration file, it is the webDCS itself that gives the start command to the DAQ and then the 2 softwares use inter-process communication through file to synchronise themselves. This communication file is represented by the variable `const string __runstatuspath`.

On one side, the webDCS sends commands or status that are readout by the DAQ:

- `INIT`, status sent when launching a scan and read via function `CtrlRunStatus(...)`,
- `START`, command to start data taking and read via function `CheckSTART()`,
- `STOP`, command to stop data taking at the end of the scan and read via function `CheckSTOP()`, and
- `KILL`, command to kill data taking sent by user and read via function `CheckKILL()`

and on the other, the DAQ sends status that are controled by the webDCS:

- `DAQ_RDY`, sent with `SendDAQReady()` to signify that the DAQ is ready to receive commands from the webDCS,
- `RUNNING`, sent with `SendDAQRunning()` to signify that the DAQ is taking data,
- `DAQ_ERR`, sent with `SendDAQError()` to signify that the DAQ didn't receive the expected command from the webDCS or that the launch command didn't have the right number of arguments,
- `RD_ERR`, sent when the DAQ wasn't able to read the communication file, and
- `WR_ERR`, sent when the DAQ wasn't able to write into the communication file.

A.5.4 Example of inter-process communication cycle

Under normal conditions, the webDCS and the DAQ processes exchange commands and status via the file hosted at the address `__runstatuspath`, as explained in subsection A.5.3. An example of cycle is given in Table A.1. In this example, the steps 3 to 5 are repeated as long as the webDCS tells the DAQ to take data. A data taking cycle is the equivalent as what is called a *Scan* in GIF++ jargon, referring to a set a runs with several HV steps. Each repetition of steps 3 to 5 is then equivalent to a single *Run*.

At any moment during the data taking, for any reason, the shifter can decide that the data taking needs to be stopped before it reached the end of the scheduled cycle. Thus at any moment on the cycle, the content of the inter-process communication file will be changed to `KILL` and the DAQ will shut down right away. The DAQ checks for `KILL` signals every 5s after the TDCs configuration is over. So far, the function `CheckKILL()` has been used only inside of the data taking loop of method `DataReader::Run()` and thus, if the shifter decides to KILL the data taking during the TDC configuration phase or the HV ramping in between 2 HV steps, the DAQ will not be stopped smoothly and a *force kill* command will be sent to stop the DAQ process that is still awake on the computer. Improvements can be brought on this part of the software to make sure that the DAQ can safely shutdown at any moment.

A.6 Software export

In section A.2 was discussed the fact that the DAQ as written in its last version is not a standalone software. It is possible to make it a standalone program that could be adapted to any VME setup using V1190A and V1718 modules by creating a GUI for the software or by printing the log messages that are normally printed in the webDCS through the log file, directly into the terminal. This method was used by the DAQ up to version 3.0 moment where the webDCS was completed. Also, it is possible to check branches of DAQ v2.X to have example of communication through a terminal.

DAQ v2.X is nontheless limited in it's possibilities and requires a lot of offline manual interventions from the users. Indeed, there is no communication of the software with the detectors' power supply system that would allow for a user a predefine a list of voltages to operate the detectors at

step	actions of webDCS	status of DAQ	`__runstatuspath`
1	launch DAQ ramp voltages ramping over wait for currents stabilization	readout of IniFfile configuration of TDCs	`INIT`
2		configuration done send DAQ ready wait for `START` signal	`DAQ_RDY`
3	waiting time over send `START`		`START`
4	wait for run to end monitor DAQ run status	data taking ongoing check for `KILL` signal	`RUNNING`
5		run over send `DAQ_RDY` wait for next DCS signal	`DAQ_RDY`
6	ramp voltages ramping over wait for currents stabilization		`DAQ_RDY`
3	waiting time over send `START`		`START`
4	wait for run to end monitor DAQ run status	update IniFile information data taking ongoing check for `KILL` signal	`RUNNING`
5		run over send `DAQ_RDY` wait for next DCS signal	`DAQ_RDY`
7	send command `STOP`	DAQ shuts down	`STOP`

Table A.1: Inter-process communication cycles in between the webDCS and the DAQ through file string signals.

and loop over to take data without any further manual intervention. In v2.X, the data is taken for a single detector setting and at the end of each run, the softwares asks the user if he intends on taking more runs. If so, the software invites the user to set the operating voltages accordingly to what is necessary and to manual update the configuration file in consequence. This working mode can be a very first approach before an evolution and has been successfuly used by colleagues from different collaborations.

For a more robust operation, it is recommanded to develop a GUI or a web application to interface the DAQ. Moreover, to limit the amount of manual interventions, and thus the probability to make mistakes, it is also recommanded to add an extra feature into the DAQ by installing the HV Wrapper library provided by CAEN of which an example of use in a similar DAQ software developped by a master student of UGent, and called TinyDAQ, is provided on UGent's github. Then, this HV Wrapper will help you communicating with and give instructions to a CAEN HV powered crate and can be added into the DAQ at the same level where the communication with the user was made in DAQ v2.X. In case you are using another kind of power system for your detectors, it is stringly adviced to use HV modules or crates that can be remotely controled via a using C++ libraries.

B

Details on the offline analysis package

The data collected in GIF++ thanks to the DAQ described in Appendix A is difficult to interpret by a human user that doesn't have a clear idea of the raw data architecture of the ROOT data files. In order to render the data human readable, a C++ offline analysis tool was designed to provide users with detector by detector histograms that give a clear overview of the parameters monitored during the data acquisition [100]. In this appendix, details about this software in the context of GIF++, as of how the software was written and how it functions will be given.

B.1 GIF++ Offline Analysis file tree

GIF++ Offline Analysis source code is fully available on github at `https://github.com/afagot/GIF_OfflineAnalysis`. The software requires ROOT as non-optionnal dependency as it takes ROOT files in input and write an output ROOT file containing histograms. To compile the GIF++ Offline Analysis project is compiled with cmake. To compile, first a `build/` directory must be created to compile from there:

```bash
mkdir build
cd build
cmake ..
make
make install
```

To clean the directory and create a new build directory, the bash script `cleandir.sh` can be used:

```bash
./cleandir.sh
```

The source code tree is provided below along with comments to give an overview of the files' content. The different objects created for this project (`Infrastructure`, `Trolley`, `RPC`, `Mapping`, `RPCHit`, `RPCCluster` and `Inifile`) will be described in details in the following sections.

```
GIF_OfflineAnalysis
├── bin
│   └── offlineanalysis ........................ EXECUTABLE
├── build ...................................... CMAKE COMPILATION DIRECTORY
│   └── ...
├── include .................................... LIST OF C++ HEADER FILES
│   ├── Cluster.h .............................. DECLARATION OF OBJECT RPCCLUSTER
│   ├── Current.h .............................. DECLARATION OF GETCURRENT ANALYSIS MACRO
│   ├── GIFTrolley.h ........................... DECLARATION OF OBJECT TROLLEY
│   ├── Infrastructure.h ....................... DECLARATION OF OBJECT INFRASTRUCTURE
│   ├── IniFile.h .............................. DECLARATION OF OBJECT INIFILE FOR INI PARSER
│   ├── Mapping.h .............................. DECLARATION OF OBJECT MAPPING
│   ├── MsgSvc.h ............................... DECLARATION OF OFFLINE LOG MESSAGES
│   ├── OfflineAnalysis.h ...................... DECLARATION OF DATA ANALYSIS MACRO
│   ├── RPCDetector.h .......................... DECLARATION OF OBJECT RPC
│   ├── RPCHit.h ............................... DECLARARION OF OBJECT RPCHIT
│   ├── types.h ................................ DEFINITION OF USEFUL VARIABLE TYPES
│   └── utils.h ................................ DECLARATION OF USEFUL FUNCTIONS
├── obj ........................................ BINARY FILES CREATED BY COMPILER
│   └── ...
├── src ........................................ LIST OF C++ SOURCE FILES
│   ├── Cluster.cc ............................. DEFINITION OF OBJECT RPCCLUSTER
│   ├── Current.cc ............................. DEFINITION OF GETCURRENT ANALYSIS MACRO
│   ├── GIFTrolley.cc .......................... DEFINITION OF OBJECT TROLLEY
│   ├── Infrastructure.cc ...................... DEFINITION OF OBJECT INFRASTRUCTURE
│   ├── IniFile.cc ............................. DEFINITION OF OBJECT INIFILE FOR INI PARSER
│   ├── main.cc ................................ MAIN FILE
│   ├── Mapping.cc ............................. DEFINITION OF OBJECT MAPPING
│   ├── MsgSvc.cc .............................. DEFINITION OF OFFLINE LOG MESSAGES
│   ├── OfflineAnalysis.cc ..................... DEFINITION OF DATA ANALYSIS MACRO
│   ├── RPCDetector.cc ......................... DEFINITION OF OBJECT RPC
│   ├── RPCHit.cc .............................. DEFINITION OF OBJECT RPCHIT
│   └── utils.cc ............................... DEFINITION OF USEFUL FUNCTIONS
├── cleandir.sh ................................ BASH SCRIPT TO CLEAN BUILD DIRECTORY
├── CMakeLists.txt ............................. SET OF INSTRUCTIONS FOR CMAKE
├── config.h.in ................................ DEFINITION OF VERSION NUMBER
└── README.md .................................. REAMDE FILE FOR GITHUB
```

B.2 Usage of the Offline Analysis

In order to use the Offline Analysis tool, it is necessary to know the Scan number and the HV Step of the run that needs to be analysed. This information needs to be written in the following format:

```
Scan00XXXX_HVY
```

where `XXXX` is the scan ID and `Y` is the high voltage step (in case of a high voltage scan, data will be taken for several HV steps). This format corresponds to the base name of data files in the database of the GIF++ webDCS. Usually, the offline analysis tool is automatically called by the webDCS at the end of data taking or by a user from the webDCS panel if an update of the tool was brought. Nontheless, an expert can locally launch the analysis for tests on the GIF++ computer, or a user can get the code on is local machine from github and download data from the webDCS for is own analysis. To launch the code, the following command can be used from the `GIF_OfflineAnalysis` folder:

```
bin/offlineanalysis /path/to/Scan00XXXX_HVY
```

where, `/path/to/Scan00XXXX_HVY` refers to the local data files. Then, the offline tool will by itself take care of finding all available ROOT data files present in the folder, as listed bellow:

- `Scan00XXXX_HVY_DAQ.root` containing the TDC data as described in Appendix **??** (events, hit and timestamp lists), and
- `Scan00XXXX_HVY_CAEN.root` containing the CAEN mainframe data recorded by the monitoring tool webDCS during data taking (HVs and currents of every HV channels). This file is created independently of the DAQ.

B.2.1 Output of the offline tool

B.2.1.1 ROOT file

The analysis gives in output ROOT datafiles that are saved into the data folder and called using the naming convention `Scan00XXXX_HVY_Offline.root`. Inside those, a list of `TH1` histograms can be found. Its size will vary as a function of the number of detectors in the setup as each set of histograms is produced detector by detector. For each partition of each chamber, can be found:

- `Time_Profile_Tt_Sc_p` shows the time profile of all recorded events (number of events per time bin),
- `Hit_Profile_Tt_Sc_p` shows the hit profile of all recorded events (number of events per channel),
- `Hit_Multiplicity_Tt_Sc_p` shows the hit multiplicity (number of hits per event) of all recorded events (number of occurences per multiplicity bin),
- `Strip_Mean_Noise_Tt_Sc_p` shows noise/gamma rate per unit area for each strip in a selected time range. After filters are applied on `Time_Profile_Tt_Sc_p`, the filtered version of `Hit_Profile_Tt_Sc_p` is normalised to the total integrated time and active detection area of a single channel,
- `Strip_Activity_Tt_Sc_p` shows noise/gamma activity for each strip (normalised version of previous histogram - strip activity = strip rate / average partition rate),
- `Strip_Homogeneity_Tt_Sc_p` shows the *homogeneity* of a given partition (homogeneity = exp(-strip rates standard deviation(strip rates in partition/average partition rate))),
- `mask_Strip_Mean_Noise_Tt_Sc_p` shows noise/gamma rate per unit area for each masked strip in a selected time range. Offline, the user can control the noise/gamma rate and decide to mask the strips that are judged to be noisy or dead. This is done via the *Masking Tool* provided by the webDCS,

- `mask_Strip_Activity_Tt_Sc_p` shows noise/gamma activity per unit area for each masked strip with repect to the average rate of active strips,
- `NoiseCSize_H_Tt_Sc_p` shows noise/gamma cluster size, a cluster being constructed out of adjacent strips giving a signal at the *same time* (hits within a time window of 25 ns),
- `NoiseCMult_H_Tt_Sc_p` shows noise/gamma cluster multiplicity (number of reconstructed clusters per event),
- `Chip_Mean_Noise_Tt_Sc_p` shows the same information than `Strip_Mean_Noise_Tt_Scp` using a different binning (1 chip corresponds to 8 strips),
- `Chip_Activity_Tt_Sc_p` shows the same information than `Strip_Activity_Tt_Scp` using chip binning,
- `Chip_Homogeneity_Tt_Sc_p` shows the homogeneity of a given partition using chip binning,
- `Beam_Profile_Tt_Sc_p` shows the estimated beam profile when taking efficiency scan. This is obtained by filtering `Time_Profile_Tt_Sc_p` to only consider the muon peak where the noise/gamma background has been subtracted. The resulting hit profile corresponds to the beam profile on the detector channels,
- `L0_Efficiency_Tt_Sc_p` shows the level 0 efficiency that was estimated **without** muon tracking,
- `MuonCSize_H_Tt_Sc_p` shows the level 0 muon cluster size that was estimated **without** muon tracking, and
- `MuonCMult_H_Tt_Sc_p` shows the level 0 muon cluster multiplicity that was estimated **without** muon tracking.

In the histogram labels, `t` stands for the trolley number (1 or 3), `c` for the chamber slot label in trolley `t` and `p` for the partition label (A, B, C or D depending on the chamber layout) as explained in Chapter 5.3.

In the context of GIF++, an extra script called by the webDCS is called to extract the histograms from the ROOT files. The histograms are then stored in PNG and PDF formats into the corresponding folder (a single folder per HV step, so per ROOT file). the goal is to then display the histograms on the Data Quality Monitoring (DQM) page of the webDCS in order for the users to control the quality of the data taking at the end of data taking. An example of histogram organisation is given bellow:

```
Scan001000
├── Scan001000_HV1_DAQ.root
├── Scan001000_HV1_CAEN.root
├── Scan001000_HV1_Offline.root
├── HV1
│   ├── DAQ
│   │   ├── Beam_Profile_T1_S1_A.png
│   │   ├── Beam_Profile_T1_S1_A.pdf
│   │   ├── Beam_Profile_T1_S1_B.png
│   │   ├── Beam_Profile_T1_S1_B.pdf
│   │   └── ...
│   └── CAEN
│       ├── HVapp_Example_RPC1.pdf
│       ├── HVapp_Example_RPC1.png
│       ├── HVapp_Example_RPC1.pdf
│       ├── HVapp_Example_RPC1.png
│       └── ...
├── Scan001000_HV2_DAQ.root
├── Scan001000_HV2_CAEN.root
├── Scan001000_HV2_Offline.root
├── HV2
│   ├── DAQ
│   │   └── ...
│   └── CAEN
│       └── ...
├── Scan001000_HV3_DAQ.root
├── Scan001000_HV3_CAEN.root
├── Scan001000_HV3_Offline.root
├── HV3
│   └── ...
└── ...
```

Here can put some screens from the webDCS to show the DQM and the plots available to users.

B.2.1.2 CSV files

Moreover, up to 3 CSV files can be created depending on which ones of the 3 input files were in the data folder:

- `Offline-Corrupted.csv` , is used to keep track of the amount of data that was corrupted and removed from old data format files that don't contain any data quality flag.

- `Offline-Current.csv` , contains the summary of the currents and voltages applied on each RPC HV channel.

- `Offline-L0-EffCl.csv` , is used to write the efficiencies, cluster size and cluster multiplicity of efficiency runs. Note that `L0` refers here to *Level 0* and means that the results of effiency and clusterization are a first approximation calculated without performing any muon tracking in between the different detectors. This offline tool provides the user with a preliminar calculation of the efficiency and of the muon event parameters. Another analysis software especially dedicated to muon tracking is called on selected data to retrieve the results of efficiency and muon clusterization using a tracking algorithm to discriminate noise or gamma from muons as muons are the only particles that pass through the full setup, leaving hits than can be used to reconstruct their tracks.

- `Offline-Rate.csv` , is used to write the noise or gamma rates measured in the detector readout partitions.

Note that these 4 CSV files are created along with their *headers* (`Offline-[...]-Header.csv` containing the names of each data columns) and are automatically merged together when the offline analysis tool is called from the webDCS, contrary to the case where the tool is runned locally from the terminal as the merging bash script is then not called. Thus, the resulting files, used to make official plots, are:

- `Corrupted.csv` ,
- `Current.csv` ,
- `L0-EffCl.csv` .
- `Rate.csv` .

B.3 Analysis inputs and information handling

The usage of the Offline Analysis tool as well as its output have been presented in the previous section. It is now important to dig further and start looking at the source code and the inputs necessary for the tool to work. Indeed, other than the raw ROOT data files that are analysed, more information needs to be imported inside of the program to perform the analysis such as the description of the setup inside of GIF++ at the time of data taking (number of trolleys, of RPCs, dimensions of the detectors, etc...) or the mapping that links the TDC channels to the coresponding RPC channels in order to translate the TDC information into human readable data. 2 files are used to transmit all this information:

- `Dimensions.ini`, that provides the necessary setup and RPC information, and
- `ChannelsMapping.csv`, that gives the link between the TDC and RPC channels as well as the *mask* for each channel (masked or not?).

B.3.1 Dimensions file and IniFile parser

This input file, present in every data folder, allows the analysis tool to know of the number of active trolleys, the number of active RPCs in those trolleys, and the details about each RPCs such as the number of RPC gaps, the number of pseudo-rapidity partitions (for CMS-like prototypes), the number of strips per partion or the dimensions. To do so, there are 3 types of groups in the INI file architecture. A first general group, appearing only once at the head of the document, gives information about the number of active trolleys as well as their IDs, as presented in Source Code B.1. For each active trolley, a group similar to Source Code B.2 can be found containing information about the number of active detectors in the trolley and their IDs. Each trolley group as a `Tt` name format, where `t` is the trolley ID. Finally, for each detector stored in slots of an active trolley, there is a group providing information about their names and dimensions, as shown in Source Code B.3. Each slot group as a `TtSs` name format, where `s` is the slot ID of trolley `t` where the active RPC is hosted.

```
[General]
nTrolleys=2
TrolleysID=13
```

Source Code B.1: Example of **`[General]`** *group as might be found in `Dimensions.ini`. In GIF++, only 2 trolleys are available to hold RPCs and place them inside of the bunker for irradiation. The IDs of the trolleys are written in a signle string as "13" and then read character by character by the program.*

```
[T1]
nSlots=4
SlotsID=1234
```

Source Code B.2: Example of trolley group as might be found in `Dimensions.ini`. In this example, the file tells that there are 4 detectors placed in the holding slots of the trolley `T1` and that their IDs, written as a single string variable, are 1, 2, 3 and 4.

```
[T1S1]
Name=RE2-2-NPD-BARC-8
Partitions=3
Gaps=3
Gap1=BOT
Gap2=TN
Gap3=TW
AreaGap1=11694.25
AreaGap2=6432
AreaGap3=4582.82
Strips=32
ActiveArea-A=157.8
ActiveArea-B=121.69
ActiveArea-C=93.03
```

Source Code B.3: Example of slot group as might be found in `Dimensions.ini`. In this example, the file provides information about a detector named `RE2-2-NPD-BARC-8`, having 3 pseudo-rapidity readout partitions and stored in slot `S1` of trolley `T1`. This is a CMS RE2-2 type of detector. This information will then be used for example to compute the rate per unit area calculation.

This information is readout and stored in a C++ object called `IniFile`, that parses the information in the INI input file and stores it into a local buffer for later use. This INI parser is the exact same one that was previously developped for the GIF++ DAQ and described in Appendix A.5.2.

B.3.2 TDC to RPC link file and Mapping

The same way the INI dimension file information is stored using `map`, the channel mapping and mask information is stored and accessed through `map`. First of all, the mapping CSV file is organised into 3 columns separated by tabulations (and not by comas, as expected for CSV files as it is easier using streams to read tab or space separated data using C++):

```
RPC_channel        TDC_channel        mask
```

using as formatting for each field:

```
TSCCC        TCCC        M
```

`TSCCC` is a 5-digit integer where `T` is the trolley ID, `S` the slot ID in which the RPC is held insite the trolley `T` and `CCC` is the RPC channel number, or *strip* number, that can take values up to 3-digits depending on the detector,

`TCCC` is a 4 digit integer where `T` is the TDC ID, `CCC` is the TDC channel number that can take values in between 0 and 127, and

`M` is a 1-digit integer indicating if the channel should be considered (`M` $= 1$) or discarded (`M` $= 0$) during analysis.

This mapping and masking information is readout and stored thanks to the object `Mapping`, presented in Source Code B.4. Similarly to `IniFile` objects, this class has private methods. The first one, `Mapping::CheckIfNewLine()` is used to find the newline character `'\n'` or return character `'\r'` (depending on which kind of operating system interacted with the file). This is used for the simple reason that the masking information has been introduced only during the year 2017 but the channel mapping files exist since 2015 and the very beginning of data taking at GIF++. This means that in the older data folders, before the upgrade, the channel mapping file only had 2 columns, the RPC channel and the TDC channel. For compatibility reasons, this method helps controling the character following the readout of the 2 first fields of a line. In case any end of line character is found, no mask information is present in the file and the default `M` $= 1$ is used. On the contrary, if the next character was a tabulation or a space, the mask information is present.

Once the 3 fields have been readout, the second private method `Mapping::CheckIfTDCCh()` is used to control that the TDC channel is an existing TDC channel. Finally, the information is stored into 3 different maps (`Link`, `ReverseLink` and `Mask`) thanks to the public method `Mapping::Read()`. `Link` allows to get the RPC channel by knowing the TDC channel while `ReverseLink` does the opposite by returning the TDC channel by knowing the RPC channel. Finally, `Mask` returns the mask associated to a given RPC channel.

```
typedef map<Uint,Uint> MappingData;

class Mapping {
    private:
        bool        CheckIfNewLine(char next);
        bool        CheckIfTDCCh(Uint channel);
        string      FileName;
        MappingData Link;
        MappingData ReverseLink;
        MappingData Mask;
        int         Error;

    public:
        Mapping();
        Mapping(string baseName);
        ~Mapping();

        void SetFileName(const string filename);
        int Read();
        Uint GetLink(Uint tdcchannel);
        Uint GetReverse(Uint rpcchannel);
        Uint GetMask(Uint rpcchannel);
};
```

Source Code B.4: Description of C++ object `Mapping` used as a parser for the channel mapping and mask file.

B.4 Description of GIF++ setup within the Offline Analysis tool

In the previous section, the tool input files have been discussed. The dimension file information is stored in a map hosted by the IniFile object. But this information is then used to create a series of new objects that helps defining the GIF++ infrastructure directly into the Offline Analysis. Indeed, from the `RPC`, to the more general `Infrastructure`, every element of the GIF++ infrastrucutre is recreated for each data analysis based on the information provided in input. All this information about the infrastructure will be used to assign each hit signal to a specific strip channel of a specific detector, and having a specific active area. This way, rate per unit area calculation is possible.

B.4.1 RPC objects

`RPC` objects have been developped to represent physical active detectors in GIF++ at the moment of data taking. Thus, there are as many RPC objects created during the analysis than there were active RPCs tested during a run. Each `RPC` hosts the information present in the corresponding INI slot group, as shown in B.3, and organises it using a similar architecture. This can been seen from Source Code B.5.

To make the object more compact, the lists of gap labels, of gap active areas and strip active areas are stored into `vector` dynamical containers. `RPC` objects are always contructed thanks to the dimension file information stored into the `IniFIle` and their ID, using the format `TtSs`. Using the RPC ID, the constructor calls the methods of `IniFile` to initialise the `RPC`. The other constructors are not used but exist in case of need. Finally, some getters have been written to access the different private parameters storing the detector information.

```
class RPC{
    private:
        string          name;        //RPC name as in webDCS database
        Uint            nGaps;       //Number of gaps in the RPC
        Uint            nPartitions; //Number of partitions in the RPC
        Uint            nStrips;     //Number of strips per partition
        vector<string>  gaps;        //List of gap labels (BOT, TOP, etc...)
        vector<float>   gapGeo;      //List of gap active areas
        vector<float>   stripGeo;    //List of strip active areas

    public:
        RPC();
        RPC(string ID, IniFile* geofile);
        RPC(const RPC& other);
        ~RPC();
        RPC& operator=(const RPC& other);

        string GetName();
        Uint   GetNGaps();
        Uint   GetNPartitions();
        Uint   GetNStrips();
        string GetGap(Uint g);
        float  GetGapGeo(Uint g);
        float  GetStripGeo(Uint p);
};
```

Source Code B.5: Description of C++ objects `RPC` *that describe each active detectors used during data taking.*

B.4.2 Trolley objects

`Trolley` objects have been developped to represent physical active trolleys in GIF++ at the moment of data taking. Thus, there are as many trolley objects created during the analysis than there were active trolleys hosting tested RPCs during a run. Each `Trolley` hosts the information present in the corresponding INI trolley group, as shown in B.2, and organises it using a similar architecture. In addition to the information hosted in the INI file, these object have a dynamical container of `RPC` objects, representing the active detectors the active trolley was hosting at the time of data taking. This can been seen from Source Code B.6.

`Trolley` objects are always contructed thanks to the dimension file information stored into the `IniFIle` and their ID, using the format `Tt`. Using the Trolley ID, the constructor calls the methods of `IniFile` to initialise the `Trolley`. Retrieving the information of the RPC IDs via `SlotsID`, a new `RPC` is constructed and added to the container `RPCs` for each character in the ID `string`. The other constructors are not used but exist in case of need. Finally, some getters have been written to access the different private parameters storing the trolley and detectors information.

```
class Trolley{
    private:
        Uint          nSlots;   //Number of active RPCs in the considered trolley
        string        SlotsID;  //Active RPC IDs written into a string
        vector<RPC*> RPCs;     //List of active RPCs

    public:
        //Constructors, destructor and operator =
        Trolley();
        Trolley(string ID, IniFile* geofile);
        Trolley(const Trolley& other);
        ~Trolley();
        Trolley& operator=(const Trolley& other);

        //Get GIFTrolley members
        Uint   GetNSlots();
        string GetSlotsID();
        Uint   GetSlotID(Uint s);

        //Manage RPC list
        RPC*   GetRPC(Uint r);
        void   DeleteRPC(Uint r);

        //Methods to get members of RPC objects stored in RPCs
        string GetName(Uint r);
        Uint   GetNGaps(Uint r);
        Uint   GetNPartitions(Uint r);
        Uint   GetNStrips(Uint r);
        string GetGap(Uint r, Uint g);
        float  GetGapGeo(Uint r, Uint g);
        float  GetStripGeo(Uint r, Uint p);
};
```

Source Code B.6: Description of C++ objects `Trolley` that describe each active trolley used during data taking.

B.4.3 Infrastructure object

The `Infrastructure` object has been developped to represent the GIF++ bunker area dedicated to CMS RPC experiments. With this very specific object, all the information about the CMS RPC setup within GIF++ at the moment of data taking is stored. It hosts the information present in the corresponding INI general group, as shown in B.1, and organises it using a similar architecture. In addition to the information hosted in the INI file, this object have a dynamical container of `Trolley` objects, representing the active tolleys in GIF++ area. This can been seen from Source Code B.7.

The `Infrastructure` object is always contructed thanks to the dimension file information stored into the `IniFIle`. Retrieving the information of the trolley IDs via `TrolleysID`, a new `Trolley` is constructed and added to the container `Trolleys` for each character in the ID `string`. By extension, it is easy to understand that the process described in Section B.4.2 for the construction of RPCs takes place when a trolley is constructed. The other constructors are not used but exist in case of need. Finally, some getters have been written to access the different private parameters storing the infrastructure, trolleys and detectors information.

```
class Infrastructure {
    private:
        Uint              nTrolleys;  //Number of active Trolleys in the run
        string            TrolleysID; //Active trolley IDs written into a string
        vector<Trolley*> Trolleys;    //List of active Trolleys (struct)

    public:
        //Constructors and destructor
        Infrastructure();
        Infrastructure(IniFile* geofile);
        Infrastructure(const Infrastructure& other);
        ~Infrastructure();
        Infrastructure& operator=(const Infrastructure& other);

        //Get Infrastructure members
        Uint   GetNTrolleys();
        string GetTrolleysID();
        Uint   GetTrolleyID(Uint t);

        //Manage Trolleys
        Trolley* GetTrolley(Uint t);
        void     DeleteTrolley(Uint t);

        //Methods to get members of GIFTrolley objects stored in Trolleys
        Uint   GetNSlots(Uint t);
        string GetSlotsID(Uint t);
        Uint   GetSlotID(Uint t, Uint s);
        RPC*   GetRPC(Uint t, Uint r);

        //Methods to get members of RPC objects stored in RPCs
        string GetName(Uint t, Uint r);
        Uint   GetNGaps(Uint t, Uint r);
        Uint   GetNPartitions(Uint t, Uint r);
        Uint   GetNStrips(Uint t, Uint r);
        string GetGap(Uint t, Uint r, Uint g);
        float  GetGapGeo(Uint t, Uint r, Uint g);
        float  GetStripGeo(Uint t, Uint r, Uint p);
};
```

Source Code B.7: Description of C++ object `Infrastructure` *that contains the full information about CMS RPC experiment in GIF++.*

B.5 Handeling of data

As discussed in Appendix A.4.2, the raw data as a `TTree` architecture where every entry is related to a trigger signal provided by a muon or a random pulse, whether the goal of the data taking was to measure the performance of the detector or the noise/gamma background respectively. Each of these entries, referred also as events, contain a more or less full list of hits in the TDC channels to which the detectors are connected. To this list of hits corresponds a list of time stamps, marking the arrival of the hits within the TDC channel.

The infrastructure of the CMS RPC experiment within GIF++ being defined, combining the information about the raw data with the information provided by both the mapping/mask file and the dimension file allows to build new physical objects that will help in computing efficiency or rates.

B.5.1 RPC hits

The raw data stored in the ROOT file as output of the GIF++ DAQ, is readout by the analysis tool using the structure `RAWData` presented in Source Code B.9 that differs from the structure presented in Appendix A.4.2 as it is not meant to hold all of the data contained in the ROOT file. In this sense, this structure is in the case of the offline analysis tool not a dynamical object and will only be storing a single event contained in a single entry of the `TTree`.

```
class RPCHit {
    private:
        Uint  Channel;    //RPC channel according to mapping (5 digits)
        Uint  Trolley;    //0, 1 or 3 (1st digit of the RPC channel)
        Uint  Station;    //Slot where is held the RPC in Trolley (2nd digit)
        Uint  Strip;      //Physical RPC strip where the hit occured (last 3
 ↪  digits)
        Uint  Partition;  //Readout partition along eta segmentation
        float TimeStamp;  //Time stamp of the arrival in TDC

    public:
        //Constructors, destructor & operator =
        RPCHit();
        RPCHit(Uint channel, float time, Infrastructure* Infra);
        RPCHit(const RPCHit& other);
        ~RPCHit();
        RPCHit& operator=(const RPCHit& other);

        //Get RPCHit members
        Uint  GetChannel();
        Uint  GetTrolley();
        Uint  GetStation();
        Uint  GetStrip();
        Uint  GetPartition();
        float GetTime();
};

typedef vector<RPCHit> HitList;
typedef struct GIFHitList { HitList rpc[NTROLLEYS][NSLOTS][NPARTITIONS]; }
 ↪  GIFHitList;

bool SortHitbyStrip(RPCHit h1, RPCHit h2);
bool SortHitbyTime(RPCHit h1, RPCHit h2);
```

Source Code B.8: Description of C++ object `RPCHit`.

```
struct RAWData{
    int             iEvent;    //Event i
    int             TDCNHits;  //Number of hits in event i
    int             QFlag;     //Quality flag list (1 flag digit per TDC)
    vector<Uint>   *TDCCh;     //List of channels giving hits per event
    vector<float>  *TDCTS;     //List of the corresponding time stamps
};
```

Source Code B.9: Description of C++ structure `RAWData`.

Each member of the structure in then linked to the corresponding branch of the ROOT data tree, as shown in the example of Source Code B.10, and using the method `GetEntry(int i)` of the ROOT class `TTree` will update the state of the members of `RAWData`.

```
TTree*  dataTree = (TTree*)dataFile.Get("RAWData");
RAWData data;

dataTree->SetBranchAddress("EventNumber",     &data.iEvent);
dataTree->SetBranchAddress("number_of_hits", &data.TDCNHits);
dataTree->SetBranchAddress("Quality_flag",    &data.QFlag);
dataTree->SetBranchAddress("TDC_channel",     &data.TDCCh);
dataTree->SetBranchAddress("TDC_TimeStamp",   &data.TDCTS);
```

Source Code B.10: Example of link in between RAWData and TTree.

The data is then analysed entry by entry and to each element of the TDC channel list, a `RPCHit` is constructed by linking each TDC channel to the corresponding RPC channel thanks to the `Mapping` object. The information carried by the RPC channel format allows to easily retrieve the trolley and slot from which the hit was recorded (see section B.3.2). Using these 2 values, the readout partition can be found by knowing the strip channel and comparing it with the number of partitions and strips per partition stored into the `Infrastructure` object.

Thus `RPCHit` objects are then stored into 3D dynamical list called `GIFHitList` (Source Code B.9) where the 3 dimensions refer to the 3 layers of the readout in GIF++ : in the bunker there are *trolleys* (`T`) holding detectors in *slots* (`S`) and each detector readout is divided into 1 or more pseudo-rapidity *partitions* (`p`). Using these 3 information allows to assign an address to each readout partition and this address will point to a specific hit list.

B.5.2 Clusters of hits

All the hits contained in the ROOT file have been sorted into the different hit lists through the `GIFHitList`. At this point, it is possible to start looking for clusters. A cluster is a group of adjacent strips getting hits within a time window of 25 ns. These strips are then assumed to be part of the same physical avalanch signal generated by a muon passing through the chamber or by the interaction of a gamma stopping into the electrodes of the RPCs.

To keep the cluster information, `RPCCluster` objects have been defined as shown in Source Code B.11. Using the information of each individual `RPCHit` taken out of the hit list, it stores the cluster size (number of adjacent strips composing the cluster), the first and last hit, the center for spatial reconstruction and finally the start and stop time stamps as well as te time spread in between the first and last hit.

```
class RPCCluster{
    private:
        Uint  ClusterSize;  //Size of cluster #ID
        Uint  FirstStrip;   //First strip of cluster #ID
        Uint  LastStrip;    //Last strip of cluster #ID
        float Center;       //Center of cluster #ID ((first+last)/2)
        float StartStamp;   //Time stamp of the earliest hit of cluster #ID
        float StopStamp;    //Time stamp of the latest hit of cluster #ID
        float TimeSpread;   //Time difference between earliest and latest hits
                            //of cluster #ID
    public:
        //Constructors, destructor & operator =
        RPCCluster();
        RPCCluster(HitList List, Uint cID, Uint cSize, Uint first, Uint firstID);
        RPCCluster(const RPCCluster& other);
        ~RPCCluster();
        RPCCluster& operator=(const RPCCluster& other);

        //Get Cluster members
        Uint GetID();
        Uint GetSize();
        Uint GetFirstStrip();
        Uint GetLastStrip();
        float GetCenter();
        float GetStart();
        float GetStop();
        float GetSpread();
};

typedef vector<RPCCluster> ClusterList;

//Other functions to build cluster lists out of hit lists
void BuildClusters(HitList &cluster, ClusterList &clusterList);
void Clusterization(HitList &hits, TH1 *hcSize, TH1 *hcMult);
```

Source Code B.11: Description of C++ object `Cluster`.

To investigate the hit list of a given detector partition, the function `Clusterization()` definied in `include/Cluster.h` needs the hits in the list to be time sorted. This is achieved by calling function `sort()` of library `<algorithm>` using the comparator `SortHitbyTime(RPCHit h1, RPCHit h2)` defined in `include/RPCHit.h` that returns `true` if the time stamp of hit `h1` is lower than that of `h2`. A first isolation of strips is made only based on time information. All the hits within the $25\,\mathrm{ns}$ window are taken separately from the rest. Then, this sub-list of hits is sorted this time by ascending strip number, using this time the comparator `SortHitbyStrip(RPCHit h1, RPCHit h2)`. Finally, the groups of adjacent strips are used to construct `RPCCluster` objects that are then stored in a temporary list of clusters that is at the end of the process used to know how many clusters were reconstructed and to fill their sizes into an histogram that will allows to know the mean size of muon or gamma clusters.

B.6 DAQ data Analysis

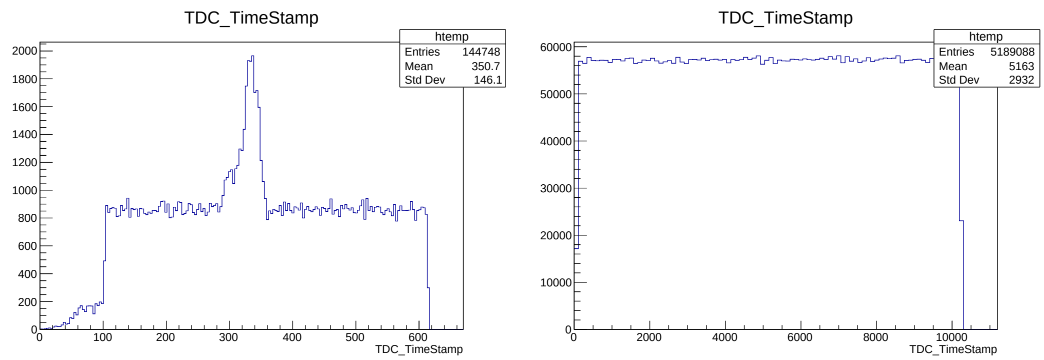
All the ingredients to analyse GIF++ data have been defined. This section will focus on the different part of the analysis performed on the data, from determining the type of data the tool is dealing with to calculating the rate in each detector or reconstructing muon or gamma clusters.

B.6.1 Determination of the run type

In GIF++, both the performance of the detectors in detecting muons in an irradiated environment and the gamma background can be independantly measured. These corresponds to different run types and thus, to different TDC settings giving different data to look at.

In the case of performance measurements, the trigger for data taking is provided by the coïncidence of several scintillators when muons from the beam passing through the area are detected. Data is collected in a 600 ns wide window around the arrival of muons in the RPCs. The expected time distribution of hits is shown in Figure B.1a. The muon peak is clearly visible in the center of the distribution and is to be extracted from the gamma background that composes the flat part of the distribution.

On the other hand, gamma background or noise measurements are focussed on the non muon related physics and the trigger needs to be independant from the muons to give a good measurement of the gamma/noise distribution as seen by the detectors. The trigger is then provided by a pulse generator at a frequency of 300 Hz whose pulse is not likely to be on time with a muon. In order to increase the integrated time without increasing the acquisition time too much, the width of the acquisition windows are increased to 10 μs. The time distribution of the hits is expected to be flat, as shown by Figure B.1b.



(a) *(b)*

Figure B.1: Example of expected hit time distributions in the cases of efficiency (Figure B.1a) and noise/gamma rate per unit area (Figure B.1b) measurements as extracted from the raw ROOT files. The unit along the x-axis corresponds to ns. *The fact that "the" muon peak is not well defined in Figure B.1a is due to the contribution of all the RPCs being tested at the same time that don't necessarily have the same signal arrival time. Each individual peak can have an offset with the ones of other detectors. The inconsistancy in the first* 100 ns *of both time distributions is an artefact of the TDCs and are systematically rejected during the analysis.*

The ROOT files include a `TTree` called `RunParameters` containing, among other things, the information related to the type of run. The run type can then be accessed as described by Source Code B.12 and the function `IsEfficiencyRun()` is then used to determine if the run file is an efficiency run or, on the contrary, another type of run (noise or gamma measurement).

```
TTree* RunParameters = (TTree*)dataFile.Get("RunParameters");
TString* RunType = new TString();
RunParameters->SetBranchAddress("RunType",&RunType);
RunParameters->GetEntry(0);
```

Source Code B.12: Access to the run type contained in `TTree* RunParameters`.

Finally, the data files will have a slightly different content whether it was collected before or after October 2017 and the upgrade of the DAQ software that brought a new information into the ROOT output. This is discussed in Appendix A.4.3 and implies that the analysis will differ a little depending on the data format. Indeed, as no information on the data quality is stored, in older data files, the corrections for missing events has to be done at the end of the analysis. The information about the type of data format is stored in the variable `bool isNewFormat` by checking the list of branches contained in the data tree via the methods `TTree::GetListOfBranches()` and `TCollection::Contains()`.

B.6.2 Beam time window calculation for efficiency runs

Knowing the run type is important first of all to know the width of the acquisition window to be used for the rate calculation and finally to be able to seek for muons. Indeed, the peak that appears in the time distribution for each detectors is then fitted to extract the most probable time window in which the tool should look for muon hits. The data outside of this time window in then used to evaluate the noise or gamma background the detector was subjected to during the data taking. Computing the position of the peak is done calling the function `SetBeamWindow()` defined in file `src/RPCHit.cc` that loops a first time on the data. The data is first sorted in a 3D array of 1D histograms (`GIFH1Array`, see `include/types.h`). Then the location of the highest bin is determined using `TH1::GetMaximumBin()` and is used to define a window in which a gaussian fit will be applied to compute the peak width. This window is a $80\,\mathrm{ns}$ defined by Formula B.1 around the central bin.

$$t_{center}(ns) = bin \times width_{bin}(ns) \tag{B.1a}$$

$$[t_{low}; t_{high}] = [t_{center} - 40; t_{center} + 40] \tag{B.1b}$$

Before the fit is performed, the average number of noise/gamma hits per bin is evaluated using the data outside of the fit window. Excluding the first $100\,\mathrm{ns}$, the average number of hits per bin due to the noise or gamma is defined by Formula B.2 after extracting the amount of hits in the time windows $[100; t_{low}]$ and $[t_{high}; 600]$ thanks to the method `TH1::Integral()`. This average number of hits is then subtracted to every bin of the 1D histogram, in order to *clean* it from the noise or gamma contribution as much as possible to improve the fit quality. Bins where $\langle n_{hits} \rangle$ is greater than the actual bin content are set to 0.

$$\Delta t_{noise}(ns) = 600 \overbrace{- t_{high} + t_{low}}^{-80ns} - 100 = 420ns \tag{B.2a}$$

$$\langle n_{hits} \rangle = width_{bin}(ns) \times \frac{\sum_{t=100}^{t_{low}} + \sum_{t=t_{high}}^{600}}{\Delta t_{noise}(ns)} \tag{B.2b}$$

Finally, the fit parameters are extracted and saved for each detector in 3D arrays of `float` (`muonPeak`, see `include/types.h`), a first one for the mean arrival time of the muons, `PeakTime`, and a second one for the width of the peak, `PeakWidth`. The width is defined as 6σ of the gaussian fit. The same settings are applied to every partitions of the same detector. To determine which one of the detector's partitions is directly illuminated by the beam, the peak height of each partition is compared and the highest one is then used to define the peak settings.

B.6.3 Data loop and histogram filling

3D arrays of histogram are created to store the data and display it on the DQM of GIF++ webDCS for the use of shifters. These histograms, presented in section B.2.1.1, are filled while looping on the data. Before starting the analysis loop, it is necessary to control the entry quality for the new file formats featuring `QFlag`. If the `QFlag` value for this entry shows that 1 TDC or more have a `CORRUPTED` flag, then this event is discarded. The loss of statistics is low enough to be neglected. `QFlag` is controled using the function `IsCorruptedEvent()` defined in `src/utils.cc`. As explained in Appendix A.4.3, each digit of this integer represent a TDC flag that can be 1 or 2. Each 2 is the sign of a `CORRUPTED` state. Then, the data is accessed entry by entry in the ROOT `TTree` using `RAWData` and each hit in the hit list is assigned to a detector channel and saved in the corresponding histograms. In the first part of the analysis, in which the loop over the ROOT file's content is performed, the different steps are:

1- RPC channel assignment and control: a check is done on the RPC channel extracted thanks to the mapping via the method `Mapping::GetLink()`. If the channel is not initialised and is 0, or if the TDC channel was greater than 5127, the hit is discarded. This means there was a problem in the mapping. Often a mapping problem leads to the crash of the offline tool.

2- Creation of a `RPCHit` object: to easily get the trolley, slot and partition in which the hit has been assigned, this object is particularly helpful.

3- General histograms are filled: the hit is filled into the time distribution and the general hit distribution histograms, and if the arrival time is within the first 100 ns, it is discarded and nothing else happens and the loop proceeds with the next hit in the list.

4- Multiplicity counter: the hit multiplicity counter of the corresponding detectors incremented.

5-a- *Effiency runs* - Is the hit within the peak window? : if the peak is contained in the peak window previously defined in section B.6.2, the hit is filled into the beam hit profile histogram of the corresponding chamber, added into the list of muon hits and increments the counter of *in time* hits. The term *in time* here refers to the hits that are likely to be muons by arriving in the expected time window. If the hit is outside of the peak window, it is filled into the noise profile histogram of the corresponding detector, added into the list of noise/gamma hits and increments the counter of noise/gamma hits.

5-b- *Noise/gamma rate runs* - Noise histograms are filled: the hit is filled into the noise profile histogram of the corresponding detector, added into the list of noise/gamma hits and increments the counter of noise/gamma hits.

After the loop on the hit list of the entry is over, the next step is too clusterize the 3D lists filled in the previous steps. A 3D loop is then started over the active trolley, slot and RPC partitions to access these objects. Each `NoiseHitList` and `MuonHitList`, in case of efficiency run, are clusterized as decribed in section B.5.2. There corresponding cluster size and multiplicity histograms are filled at the end of the clustering process. Then, the effiency histogram is filled in case of effieincy run. The selection is simply made by checking whether the RPC detected signals in the peak window during this event. Nevertheless, it is useful to highlight that at this level, it is not possible yet to discriminate in between a muon hit and noise or gamma hit. Thus, `MuonCSize_H`, `MuonCMult_H` and `Efficiency0_H` are subjected to noise and gamma contamination. This contamination will be estimated and corrected at the moment the results will be written into output CSV files. Finally, the loop ends on the filling of the general hit multiplicity histogram.

B.6.4 Results calculation

As mentioned in section B.2.1, the analysis of DAQ data provides the user with 3 CSV files and a ROOT file associated to each and every ROOT data file. The fourth CSV file is provided by the extraction of the CEAN main frame data monitored during data tacking and will be discussed later. After looping on the data in the previous part of the analysis macro, the output files are created and a 3D loop on each RPC readout partitions is started to extract the histograms parameters and compute the final results.

B.6.4.1 Rate normalisation

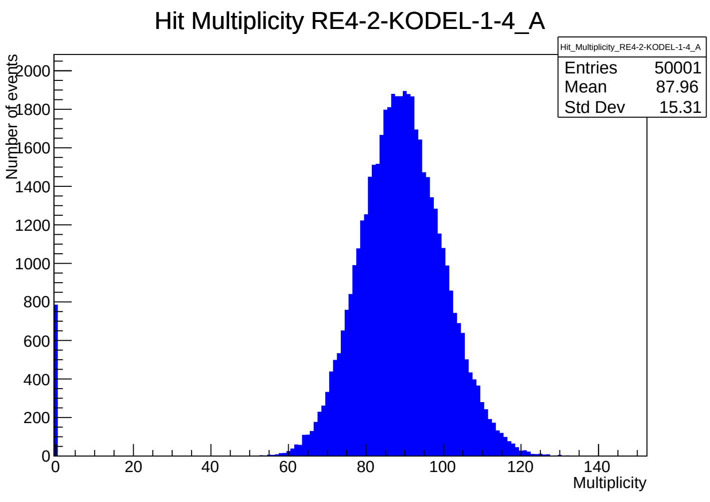


Figure B.2: The effect of the quality flag is explained by presenting the reconstructed hit multiplicity of a data file without `Quality_flag`. The artificial high content of bin 0 is the effect of corrupted data.

To analyse old data format files, not containing any quality flag, it is needed to estimate the amount of corrupted data via a fit as the corrupted data will always fill events with a fake ”0 multiplicity”. Indeed, as no hits were stored in the DAQ ROOT files, these events artificially contribute to fill the bin corresponding to a null multiplicity, as shown in Figure B.2. In the case the mean of the hit multiplicity distribution is high, the contribution of the corrupted data can easily be evaluated for later correction by comparing the level of the bin at multiplicity 0 and of a skew fit curve that should indicate a value consistent with 0. A skew fit has been chosen over a Poisson fit as it was giving better results for lower mean multiplicity values. Nevertheless, for low irradiation cases, as explained in Appendix A.4.3, the hit multiplicity distribution mean is, on the contrary, rather small and the probability to record events without hits can't be considered small anymore, leading to a difficult and non-reliable estimation of the corruption. As can be seen in Source Code B.13, conditions have been applied to prevent bad fits and wrong corruption estimation in cases where :

- The difference in between the data for multiplicity 1 and the corresponding fit value should be lower than 1% of the total amount of data : $\frac{|n_{m=1}-sk(1)|}{N_{tot}} < 0.01$ where $n_{m=1}$ is the number of entries with multiplicity 1, $sk(1)$ the value of the skew fit, as defined by Formula **??**, for multiplicity 1 and N_{tot} the total number of entries.

- The amount of data contained in the multiplicity 0 bin should not exceed 40% : $\frac{n_{m=0}}{N_{tot}} \leq 0.4$ where $n_{m=0}$ is the number of entries with multiplicity 0. This number has been determined to be the maximum to be able to separate the excess of data due to corruption from the hit multiplicity distribution.

Those 2 conditions need to be fulfilled to estimate the corruption of old data format files. If the fit was successful, the level of corruption is written in `Offline-Corrupted.csv` and the number of corrupted entries, refered as the integer `nEmptyEvent`, is subtracted from the total number of entries when the rate normalisation factor is computed as explicited in Source Code B.13. Note that for new data format files, the number of corrupted entries being set to 0, the definition of `rate_norm` stays valid.

```
if(!isNewFormat){
    TF1* GaussFit = new TF1("gaussfit","[0]*exp(-0.5*((x-[1])/[2])**2)",0,Xmax);
    GaussFit->SetParameter(0,100);
    GaussFit->SetParameter(1,10);
    GaussFit->SetParameter(2,1);
    HitMultiplicity_H.rpc[T][S][p]->Fit(GaussFit,"LIQR","",0.5,Xmax);

    TF1* SkewFit = new TF1("skewfit","[0]*exp(-0.5*((x-[1])/[2])**2) / (1 + exp(-[3]*(x-[4])))",0,Xmax);
    SkewFit->SetParameter(0,GaussFit->GetParameter(0));
    SkewFit->SetParameter(1,GaussFit->GetParameter(1));
    SkewFit->SetParameter(2,GaussFit->GetParameter(2));
    SkewFit->SetParameter(3,1);
    SkewFit->SetParameter(4,1);
    HitMultiplicity_H.rpc[T][S][p]->Fit(SkewFit,"LIQR","",0.5,Xmax);

    double fitValue = SkewFit->Eval(1,0,0,0);
    double dataValue = (double)HitMultiplicity_H.rpc[T][S][p]->GetBinContent(2);
    double difference = TMath::Abs(dataValue - fitValue);
    double fitTOdataVSentries_ratio = difference / (double)nEntries;
    bool isFitGOOD = fitTOdataVSentries_ratio < 0.01;

    double nSinglehit = (double)HitMultiplicity_H.rpc[T][S][p]->GetBinContent(1);
    double lowMultRatio = nSinglehit / (double)nEntries;
    bool isMultLOW = lowMultRatio > 0.4;

    if(isFitGOOD && !isMultLOW){
        nEmptyEvent = HitMultiplicity_H.rpc[T][S][p]->GetBinContent(1);
        nPhysics = (int)SkewFit->Eval(0,0,0,0);
        if(nPhysics < nEmptyEvent)
        nEmptyEvent = nEmptyEvent-nPhysics;
    }
}

double corrupt_ratio = 100.*(double)nEmptyEvent / (double)nEntries;
outputCorrCSV << corrupt_ratio << '\t';

float rate_norm = 0.;
float stripArea = GIFInfra->GetStripGeo(tr,sl,p);

if(IsEfficiencyRun(RunType)){
    float noiseWindow = BMTDCWINDOW - TIMEREJECT - 2*PeakWidth.rpc[T][S][p];
    rate_norm = (nEntries-nEmptyEvent)*noiseWindow*1e-9*stripArea;
} else
    rate_norm = (nEntries-nEmptyEvent)*RDMNOISEWDW*1e-9*stripArea;
```

Source Code B.13: Definition of the rate normalisation variable. It takes into account the number of non corrupted entries and the time window used for noise calculation, to estimate the total integrated time, and the strip active area to express the result as rate per unit area.

B.6.4.2 Rate and activity

At this point, the strip rate histograms, `StripNoiseProfile_H.rpc[T][S][p]`, only contain an information about the total number of noise or rate hits each channel received during the data taking. As described in Source Code B.14, a loop on the strip channels will be used to normalise the content of the rate distribution histogram for each detector partitions. The initial number of hits recorded for a given bin will be extracted and 2 values will be computed:

- the strip rate, defined as the number of hits recorded in the bin normalised like described in the previous section, using the variable `rate_norm`, and

- the strip activity, defined as the number of hits recorded in the bin normalised to the average number of hits per bin contained in the partition histogram, using the variable `averageNhit`. This value provides an information on the homogeneity of the detector response to the gamma background or of the detector noise. An activity of 1 corresponds to an average response. Above 1, the channel is more active than the average and bellow 1, the channel is less active.

```
int nNoise = StripNoiseProfile_H.rpc[T][S][p]->GetEntries();
float averageNhit = (nNoise>0) ? (float)(nNoise/nStripsPart) : 1.;

for(Uint st = 1; st <= nStripsPart; st++){
    float stripRate =
        StripNoiseProfile_H.rpc[T][S][p]->GetBinContent(st)/rate_norm;
    float stripAct =
        StripNoiseProfile_H.rpc[T][S][p]->GetBinContent(st)/averageNhit;

    StripNoiseProfile_H.rpc[T][S][p]->SetBinContent(st,stripRate);
    StripActivity_H.rpc[T][S][p]->SetBinContent(st,stripAct);
}
```

Source Code B.14: Description of the loop that allows to set the content of each strip rate and strip activity channel for each detector partition.

On each detector partitions, which are readout by a single FEE, all the channels are not processed by the same chip. Each chip can give a different noise response and thus, histograms using a chip binning are used to investigate chip related noise behaviours. The average values of the strip rate or activity grouped into a given chip are extracted using the using the function `GetChipBin()` and stored in dedicated histograms as described in Source Codes B.15 and B.16 respectively.

```
float GetChipBin(TH1* H, Uint chip){
    Uint start = 1 + chip*NSTRIPSCHIP;
    int nActive = NSTRIPSCHIP;
    float mean = 0.;

    for(Uint b = start; b <= (chip+1)*NSTRIPSCHIP; b++){
        float value = H->GetBinContent(b);
        mean += value;
        if(value == 0.) nActive--;
    }

    if(nActive != 0) mean /= (float)nActive;
    else mean = 0.;

    return mean;
}
```

Source Code B.15: Function used to compute the content of a bin for an histogram using chip binning.

```
for(Uint ch = 0; ch < (nStripsPart/NSTRIPSCHIP); ch++){
    ChipMeanNoiseProf_H.rpc[T][S][p]->
        SetBinContent(ch+1,GetChipBin(StripNoiseProfile_H.rpc[T][S][p],ch));
    ChipActivity_H.rpc[T][S][p]->
        SetBinContent(ch+1,GetChipBin(StripActivity_H.rpc[T][S][p],ch));
}
```

Source Code B.16: Description of the loop that allows to set the content of each chip rate and chip activity bins for each detector partition knowing the information contained in the corresponding strip distribution histograms.

The activity variable is used to evaluate the homogeneity of the detector response to background or of the detector noise. The homogeneity h_p of each detector partition can be evaluated using the formula $h_p = exp(-\sigma_p^R/\langle R\rangle_p)$, where $\langle R\rangle_p$ is the partition mean rate and σ_p^R is the rate standard deviation calculated over the partition channels. The more homogeneously the rates are distributed and the smaller will σ_p^R be, and the closer to 1 will h_p get. On the contrary, if the standard deviation of the channel's rates is large, h_p will rapidly get to 0. This value is saved into histograms as shown in Source Code B.17 and could in the future be used to monitor through time, once extracted, the evolution of every partition homogeneity. This could be of great help to understand the apparition of eventual hot spots due to ageing of the chambers subjected to high radiation levels. The monitored homogeneity information could then be combined with a monitoring of the activity of each individual channel in order to have a finer information. Monitoring tools have been suggested and need to be developped for this purpose.

```
float MeanPartSDev = GetTH1StdDev(StripNoiseProfile_H.rpc[T][S][p]);
float strip_homog = (MeanPartRate==0)
    ? 0.
    : exp(-MeanPartSDev/MeanPartRate);
StripHomogeneity_H.rpc[T][S][p]->Fill("exp -#left(#frac{#sigma_{Strip
 ↪  Rate}}{#mu_{Strip Rate}}#right)",strip_homog);
StripHomogeneity_H.rpc[T][S][p]->GetYaxis()->SetRangeUser(0.,1.);

float ChipStDevMean = GetTH1StdDev(ChipMeanNoiseProf_H.rpc[T][S][p]);
float chip_homog = (MeanPartRate==0)
    ? 0.
    : exp(-ChipStDevMean/MeanPartRate);
ChipHomogeneity_H.rpc[T][S][p]->Fill("exp -#left(#frac{#sigma_{Chip
 ↪  Rate}}{#mu_{Chip Rate}}#right)",chip_homog);
ChipHomogeneity_H.rpc[T][S][p]->GetYaxis()->SetRangeUser(0.,1.);
```

Source Code B.17: Storage of the homogeneity into dedicated histograms.

B.6.4.3 Strip masking tool

The offline tool is automatically called at the end of each data taking to analyse the data and offer the shifter DQM histograms to control the data quality. After the histograms have been published online in the DQM page, the shifter can decide to mask noisy or dead channels that will contribute to bias the final rate calculation by editing the mask column of `ChannelsMapping.csv` as can be seen in Figure B.3.

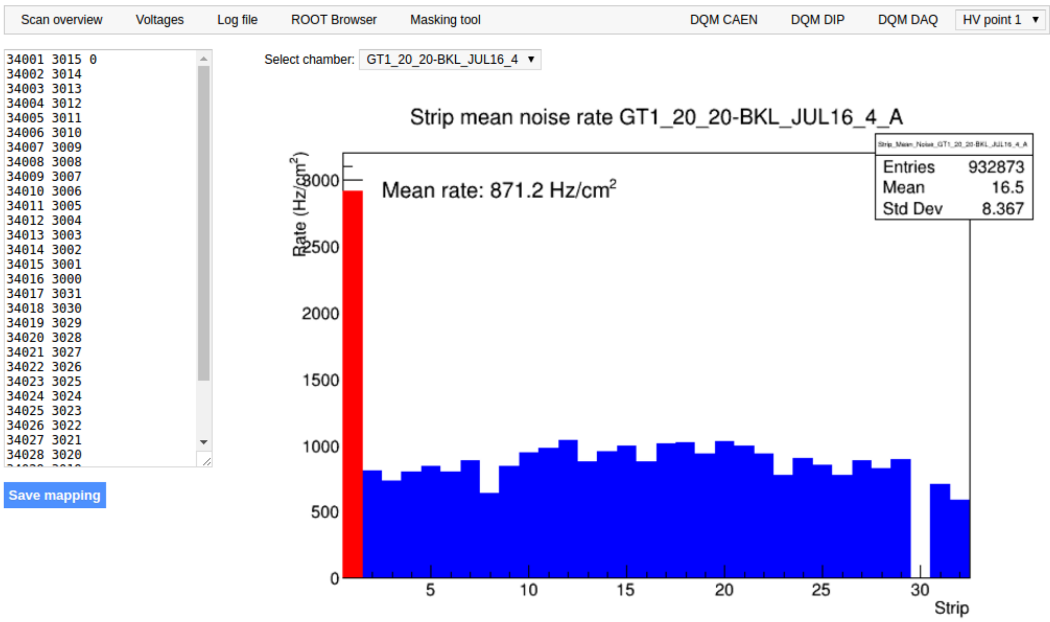


Figure B.3: Display of the maskting tool page on the webDCS. The window on the left allows the shifter to edit `ChannelsMapping.csv`. To mask a channel, it only is needed to set the 3rd field corresponding to the strip to mask to 0. It is not necessary for older mapping file formats to add a 1 for each strip that is not masked as the code is versatile and the default behaviour is to consider missing mask fields as active strips. The effect of the mask is directly visible for noisy channels as the corresponding bin turns red. The global effect of masking strips will be an update of the rate value showed on the histogram that will take into consideration the rejected channels.

From the code point of view, the function `GetTH1Mean()` is used to retrieve the mean rate partition by partition after the rates have been calculated strip by strip and filled into the histograms `StripNoiseProfile_H.rpc[T][S][p]`, as described through Source Code B.18.

Once the mask for each rejected channel has been updated, the shifter can manually run the offline tool again to update the DQM plots, now including the masked strips, as well the rate results written in the output CSV file `Offline-Rate.csv`. If not done during the shifts, the strip masking procedure needs to be carefully done by the person in charge of data analysis on the scans that were selected to produce the final results.

```
float GetTH1Mean(TH1* H){
    int nBins = H->GetNbinsX();
    int nActive = nBins;
    float mean = 0.;

    for(int b = 1; b <= nBins; b++){
        float value = H->GetBinContent(b);
        mean += value;
        if(value == 0.) nActive--;
    }

    if(nActive != 0) mean /= (float)nActive;
    else mean = 0.;

    return mean;
}
```

Source Code B.18: The function `GetTH1Mean()` is used to return the mean along the y-axis of `TH1` histograms containing rate information. In order to take into account masked strips whose rate is set to 0, the function looks for masked channels and decrement the number of active channels for each null value found.

B.6.4.4 Output CSV files filling

All the histograms have been filled. Parameters will then be extracted from them to compute the final results that will later be used to produce plots. Once the results have been computed, the very last step of the offline macro is to write these values into the corresponding CSV outputs. Aside of the file `Offline-Corrupted.csv`, 2 CSV files are being written by the macro `OfflineAnalysis()`, `Offline-Rates.csv` and `Offline-L0-EffCl.csv` that respectively contain information about noise or gamma rates, cluster size and multiplicity, and about level 0 reconstruction of the detector efficiency, muon cluster size and multiplicity. Details on the computation and file writing are respectively given in Sources Codes B.19 and B.20.

Noise/gamma background variables are computed and written in the output file for each detector partitions. A detector average of the hit and cluster rate is also provided, as shown through Sources Code B.19. The variables that are written for each partition are:

- The mean partition hit rate per unit area, `MeanPartRate`, that is extracted from the histogram `StripNoiseProfile_H` as the mean value along the y-axis, as described in section B.6.4.3. No error is recorded for the hit rate as this is considered a single measurement. No statistical error can be associated to it and the systematics are unknown.

- The mean cluster size, `cSizePart`, is extracted from the histogram `NoiseCSize_H` and it's statistical error, `cSizePartErr`, is taken to be 2σ of the total distribution.

- The mean cluster multiplicity per trigger, `cMultPart`, is extracted from the histogram `NoiseCMult_H` and it's statistical error, `cMultPartErr`, is taken to be 2σ of the total distribution. It is important to point to the fact that this variable gives an information that is dependent on the buffer window width used for each trigger for the calculation.

- The mean cluster rate per unit area, `ClustPartRate`, is defined as the mean hit rate normalised to the mean cluster size and it's statistical error, `ClustPartRateErr`, is then obtained using the relative statistical error on the mean cluster size.

```
for (Uint tr = 0; tr < GIFInfra->GetNTrolleys(); tr++){
    Uint T = GIFInfra->GetTrolleyID(tr);

    for (Uint sl = 0; sl < GIFInfra->GetNSlots(tr); sl++){
        Uint S = GIFInfra->GetSlotID(tr,sl) - 1;

        float MeanNoiseRate = 0.;
        float ClusterRate   = 0.;
        float ClusterSDev   = 0.;

        for (Uint p = 0; p < GIFInfra->GetNPartitions(tr,sl); p++){
            float MeanPartRate = GetTH1Mean(StripNoiseProfile_H.rpc[T][S][p]);
            float cSizePart = NoiseCSize_H.rpc[T][S][p]->GetMean();
            float cSizePartErr = (NoiseCSize_H.rpc[T][S][p]->GetEntries()==0)
                ? 0.
                : 2*NoiseCSize_H.rpc[T][S][p]->GetStdDev() /
                            sqrt(NoiseCSize_H.rpc[T][S][p]->GetEntries());
            float cMultPart = NoiseCMult_H.rpc[T][S][p]->GetMean();
            float cMultPartErr = (NoiseCMult_H.rpc[T][S][p]->GetEntries()==0)
                ? 0.
                : 2*NoiseCMult_H.rpc[T][S][p]->GetStdDev() /
                            sqrt(NoiseCMult_H.rpc[T][S][p]->GetEntries());
            float ClustPartRate = (cSizePart==0) ? 0.
                : MeanPartRate/cSizePart;
            float ClustPartRateErr = (cSizePart==0) ? 0.
                : ClustPartRate * cSizePartErr/cSizePart;

            outputRateCSV << MeanPartRate << '\t'
                << cSizePart << '\t' << cSizePartErr << '\t'
                << cMultPart << '\t' << cMultPartErr << '\t'
                << ClustPartRate << '\t' << ClustPartRateErr << '\t';

            RPCarea       += stripArea * nStripsPart;
            MeanNoiseRate += MeanPartRate * stripArea * nStripsPart;
            ClusterRate   += ClustPartRate * stripArea * nStripsPart;
            ClusterSDev   += (cSizePart==0)
                ? 0.
                : ClusterRate*cSizePartErr/cSizePart;
        }

        MeanNoiseRate /= RPCarea;
        ClusterRate   /= RPCarea;
        ClusterSDev   /= RPCarea;

        outputRateCSV << MeanNoiseRate << '\t'
            << ClusterRate << '\t' << ClusterSDev << '\t';
    }
}
```

Source Code B.19: Description of rate result calculation and writing into the CSV output `Offline-Rate.csv`*. Are saved into the file for each detector, the mean partition rate, cluster size and cluster mutiplicity, along with their errors, for each partition and as well as a detector average.*

Muon performance variables are computed and written in the output file for each detector partitions as shown through Sources Code B.20. The variables that are written for each partition are:

- The muon efficiency, `eff`, extracted from the histogram `Efficiency0_H`. It is reminded that this offline tool doesn't include any tracking algorithm to identify muons from the beam and only relies on the hits arriving in the time window corresponding to the beam time. The content of the efficiency histogram is thus biased by the noise/gamma background contribution into this window and is thus corrected by estimating the muon data content in the peak region knowing the noise/gamma content in the rate calculation region. Both time windows being different, the choice was made to normalise the noise/gamma background calculation window to it's equivalent beam window in order to have comparable values using the variable `windowRatio`. Finally, to estimate the data ratio in the peak region, the variable `DataRatio` is defined as the ratio in between the estimated mean cluster multiplicity of the muons in the peak region, `MuonCM`, and of the total mean cluster multiplicity in the peak region, `PeakCM`. `MuonCM` is itself defined as the difference in between the total mean cluster multiplicity in the peak region and the normalised mean noise/gamma cluster multiplicity calculated outside of the peak region. The statistical error related to the efficiency, `eff_err`, is computed using a binomial distribution, as the efficiency measure the probability of "success" and "failure" to detect muons.

- The mean muon cluster size, `MuonCS`, is calculated using the total mean cluster size and multiplicity in the peak region, respectively extracted from histograms `MuonCSize_H` and `MuonCMult_H`, the noise/gamma background mean cluster size and normalised multiplicity, extracted from `NoiseCSize_H` and `NoiseCMult_H`, and of the estimated muon cluster multiplicity `MuonCM` previously explicited. The associated statistical error, `MuonCM_err`, is calculated using the propagation of errors of the mentioned variables.

- The mean muon cluster multiplicity in the peak region, `MuonCM`, explicited above whose statistical error, `MuonCM_err`, is the sum of statistical error associated to the total mean cluster multiplicity in the peak reagion, `PeakCM_err`, and of the mean noise/gamma cluster size, `NoiseCM_err`.

In addition to these 2 CSV files, the histograms are saved in ROOT file `Scan00XXXX_HVY_Offline.root` as explained in section B.2.1.1.

```
for (Uint tr = 0; tr < GIFInfra->GetNTrolleys(); tr++){
    Uint T = GIFInfra->GetTrolleyID(tr);
    for (Uint sl = 0; sl < GIFInfra->GetNSlots(tr); sl++){
        Uint S = GIFInfra->GetSlotID(tr,sl) - 1;
        for (Uint p = 0; p < GIFInfra->GetNPartitions(tr,sl); p++){
            float noiseWindow =
                BMTDCWINDOW - TIMEREJECT - 2*PeakWidth.rpc[T][S][p];
            float peakWindow = 2*PeakWidth.rpc[T][S][p];
            float windowRatio = peakWindow/noiseWindow;

            float PeakCM = MuonCMult_H.rpc[T][S][p]->GetMean();
            float PeakCS = MuonCSize_H.rpc[T][S][p]->GetMean();
            float NoiseCM = NoiseCMult_H.rpc[T][S][p]->GetMean()*windowRatio;
            float NoiseCS = NoiseCSize_H.rpc[T][S][p]->GetMean();
            float MuonCM = (PeakCM<NoiseCM) ? 0. : PeakCM-NoiseCM;
            float MuonCS = (MuonCM==0 || PeakCM*PeakCS<NoiseCM*NoiseCS)
                ? 0.
                : (PeakCM*PeakCS-NoiseCM*NoiseCS)/MuonCM;
            float PeakCM_err = (MuonCMult_H.rpc[T][S][p]->GetEntries()==0.)
                ? 0.
                : 2*MuonCMult_H.rpc[T][S][p]->GetStdDev() /
                            sqrt(MuonCMult_H.rpc[T][S][p]->GetEntries());
            float PeakCS_err = (MuonCSize_H.rpc[T][S][p]->GetEntries()==0.)
                ? 0.
                : 2*MuonCSize_H.rpc[T][S][p]->GetStdDev() /
                            sqrt(MuonCSize_H.rpc[T][S][p]->GetEntries());
            float NoiseCM_err = (NoiseCMult_H.rpc[T][S][p]->GetEntries()==0.)
                ? 0.
                : windowRatio*2*NoiseCMult_H.rpc[T][S][p]->GetStdDev() /
                            sqrt(NoiseCMult_H.rpc[T][S][p]->GetEntries());
            float NoiseCS_err = (NoiseCSize_H.rpc[T][S][p]->GetEntries()==0.)
                ? 0.
                : 2*NoiseCSize_H.rpc[T][S][p]->GetStdDev() /
                            sqrt(NoiseCSize_H.rpc[T][S][p]->GetEntries());
            float MuonCM_err = (MuonCM==0) ? 0. : PeakCM_err+NoiseCM_err;
            float MuonCS_err = (MuonCS==0 || MuonCM==0) ? 0.
                : (PeakCS*PeakCM_err + PeakCM*PeakCS_err +
                  NoiseCS*NoiseCM_err + NoiseCM*NoiseCS_err +
                  MuonCS*MuonCM_err)/MuonCM;

            float DataRatio = MuonCM/PeakCM;
            float DataRatio_err = (MuonCM==0) ? 0.
                : DataRatio*(MuonCM_err/MuonCM + PeakCM_err/PeakCM);
            float eff = DataRatio*Efficiency0_H.rpc[T][S][p]->GetMean();
            float eff_err =  DataRatio*2*Efficiency0_H.rpc[T][S][p]->GetStdDev()/
                        sqrt(Efficiency0_H.rpc[T][S][p]->GetEntries()) +
                        Efficiency0_H.rpc[T][S][p]->GetMean()*DataRatio_err;

            outputEffCSV << eff << '\t' << eff_err << '\t'
                << MuonCS << '\t' << MuonCS_err << '\t'
                << MuonCM << '\t' << MuonCM_err << '\t';
        }
    }
}
```

Source Code B.20: Description of efficiency result calculation and writing into the CSV output `Offline-L0-EffCl.csv`*. Are saved into the file for each detector, the efficiency, corrected taking into account the background in the peak window of the time profile, muon cluster size and muon cluster mutiplicity, along with their errors, for each partition and as well as a detector average.*

B.7 Current data Analysis

Detectors under test at GIF++ are connected both to a CAEN HV power supply and to a CAEN ADC that reads the currents inside of the RPC gaps bypassing the supply cable. During data taking, the webDCS records into a ROOT file called `Scan00XXXX_HVY_CAEN.root` histograms with the monitored parameters of both CAEN devices. Are recorded for each RPC channels (in most cases, a channel corresponds to an RPC gap):

- the effective voltage, HV_{eff}, set by the webDCS using the PT correction on the CAEN power supply,
- the applied voltage, HV_{app}, monitored by the CAEN power supply, and the statistical error related to the variations of this value through time to follow the variation of the environmental parameters defined as the RMS of the histogram divided by the square root of the number of recorded points,
- the monitored current, I_{mon}, monitored by the CAEN power supply, and the statistical error related to the variations of this value through time to follow the variation of the environmental parameters defined as the RMS of the histogram divided by the square root of the number of recorded points,
- the corresponding current density, J_{mon}, defined as the monitored current per unit area, $J_{mon} = I_{mon}/A$, where A is the active area of the corresponding gap,
- the ADC current, I_{ADC}, recorded through the CAEN ADC module that monitors the dark current in the gap itself. First of all, the resolution of such a module is better than that of CAEN power supplies and moreover, the current is not read-out through the HV supply line but directly at the chamber level giving the real current inside of the detector. The statistical error is defined as the RMS of the histogram distribution divided by the square root of the number of recorded points.

Once extracted through a loop over the element of GIF++ infrastructure via the C++ macro `GetCurrent()`, these parameters, organised in 9 columns per detector HV supply line, are written in the output CSV file `Offline-Current.csv`. The macro can be found in the file `Current.cc`.

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