
2 **Consolidation and longevity of the CMS**
3 **Resistive Plate Chamber system in view of the**
4 **High-Luminosity LHC Upgrade**

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Alexis Fagot

Thesis to obtain the degree of
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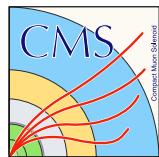


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⁸ Promotors: Dr. Michael Tytgat
Prof. Dr. Dirk Ryckbosch

⁹
¹⁰ Ghent University
¹¹ Faculty of Sciences
¹² Department of Physics and Astronomy
¹³ Proeftuinstraat 86, B-9000 Ghent, Belgium
¹⁴ Tel.: +32 9 264.65.28
¹⁵ Fax.: +32 9 264.66.97

¹⁶



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Alexis Fagot

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List of Acronyms

List of Acronyms

700	AFL	Almost Full Level
701	ALCTs	anode local charged track boards
702	BARC	Bhabha Atomic Research Centre
703	BLT	Block Transfer
704	BMTF	Barrel Muon Track Finder
705	BNL	Brookhaven National Laboratory
706	BR	Branching Ratio
707	CAEN	Costruzioni Apparecchiature Elettroniche Nucleari S.p.A.
708	CERN	European Organization for Nuclear Research
709	CFD	Constant Fraction Discriminator
710	CFEBs	cathode front-end boards
711	CMB	Cosmic Microwave Background
712	CMS	Compact Muon Solenoid
713	CSC	Cathode Strip Chamber
714	CuOF	copper-to-optical-fiber translators
715	DAQ	Data Acquisition
716	DCS	Detector Control Software
717	DQM	Data Quality Monitoring
718	DT	Drift Tube
719	ECAL	electromagnetic calorimeter
720	EMTF	Endcap Muon Track Finder
721	FCC	Future Circular Collider
722	FEB	Front-End Board
723	FEE	Front-End Electronics
724	FWHM	full-width-at-half-maximum
725	GEANT	GEometry ANd Tracking - a series of software toolkit platforms developed by CERN
726		
727	GEB	GEM Electronics board
728	GEM	Gas Electron Multiplier
729	GIF	Gamma Irradiation Facility
730	GIF++	new Gamma Irradiation Facility
731	GWP	Global Warming Potential
732	HCAL	hadron calorimeter
733	HL-LHC	High Luminosity LHC
734	HPL	High-pressure laminate
735	HV	High Voltage
736	ICRU	International Commission on Radiation Units & Measurements
737	iRPC	improved RPC

738	IRQ	Interrupt Request
739	ISR	Intersecting Storage Rings
740	LEIR	Low Energy Ion Ring
741	LEP	Large Electron-Positron
742	LHC	Large Hadron Collider
743	LS1	First Long Shutdown
744	LS2	Second Long Shutdown
745	LS3	Third Long Shutdown
746	LV	Low Voltage
747	LVDS	Low-Voltage Differential Signaling
748	MC	Monte Carlo
749	MCNP	Monte Carlo N-Particle
750	MiC1	first version of Minicrate electronics
751	mip's	minimum ionizing particles
752	MRPC	Multigap RPC
753	NIM	Nuclear Instrumentation Module logic signals
754	OH	Optohybrid Board
755	OMTF	Overlap Muon Track Finder
756	PAI	Photo-Absorption Ionisation
757	PAIR	Photo-Absorption Ionisation with Relaxation
758	PMT	PhotoMultiplier Tube
759	PS	Proton Synchrotron
760	PU	pile-up
761	QCD	Quantum Chromodynamics
762	QED	Quantum Electrodynamics
763	RADMON	Radiation Monitoring
764	RMS	Root Mean Square
765	ROOT	a framework for data processing born at CERN
766	RPC	Resistive Plate Chamber
767	SC	Synchrocyclotron
768	SLAC	Stanford Linear Accelerator Center
769	SM	Standard Model
770	SPS	Super Proton Synchrotron
771	SUSY	supersymmetry
772	TDC	Time-to-Digital Converter
773	TDR	Technical Design Report
774	ToF	Time-of-flight
775	TPG	trigger primitives
776	webDCS	Web Detector Control System
777	YETS	Year End Technical Stop

1

778

779

Introduction

780 Grasping an understanding of the world in which they are leaving in has always been part of hu-
781 mans lives. Beyond the metaphysical questioning of our origins and purpose, curiosity has brought
782 mankind to question its surroundings. Following the philosophy of ancient greeks and indians came
783 the development of sciences as the systematic experimentation aimed at testing hypothesis and re-
784 producing results obtained by fellow natural philosophers. With the industrial revolution and the
785 organisation of science, it became possible to go always further in the understanding of the universe
786 and of the matter in particular. Investigation on the constituant of matter proved to require more and
787 more powerful machines in order to break apart the bricks of the world into ever smaller pieces, study
788 their behaviour and extract new knowledge to help the development of humanity. So far, the largest
789 and most power machine that was built to study the particles composing matter and test the mod-
790 els thought by physicists to explain their behaviour is the Large Hadron Collider (LHC), a circular
791 particle accelerator used to collide protons and heavy ions. After only a few years of investigations
792 conducted thanks to the LHC, several discoveries, predicted by the existing models, have been made
793 and in the future, in order to boost the discovery potential on the LHC and be able to test hypothesis
794 lying beyond the already aknoledged models, the instantaneous luminosity, i.e. the rate of particle
795 interactions, will be slightly increased into a so called High Luminosity phase to boost its discovery
796 potential.

797 As the Large Hadron Collider will see its instantaneous luminosity be increased, the detectors
798 on the different experimental sites will have to suffer an increased background irradiation due to the
799 byproducts of the interaction of the beams with the infrastructure. This will cause for the detectors
800 a stress which implications need to be understood throughout the High Luminosity LHC (HL-LHC)
801 phase of operations. In the case of the Compact Muon Solenoid (CMS) experiment, it is important
802 to understand if the detectors that will be subjected to the higher levels of radiation will be able to
803 sustain higher detection rates while displaying the same performance they have so far been operated
804 at and if this level of performance of the detectors will stay stable for a period longer than 10 years.
805 More specifically, the detectors placed very close to the beam line will be the most subjected to the
806 change of luminosity. In CMS, the endcap detectors will then be particularly affected by the stronger

807 background radiation. The endcap detectors compose a part of the muon system of CMS and among
808 them, the Resistive Plate Chamber (RPC)s play a key role in providing the experiment a reliable
809 trigger on potentially interesting data.

810 CMS experiment main focus revolves around testing the Standard Model (SM) of particle physics
811 using a multipurpose detector design to detect the interaction products of the protons and ions col-
812 liding along the LHC. Looking at the successive evolution of the theoretical models that gave birth
813 to the SM, the need for very intense particle beams in high energy physics experiment becomes clear
814 in that the higher the center-of-mass energy for each interaction, the greater the probe on very small
815 cross-section processes predicted by the theory, justifying the successive increase in beam energy
816 and intensity at LHC.

817 The implications for LHC experiments and in particular for the CMS detector explain the need for
818 longevity and rate capability studies conducted on the Resistive Plate Chambers which are an impor-
819 tant part of its Muon System as it is needed to certify the quality of operation of the trigger detectors
820 throughout the lifetime of HL-LHC.

821 RPCs are gaseous detectors which physics principles are non trivial and are still being investigated.
822 Nevertheless, key processes driving the electron multiplication in the gas volume, rate capability and
823 ageing have been successfully identified and will define the parameters that will have to be taken into
824 consideration while producing the detectors extending the pseudo-rapidity coverage of RPCs toward
825 the beam line as well as the ones to be monitored during the on-going longevity and rate capability
826 certification campaign.

827 On the one hand, the present RPC sub-system consists in two different RPC productions. Indeed,
828 most of the RPC detectors were produced in view of the start of LHC activities in 2010. These
829 detectors were build in between 2007 and 2008 to equip the barrel and the 3 disks of each endcaps of
830 the CMS apparatus. But during the First Long Shutdown (LS1) of LHC in between end of 2012 and
831 2015, a fourth disk of endcap was added in order to reinforce the redundancy of the endcap trigger.
832 Hence, new RPC detectors using the same technology were built in between 2012 and 2013. These
833 two sets of detector productions only differ in the properties of the High-pressure laminate (HPL)
834 used for their electrodes that could lead to a different ageing rate. This is why spare detectors of
835 both production periods have been tested over the past years to certify their good operation through
836 HL-LHC.

837 On the other hand, producing detectors to equip a highly irradiated region such as the extension of
838 CMS RPC endcaps requires to substantially improve the ageing properties of the chosen technology
839 by reducing the charge deposition per ionizing particle. This can be achieve both by modifying the
840 design of the detector volume or by improving the signal to noise ratio of the Front-End Electron-
841 ics (FEE) used to process the charge collected by the read-out strips making them more sensitive to
842 weaker signals. Two improved RPC (iRPC) designs were selected and tested in order to extend of
843 CMS endcap coverage.

844 Thanks to the study presented in this document, preliminary conclusions will be brought on the pro-
845 duction of iRPCs and on the longevity of the present RPC system, providing with a better understand
846 of the future performance of the RPC sus-system within the CMS experiment.

2

847

848

Investigating the TeV scale

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

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

865 2.1 The Standard Model of Particle Physics

866 In this early 21st century it is now widely accepted that matter is made of elementary blocks referred
867 to as *elementary particles*. The physics theory that classifies and describes the best the behaviour
868 and interaction of such elementary particles is the so called Standard Model that formalizes 3 of
869 the 4 fundamental interactions (electromagnetic, weak and strong interactions). Its development
870 took place during the 20th century thanks to a strong collaboration in between the theoretical and
871 experimental physicists.

872 2.1.1 A history of particle physics

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

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

899 Discovery of the inner structure of the atom

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

916 to study nuclei exclusively: the nuclear physics.

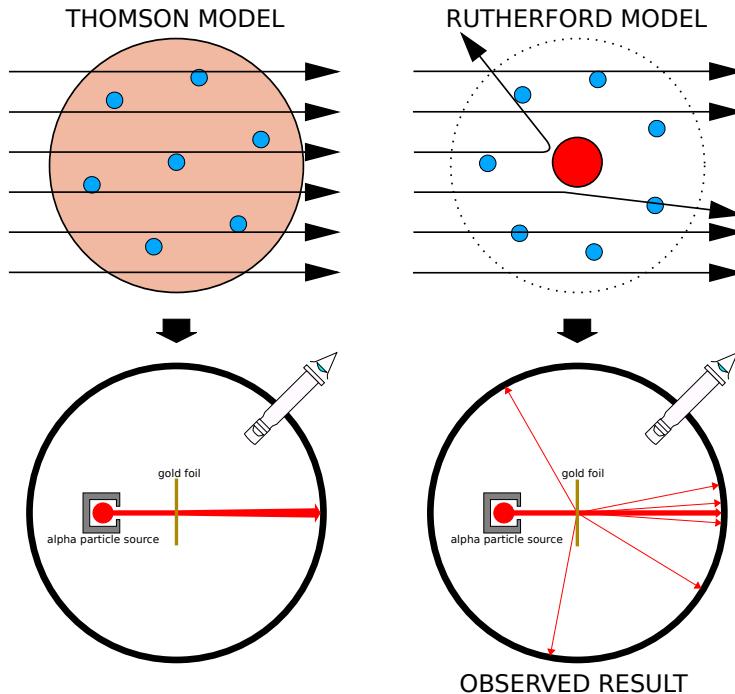


Figure 2.1: Through the gold foil experiment Rutherford could show that most of the mass of atoms was contained in a positively charged nucleus and could then propose a more accurate atomic model than that of Thomson.

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

921 By studying alpha emission and the product of their interaction with nitrogen gas, Rutherford
 922 reported in 1919 the very first nuclear reaction leading to the discovery that the hydrogen nucleus was
 923 composed of a single positively charged particle that was later baptised *proton*. This idea came from
 924 1815 Prout's hypothesis proposing that all atoms are composed of "protyles" (i.e. hydrogen atoms).
 925 By using scintillation detectors, Rutherford could highlight typical hydrogen nuclei signature and
 926 understand that the impact of alpha particles with nitrogen would knock out an hydrogen nucleus
 927 and produce an oxygen 17, as explicated in Formula 2.1 and would then postulate that protons are
 928 building bricks of all elements.



929 With this assumption and the discovery of isotopes together with Aston, elements with identical
 930 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
 931 *neutrons*, and that these neutral particles would help maintaining nuclei as one, as charged protons
 932

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.

945 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 around 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 19th 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 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

⁹⁷⁷ multiple of 2π , as shown by Formula 2.2.

$$(2.2) \quad p = \hbar k \Leftrightarrow \int pdx = \hbar \int kdx = 2\pi\hbar n$$

⁹⁷⁸ Although the intuition of De Broglie about the wave-particle duality of all matter, his interpretation
⁹⁷⁹ was semiclassical and it's in 1926 that the first fully quantum mechanical wave-equation would
⁹⁸⁰ be introduced by Schrödinger to describe electron-like particles, reproducing the previous semiclassi-
⁹⁸¹ cal formulation without inconsistencies. This complexe equation describes the evolution of the
⁹⁸² wave function Ψ of the quantum system, defined by it's position vector \mathbf{r} and time t as an energy
⁹⁸³ conservation law, in which the hamiltonian of the system \hat{H} is explicit, by solving the Equation 2.3.

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

⁹⁸⁴ In 1927, Dirac would go further in his paper about emission and absorption of radiation by
⁹⁸⁵ proposing a second quantization not only of the physical process at play but also of the electromag-
⁹⁸⁶ netic field, providing the ingredients to the first formulation of *Quantum Electrodynamics (QED)*
⁹⁸⁷ and the description of photon emission by electrons dropping into a lower energy state in which the
⁹⁸⁸ final number of particles is different than the initial one. To complete this model to the many-body
⁹⁸⁹ wave functions of identical particles, Jordan included creation and annihilation operators for fields
⁹⁹⁰ obeying Fermi-Dirac statistics leading to a model describing particles that would be referred to as
⁹⁹¹ *fermions*. Nevertheless, in order to properly treat electromagnetism, the incorporation of the relativ-
⁹⁹² ity theory developed by Einstein. Including gravity into quantum physics still is a challenge nowa-
⁹⁹³ days, but in 1928 Pauli and Jordan would show that special relativity's coordinate transforma-
⁹⁹⁴ tions could be applied to quantum fields as the field commutators were Lorentz invariant. Finally derived
⁹⁹⁵ the same year, the Dirac equation, shown as Equation 2.4, similarly to Schrödinger's equation, is a
⁹⁹⁶ single-particle equation but it incorporates special relativity in addition to quantum mechanics rules.
⁹⁹⁷ It features the 4×4 gamma matrices γ^μ built using 2×2 Pauli matrices and unitary matrix, the
⁹⁹⁸ 4-gradient ∂_μ , the rest mass m of any half integer spin massive particle described by the wave func-
⁹⁹⁹ tion $\psi(x, t)$, also called a Dirac spinor, and the speed of light c . In addition to perfectly reproduce
¹⁰⁰⁰ the results obtained with quantum mechanics so far, it also provided with *negative-energy solutions*
¹⁰⁰¹ that would later be interpreted as a new form of matter, *antimatter* and give a theoretical justifica-
¹⁰⁰² tion to the Pauli equation that was phenomenologically constructed to account for the spin as in the
¹⁰⁰³ non-relativistic limit, the Dirac equation is similar.

$$(2.4) \quad i\hbar\gamma^\mu\partial_\mu\psi - mc\psi = 0$$

¹⁰⁰⁴ The successes of the QED was soon followed with theoretical problems as computations of any
¹⁰⁰⁵ physical process involving photons and charged particles were showed to be only reliable at the first
¹⁰⁰⁶ order of perturbation theory. At higher order of the theory, divergent contributions were appearing
¹⁰⁰⁷ giving nonsensical results. Only two effects were contributing to these infinities.

- ¹⁰⁰⁸ • The self-energy of the electron (or positron), the energy that the particle has due its own
¹⁰⁰⁹ interaction with its environment.

- 1010 ● The vacuum polarization, virtual electron–positron pairs produced by a background electro-
1011 magnetic field in the vacuum which is not an "empty" space. These virtual pairs affect the
1012 charge and current distributions generated by the original electromagnetic field.

1013 Solving this apparent problem was done by carefully defining the concepts of each observables,
1014 for example mass or charge, as these quantities are understood within the context of a non-interacting
1015 field equation, and that from the experiment point of view, they are abstractions as what is measured
1016 are "renormalized observables" shifted from there "bare" value by the interaction taking place in
1017 the measuring process. The infinities needed to be connected to corrections of mass and charge
1018 as those are fixed to finite values by experiment. This was the intuition of Bethe in 1947 who
1019 successfully computed the effect of such *renormalization* in the non-relativist case. Fully covariant
1020 formulations of QED including renormalization was achieved by 1949 by Tomonaga, Schwinger,
1021 Feynman and Dyson and Feynman is now famous for his association of diagrams to the term of
1022 the scattering matrix, greatly simplifying the representation and computation of interactions as the
1023 diagrams directly corresponded the measurable physical processes and would then be used in every
1024 quantum field theories. With the resolution of infinities, QED had mostly reached its final form,
1025 being still today the most accurate physical theory and would serve as a model to build all other
1026 quantum field theories.

1027 **Development of the quark model and Quantum Chromodynamics**

1028 To explain the nuclear force that holds *nucleons* (protons and neutrons) together, Yukawa theoreti-
1029 cally proposed in 1934 the existence of a force carrier called *meson* due to it's predicted mass in
1030 the range in between the electron and nucleon masses. Discovered in 1936 by Anderson and Ned-
1031 dermeyer, and confirmed using bubble chambers in 1937 by Street and Stevenson, a first meson
1032 candidate was observed in the decay products of cosmic rays. Assuming it had the same electric
1033 charge than electrons and protons, this particle was observed to have a curvature due to magnetic
1034 field that was sharper than protons but smoother than electrons resulting in a mass in between that
1035 of electrons and protons. But its properties were not compatible with Yukawa's theory, which was
1036 emphasized by the discovery of a new candidate in 1947, again in cosmic ray products using photo-
1037 graphic emulsions.

1038 This new candidate, although it had a similar mass than the already believed *meson*, would rather
1039 decay into it. For distinction, the first candidate would then be renamed "*mu meson*" when the second
1040 would be the "*pi meson*". The *mu meson* was behaving like a heavy electron and didn't participate
1041 in the strong interaction whereas the pion was believed to be the carrier of the nuclear interaction.
1042 This lead to classify the *mu* in a new category of particles called *leptons* together with the electron
1043 that shared similar properties and *the neutrino*, and be renamed *muon*. The *pi meson* was finally
1044 found to be a triplet of particles: a positively charged, a negatively charged, and a neutral particle.
1045 The neutral *pi meson* has been more difficult to identify as it wouldn't leave tracks on emulsions nor
1046 on bubble chambers and needed to be studied via it's decay products. It was ultimately identified in
1047 University of California's cyclotron in 1950 through the observation of its decay into 2 photons.

1048 Also discovered in 1947 but in cloud chamber photographs, the *K meson* as also been an im-
1049 portant step towards the establishment of the Standard Model. A triplet of particle, 2 charged and a
1050 neutral, with a mass roughly half that of a proton, were reported. These particles were baptised *K*
1051 *meson* in contrast to the "light" *pi* and *mu* "L-mesons". The particularity of the *K* were there very
1052 slow decays with a typical lifetime of the order of 10^{-10} s much greater than the 10^{-23} s of *pi*-proton
1053 reactions. The concept of *strangeness*, a new quantum number was then introduced by Pais as an

attempt to explain this phenomenon 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.

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

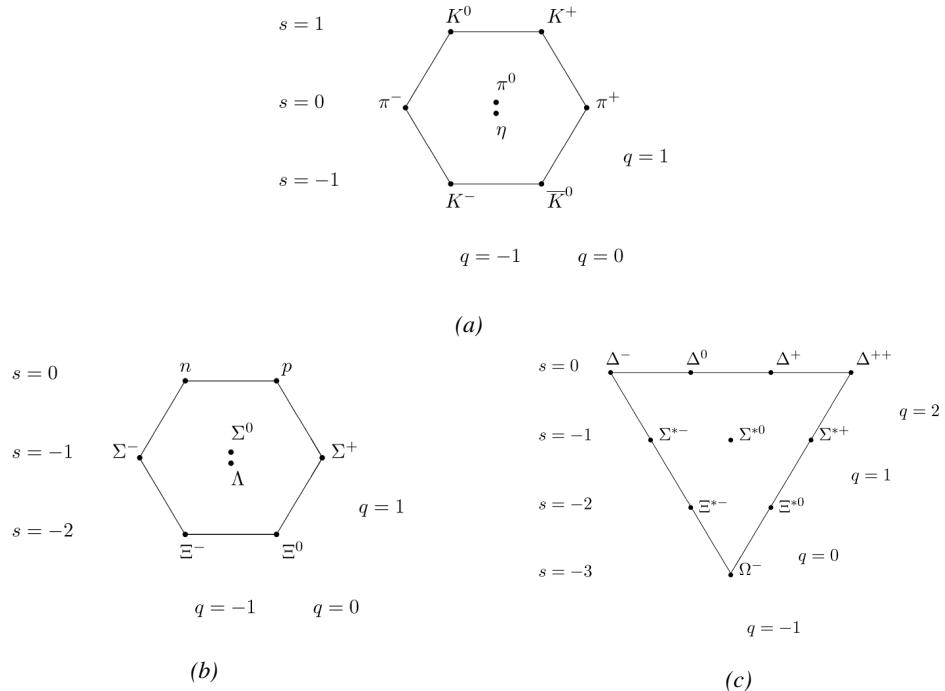


Figure 2.2: Figure 2.2a: Meson octet. Figure 2.2b: Baryon octet. Figure 2.2c: Baryon decuplet.

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 even though it provided a robust explanation to *kaon* (K) and *pion* (π). However, in the decade following the Gell-Mann-Zweig quark model proposition, several improvements 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 were referred 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* was discovered in 1974 at both SLAC and Brookhaven National Laboratory (BNL). A meson where the *charm* was bound with an *anti-charm*, called J/ψ , would help convince the physics community of the validity of the model. The *top* was 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 to 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. Independently, Greenberg and Han-Nambu proposed an additional SU(3) degree of freedom possessed by the quarks, that would later be referred 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 Gross, 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.

1106 **The Weak interaction, spontaneous symmetry breaking, the Higgs mechanism and the Elec- 1107 troweak unification**

1108 The weak interaction is the process that causes radioactive decays. Thanks to the neutron discovery,
1109 Fermi could explain in 1934 the beta radiations through the beta decay process in which the neutron
1110 decays into a proton by emitting an electron. Though the missing energy observed during this
1111 process triggered a huge debate about the apparent non conservation of energy, momentum and spin
1112 of the process, Fermi, as Pauli before him, proposed that the missing energy was due to a neutral
1113 not yet discovered particle that would then be baptised *neutrino*. The impossibility to detect such
1114 a particle would leave some members of the scientific community sceptical, but hints of energy
1115 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 $5 \times 10^{13} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$. 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.

$$(2.6) \quad \bar{\nu} + p \rightarrow n + e^+$$

The theory could not be valid though as the probability of interaction, called cross-section, would have been increasing without bound 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 Gamow 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 developed by Nambu and Jona-Lasinio in 1961, and now understood as a low-energy approximation of QCD. Similarly 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.

1158 Although the model in itself didn't revolutionize particle physics, spontaneous symmetry breaking
 1159 would be generalized to quantum field theories. As all fundamental interactions are described
 1160 using gauge theories based on underlying symmetries, processes such as the chiral symmetry breaking
 1161 would be introduced soon after the publication of Nambu and Jona-Lasinio. In 1962, Anderson,
 1162 following an idea of Schwinger who suggested that zero-mass vector bosons were not necessarily
 1163 required to describe the conservation of baryons contrary to the bosons emerging from chiral sym-
 1164 metry breaking, discussed the implications of spontaneous symmetry breaking in particles physics.
 1165 A model was finally independently built in 1964 by Brout and Englert, Higgs, and Guralnik, Hagen,
 1166 and Kibble, who discovered that combining an additional field into a gauge theory in order to break
 1167 the symmetry, the resulting gauge bosons acquire a nonzero mass. Moreover, Higgs stated that this
 1168 implied the existence of at least one new massive, i.e. self-interacting, scalar boson, that are now
 1169 known as *Higgs bosons* corresponding to this additional field. The Higgs mechanism today specifi-
 1170 cally refers to the process through which the gauge bosons of the weak interaction acquire mass. In
 1171 1968, Weinberg could point to the Higgs mechanism to integrate a Higgs field into a new version
 1172 of the electroweak theory in which the spontaneous symmetry breaking mechanism of the Higgs
 1173 field would explicitly explain the masses of the weak interaction gauge bosons and the zero-mass
 1174 of photons.

1175 **2.1.2 Construction and test of the model**

1176 The Standard Model of particle physics was built in the middle of the 1970s after the experimental
 1177 confirmation of the existence of quarks. It is based on the assembly of the models previously intro-
 1178 duced and describing the fundamental interactions, except for gravitation, and their gauge bosons
 1179 as well as the way elementary "matter" particles interact with the fields associated with these force
 1180 carriers. In this sense, the development of QED and the unification of the electroweak interaction,
 1181 of the Yukawa interaction and of QCD, and of the Higgs mechanism made it possible to explain most
 1182 of contemporary physics.

1183 In the SM, "matter" particles, are described by 12 fermion fields of spin $\frac{1}{2}$ obeying the Fermi-
 1184 Dirac statistics, i.e. subjected to the Pauli exclusion principle. To each fermion is associated its
 1185 corresponding antiparticle. The fermions are classified according to the way they interact and, thus,
 1186 according to the charges they carry. 6 of them are classified as quarks (u , d , c , s , t , and b) and
 1187 are subjected to all interactions and the 6 others as leptons (e^- , μ^- , τ^- , ν_e , ν_μ , and ν_τ). Leptons
 1188 are not subjected to the strong interaction and among them, the 3 neutrinos only interact weakly as
 1189 they are neutral particles, which explains why they are so difficult to detect. The gauge boson fields
 1190 are the gluons g for the strong interaction, the photon γ for the electromagnetic interaction and the
 1191 weak bosons W^+ , W^- , and Z^0 for the weak interaction. Finally, the Higgs field H^0 is responsible,
 1192 through the spontaneous symmetry breaking, of the mixing of the massless electroweak boson fields
 1193 W_1 , W_2 , W_3 , and B leading to the observable states γ , W^+ , W^- , and Z^0 that can gain mass while
 1194 interacting with the Higgs field. This picture of the SM is summarized through Figure 2.3 where the
 1195 antifermions are not showed.

1196 When the model was first finalized, the existence of the weak gauge bosons, of the charm, of the
 1197 third quark generation composed of top and bottom quarks to explain the observed CP violation was
 1198 not proven but the predictions were measured with good precision in the years following. First, the
 1199 charm quark would be discovered in 1974, followed by the bottom quark in 1977. The weak bosons
 1200 would be discovered during the next decade in 1983. The top quark would resist until 1995 due to
 1201 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 finally be observed 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 . Even though 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 bound 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.

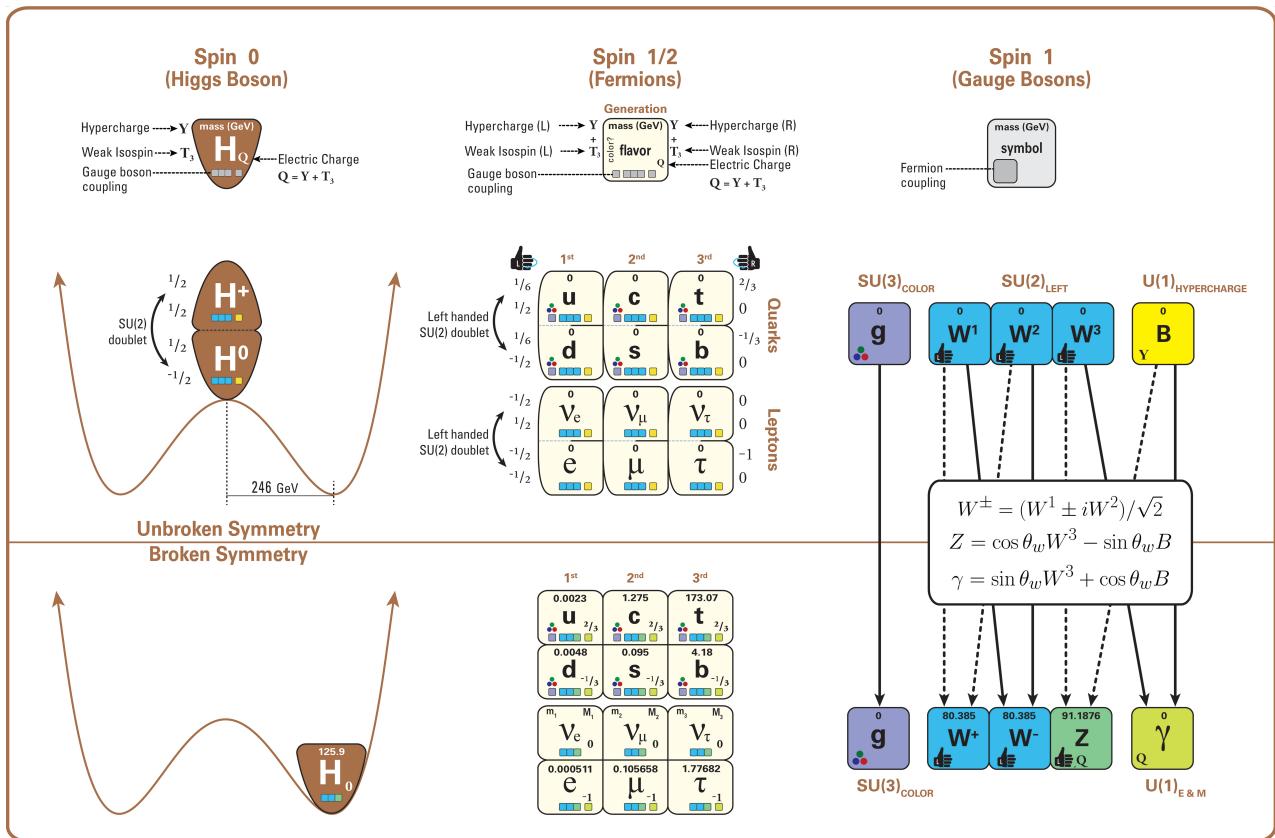


Figure 2.3: The elementary particles of the Standard Model are shown along with their names and properties. Their interactions with the strong, weak and electromagnetic forces have been explicated using color squares. In the left column, the scalar higgs boson is depicted, while the central is focused 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.

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 19th century where Kelvin proposed that this problem could be solved if a "*great majority of [the stars] would be dark bodies*". Throughout the 20th 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 fun-

1258 damental force, this problem would automatically fade.

1259
 1260 All these different aspects of physics beyond the Standard Model of particle physics and the
 1261 Standard model itself can be tested through the use of very energetic and intense hadron and ion col-
 1262 liders. The LHC at CERN is a perfect tool to seek answers to these open questions except maybe for
 1263 the gravity as gravity is extremely weak at particles level. For example, one of LHCb experiment's
 1264 goal is to investigate CP-violation and thus baryonic asymmetry. In 2017, the collaboration has an-
 1265 nounced to have so far a 3.3σ statistical significance over a CP-violation through the study of the
 1266 decays of Λ_b^0 and $\bar{\Lambda}_b^0$ into a proton (or antiproton) and 3 pions. Many analysis teams are also working
 1267 hard on supersymmetry both in ATLAS and CMS collaborations, the two multipurpose experiments
 1268 of LHC, even though no evidence of a supersymmetrical theory was seen, the few hint having the
 1269 tendency to confirm the standard model. These experiments also have the possibility to investigate
 1270 ways to explain Majorana neutrino mass through Yukawa interactions of scalar particles.

1271 The higher the center-of-mass energy, the smaller details the experiments will be able to see, the
 1272 heavier the potential particle creation barrier will be, the stronger the cross-section of certain rare
 1273 decay channels will be. As a comparison, with collisions happening at 14 TeV, the LHC is approxi-
 1274 mately 2 orders of magnitude more sensitive to the Higgs than the Tevatron was with its already very
 1275 powerful 2 TeV. All these advantages eventually lead to new discoveries and deeper understanding
 1276 of the models describing our Universe. But the LHC only is a step forward to gather more precise
 1277 tests of the Standard Model and new knowledge about the physics beyond it. A successful physics
 1278 campaign will probably serve to justify the building of new accelerators with even greater discovery
 1279 potential like for example the Future Circular Collider (FCC) that would push even further the study
 1280 of the unanswered questions of contemporary physics.

1281 **2.2 The Large Hadron Collider & the Compact Muon Solenoid**

1282 Throughout its history, CERN has played a leading role in high energy particle physics. Large re-
 1283 gional facilities such as CERN were thought after the second world war in an attempt to increase
 1284 international scientific collaboration and allows scientists to share the forever increasing costs of
 1285 experiment facilties required due to the need for increasing the energy in the center of mass to
 1286 deeper probe matter. The construction of the first accelerators at the end of the 50s, the Synchro-
 1287 cyclotron (SC) and the Proton Synchrotron (PS), was directly followed by the first observation of
 1288 antinuclei in 1965 [1]. Strong from the experience of the Intersecting Storage Rings (ISR), the very
 1289 first proton-proton collider that showed hints that protons are not elementary particles, the Super
 1290 Proton Synchrotron (SPS) was built in the 70s to investigate the structure of protons, the preference
 1291 for matter over antimatter, the state of matter in the early universe or exotic particles, and lead to
 1292 the discovery in 1983 of the W and Z bosons [2–5]. These newly discovered particles and the elec-
 1293 troweak interreaction would then be studied in details by the Large Electron-Positron (LEP) collider
 1294 that will help to prove in 1989 that there only are three generations of elementary particles [6]. The
 1295 LEP would then be dismantled in 2000 to allow for the LHC to be constructed in the existing tunnel.

1296 **2.2.1 LHC, the most powerful particle accelerator**

1297 The LHC has always been considered as an option to the future of CERN. At the moment of the
 1298 construction of the LEP beneath the border between France and Switzerland, the tunnel was built in
 1299 order to accomodate what would be a Large Hadron Collider with a dipole field of 10 T and a beam

1300 energy in between 8 and 9 TeV [7] directly followed in 1985 with the creation of a 'Working Group
1301 on the Scientific and Technological Future of CERN' to investigate such a collider [8]. The decision
1302 was finally taken almost 10 years later, in 1994, to construct the LHC in the LEP tunnel [9] and the
1303 approval of the 4 main experiments that would take place at the 4 interaction points would come in
1304 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 experiments 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.

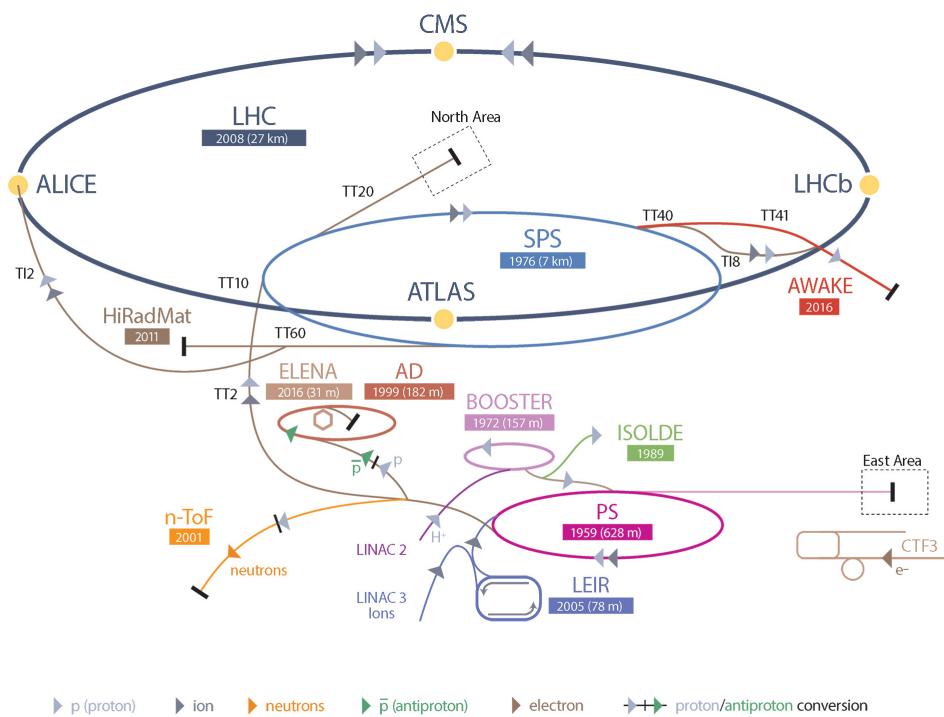


Figure 2.4: CERN accelerator complex.

These large scale experiments, as well as the full CERN accelerator complex, are displayed on Figure 2.4. The LHC is a 27 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 TeV and luminosity of $10^{34} \text{ cm}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$, as well as Pb ions at a center-of-mass energy of 2.8 TeV/A with a peak luminosity of $10^{27} \text{ cm}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$. 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),

1319 the accelerator will be in the so called High Luminosity LHC configuration [20], increasing its
 1320 instantaneous luminosity to $10^{35} \text{ cm}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$ for pp collisions and to $4.5 \times 10^{27} \text{ cm}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$, boosting the
 1321 discovery potential of the LHC. The HL-LHC phase should last at least another 10 years depending
 1322 on the breakthrough this machine would lead to. Already a new accelerating device, the FCC, has
 1323 been proposed to prepare the future of high energy physics after the LHC.

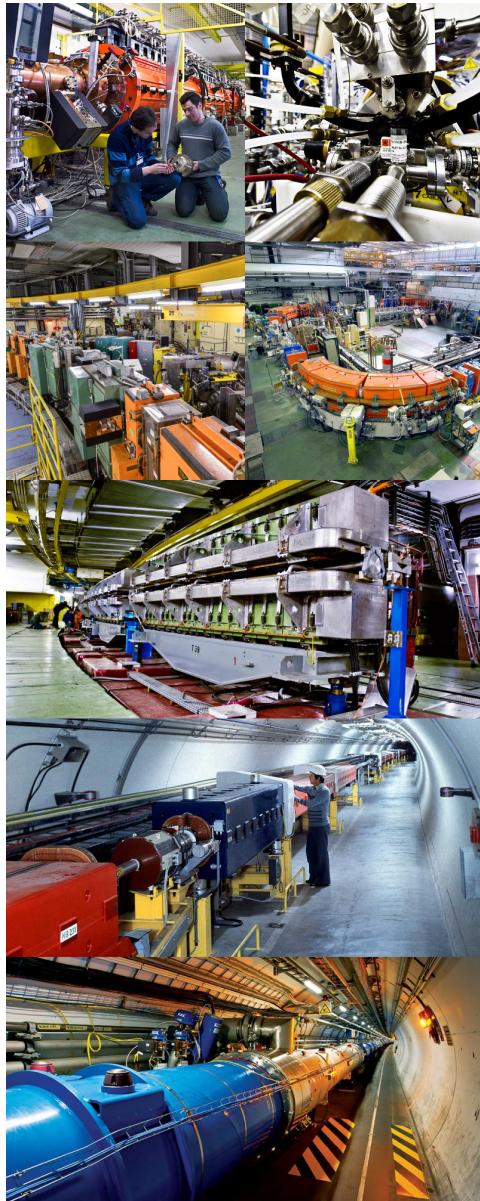


Figure 2.5: Pictures of the different accelerators. From top to bottom: first the LINAC 2 and the Pb source of LINAC 3. Then the Booster and the LEIR. Finally, the PS, the SPS and the LHC.

1324 The LHC is the last of a long series of accelerating devices. Before being accelerated by the
 1325 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* in which a strong electric field strips the electron off the hydrogen 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 behind and pulling them from the front and ultimately give them an energy of 50 MeV, increasing their mass by 5% in the process.

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 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 GeV. Since the 70s, the main goal of this 628 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*-collisions 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 stripped 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 accelerated by the LEIR from 4.2 MeV to 72 MeV.

Directly following the PS, is finally the last acceleration stage before the LHC, the 7 km long *SPS*. The SPS accelerates the protons to 450 GeV and inject proton in both LHC accelerator rings that will increase their energy up to 7 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 TeV/A.

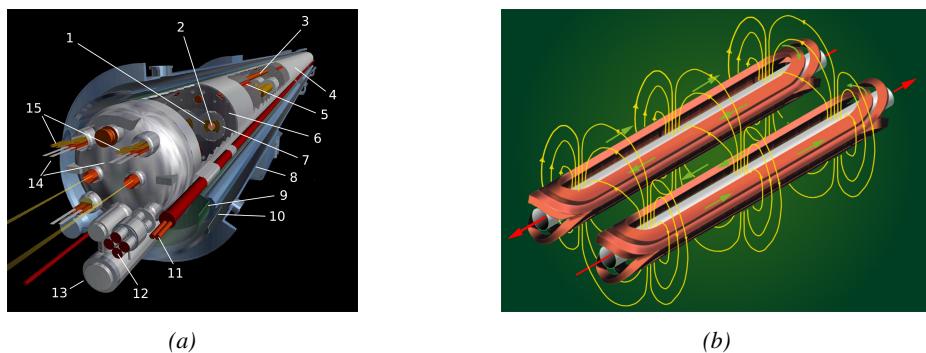


Figure 2.6: Figure 2.6a: schematics of the LHC cryodipoles. 1: Superconducting Coils, 2: Beam pipe, 3: Heat exchanger Pipe, 4: Helium-II Vessel, 5: Superconducting Bus-bar, 6: Iron Yoke, 7: Non-Magnetic Collars, 8: Vacuum Vessel, 9: Radiation Screen, 10: Thermal Shield, 11: Auxiliary Bus-bar Tube, 12: 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 particles. When in *pp*-collision mode, the beams are composed of 2808 bunches of 1.15×10^{11} protons separated by 25 ns.

1355 When in Pb collision mode, the 592 Pb bunches are on the contrary composed of 2.2×10^8 ions
 1356 separated by 100 ns. The two parallel proton beams of the LHC are contained in a single twin-
 1357 bore magnet due to the space restriction in the LEP tunnel. Indeed, building 2 completely separate
 1358 accelerator rings next to each other was impossible. The dipoles of the 1232 twin-bore magnets are
 1359 showed in Figure 2.6 alongside the magnetic field generated along the dipole section to accelerate the
 1360 particles. The dipoles generate a nominal field of 8.33 T, needed to give protons and lead nucleons
 1361 their nominal energy. Some 392 quadrupoles, presented in Figure 2.7, are also used to focus to the
 1362 beams, as well as other multipoles to correct smaller imperfections.

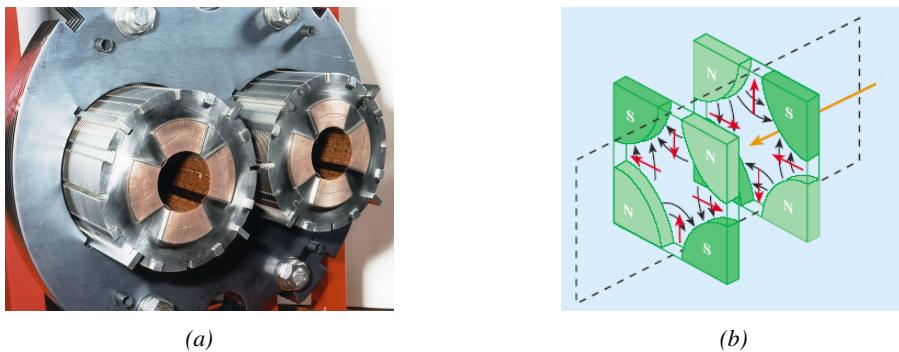


Figure 2.7: Figure 2.7a: picture of the LHC quadrupoles. Figure 2.7b: magnetic fields and resulting focussing force applied on the beam by 2 consecutive quadrupoles.

1363 2.2.2 CMS, a multipurpose experiment

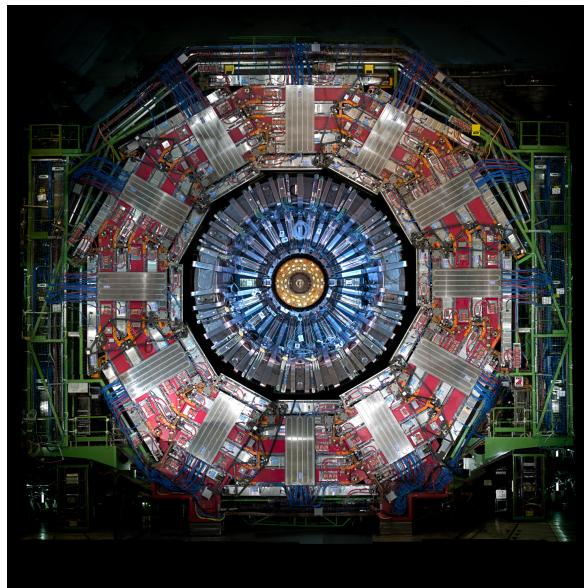


Figure 2.8: Picture of the CMS barrel. The red outer layer is the muon system hosted into the red iron return yokes. The calorimeters are the blue cylinder inside in magnet solenoid and the tracker is the inner yellow cylinder built around the beam pipe.

1364 Among the four main LHC experiments is the Compact Muon Solenoid used as a multipurpose tool to
 1365 investigate the SM and physics beyond its scope. Proposed through a letter of intention in 1992 [14],
 1366 and as its name suggests, this very compact detector's uses the muons as a clear tag of most of SM
 1367 and new physics interesting channels. In the original 1997 Technical Design Report (TDR) [21], the
 1368 very first sentences were stating that "*Muons are an unmistakable signature of most of the physics*
 1369 *LHC is designed to explore. The ability to trigger on and reconstruct muons at the highest lumi-*
 1370 *nosities is central to the concept of CMS, the Compact Muon Solenoid.*" CMS participated in the
 1371 discovery of the Higgs boson and the measurement of its properties and couplings together with
 1372 ATLAS and is also actively involved in the search for SUSY and heavy ion collisions. Other exotic
 1373 physics are also being investigated using the data collected by CMS.

1374 The CMS apparatus in itself is the heaviest detector ever built starring a SI15m diameter and a
 1375 29 m length for a total weight of 14 kT. A thick 4 T solenoid magnet located at the beam interaction
 1376 point hosts trackers and calorimeters. Extending in all directions around the magnet, heavy iron
 1377 return yokes are installed to extend the magnetic field and support a muon system. The apparatus
 1378 consists of a barrel, referring to the magnet and the detectors contained in it and the part of the
 1379 muon system built directly in the cylinder around the magnet, and of 2 endcaps in the forward and
 1380 backward region of the detector that closes the apparatus and complete the detection coverage along
 1381 the beam line. A front view on the barrel is provided in Figure 2.8 while a detailed view of the
 1382 apparatus is given in Figure 2.9.

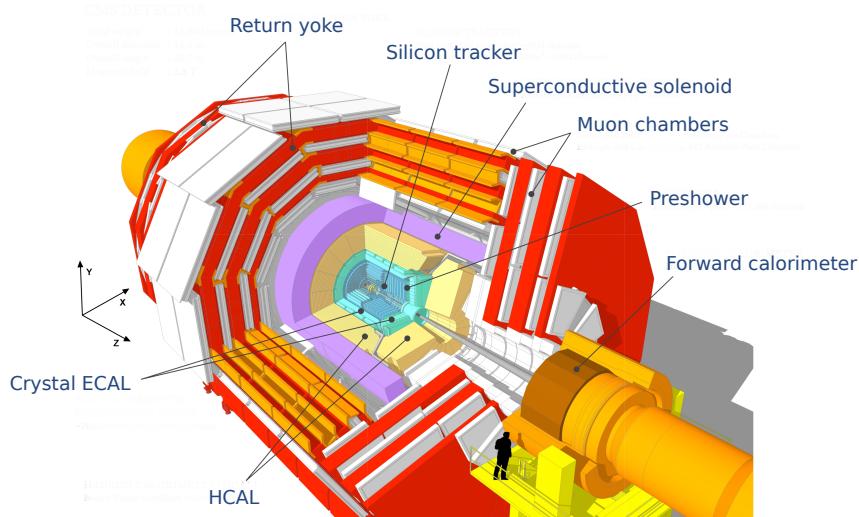


Figure 2.9: View of the CMS apparatus and of its different components.

1383 In order to efficiently detect all long leaving particles and measure their properties with good
 1384 precision, the CMS detector uses an onion like layout around of the interaction point in order to
 1385 maximize the covered solid angle. As detailed in Figure 2.10, in the innermost region of the detector,
 1386 closest to the interaction point, the silicon tracker records the trajectory of charged particles. Around
 1387 it, the electromagnetic calorimeter (ECAL) stops and measure the energy deposition of electrons
 1388 and photons. In the next layer, the hadron calorimeter (HCAL), hadrons are stopped and their energy
 1389 measured. These layers are contained inside of the magnet of CMS, the superconducting solenoid.
 1390 Outside of the magnet are the muon chambers embedded into iron return yokes used to control the

1391 magnetic field and gives muons, the only particles traveling completely through the whole detector, a
 1392 double bending helping in reconstructing their energy and trajectory. Note that photons and neutral
 1393 hadrons are differentiated from electrons and charged hadrons in the calorimeters by the fact that
 1394 don't interact with the silicon tracker and that they are not influenced by the magnetic field.

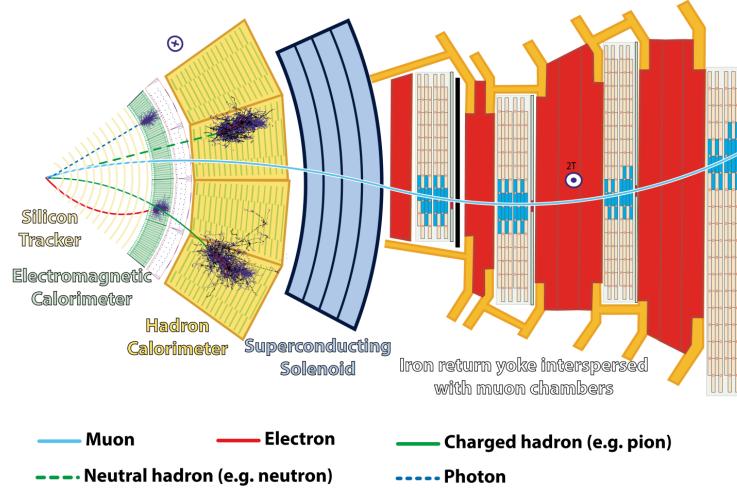


Figure 2.10: Slice showing CMS sub-detectors and how particles interact with them.

1395 2.2.2.1 The silicon tracker, core of CMS

1396 The silicon tracker visible on Figure 2.11 is divided into 2 different sub-systems: the *pixel detector*
 1397 at the very core and the *microstrip detector* around it. This system is composed of 75 million
 1398 individual readout channels with up to 6000 channels per squared centimeter for the pixels making
 1399 it the world's biggest silicon detector. This density allows for measurements of the particle tracks
 1400 with a precision of the order of $10 \mu\text{m}$. This is necessary to reconstruct all the different interaction
 1401 vertices with precision and have a precise measure of the curvature of the charged particles traveling
 1402 through the magnetic field to estimate their charge and momentum.

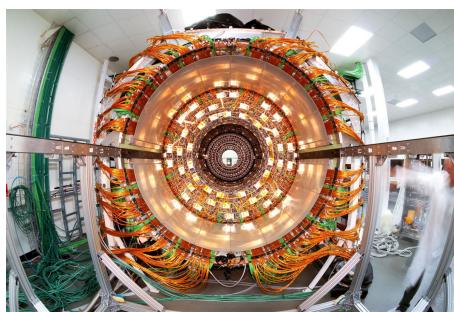


Figure 2.11: CMS tracker.

1403 2.2.2.2 The calorimeters, measurement of particle's energy

1404 The ECAL directly surrounding the tracker is composed of crystals of lead tungstate, PbWO_4 , a
 1405 very dense but optically transparent material used to stop high energy electrons and photons. These

1406 crystal blocks basically are extremely dense scintillators which scintillate in fast, short light bursts
 1407 proportionally to the energy deposition. The light is yielded rapidly and contained at 80% in the
 1408 corresponding 25 ns lasting bunch crossing. Each crystal is isolated from the other by the carbon
 1409 fiber matrix they are embedded in. It is composed of a barrel containing more than 60,000 crystals
 1410 and of closing endcaps containing another 15,000 crystals. In front of the ECAL endcap is installed
 1411 a preshower detector made out of two layers of lead and silicon strip detectors to increase the spatial
 1412 resolution close to the beam line for pion-photon and single-double photon discrimination purposes.
 1413 Figure 2.12 shows the calorimeter inside of the magnet and the crystals.

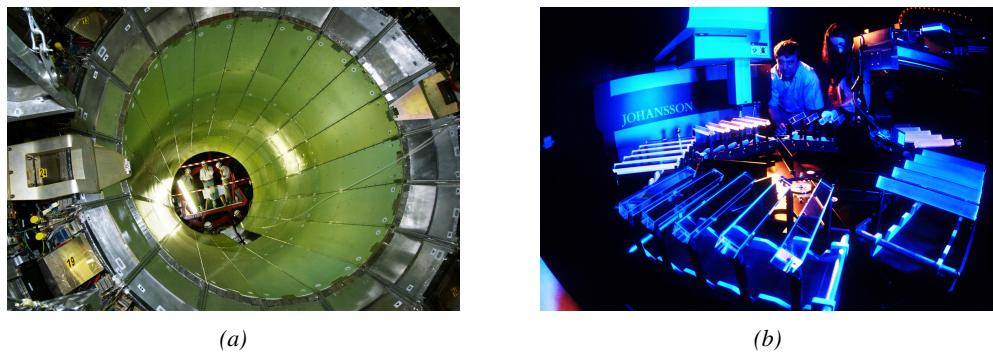


Figure 2.12: Figure 2.12a: picture of the ECAL. Figure 2.12b: picture of the lead tungstate crystals composing the ECAL.

1414 The next layer is the HCAL measuring the hadrons momentum and providing indirect hints of
 1415 non interacting neutral particles, such as neutrinos, as missing transverse momentum. Several layers
 1416 of brass or steel are interleaved with plastic scintillators readout by photodiodes using wavelength-
 1417 shifting fibers. The HCAL is also composed of a barrel, showed in Figure 2.13 and of endcaps. It
 1418 also features forward calorimeters on both sides of CMS in the region very close to the beam line at
 1419 high pseudorapidity ($3.0 < |\eta| < 5.0$). The role of these forward calorimeters, made using steel and
 1420 quartz fibers, is to measure very energetic hadrons.



Figure 2.13: CMS hadron calorimeter barrel.

1421 Finally, in the outer region of the apparatus, a muon system is used to trigger on potentially
 1422 interesting event by identifying muons. Indeed, the muon system is a very important part of the
 1423 CMS trigger infrastructure designed to efficiently select data from the enormous data flow received
 1424 by the detectors as the LHC delivers collisions at a rate of 40 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 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 transverse 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 Chambers 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.

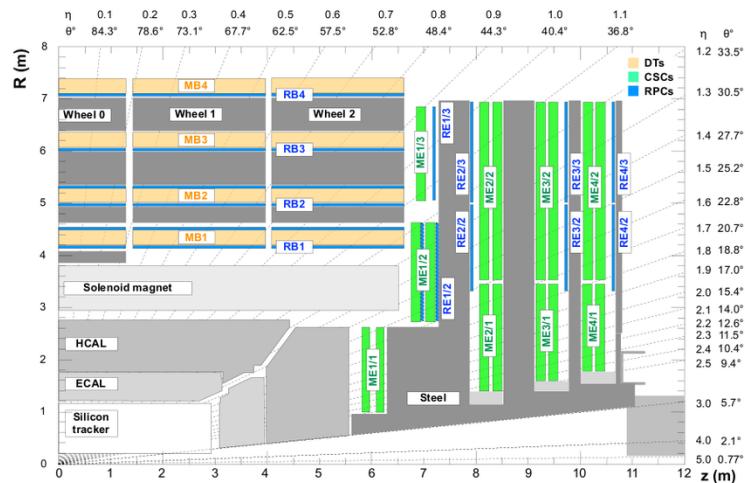


Figure 2.14: A quadrant of the muon system, showing DTs (yellow), RPCs (blue), and CSCs (green).

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 μm along both the ($r - \phi$) and ($r - z$) components while the resolution of CSCs is similar but varies in a range

from 50 μm to 140 μm 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 ns.

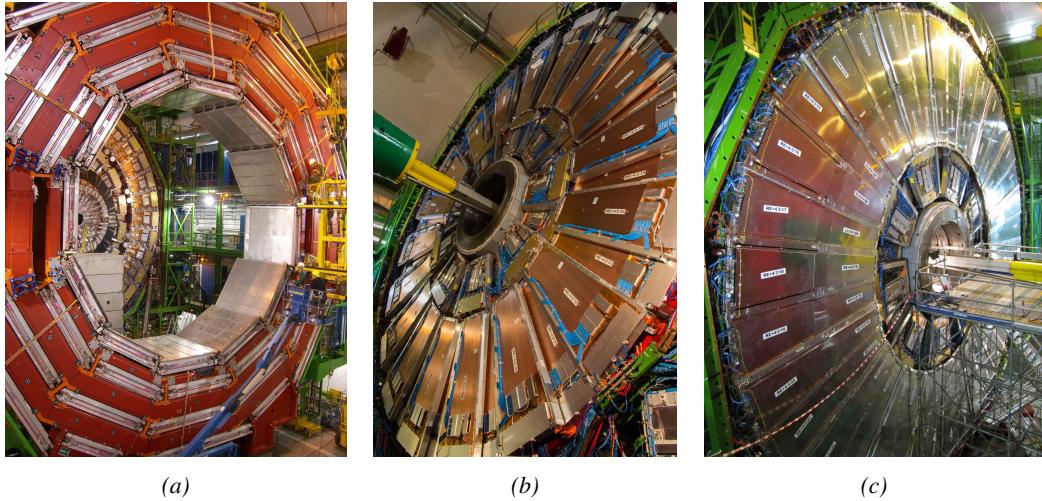


Figure 2.15: Figure 2.15a: Barrel wheel with its detector rings and return yokes. Figure 2.15b: CSC endcap disk with the 2 CSC stations. The outer station is made of 10 deg detectors while the inner station is made of 20 deg detectors. Figure 2.15c: RPC endcap disk. The inner station is not equipped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

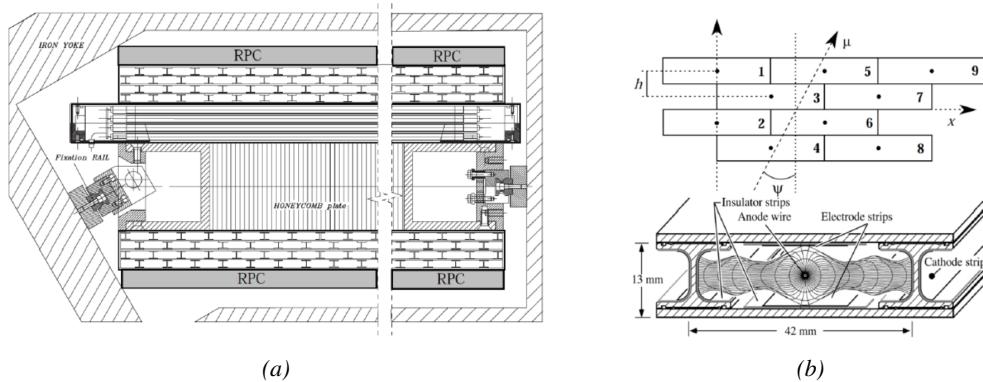


Figure 2.16: Figure 2.16a: Cross section of a DT module showing the two superlayers measuring the ϕ coordinate, perpendicular to the cross section plane, and the superlayer measuring the η coordinate, placed in between the two others with honeycomb and parallel to the cross section plane. The DT detector 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.

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

1458 cell is a rectangular aluminium gas volume with a central anode wire. Cathode strips are placed on
 1459 the narrow surface of the cells and electrode strips are placed on the wide surface to help shaping
 1460 the electric field to ensure a consistent drift velocity of electrons in the drift volume. These detectors
 1461 are operated using a 85/15 mixture of Ar and CO_2 .

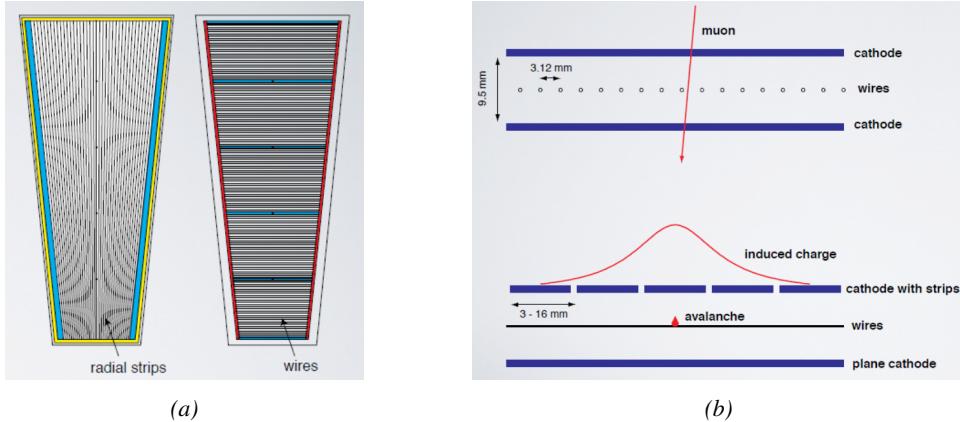


Figure 2.17: Figure 2.17a: cathode strips and anode wire layout of a CSC panel. Figure 2.17b avalanche development and charge collection by anode wires and induction on cathode strips inside of a CSC panel.

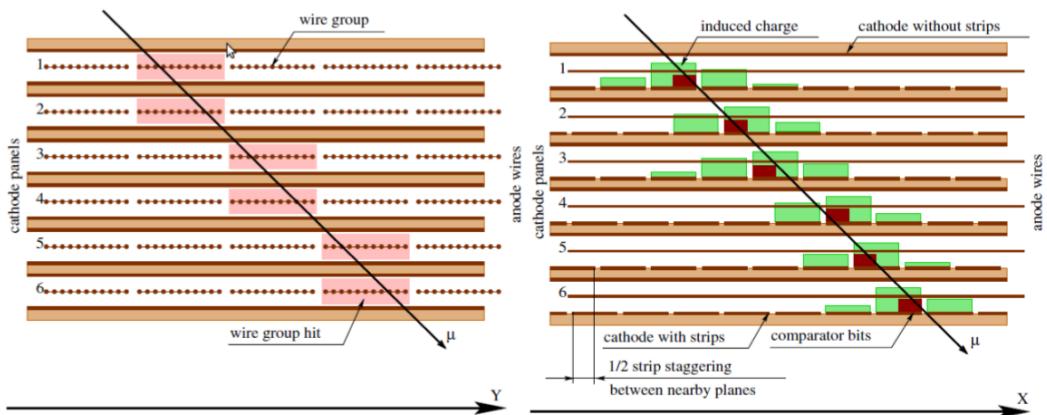


Figure 2.18: Muon track reconstruction through the 6 panels of a CMS CSC using the information of anode wire groups and cathode strip charge distribution combined with comparator bits to decide on which half strip the muon is more likely to have passed.

1462 The 540 CMS CSCs, found in the endcaps covering the pseudorapidity region $0.9 < |\eta| < 2.5$
 1463 and described through Figures 2.17 and 2.18, are composed of 6 panels of CSC, each panel consisting
 1464 in a wide gas volume of 9.5 mm (7 mm in the case of ME1/1 station) containing anode wires and
 1465 whose surfaces are cathodes. The top cathode is a wide copper plane of the size of the gas volume.
 1466 The bottom cathode is divided into thin trapezoidal copper strips radially arranged to measure the
 1467 azimuthal coordinate ϕ with a pitch ranging from 8 to 16 mm. The $0.50 \mu m$ anode wires are placed
 1468 perpendicularly to the strips to measure radial coordinate r and are grouped by 10 to 15 with a wire
 1469 to wire space of 3.2 mm. In the specific case of ME1/1 placed against the HCAL endcap, the $0.30 \mu m$

1470 anode wires have a wire to wire distance of 2.5 mm and are not disposed perpendicularly to the strips
 1471 but slightly tilted by an angle of 29 deg to compensate for the lorentz force due to the very strong
 1472 local magnetic field of 4 T. These detectors are operated with a 40/50/10 mixture of Ar , CO_2 and
 1473 CF_4 . Combining the information of the multiple CSC panels, the detectors achieve a very precise
 1474 measurement of the muon track.

1475 Despite their excellent spatial resolution, the wire chambers (DTs and CSCs) are limited in terms
 1476 of time resolution by the fact that the charge needs to drift towards the anode wire and be collected
 1477 before having the confirmation that a particle was detected as the drift volume is not used to develop
 1478 avalanches. Indeed, the stronger electric field close to the anode wire triggers the avalanche and the
 1479 gain of the detector. Due to the drift, the time resolution is thus limited at best to approximately 2 to
 1480 3 ns. In addition, even though the intrinsic time resolution of the tracking chambers is rather good
 1481 compared to the 25 ns in between successive collisions, the processing time of the trigger system
 1482 doesn't allow for very fast triggering as it provides a time precision of only 12.5 ns. Thus, detectors
 1483 fully dedicated to timing measurement have been installed as a redundant system. These detectors
 1484 are RPCs, also gaseous detectors but that use current induction instead of charge collection allowing
 1485 for a time resolution of the order of 1.5 ns only. Theoretically, depending on the design used, RPCs
 1486 could reach a time resolution of the order of 10 ps but in the context of LHC where bunch crossing
 1487 happen every 25 ns, a time resolution of 1.5 ns is sufficient to accurately assign the right bunch
 1488 crossing to each detected muon.

1489 The 1056 RPCs equipping the CMS muon system both in the barrel and endcap regions and
 1490 covering the pseudorapidity region $0 < |\eta| < 1.6$ are composed of two layers of RPC *gaps* as
 1491 described in Figure 2.19. Each gap consists in two resistive electrodes made out of 2 mm thick
 1492 Bakelite enclosing a 2 mm thick gas volume containing a 95.2/4.5/0.3 mixture of $C_2H_2F_4$, $i - C_4H_{10}$ and SF_6 . Due to this geometry, the electric field inside of a gap is homogeneous and linear
 1494 at every point in the gas translating into a uniform development of avalanches in the gas volume as
 1495 soon as a passing muon ionises the gas. The two gaps sandwich a readout copper strip plane. A
 1496 negative voltage is applied on the outer electrodes, used as cathodes, and the inner electrodes, the
 1497 anodes, are simply connected to the ground as well as the readout panel that picks up the current
 1498 induced by the accumulated charge of the growing avalanches in one or both of the gas gaps. This
 1499 OR system allows for a lower gain (i.e. a lower electric field) on both gaps to reach the maximal
 1500 efficiency of such a detector.

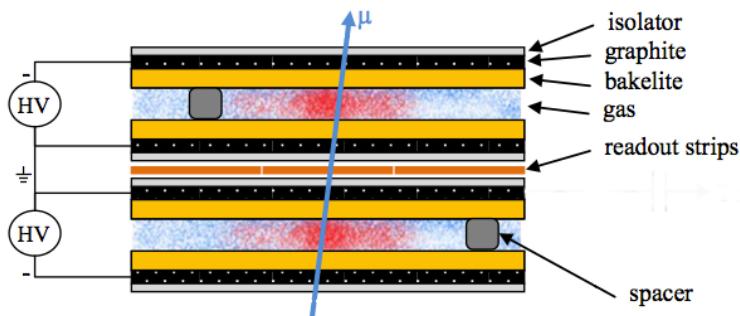


Figure 2.19: Double gap layout of CMS RPCs. Muons passing through the gas volumes will create electron-ion pairs by ionising the gas. this ionisation will immediately translate into a developing avalanche.

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Muon Phase-II Upgrade

1503 The very first proton beam successfully circulated in the LHC in September 2008 directly followed
1504 by an incident leading to mechanical damage that would delay the LHC program for a year until
1505 November 2009, the very first collisions at a center-of-mass energy of 7 TeV taking place in March
1506 2010. The energy of the beam would be increased after a First Long Shutdown (LS1) starting early
1507 2013 after less than 3 years of data taking. Nevertheless, this first data taking period at only 7 TeV
1508 was sufficient to claim the discovery of a new particle compatible with the Higgs boson in July 2012.
1509 During the 2 years of shutdown, the upgrade of the accelerator allowed for several maintainances
1510 along the beam pipes, repair and consolidation of magnet connection and high-current splices. But
1511 not only the LHC was upgraded. Indeed, the experiments at the 4 collision points also took the
1512 advantage of this time to upgrade their system in prevision of the next LHC run (Run-II) until
1513 2018 and the Second Long Shutdown (LS2) as the luminosity and energy of the beam would be
1514 continuously increasing. By the end of Run-II, the luminosity will have reached twice its nominal
1515 value when the center-of-mass energy has already got close to its nominal value by reaching an
1516 historical 13 TeV for the first time in 2017.

1517 The next long shutdown will occur at the end of this year and will again be the occasion for sim-
1518 ilar maintenance and consolidation in prevision of Run-III and the future upgrade of LS3. Still, the
1519 main occupation of LS2 on LHC side will be the upgrade of LHC injectors. On the experiments side,
1520 LHCb and ALICE will, in a very tight schedule, implement major upgrades while ATLAS and CMS
1521 will wait until LS3 to upgrade their detectors in prevision of high luminosity *LHC-Phase-II*. ALICE
1522 main challenge is an upgrade of their apparatus to cope with the 50 kHz $Pb - Pb$ collisions. Simi-
1523 larly, LHCb will upgrade their frontend readout electronics to cope with the full 40 MHz collisions
1524 delivered by LHC. ATLAS will perform standard maintenance and CMS will focus on the urgent up-
1525 grade of the pixel detector and on the installation of new muon detectors in order to take profit of LS2
1526 time to mitigate the upgrade of detectors foreseen during LS3. Run-III will start in 2021 with the LHC
1527 at its nominal center-of-mass energy and will bring LHC-Phase-I to an end at the end of 2023. By
1528 then the luminosity will only increase to reach 2.5 times the nominal luminosity but during these 3
1529 years of run, the LHC will deliver as much integrated luminosity as what what brought during the al-

most 7 years of both Run-I and II of data taking. Phase-I will end with an overall 300 fb^{-1} delivered.

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3.1 High Luminosity LHC and muon system requirements

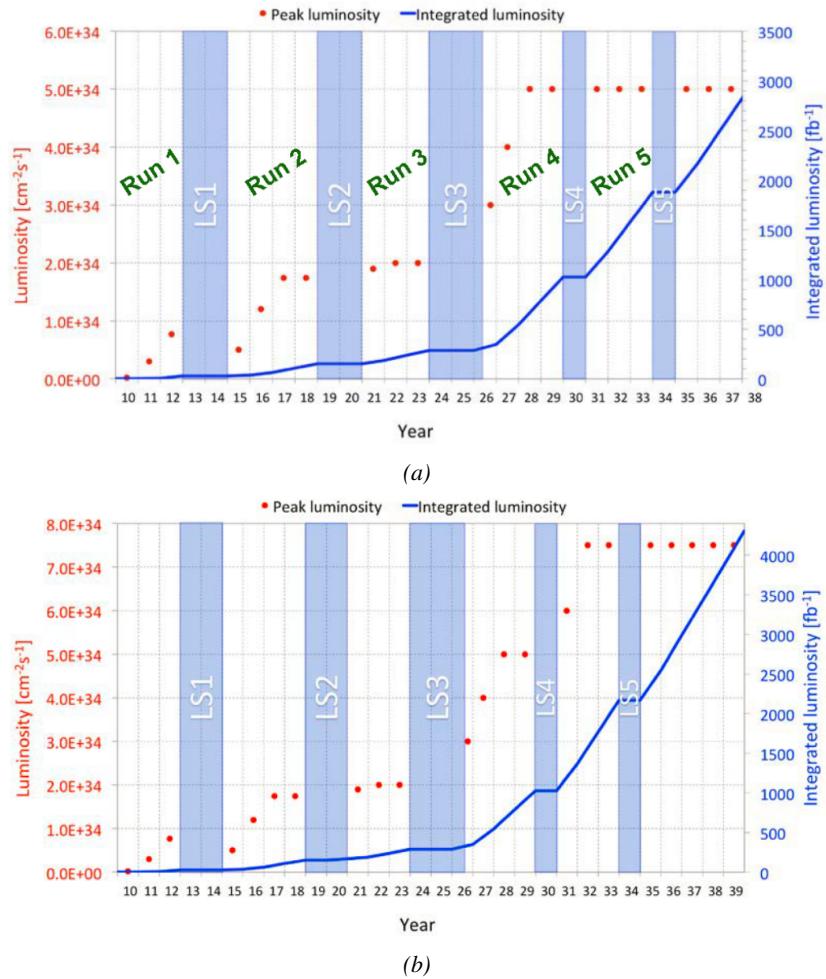


Figure 3.1: Detailed timeline projection of for LHC and HL-LHC operation until 2039 showing the evolution of the instantaneous and integrated luminosity as designed (Figure 3.1a) and in the ultimate case where the instantaneous luminosity is increased to $7.5 \times 10^{34} \text{ cm}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$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

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1540 bunched just prior to the collisions by giving them transverse momentum and thus increasing their
 1541 meeting area. In addition, the full proton injection line will be upgraded.

1542 Over its full lifetime, the HL-LHC is expected to deliver an outstanding integrated luminosity of
 1543 3000 fb^{-1} leading, in the case of Higgs studies to measuring the couplings of the boson to a precision
 1544 of 2 to 5% thanks to the estimated 15 millions of Higgs created every year providing a more precise
 1545 measurement of potential deviations from the theoretical predictions. SUSY and heavy gauge boson
 1546 studies would also see their mass range limits pushed away by at least 1 TeV and could lead to a new
 1547 breakthrough. SUSY is a particularly important topic as it could give an answer to why the Higgs
 1548 boson can stay so light while coupled to heavy particles by introducing the contributions of the super
 1549 partners on top of providing dark matter candidates. Finally, the increase of luminosity will give the
 1550 possibility to investigate "exotic" mode like for example the models introducing extra dimensions to
 1551 explain the hierarchy problem.

1552 On the experiments side, the pile-up (PU) will be increased up to 150 to 200 interactions per
 1553 bunch crossing in ATLAS and CMS, making necessary an strong upgrade of the trigger system and
 1554 of the inner trackers and of the calorimeters. Both ATLAS and CMS will also need to upgrade
 1555 the muon trigger at the level of the endcaps mainly focusing on the coverage near the beam line in
 1556 order to increase the detection acceptance and event selection. Moreover, the increased luminosity
 1557 will also lead to an increased background rate and a faster ageing of the detectors. This PhD work
 1558 takes place into this very specific context of muon detector consolidation and certification for the
 1559 HL-LHC period in order to provide the CMS experiment with robust new detectors and confirm that
 1560 the present system will survive through the next 20 years of HL-LHC.

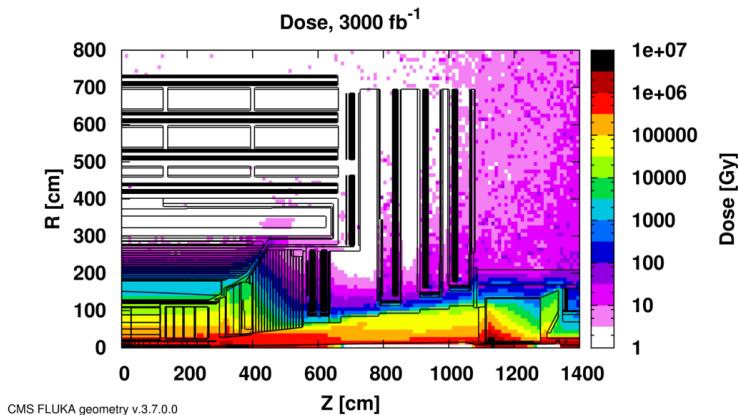


Figure 3.2: Absorbed dose in the CMS cavern after an integrated luminosity of 3000 fb^{-1} . Using the interaction point as reference, R is the transverse distance from the beamline and Z is the distance along the beamline.

1561 The end of 2018 will mark the beginning of LS2 and the start of Phase-II upgrade activities.
 1562 From the HL-LHC period onwards, i.e. past LS3, the performance degradation due to integrated
 1563 radiation as well as the average number of inelastic collisions per bunch crossing, seen as pile-up
 1564 into the detectors' readout that far exceeds this of the original LHC plans, will rise substantially and
 1565 become a major challenge for all of the LHC experiments, like CMS, that were forced to address
 1566 an upgrade program for Phase-II [23]. Dealing with the data from the muon detectors will force
 1567 to upgrade the detectors and electronics towards the most recent technologies. Simultaneously, this
 1568 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.

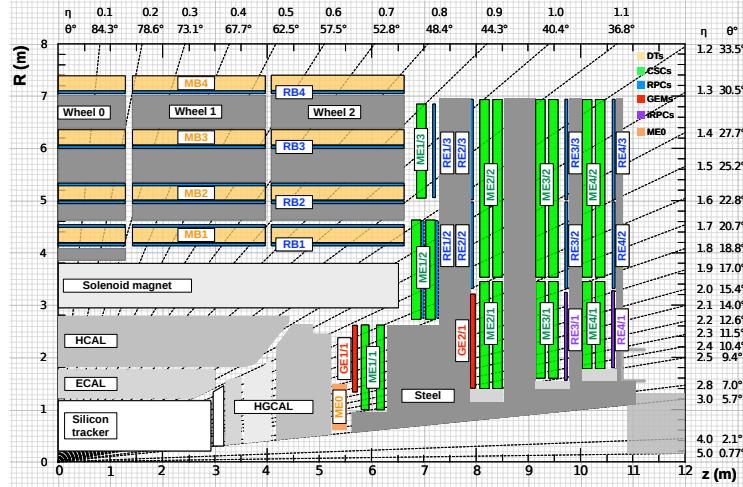


Figure 3.3: A quadrant of the muon system, showing DTs (yellow), RPCs (blue), and CSCs (green). The locations of new forward muon detectors for Phase-II are contained within the dashed box and indicated in red for GEM stations (ME0, GE1/1, and GE2/1) and dark blue for improved RPC (iRPC) stations (RE3/1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

1595 neutron-induced background.

1596 Nevertheless, the region beyond $|\eta| > 2.8$ and extending to $|\eta| = 5.0$ only is covered by the
 1597 forward HCAL detectors and lack redundant muon detector coverage. Extensions of the tracker in
 1598 the context of HL-LHC will increase its coverage up to $|\eta| = 4.0$ but the identification of muons and
 1599 measurement of their energy with reasonable precision only using the tracker is nearly impossible.
 1600 Thus, this increased tracker coverage range needs to be put in parallel with a matching muon detector
 1601 and will open doors to multi-lepton final states in which leptons are likely to have a low transverse
 1602 momentum and to be found near the beam line.

1603

1604 Finally, as the muon system is composed only of gaseous detectors, strong environmental con-
 1605 cerns have risen over the last years as the European directives will restrict the use of fluorine based
 1606 gas mixtures. Both the CSC and RPC subsystems, using CF_4 , $C_2H_2F_4$, or SF_6 , will need to adapt
 1607 their working gas in order to strongly reduce the greenhouse potential of the mixtures released into
 1608 the atmosphere due to gas leaks.

1609 3.2 Necessity for improved electronics

1610 Drift Tubes and Cathode Strip Chambers are important components used to identify and measure
 1611 muons, especially thanks to their spatial resolution of the order of $100\text{ }\mu\text{m}$. Nevertheless, the lumi-
 1612 nosity and irradiation during HL-LHC will cause serious event loss and ageing on the electronics of
 1613 these subsystems that will comprise the triggering and data transferring needs of CMS. Thus, elec-
 1614 tronics upgrade are foreseen to address these expected problems. While only the RPCs' electronic
 1615 system is able to operate under Phase-II requirements, DTs and CSCs will need to improve their
 1616 trigger accept rate and latency to ensure that Level-1 trigger threshold stays at the same level [25],
 1617 and DAQ data transfer rate, that respectively need to achieve a minimum of 500 kHz , get down to
 1618 $12.5\text{ }\mu\text{s}$ [26], and increase to 1082 Gbit/s DTs and to 1026 Gbit/s for CSCs. As of today, the Level-
 1619 1 trigger accept rate of DTs doesn't reach 300 kHz while this of CSCs is below 250 kHz but the
 1620 foreseen upgrades are expected to increase the rate way beyond the requirement in the of DTs and
 1621 up to 4 MHz for CSCs [23].

1622 The first version of Minicrate electronics (MiC1) used by DTs don't allow for high enough
 1623 trigger rate. In addition to this problem, it was showed that these electronics contain components
 1624 that are not radiation hard enough to sustain HL-LHC conditions and thus, a too large number of
 1625 channels may fail due to radiations. Considering the most optimistic scenario, at least 19% of the
 1626 channels could have failed by LS4, as explicitated in Figure 3.4, far before the end of the HL-LHC
 1627 campain. The MiC1 will be replaced on each detector by an improved version referred to as MiC2
 1628 while front-end electronics and high-voltage modules will not need any replacement. On the other
 1629 hand, CSCs showed that there electronics would be able to live through the 10 years of Phase-II but
 1630 the limited buffer depth might cause memory overflows and readout inefficiencies with a fraction
 1631 of event loss ranging from 5 to more than 10% at an instantaneous luminosity similar to which of
 1632 HL-LHC depending on the expected background, as showed on Figure 3.5 through the different
 1633 detector positions. Thus the replacement of CSCs' cathode front-end boards (CFEBs) by digital
 1634 ones, DCFEBS, with deeper buffer would permit to make event loss negligible and satisfy HL-LHC
 1635 requirements [23].

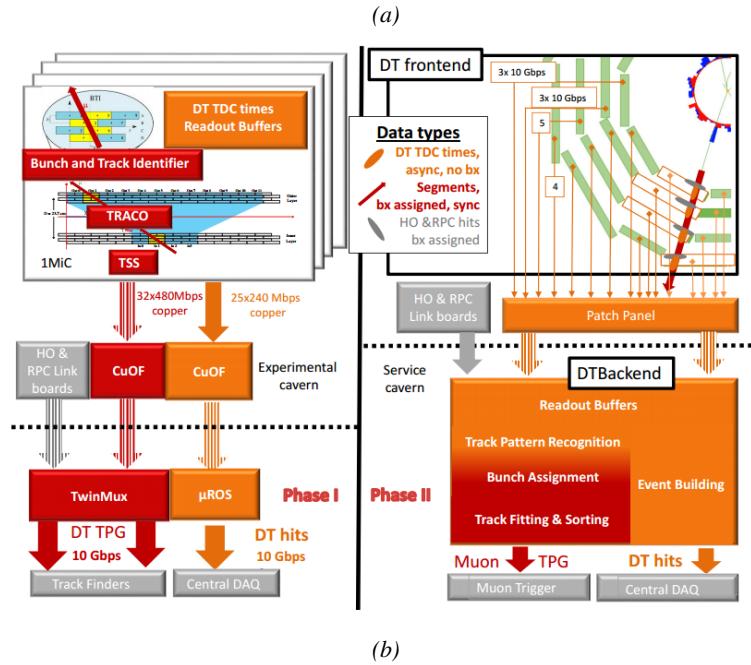
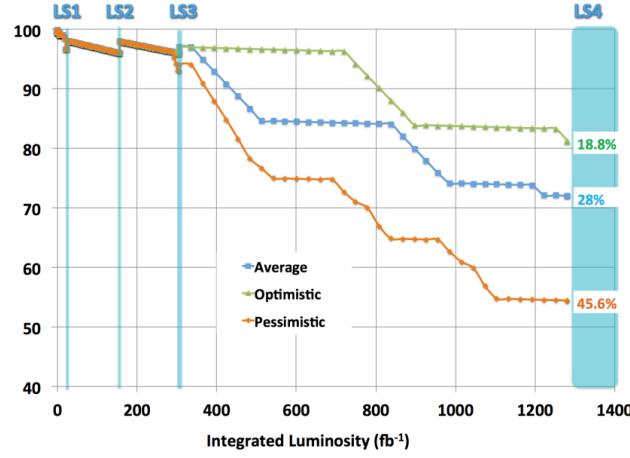


Figure 3.4: Figure 3.4a: Extrapolated fraction of failing channels of the present DT MiC1 electronics as a function of the integrated luminosity for different scenari until LS4. Figure 3.4b: Comparison of the current (left) and upgraded (right) DT data processing. So far, the data is sent to service 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 (μ ROS). 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.

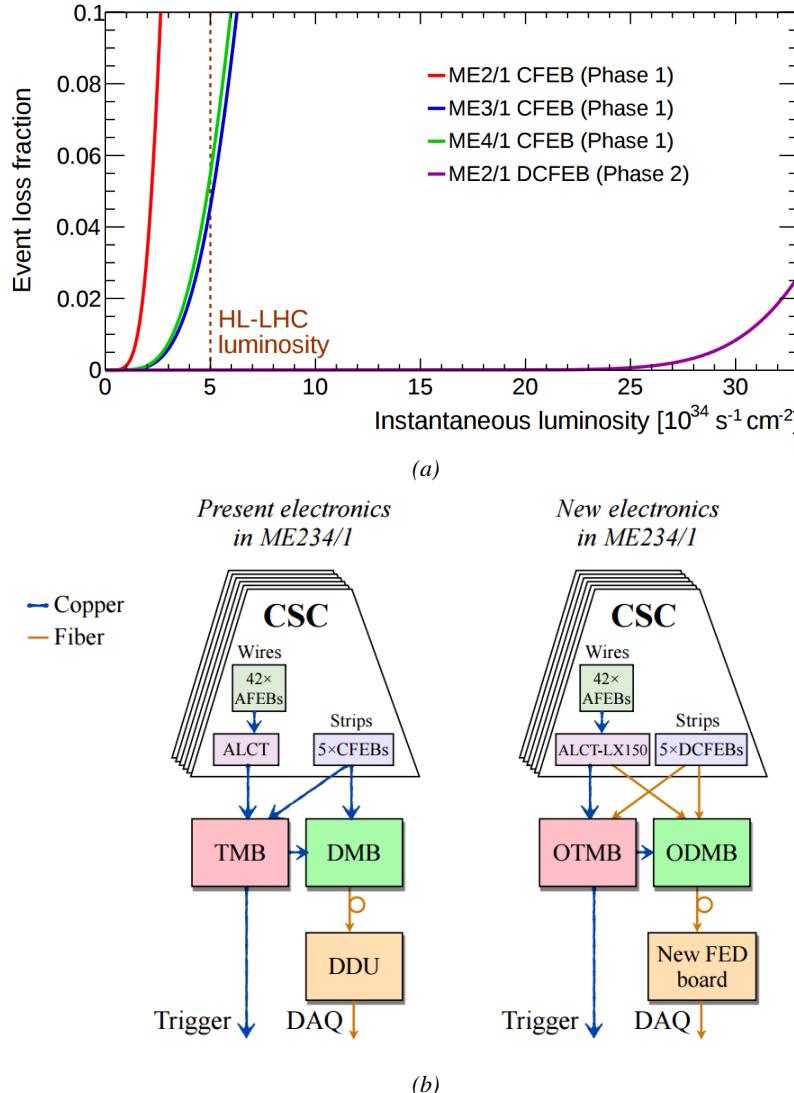


Figure 3.5: Figure 3.5a: The event loss fractions as a function of the instantaneous luminosity is compared for CFEBs (Phase-1) and DCFEBs (Phase-II) at different CSC locations. HL-LHC luminosity is marked with the dashed brown line. Figure 3.5b: Comparison of the current (left) and upgraded (right) 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 between 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 transferred 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,

1642 and AFEBs which data is transmitted through the ALCTs) toward the trigger and data mother boards
 1643 (TMBs and DMBs) will simply be replaced by optical fibers and the TMBs and DMBs upgraded with
 1644 optical versions (OTMBS and ODMBs). As a new feature, the full anode wire data from ALCTs
 1645 will be sent to the ODMBs causing a lack of FPGA memory resources in these ALCT boards that
 1646 will thus need replacement.

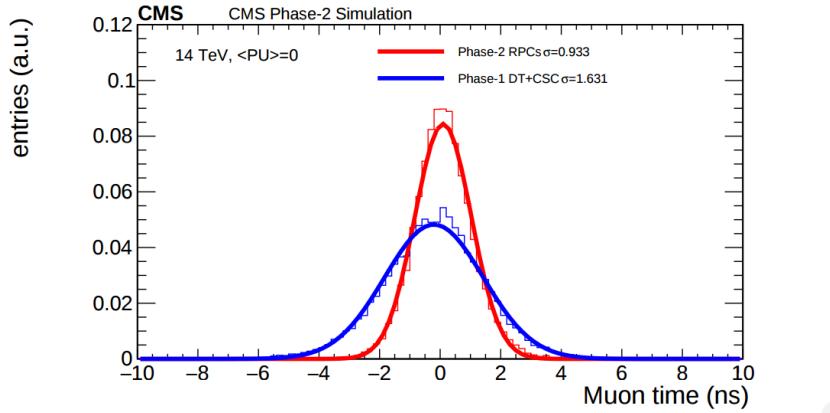


Figure 3.6: Comparison of the simulated time residuals in between reconstructed and true muon times without (blue) and with (red) the upgraded RPC link system.

1647 The upgrade on the side of Resistive Plate Chambers will then not come from their on-board
 1648 electronics but from the Link System located in the service cavern of CMS and that connects the
 1649 front-end electronics data of RPCs into CMS trigger processors. The main motivation for such an
 1650 upgrade is that the electronic board composing the link system are built using obsolete components
 1651 and weak components that can easily suffer from the electromagnetic noise. These components may
 1652 be the source of failing channels throughout Phase-II. Moreover, these link boards were originally
 1653 designed only to match RPC digitized signals with the corresponding bunch crossing. Due to this
 1654 feature, the time resolution of the full RPC chain is thus limited to 25 ns and does not exploit the full
 1655 time resolution of the detectors. This would make the synchronization of the RPC system easier and
 1656 allow to have a finer offline background removal within the 25 ns in between bunch crossings thanks
 1657 to the order of magnitude gained in terms of time resolution.

1658 Upgrading RPC link system will require the installation of 1376 new link boards and 216 control
 1659 boards. The new boards will make use of the recent progress made with fast FPGAs and will be a
 1660 great improvement to the ASICs formerly used as they will be able to process signals from several
 1661 detectors in parallel. The benefit from using the full RPC time resolution thanks to the upgraded
 1662 link system can be seen through Figure 3.6 where the resolution of the RPC system itself is better
 1663 than that of DTs and CSCs that was used until now.

1664 **3.3 New detectors and increased acceptance**

1665 In the present muon system, the redundancy of was assured by RPCs used for their good timing per-
 1666 formances. The extension of the muon system towards higher pseudo-rapidity in order to complete
 1667 the redundancy in this very region and to contribute to the precision of muon momentum measure-
 1668 ments will require muon chambers with a spatial resolution less or comparable to the contribution

¹⁶⁶⁹ muon of multiple scattering through the detector volume [21]. Most of the plausible physics is
¹⁶⁷⁰ covered only considering muons with $p_T < 100$ GeV thus, in order to match CMS requirements,
¹⁶⁷¹ a spatial resolution of $\mathcal{O}(\text{few mm})$ will be necessary for the proposed new RPC stations while the
¹⁶⁷² GEMs will need a resolution better than 1 mm, as showed by the simulation in Figure 3.7.

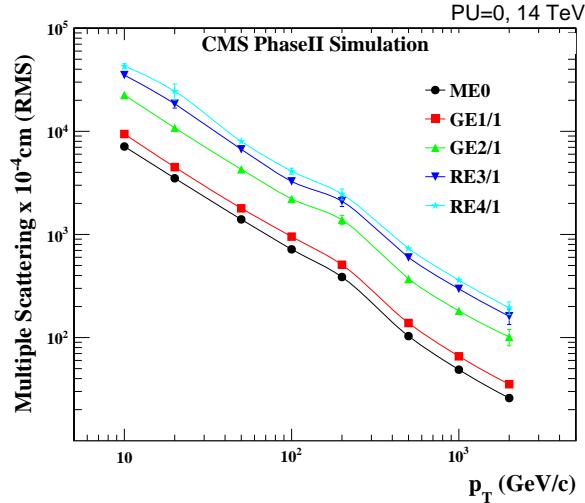


Figure 3.7: RMS of the multiple scattering displacement as a function of muon p_T for the proposed forward muon stations. All of the electromagnetic processes such as bremsstrahlung and magnetic field effect are included in the simulation.

¹⁶⁷³ 3.3.1 Improved forward resistive plate chambers

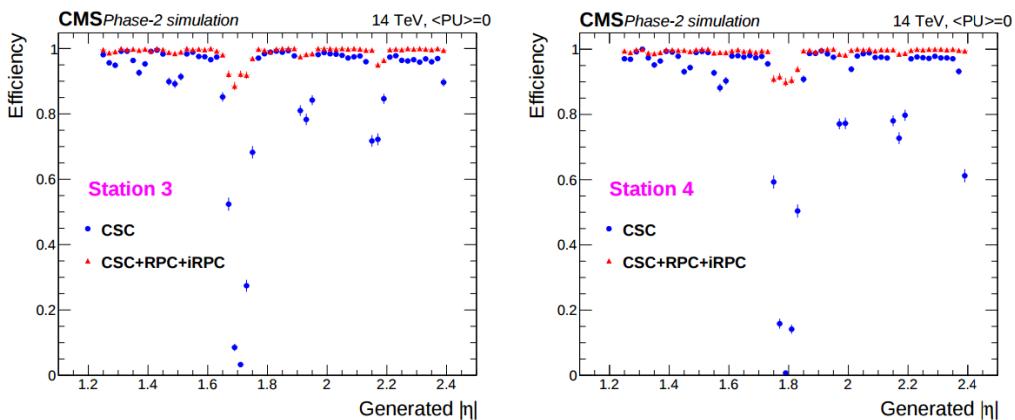


Figure 3.8: Simulation of the impact of RPC hit inclusion onto the local trigger primitive efficiency in station 3 (left) and station 4 (right). The contribution of iRPC starts above $|\eta| = 1.8$.

¹⁶⁷⁴ Figure 3.3 shows that the iRPCs that will equip the third and fourth endcap disks in position RE3/1
¹⁶⁷⁵ and RE4/1 will finally be the partners of the CSCs in position ME3/1 and ME4/1 and complete
¹⁶⁷⁶ 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.

1684

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 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 (≈ 20 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 mm (5.9 mm) on the high pseudo-rapidity end to 12.3 mm (10.9 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 mm, better than the minimal needed resolution (Figure 3.7), and the overall time resolution of the new installation will be equally 1.5 ns, as for the present due to the same link system being used.

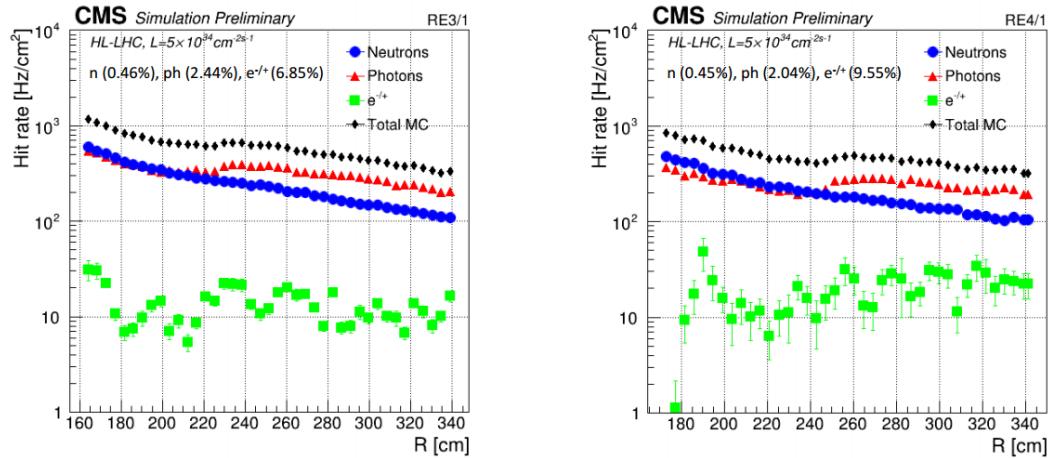


Figure 3.9: Expected hit rate due to neutrons, photons, electrons and positrons at HL-HLC instantaneous luminosity of $5 \times 10^{34} \text{ cm}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$ in RE3/1 and RE4/1 chambers. The sensitivities of iRPCs used in the simulation for each particle are reported and differ from one endcap 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 Hz/cm² 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 × 0.87 cm² and a safety factor 3 leading to an estimated rate per strip of 380 kHz corresponding to an average time interval of 2600 ns in between 2 consecutive hits. The time for a signal to go through the full strip length is about 10 ns to which can be added 1 ns of dead time and 2 TDC clock cycles of 2.5 ns for a minimal time interval of 16 ns necessary to avoid ambiguities. The probability of having ambiguous double hits in a strip is 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 Hz/cm² (600 Hz/cm² seen in RE3/1 and 480 Hz/cm² 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 kHz/cm² 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 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 mm a good compromise in between these two competing factors.

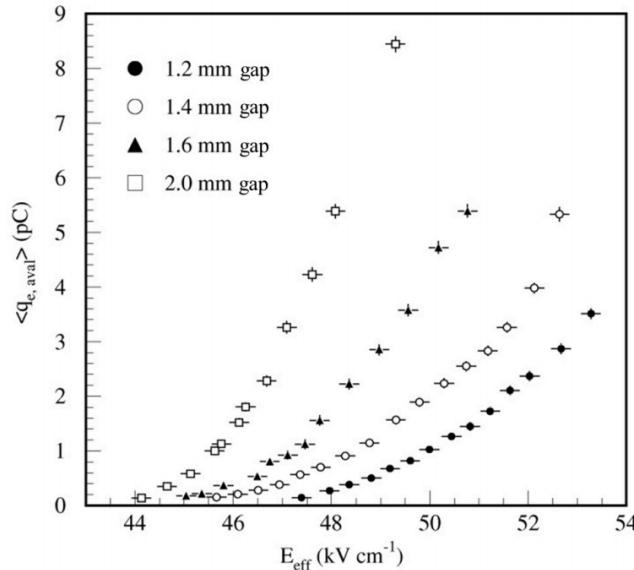


Figure 3.10: Measured average charge per avalanche as a function of the effective electric field for different gas gap thickness in double gap RPCs using HPL electrodes.

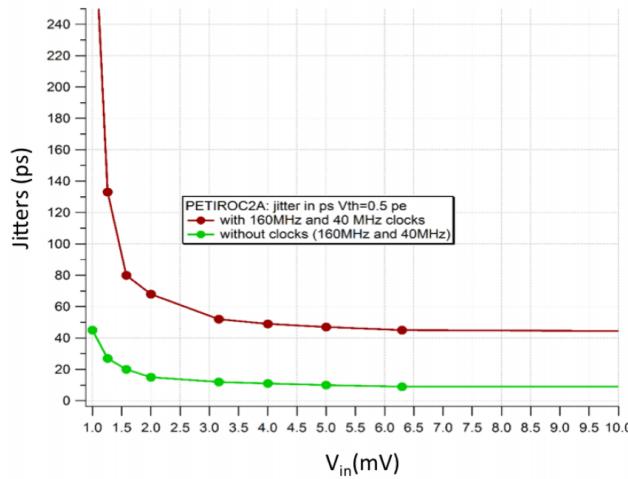


Figure 3.11: The PETIROC time jitter as a function of the input signal amplitude, measured with and without internal clocks.

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 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 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 resolution 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 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.

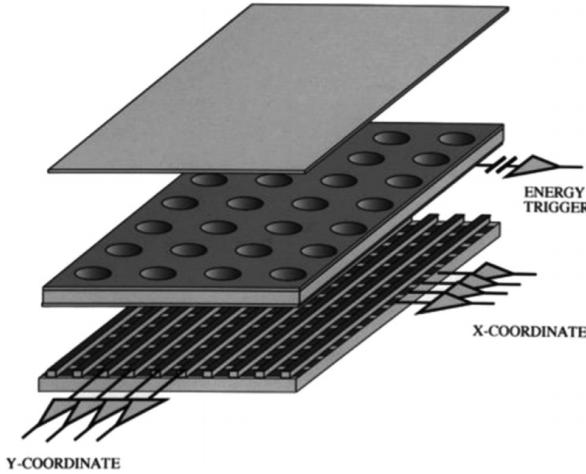


Figure 3.12: Schematics of a GEM showing the cathode on top, the GEM foil separating the gas volume into the drift region, in between the cathode and foil, and the induction region, in between the GEM foil and the anode, and the anode on which a 2D read-out is installed. A negative voltage is applied 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 μm foils clad with 5 μm of copper on each side. The foils are pierced with double-canonical holes which inner and outer diameters are respectively 50 and 70 μm which are placed 140 μm 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 μrad as indeed the position of the hits is not measured along the strips but following the azimuthal angle granularity of the radially organized trapezoidal strips.

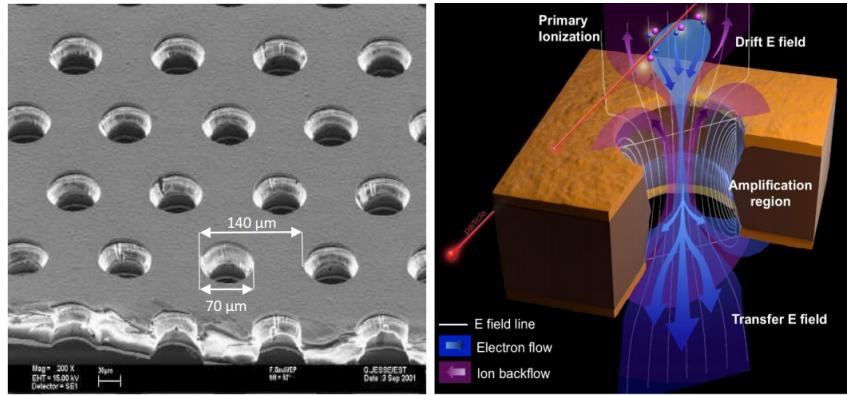


Figure 3.13: Left: Picture of a CMS GEM foil provided by a scanning electron microscope. Right: Representation of the electric field lines in a GEM hole and of the amplification that electrons and ions undergo in the hole's volume due to the very intense electric field.

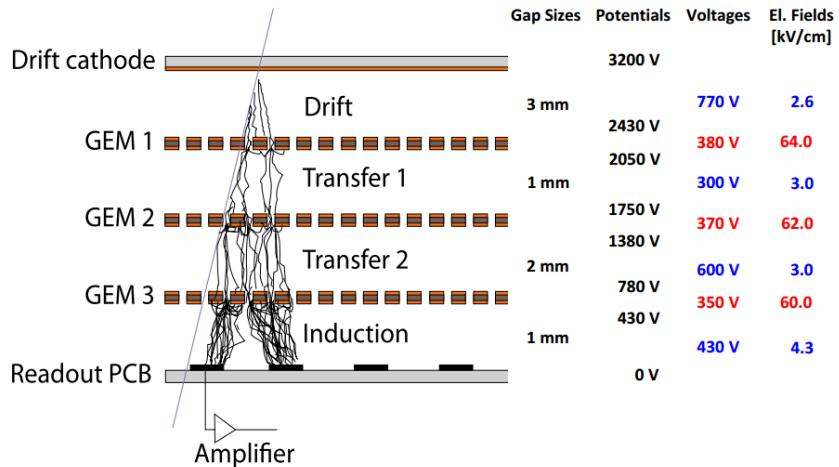


Figure 3.14: Schematic representation of CMS triple GEMs. The gas volume is divided into 4 areas. The drift area is the region where the primary electrons are created before being amplified a first time while passing through the first GEM foil. Then the process of drift and amplification is repeated 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.

1777 The GEM Upgrade is divided into 3 subsystems as GE1/1 was the first approved project [29]
 1778 and that the detectors will already be installed during LS2. GE2/1 and ME0, on the other hand,
 1779 will profit of the R&D knowledge and skills developed for GE1/1 while the requirements for each
 1780 subsystem are different as they are not placed at the same distance from the interaction point. In this
 1781 very forward region, a different position with respect to the center of the detector can change dra-
 1782 matically the conditions in which the detectors will have to be operated. In terms of rate capability,
 1783 GE2/1, which is the furthest, is required to withstand 2.1 kHz/cm² while GE1/1 needs to be better
 1784 than 10 kHz/cm² and ME0, better than 150 kHz/cm². In terms of ageing with respect to charge
 1785 deposition, ME0 needs to be certified to 840 mC/cm², GE1/1 to 200 mC/cm² and GE2/1 only to

1786 9 mC/cm². All 3 detectors need to have a time resolution better than 10 ns and an angular resolution
 1787 better than 500 µrad.

1788 On each GE1/1 ring, 36 super chambers, consisting of 2 single GEM layers and spanning 10°,
 1789 will be installed covering the pseudo-rapidity region $1.6 < |\eta| < 2.2$ together with ME1/1 CSCs and
 1790 the reach of the muon system will be improved thanks to the GE2/1 that will overlap with the GE1/1
 1791 and cover a region from $|\eta| > 1.6$ to $|\eta| < 2.4$ and complete the redundancy of ME2/1. The super
 1792 chambers, built with 2 triple GEM layers each consisting of 4 single GEM modules due to the rather
 1793 large surface of the GE2/1 chambers, that will be installed on the first ring of the second endcap will
 1794 span 20° each, hence, a total of 72 chambers will be assembled to equip the muon system. Finally,
 1795 the ME0 installed near the HCAL endcap will cover the region $2.0 < |\eta| < 2.8$ and this subsystem
 1796 will consist in super modules of 6 layers of triple GEM detectors covering an azimuthal angle of 20°
 1797 leading to the construction of 216 single detectors.

1798 All these new GEM detectors will be using a similar internal layout which is described in Figure
 1799 3.14. The incoming muons will create detectable electron-ion pairs in the 3 mm thick drift
 1800 volume in which an electric field of 2.6 kV/cm is applied for the electrons to drift to the first GEM
 1801 foil on which a very intense field of 64 kV/cm is applied over a distance of only 60 µm which allows
 1802 for an average electronic gain of 20 to 25. After the first amplification stage, the electrons drift over
 1803 the 1 mm separating the 2 first GEM foils thanks to an electric field of 3.0 kV/cm and are again
 1804 amplified by a factor 20 to 25 while going through the second GEM foil to which is applied an elec-
 1805 tric field of 62 kV/cm. The electron drift another 2 mm towards the last GEM foil through a field of
 1806 3.0 kV/cm and are multiplied one last time from a similar factor passing through the 60 kV/cm
 1807 of the last GEM foil holes. Finally, they drift along the 1 mm of the induction volume in a field of
 1808 4.3 kV/cm to reach the trapezoidal strips on the read-out PCB used as anode. The total detector
 1809 gain is approximately of the order of 10^4 and the resulting output signal is both due to the induction
 1810 of moving charges in the induction volume and of charge pic-up once they read the read-out strips.

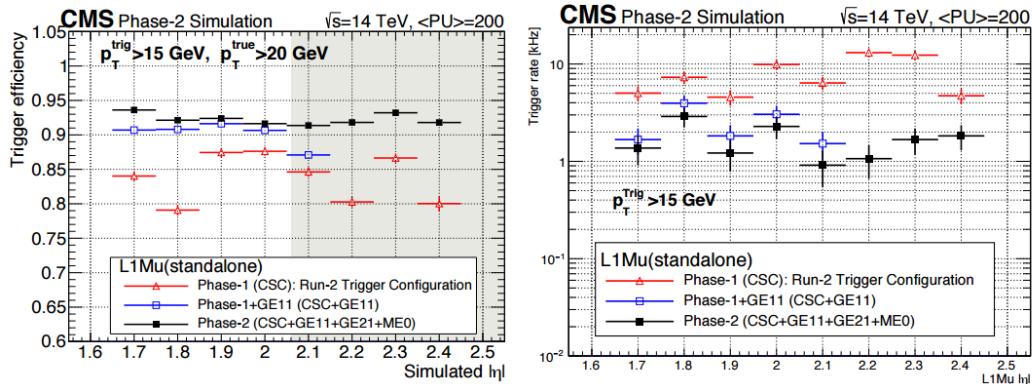


Figure 3.15: Simulated efficiency and rate of the standalone Level-1 muon trigger using tracks reconstructed in CSCs and all GEM stations compared with Phase-I values in the case where only CSCs are used or CSCs+GE1/1. The zones of inefficiency of the CSC subsystem are compensated by the addition of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

1811 Adding the GEMs into the forward region of the muon system will allow to strongly enhance
 1812 the Level-1 Trigger performance by reducing the inefficiency regions and the trigger rate as showed
 1813 in Figure 3.15. Moreover, benefiting from the good spatial and angular resolution of the GEMs, the

¹⁸¹⁴ precision into the muon measurement will also be greatly improved by the addition of GEMs as can
¹⁸¹⁵ be seen from the simulation presented in Figure 3.16.

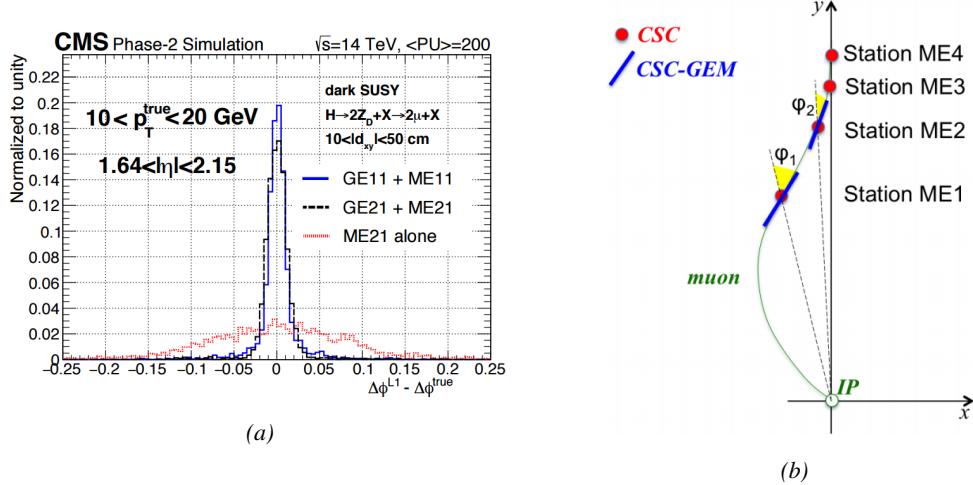


Figure 3.16: Figure 3.16a: Simulated resolution of the muon direction measurement $\Delta\phi$ with Phase-II conditions. In the second endcap station, the resolution is compared in the case of CSCs (ME2/I) alone and CSCs+GEMs (GE2/I+ME2/I) while a similar resolution measurement is given in the case of the first station (GE1/I+ME1/I). 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 .

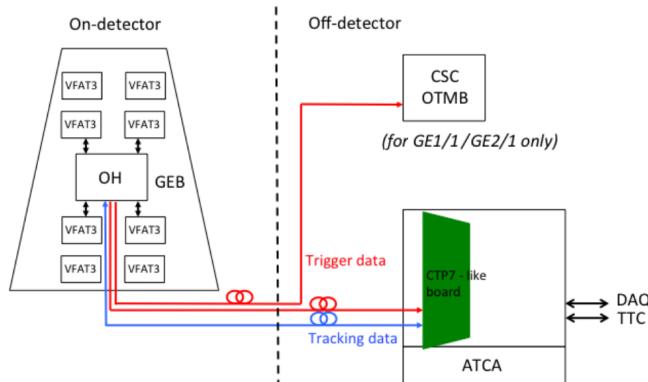


Figure 3.17: Schematics of the data communication chain for DAQ of the GEM subsystems. The sending of trigger data via optical links to the CSC OTMBs is only done for GE1/I and GE2/I to match the data with ME1/I and ME2/I.

¹⁸¹⁶ The read-out of GEMs will use the same technology. The anode planes used as read-out PCBs
¹⁸¹⁷ and referred to as GEM Electronics board (GEB) host on their outer surface VFAT3 ASICs that
¹⁸¹⁸ connect to a total of 128 strips for a very fine angular granularity. Along the endcap radius, the strips are
¹⁸¹⁹ divided into 8 pseudo-rapidity partitions. In the case of GE1/I and ME0, each η -partition consist in
¹⁸²⁰ 384 read-out strips connected into 3 VFAT3 ASICs and offering a while the large GE2/I partitions

1821 contain twice as many channels. Both GE1/1 and GE2/1 strips have an angular pitch of $474\text{ }\mu\text{m}$
 1822 while this of ME0 is twice larger due to its proximity with the interaction point. The VFAT3 ASICs
 1823 allow for a latency better than the $12.5\text{ }\mu\text{s}$ required by CMS Level-1 Trigger and there frequencies
 1824 goes up to 1 MHz. They are connected into the Optohybrid Board (OH) and this full ensemble
 1825 (GEB+VAT3+OH) constitute the on-chamber electronics. The OH is then sending the data to the
 1826 modules constituting the DAQ of the GEM system via optical fibers. These back-end electronics
 1827 modules are located in the service cavern of CMS and host CMS communication devices, used to
 1828 have a common clock, and control and links to the Endcap Muon Track Finder (EMTF) system.
 1829 Moreover, GE1/1 and GE2/1 also have links with the CSC OTMBs as the OH of these 2 subsystems
 1830 send data into these boards. This communication chain can be seen in Figure 3.17.

1831
 1832 The detectors that will placed in CMS will have to live through Phase-II without significant
 1833 performance degradation to ensure an efficient data taking and the possibility to investigate more
 1834 exotic physics. As the 3 GEM subsystems will be using the same detector technology, the choice
 1835 was made to certify the GEMs in the worst of the 3 environments, i.e. the ME0 station located right
 1836 behind the HCAL. According to FLUKA simulation, including all the latest foreseen upgrades into
 1837 the CMS detector geometry, it was shown that the maximal hit rate expected in ME0 would be of
 1838 the order of 50 kHz/cm^2 with contributions of neutrons (6 kHz/cm^2), photons (35 kHz/cm^2), and
 1839 electrons and positrons (8 kHz/cm^2) resulting in a charge deposition a little lower than 300 mC/cm^2
 1840 after 10 years of HL-LHC [23]. It is necessary to understand the classical ageing effects on the GEMs
 1841 but also premature ageing due to contaminants in the gas mixture leading to polymerization on the
 1842 surface of the GEM foils during operation and the effect of discharges on the detector operations if
 1843 they have to happen during their lifetime.

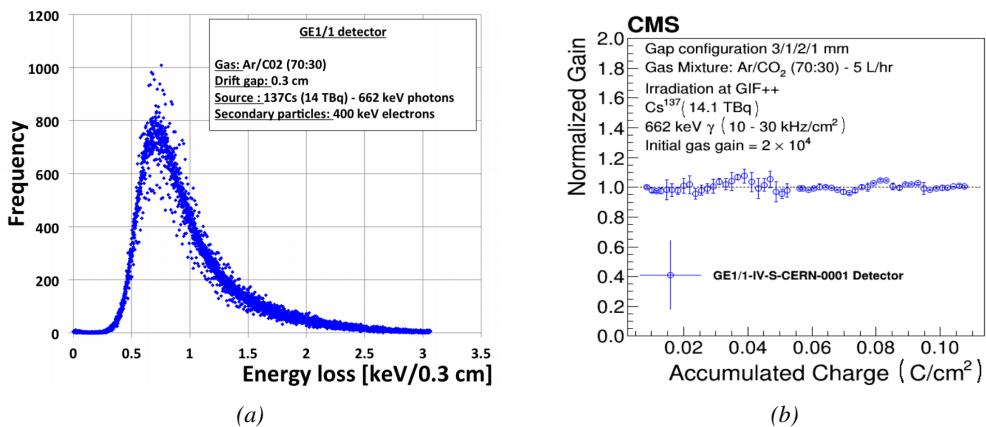


Figure 3.18: Figure 3.18a: Energy spectrum of GIF^{++} ^{137}Cs source as measured by the GE1/1 detector installed in GIF^{++} . Figure 3.18b: Evolution of the normalized gain of the GE1/1 detector installed at in GIF^{++} as a function of the integrated charge per unit area. The first part of the study, up to a charge of 55 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 mC/cm^2 .

1844 To characterize the classical ageing effects, a campaign is being conducted in the new Gamma
 1845 Irradiation Facility (GIF^{++}) of CERN where a GE1/1 detector operated at its nominal gain is placed
 1846 50 cm from the facility's 14 TBq ^{137}Cs source which emits gammas at an energy of 662 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 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.

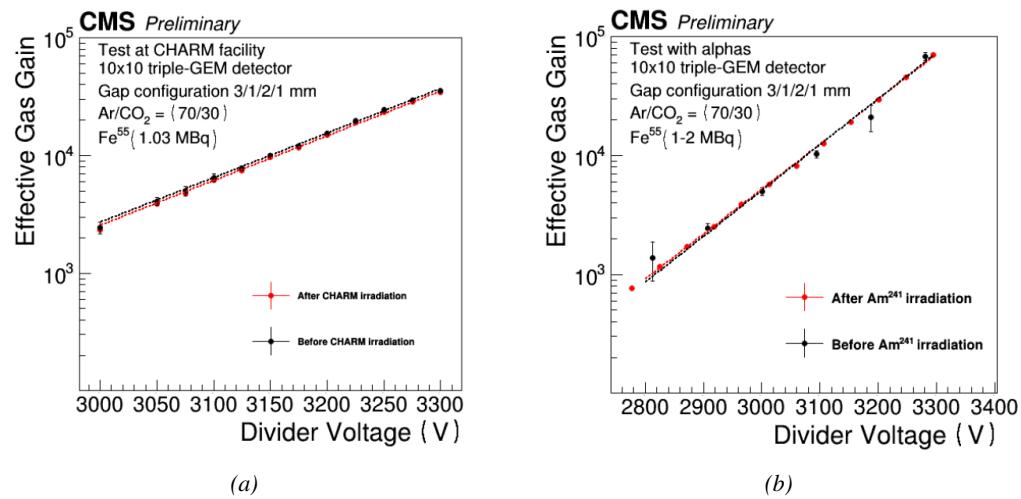


Figure 3.19: Figure 3.19a: Comparison of the gas gain as a function of the divider voltage before and after the irradiation of a triple-GEM by neutrons in CHARM. Figure 3.19b: Comparison of the gas gain as a function of the divider voltage before and after the irradiation of a triple-GEM by alpha particles.

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 $2.5 \times 10^8 / \text{cm}^2$. 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 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 scheduled 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 planned 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 planning 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. Finally, during LS3 are scheduled 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 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.

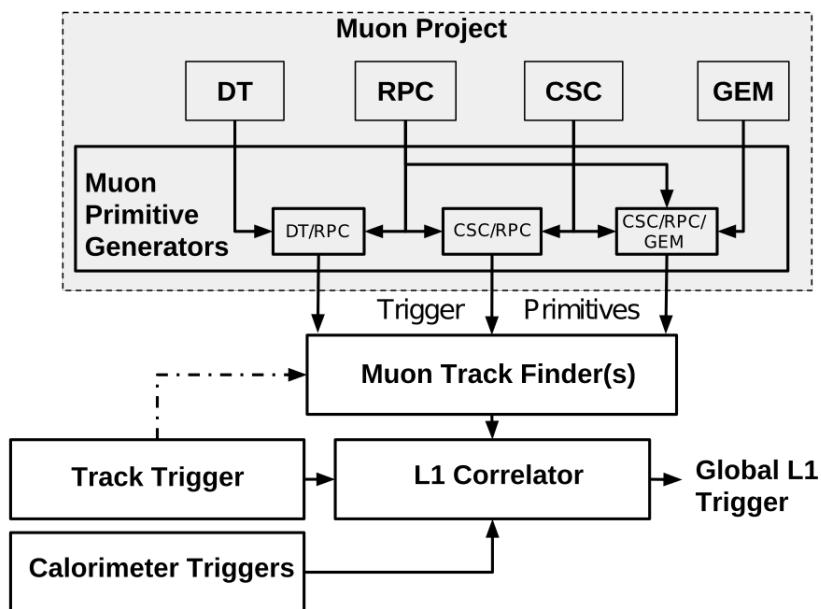


Figure 3.20: Data flow of the Level-1 Trigger during Phase-II operations.

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 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 where the quality of DT primitives is the poorest. Moreover, having a redundant information is important in the case of failure and loss of efficiency of one of either subsystems.

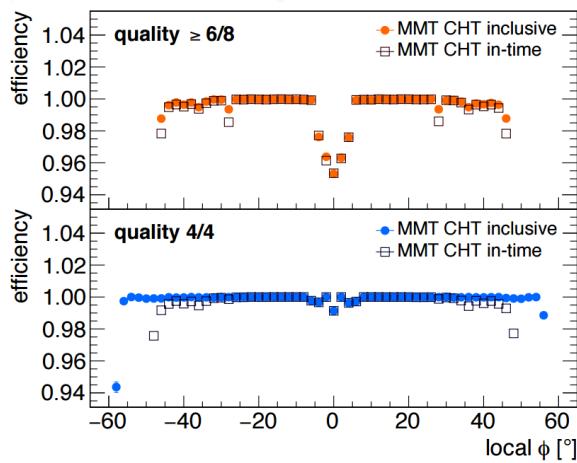


Figure 3.21: Comparison of Phase-II DT trigger primitives algorithmic efficiency for segments obtained with 2 super-layers ($\text{quality} \geq 6/8$) and 1 super-layer only ($\text{quality} = 4/4$). The simulation was done by generating 2×10^6 muons. The candidate tracks with correct time identification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

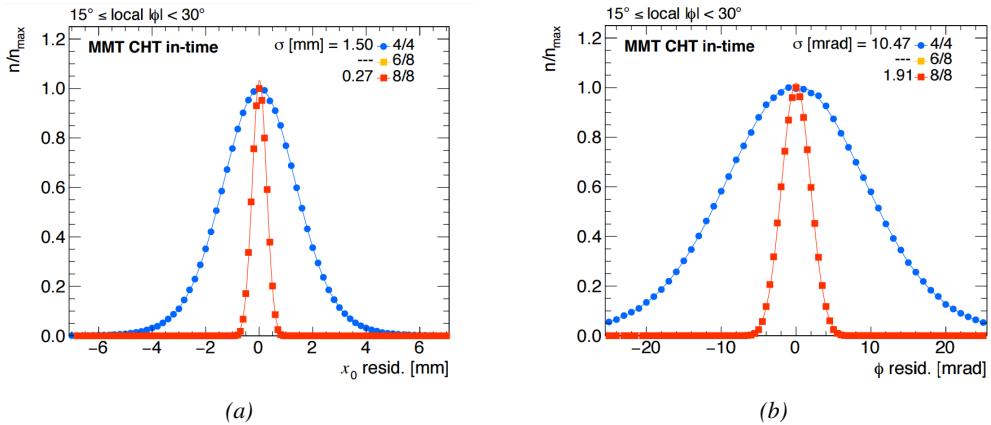


Figure 3.22: Simulated spatial (3.22a) and angular (3.22b) resolution of the algorithm using 8 aligned hits in both super-layers ($\text{quality} = 8/8$) and 4 aligned hits in only one super-layer ($\text{quality} = 4/4$). The contribution of intermediate quality tracks (6 aligned hits) is negligible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

1949 The loss of single hit efficiency of DTs due to ageing will also force the DT to change the algorithm
 1950 use to identify tracks. So far, the identification was only performed at the level of a single DT
 1951 super-layer, which is composed of 4 single DT layers. In the perspective the single efficiency drops,
 1952 this will require to be upgraded to try to combine the data of more than a single super-layer to keep
 1953 a high muon track identification efficiency. In addition to this change in trigger primitive candidate
 1954 quality, new algorithms with higher efficiency are being developed. According to Figure 3.21, the
 1955 efficiency of the new algorithm, both in the cases using 1 or 2 super-layers, is higher than with the
 1956 current system [30]. Moreover, the overall efficiency of an algorithm requesting at least a muon
 1957 detected in 6 DT layers out of the 8 composing the 2 super-layers of a DT module would stay com-
 1958 parable to the 4 DT layers out of 4 algorithm within the local bending angle range. On the other
 1959 hand, despite the slight loss of efficiency in the low angle range, the algorithm using more DT layers
 1960 achieves both higher spatial and angular resolution according to Figure 3.22.

1961

1962 With new detectors to cover the very forward region and the upgrade of RPC Link System,
 1963 the EMTF will be greatly improved. The current EMTF already use more sophisticated algorithms
 1964 by combining together RPC hits and CSC primitives and will also benefit from the improved time
 1965 resolution of the RPC system. The GEMs, in stations 1 and 2, and the iRPCs, in stations 3 and 4,
 1966 will be added into the EMTF algorithm. Both these contributions will help increasing the efficiency
 1967 of the L1 trigger in the endcap region in one hand, and help lowering the L1 trigger rate in the other
 1968 hand, especially in the most forward region. The improvement of the efficiency will come both from
 1969 the better time resolution of RPC link boards and from the addition of more hits along the muon
 1970 tracks and also a contribution from the GEMs to the lever arm of each track thanks to their high
 1971 angular resolution.

1972

1973 The rate will be partly reduced in the forward region thanks to the better spatial resolution of
 1974 iRPCs, with respect to the current RPC system, that will reduce the ambiguity brought by multiple
 1975 local charged tracks in CSCs, as explained through Figure 3.24. Indeed, as the rates will increase,
 1976 the probability to record more than a single local charged track will greatly increase. This is due to
 1977 the fact that the trigger algorithm uses information from 3 consecutive bunch crossings to find muon
 1978 tracks. It is estimated that with iRPCs operated at 95% efficiency the resolution of ambiguous events
 would be of the order of 99.7%.

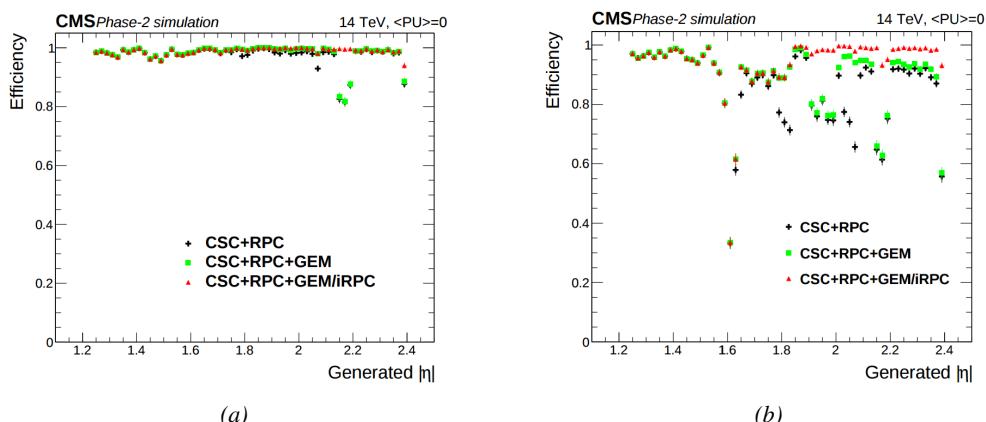


Figure 3.23: Efficiency of the L1 trigger in the endcap region after Phase-II upgrade in the case CSC/GEM/RPC hits are requested in at least 2 stations out of four (3.23a) and in all four stations (3.23b).

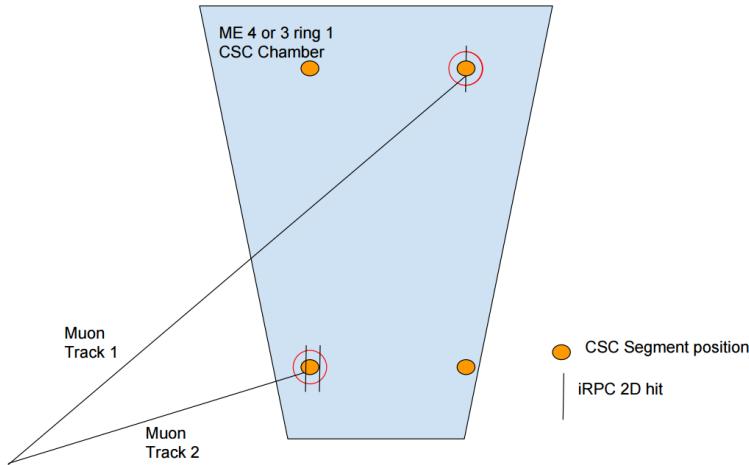


Figure 3.24: Resolution of the LCT ambiguous events thanks to the combination of CSC and iRPC readout data. Using CSCs only, 2 pairs of hits are possible.

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.

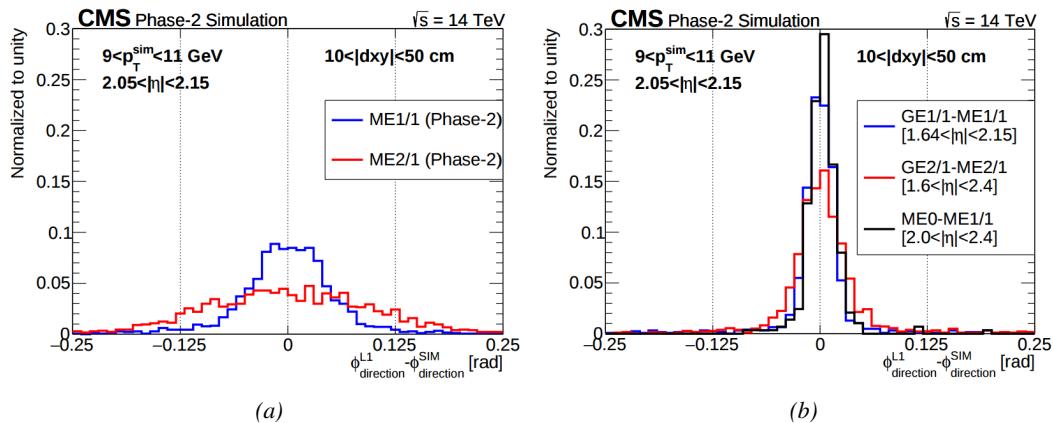


Figure 3.25: The angular resolution on reconstructed muon tracks in the GEM overlap region $2.0 < |\eta| < 2.15$ is compared for Phase-II conditions in the case CSC are alone (Figure 3.25a) and in the case the GEMs' data, including ME0, is combined to which of CSCs (Figure 3.25b).

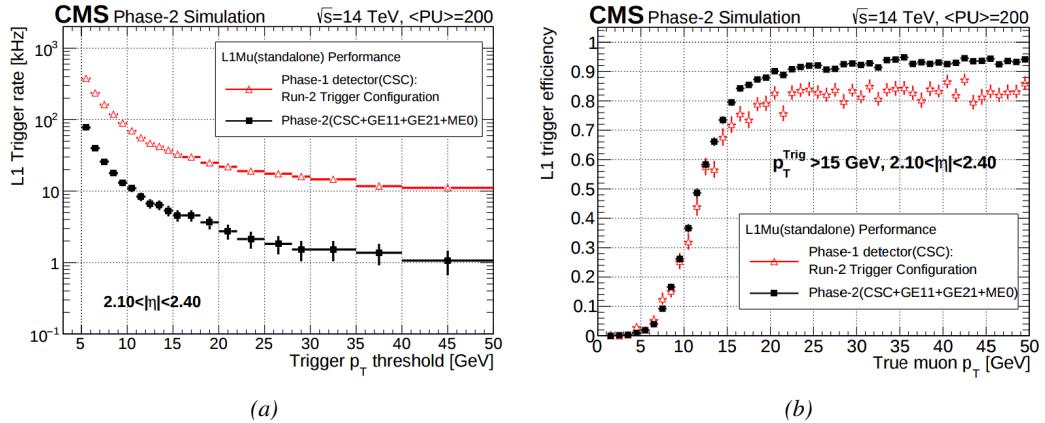


Figure 3.26: Comparison of L1 trigger performances for prompt muons with and without the addition of GEMs in the region $2.1 < |\eta| < 2.4$ at Phase-II conditions. GEMs would allow a reduction of the trigger accept rate by an order of magnitude (Figure 3.26a) while increasing the trigger efficiency (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, $\approx 40\%$	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 ($GWP \leq 1$) and $C_3H_2F_4$ ($GWP \leq 1$), 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.

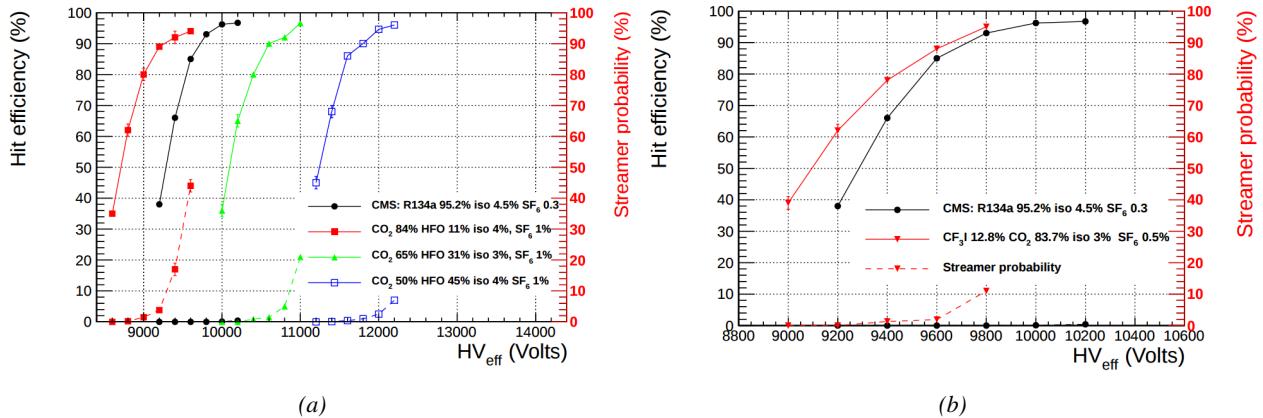


Figure 3.27: The efficiency (solid lines) and streamer probability (dashed lines) of HFO/CO₂ (Figure 3.27a) and CF₃I/CO₂ (Figure 3.27b) based gas mixtures as a function of the effective high-voltage are compared with the present CMS RPC gas mixture represented in black. The detector used for the study 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 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 CO₂/CF₃I or CO₂/HFO as a replacement for C₂H₂F₄ 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 pC) that far exceeds which of the present fluorinated mixture. The SF₆, 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 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

₂₀₃₀ will be studied using a standard double-gap CMS RPC.

4

2031

2032

Physics of Resistive plate chambers

2033 A Resistive Plate Chamber (RPC) is a gaseous detector used in high-energy physics experiments as
2034 described in Chapter 3. It has been developed in 1981 by Santonico and Cardarelli [33], under the
2035 name of *Resistive Plate Counter*, as an alternative to the local-discharge spark counters proposed in
2036 1978 by Pestov and Fedotovich [34, 35]. Working with spark chambers implied using high-pressure
2037 gas and high mechanical precision which the RPC simplified by formerly using a gas mixture of
2038 argon and butane flowed at atmospheric pressure and a constant and uniform electric field propagated
2039 in between two parallel electrode plates. Moreover, a significant increase in rate capability was
2040 introduced by the use of electrode plate material with high bulk resistivity, preventing the discharge
2041 from growing throughout the whole gas gap. Indeed, the effect of using resistive electrodes is that
2042 the constant electric field is locally canceled out by the development of the discharge, limiting its
2043 growth.

2044 Through its development history, different operating modes [36–38], gas mixtures [33, 38–43]
2045 and new detector designs [44–46] have been discovered, leading to further improvement of the rate
2046 capability of such a detector. The low developing costs and easily achievable large detection ar-
2047 eas offered by RPCs, as well as the wide range of possible designs, made them a natural choice to
2048 as muon chambers and/or trigger detectors in multipurpose experiments such as CMS [21] or AT-
2049 LAS [47], time-of-flight detectors in ALICE [48], calorimeter with CALICE [49] or even detectors
2050 for volcanic muography with ToMuVol [50].

2051 4.1 Principle

2052 RPCs are ionisation detectors composed of two parallel resistive plate electrodes in between which
2053 a constant electric field is set. The space in between the electrodes, referred to as *gap*, is filled with
2054 a dense gas that is used to generate primary ionization into the gas volume. The free charge carriers
2055 (electrons and cations) created by the ionization of the gas molecules are then accelerated towards the
2056 electrodes by the electric field, as shown in Figure 4.1 [51]. RPCs being passive detectors, a current
2057 on pick-up copper read-out placed outside of the gas volume is induced by the charge accumulation

2058 during the growth of the avalanche resulting from the acceleration of the charge carriers. As a
 2059 consequence, the time resolution of the detector is substantially increased as the output signal is
 2060 generated while the electrons are still in movement. The advantage of a constant electric field, over
 2061 multi-wire proportional chambers, is that the electrons are being fully accelerated from the moment
 2062 charge carriers are freed and feel the full strength of the electric field that doesn't depend on the
 2063 distance to the readout and that the output signal doesn't need for the electrons to be physically
 2064 collected.

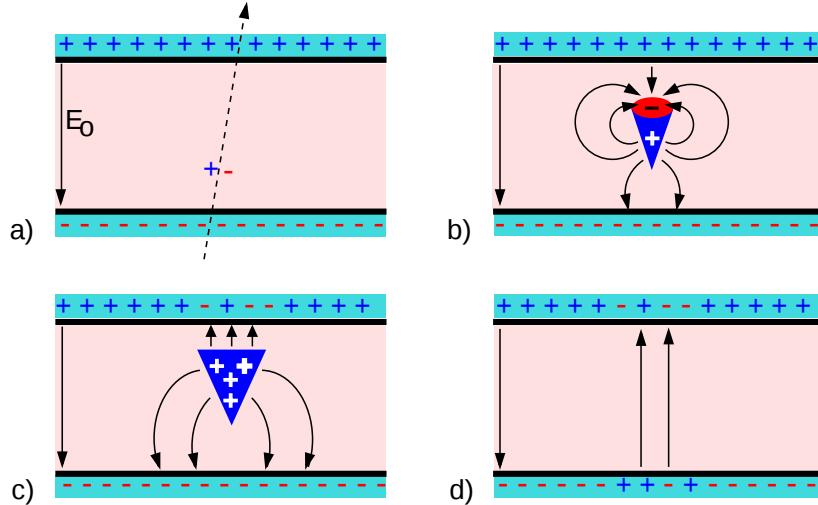


Figure 4.1: Different phases of the avalanche development in the RPC gas volume subjected to a constant electric field E_0 . a) An avalanche is initiated by the primary ionisation caused by the passage of a charged particle through the gas volume. b) Due to its growing size, the avalanche starts to locally 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.

2065 After an avalanche developed in the gas, a time long compared to the development of a discharge
 2066 is needed to recombine the charge carriers in the electrode material due to their resistivity. This
 2067 property has the advantage of affecting the local electric field and avoiding sparks in the detector
 2068 but, on the other hand, the rate capability is intrinsically limited by the time constant τ_{RPC} of the
 2069 detector. Using a quasi-static approximation of Maxwell's equations for weakly conducting media,
 2070 it can be shown that the time constant τ_{RPC} necessary to the charge recombination at the interface
 2071 in between the electrode and the gas volume is given by the Formula 4.1 [52].

$$(4.1) \quad \tau_{RPC} = \frac{\epsilon_{electrode} + \epsilon_{gas}}{\sigma_{electrode} + \sigma_{gas}}$$

2072 A gas can be assimilated to vacuum, leading to $\epsilon_{gas} = \epsilon_0$ and $\sigma_{gas} = 0$, and the electrodes
 2073 permittivity and conductivity can be written as $\epsilon_{electrode} = \epsilon_r \epsilon_0$ and $\sigma_{electrode} = 1/\rho_{electrode}$,
 2074 showing the strong dependence of the time constant to the electrodes resistivity in Formula 4.2.

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

Very few materials with a low enough resistivity exist in nature. The resistivity targeted to build RPCs ranges from 10^9 to $10^{12} \Omega \cdot \text{cm}$. 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 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	$\rho_{\text{electrode}} (\Omega \cdot \text{cm})$	ϵ_r	$\tau_{\text{RPC}} (\text{ms})$
Float glass	10^{12}	~ 7	~ 700
High-pressure laminate	10^{10} to 10^{12}	~ 6	~ 6 to 600
Doped glass (LR S)	10^9 to 10^{11}	~ 10	~ 1 to 100
Doped ceramics (SiN/SiC)	10^9	~ 8.5	~ 1
Doped ceramics (Ferrite)	10^8 to 10^{12}	~ 20	~ 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.

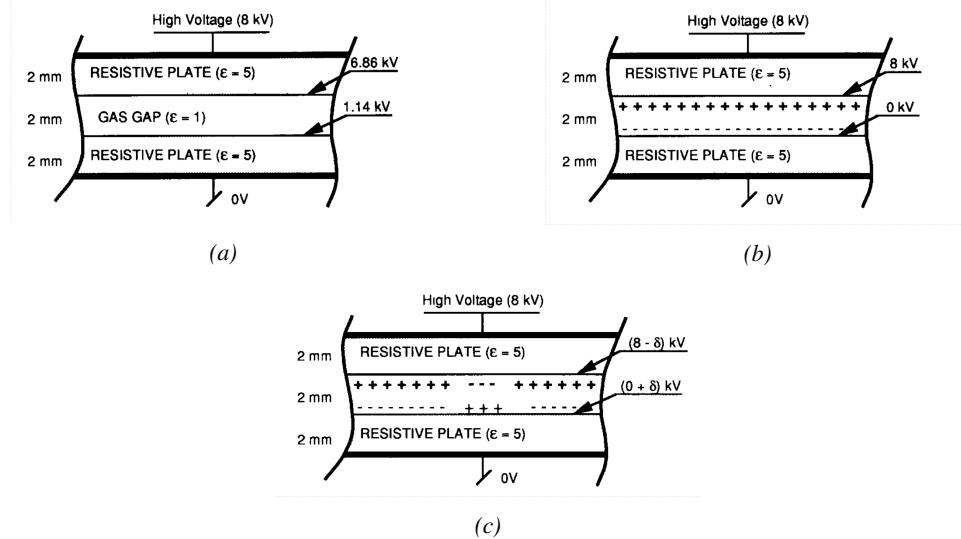


Figure 4.2: Movement of the charge carriers in an RPC. Figure 4.2a: Voltage across an RPC whose electrode have a relative permittivity of 5 at the moment the tension is applied. Figure 4.2b: After the charge carriers moved, the electrodes are charged and there is no voltage drop over the electrodes anymore. 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.

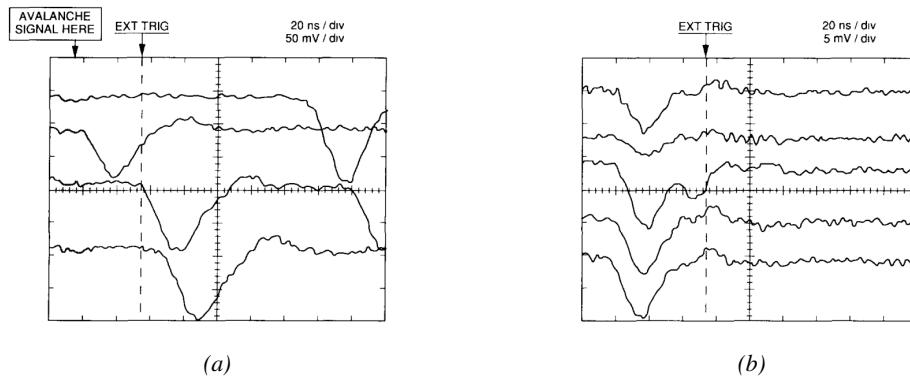


Figure 4.3: Typical oscilloscope pulses in streamer mode (Figure 4.3a) and avalanche mode (Figure 4.3b). In the case of streamer mode, the very small avalanche signal is visible.

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.

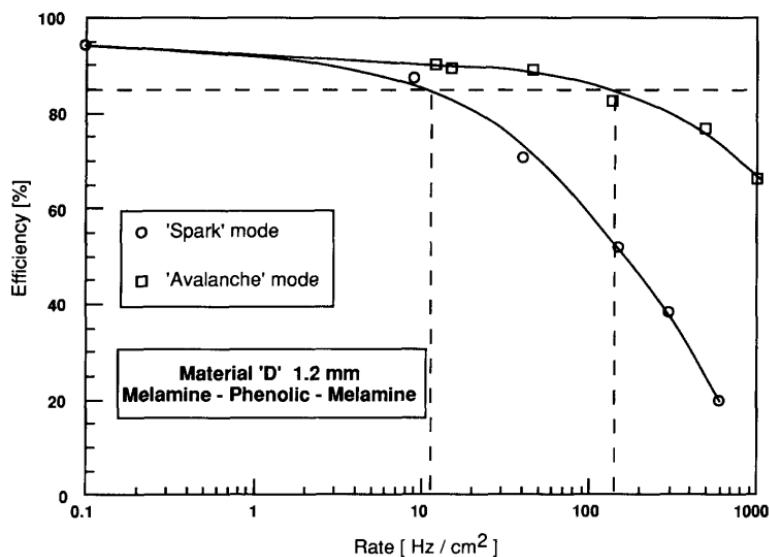


Figure 4.4: Rate capability comparison for the streamer and avalanche mode of operation. An order of magnitude in rate capability for a maximal efficiency drop of 10% is gained by using the avalanche mode over the streamer mode.

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

²¹³⁹ fraction of strong quencher in the gas mixture.

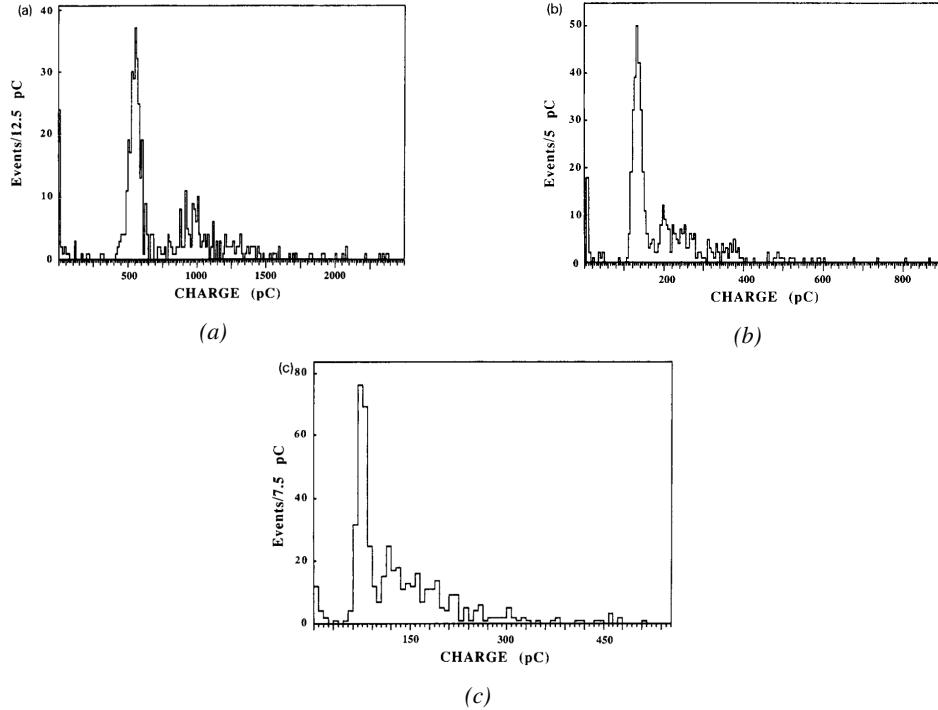


Figure 4.5: Comparison of the charge distribution of signals induced by cosmic muons in an RPC operated with a gas mixture of argon, butane and bromotrifluoromethane (CF_3Br). The Ar/C_4H_{10} is kept constant at 60/40 in volume while the total amount of CF_3Br in the mixture is varied: 0% (Figure 4.5a), 4% (Figure 4.5b) and 8% (Figure 4.5c) [39].

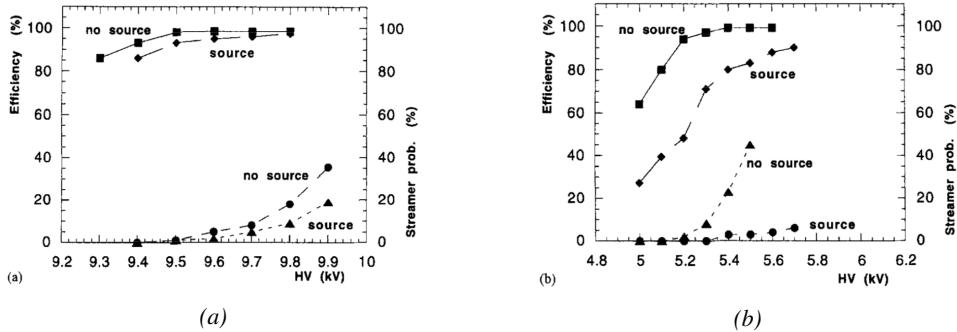


Figure 4.6: Comparison of the efficiency and streamer probability, defined as the fraction of events with an induced charge 10 times larger than that of the average avalanche, with and without irradiation by a 24 GBq ^{137}Cs source of an RPC successively operated with a 90/10 mixture $C_2H_2F_4/i-C_4H_{10}$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

²¹⁴⁰ From this moment onward, more and more studies were conducted in order to find a gas mixture
²¹⁴¹ 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.

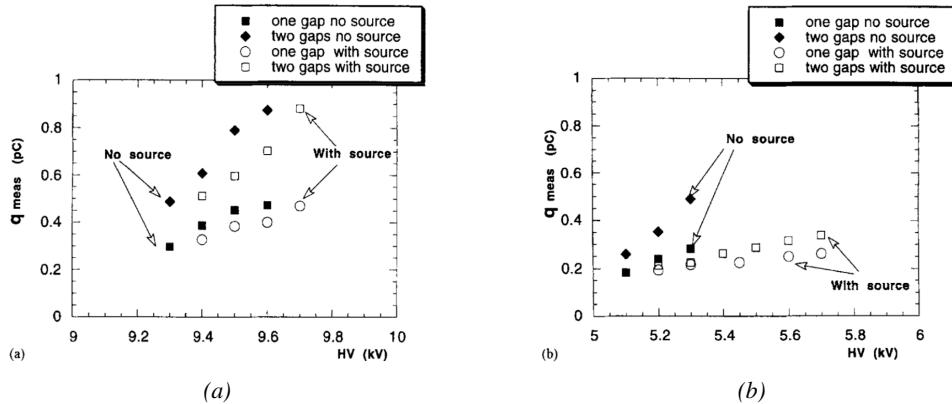


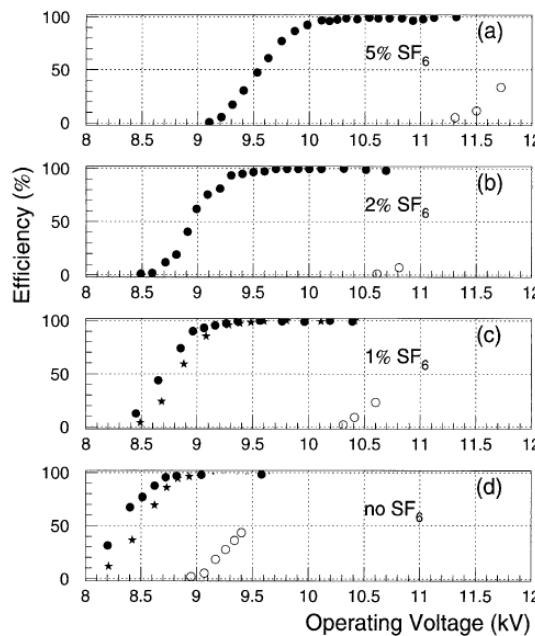
Figure 4.7: Comparison of the fast charge ratio with and without irradiation by a 24 GBq ^{137}Cs source of an RPC successively operated with a 90/10 mixture $C_2H_2F_4/i-C_4H_{10}$ (Figure 4.7a) and a 70/5/10/15 mixture of $Ar/i-C_4H_{10}/CO_2/C_2H_2F_4$ (Figure 4.7b). The results are provided for both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

2170 of the RPC gas mixtures, with a typical fraction above 90%. It is used for its high effective
 2171 Townsend coefficient and the great average fast charge that allows to operate the detector
 2172 with a high threshold with respect to argon, for example, that has similar effective Townsend
 2173 coefficient but suffers from a lower fast charge. To operate with similar conditions, argon
 2174 would require a higher electric field leading to a higher fraction of streamers, thus limiting the
 2175 rate capability of the detector [40, 41].

- 2176 • Isobutane ($i\text{-C}_4\text{H}_{10}$), only present in a few percent in the gas mixtures, is used for its UV
 2177 quenching properties [54] helping to prevent streamers due to UV photon emission during the
 2178 avalanche growth.
- 2179 • Sulfur hexafluoride, (SF_6), simply referred to as SF_6 , is used in very little quantities for its
 2180 high electronegativity. Excess of electrons are being absorbed by the compound and stream-
 2181 ers are suppressed [42, 43]. Nevertheless, a fraction of SF_6 higher than 1% will not bring
 2182 any extra benefice in terms of streamer cancelation power but will lead to higher operating
 2183 voltage [42], as can be understood through Figure 4.8.



2184 *Figure 4.8: Efficiency (circles and stars with 30 mV and 100 mV thresholds respectively) and streamer prob-
 2185 ability (open circles) as function of the operating voltage of a 2 mm single gap HPL RPC flushed with a gas
 2186 mixture containing (a) 5%, (b) 2%, (c) 1% and (d) no SF_6 [42].*

2187 In the last steps of R&D, the gas mixture of CMS RPCs was foreseen to be a 96.2/3.5/0.3 compo-
 2188 sition of $\text{C}_2\text{H}_2\text{F}_4/i\text{-C}_4\text{H}_{10}/\text{SF}_6$ [55] but finally it was slightly changed into a 95.2/4.5/0.3 mixture
 2189 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.

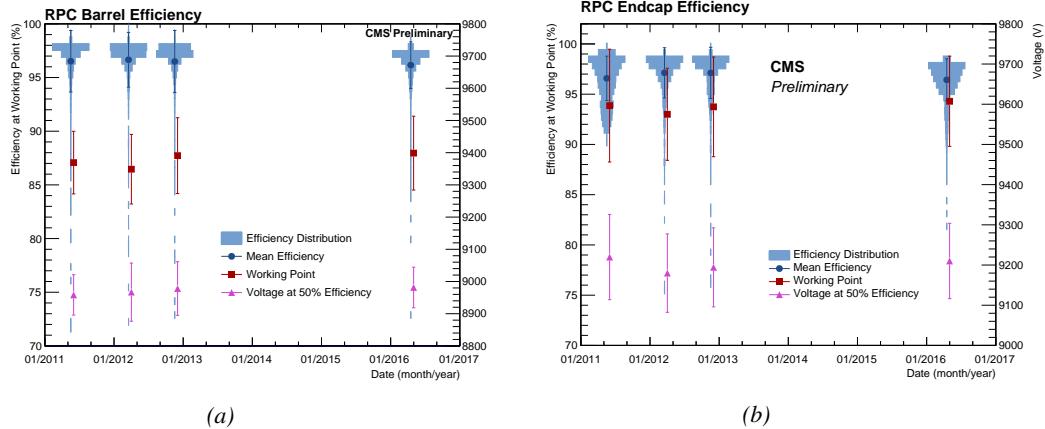


Figure 4.9: Evolution of the efficiency, working voltage, and voltage at 50% of maximum efficiency for CMS Barrel (Figure 4.9a) and Endcap (Figure 4.9b) RPCs obtained through yearly voltage scans since 2011. The working voltage of each RPC is updated after each voltage scan to ensure optimal operation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

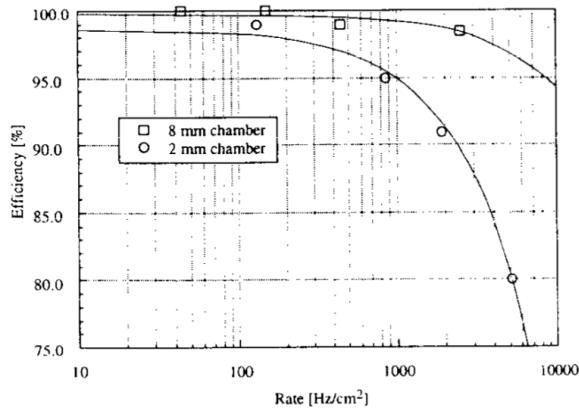


Figure 4.10: Comparison of the rate capability of 8 mm and 2 mm wide RPCs. The lines are linear fits on the data [59].

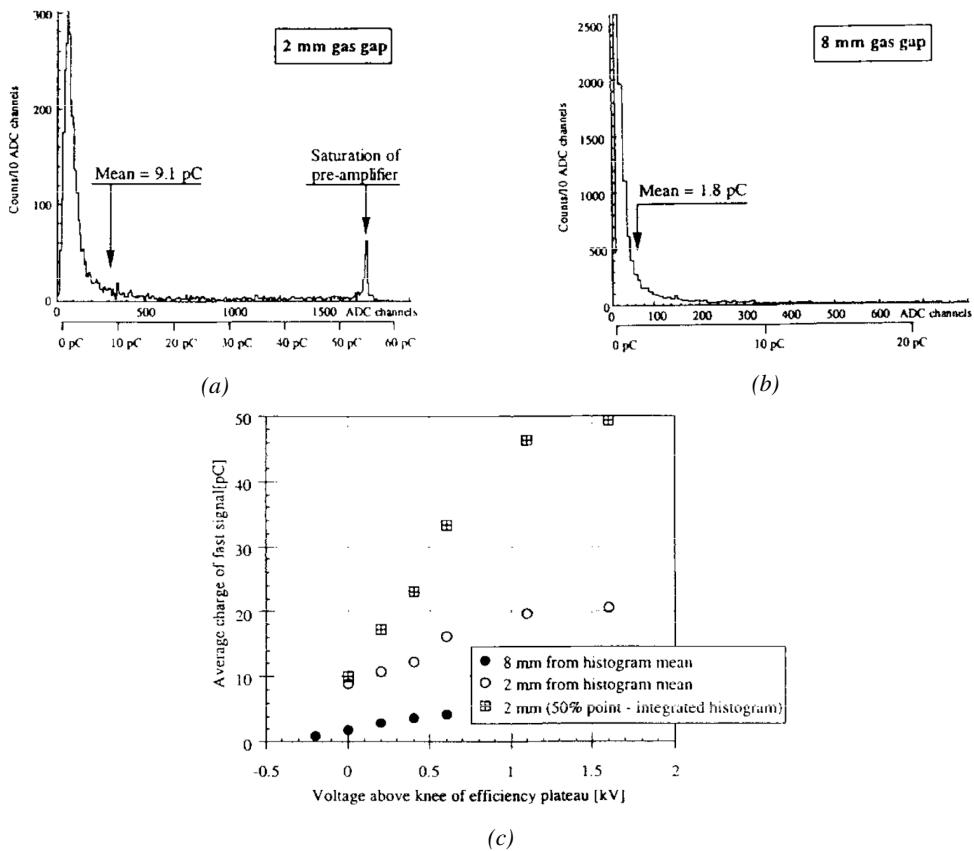


Figure 4.11: Distributions of the induced charge of fast signals on 2 mm (Figure 4.11a) and 8 mm (Figure 4.11b) RPCs exposed to a radiation rate of 100 Hz/cm^2 . Average induced charge of fast signals as a function of the high voltage applied on 2 mm and 8 mm RPCs (Figure 4.11c). In the case of the 2 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.

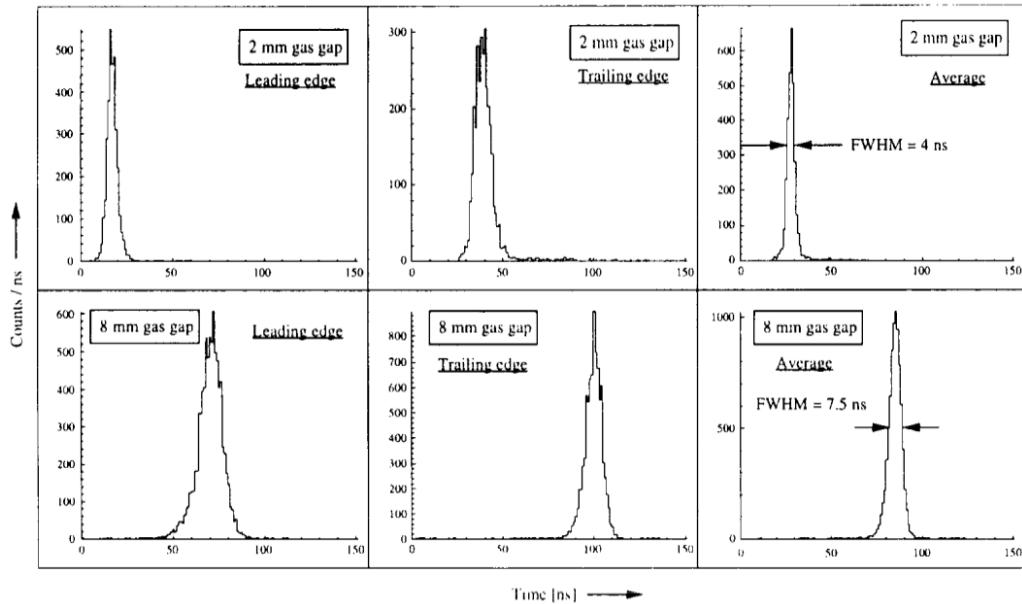


Figure 4.12: Time distributions of the leading, trailing, and average of both leading and trailing edges for 2 mm (top row) and 8 mm (bottom row) RPCs exposed to a 100 Hz/cm² radiation rate. The data was collected with RPCs operated at the voltage corresponding to the knee of the efficiency distribution, 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 output 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.

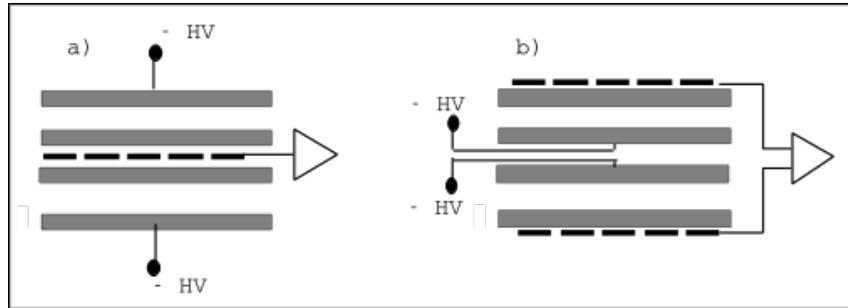


Figure 4.13: Possible double-gap RPC layouts: a) "standard" 1D double-gap RPC, as used in CMS experiment, where the anodes are facing each other and a 1D read-out plane is sandwiched in between them, b) double read-out double-gap RPC as used in ATLAS experiment, where the cathodes are facing each other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

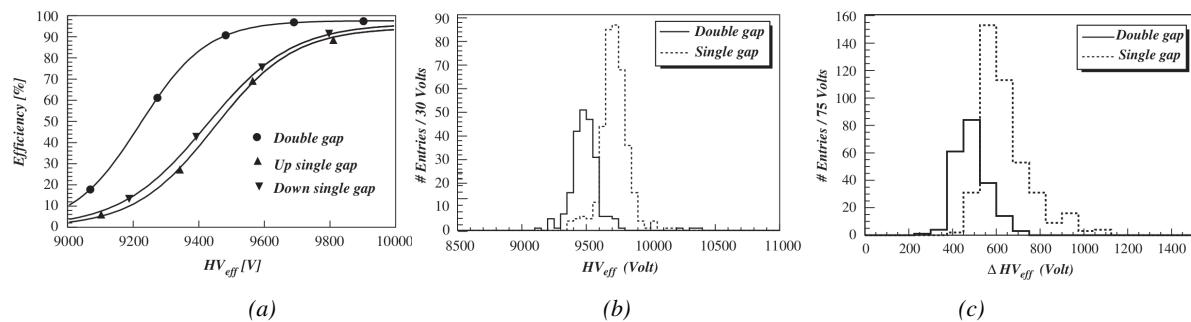


Figure 4.14: Comparison of performance of CMS double and single gap RPCs using cosmic muons [55]. Figure 4.14a: Comparison of efficiency sigmoids. Figure 4.14b: Voltage distribution at 95% of maximum efficiency. Figure 4.14c: $\Delta_{10\%}^{90\%}$ distribution.

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 that 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 is found to be increased as the induced charge per gap is then lower than in the case of 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.

2251 **4.2.3.2 Multigap RPC (MRPC)**

2252 MRPCs are layouts in which floating sub electrode plates are placed into a wide gap RPC to divide
 2253 the gas volume and create a sum of narrow gaps [44, 45]. Similarly to the double gap RPC for which
 2254 the gain could be reduced by increasing the dynamic range, the multigap reduces the gain while
 2255 keeping a total dynamic range similar to which of a wide gap RPC by reducing the size of each
 2256 individual sub-gap composing the detector. The dynamic range, associated to the sensitive volume,
 2257 and the comparison of each detector layout to the wide gap RPC is showed in Figure 4.15.

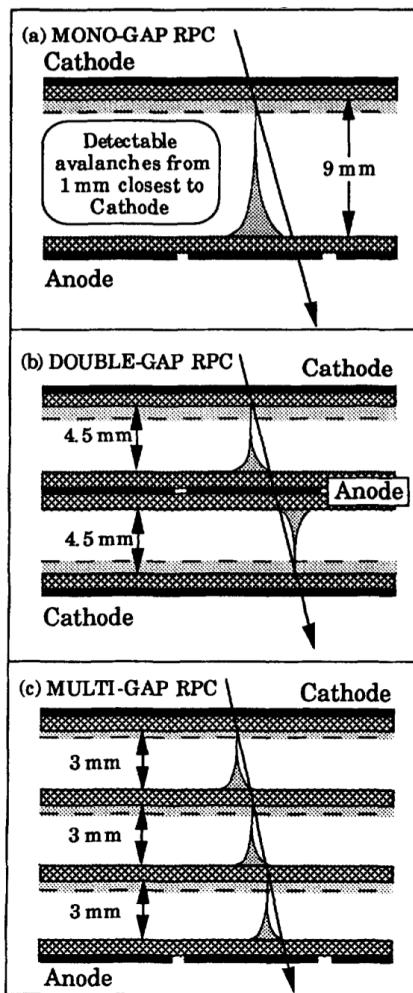


Figure 4.15: Representation of different RPC layouts (wide gap on Figure (a), double gap on Figure (b) and multigap on Figure (c)), of the corresponding sensitive volume in gray, and of the associated avalanche size [45].

2258 By operating the detector with thinner gaps, the time resolution is improved. Comparatively to
 2259 the time resolution presented in Figure 4.12 for the wide gap RPC of 8 mm, a complementary study
 2260 was conducted on multigaps using two 4 mm and four 2 mm subgaps and showed, via Figure 4.16,
 2261 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].

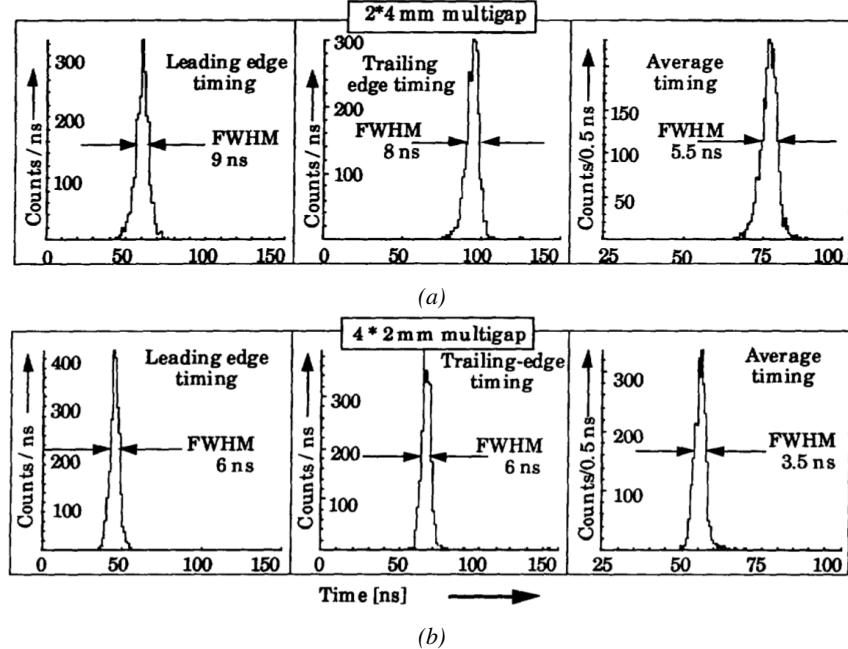


Figure 4.16: Time distributions of the leading, trailing, and average of both leading and trailing edges for multigap RPCs consisting in two 4 mm (Figure 4.16a) and four 2 mm (Figure 4.16b) exposed to a 100 Hz/cm^2 radiation rate. The data was collected with RPCs operated at the voltage corresponding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

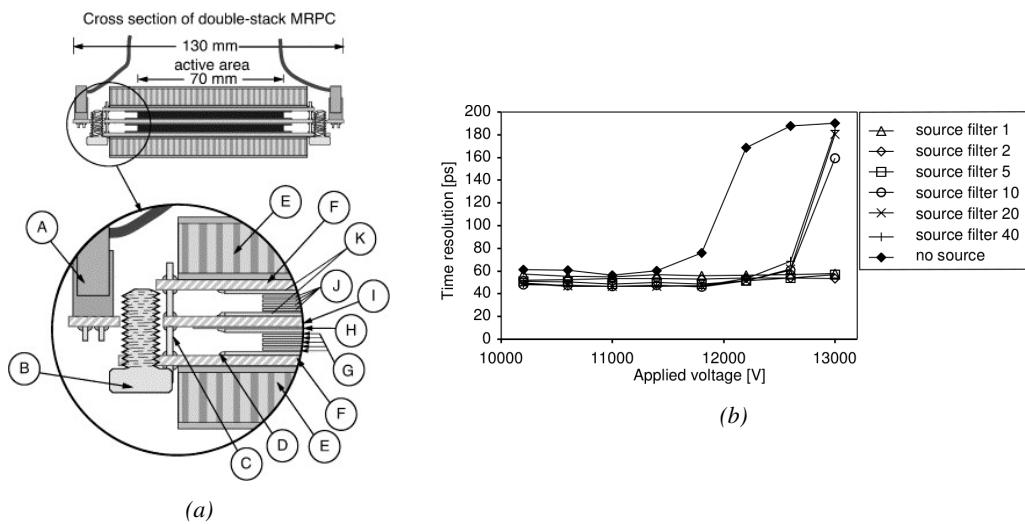


Figure 4.17: Presentation of a study of a possible ALICE MRPC cell using $250 \mu\text{m}$ gas gaps, $620 \mu\text{m}$ outer glass electrodes, and $550 \mu\text{m}$ inner floating electrodes (Figure 4.17a), and of its time resolution performance as a function of the applied high voltage for different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

$$(4.3) \quad \beta = \frac{p}{\sqrt{p^2 + m^2}}$$

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:

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

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

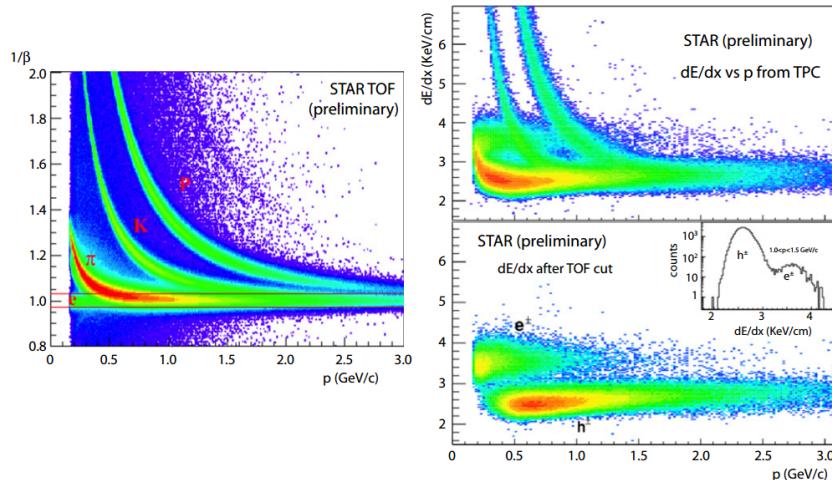


Figure 4.18: Particle identification applied to electrons in the STAR experiment. The identification is performed combining ToF and dE/dx measurements [65].

2283 Taking into account the distortion effect on the electric field inside of a MRPC built using micro
 2284 gaps due to the exposition to irradiation, distortion that can be understood by monitoring the current
 2285 drawn by the detector which should stay constant at constant electric field, another benefice of using
 2286 such small gas gaps is the strong reduction of the average avalanche volume and thus of the blind
 2287 spot on MRPCs leading to an improved rate capability. Multigaps can sustain backgrounds of several
 2288 kHz/cm² as demonstrated in Figure 4.19.

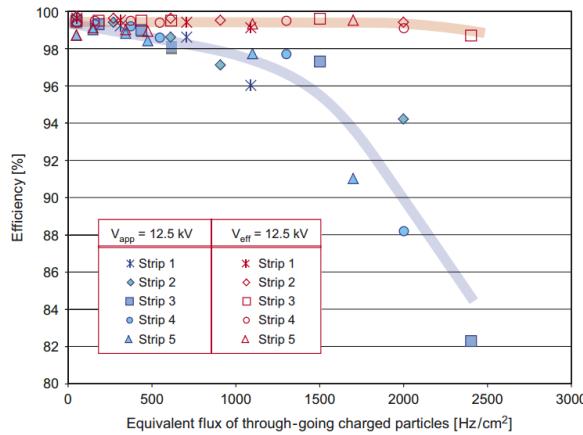


Figure 4.19: Comparison of the detector performance of ALICE ToF MRPC [66] at fixed applied voltage (in blue) and at fixed effective voltage (in red). The effective voltage is kept fixed by increasing the applied voltage accordingly to the current drawn by the detector.

2289 4.2.3.3 Charge distribution and performance limitations

2290 [This part could be moved in the next section of the chapter and deepened using the perspective
 2291 of the avalanche physics.]

2292 The direct consequence of the different RPC layouts is a variation of intrinsic time resolution of
 2293 the RPC as the gap size decreases and of the rate capability when the deposited charge per event is
 2294 spread over a larger number of amplification volumes, allowing for a reduction of the overall gain of
 2295 the detectors which is replaced by an on-electronics pre-amplification of the signals. in this sense,
 2296 an advantage is given to multigaps whose design use sub-millimeter gas volumes providing very
 2297 consistent signals.

2298 From the charge spectrum point of view, each layout has its own advantages. When the double-
 2299 gap has the highest induced over drifting charge ratio, as seen in Figure 4.20, the multigap has a
 2300 charge spectrum strongly detached from the origin, as visible in Figure 4.21. A high induced over
 2301 drifting charge ratio means that the double gap can be safely operated at high threshold or that at
 2302 similar threshold it can be operated with a twice smaller drifting charge, meaning a higher rate
 2303 capability if operated with sensitive enough electronics. On the other hand, the strong detachment
 2304 of the charge spectrum from the origin in the MRPC case allows to reach a higher efficiency with
 2305 increasing threshold as most of the induced charge is not low due to the convolution of several
 2306 single gap spectra. The range of stable efficiency increases with the number of gap, as presented in
 2307 Figure 4.22.

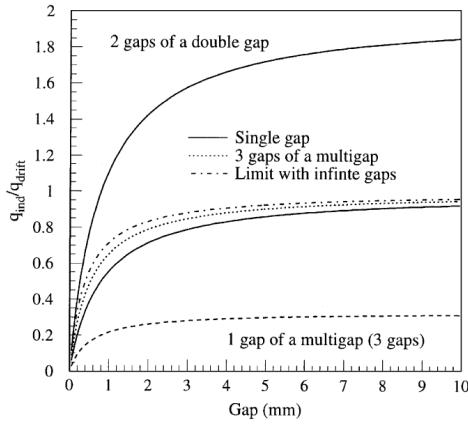


Figure 4.20: Ratio between total induced and drifting charge have been simulated for single gap, double-gap and multigap layouts [67]. The total induced charge for a double-gap RPC is a factor 2 higher than for a multigap.

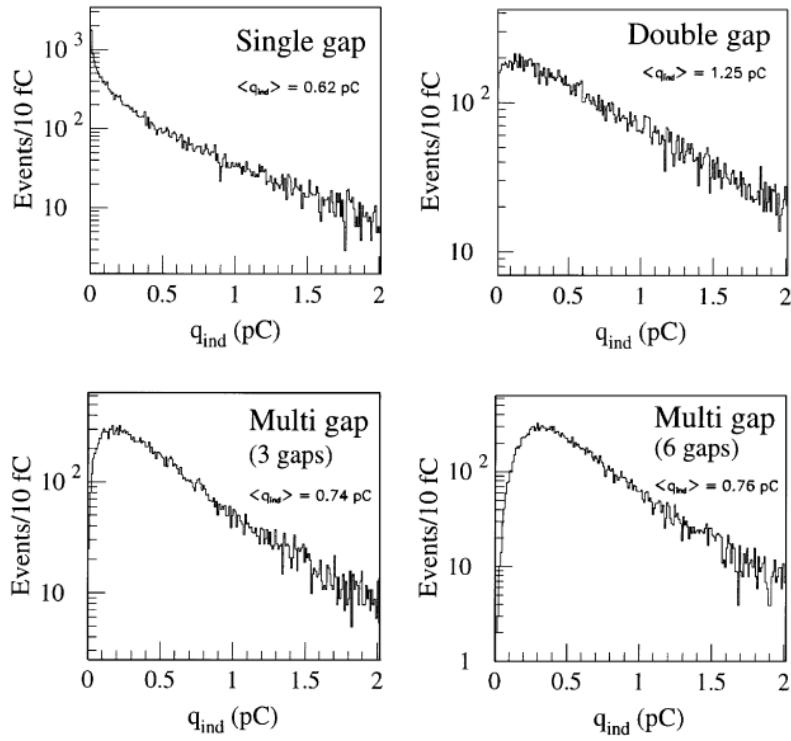


Figure 4.21: Charge spectra have been simulated for single gap, double-gap and multigap layouts [67]. It appears that when single gap shows a decreasing spectrum, double and multigap layouts exhibit a spectrum whose peak is detached from the origin. The detachment gets stronger as the number of gaps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

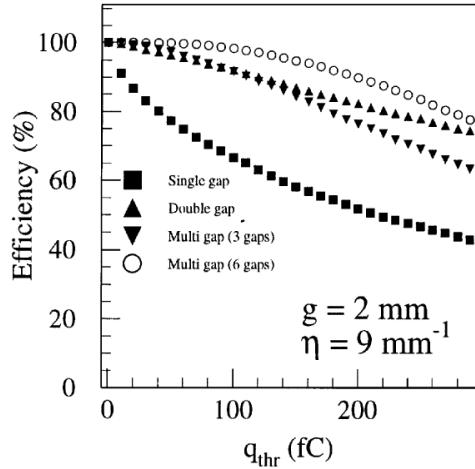


Figure 4.22: The maximal theoretical efficiency is simulated for single gap, double-gap and multigap layouts [67] at a constant gap thickness of 2 mm and using an effective Townsend coefficient of 9 mm^{-1} .

4.3 Signal formation

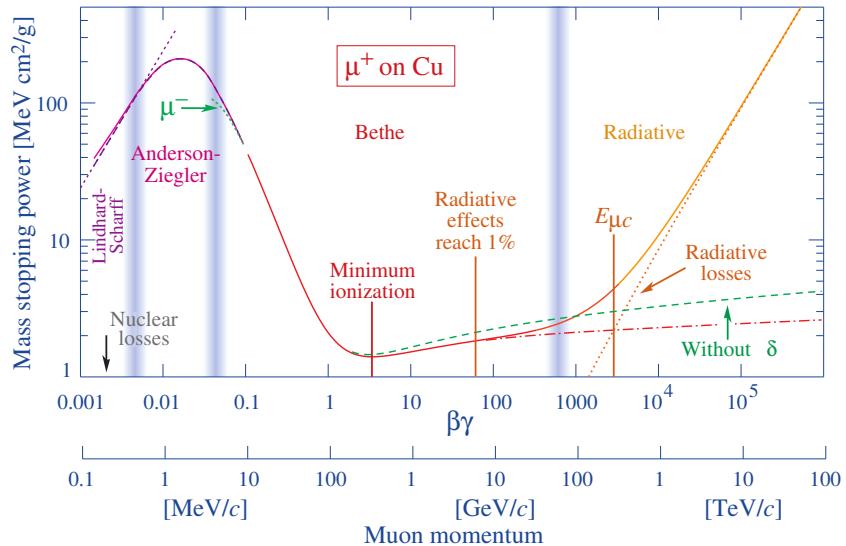


Figure 4.23: Mass stopping power as a function of $\beta\gamma = p/Mc$ for positive muons in copper [68]. The total stopping power is indicated with solid line and local components with dashed lines. The vertical bands are used to indicate boundaries between different approximations used at different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

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

The different parameters used in this equation are

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

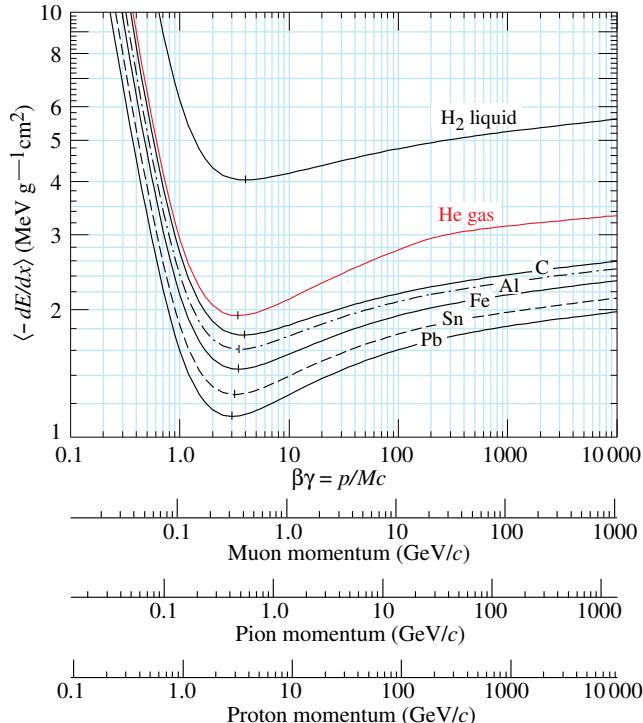


Figure 4.24: Mean mass stopping power for liquid hydrogen, as used in bubble chambers, gaseous helium, carbon, aluminum, iron, tin, and lead without the inclusion of radiative effect at higher $\beta\gamma$ necessary for pions and muons in denser materials [68].

2338 In this equation, the maximum energy transfer W_{max} is defined as function of the incident par-
 2339 ticle mass M , expressed in MeV/c^2

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

2340 and the mean excitation energy I depends on the absorber and its determination is non-trivial but
 2341 recommendation are given by the International Commission on Radiation Units & Measurements
 2342 (ICRU) based on experimental measurements and interpolations as showed in Figure 4.25.

2343 For the case of copper, the mean stopping power is visible in Figure 4.23. The mean stopping
 2344 power corresponding only to the Bethe range for other materials is given in Figure 4.24 and shows
 2345 that $\langle -dE/dx \rangle$ is similar for each material with a slow decrease with Z . The factor affecting the
 2346 equation the most is β as the dependence on M is introduced at higher energies in the logarithm via
 2347 the max transfer energy per single collision but in most practice cases, only the dependence on β is
 2348 considered as most of the relativistic particles are closed to the lowest mean energy loss rate and are

2349 referred to as minimum ionizing particles (mip's). The almost logarithmic relation in between the
 2350 mean energy loss rate for minimum ionizing particles and Z is showed in Figure 4.26.

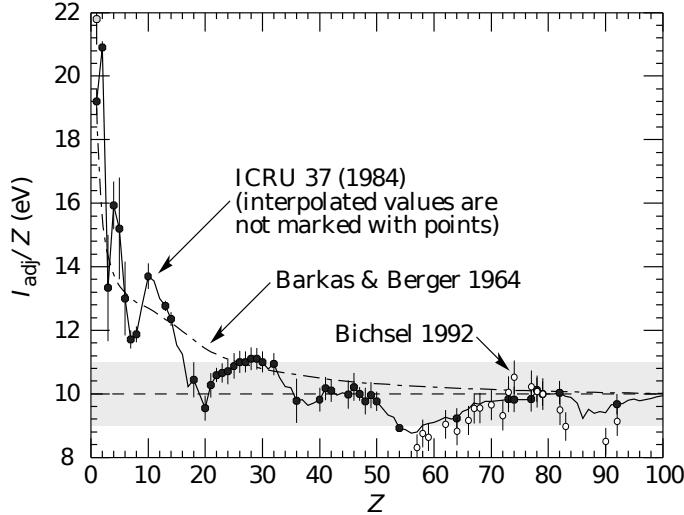


Figure 4.25: Mean excitation energies normalized to the atomic number as adopted by the ICRU [68, 72, 73].

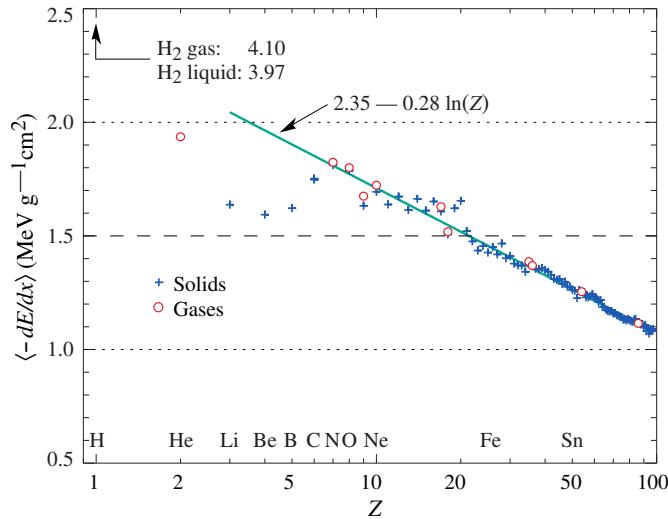


Figure 4.26: Mean mass stopping power at minimum ionization as a function of the atomic number [68].

2351 Finally, the term $\delta(\beta\gamma)/2$ corresponds to the density effect correction introduced to account for
 2352 the polarization of a real media that limits the spatial extension of the electric field of relativistic
 2353 particles. Indeed, as the energy of a particle increases, the associated electric field will flatten and
 2354 extend. Due to this effect, the distant collision contribution to Equation 4.5 will increase as $\ln(\beta\gamma)$
 2355 but the polarization of the media trunc this rise. At high energies, the correction is given by Equa-

2356 tition 4.7

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

2357 where $\hbar\omega_p$ represents the plasma energy that depends on the electron density of the media and
 2358 the electron mass and can be calculated as $\sqrt{\rho\langle Z/A\rangle} \times 28.816$ eV. The introduction of this cor-
 2359 rection term reduces the increase of the mean stopping power at higher energies as can be seen in
 2360 Figure 4.23. Moreover, due to poorer electron density, the effect is less visible on gases than on
 2361 liquids and solids has van be seen from Figure 4.24.

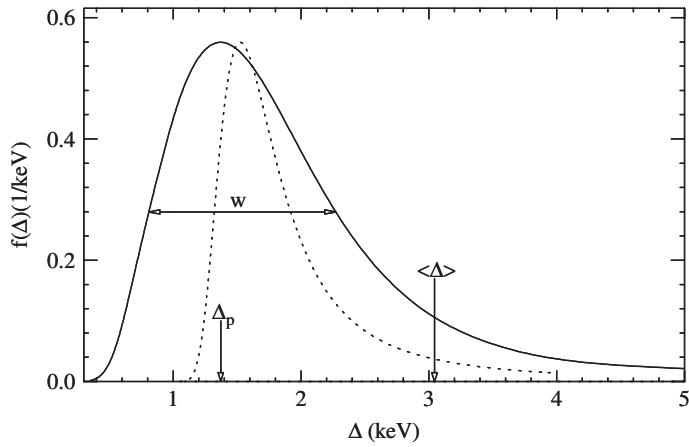


Figure 4.27: Example of straggling function $f(\Delta)$ of particles passing through 1.2 cm of Argon gas with a $\beta\gamma$ of 3.6 and represented with a solid line. The original Landau distribution is showed with a dashed line [74].

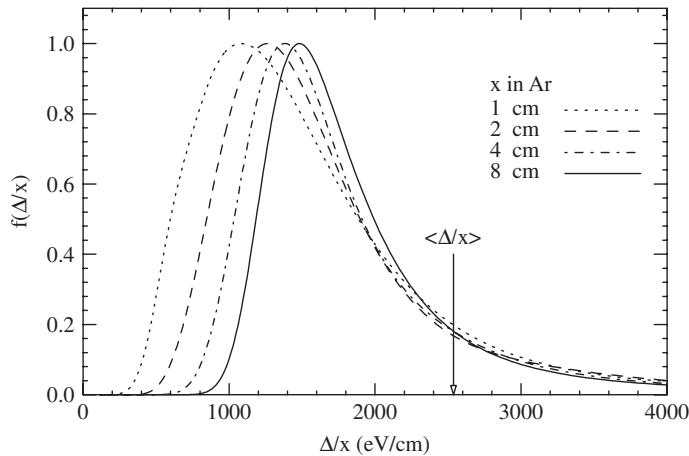


Figure 4.28: Evolution of straggling functions $f(\Delta)$ of particles passing through a volume of Argon gas with a $\beta\gamma$ of 3.6 with increasing thickness x [74].

2362 The mean energy loss per collision can be difficult to measure for low data samples and is not
 2363 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 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 .

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

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 transferred to the medium is not all used for ionization. For an energy deposition Δ , the number of electron-ion pairs produced is:

$$(4.9) \quad \Delta = n_i W$$

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 transferred 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 transferred 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 transferred 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.

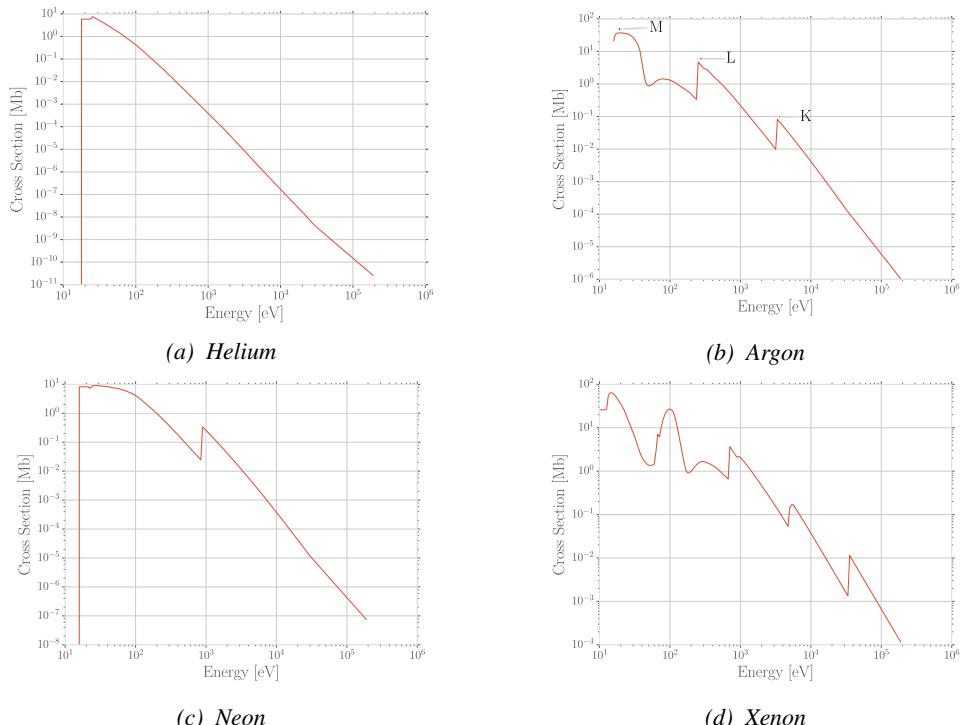


Figure 4.29: Photo-absorption cross section as computed by HEED for nobles gases with different electric shell numbers [70].

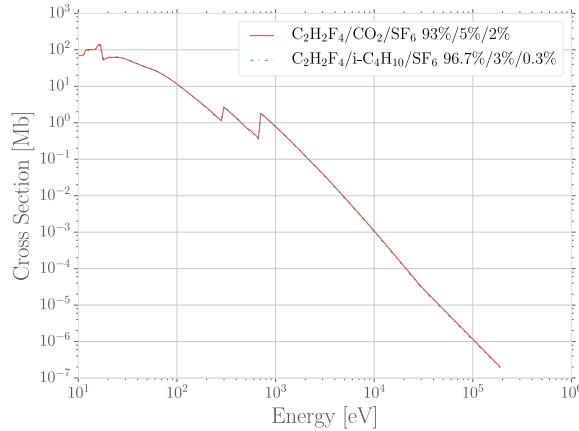


Figure 4.30: Photo-absorption cross section as computed by HEED for typical RPC gas mixtures [70]. The RPC mixture with CO₂ corresponds to the mixture used by CALICE SDHCAL [78] while the other one was foreseen for the experiment ATLAS [79] but has been changed since then.

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 C₂H₂F₄, the variations in between the 2 cross section profiles are very subtle and depends on the concentration of the other compounds.

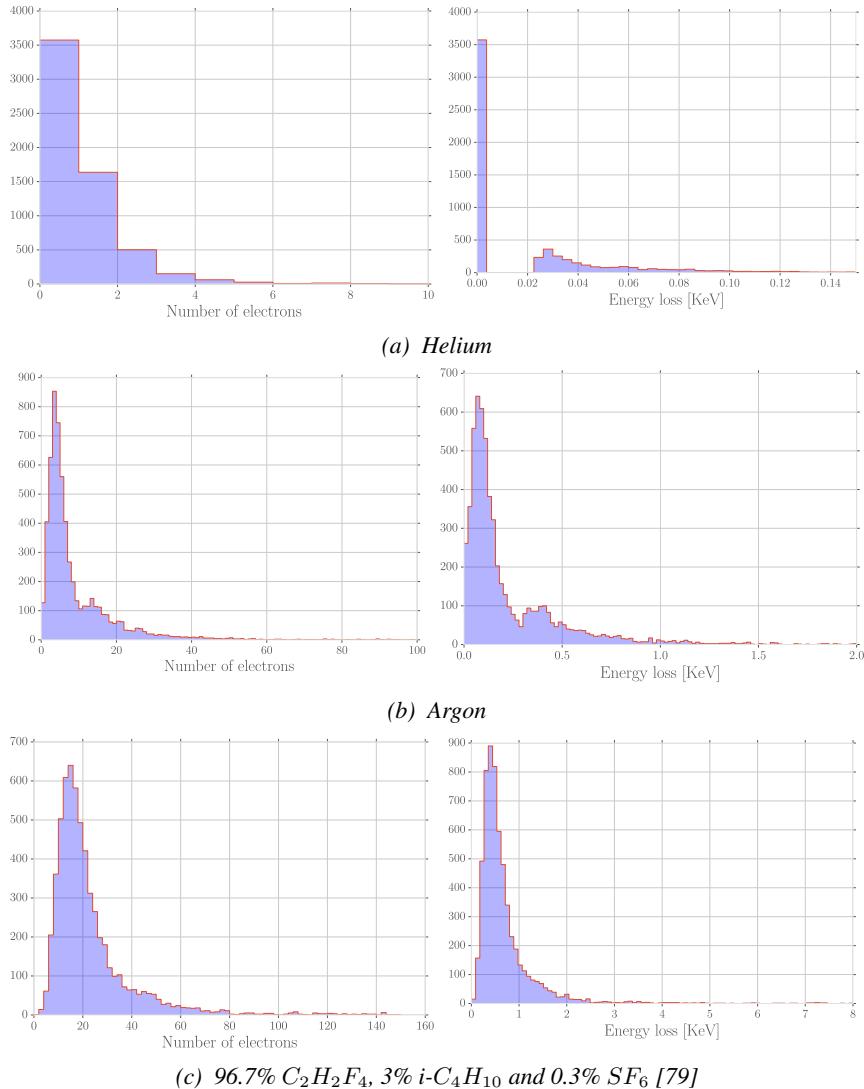


Figure 4.31: Distributions of number of electrons (left) and energy loss (right) for a 5 GeV/c muon passing through 1.2 mm of Helium (Figure 4.31a), Argon (Figure 4.31b) or a typical RPC gas mixture (Figure 4.31c) [70].

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 ($\approx 80\%$), the clusters only are composed of a single electron which is consistent with minimum ionizing particles.

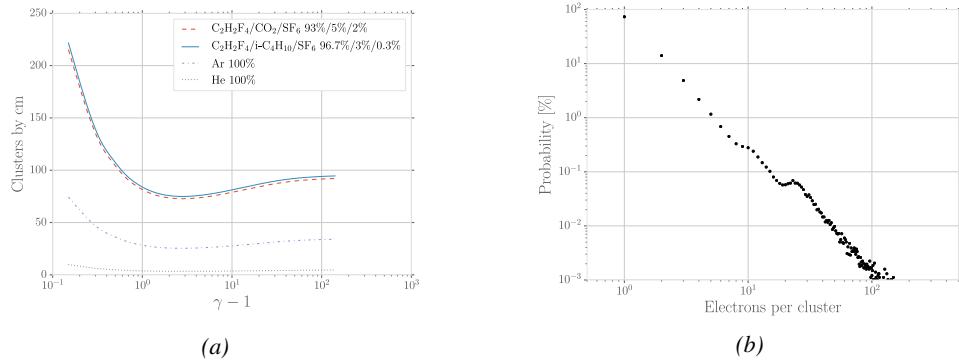


Figure 4.32: Figure 4.32a: Mean cluster density for muons through different gas volumes [70]. Figure 4.32b: Distribution of the number of electrons per cluster for a 5 GeV/c muon traveling through a mixture of 96.7% $C_2H_2F_4$, 3% $i-C_4H_{10}$ and 0.3% SF_6 [70, 79].

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 $z+dz$ (respectively $n\alpha dz$ and $n\eta dz$). Then, the mean number of electrons \bar{n} and cations \bar{p} can be written for single compound gases as

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

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

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

2451 The Townsend and attachment coefficient as a function of the applied electric field are given in
 2452 Figure 4.33 for a standard RPC gas mixture using Magboltz [81].

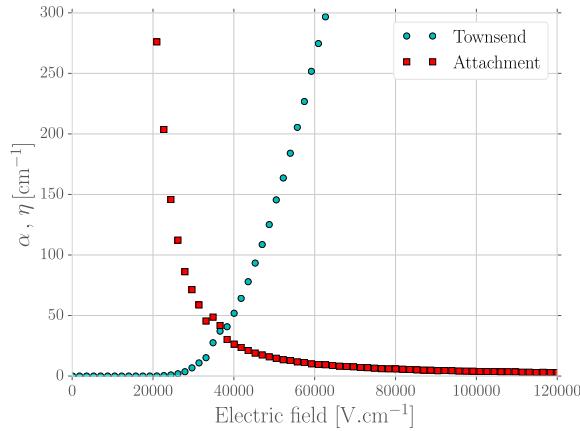


Figure 4.33: Townsend and attachment coefficient for a typical 96.7/3/0.3 mixture of $C_2H_2F_4/i-C_4H_{10}/SF_6$, at a temperature $T = 296.15\text{ K}$ and a pressure $P = 1013\text{ hPa}$ [70, 79].

2453 Nevertheless, there are more to the avalanche growth than simply these two factors. Throughout
 2454 the 20th century, models have been developed to better understand the physics of discharges in gas.
 2455 In 1937, Furry developed a model to describe electromagnetic cascades [82] that would be used for
 2456 electron avalanches in gas during the 1950s. Furry realized that the use of a Poisson law to describe
 2457 the distribution of shower sizes could not be accurate as he understood that the events occurring in
 2458 the development of a cascade are not independent from each other, as a Poisson law would suggest.
 2459 Indeed, part of the particles produce others and this process depends on both their original energy
 2460 and energy lost. Experimental results showed excess of small showers and an under estimate of very
 2461 large ones. To solve this problem, Furry proposed a distribution of sizes of following the likelihood
 2462 described in Equation 4.12, in which $\bar{n} = e^{\alpha z}$, compared with a Poisson law in Figure 4.34.

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

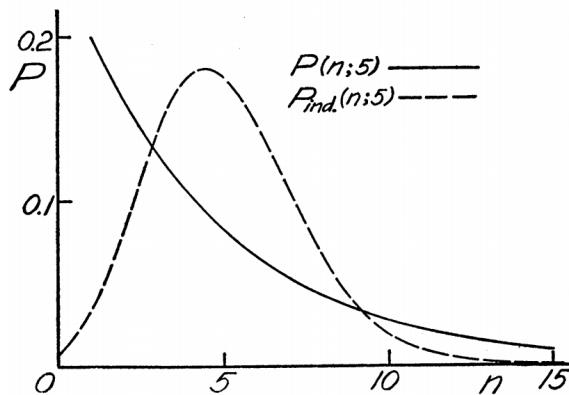


Figure 4.34: Comparison of the distribution law of Furry and the Poisson law for $\bar{n} = 5$ [82].

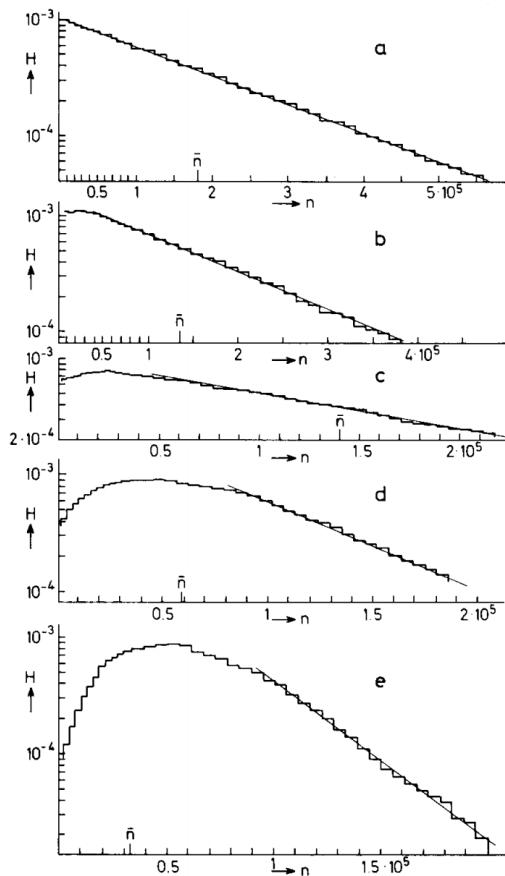


Figure 4.35: Single-electron avalanche size distribution in a proportionnal counter filled with methylal at different E/p values. (a) 70, (b) 76.5, (c) 105, (d) 186.5, (e) 426V/cm torr [83].

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.

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

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.

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

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

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 what 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.

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

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.

$$(4.17) \quad \frac{dP(n, z)}{dz} = -P(n, z)n(\alpha + \eta) + P(n-1, z)(n-1)\alpha + P(n+1, z)(n+1)\eta$$

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

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 $e^{z(\alpha-\eta)}$.

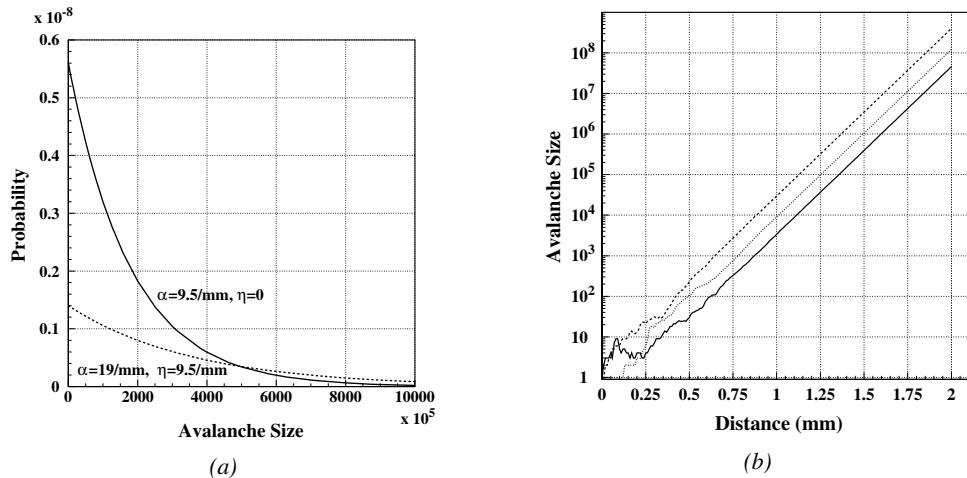


Figure 4.36: Figure 4.36a: Comparison of avalanche size distributions for different values of Townsend and attachment coefficients. The effective Townsend coefficient is the same for both distributions. Figure 4.36b: Fluctuation in avalanche size for avalanche started by a single electron with $\alpha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

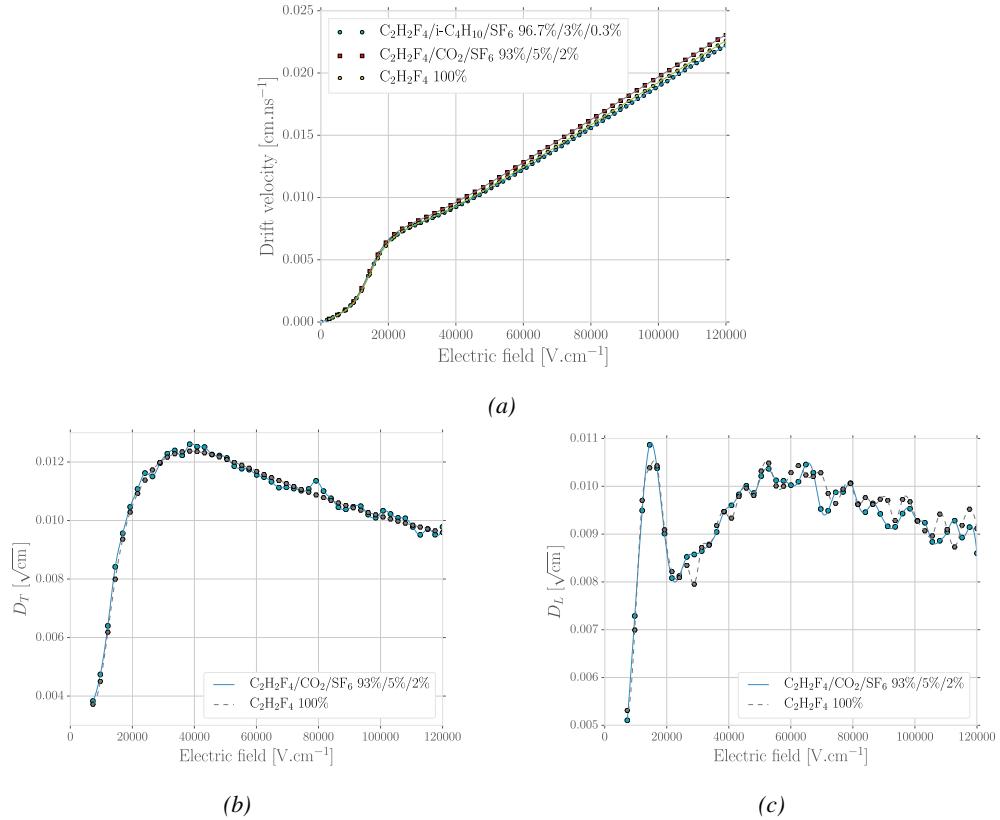


Figure 4.37: Figure 4.37a: Electron mean drift velocity v_D in pure C₂H₂F₄ and typical RPC gas mixtures. Figure 4.37b: Transverse diffusion coefficient in pure C₂H₂F₄ and a typical RPC gas mixture. Figure 4.37c: Longitudinal diffusion coefficient in pure C₂H₂F₄ and a typical RPC gas mixture. All results are given with a pressure $P = 760$ Torr and a temperature $T = 296.15$ K [70].

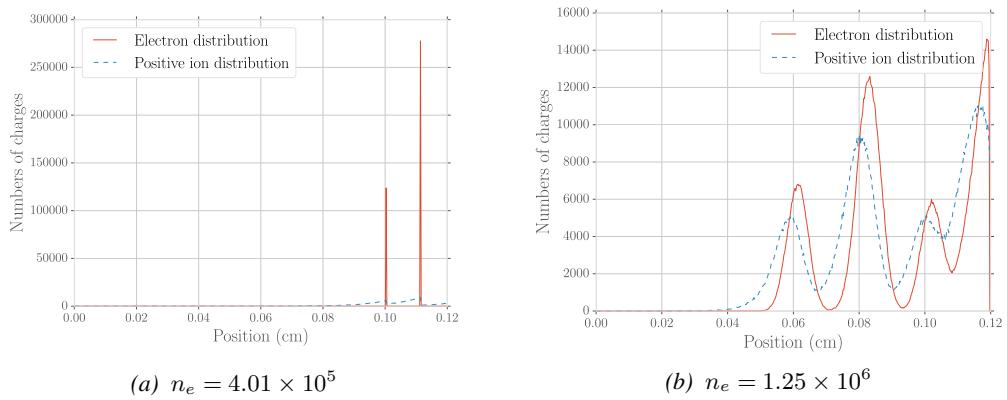


Figure 4.38: Comparison of the free charge carriers in the gas after a time $t = 7.90$ ns in the case where no diffusion is taken into account to simulate the avalanche (Figure 4.38a) and in the case where the diffusion is implemented (Figure 4.38b) [70].

Indeed, at the microscopic scale, the electrons are drifting over a distance δz while acquiring the corresponding kinetic energy $T = e_0 |\vec{E}| \delta z$ 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 \vec{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].

$$(4.19) \quad \varphi(\vec{r}, t) = \frac{1}{(\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma(t))^3} \exp\left(-\frac{(\vec{r} - \vec{r}_0)^2}{2\sigma^2(t)}\right)$$

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 $\sigma_{T,L}^2(t) = 2\bar{D}_{T,L}l/v_D$ 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 .

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

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

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

2547 accumulation of negative charges (electrons) on the front of the avalanche will reinforce the effective
 2548 electric field in between the anode of the avalanche front. Deeper in the gas volume, the positive
 2549 charges (cations) slowly drift towards the cathode and can induce together with the avalanche front
 2550 opposite electric field loops. Finally, due to the density of positive charges, the electric field seen in
 2551 between the ions tails and the cathode charged with negative charges is on average stronger than E_0
 2552 and compensate for the locally reversed field E_2 . Lippmann roughly estimated by considering that
 2553 10^6 charges were contained in a sphere of radius $r_d = 0.1$ mm that the space charge effect could
 2554 change the electric field by 3% and the Townsend and attachment coefficient up to 14% [51, 70].

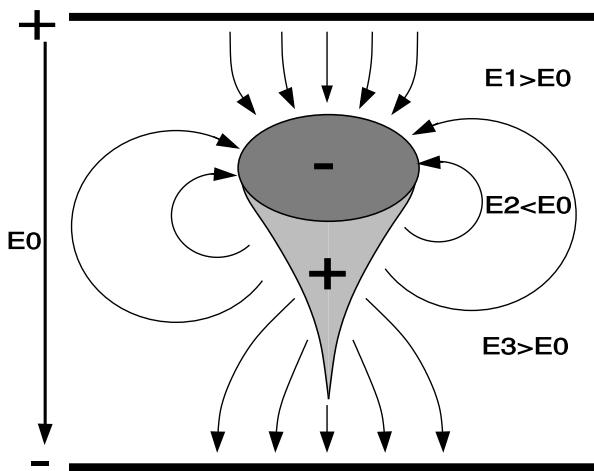


Figure 4.39: Schematic representation of an avalanche and of the electric field deformation it causes due to the local concentration of charge carriers [51].

2555 To account for the space charge effect, the electric potential and field of free charges are solved
 2556 and applied to each charges in the avalanche [51, 70]. As discussed by Français who has been working
 2557 on simulating RPCs similar to that used by the SDHCAL project of ILC, the computation of
 2558 these equations for each individual charge carrier to dynamically know the space charge field at every
 2559 stage of an avalanche development is a difficult task and would require far too much computation
 2560 time and a solution is to pre-compute an interpolation table keeping an adequately large number of
 2561 values of the space charge field for each positions in space thanks to which the values stored in the
 2562 interpolation table become very close to the analytic solution and allow for a much faster simulation.
 2563

2564 The study of space charge effect through simulation shows that it can lead to a saturation of
 2565 the avalanche growth due to the deformation of the electric field, as showed through Figure 4.40.
 2566 Additionnally, a more precise understanding of the space charge effect is given through Figure 4.41
 2567 which looks at the distribution of charges and the distortion of the electric field at different steps of
 2568 the evolution of an avalanche in a RPC. At the moment a 5 GeV muon ionizes the gas, electron-ion
 2569 pairs are created in the gas in different clusters (Figure 4.41a). Later, the first clusters have reached
 2570 the anode while the clusters that where created the closest to the cathode are now big enough to start
 2571 influencing the electric field in the gap (Figure 4.41b). When a cluster is big enough, the electric field
 2572 in front of it locally increases a lot and contributes to a stronger but very localised multiplication. At
 2573 the same moment, the positive ions right behind the cluster avalanche front decrease the electric field,
 2574 saturating the electron multiplication on the tail of the electron cloud (Figure 4.41c). Finally, when

2575 all the electrons have reached the anode and are relaxing, the electric field still is very deformed
 2576 by the distribution of both positive and negative ions in the the gas volume closest to the anode
 2577 (Figure 4.41d).

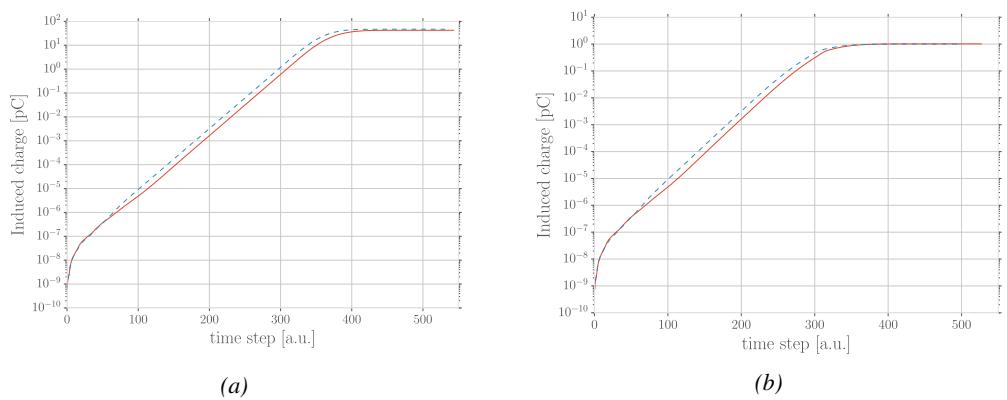


Figure 4.40: Evolution of the charge induced by an avalanche started by a single electron in a 1.2 mm thick RPC with an applied electric field of 54 kV/cm in the case space charge is not taken into account (Figure 4.40a) and in the case it is implemented into the simulation (Figure 4.40b). The total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

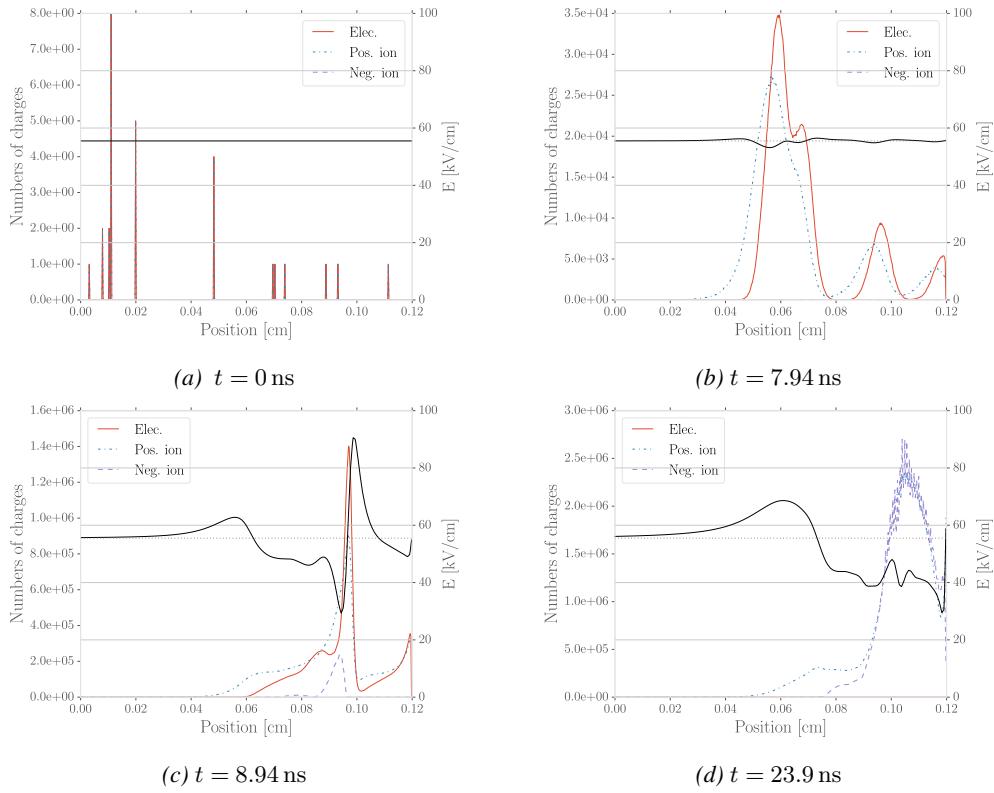


Figure 4.41: Distributions of charge carriers within the gas volume of a 1.2 mm thick RPC and the corresponding deformation of the electric field at different time steps with an applied electric field of 55.5 kV/cm [70].

2578 The electric field following the development of an avalanche can stay perturbed for a long time
 2579 with respect to the avalanche development due to the slow drift of the much heavier ions. This can
 2580 result in powerful secondary avalanches triggered by the fluctuation of the electric field together with
 2581 the emission of UV-photons leading to emission of electrons at the surface of the electrode. This is
 2582 a slow phenomenon compared to the development of avalanches. Experimentally, it is observed that
 2583 the stronger the electric field applied over the gap, the sooner after the avalanche, referred to as *pre-*
 2584 *cursor signal* in this context, and the stronger will the secondary avalanche be, possibly reaching the
 2585 streamer regime. This could be due to the amount of UV-photons emitted by the growing precursor.
 2586 These photons will be able to trigger new avalanches in a radius of a few mm around the precursor
 2587 by knocking electrons from the cathode by photoelectric effect. The strong distortions of the electric
 2588 field due to a large avalanche will be more likely to emit UV-photons as the electric field at the front
 2589 of the precursor avalanche will be large, providing the electrons with a larger energy. Eventually, the
 2590 new avalanches can grow to form streamers.

4.4 Effect of atmospherical conditions on the detector's performance

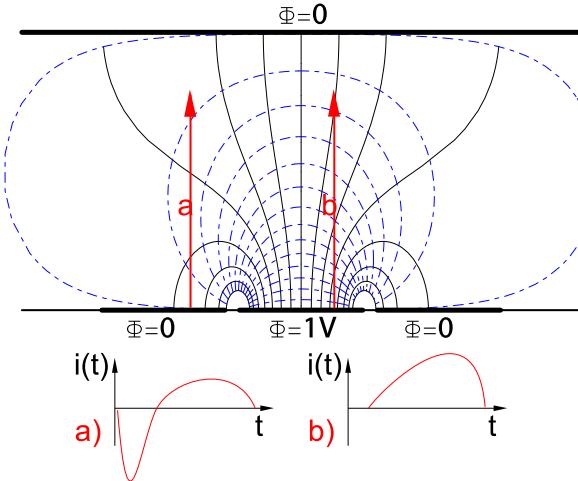


Figure 4.42: Representation of the weighting field in the volume of a RPC and the resulting induced current in the strip placed at 1 V and its neighbour connected to the ground. The induced current corresponds, as can be understood from Formula 4.22 [51].

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_{Cl} clusters of $N_j(t)$ charge carriers drifting at velocities $\vec{v}_{Dj}(t) = \vec{x}_j(t)$ at a time t is given by Formula 4.22 in which e_0 is the unit charge and \vec{E}_w is the weighting field.

$$(4.22) \quad i(t) = \sum_{j=1}^{n_{Cl}} \vec{E}_{wj}(\vec{x}_j(t)) \cdot \vec{v}_{Dj}(t) e_0 N_j(t)$$

The weighting field, that has been schematised in Figure 4.42, corresponds to the electric field that would be observed in the gas gap if a readout electrode is placed at a potential of 1 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.

$$(4.23) \quad Q(t) = \int_0^T \sum_{j=1}^{n_{Cl}} \vec{E}_{wj}(\vec{x}_j(t)) \cdot \vec{v}_{Dj}(t) e_0 N_j(t)$$

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 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 depend 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 mV after pre-amplification, corresponding to an input charge of about 140 fC.

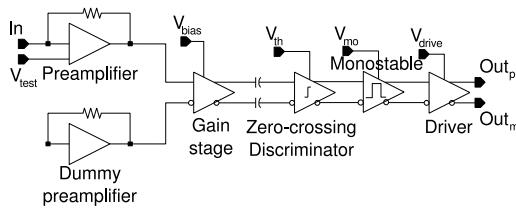


Figure 4.43: Schematics of CMS RPC FEE logic.

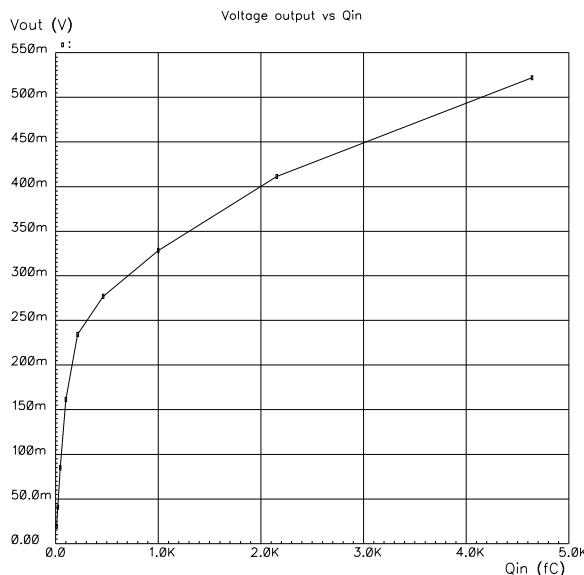


Figure 4.44: Equivalence in between the charge of the induced signal in input of the CMS FEE and the signal strength on the output of the pre-amplifier.

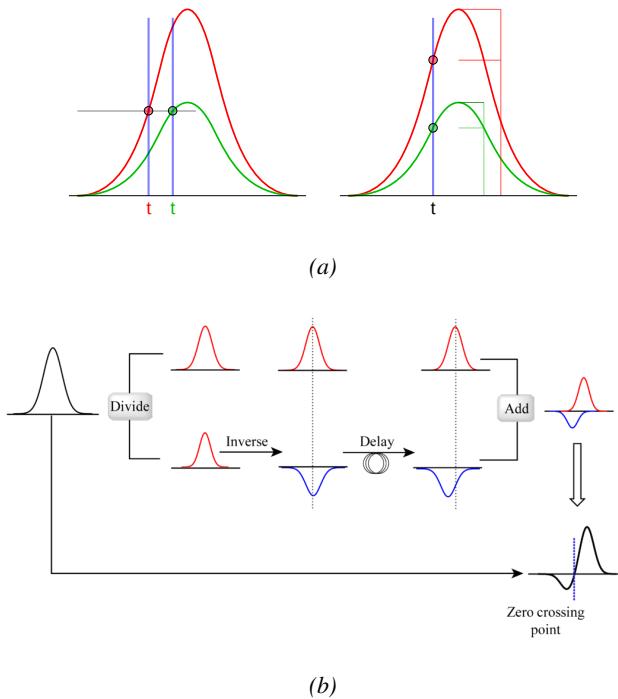


Figure 4.45: Description of the principle of a CFD. A comparison of threshold triggering (left) and constant fraction triggering (right) is shown in Figure 4.45a. Constant fraction triggering is obtained thanks to zero-crossing technique as explained in Figure 4.45b. The signal arriving at the input 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.

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

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.

$$(4.25) \quad HV_{WP} = HV_{knee} + \begin{cases} 100V & (\text{barrel}) \\ 150V & (\text{endcap}) \end{cases}$$

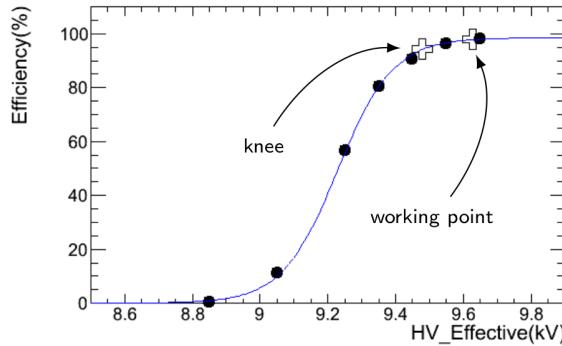


Figure 4.46: Typical efficiency sigmoid of a CMS RPC detector. The black dots correspond to the data, the blue line to the sigmoid fit and the opened cross to the knee and working extracted from the fit line.

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 $T_0 = 293.15$ K and $P_0 = 965$ hPa.

$$(4.26) \quad HV_{app} = HV_{eff} \frac{P_0}{P} \frac{T}{T_0}$$

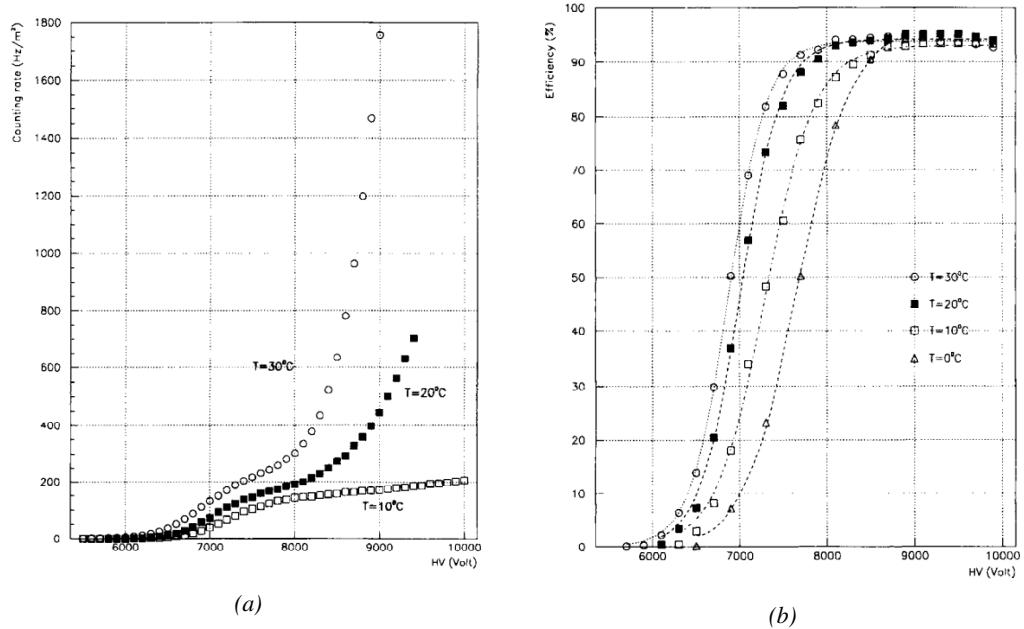


Figure 4.47: Effect of the temperature variation on the rate (Figure 4.47a) and the efficiency (Figure 4.47b) of a RPC [84].

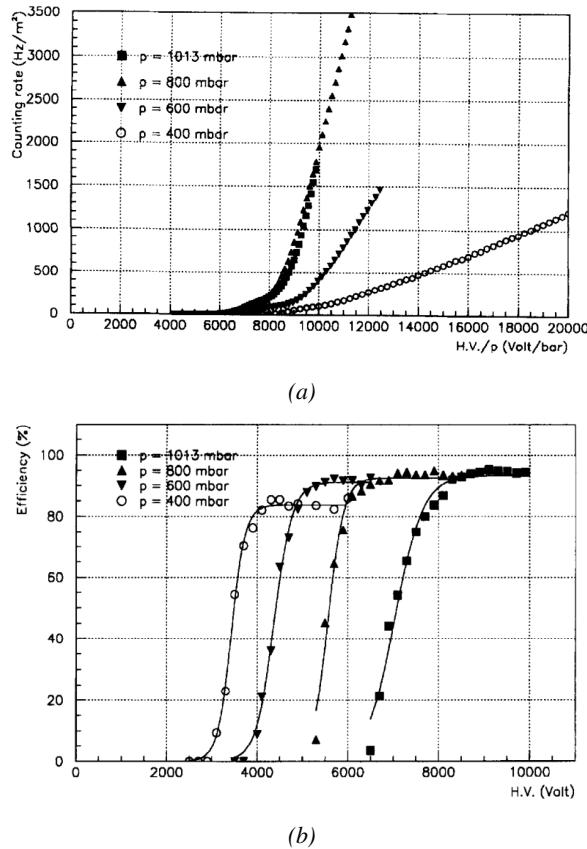


Figure 4.48: Effect of the pressure variation on the rate (Figure 4.48a) and the efficiency (Figure 4.48b) of a RPC [85].

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.

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

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

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Longevity studies and Consolidation of the present CMS RPC subsystem

2641 The RPC system, located in both barrel and endcap regions, provides a fast, independent muon trigger
2642 with a looser p_T threshold over a large portion of the pseudo-rapidity range ($|\eta| < 1.6$). During
2643 HL-LHC operations the expected conditions in terms of background and pile-up will make the iden-
2644 tification and correct p_T assignment a challenge for the muon system. The goal of RPC upgrade is to
2645 provide additional hits to the Muon System with more precise timing. All this information will be
2646 elaborated by the Trigger System in a global way enhancing the performance of the trigger in terms
2647 of efficiency and rate control. The RPC Upgrade is based on two projects: an improved Link Board
2648 System and the extension of the RPC coverage up to $|\eta| = 2.4$.

2649 The Link Board System is responsible for the processing, the synchronization and the zero-
2650 suppression the signals coming from the RPC FEBs. The Link Board components have been pro-
2651 duced between 2006 and 2007 and will be subjected to ageing and failure on a long term scale. An
2652 upgraded Link Board System will overcome the ageing problems and will allow for a more precise
2653 timing information to the RPC hits from 25 to 1.5 ns.

2654 In order to develop an improved RPC that fulfills CMS requirements, an extensive R&D program is
2655 being conducted. The benefits of adding two new RPC layers in the innermost ring of stations 3 and
2656 4 will be mainly observed in the neutron-induced background reduction and efficiency improvement
2657 for both trigger and offline reconstruction.

2658 The coverage of the RPC System up to higher pseudo-rapidity $|\eta| = 2.1$ was part of the original
2659 CMS TDR. Nevertheless, the expected background rates being higher than the certified rate capabili-
2660 ty of the present CMS RPCs in that region and the budget being limited, RPCs were restricted to a
2661 shorter range. Even though the iRPC technology that will equip the extension of the Muon System
2662 will be different than the current CMS RPC technology, it is necessary to certify the rate capability
2663 and longevity of the existing detectors as the radiation level will increase together with the increase
2664 of instantaneous luminosity of the LHC. For this purpose, spare RPC detectors built but not installed
2665 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 $10^{34} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ to reach $5 \times 10^{34} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$, 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.

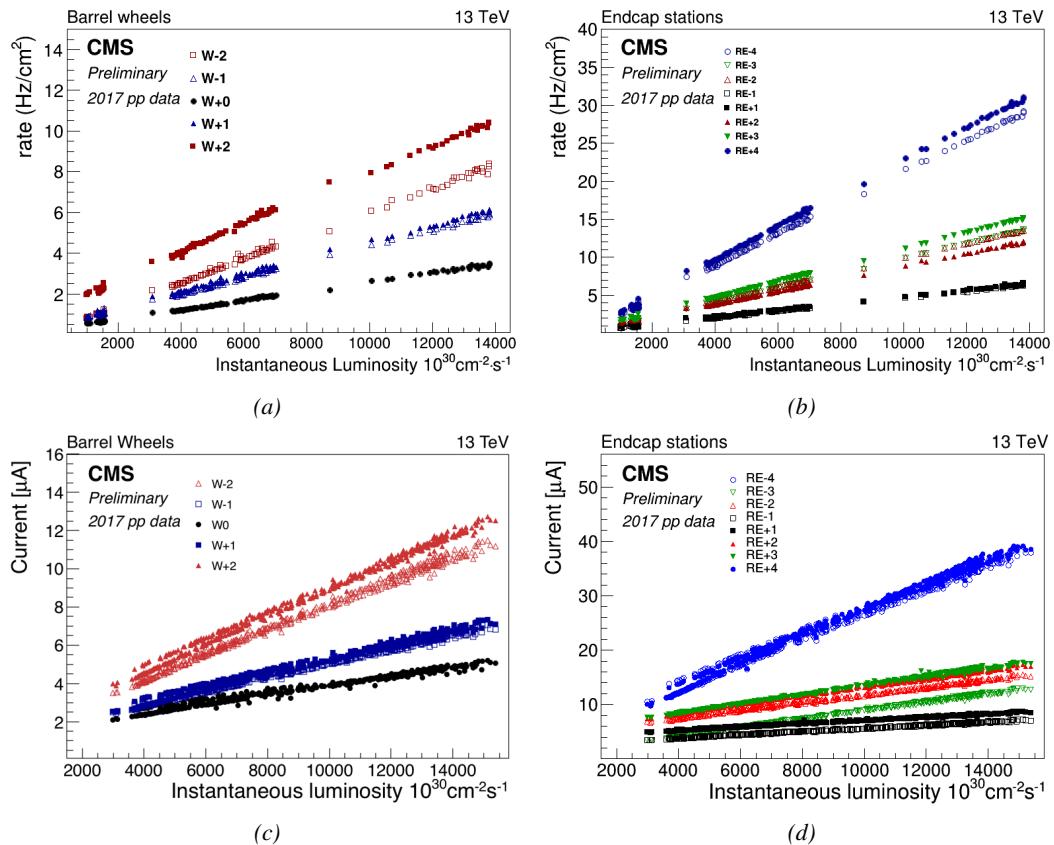


Figure 5.1: Mean RPC Barrel (left column) and Endcap (right column) rate (top row) and current (bottom row) as a function of the instantaneous luminosity as measured in 2017 p - p collision data.

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 Hz/cm^2 while the charge deposition should exceed 800 mC/cm^2 . The detectors will then be certified up to an irradiation of 840 mC/cm^2 . These extrapolations are provided with a required safety factor 3 for the certification study.

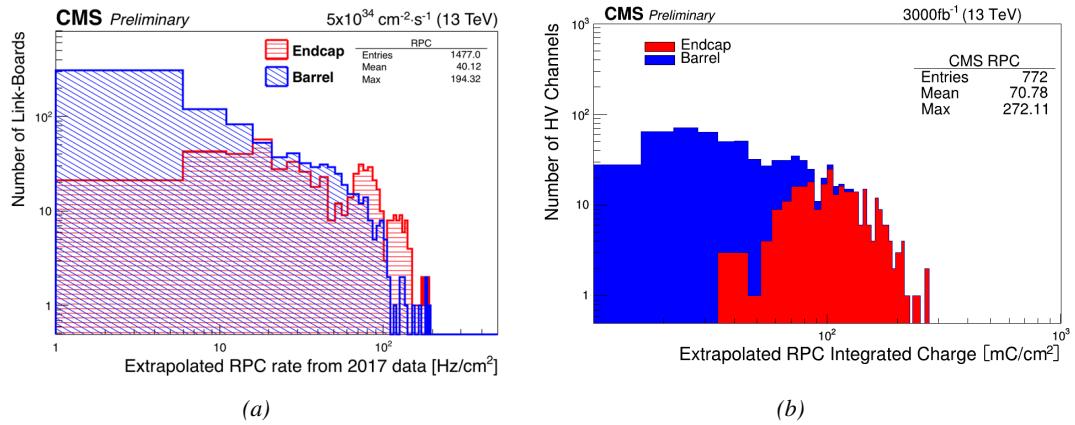


Figure 5.2: Figure 5.2a: The hit rate per region (Barrel, Endcap) is linearly extrapolated to HL-LHC highest instantaneous luminosity ($5 \times 10^{34} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$) using the rate as a function of instantaneous luminosity recorded by RPCs in 2017 showing a linear dependence. Figure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

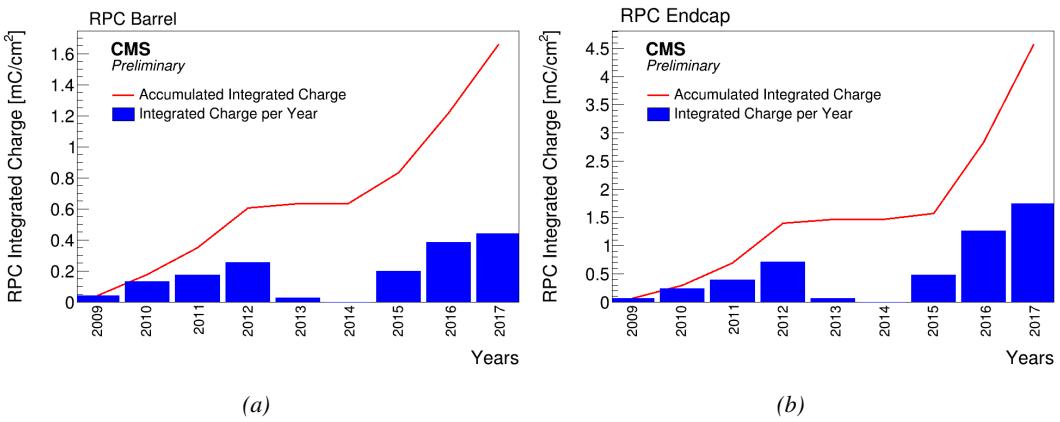


Figure 5.3: CMS RPC mean integrated charge in the Barrel region (Figure 5.3a) and the Endcap region (Figure 5.3b). The integrated charge per year is shown in blue. The red curve shows the evolution of the accumulated integrated charge through time. The blank period in 2013 and 2014 corresponds to LS1.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

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 $\sim 0.05 \text{ C/cm}^2$ and $\sim 0.4 \text{ C/cm}^2$ respectively and were certified for rates reaching 200 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 C/cm^2 - the average being of the order of 2 mC/cm^2 in the Barrel and 5 mC/cm^2 in the Endcap, closer to the beam line, as can be seen from Figure 5.3 - and a peak luminosity reaching $1.4 \times 10^{34} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ 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.

5.1.1 GIF

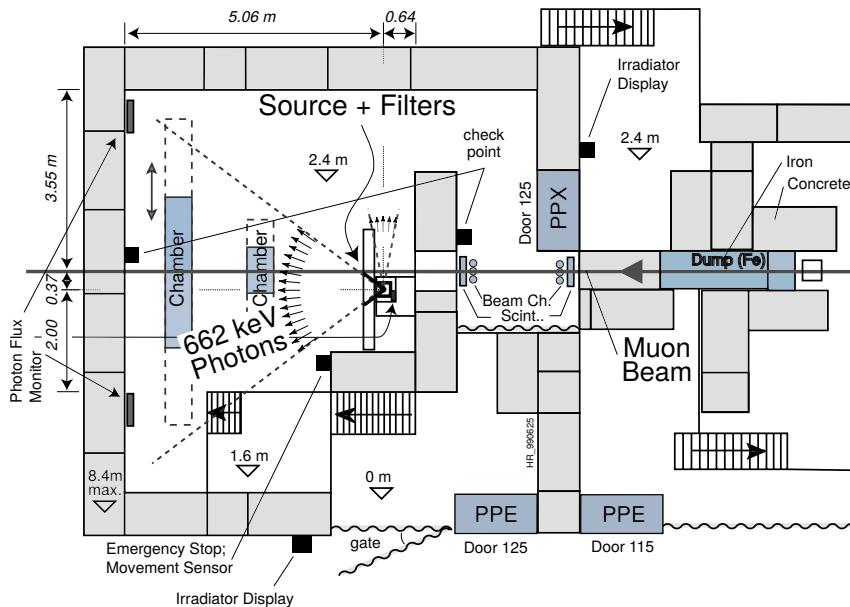


Figure 5.4: Layout of the test beam zone called X5c GIF at CERN. Photons from the radioactive source produce a sustained high rate of random hits over the whole area. The zone is surrounded by 8 m high and 80 cm thick concrete walls. Access is possible through three entry points. Two access doors for 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 $6 \times 6 \text{ m}^2$ area at 5 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 keV photon in 85% of the decays. An activity of 740 GBq was measured on the 5th 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 ($t_{1/2} = (30.05 \pm 0.08) \text{ y}$). The GIF tests were done in between the 20th and the 31st of August 2014, i.e. at a time $t = (17.47 \pm 0.02) \text{ y}$ resulting in an attenuation of the activity from 740 GBq in 1997 to 494 GBq in 2014.

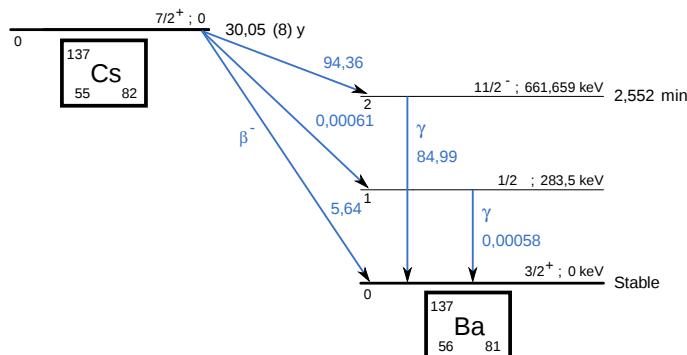


Figure 5.5: ^{137}Cs decays by β^- emission to the ground state of ^{137}Ba ($\text{BR} = 5.64\%$) and via the 662 keV isomeric level of ^{137}Ba ($\text{BR} = 94.36\%$) whose half-life is 2.552 min.

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 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 homogeneous irradiation, as presented in Figure 5.6.

The source activity was measured to be about 13.5 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 GeV/c, passes through the GIF++ zone and is used to periodically study the performance of the detectors placed under long term irradiation. Its flux is of $104 \text{ particles/s/cm}^2$ focused in an area similar to

2739 $10 \times 10 \text{ cm}^2$. Therefore, with properly adjusted filters, one can simulate the background expected at
 2740 HL-LHC and study the performance and ageing of muon detectors in HL-LHC environment.

2741

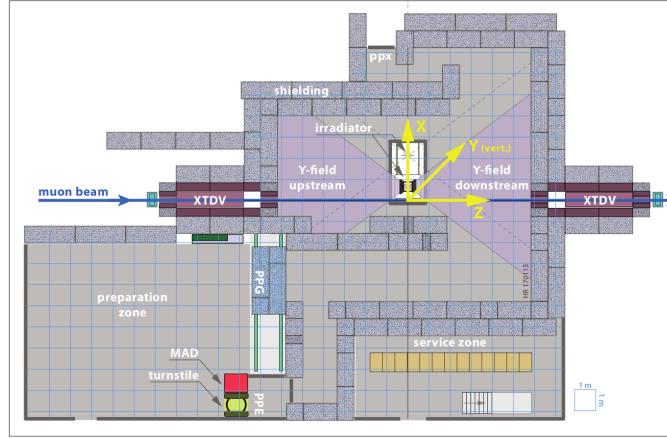


Figure 5.6: Floor plan of the *GIF++* facility. When the facility downstream of the *GIF++* takes electron beam, a beam pipe is installed along the beam line (z -axis). The irradiator can be displaced laterally (its center moves from $x = 0.65 \text{ m}$ to 2.15 m), to increase the distance to the beam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

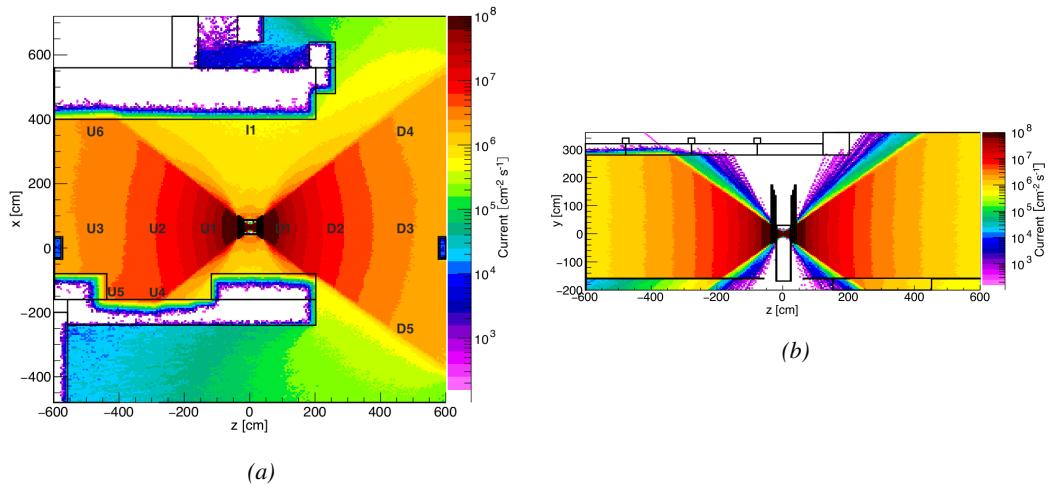


Figure 5.7: Simulated unattenuated current of photons in the xz plane (Figure 5.7a) and yz plane (Figure 5.7b) through the source at $x = 0.65 \text{ m}$ and $y = 0 \text{ m}$ [94]. With angular correction filters, the current of 662 keV photons is made uniform in xy planes.

2742 The gamma current as simulated with GEANT4 is presented in Figure 5.7 in which the labels
 2743 UN, DN, with $N \in [1 : 5]$ and I1 correspond to the position of different Radiation Monitoring
 2744 (RADMON) sensors dedicated to measuring the irradiation in the bunker area [94]. According to
 2745 the simulation results, that agree within 12% to the doses measured with the RADMONs, the RPCs
 2746 that will be tested in *GIF++* can expect a maximal gamma current of the order of 2 to 5×10^6

2747 $\text{cm}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ assuming they will always stay in a region in between sensor U5 and the back wall of the
 2748 upstream area.

2749 5.2 Preliminary studies at GIF

2750 5.2.1 RPC test setup

2751 During summer 2014, preliminary tests have been conducted in the GIF area on an endcap chamber
 2752 of type RE4/2 and labeled RE-4-2-BARC-161 produced for the extension of the endcap with a
 2753 fourth disk in 2013. This chamber has been placed into a trolley covered with a tent. The position
 2754 of the RPC inside the tent and of the tent with respect to the source in the bunker are described in
 2755 Figure 5.8. The goal of the study were to have a preliminary understanding of the rate capability
 2756 of the present technology used in CMS. It was decided to measure the efficiency of the RPC under
 2757 irradiation at detecting cosmic muons as, at the time of the tests, the beam not operational anymore.
 2758 Three different absorber settings were used and compared to the case where the detector was not ir-
 2759 radated in order to study the evolution of the performance of the detector with increasing exposition
 2760 to gamma radiation. First of all, measurements were done with fully opened source. To complete
 2761 this preliminary study, the gamma flux has been attenuated by a factor 2, a factor 5 and finally the
 2762 source was shut down. Was measured the efficiency of the RPC at detecting the cosmic muons in
 2763 coincidence with a cosmic trigger as well as the background rate as seen by the detectors.

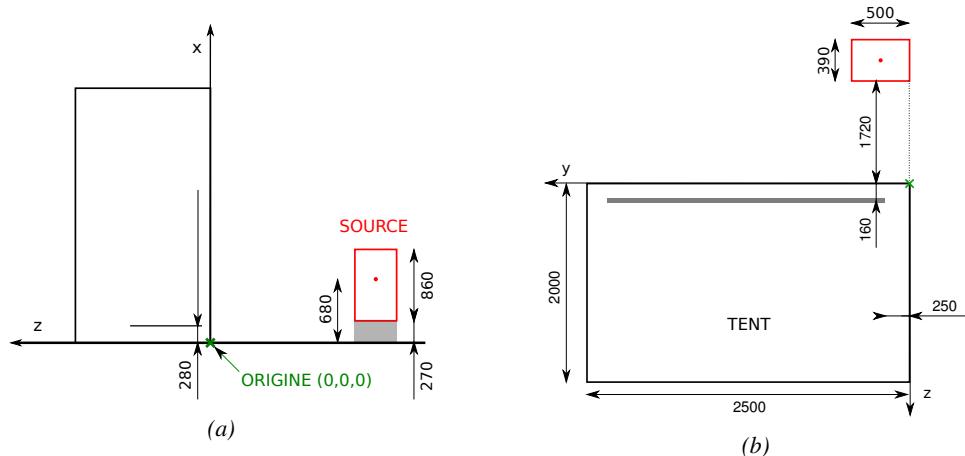


Figure 5.8: Description of the RPC setup. Dimensions are given in mm. A tent containing RPCs is placed at 1720 mm from the source container. The source is situated in the center of the container. RE-4-2-BARC-161 chamber is 160 mm inside the tent. This way, the distance between the source and the chambers 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.

2764 The trigger system was composed of 2 plastic scintillators and was placed in front of the setup
 2765 with an inclination of 10° with respect to the detector plane in order to look at cosmic muons. Using
 2766 this particular trigger layout, showed in Figure 5.9, leads to a cosmic muon hit distribution into the
 2767 chamber similar to the one of Figure 5.10. Measured without gamma irradiation, two peaks can
 2768 be seen on the profile of readout partition B, centered on strips 52 and 59. Section 5.2.2 will help
 2769 us understand that these two peaks are due respectively to forward and backward coming cosmic

2770 particles where forward coming particles are first detected by the scintillators and then the RPC
 2771 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.

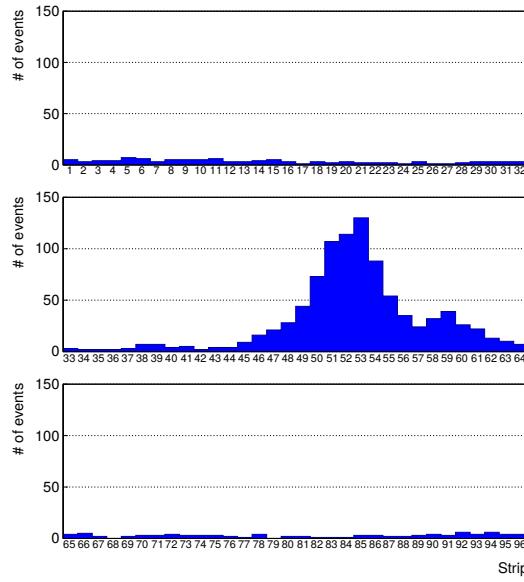


Figure 5.10: Hit distributions over all 3 partitions of RE-4-2-BARC-161 chamber is showed. Top, middle and bottom figures respectively correspond to partitions A, B, and C. The profiles show that some events still occur in other half-partitions than B2, which corresponds to strips 49 to 64, in front 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.

2772 The data taking is then performed thanks to a CAEN TDC module of type V1190A [95] to which
 2773 is connected the digitized output of the RPC Front-End Board, as described in Figure 5.11a and the
 2774 trigger signal from the telescope. The communication with the computer is performed thanks to a
 2775 CAEN communication module of type V1718 [96]. In order to control the rates recorded by the
 2776 detector, the digitized RPC signals are also sent to scalers as described in Figure 5.11b. The C++
 2777 DAQ software used in GIF was developed as an early attempt towards the understanding of the CAEN
 2778 libraries and the data collected by the TDCs was saved into .dat files is analysed with an algorithm
 2779 computing parameters such as efficiency, hit profile, cluster size, or gamma and noise rates which
 2780 was developed with C++ as well. Finally, histograms and curves are produced using ROOT.

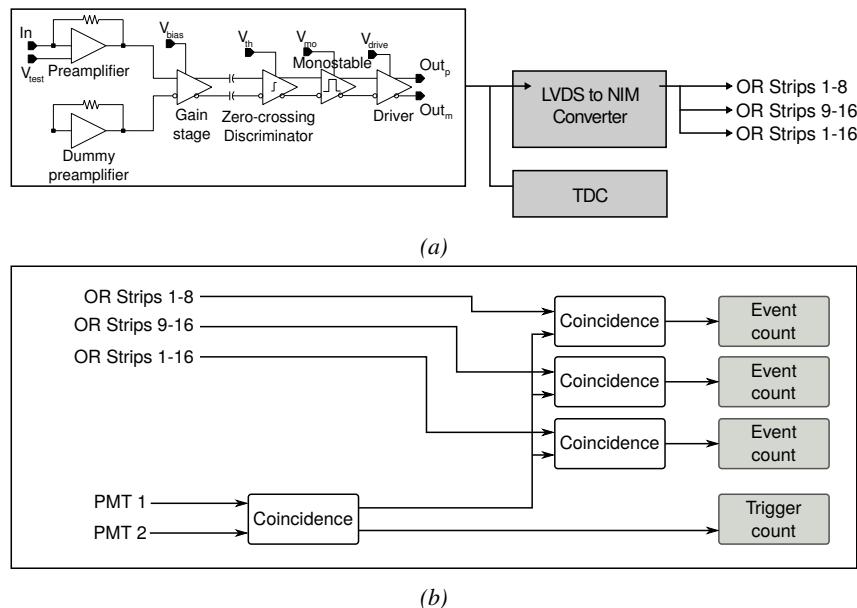


Figure 5.11: Signals from the RPC strips are shaped by the FEE described on Figure 5.11a. Output LVDS signals are then read-out by a TDC module connected to a computer or converted into NIM and sent to scalers. Figure 5.11b describes how these converted signals are put in coincidence with the trigger.

5.2.2 Geometrical acceptance of the setup layout to cosmic muons

2781 In order to profit from a constant gamma irradiation, the detectors inside of the GIF bunker need
 2782 to be placed in a plane orthogonal to the beam line. The muon beam that used to be available was
 2783 meant to test the performance of detectors under test. This beam not being active anymore, an other
 2784 solution to test detector performance had to be used. Thus, it has been decided to use cosmic muons
 2785 detected through a telescope composed of two scintillators. Lead blocks were used as shielding to
 2786 protect the photomultipliers from gammas as can be seen from Figure 5.9.
 2787

2788 An inclination of $\sim 10^\circ$ has been given to the cosmic telescope to maximize the muon flux. A
 2789 good compromise had to be found between good enough muon flux and narrow enough hit distribution
 2790 to be sure to contain all the events into only one half partitions as required from the limited
 2791 available readout hardware. It was then foreseen to detect muons and read them out only from
 2792 half-partition B2, the last 16 channels of readout partition B (i.e. strips 49 to 64). Nevertheless,
 2793 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.

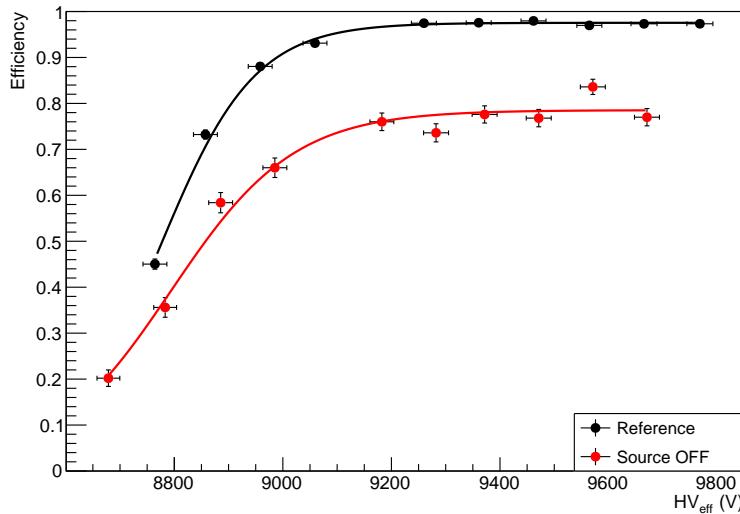


Figure 5.12: Results are derived from data taken on half-partition B2 only. On the 18th of June 2014, data has been taken on chamber RE-4-2-BARC-161 at CERN building 904 (Prevessin Site) with cosmic muons providing us a reference efficiency plateau of $(97.54 \pm 0.15)\%$ represented by a black curve.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

2800 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 [97]. 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.

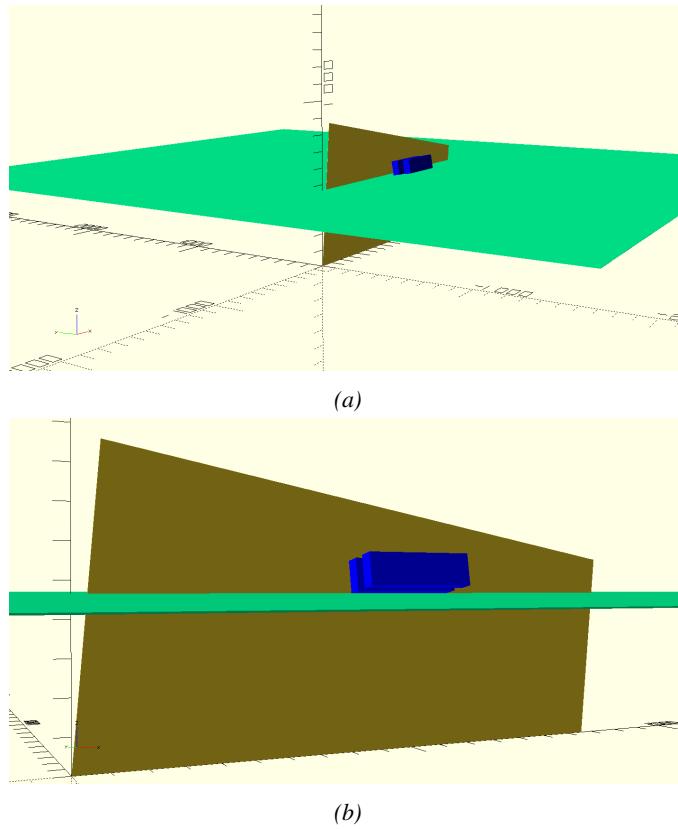


Figure 5.13: Representation of the layout used for the simulations of the test setup. The RPC read-out plane is represented as a yellow trapezoid while the two scintillators as blue cuboids looking at the sky. The green plane corresponds to the muon generation plane within the simulation. Figure 5.8a 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.

2812 5.2.2.2 Simulation procedure

2813 $N_\mu = 10^8$ muons are randomly generated inside the muon plane with an azimuthal angle θ chosen
 2814 to follow a $\cos^2\theta$ distribution. Infinite planes are associated to each surface of the scintillators.
 2815 Knowing the muon position into the muon generation plane and its direction allows, by assuming
 2816 that muons travel in a straight line, to compute the intersection of the muon track with these planes.
 2817 Applying conditions to the limits on the contours of the scintillators' faces then gives an answer to
 2818 whether or not the muon passed through the scintillators. In the case the muon was not *detected* into
 2819 both scintillators, the simulation discards the muon and generates a new one.

2820 On the contrary, if the muon is labeled as good, its position within the RPC read-out plane
 2821 is computed and the corresponding strip, determined through geometrical tests, gets a *hit*. Muon
 2822 hits fill different histograms whether they are associated to forward or backward coming muons.
 2823 A discrimination is performed according to their direction components. An (x, y, z) position into
 2824 the generation plane as well as a $(\theta; \phi)$ pair are associated to each generated muon providing with
 2825 information on the direction the track follows. This way, muons satisfying the condition $0 \leq \phi < \pi$
 2826 are labeled as *backward* coming muons while muons satisfying $\pi \leq \phi < 2\pi$ as *forward* coming

2827 muons.

2828 **5.2.2.3 Results and limitations**

2829 The output from the simulation is given in Figure 5.14 in which the distribution is showed for all
 2830 muons but also for the separate contributions of forward and backward coming muons. The strip
 2831 number is here given in a range of 1 to 32 corresponding to the 32 strips contained in each RPC
 2832 read-out partition, without taking into account the fact that partition B of an RPC correponds, by
 2833 convention, to strips 33 to 64. Comparing the number of muons recorded respectively in the first 16
 2834 strips and the in all of the 32 strips of the RPC read-out panel, it can be established than, out of the
 2835 total amount of muons that have passed through the telescope and reached the RPC, 16.8% where to
 2836 be detected in the 16 first strip of the read-out plane corresponding to half partition B1. This brings
 2837 a geometrical inefficiency of the same amount that can then be used to correct the data by scaling up
 2838 by a factor $c_{geo} = 1/(1 - 0.168)$ the maximum efficiency measured during data taking.

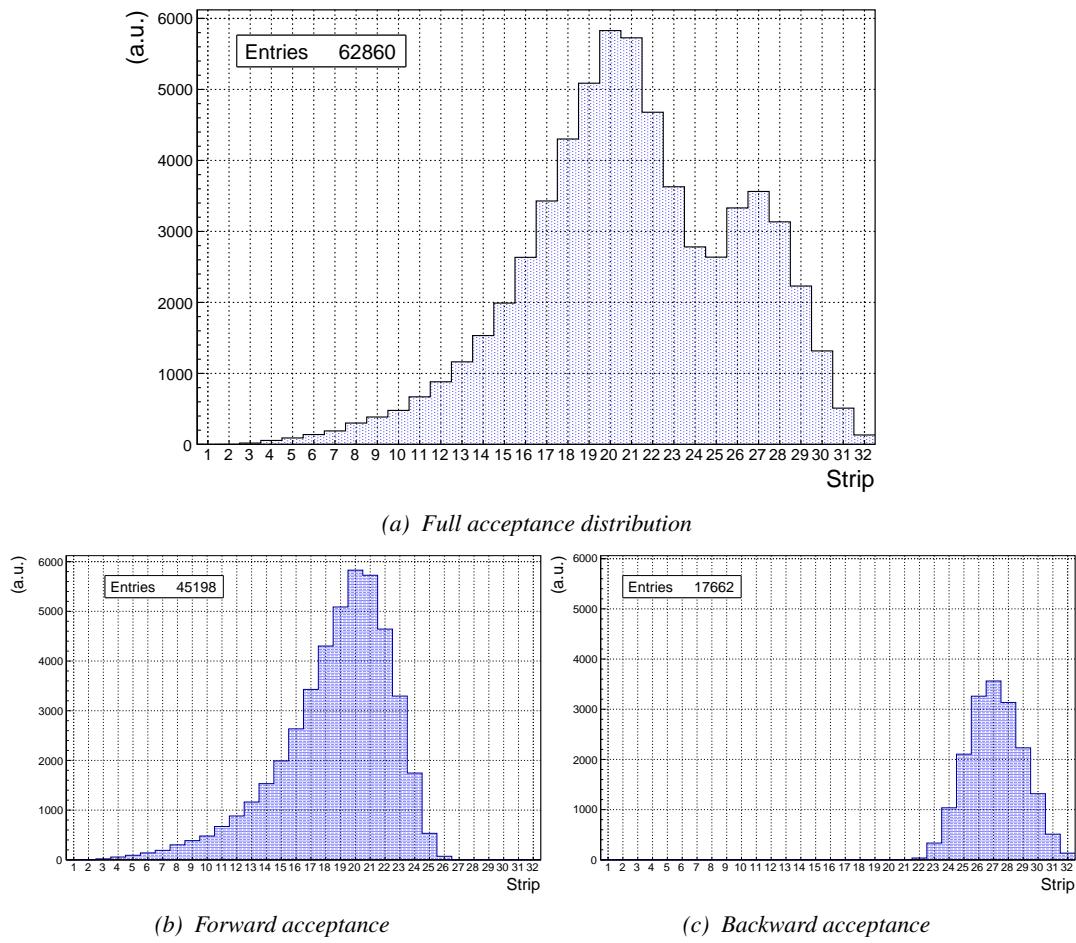


Figure 5.14: Geometrical acceptance distribution as provided by the Monte Carlo simulation.

2839 Nevertheless, it is difficult to evaluate a systematical uncertainty on this geometrical correction

for different reasons. First of all, even though 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 $\pm 2^\circ$ 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 with the reference curve within statistical errors.

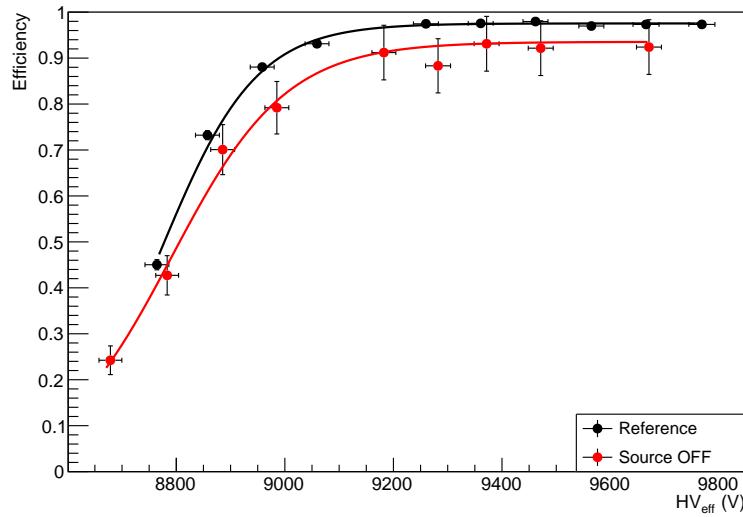


Figure 5.15: Correction of the efficiency without source. The efficiency after correction gets much closer to the Reference measurement performed before the study in GIF by reaching a plateau of $(93.52 \pm 2.64)\%$.

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.

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

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

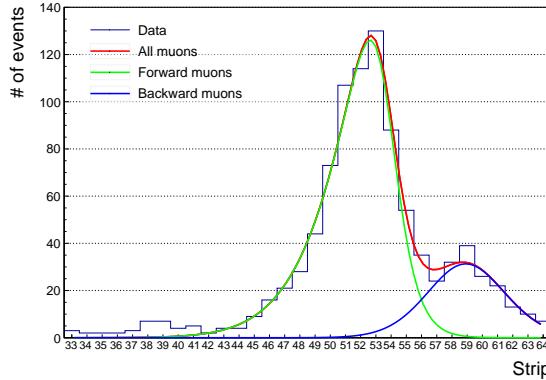


Figure 5.16: Hit distributions over read-out partition B of RE-4-2-BARC-161 chamber together with skew distribution fits corresponding to forward and backward coming muons.

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 distinct 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 independently 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 [$\text{cm}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$]			
	at $D = 50 \text{ cm}$	at $D = 155 \text{ cm}$	at $D = 300 \text{ cm}$	at $D = 400 \text{ cm}$
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 ($E\gamma \leq 662 \text{ keV}$) with statistical error predicted considering a ^{137}Cs activity of 740 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 emitting isotropic and homogeneous gamma radiations, the gamma flux F at a

2878 distance D from the source with respect to a reference point situated at D_0 where a known flux F_0
 2879 is measured will be expressed like in Formula 5.3, assuming that the flux decreases as $1/D^2$, where
 2880 c is a fitting factor that can be written from Formula 5.3 as Formula 5.4. Finally, using Equation 5.4
 2881 and the data of Table 5.1, with $D_0 = 50$ cm as reference point, Table 5.2 can be built. It is interesting
 2882 to note that c for each value of D doesn't depend on the absorption factor.

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

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

Nominal ABS	Correction factor c		
	at $D = 155$ cm	at $D = 300$ cm	at $D = 400$ 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 $D_0 = 50$ cm and the associated flux F_0^{ABS} for each absorption factor available in table 5.1.

2883 For the range of D/D_0 values available, it is possible to use a simple linear fit to get the evolution
 2884 of c that can be expressed as $c(D/D_0) = aD/D_0 + b$. Using Formula 5.5, but neglecting the
 2885 uncertainty on D that will only be used when extrapolating the values for the position of the RPC
 2886 under test whose position is not perfectly known, the results showed in Figure 5.17 is obtained.
 2887 Figure 5.17b confirms that using only a linear fit to extract c is enough as the evolution of the rate
 2888 that can be obtained superimposes well on the simulation points.

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

2889 In the context of the 2014 GIF tests, the RPC read-out plane is located at a distance $D = 206$ cm
 2890 from the source. Moreover, to estimate the strength of the flux in 2014 it is necessary to consider the
 2891 nuclear decay through time assiciated to the Cesium source whose half-life is well known ($t_{1/2} =$
 2892 (30.05 ± 0.08) y). The very first source activity measurement has been done on the 5th of March
 2893 1997 while the GIF tests where done in between the 20th and the 31th of August 2014, i.e. at a time
 2894 $t = (17.47 \pm 0.02)$ y resulting in an attenuation of the activity from 740 GBq in 1997 to 494 GBq in
 2895 2014. All the needed information to extrapolate the expected flux through the detector at the moment
 2896 of GIF preliminary tests has now been assembled, leading to Table 5.3. By assuming a sensitivity of
 2897 the RPC to γ of 2×10^{-3} , the order of magnitude of the expected hit rate per unit area would be of
 2898 the order of the kHz for the fully opened source, as reported in the last column of the table.

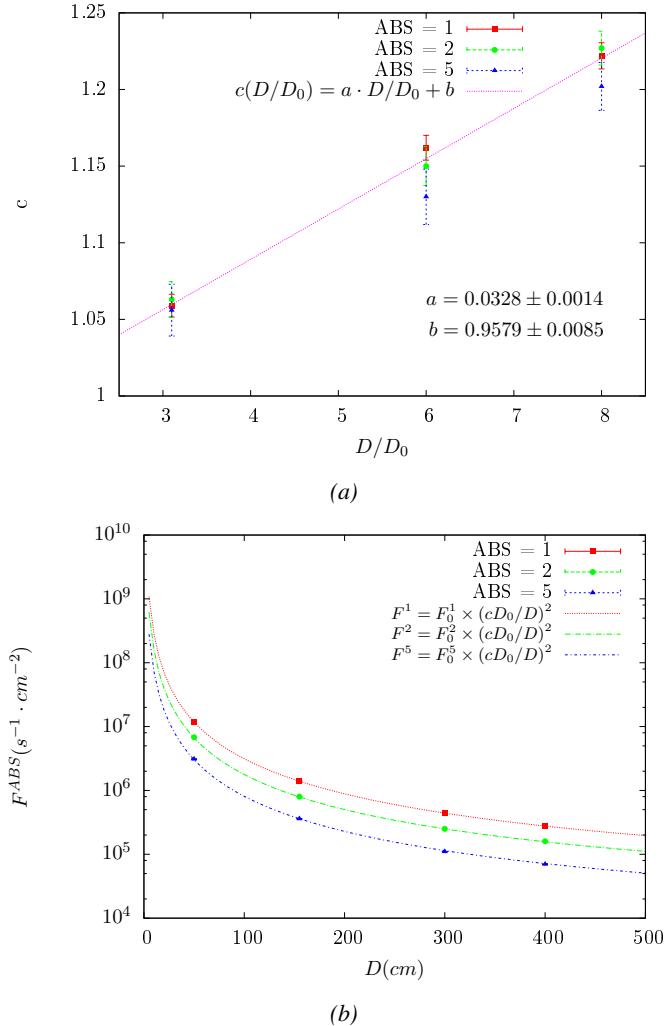


Figure 5.17: Figure 5.17a shows the linear approximation fit performed on data extracted from table 5.2. Figure 5.17b shows a comparison of Formula 5.5 with the simulated flux using a and b given in figure 5.17a in formulae 5.3 and the reference value $D_0 = 50$ cm and the associated flux for each absorption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

Nominal ABS	Photon flux F [$cm^{-2} s^{-1}$]			Rate [Hz/cm^2] at $D^{2014} = 206$ cm
	at $D_0^{97} = 50$ cm	at $D^{97} = 206$ cm	at $D^{2014} = 206$ 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 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 = 2×10^{-3} , an estimation of the hit rate per unit area is obtained.

2899 The goal of the study will be to have a good measurement of the intrinsic performance without
 2900 source irradiation. Then, taking profit of the two working absorbers, at absorbtion factors 5 (300 Hz)
 2901 and 2 (~ 600 Hz) the goal will be to show that the detectors fulfill the performance certification of
 2902 CMS RPCs. Finally, a first idea of the performance of the detectors at higher background will be
 2903 provided with absorbtion factor 1 (no absorbtion and >1 kHz)).

2904 5.2.4 Results and discussions

2905 The data taking at GIF has been conducted in between the 21st and the 31st of August, 2014. Data
 2906 has been collected with both source OFF and ON using three different absorber settings (ABS 5, 2
 2907 and 1) in order to vary the irradiation on the RPC. For each source setting, two HV scans have been
 2908 performed with two different trigger settings. During a first scan the trigger sent to the TDC module
 2909 was the coincidence of the two scintillators composing the telescope while during a second scan the
 2910 trigger was a pulse coming from a pulse generator in order to measure the noise or gamma rate seen
 2911 by the chamber. Indeed, using a pulse allows to trigger at moments not linked to any physical event
 2912 and, hence, to obtain a *RANDOM* trigger on noise and gamma events to measure the associated rates,
 2913 the probability to have a pulse in coincidence with a cosmic muon being negligible.

2914 From the cosmic trigger scans, a summary of the efficiencies and corresponding cluster sizes is
 2915 showed in Figure 5.18. The efficiency curves with Source ON show a shift with respect to the case
 2916 without irradiation. With ABS 5, the general shape of the efficiency curve stays unchanged whereas
 2917 a clear alteration of the performance is observed at ABS 2 and ABS 1. From the cluster size results,
 2918 a reduction of the cluster size under irradiation can be oberved at equivalent efficiency. This effect
 2919 can be due to the perturbation of the electric field by the strong rate of gamma particles starting
 2920 avalanches in the gas volume of the detector.

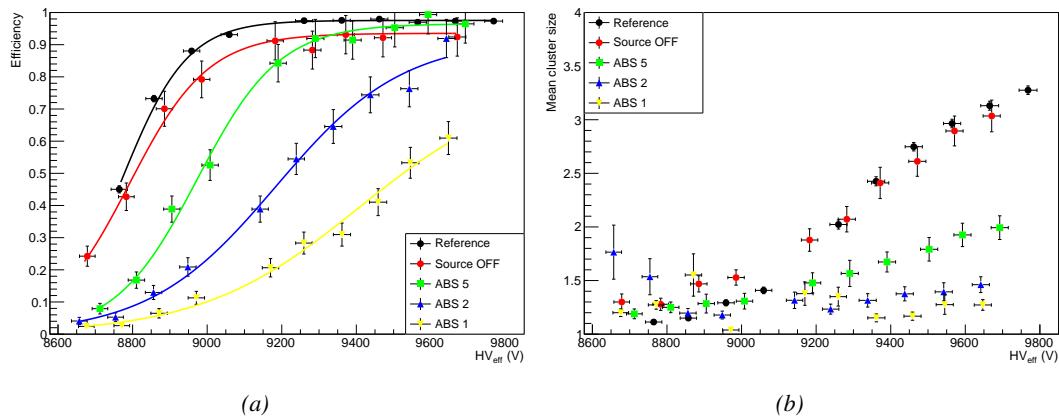


Figure 5.18: Efficiency (Figure 5.18a) and cluster size (Figure 5.18b) of chamber RE-4-2-BARC-161 measured at GIF with Source OFF (red) and Source ON using different absorber settings: ABS 5 (green), ABS 2 (blue) and ABS 1 (yellow). The results are compared to the Reference values obtained with cosmics.

2921 It is necessary to study the evolution of the performance of the chamber with the increasing rate.
 2922 In Figure 5.19a, the noise rate when the source is OFF stays low but increases at voltages above
 2923 9500 V. The rise of the noise rate in the detector can be related to the increased streamer probability
 2924 observed 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 9400 V at which the rate of ABS 5 saturates, corresponding to the chamber reaching full efficiency. It is important to note that, even though the rates look similar independently from the gamma flux, relatively to the efficiency of the chamber, the rate actually increases with increasing flux at equivalent efficiency. A rough way to measure the rate effectively observed by the detector for each source setting would be to normalize the measured rates to the efficiency of the detector. This exercise was done with Figure 5.19b from which constant fits were done on Source ON data in order to extract the rate the chamber was subjected to.

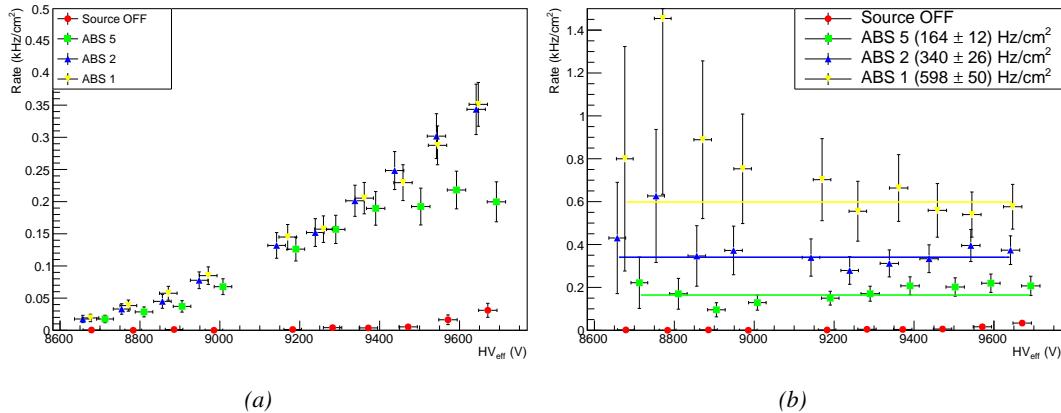


Figure 5.19: Rates in chamber RE-4-2-BARC-161 measured at GIF with Source OFF (red) and Source ON using different absorber settings: ABS 5 (green), ABS 2 (blue) and ABS 1 (yellow). On Figure 5.19b, the rates of Figure 5.19a were normalized to the measured efficiency and constant fits are performed on Source ON data showing the gamma rate in the chamber.

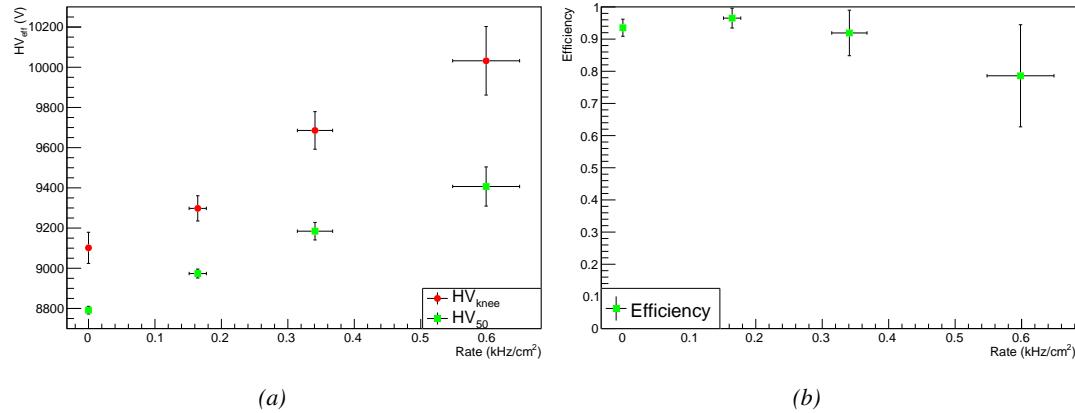


Figure 5.20: Evolution of the voltages at half maximum and at 95% of the maximum efficiency (Figure 5.20a), and of the maximum efficiency (Figure 5.20b) as a function of the rate in chamber RE-4-2-BARC-161. The data is extracted from the fits in Figures 5.18a and 5.19b.

The results need to be taken with care as a better estimation of the rate would have been to push the detector towards higher voltages to reach the efficiency plateau for each absorber configuration

and only then extract the measured rate at working voltage, defined as in Formula 4.25. Nevertheless, using this method to estimate the rate the chamber is subjected to, it is possible to look at the evolution of the HV_{50} and HV_{knee} (the working voltage being defined to be 150 V above the knee in the endcap) as a function of the increasing rate as showed in Figure 5.20. The results from GIF suggest that at a rate of 600 Hz/cm^2 the working voltage of the chamber is increased by a thousand V while the efficiency is reduced to approximately 80%, although the result still is consistent with an efficiency better than 90% due to the large error on the measurement. Moreover, it is likely that the rates obtained through fitting on normalized values is underestimated. Indeed, monitoring the current in the 3 gaps composing a CMS endcap RPC (Figure 5.21) while knowing the rate, the charge deposition per avalanche q_γ can be computed.

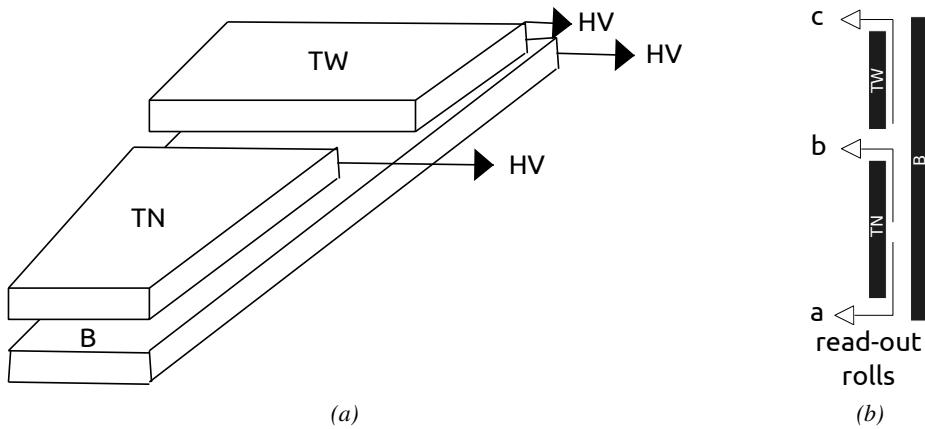


Figure 5.21: Presentation of a double-gap endcap RPC with its 3 RPC gaps. Due to the partitioning of the read-out strips into 3 rolls, the TOP layer of gap is divided into 2 gaps: TOP NARROW (TN) and TOP WIDE (TW). The BOTTOM (B) only consists in 1 gap.

A charge is expressed in C which is consistent with a current density, expressed in A/cm^2 , divided by a rate per unit area, expressed in Hz/cm^2 . The current driven by the RPC is assumed to be due to the irradiation, hence, to the avalanches developing in the gas volume due to the photons of the Cesium source. On the other hand, the rate is supposed to be a measure of the number of photons interacting with the detector. This way, it comes that the charge deposition per avalanche is expressed like $q_\gamma = J_{mon}/R_\gamma$, J_{mon} being the monitored current density and R_γ the measured γ rate. The current density is computed as the sum of the current density measured on the top gap layer and of which measured in the bottom gap layer, $J_{mon} = (I_{mon}^{TW} + I_{mon}^{TN})/(A_{TW} + A_{TN}) + I_{mon}^B/A_B$, $A_{B,TN,TW}$ being the active area and $I_{mon}^{B,TN,TW}$ the monitored currents of the gaps. According to Figure 5.22, the charge deposition per avalanche consistently converges to a value of the order of 50 pC for each absorber setting which corresponds to a value more than twice greater than what reported in litterature for CMS detectors [98, 99] indicating that the rates could have been wrongly evaluated during the short study performed at GIF. An increase of the γ rate by a factor 2 would be consistent with the expected rates calculated in Table 5.3, assuming the sensitivity to γ to be of the order of 2×10^{-3} .

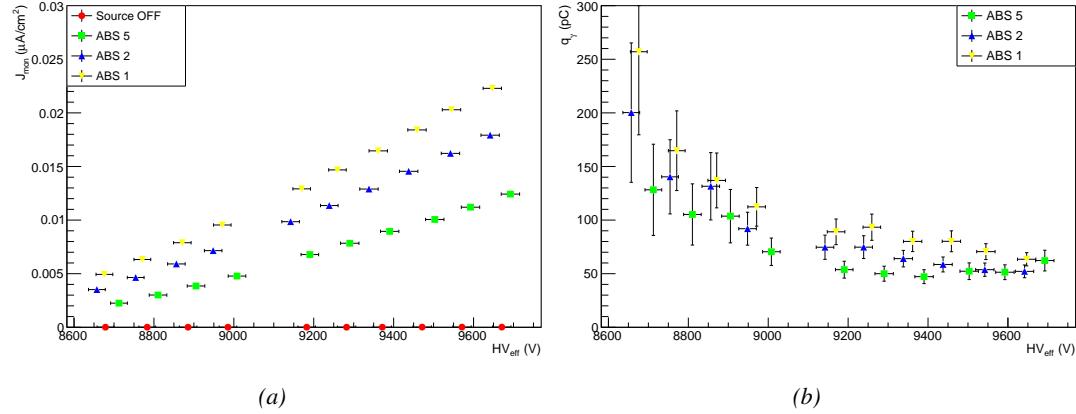


Figure 5.22: Current density and charge deposition per gamma avalanche, defined as the current density normalized to the measured rate taken from Figure 5.19a as a function of the effective high voltage in chamber RE-4-2-BARC-161 measured at GIF with Source ON using different absorber settings: ABS 5 (green), ABS 2 (blue) and ABS 1 (yellow).

Overall, working at GIF has been a rewarding experience as it offered CMS RPC R&D team the possibility to start developing the necessary skills and tools that would become the core of GIF++ experiment. The quality of the results can be argued both due to the little robustness of the experimental setup and the lack of available statistics to draw conclusions from, bringing large errors on the final result. The confrontation of the data to known results pointed to a failure in correctly measuring the γ rate at working voltage and, hence, to an overestimation of the charge per avalanche and of the drift of working voltage with increasing rate. Nevertheless, the prototypes of DAQ and offline analysis tools proved to be reliable.

5.3 Longevity tests at GIF++

5.3.1 Selection and characterization of CMS RPCs for longevity at GIF++

First proposed in 2009 [100], the new Gamma Irradiation Facility of CERN was thought in the perspective of future upgrades of PHC that would bring detectors to be operated in a high irradiation environment. GIF++ would thus provide all LHC R&D teams working on behalf of the different LHC experiment with a facility to perform longevity studies using a very intense Cesium gamma source.

In the specific case of CMS RPC, the longevity studies imply a constant irradiation of selected detectors in order to accumulate a charge equivalent to what is expected during HL-LHC, i.e. a charge of $0.8 \text{ C}/\text{cm}^2$ according to Figure 5.2 including a safety factor 3, while other detectors are left non irradiated to be used as references. Throughout the irradiation campaign, the performance of the irradiated and reference detectors will be periodically probed using the high intensity H4 muon beam. Dedicated test beam periods will be used to measure the efficiency and γ rate at the level of the detectors with different source absorber settings to have access to the rate capability of CMS RPCs, that needs to be certified above $600 \text{ Hz}/\text{cm}^2$, and to identify signs of ageing in the case the performance of the irradiated detectors diverges from those of the reference detectors with increasing accumulated charge. Other than the performance of the detectors, signs of ageing

could come from increasing dark current that would be related to local ageing of the electrodes triggered by the fluoridric acid (*HF*) production in an irradiated environment. *HF* is produced by the decomposition of $C_2H_2F_4$ molecules during the charge multiplication process and leads to increased dark current and noise in Bakelite RPCs treated with linseed oil. This effect is strongly reinforced by the presence of UV photons [101, 102]. A close monitoring of the current driven by the detectors will then be necessary as well as dedicated periodical electrode resistivity measurement and chromatography measurement on the gas exhaust.

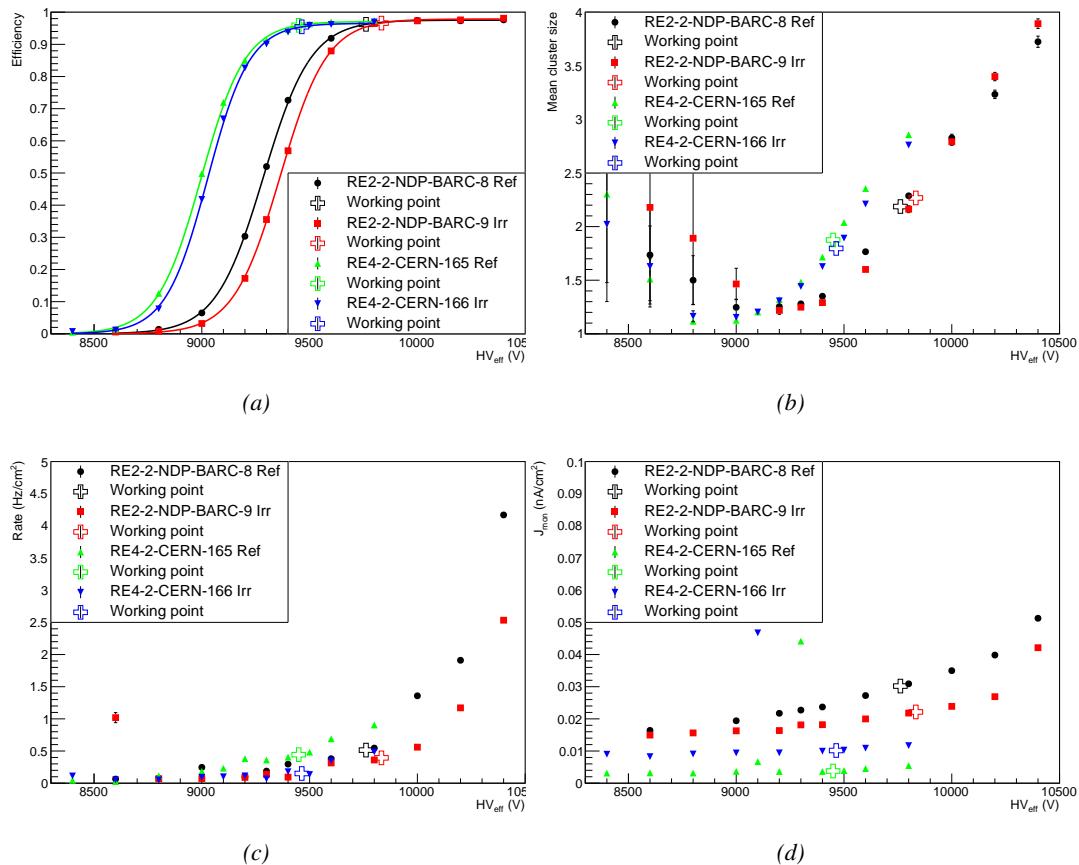


Figure 5.23: Characterization of CMS RPC detectors foreseen to be used at Gif++ for longevity studies of the present system. Using cosmic muons, efficiency (Figure 5.23a) and cluster size (Figure 5.23b) were measured as well as noise rate (Figure 5.23c) and current density (Figure 5.23d). For each detector, the working voltage, defined as in Formula 4.25, was extracted from sigmoid fits performed in Figure 5.23a and the values of efficiency, cluster size, noise rate and current density at this voltage are reported using open crosses.

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. From the original CMS RPC system, two RE2/2 spares were selected along two RE4/2 spares from the newest detectors. Having two chambers of

2997 each type allows to always keep one of them non irradiated as reference. Due to the limited gas
 2998 flow in GIF++, the RE4 chamber remained non-irradiated until end of November 2016 where the
 2999 longevity studies could finally be started on those chambers.

3000 The performance of the chambers prior to the start of the longevity campaign has been char-
 3001 acterized in Ghent before being shipped to CERN to be installed in GIF++. The results of the
 3002 characterization are showed in Figure 5.23 and summarized in Table 5.4. A clear difference in per-
 3003 formance for both types of chambers is observed as the working voltages of the newest chambers,
 3004 of type RE4, are 300 to 400 V lower to the older chambers indicating that the gap thickness of RE4
 3005 detectors could be thinner. This conclusion could as well be supported by the lower cluster size at
 3006 working voltages that also are smaller in RE4 chambers. Even though the measured currents are
 3007 low, RE4 detectors draw less current without irradiation than RE2 detectors pointing to a difference
 3008 in electrode resistivity that were produced at different moments. Efficiency and noise rate levels are
 3009 of the same order of magnitude for both type of RPCs.

RPC	RE2-2-NPD-BARC-08	RE2-2-NPD-BARC-09	RE4-2-CERN-165	RE4-2-CERN-166
Used as	Reference	Irradiation	Reference	Irradiation
HV_{WP} [V]	(9762 \pm 6)	(9833 \pm 6)	(9449 \pm 5)	(9464 \pm 5)
Efficiency at WP	(96.2 \pm 0.3)	(96.6 \pm 0.3)	(95.9 \pm 0.3)	(95.5 \pm 0.3)
Cluster size at WP	(2.19 \pm 0.04)	(2.27 \pm 0.05)	(1.88 \pm 0.04)	(1.80 \pm 0.04)
Noise at WP [Hz/cm ²]	(0.51 \pm 0.01)	(0.39 \pm 0.01)	(0.44 \pm 0.00)	(0.15 \pm 0.01)
J^{WP} [pA/cm ²]	(30.1 \pm 0.1)	(22.2 \pm 0.1)	(3.8 \pm 0.0)	(10.2 \pm 0.0)

Table 5.4: Summary of the characterization measurement performed in Ghent on CMS RPC detectors foreseen to be used at GIF++ for longevity studies of the present system. For each detector, the working voltage, defined as in Formula 4.25, was extracted from sigmoid fits performed in Figure 5.23a and the values of efficiency, cluster size, noise rate and current density at this voltage are reported.

3010 5.3.2 RPC test setup

3011 For an easy manipulation of the detectors, a trolley with a structure containing slots in which the
 3012 RPCs can be slid vertically and referred to as T1 was used. In this position, each chamber is in a
 3013 plane perpendicular to the beam line and the source flux as can be seen through Figure 5.24, receiving
 3014 a uniform irradiation. Moreover the trolley allows for easy movement of the system. Indeed, the
 3015 position of trolley varies according to the period of the year.

3016 During the dedicated test beam periods during which GIF++ longevity experiments are in control
 3017 of the muon beam, the trolley is placed in the upstream region of the bunker, in the beam line, as
 3018 described through Figure 5.24a. The CMS RPC detectors are the ones being further away from the
 3019 source on this side of the source as other detectors need to be certified at higher background rates. An
 3020 additional trolley, referred to as T3, containing iRPCs and tracking RPCs is placed in between the
 3021 source and the trolley containing present CMS RPCs. Indeed, iRPCs need to be certified at higher
 3022 rates and thus need to be placed closer to the source to receive a stronger irradiation using the same
 3023 absorber settings. The space on T1 being limited, the tracking RPCs used for extra offline informa-
 3024 tion during the analysis are placed on the same trolley than iRPCs and are kept at full efficiency at
 3025 all time to reconstruct muon tracks in correlate them with hits recorded in T1 chambers. The beam
 3026 trigger system is composed of 2 scintillators placed outside on each side of the bunker and of a third
 3027 scintillator placed in between T1 and the wall of the bunker along the beam line.

3028 However, most of the year, T1 is placed in the so called *ageing position* corresponding to the

furthest position from the source outside of the beam line, which needs to stay clear during periods where GIF++ doesn't have the control of the beam so that a beam tube can be installed through the bunker, as can be seen in Figure 5.24b. The reason for placing the chambers as far as possible from the source comes from the too high irradiation delivered by the source during the irradiation periods where all the other experiment having placed detectors into the bunker requires to integrate as much charge as possible. Hence, the source is operated with any absorbers. On the contrary, during the test beam periods, all the groups working in GIF++ are interested in operating the source using various absorber settings to study the performance of their detectors under different irradiation conditions. The time spent with a source fully opened and during which the RPCs of T1 are kept at a standby voltage of 6500 V much lower than what necessary to grow avalanches in the gas is then small compared to the time spent with other source settings and during which data can be taken.

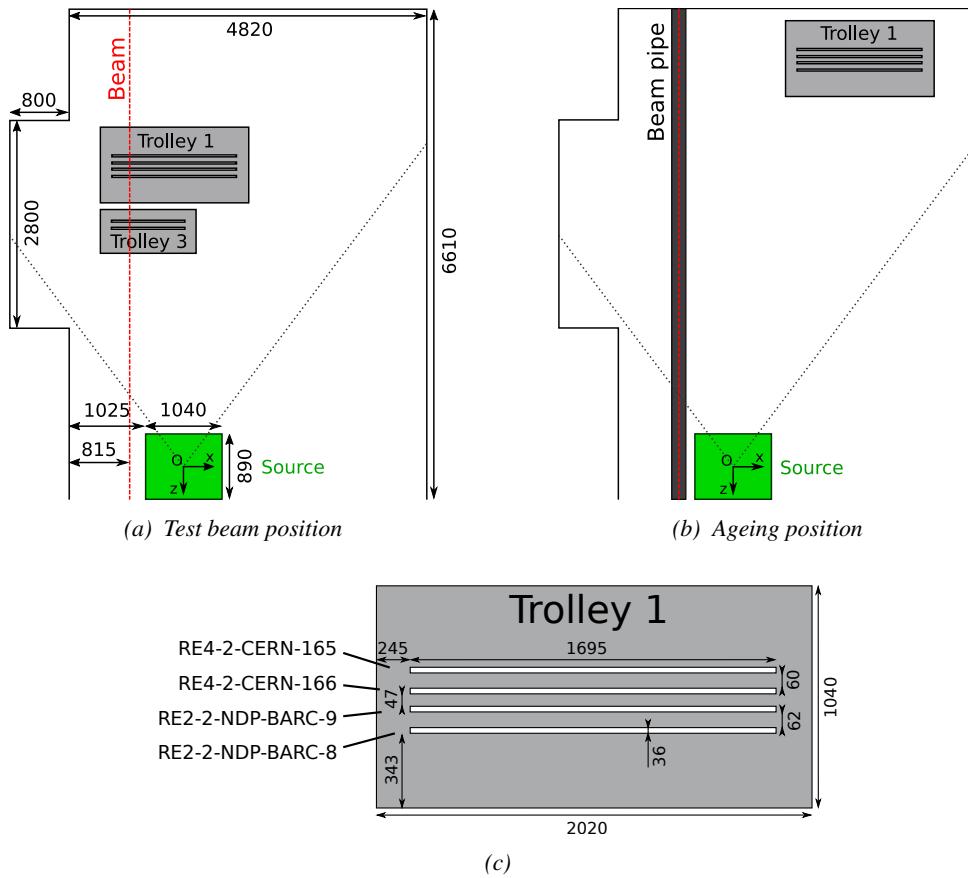


Figure 5.24: CMS RPC setup inside of GIF++ bunker during test beam (Figure 5.24a) and ageing periods (Figure 5.24b). The space in between the RPCs and the source is usually used by other detectors while the space in between T1 and the upstream wall is not filled. Due to the presence of the beam pipe, the trolley is moved away from the beam line during irradiation periods and placed further away from the source for less intense irradiation. The position of the trolley can vary due to the use of the space by other setups and is then not exact. In the contrary, the position of the chambers in the trolley is fixed and given in Figure 5.24c.

From the bunker area, the detectors are connected to the service area, visible in Figure 5.6, through the wooden floor tanks to long cable. The service area hosts all the high and low voltage power

3042 supplies, the TDCs and computers used for data acquisition and preliminary offline analysis used
 3043 to fill the Detector Control Software (DCS) webpage, referred to as WebDCS, with Data Quality
 3044 Monitoring (DQM) histograms useful for the shifters on duty in the control room located further in
 3045 the building, away from the beam lines, as well as the gas system required for the gaseous detectors
 3046 installed in GIF++ [103]. The detectors read-out is, as in the case of GIF, connected to V1190A
 3047 VME TDCs communicating with the DAQ computer thanks to a V1718 VME bridge manufactured
 3048 by CAEN. Moreover, a constant monitoring of all the environmental parameters, in different points
 3049 of the bunker area, gas parameters, to control its composition, temperature and pressure, and of the
 3050 voltages and currents delivered by the power supplies is performed and displayed on the homepage
 3051 of the WebDCS interface.

3052 5.3.3 GIF++ data flow

3053 At GIF++, the CMS RPC R&D experiment collects different types of data coming from the detectors
 3054 monitored parameters, such as voltage and currents, the gas, source, and environmental parameters,
 3055 and, of course, the TDC data in which are collected the actual muon and gamma physics. These
 3056 different data source compose 3 different data flows as presented in Figure 5.25.

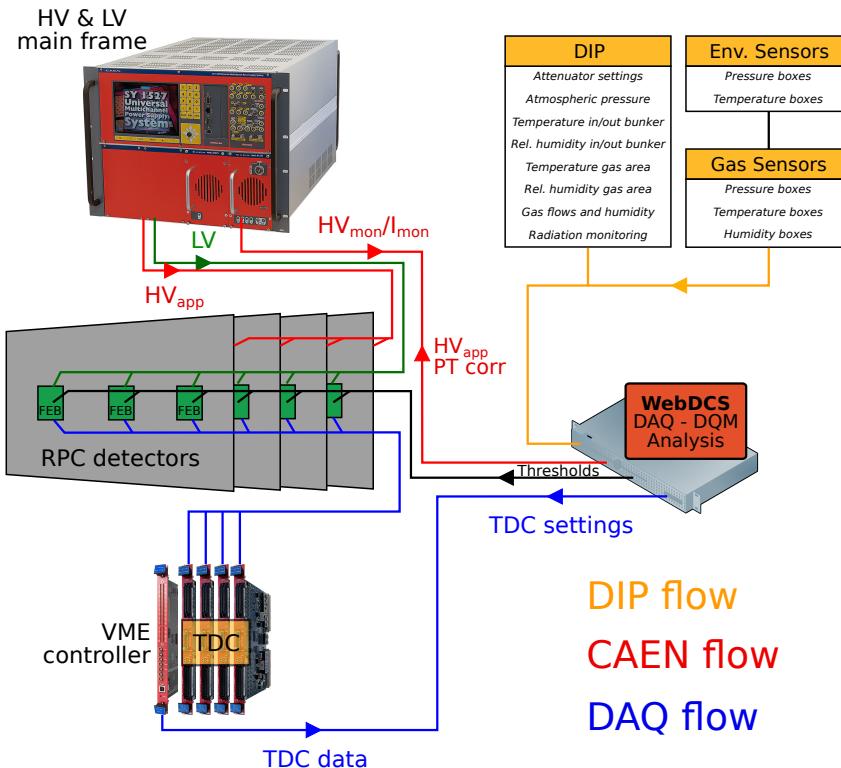


Figure 5.25: Visualtion of the main data flows in GIF++. The yellow flow lines corresponds to the DIP flow used for source, environmental and gas information. The red flow lines are for the CAEN flow through which the WebDCS communicates the voltages to be applied on the detectors using pressure and temperature information and retrieves the monitored voltages and currents. Finally, the blue flow lines corresponds to the DAQ flow through which the RPC data is collected from the TDCs by the computer.

3057 The *DIP flow*, DIP being a communication system allowing for exchange of real-time information
 3058 between systems, concerns all the data coming from the gas composition, temperature and
 3059 humidity, the environmental temperature and pressure, the source settings and the radiation monitoring
 3060 sensors. The experimental area is in charge of measuring, storing and distributing the data
 3061 of interest for all of the users of the facility (source settings, radiation monitoring, gas composition
 3062 at the exit of the gas mixer and general environmental information). Retrieving this data is done by
 3063 accessing to the database of the experimental hall in which GIF++ is located through DIP communica-
 3064 tion. More specific data such as gas flow, temperature and humidity at the level of the detectors
 3065 (upstream and downstream of the detectors) as well as environmental parameters are at the charge
 3066 of the users. For this reason, several pressure, temperature and humidity sensors were installed on
 3067 the gas distribution system of the RPC trolleys. The corresponding data flow, although not related
 3068 to DIP itself, is saved together with the DIP data into the local CMS RPC database and displayed
 3069 on the front page of the WebDCS together with alerts in the case the values measured are out of
 3070 optimal working range. The data is particularly important to perform the PT correction described in
 3071 Section 4.4 of Chapter 4 and keep stable the effective voltage of the detectors. Monitoring history
 3072 plots are made using JavaScript are also displayed for an easy access to past information, as
 3073 showed in Figure 5.26.

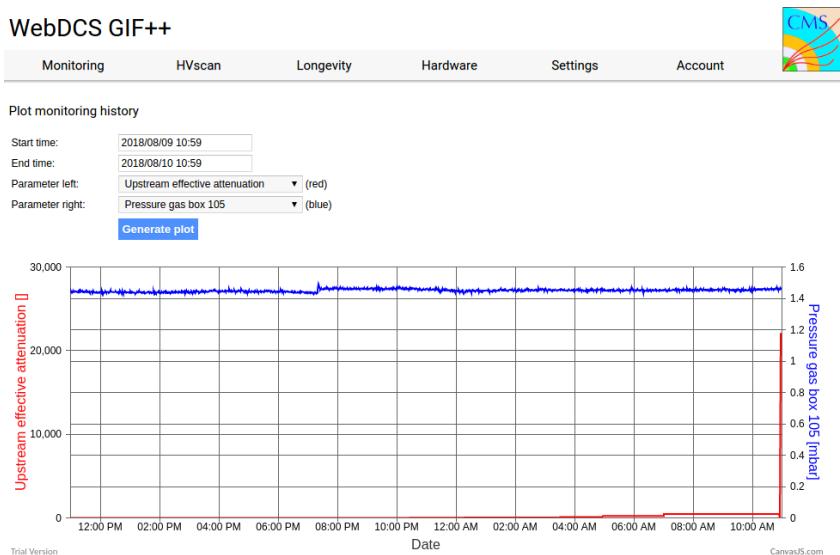


Figure 5.26: *DIP monitoring history accessed through GIF++ WebDCS interface.*

3074 The data flow related to the monitoring of detector high voltages and currents, referred to as
 3075 *CAEN flow* as a reference to the manufacturer of power supplies, is retrieved thanks to computer
 3076 to main frame communications. Indeed, during the operations (irradiation or beam period), these
 3077 values can be accessed directly through the bus of the main frame hosting the high voltage supplies.
 3078 Finally, the DAQ flow concerns all data acquired through the use of the TDCs, i.e. all the muon or
 3079 gamma data recorded by the detectors under test at GIF++.

3080 **5.3.4 Measurements performed during beam periods**

3081 As previously described, two types of measurement are performed on the chambers during beam
 3082 periods. On one hand, it is interesting to measure the efficiency of the RPCs with increasing voltage
 3083 with different source absorber settings but on the other hand, it is important to correlate the efficiency
 3084 information to the gamma rate seen by the chambers at the voltages that were scanned for efficiency.
 3085 The choice was made to separate efficiency measurements from rate measurements to better manage
 3086 time and data volume. In both cases, TDC data recorded during so called *HV scans* is divided into
 3087 *runs*, one for each high voltage point, whose data is stored into ROOT files. The TDC settings
 3088 used during both these scans as well as the ROOT data structure are detailed in Section A.4.2 of
 3089 Appendix A.

3090 The goal of both efficiency and rate scans is to measure the rate capability of the detectors but
 3091 also to monitor any degradation of the performance due to ageing. This way, during test beam
 3092 periods the efficiency and corresponding gamma background are measured to correlate the evolution
 3093 of rate capability at different stages of irradiation. In the absence of other signs of ageing, a reduction
 3094 of the rate capability could be related to an increase of the electrodes resistivity.

3095 **5.3.4.1 Efficiency scans**

3096 The HV scans performed to specifically measure the muon detection efficiency under different ir-
 3097 radiation conditions follow a standardized procedure. Data using the DAQ is taken at the same 12
 3098 HV points for all chambers, ranging from 9 kV to 10.1 kV by steps of 100 V. For each HV run, a
 3099 minimum of 5000 muon beam triggers, provided by the coincidence of the 3 scintillators, is required
 3100 in order to accumulate enough statistics for a reliable computation of the efficiency of the detectors.
 3101 In addition to the 4 RPCs held on T1, 2 tracking RPCs installed on T3 are kept at a fixed voltage of
 3102 9.7 kV to provide the analysis software [104] with beam position information to exclude off-track
 3103 signals. The tracking RPCs, whose design is based on which of CMS RPCs, are double gap detectors
 3104 featuring 2 mm HPL electrodes and 2 mm gas gaps. Finally, the monitored currents and voltages are
 3105 recorded in histograms along the TDC data in a different ROOT file for each run.

3106 HV scans are taken for different source settings as the goal is to irradiate all the detectors with a
 3107 minimal rate of 600 Hz/cm². Usually, a full study of the performance of the detectors is performed
 3108 with Source OFF, and then with 9 absorber settings that attenuate the nominal gamma flux by factors
 3109 from more than 200 to only 3, settings with fully opened source being avoided with RPCs in test
 3110 beam position. Adjusting the gamma flux is possible thanks to the 3 layers of absorbers featured on
 3111 the Cesium source [105].

3112 **5.3.4.2 Rate scans**

3113 These background measurement are performed using a similar HV scan procedure than in the case
 3114 of efficiency measurements. The HV scan in test beam period will be taken fewer HV points than
 3115 for the efficiency scans as the region of interest is located around the knee and efficiency plateau
 3116 of the detectors in order to extract through linear interpolation the value of the rate at the working
 3117 voltage deduced from the efficiency scan. Thus, these scans are performed only on 6 HV points
 3118 ranging from 9.5 kV to 10 kV. Rate scans are substantially heavier than efficiency scans. Indeed, a
 3119 good estimation of the rate requires a long enough integrated time worth of data. The way data is
 3120 collected, detailed in Appendix A, makes the DAQ search for data stored in the TDC buffers prior to
 3121 the trigger signal. The time window from which the data is collected ranges in between only 25 ns

3122 to more than $50\ \mu\text{s}$. The Cesium source delivering a consistent gamma flux, it was decided than a
 3123 total integrated time of 0.2 s would be enough to have a reliable calculation of the γ rate. This is
 3124 achieved by taking 20,000 random trigger pulses delivered by a pulse generator at a frequency of
 3125 300 Hz while extracting $10\ \mu\text{s}$ of data from the buffers for each trigger.

3126 Separating rate measurements from efficiency measurement was motivated by the inconsistency
 3127 of the muon beam provided in GIF++. Using periods without beam to measure rates with a good
 3128 statistics allows for faster study programs. Moreover, depending on the muon strength that can
 3129 strongly vary due to users placed upstream of GIF++ and using magnets, the number of muon de-
 3130 livered per beam spill can make the accumulation of 20,000 events too long for the other users of
 3131 GIF++. Hence, efficiency scans are performed with lower statistics and the time window from which
 3132 the data is extracted is strongly reduced (400ns for efficiency scans versus $10\ \mu\text{s}$ for rate scans) to
 3133 keep the data size to its bare minimum.

3134 5.3.4.3 Offline analysis and Data Quality Monitoring

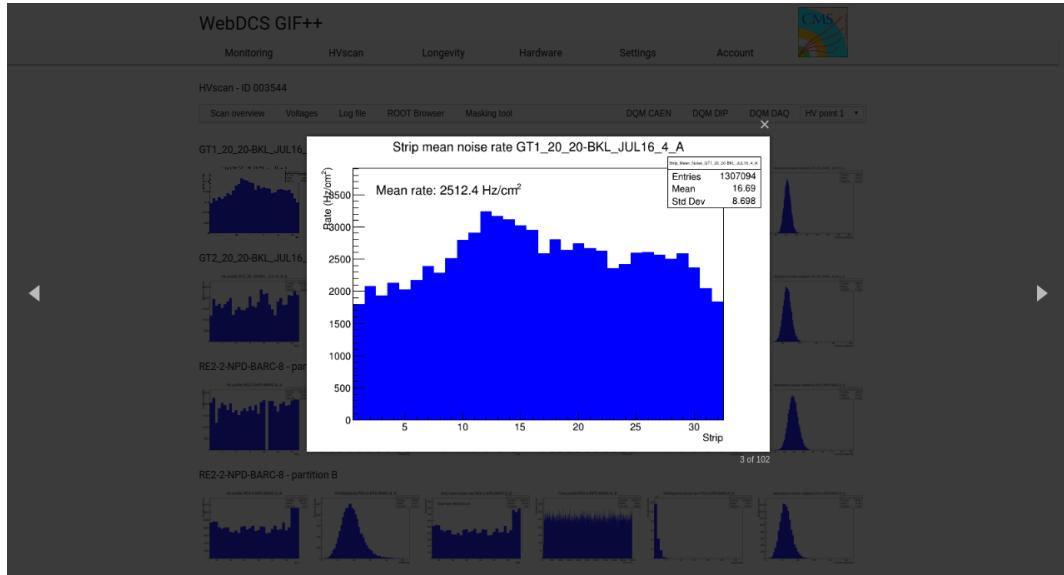


Figure 5.27: Example of DQM page available on CMS WebDCS in GIF++. Here is presented the rate measured in one of the tracking chambers, namely GT1_20_20-BKL_JUL16_4. The DQM page allows to click on each histogram to extend its view and to navigate through the histograms thanks to the left and right arrows.

3135 The data recorded during efficiency and rate scans always consist in two ROOT files per run, a run
 3136 corresponding to a HV point. One of the files corresponds to the TDC data, a collection of hits
 3137 per active channel on the read-out of the RPCs, while the second is the CAEN main frame data,
 3138 offering a monitoring of the currents and high voltages. This data is systematically analysed at the
 3139 end of each scan thanks to the Offline Analysis tool of GIF++, detailed in Appendix B, that produces
 3140 histograms such as hit, rate and time profiles, hit multiplicities, gamma cluster sizes or multiplicities
 3141 for the DQM display of the WebDCS, as showed in Figure 5.27. More histograms can be accessed
 3142 through the ROOT browser included in the WebDCS, as showed in Figure 5.28. Moreover, the
 3143 analysis performed thanks to the Offline tool is definitive in the case of evaluating the rates from rate

3144 scans. On the contrary, the algorithm for efficiency calculation is kept simple and approximative in
3145 the tool as including taking into the analysis requires manual adjustment for each individual scan.

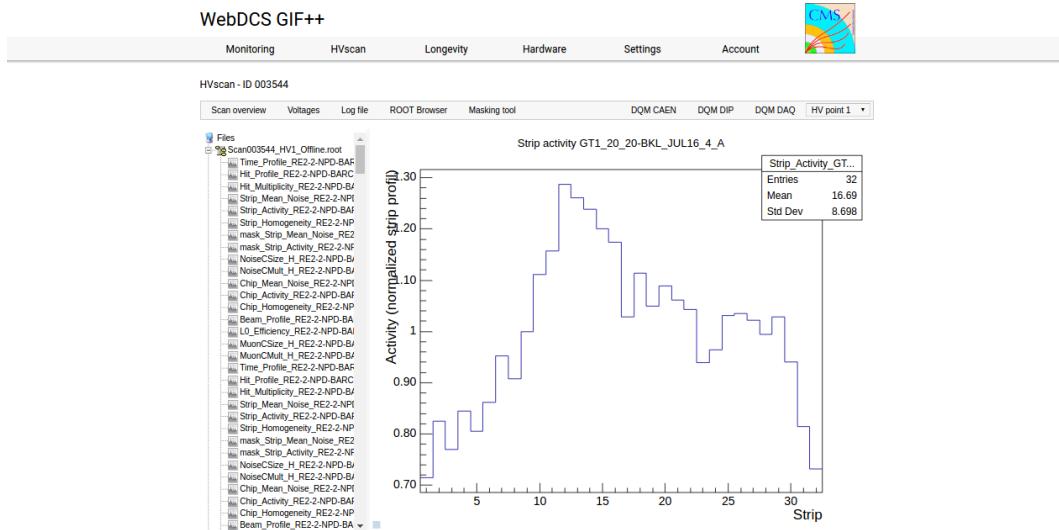


Figure 5.28: Example of DQM ROOT Browser page available on CMS RPC WebDCS in GIF++. Here is presented the strip activity profile, defined as the rate profile normalized to the mean rate, in one of the tracking chambers, namely GT1_20_20-BKL_JUL16_4. Available ROOT files and histograms can be browsed thanks to the left panel showing the directory and files structures.

5.3.5 Measurements performed during irradiation periods

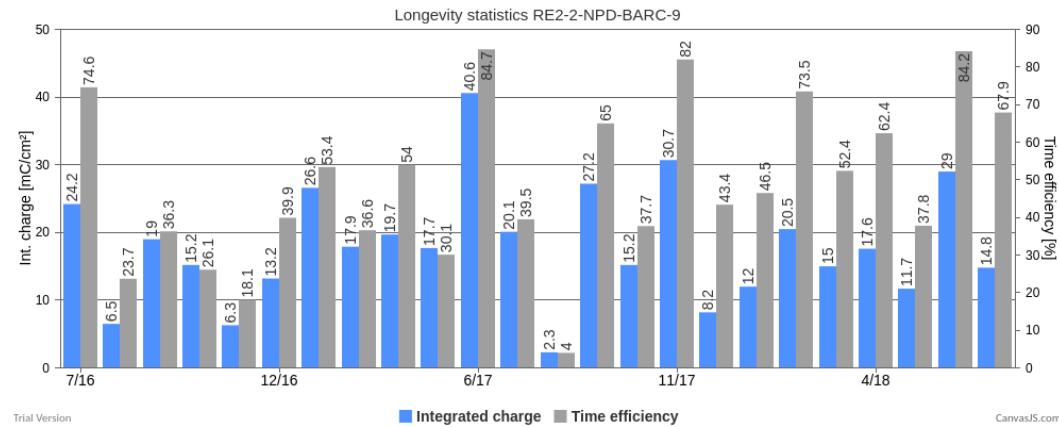


Figure 5.29: Longevity statistics of chamber RE2-2-NPD-BARC-9 in GIF++. For each month since July 2017, the integrated charge (in blue) as well as the time efficiency of irradiation (in gray) is reported.

Even though test beam periods are stressful times has an extensive data taking planning needs to be finalized in a short amount of time, the biggest amount of data comes from irradiation periods.

Indeed, when T1 is moved back to its ageing position in between each test beam periods, data is recorded at any time the source can be switched ON for irradiation. Indeed, other experiments in the area might prevent the source from staying opened continuously. As an example, the time efficiency of irradiation of CMS RPC detectors in GIF++ is presented in Figure 5.29.

Several types of measurement are performed throughout the irradiation period. Indeed, as long as the detectors are being irradiated, a monitoring of the currents is performed to evaluate the corresponding integrated charge considering the irradiation time. Moreover, the corresponding gamma rates need to be measured on a regular basis. Ageing signs can be understood through an increase of the detector noise correlated with an increased dark current. For this purpose, HV scans are performed to measure the noise with increasing voltage and the dark currents. Another way to highlight ageing is through the loss of rate capability of the detectors. During irradiation periods this can be looked through thanks to HV scans performed at various source settings, which are referred to as *source scans*. The loss in rate capability could be understood by a saturation of the measured at higher gamma flux. This effect could be correlated with an increase of the electrodes resistivity. The resistivity is then measure periodically during the year, generally before or after test beam periods by the use of Argon breakdown technic.

5.3.5.1 Longevity scans

The main activity of irradiation periods consist in the *longevity scans* during which the currents of the irradiated chambers is continuously monitored. The two irradiated chambers, RE2-2-NPD-BARC-09 and RE4-2-CERN-166, are both brought to a voltage of 9.8 kV while the source flux can vary depending on the need of experiments using the facility. The currents are recorded on each active gas volume and each gap contribution is then translated into the mean chamber integrated charge as can be seen from Figure 5.30. At the end of each longevity scan the integrated charge accumulated in each chamber is used to update the summary plots providing the collaboration with official results to be spread.

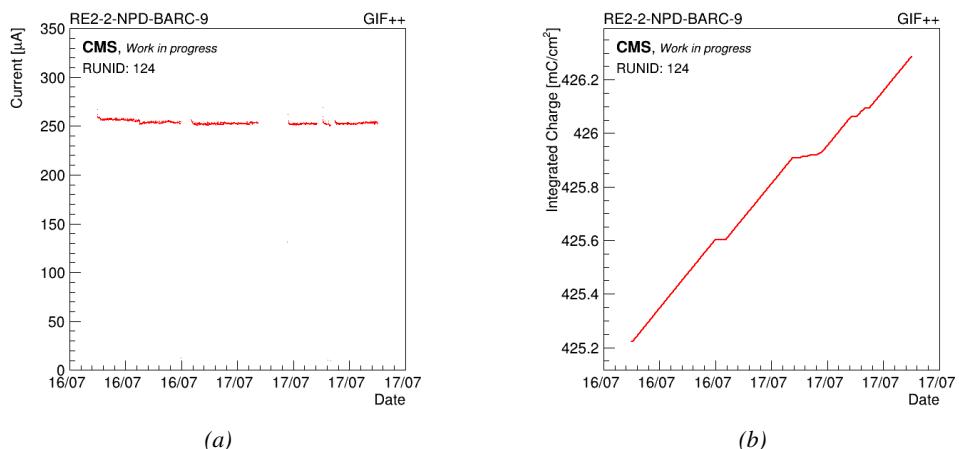


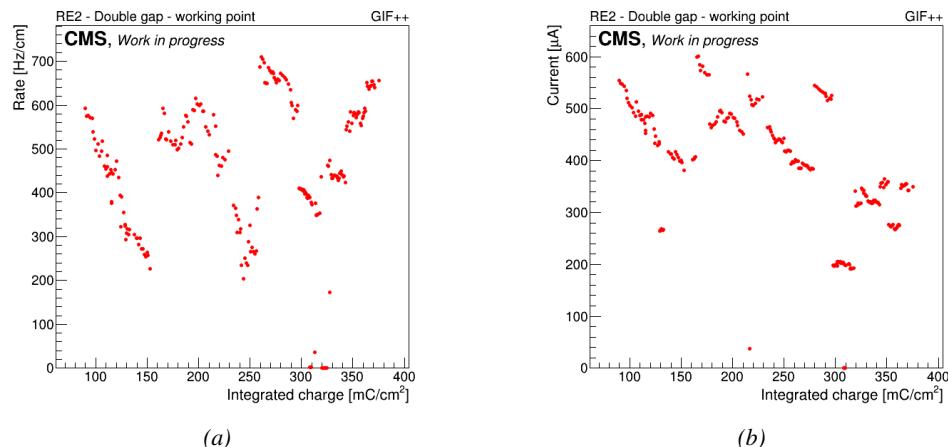
Figure 5.30: Example of current monitoring (Figure 5.30a) and of corresponding integrated charge (Figure 5.30b) of chamber RE2-2-NPD-BARC-09. The decrease of current are related to a decrease of the voltage due to the daily rate scan procedure or to periods during which the source was turned OFF.

3174 5.3.5.2 Daily rate monitoring scans

3175 Every night during longevity scans, the DAQ is used to perform *daily rate scans*. These scans aim
 3176 at keeping track of the gamma rate measured in the irradiated RPCs during longevity but is also
 3177 measured the noise rate at standby voltage and this, for each gap individually. The procedure for
 3178 these HV scans consist in 9 runs for which 50,000 random triggers are requested, corresponding to
 3179 0.5 s of total integrated time.

- 3180 1- All gaps are first left at the irradiation voltage of 9.8 kV to measure the γ rate.
- 3181 2- Then all gaps are brought to the standby voltage of 6.5 kV to measure the noise rate of the full
 detectors.
- 3183 3- Both top gaps (TW and TN) are brought to a voltage equivalent to an OFF status, i.e. 1 kV so
 3184 that the noise contribution of only the bottom gap at standby voltage can be measured.
- 3185 4- The bottom gaps are ramped up toward the working voltage of 9.8 kV to measure their contri-
 3186 bution to the gamma rate estimation.
- 3187 5-8 The steps 3 and 4 are repeated on TN and then on TW, keeping the bottom and the top gap
 3188 which is not of interest at a voltage of 1 kV. This way, the individual contribution to the noise
 3189 and gamma rates are known.
- 3190 9- Finally, both TW and TN are brought to working voltage while the bottom gap is left at 1 kV
 3191 to measure the gamma rate for the full top layer at once.

3192 Finally, the voltages of all gaps are brought back to working voltage for the longevity program
 3193 to continue until the next daily scan.



3194 *Figure 5.31: Example of rate (Figure 5.31a) and current (Figure 5.31b) monitoring of chamber
 3195 RE2-2-NPD-BARC-09 with increasing integrated charge. The variations of rate and current are correlated
 3196 and corresponds to change of source irradiation, gas flow, gas humidity, or environmental conditions.*

3194 Naturally, as this data is taken using GIF++ DAQ, 2 ROOT files containing the DAQ data and
 3195 CAEN data are created for each runs in the exact same way than for efficiency or rate scans taken
 3196 during test beam periods but while the currents are still monitored by the longevity scan and saved

3197 into GIFT++ database for an easy evaluation of the currents to the integrated charge. The Offline
 3198 Analysis tool provides then the DQM page with histograms and daily values can be assembled in
 3199 long term monitoring plots to study the variations of rate and current with increasing integrated
 3200 charge, as presented in Figure 5.31. The rates on every single read-out channel is also tracked to
 3201 control their activity with increasing integrated charge and, this way, understand the appearance of
 3202 hot spots through noisy channels, as showed in Figure 5.32.

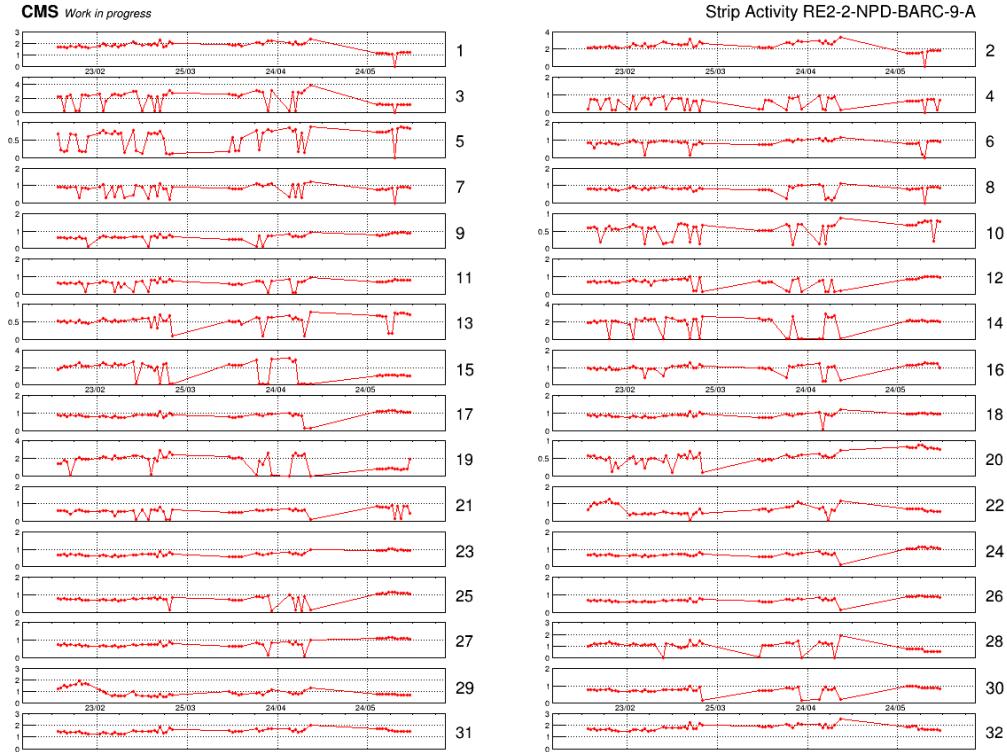


Figure 5.32: Example of strip activity of chamber RE2-2-NPD-BARC-09 monitoring through time. The activity of a strip is defined as the rate of the individual channel normalized to the mean rate measured in the corresponding read-out partition.

3203 5.3.5.3 Weekly noise monitoring scans

3204 Once a week, the source is turned OFF for the CMS RPC to make a noise scan, which consist into
 3205 a HV scan composed of 7 runs and involving both the irradiated but also the reference chambers,
 3206 providing with a weekly monitoring of the evolution of the irradiated chambers noise and dark
 3207 current. The first run is taken at standby voltage for all chambers while the next 6 runs are taken
 3208 with voltages ranging from 9.4 to 9.9 kV in order to have for both type of chambers, RE2 and RE4, a
 3209 coverage of the noise rate in the voltage region in which the efficiency rises and reaches the plateau.

3210 5.3.5.4 Weekly source scans

3211 Directly following the weekly noise scans, HV rate scans are organised at 3 different source settings,
 3212 usually corresponding to ABS 6.8, 4.6 and 3.3. The procedure of these HV scans is strictly similar to

3213 which of weekly noise scans, involving the four RPCs in order to have a weekly comparison of the
 3214 values recorded in every chambers. Measuring with all detectors at the same time allows to get rid
 3215 of potential systematics that might make the rates (noise or gamma) vary from one measurement to
 3216 another. If such systematic effect occurs, it will be observed in all detectors.

3217 **5.3.5.5 Weekly current scans**

3218 The previously detailed daily rate scans, but also the weekly noise and source scans are interesting
 3219 tools to look at an increase of noise rates and dark currents or at a loss of rate capability and point
 3220 to an increase of surface resistivity of the electrodes through the absorption of fluoridric acid. Nev-
 3221 ertheless, periodically measuring the currents on wider high voltage ranges allows to have access
 3222 to the ohmic part of the current driven by the detectors related to the electrodes resistance. This is
 3223 why precise current scans, consisting only in measuring the current driven through the 4 detectors,
 3224 are performed each week. The scan procedure consists in 131 high voltage steps in between 500 V
 3225 and 10 kV by steps of 100 V until the standby voltage of 6.5 kV is reached and then by steps of
 3226 50 V. The current increase in between 500 V and the voltage where charge multiplication starts to
 3227 occur is only driven by the resistance of the detector to current and thus increases linearly. A fit on
 3228 this linear increase of the currents in the range before charge multiplication occurs gives access to
 3229 the resistance of the system electrodes/gas. If any variation of the electrode resistance occurs, the
 3230 global resistance will increase and so will the current. Technically, these scans will record a ROOT
 3231 file per HV step that will have the same format than the CAEN ROOT file saved during other HV
 3232 scans and is also analysed using the Offline Analysis tool to provide with DQM histograms as well
 3233 as standardised I/V tables.

3234 **5.3.5.6 Resistivity measurements**

3235 Aside of the parameters monitored to spot ageing, the resistivity of the HPL planes is measured
 3236 regularly before or after test beam periods through high voltage scans of the detectors operated
 3237 with pure Argon. The electric field strength at which Argon breaks down being well known, the
 3238 breakdown voltage in the detectors is measured and gives an information about the resistance of the
 3239 electrodes, as above the breakdown voltage Argon turns into a conductive plasma and thus does not
 3240 offer electric resistance anymore, which then can be used to calculate the resistivity of the electrode
 3241 material. The Argon line in GIF++ are not kept humid and thus this measurement is not performed
 3242 too often to make sure the electrodes don't dry out, leading to an increase of the electrode resistivity.

3243 **5.3.6 Results and discussions**

3244 Since 2015, CMS RPCs have been irradiated in GIF++ with the goal to reach a total integrated
 3245 charge per irradiated detector of 0.84 C/cm^2 while certifying the detectors to a rate capability of
 3246 600 Hz/cm^2 . As of today, the RE2 and RE4 chambers respectively achieved 51 and 26% of the
 3247 total irradiation program. A few years of irradiation are expected before reaching the end of the
 3248 longevity study and a final answer on whether the detector will be able to live through HL-LHC or
 3249 not. A negative answer to this question would probably lead to solutions to replace the detectors
 3250 before HL-LHC or to improve the shielding of these detectors against background radiation in CMS
 3251 cavern, which could be a more sustainable solution.

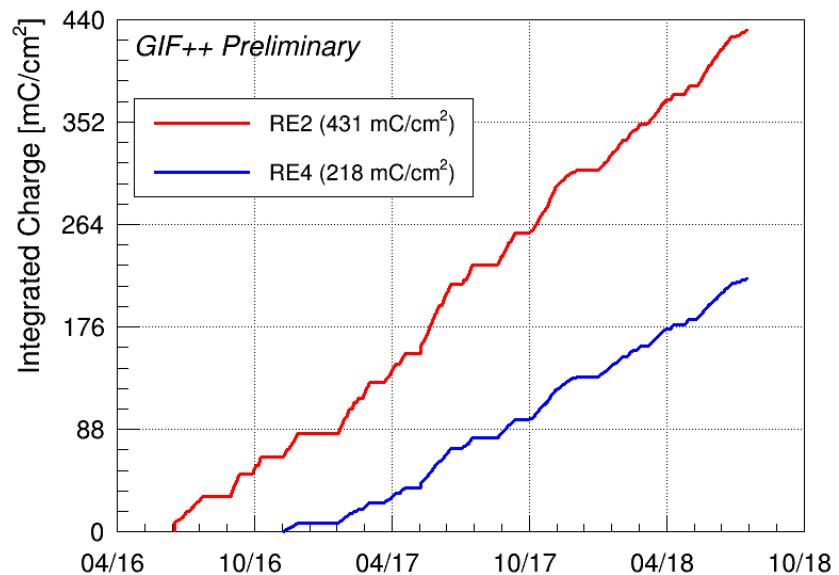


Figure 5.33: Total integrated charge in the irradiated RPCs, RE2–2–NPD–BARC–9 and RE4–2–CERN–165, before starting August 2018 test beam period. The irradiation of the RE2 chamber started in June 2016 while the RE4 chamber couldn't be irradiated before November 2016.

6

3252

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3254

Improved RPC investigation and preliminary electronics studies

3255 The extension in the endcap of the RPC sub-system towards higher pseudo-rapidity will bring the
3256 new detectors to be exposed to much more intense background radiations due to the proximity of
3257 the detectors with the beam line. The challenge will be to produce high counting rate detectors with
3258 limited ageing rate to ensure a stable operation of the detector over a period longer than 10 years.
3259 In the previous chapter was discussed the influence of the detector design (number and thickness
3260 of gas volumes, OR system, etc...) on the charge deposition and rate capability. Nevertheless, this
3261 question can also be addressed from the electronics point of view as a better signal to noise ratio
3262 would also mean the possibility to greatly lower the charge threshold on the signals to be detected,
3263 allowing to use the detector at lower gain, hence lowering the charge deposition per avalanche in the
3264 gas volume. Cardarelli showed that the production of low-noise fast FEE could help decreasing the
3265 charge deposition per avalanche at working voltage by an order of magnitude virtually increasing
3266 the life expectancy of such a detector in the same way [106].

3267 **6.1 FEE candidate for the production of iRPCs**

3268 **6.1.1 INFN Front-End Electronics**

3269 **6.1.2 PETIROC Time-of-flight Front-End Electronics**

3270 **6.2 Preliminary tests at CERN**

3271 **6.3 Test**

7

3272

3273

Conclusions and outlooks

3274 **7.1 Conclusions**

3275 **7.2 Outlooks**

A

3276

3277

A data acquisition software for CAEN VME TDCs

3278

3279 Certifying detectors in the perspective of HL-LHC required to develop tools for the GIF++ experiment.
3280 Among them was the C++ Data Acquisition (DAQ) software that allows to make the communications
3281 in between a computer and TDC modules in order to retrieve the RPC data [107]. In this
3282 appendix, details about this software, as of how the software was written, how it functions and how
3283 it can be exported to another similar setup, will be given.

3284

A.1 GIF++ DAQ file tree

3285

3286

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

3287

- 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.

3290

3291

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:

3292

3293

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

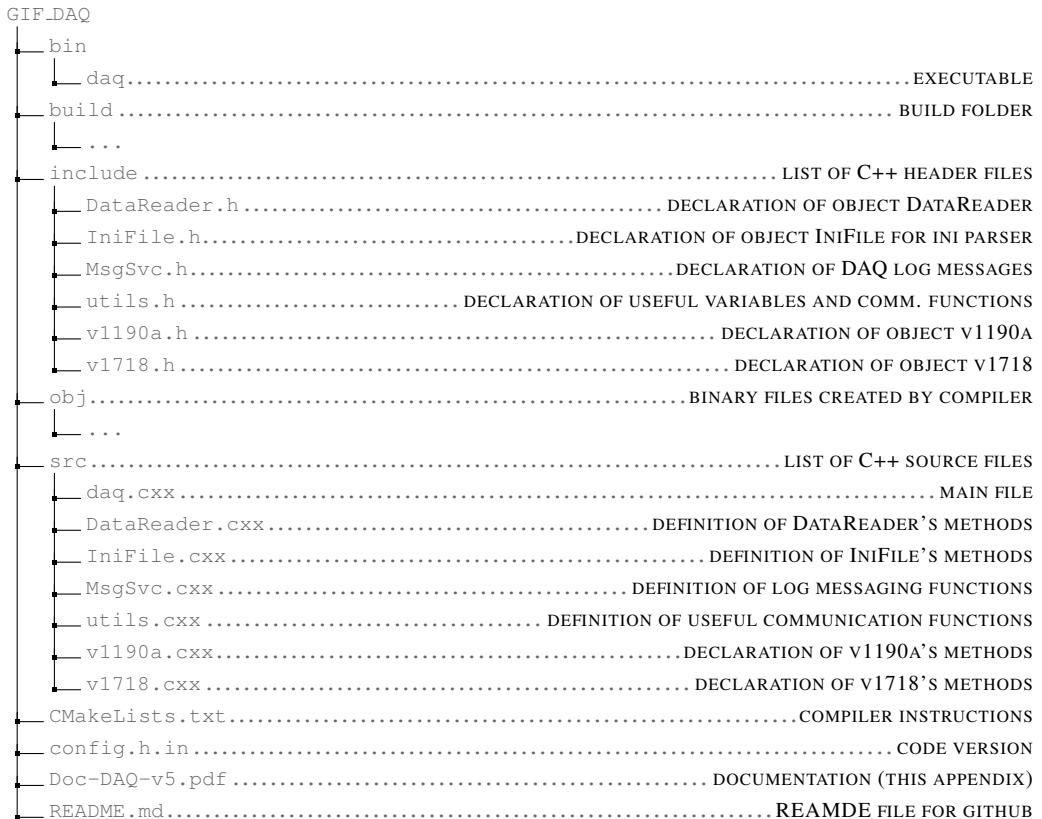
3294

3295

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

3296 described in details in the following sections.

3297



3298

A.2 Usage of the DAQ

3299 GIF++ DAQ, as used in GIF++, is not a standalone software. Indeed, the system being more complexe,
 3300 the DAQ only is a sub-layer of the software architecture developped to control and monitor
 3301 the RPCs that are placed into the bunker for performance study in an irradiated environment. The top
 3302 layer of GIF++ is a Web Detector Control System (webDCS) application. The DAQ is only called
 3303 by the webDCS when data needs to be acquired. The webDCS operates the DAQ through command
 3304 line. To start the DAQ, the webDCS calls:

3305

3306 bin/daq /path/to/the/log/file/in/the/output/data/folder

3307 where /path/to/the/log/file/in/the/output/data/folder is the only argument required. This
 3308 log file is important for the webDCS as this file contains all the content of the communication of the
 3309 webDCS and the different systems monitored by the webDCS. Its content is constantly displayed
 3310 during data taking for the users to be able to follow the operations. The communication messages
 3311 are normally sent to the webDCS log file via the functions declared in file `MsgSvc.h`, typically
 3312 `MSG_INFO(string message)`.

3313

A.3 Description of the readout setup

The CMS RPC setup at GIF++ counts 5 V1190A Time-to-Digital Converter (TDC) manufactured by CAEN [95]. 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 developed 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 [96]. 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 [108]. These 3 components of the DAQ setup are shown in Figure A.1.

3323

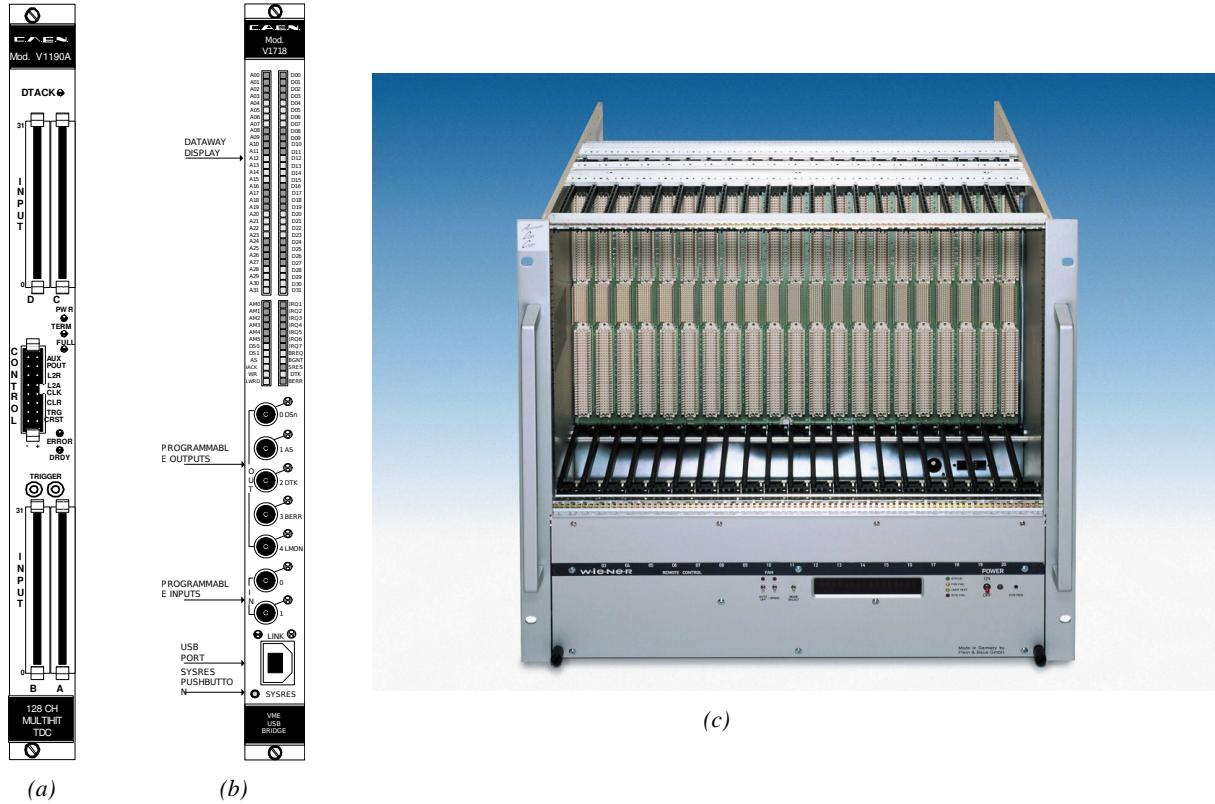


Figure A.1: (A.1a) View of the front panel of a V1190A TDC module [95]. (A.1b) View of the front panel of a V1718 Bridge module [96]. (A.1c) View of the front panel of a 6U 6021 VME crate [108].

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.

3328

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 windowHeight, 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 windowHeight, 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 prevent buffer overflows and to speed up the search time. This is set via the method
`void v1190a::SetTrigRejectionMargin(Uint rejectMargin, int ntdcs)`

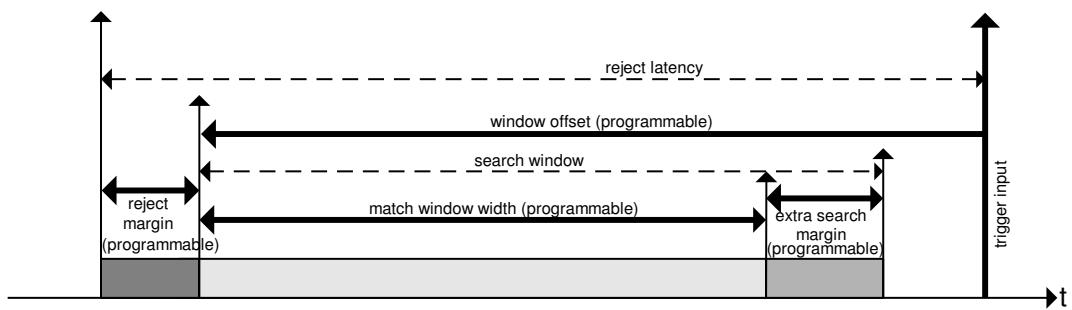


Figure A.2: Module V1190A Trigger Matching Mode timing diagram [95].

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 functioning 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 clocks, which corresponds to 1 μ s. Evidently, the offset can be negative, allowing

3356 for a longer match window, with the constraint of having the window ending at most 1 μ s after the
3357 trigger signal. In the third case, the maximum negative offset allowed is of 2048 clocks (12 bit) cor-
3358 responding to 51.2 μ s, the match window being strictly smaller than the offset. In the case of GIF++,
3359 the choice has been made to use this last setting by delaying the trigger signal. During the studies
3360 performed in GIF++, both the efficiency of the RPCs, probed using a muon beam, and the noise or
3361 gamma background rate are monitored. The extra search and reject margins are left unused.

3362 To probe the efficiency of RPC detectors, the trigger time tag is provided by the coïncidence of
3363 scintillators when a bunch of muons passes through GIF++ area is used to trigger the data acquisi-
3364 tion. For this measurement, it is useful to reduce the match window width only to contain the muon
3365 information. Indeed, the delay in between a trigger signal and the detection of the corresponding
3366 muon in the RPC being very contant (typically a few tens of ns due to jitter and cable length), the
3367 muon signals are very localised in time. Thus, due to a delay of approximalety 325 ns in between
3368 the muons and the trigger, the settings were chosen to have a window width of 24 clocks (600 ns)
3369 centered on the muon peak thanks to a negative offset of 29 clocks (725 ns).

3370 On the otherhand, monitoring the rates don't require for the DAQ to look at a specific time window.
3371 It is important to integrate enough time to have a robust measurement of the rate as the number of
3372 hits per time unit. The triggering signal is provided by the pulse generator integrated into the com-
3373 munication module V1718 at a frequency of 100 Hz to ensure that the data taking occurs in a random
3374 way, uncorrelated with beam physics, to probe only the irradiation spectrum on the detectors. The
3375 match window is set to 400 clocks (10 μ s) and the negative offset to 401 clocks as it needs to exceed
3376 the value of the match window.

3377

3378 The v1190a object, defined in the DAQ software as in Source Code A.1, offers the possil-
3379 ity to store all TDCs in the readout setup into a single object containing a list of hardware ad-
3380 dresses (addresses to access the TDCs' buffer through the VME crate) and each constructor and
3381 method acts on the list of TDCs to set the different acquisition parameters as describe above.
3382 The type of trigger matching is chosen with `v1190a::SetTrigMatching()` and the time substrac-
3383 tion, used to have a time measurement referring to the beggining of the time window, is set by
3384 `v1190a::SetTrigTimeSubtraction()`. Then, the wiwdow width and offset are respectively set
3385 thanks to `v1190a::SetTrigWindowWidth()` and `v1190a::SetTrigWindowOffset()`. The rejection
3386 and extra search margin, even if left unused and hence set to a default value of 0, can be set through
3387 `v1190a::SetTrigRejectionMargin()` and `v1190a::SetTrigSearchMargin()`. These methods are
3388 then called in `v1190a::SetTrigConfiguration()` that uses the information contained in the config-
3389 uration file `IniFile *iniFile` to set the different TDC parameters. A thorough explaination of the
3390 content of the configuration file is provided in Section A.5.2.

3391

3392 Among the other methods of class `v1190a` can be found a set of the detection mode (`v1190a::SetTDC`
3393 `DetectionMode()`), of the TDC time resolution (`v1190a::SetTDCResolution()`), of the dead time
3394 in between two consecutive signals recorded into a single channel (`v1190a::SetTDCDeadTime()`) or
3395 of the maximal number of signals that can be recorded per event (`v1190a::SetTDCEventSize()`). To
3396 help with setting these parameters, `enum` were used (`EdgeMode`, `Resolution`, `DeadTime` and `HitMax`
3397 are defined in `include/v1190a.h`).

```

3398 class v1190a
{
    private :
        long             Handle;
        vector<Data32>   Address;
        CVDataWidth      DataWidth;
        CVAAddressModifier 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 SetTrigTimeSubtraction(Data16 mode,int ntdcs);
        void SetTrigWindowWidth(Uint windowHeight,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);
};

3399

```

3400 *Source Code A.1: Description of C++ object v1190a.*

3401 The detection mode corresponds to the type of edge detection the TDC will be using to
 3402 record the data. The TDCs can record the time stamp of the leading edge alone, of the trailing edge
 3403 alone, of both or they can operate in pair mode, meaning that the leading edge is recorded together
 3404 with the time difference in between leading and trailing edges. This last mode is not very practical
 3405 for the case of GIFT++ measurements as the information is coded into a single words in the TDC's
 3406 buffer, putting strong constraints on the time window and duration of the input signals. Indeed,
 3407 when recording the edges individually (single edge or both edges), a 32-bit word, of which 18 are
 3408 used to provide the time information alone, is stored into memory for each signal edge. With the
 3409 pair mode, instead of having one 32-bit word per edge, only a single 32-bit word is written of which
 3410 12 are used for the leading edge time information and 6 for the width of the pulse, as described on
 3411 p73 of reference [95]. This way, even though the pair mode is convenient to use as it automatically

3412 correlates a leading edge with the corresponding signal width in a single word, it is advised to be
 3413 careful when using it and to be aware of the extra time constraints (for both leading time and signal
 3414 width) that will come for choosing this setting. If it is necessary to work with large input signals,
 3415 the mode recording both edges will be preferred to the pair mode and the association of a leading
 3416 and trailing edges pair will then be performed offline by the user. Then, the time resolution is to be
 3417 chosen in a range from 100 to 800 ps, the dead time in a range from 5 to 100 ns, and the maximal
 3418 number of hits per event in a range from 0 to 128 with the possibility to choose to have no limits.

3419 A.4.2 DataReader

3420 Enabled thanks to `v1190a::SetBlockTransferMode()`, the data transfer is done via Block Transfer
 3421 (BLT). Using BLT allows to transfer a fixed number of events called a *block*. This is used together
 3422 with an Almost Full Level (AFL) of the TDCs' output buffers, defined through `v1190a::SetIRQ()`.
 3423 This AFL gives the maximum amount of 32735 words (16 bits, corresponding to the depth of a TDC
 3424 output buffer) that can be written in a buffer before an Interrupt Request (IRQ) is generated and seen by
 3425 the VME Bridge V1718, which sends a `BUSY` signal intended to stopping the data acquisition during
 3426 the transfer of the content of each TDC buffers before resuming. For each trigger, 6 words or more
 3427 are written into the TDC buffer:

- 3428 • **a global header** providing information of the event number since the beginning of the data
 3429 acquisition,
- 3430 • **a TDC header** which is enabled thanks to `v1190a::SetTDCHeadTrailer()`,
- 3431 • **the TDC data (if any)**, 1 for each hit recorded during the event, providing the channel and the
 3432 time stamp associated to the hit,
- 3433 • **a TDC error** providing error flags,
- 3434 • **a TDC trailer** which is enabled thanks to `v1190a::SetTDCHeadTrailer()`,
- 3435 • **a global trigger time tag** that provides the absolute trigger time relatively to the last reset,
 3436 and
- 3437 • **a global trailer** providing the total word count in the event.

3438 CMS RPC FEEs provide with 100 ns long LVDS output signals that are injected into the TDCs'
 3439 input. Any avalanche signal that gives a signal above the FEEs threshold is thus recorded by the
 3440 TDCs as a hit within the match window. Each hit is assigned to a specific TDC channel with a time
 3441 stamp, with a precision of 100 ps. The reference time, $t_0 = 0$, is provided by the beginning of the
 3442 match window. Thus for each trigger, coming from a scintillator coincidence or the pulse generator,
 3443 a list of hits is stored into the TDCs' buffers and will then be transferred into a ROOT Tree.
 3444 When the BLT is used, it is easy to understand that the maximum number of words that have been set
 3445 as AFL will not be a finite number of events or, at least, the number of events that would be recorded
 3446 into the TDC buffers will not be a multiple of the block size. In the last BLT cycle to transfer data,
 3447 the number of events to transfer will most probably be lower than the block size. In that case, the
 3448 TDC can add fillers at the end of the block but this option requires to send more data to the computer
 3449 and is thus a little slower. Another solution is to finish the transfer after the last event by sending a
 3450 bus error that states that the BLT reached the last event in the pile. This method has been chosen in

3451 GIF++.

3452 Due to irradiation, an event in GIF++ can count up to 300 words per TDC. A limit of 4096 words
 3453 (12 bits) has been set to generate IRQ which represent from 14 to almost 700 events depending on
 3454 the average of hits collected per event. Then the block size has been set to 100 events with enabled
 3455 bus errors. When an AFL is reached for one of the TDCs, the VME bridge stops the acquisition by
 3456 sending a BUSY signal.

3457

3458 The data is then transferred one TDC at a time into a structure called `RAWData` (Source Code A.2).
 3459 Note that the structure as presented here is used when a single edge detection is used as there is only
 3460 one time stamp list associated to the hits. When using detection on both edges, a second time stamp
 3461 list could be added and when using pair detection, a list with the signal width could be added instead.
 3462

```
3463   struct RAWData {
  3464     vector<int>                   *EventList;
  3465     vector<int>                   *NHitsList;
  3466     vector<int>                   *QFlagList;
  3467     vector<vector<int> >   *ChannelList;
  3468     vector<vector<float> > *TimeStampList;
  3469 };
```

3464

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

```
3465   class DataReader
  3466   {
  3467     private:
  3468       bool           StopFlag;
  3469       IniFile      *iniFile;
  3470       Data32       MaxTriggers;
  3471       v1718        *VME;
  3472       int           nTDCs;
  3473       v1190a       *TDCs;
  3474       RAWData      TDCData;

  3475     public:
  3476       DataReader();
  3477       virtual ~DataReader();
  3478       void          SetIniFile(string inifilename);
  3479       void          SetMaxTriggers();
  3480       Data32       GetMaxTriggers();
  3481       void          SetVME();
  3482       void          SetTDC();
  3483       int           GetQFlag(Uint it);
  3484       void          Init(string inifilename);
  3485       void          FlushBuffer();
  3486       void          Update();
  3487       string       GetFileName();
  3488       void          WriteRunRegistry(string filename);
  3489       void          Run();
  3490 };
```

3466

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

3467

3468 In order to organize the data transfer and the data storage, an object called `DataReader` was
 3469 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

3470 read-out through `v1190a::Read()` and on the other hand, it contains the structure `RAWData` that allows
 3471 to organise the data in vectors reproducing the tree structure of a ROOT file.
 3472 Each event is transferred from `TDCData` and saved into branches of a ROOT `TTree` as 3 integers
 3473 that represent the event ID (`EventCount`), the number of hits read from the TDCs (`nHits`), and the
 3474 quality flag that provides information for any problem in the data transfer (`qflag`), and 2 lists of
 3475 `nHits` elements containing the fired TDC channels (`TDCCh`) and their respective time stamps (`TDCTS`),
 3476 as presented in Source Code A.4. The ROOT file file is named using information contained into
 3477 the configuration file, presented in section A.5.2. The needed information is extracted using method
 3478 `DataReader::GetFileName()` and allow to build the output filename format `ScanXXXXXX_HVX_DAQ.root`
 3479 where `ScanXXXXXX` is a 6 digit number representing the scan number into GIF++ database and `HVX`
 3480 the HV step within the scan that can be more than a single digit. An example of ROOT data file is
 3481 provided with Figure A.3.

```
3482
  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();
  }
}
```

3484 *Source Code A.4: Highlight of the data transfer and organisation within `DataReader::Run()` after the data
 has been collected into `TDCData`.*

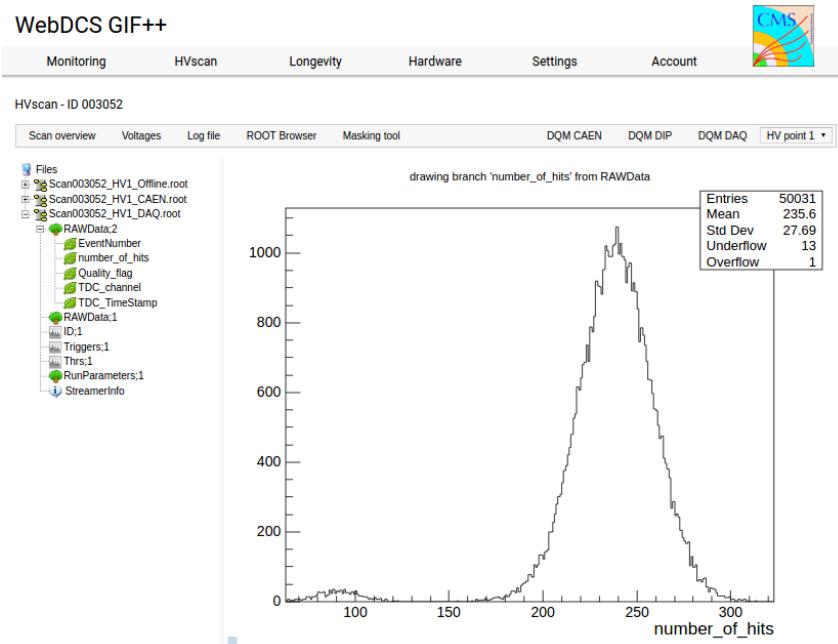


Figure A.3: Structure of the ROOT output file generated by the DAQ. The 5 branches (EventNumber, number_of_hits, Quality_flag, TDC_channel and TDC_TimeStamp) are visible on the left panel of the ROOT browser. On the right panel is visible the histogram corresponding to the variable nHits. In this specific 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.

3485 A.4.3 Data quality flag

3486 Among the parameters that are recorded for each event, the quality flag is determined on the fly
 3487 by checking the data recorded by every single TDC. An `enum` called `QualityFlag` was written to
 3488 associate the key `GOOD` to the integer 1 and `CORRUPTED` to 0. From method `v1190a::Read()`, it can
 3489 be understood that the content of each TDC buffer is readout one TDC at a time. Entries are created
 3490 in the data list for the first TDC and then, when the second buffer is readout, events corresponding
 3491 to entries that have already been created to store data for the previous TDC are added to the existing
 3492 list element. On the contrary, when an event entry has not been yet created in the data list, a new
 3493 entry is created.

3494 It is possible that each TDC buffer contains a different number of events. In cases where the first
 3495 element in the buffer list is an event for corresponds to a new entry, the difference in between the
 3496 entry from the buffer and the last entry in the data list is recorded and checked. If it is greater than 1,
 3497 what should never be the case, the quality flag is set to `CORRUPTED` for this TDC and an empty entry
 3498 is created in the place of the missing ones. Missing entries are believe to be the result of a bad hold
 3499 on the TDC buffers at the moment of the readout. Indeed, the software hold is effective only on 1
 3500 TDC at a time and no solution as been found yet to completely block the writting in the buffers when
 3501 an IRQ is received.

3502 At the end of each BLT cycle, the ID of the last entry stored for each TDC buffer is not recorded.
 3503 When starting the next cycle, if the first entry in the pile corresponds to an event already existing
 3504 in the list, the readout will start from this list element and will not be able to check the difference

3505 in between this entry's ID and the one of the last entry that was recorded for this TDC buffer in
 3506 the previous cycle. In the case events were missing, the flag stays at its initial value of 0, which is
 3507 similar to CORRUPTED and it is assumed that then this TDC will not contribute to number_of_hits,
 3508 TDC_channel or TDC_TimeStamp. Finally, since there will be 1 RAWData entry per TDC for each event
 3509 (meaning nTDCs entries, referring to DataReader private attribute), the individual flags of each TDC
 3510 will be added together. The final format is an integer composed nTDCs digits where each digit is the
 3511 flag of a specific TDC. This is constructed using powers of 10 like follows:

3512 TDC 0: QFlag = $10^0 \times \text{QualityFlag}$

3513 TDC 1: QFlag = $10^1 \times \text{QualityFlag}$

3514 ...

3515 TDC N: QFlag = $10^N \times \text{QualityFlag}$

3516 and the final flag to be with N digits:

3517 QFlag = n....3210

3518 each digit being 1 or 0. Below is given an example with a 4 TDCs setup.

3519 If all TDCs were good : QFlag = 1111,

3520 but if TDC 2 was corrupted : QFlag = 1011.

3521 When data taking is over and the data contained in the dynamical RAWData structure is transferred
 3522 to the ROOT file, all the 0s are changed into 2s by calling the method DataReader::GetQFlag().
 3523 This will help translating the flag without knowing the number of TDCs beforehand. Indeed, a flag
 3524 111 could be due to a 3 TDC setup with 3 good individual TDC flags or to a more than 3 TDC setup
 3525 with TDCs those ID is greater than 2 being CORRUPTED, thus giving a 0.

3526 The quality flag has been introduced quite late, in October 2017 only, to the list of GIFT++ DAQ
 3527 parameters to be recorded into the output ROOT file. Before this addition, the missing data, corrupting
 3528 the quality for the offline analysis, was contributing to artificially fill data with lower multiplicity.
 3529 Looking at TBranch number_of_hits provides an information about the data of the full GIFT++
 3530 setup. When a TDC is not able to transfer data for a specific event, the effect is a reduction of the
 3531 total number of hits recorded in the full setup, this is what can be seen from Figure A.4. After offline
 3532 reconstruction detector by detector, the effect of missing events can be seen in the artificially filled
 3533 bin at multiplicity 0 shown in Figure A.5. Nonetheless, for data with high irradiation levels, as it is
 3534 the case for Figure A.5a, discarding the fake multiplicity 0 data can be done easily during the offline
 3535 analysis. At lower radiation, the missing events contribution becomes more problematic as the mul-
 3536 tiplicity distribution overlaps the multiplicity 0 and that in the same time the proportion of missing
 3537 events decreases. Attempts to fit the distribution with a Poisson or skew distribution function were
 3538 not conclusive and this very problem has been at the origin of the quality flag that allows to give a
 3539 non ambiguous information about each event quality.

3540

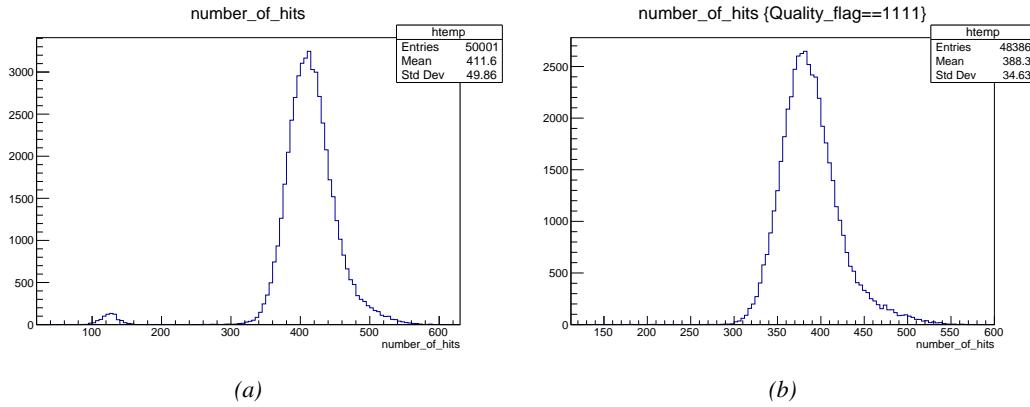


Figure A.4: The effect of the quality flag is explained by presenting the content of TBranch `number_of_hits` of a data file without `Quality_flag` in Figure A.4a and the content of the same TBranch for data corresponding to a `Quality_flag` where all TDCs were labelled as `GOOD` in Figure A.4b taken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

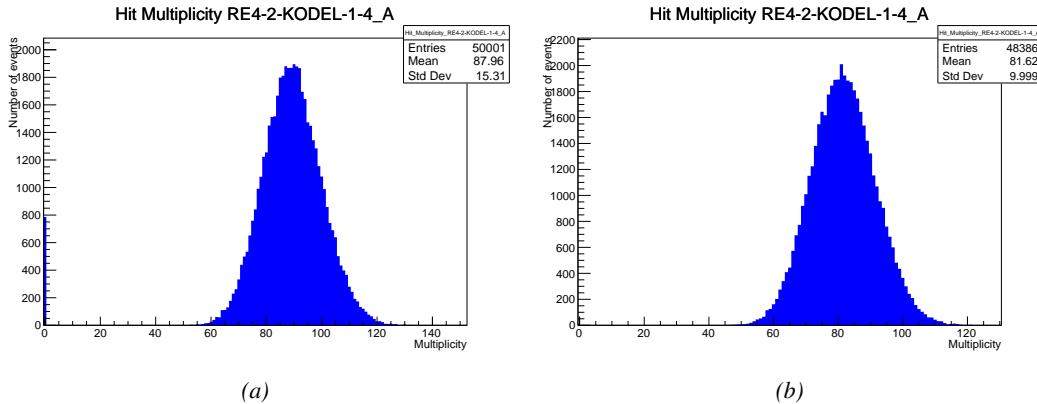


Figure A.5: Using the same data as previously showed in Figure A.4, the effect of the quality flag is explained by presenting the reconstructed hit multiplicity of a data file without `Quality_flag` in Figure A.5a and the reconstructed content of the same RPC partition for data corresponding to a `Quality_flag` 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

- 3541 To ensure data readout and dialog in between the machine and the TDCs or in between the webDCS
 3542 and the DAQ, different communication solutions were used. First of all, it is important to have a
 3543 module to allow the communication in between the TDCs and the computer from which the DAQ
 3544 operates. When this communication is effective, shifters using the webDCS to control data taking
 3545 can thus send instructions to the DAQ.
 3546

3547

3548 **A.5.1 V1718 USB Bridge**

3549 In the previous section, the data transfer as been discussed. The importance of the `v1718` object
 3550 (Source Code A.5), used as private member of `DataReader`, was not explicited. VME master
 3551 modules are used for communication purposes as they host the USB port that connects the pow-
 3552 ered crate buffer to the computer were the DAQ is installed. From the source code point of view,
 3553 this object is used to control the communication status, by reading the returned error codes with
 3554 `v1718::CheckStatus()`, or to check for IRQs coming from the TDCs through `v1718::CheckIRQ()`.
 3555 To ensure that triggers are blocked at the hardware level, a NIM pulse is sent out of one of the two
 3556 first programmable outputs of the module (`v1718::SendBUSY()`) to the VETO of the coincidence
 3557 module where the trigger signals originate. As long as this signal is ON, no trigger can reach the
 3558 TDCs anymore. Finally, used in the case of noise and background measurements in which the trigger
 3559 needs not to be provided by the muon beam but by an uncorrelated source, a pulse generator
 3560 is enabled with `v1718::RDMTriggerPulse()`. The "random" pulse is sent through the third and
 3561 fourth outputs of the module. Both the BUSY signal and the random pulse are shaped in the method
 3562 `v1718::SetPulsers()` where the number of pulses to be generated, their width, as well as the period
 3563 of the pulse generator is defined.

```
3564
 3565 class v1718{
 3566   private:
 3567     int Handle;
 3568     Data32 Data;           // Data
 3569     CVIRQLevels Level;    // Interrupt level
 3570     CVAddressModifier AM;  // Addressing Mode
 3571     CVDataWidth dataSize; // Data Format
 3572     Data32 BaseAddress;   // Base Address

 3573   public:
 3574     v1718(IniFile *inifile);
 3575     ~v1718();
 3576     long GetHandle(void) const;
 3577     int SetData(Data16 data);
 3578     Data16 GetData(void);
 3579     int SetLevel(CVIRQLevels level);
 3580     CVIRQLevels GetLevel(void);
 3581     int SetAM(CVAddressModifier am);
 3582     CVAddressModifier GetAM(void);
 3583     int SetDataSize(CVDataWidth dataSize);
 3584     CVDataWidth GetDataSize(void);
 3585     int SetBaseAddress(Data16 baseaddress);
 3586     Data16 GetBaseAddress(void);
 3587     void CheckStatus(CVErrorCodes status) const;
 3588     bool CheckIRQ();
 3589     void SetPulsers(Uint RDM_Frequency);
 3590     void SendBUSY(PulserLevel level);
 3591     void RDMTriggerPulse(PulserLevel level);
 3592   };

```

3566 *Source Code A.5: Description of C++ object v1718.*

3567 A.5.2 Configuration file

3568 The DAQ software takes as input a configuration file written using INI standard [109]. This file is
 3569 partly filled with the information provided by the shifters when starting data acquisition using the
 3570 webDCS, as shown by Figure A.6. This information is written in section **[General]** and will later
 3571 be stored in the ROOT file that contains the DAQ data as can be seen from Figure A.3. Indeed,
 3572 another `TTree` called `RunParameters` as well as the 2 histograms `ID`, containing the scan number,
 3573 start and stop time stamps, and `Triggers`, containing the number of triggers requested by the shifter,
 3574 are available in the data files. Moreover, `ScanID` and `HV` are then used to construct the file name
 3575 thanks to the method `DataReader::GetFileName()`.

Chamber	RE2-2-NPD-BARC-8	RE2-2-CERN-105	RE2-2-NPD-BARC-9	RE2-2-CERN-105	RE4-2-KODEL-1-4	Max triggers
HV _{eff} 1	8600	8500	8600	8500	6500	
HV _{eff} 2	8700	8600	8700	8600	6600	
HV _{eff} 3	8800	8700	8800	8700	6700	
HV _{eff} 4	8900	8800	8900	8800	6800	
HV _{eff} 5	9000	8900	9000	8900	6900	
HV _{eff} 6	9100	9000	9100	9000	7000	
HV _{eff} 7	9200	9100	9200	9100	7100	
HV _{eff} 8	9300	9200	9300	9200	7200	
HV _{eff} 9	9400	9300	9400	9300	7300	
HV _{eff} 10	9500	9400	9500	9400	7400	

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.

3576 The rest of the information is written beforehand in the configuration file template, as explicated
 3577 in Source Code A.6, and contains the hardware addresses to the different VME modules in the
 3578 setup as well as settings for the TDCs. As the TDC settings available in the configuration file are not
 3579 supposed to be modified, an improvement would be to remove them from the configuration file and
 3580 to hardcode them inside of the DAQ code itself or to place them into a different INI file that would
 3581 host only the TDC settings to lower the probability for a bad manipulation of the configuration file
 3582 that can be modified from one of webDCS' menus.

3583

```

[General]
TdcS=4
ScanID=$scanid
HV=$HV
RunType=$runtype
MaxTriggers=$maxtriggers
Beam=$beam
[VMEInterface]
Type=V1718
BaseAddress=0xFF0000
Name=VmeInterface
int_trig_freq=100
[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
[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
[TDCErrors]
TriggerExtraSearchMargin=0
TriggerRejectMargin=0
TriggerTimeSubtraction=0b1
TdcDetectionMode=0b01
TdcResolution=0b10
TdcDeadTime=0b00
TdcHeadTrailer=0b1
TdcEventSize=0b1001
TdcTestMode=0b0
BLTMode=1

```

3584

Source Code A.6: INI configuration file template for 4 TDCs. In section [General], the number of TDCs is explicitated 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.

```

3585 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();

3586    // 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();
};

3587

```

Source Code A.7: Description of C++ object IniFile used as a parser for INI file format.

3588 In order to retrieve the information of the configuration file, the object `IniFile` has been developed
 3589 to provide an INI parser, presented in Source Code A.7. It contains private methods returning a
 3590 boolean to check the type of line written in the file, whether a comment, a group header or a key line
 3591 (`IniFile::CheckIfComment()`, `IniFile::CheckIfGroup()` and `IniFile::CheckIfToken()`). The
 3592 key may sometimes be referred to as *token* in the source code. Moreover, the private element
 3593 `FileData` is a map of `const` string to string that allows to store the data contained inside the
 3594 configuration file via the public method `IniFile::GetFileData()` following the formatting (see
 3595 method `IniFile::Read()`):

```

3596     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;

```

3598 More methods have been written to translate the different keys into the right variable format
 3599 when used by the DAQ. For example, to get a **float** value out of the configuration file data, knowing
 3600 the group and the key needed, the method `IniFile::floatType()` can be used. It takes 3 arguments
 3601 being the group name and key name (both `string`), and a default **float** value used as exception in
 3602 the case the expected combination of group and key cannot be found in the configuration file. This
 3603 default value is then used and the DAQ continues on working after sending an alert in the log file for
 3604 further debugging.

3605

3606 A.5.3 WebDCS/DAQ intercommunication

3607 When shifters send instructions to the DAQ via the configuration file, it is the webDCS itself that
 3608 gives the start command to the DAQ and then the 2 softwares use inter-process communication
 3609 through file to synchronise themselves. This communication file is represented by the variable `const`
 3610 `string __runstatuspath`.

3611 On one side, the webDCS sends commands or status that are readout by the DAQ:

- 3612 • INIT, status sent when launching a scan and read via function `CtrlRunStatus(...)`,
- 3613 • START, command to start data taking and read via function `CheckSTART()`,
- 3614 • STOP, command to stop data taking at the end of the scan and read via function `CheckSTOP()`,
 3615 and
- 3616 • KILL, command to kill data taking sent by user and read via function `CheckKILL()`. Note that
 3617 the DAQ doesn't stop before the current ROOT file is safely written and saved.

3618 and on the other, the DAQ sends status that are controled by the webDCS:

- 3619 • DAQ_RDY, sent with `SendDAQReady()` to signify that the DAQ is ready to receive commands
 3620 from the webDCS,
- 3621 • RUNNING, sent with `SendDAQRunning()` to signify that the DAQ is taking data,
- 3622 • DAQ_ERR, sent with `SendDAQError()` to signify that the DAQ didn't receive the expected com-
 3623 mand from the webDCS or that the launch command didn't have the right number of argu-
 3624 ments,
- 3625 • RD_ERR, sent when the DAQ wasn't able to read the communication file, and
- 3626 • WR_ERR, sent when the DAQ wasn't able to write into the communication file.

3627 A.5.4 Example of inter-process communication cycle

3628 Under normal conditions, the webDCS and the DAQ processes exchange commands and status via
 3629 the file hosted at the address `__runstatuspath`, as explained in subsection A.5.3. An example of
 3630 cycle is given in Table A.1. In this example, the steps 3 to 5 are repeated as long as the webDCS tells
 3631 the DAQ to take data. A data taking cycle is the equivalent as what is called a *Scan* in GIFT++ jargon,

3632 referring to a set a runs with several HV steps. Each repetition of steps 3 to 5 is then equivalent to a
 3633 single *Run*.

3634 At any moment during the data taking, for any reason, the shifter can decide that the data taking
 3635 needs to be stopped before it reached the end of the scheduled cycle. Thus at any moment on the
 3636 cycle, the content of the inter-process communication file will be changed to `KILL` and the DAQ will
 3637 shut down right away. The DAQ checks for `KILL` signals every 5s after the TDCs configuration is
 3638 over. So far, the function `CheckKILL()` has been used only inside of the data taking loop of method
 3639 `DataReader::Run()` and thus, if the shifter decides to KILL the data taking during the TDC con-
 3640 figuration phase or the HV ramping in between 2 HV steps, the DAQ will not be stopped smoothly
 3641 and a *force kill* command will be sent to stop the DAQ process that is still awake on the computer.
 3642 Improvements can be brought on this part of the software to make sure that the DAQ can safely
 3643 shutdown at any moment.

3644

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

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

A.6 Software export

3645 In section A.2 was discussed the fact that the DAQ as written in its last version is not a standalone
 3646 software. It is possible to make it a standalone program that could be adapted to any VME setup

3648 using V1190A and V1718 modules by creating a GUI for the software or by printing the log messages
3649 that are normally printed in the webDCS through the log file, directly into the terminal. This
3650 method was used by the DAQ up to version 3.0 moment where the webDCS was completed. Also, it
3651 is possible to check branches of DAQ v2.X to have example of communication through a terminal.
3652 DAQ v2.X is nonetheless limited in its possibilities and requires a lot of offline manual interventions
3653 from the users. Indeed, there is no communication of the software with the detectors' power
3654 supply system that would allow for a user a predefine a list of voltages to operate the detectors at
3655 and loop over to take data without any further manual intervention. In v2.X, the data is taken for a
3656 single detector setting and at the end of each run, the softwares asks the user if he intends on taking
3657 more runs. If so, the software invites the user to set the operating voltages accordingly to what is
3658 necessary and to manual update the configuration file in consequence. This working mode can be a
3659 very first approach before an evolution and has been successfully used by colleagues from different
3660 collaborations.

3661 For a more robust operation, it is recommended to develop a GUI or a web application to interface
3662 the DAQ. Moreover, to limit the amount of manual interventions, and thus the probability to make
3663 mistakes, it is also recommended to add an extra feature into the DAQ by installing the HV Wrapper
3664 library provided by CAEN of which an example of use in a similar DAQ software developped by a
3665 master student of UGent, and called TinyDAQ, is provided on UGent's github. Then, this HV Wrapper
3666 will help you communicating with and give instructions to a CAEN HV powered crate and can
3667 be added into the DAQ at the same level where the communication with the user was made in DAQ
3668 v2.X. In case you are using another kind of power system for your detectors, it is stringly adviced to
3669 use HV modules or crates that can be remotely controloled via a using C++ libraries.

3670

B

3671

3672

Details on the offline analysis package

3673 The data collected in GIF++ thanks to the DAQ described in Appendix A is difficult to interpret by
3674 a human user that doesn't have a clear idea of the raw data architecture of the ROOT data files. In
3675 order to render the data human readable, a C++ offline analysis tool was designed to provide users
3676 with detector by detector histograms that give a clear overview of the parameters monitored during
3677 the data acquisition [104]. In this appendix, details about this software in the context of GIF++, as
3678 of how the software was written and how it functions will be given.

3679 B.1 GIF++ Offline Analysis file tree

3680 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
3681 as it takes ROOT files in input and write an output ROOT file containing histograms. To compile the
3682 GIF++ Offline Analysis project is compiled with cmake. To compile, first a build/ directory must
3683 be created to compile from there:

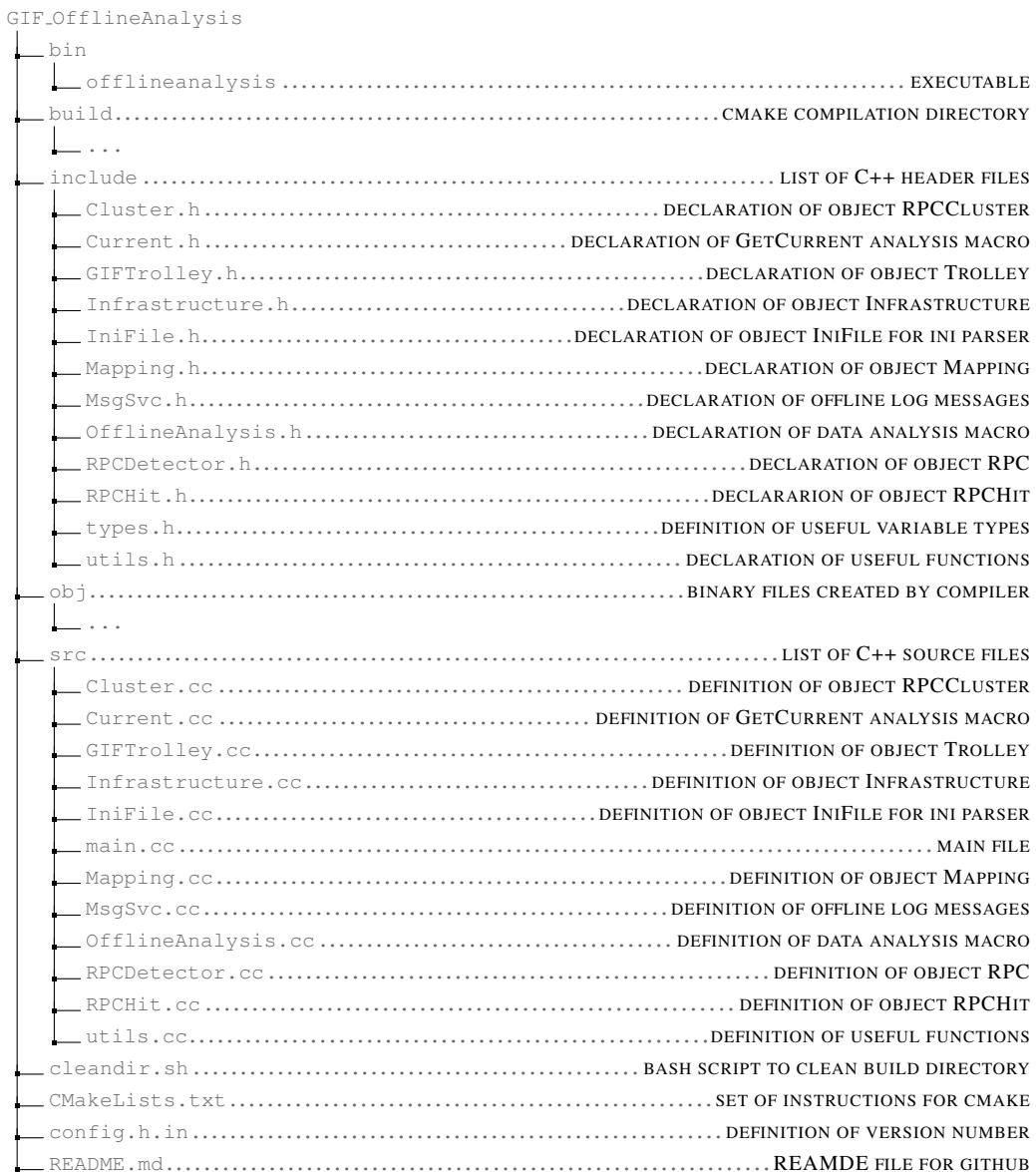
```
3685 mkdir build
3686 cd build
3687 cmake ..
3688 make
3689 make install
```

3687 To clean the directory and create a new build directory, the bash script cleandir.sh can be used:

```
3688
3689 ./cleandir.sh
```

3690 The source code tree is provided below along with comments to give an overview of the files' con-
3691 tent. The different objects created for this project (`Infrastructure`, `Trolley`, `RPC`, `Mapping`, `RPCHit`,
3692 `RPCCluster` and `Inifile`) will be described in details in the following sections.

3693



3694

B.2 Usage of the Offline Analysis

3695

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:

3697

3698

```
Scan00XXXX_HVY
```

3699

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

3700

3701 of the GIF++ webDCS. Usually, the offline analysis tool is automatically called by the webDCS at
 3702 the end of data taking or by a user from the webDCS panel if an update of the tool was brought.
 3703 Nonetheless, an expert can locally launch the analysis for tests on the GIF++ computer, or a user can
 3704 get the code on its local machine from github and download data from the webDCS for its own anal-
 3705 ysis. To launch the code, the following command can be used from the `GIF_OfflineAnalysis` folder:

3706

```
3707 bin/offlineanalysis /path/to/Scan00XXXX_HVY
```

3708 where, `/path/to/Scan00XXXX_HVY` refers to the local data files. Then, the offline tool will by itself
 3709 take care of finding all available ROOT data files present in the folder, as listed below:

3710

- `Scan00XXXX_HVY_DAQ.root` containing the TDC data as described in Appendix A.4.2 (events,
 3711 hit and timestamp lists), and
- `Scan00XXXX_HVY_CAEN.root` containing the CAEN mainframe data recorded by the monitor-
 3713 ing tool webDCS during data taking (HVs and currents of every HV channels). This file is
 3714 created independently of the DAQ.

3715

B.2.1 Output of the offline tool

3716

B.2.1.1 ROOT file

3717

The analysis gives in output ROOT datafiles that are saved into the data folder and called using the
 3718 naming convention `Scan00XXXX_HVY_Offline.root`. Inside those, a list of `TH1` histograms can be
 3719 found. Its size will vary as a function of the number of detectors in the setup as each set of histograms
 3720 is produced detector by detector. For each partition of each chamber, can be found:

3721

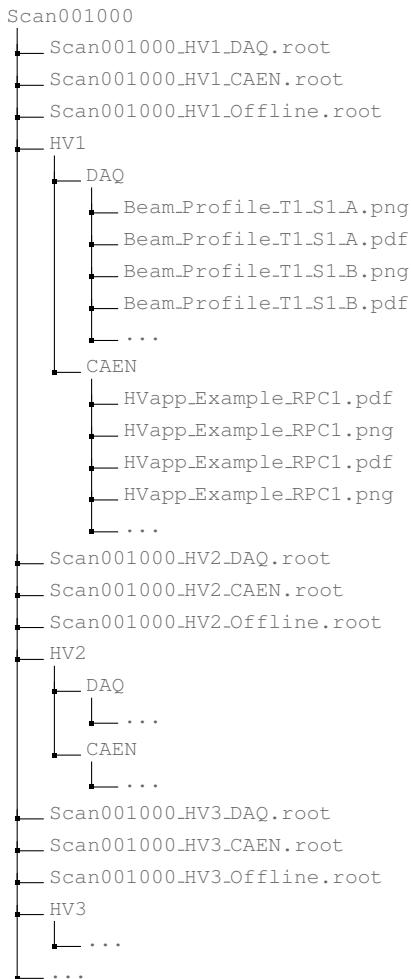
- `Time_Profile_Tt_Sc_p` shows the time profile of all recorded events (number of events per
 3722 time bin),
- `Hit_Profile_Tt_Sc_p` shows the hit profile of all recorded events (number of events per chan-
 3724 nel),
- `Hit_Multiplicity_Tt_Sc_p` shows the hit multiplicity (number of hits per event) of all recorded
 3726 events (number of occurrences per multiplicity bin),
- `Strip_Mean_Noise_Tt_Sc_p` shows noise/gamma rate per unit area for each strip in a se-
 3728 lected time range. After filters are applied on `Time_Profile_Tt_Sc_p`, the filtered version
 3729 of `Hit_Profile_Tt_Sc_p` is normalised to the total integrated time and active detection area
 3730 of a single channel,
- `Strip_Activity_Tt_Sc_p` shows noise/gamma activity for each strip (normalised version of
 3732 previous histogram - strip activity = strip rate / average partition rate),
- `Strip_Homogeneity_Tt_Sc_p` shows the *homogeneity* of a given partition ($\text{homogeneity} = \exp(-\text{strip rates standard deviation(strip rates in partition/average partition rate)})$),
- `mask_Strip_Mean_Noise_Tt_Sc_p` shows noise/gamma rate per unit area for each masked
 3736 strip in a selected time range. Offline, the user can control the noise/gamma rate and decide to
 3737 mask the strips that are judged to be noisy or dead. This is done via the *Masking Tool* provided
 3738 by the webDCS,

- 3739 ● `mask_Strip_Activity_Tt_Sc_p` shows noise/gamma activity per unit area for each masked
3740 strip with respect to the average rate of active strips,
- 3741 ● `NoiseCSize_H_Tt_Sc_p` shows noise/gamma cluster size, a cluster being constructed out of
3742 adjacent strips giving a signal at the *same time* (hits within a time window of 25 ns),
- 3743 ● `NoiseCMult_H_Tt_Sc_p` shows noise/gamma cluster multiplicity (number of reconstructed
3744 clusters per event),
- 3745 ● `Chip_Mean_Noise_Tt_Sc_p` shows the same information than `Strip_Mean_Noise_Tt_Scp` us-
3746 ing a different binning (1 chip corresponds to 8 strips),
- 3747 ● `Chip_Activity_Tt_Sc_p` shows the same information than `Strip_Activity_Tt_Scp` using
3748 chip binning,
- 3749 ● `Chip_Homogeneity_Tt_Sc_p` shows the homogeneity of a given partition using chip binning,
- 3750 ● `Beam_Profile_Tt_Sc_p` shows the estimated beam profile when taking efficiency scan. This
3751 is obtained by filtering `Time_Profile_Tt_Sc_p` to only consider the muon peak where the
3752 noise/gamma background has been subtracted. The resulting hit profile corresponds to the
3753 beam profile on the detector channels,
- 3754 ● `L0_Efficiency_Tt_Sc_p` shows the level 0 efficiency that was estimated **without** muon track-
3755 ing,
- 3756 ● `MuonCSize_H_Tt_Sc_p` shows the level 0 muon cluster size that was estimated **without** muon
3757 tracking, and
- 3758 ● `MuonCMult_H_Tt_Sc_p` shows the level 0 muon cluster multiplicity that was estimated **without**
3759 muon tracking.

3760 In the histogram labels, t stands for the trolley number (1 or 3), c for the chamber slot label in
3761 trolley t and p for the partition label (A, B, C or D depending on the chamber layout) as explained
3762 in Chapter 5.3.

3763 In the context of GIF++, an extra script called by the webDCS is called to extract the histograms
3764 from the ROOT files. The histograms are then stored in PNG and PDF formats into the correspond-
3765 ing folder (a single folder per HV step, so per ROOT file). the goal is to then display the histograms
3766 on the Data Quality Monitoring (DQM) page of the webDCS in order for the users to control the
3767 quality of the data taking at the end of data taking. An example of histogram organisation is given
3768 below:

3769
3770



3771 ***Here can put some screens from the webDCS to show the DQM and the plots available to users.***
 3772

3773 **B.2.1.2 CSV files**

3774 Moreover, up to 3 CSV files can be created depending on which ones of the 3 input files were in the
 3775 data folder:

- 3776 ● `Offline-Corrupted.csv` , is used to keep track of the amount of data that was corrupted and
 3777 removed from old data format files that don't contain any data quality flag.
- 3778 ● `Offline-Current.csv` , contains the summary of the currents and voltages applied on each
 3779 RPC HV channel.
- 3780 ● `Offline-L0-EffC1.csv` , is used to write the efficiencies, cluster size and cluster multiplicity
 3781 of efficiency runs. Note that `L0` refers here to *Level 0* and means that the results of efficiency and
 3782 clusterization are a first approximation calculated without performing any muon tracking in

3783 between the different detectors. This offline tool provides the user with a preliminar calculation
 3784 of the efficiency and of the muon event parameters. Another analysis software especially
 3785 dedicated to muon tracking is called on selected data to retrieve the results of efficiency and
 3786 muon clusterization using a tracking algorithm to discriminate noise or gamma from muons
 3787 as muons are the only particles that pass through the full setup, leaving hits than can be used
 3788 to reconstruct their tracks.

- 3789
 - `Offline-Rate.csv`, is used to write the noise or gamma rates measured in the detector readout
 3790 partitions.

3791 Note that these 4 CSV files are created along with their *headers* (`Offline-[...]-Header.csv`
 3792 containing the names of each data columns) and are automatically merged together when the offline
 3793 analysis tool is called from the webDCS, contrary to the case where the tool is runned locally from
 3794 the terminal as the merging bash script is then not called. Thus, the resulting files, used to make
 3795 official plots, are:

- 3796
 - `Corrupted.csv`,
 - 3797 ● `Current.csv`,
 - 3798 ● `L0-EffCl.csv`.
 - 3799 ● `Rate.csv`.

3800 **B.3 Analysis inputs and information handling**

3801 The usage of the Offline Analysis tool as well as its output have been presented in the previous section.
 3802 It is now important to dig further and start looking at the source code and the inputs necessary
 3803 for the tool to work. Indeed, other than the raw ROOT data files that are analysed, more information
 3804 needs to be imported inside of the program to perform the analysis such as the description of the
 3805 setup inside of GIFT++ at the time of data taking (number of trolleys, of RPCs, dimensions of the
 3806 detectors, etc...) or the mapping that links the TDC channels to the coresponding RPC channels in
 3807 order to translate the TDC information into human readable data. 2 files are used to transmit all this
 3808 information:
 3809

- 3810
 - `Dimensions.ini`, that provides the necessary setup and RPC information, and
 - 3811 ● `ChannelsMapping.csv`, that gives the link between the TDC and RPC channels as well as the
 mask for each channel (masked or not?).

3813 **B.3.1 Dimensions file and InFile parser**

3814 This input file, present in every data folder, allows the analysis tool to know of the number of active
 3815 trolleys, the number of active RPCs in those trolleys, and the details about each RPCs such as
 3816 the number of RPC gaps, the number of pseudo-rapidity partitions (for CMS-like prototypes), the
 3817 number of strips per partion or the dimensions. To do so, there are 3 types of groups in the INI file
 3818 architecture. A first general group, appearing only once at the head of the document, gives information
 3819 about the number of active trolleys as well as their IDs, as presented in Source Code B.1. For

3820 each active trolley, a group similar to Source Code B.2 can be found containing information about
 3821 the number of active detectors in the trolley and their IDs. Each trolley group as a `Tt` name format,
 3822 where `t` is the trolley ID. Finally, for each detector stored in slots of an active trolley, there is a group
 3823 providing information about their names and dimensions, as shown in Source Code B.3. Each slot
 3824 group as a `TtSs` name format, where `s` is the slot ID of trolley `t` where the active RPC is hosted.

```
3825 [General]
3826 nTrolleys=2
  TrolleysID=13
```

3827 *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 single string as "13" and then read character by character by the program.*

```
3828 [T1]
  nSlots=4
  SlotsID=1234
```

3829 *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.*

```
3830 [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
```

3831 *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.*

3832 This information is readout and stored in a C++ object called `IniFile`, that parses the information
 3833 in the INI input file and stores it into a local buffer for later use. This INI parser is the exact same
 3834 one that was previously developed for the Gif++ DAQ and described in Appendix A.5.2.

3835 B.3.2 TDC to RPC link file and Mapping

3836 The same way the INI dimension file information is stored using `map`, the channel mapping and mask
 3837 information is stored and accessed through `map`. First of all, the mapping CSV file is organised into
 3838 3 columns separated by tabulations (and not by commas, as expected for CSV files as it is easier using
 3839 streams to read tab or space separated data using C++):

3840

3841	RPC_channel	TDC_channel	mask
------	-------------	-------------	------

3842 using as formatting for each field:

3843	TSCCC	TCCC	M
------	-------	------	---

3845 TSCCC is a 5-digit integer where τ is the trolley ID, s the slot ID in which the RPC is held insite
 3846 the trolley τ and ccc is the RPC channel number, or *strip* number, that can take values up to
 3847 3-digits depending on the detector,

3848 TCCC is a 4 digit integer where τ is the TDC ID, ccc is the TDC channel number that can take values
 3849 in between 0 and 127, and

3850 M is a 1-digit integer indicating if the channel should be considered ($M = 1$) or discarded ($M = 0$)
 3851 during analysis.

3852 This mapping and masking information is readout and stored thanks to the object `Mapping`, pre-
 3853 sented in Source Code B.4. Similarly to `IniFile` objects, this class has private methods. The first
 3854 one, `Mapping::CheckIfNewLine()` is used to find the newline character '`\n`' or return character
 3855 '`\r`' (depending on which kind of operating system interacted with the file). This is used for the
 3856 simple reason that the masking information has been introduced only during the year 2017 but the
 3857 channel mapping files exist since 2015 and the very beginning of data taking at GIF++. This means
 3858 that in the older data folders, before the upgrade, the channel mapping file only had 2 columns, the
 3859 RPC channel and the TDC channel. For compatibility reasons, this method helps controling the
 3860 character following the readout of the 2 first fields of a line. In case any end of line character is
 3861 found, no mask information is present in the file and the default $M = 1$ is used. On the contrary, if
 3862 the next character was a tabulation or a space, the mask information is present.

3863 Once the 3 fields have been readout, the second private method `Mapping::CheckIfTDCCh()` is
 3864 used to control that the TDC channel is an existing TDC channel. Finally, the information is stored
 3865 into 3 different maps (`Link`, `ReverseLink` and `Mask`) thanks to the public method `Mapping::Read()`.
 3866 `Link` allows to get the RPC channel by knowing the TDC channel while `ReverseLink` does the op-
 3867 posite by returning the TDC channel by knowing the RPC channel. Finally, `Mask` returns the mask
 3868 associated to a given RPC channel.

```

3869 typedef map<Uint,Uint> MappingData;

3870 class Mapping {
3871     private:
3872         bool          CheckIfNewLine(char next);
3873         bool          CheckIfTDCCh(Uint channel);
3874         string        FileName;
3875         MappingData  Link;
3876         MappingData  ReverseLink;
3877         MappingData  Mask;
3878         int           Error;
3879
3880     public:
3881         Mapping();
3882         Mapping(string baseName);
3883         ~Mapping();

3884         void SetFileName(const string filename);
3885         int Read();
3886         Uint GetLink(Uint tdcchannel);
3887         Uint GetReverse(Uint rpcchannel);
3888         Uint GetMask(Uint rpcchannel);
3889     };

```

3871 *Source Code B.4: Description of C++ object Mapping used as a parser for the channel mapping and mask file.*

3872 B.4 Description of GIF++ setup within the Offline Analysis tool

3873 In the previous section, the tool input files have been discussed. The dimension file information is
 3874 stored in a map hosted by the `IniFile` object. But this information is then used to create a series of
 3875 new objects that helps defining the GIF++ infrastructure directly into the Offline Analysis. Indeed,
 3876 from the `RPC`, to the more general `Infrastructure`, every element of the GIF++ infrastrucutre is
 3877 recreated for each data analysis based on the information provided in input. All this information
 3878 about the infrastructure will be used to assign each hit signal to a specific strip channel of a specific
 3879 detector, and having a specific active area. This way, rate per unit area calculation is possible.
 3880

3881 B.4.1 RPC objects

3882 `RPC` objects have been developped to represent physical active detectors in GIF++ at the moment
 3883 of data taking. Thus, there are as many `RPC` objects created during the analysis than there were
 3884 active `RPCs` tested during a run. Each `RPC` hosts the information present in the corresponding INI
 3885 slot group, as shown in B.3, and organises it using a similar architecture. This can be seen from
 3886 Source B.5.

3887 To make the object more compact, the lists of gap labels, of gap active areas and strip active
 3888 areas are stored into `vector` dynamical containers. `RPC` objects are always contructed thanks to the
 3889 dimension file information stored into the `IniFILE` and their ID, using the format `TtSs`. Using the
 3890 `RPC` ID, the constructor calls the methods of `IniFILE` to initialise the `RPC`. The other constructors
 3891 are not used but exist in case of need. Finally, some getters have been written to access the different
 3892 private parameters storing the detector information.

```

3893 class RPC{
3894     private:
3895         string      name;           //RPC name as in webDCS database
3896         Uint        nGaps;          //Number of gaps in the RPC
3897         Uint        nPartitions;    //Number of partitions in the RPC
3898         Uint        nStrips;        //Number of strips per partition
3899         vector<string> gaps;       //List of gap labels (BOT, TOP, etc...)
3900         vector<float>  gapGeo;        //List of gap active areas
3901         vector<float>  stripGeo;      //List of strip active areas
3902
3903     public:
3904         RPC();
3905         RPC(string ID, IniFile* geofile);
3906         RPC(const RPC& other);
3907         ~RPC();
3908         RPC& operator=(const RPC& other);
3909
3910         string GetName();
3911         Uint GetNGaps();
3912         Uint GetNPartitions();
3913         Uint GetNStrips();
3914         string GetGap(Uint g);
3915         float GetGapGeo(Uint g);
3916         float GetStripGeo(Uint p);
3917     };

```

3895 *Source Code B.5: Description of C++ objects RPC that describe each active detectors used during data taking.*

3896 B.4.2 Trolley objects

3897 Trolley objects have been developped to represent physical active trolleys in GIFT++ at the moment
 3898 of data taking. Thus, there are as many trolley objects created during the analysis than there were
 3899 active trolleys hosting tested RPCs during a run. Each Trolley hosts the information present in the
 3900 corresponding INI trolley group, as shown in B.2, and organises it using a similar architecture. In
 3901 addition to the information hosted in the INI file, these object have a dynamical container of RPC
 3902 objects, representing the active detectors the active trolley was hosting at the time of data taking.
 3903 This can been seen from Source Code B.6.

3904 Trolley objects are always contructed thanks to the dimension file information stored into the
 3905 IniFILE and their ID, using the format Tt. Using the Trolley ID, the constructor calls the methods
 3906 of IniFILE to initialise the Trolley. Retrieving the information of the RPC IDs via SlotsID, a new
 3907 RPC is constructed and added to the container RPCs for each character in the ID string. The other
 3908 constructors are not used but exist in case of need. Finally, some getters have been written to access
 3909 the different private parameters storing the trolley and detectors information.

```

3910
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.

3913 B.4.3 Infrastructure object

3914 The `Infrastructure` object has been developped to represent the GIFT++ bunker area dedicated to
 3915 CMS RPC experiments. With this very specific object, all the information about the CMS RPC
 3916 setup within GIFT++ at the moment of data taking is stored. It hosts the information present in the
 3917 corresponding INI general group, as shown in B.1, and organises it using a similar architecture. In
 3918 addition to the information hosted in the INI file, this object have a dynamical container of `Trolley`
 3919 objects, representing the active tolleys in GIFT++ area. This can be seen from Source Code B.7.

3920 The `Infrastructure` object is always contructed thanks to the dimension file information stored
 3921 into the `IniFILE`. Retrieving the information of the trolley IDs via `TrolleysID`, a new `Trolley` is
 3922 constructed and added to the container `Trolleys` for each character in the ID `string`. By extension,
 3923 it is easy to understand that the process described in Section B.4.2 for the construction of RPCs
 3924 takes place when a trolley is constructed. The other constructors are not used but exist in case of
 3925 need. Finally, some getters have been written to access the different private parameters storing the
 3926 infrastructure, tolleys and detectors information.

```

3927
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);

3928
        //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++.

3930 B.5 Handeling of data

3931 As discussed in Appendix A.4.2, the raw data as a `TTree` architecture where every entry is related to
 3932 a trigger signal provided by a muon or a random pulse, whether the goal of the data taking was to
 3933 measure the performance of the detector or the noise/gamma background respectively. Each of these
 3934 entries, referred also as events, contain a more or less full list of hits in the TDC channels to which
 3935 the detectors are connected. To this list of hits corresponds a list of time stamps, marking the arrival
 3936 of the hits within the TDC channel.

3937 The infrastructure of the CMS RPC experiment within GIF++ being defined, combining the
 3938 information about the raw data with the information provided by both the mapping/mask file and the
 3939 dimension file allows to build new physical objects that will help in computing efficiency or rates.

3940 B.5.1 RPC hits

3941 The raw data stored in the ROOT file as output of the GIFT++ DAQ, is readout by the analysis tool
 3942 using the structure `RAWData` presented in Source Code B.9 that differs from the structure presented
 3943 in Appendix A.4.2 as it is not meant to hold all of the data contained in the ROOT file. In this sense,
 3944 this structure is in the case of the offline analysis tool not a dynamical object and will only be storing
 3945 a single event contained in a single entry of the `TTree`.

```
3946
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 occurred (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);
```

3948 *Source Code B.8: Description of C++ object RPCHit.*

```
3949
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
};
```

3950 *Source Code B.9: Description of C++ structure RAWData.*

3951 Each member of the structure is then linked to the corresponding branch of the ROOT data tree,
 3952 as shown in the example of Source Code B.10, and using the method `GetEntry(int i)` of the ROOT
 3953 class `TTree` will update the state of the members of `RAWData`.

```

3954   TTree* dataTree = (TTree*)dataFile.Get("RAWData");
3955   RAWData data;
3956
3957   dataTree->SetBranchAddress("EventNumber", &data.iEvent);
3958   dataTree->SetBranchAddress("number_of_hits", &data.TDCNHits);
3959   dataTree->SetBranchAddress("Quality_flag", &data.QFlag);
3960   dataTree->SetBranchAddress("TDC_channel", &data.TDCCh);
3961   dataTree->SetBranchAddress("TDC_TimeStamp", &data.TDCTS);

```

3956 *Source Code B.10: Example of link in between RAWData and TTree.*

3957 The data is then analysed entry by entry and to each element of the TDC channel list, a `RPCHit` is
 3958 constructed by linking each TDC channel to the corresponding RPC channel thanks to the `Mapping`
 3959 object. The information carried by the RPC channel format allows to easily retrieve the trolley and
 3960 slot from which the hit was recorded (see section B.3.2). Using these 2 values, the readout partition
 3961 can be found by knowing the strip channel and comparing it with the number of partitions and strips
 3962 per partition stored into the `Infrastructure` object.

3963 Thus `RPCHit` objects are then stored into 3D dynamical list called `GIFHitList` (Source Code B.9)
 3964 where the 3 dimensions refer to the 3 layers of the readout in `GIF++` : in the bunker there are *trolleys*
 3965 (τ) holding detectors in *slots* (s) and each detector readout is divided into 1 or more pseudo-rapidity
 3966 *partitions* (p). Using these 3 information allows to assign an address to each readout partition and
 3967 this address will point to a specific hit list.

3968

3969 **B.5.2 Clusters of hits**

3970 All the hits contained in the ROOT file have been sorted into the different hit lists through the
 3971 `GIFHitList`. At this point, it is possible to start looking for clusters. A cluster is a group of adjacent
 3972 strips getting hits within a time window of 25 ns. These strips are then assumed to be part of the same
 3973 physical avalanche signal generated by a muon passing through the chamber or by the interaction of
 3974 a gamma stopping into the electrodes of the RPCs.

3975 To keep the cluster information, `RPCCluster` objects have been defined as shown in Source
 3976 Code B.11. Using the information of each individual `RPCHit` taken out of the hit list, it stores
 3977 the cluster size (number of adjacent strips composing the cluster), the first and last hit, the center for
 3978 spatial reconstruction and finally the start and stop time stamps as well as te time spread in between
 3979 the first and last hit.

```

3980
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);

```

3982 *Source Code B.11: Description of C++ object Cluster.*

3983 To investigate the hit list of a given detector partition, the function `Clusterization()` defined
 3984 in `include/Cluster.h` needs the hits in the list to be time sorted. This is achieved by calling func-
 3985 tion `sort()` of library `<algorithm>` using the comparator `SortHitbyTime(RPCHit h1, RPCHit h2)`
 3986 defined in `include/RPCHit.h` that returns `true` if the time stamp of hit `h1` is lower than that of `h2`.
 3987 A first isolation of strips is made only based on time information. All the hits within the 25 ns win-
 3988 dow are taken separately from the rest. Then, this sub-list of hits is sorted this time by ascending
 3989 strip number, using this time the comparator `SortHitbyStrip(RPCHit h1, RPCHit h2)`. Finally, the
 3990 groups of adjacent strips are used to construct `RPCCluster` objects that are then stored in a temporary
 3991 list of clusters that is at the end of the process used to know how many clusters were reconstructed
 3992 and to fill their sizes into an histogram that will allows to know the mean size of muon or gamma
 3993 clusters.

3994

3995 **B.6 DAQ data Analysis**

3996 All the ingredients to analyse GIF++ data have been defined. This section will focus on the different
 3997 part of the analysis performed on the data, from determining the type of data the tool is dealing with

3998 to calculating the rate in each detector or reconstructing muon or gamma clusters.

3999 B.6.1 Determination of the run type

4000 In GIF++, both the performance of the detectors in detecting muons in an irradiated environment and
 4001 the gamma background can be independantly measured. These corresponds to different run types
 4002 and thus, to different TDC settings giving different data to look at.

4003

4004 In the case of performance measurements, the trigger for data taking is provided by the coïncidence
 4005 of several scintillators when muons from the beam passing through the area are detected. Data
 4006 is collected in a 600 ns wide window around the arrival of muons in the RPCs. The expected time
 4007 distribution of hits is shown in Figure B.1a. The muon peak is clearly visible in the center of the
 4008 distribution and is to be extracted from the gamma background that composes the flat part of the
 4009 distribution.

4010 On the other hand, gamma background or noise measurements are focussed on the non muon
 4011 related physics and the trigger needs to be independant from the muons to give a good measurement
 4012 of the gamma/noise distribution as seen by the detectors. The trigger is then provided by a pulse
 4013 generator at a frequency of 300 Hz whose pulse is not likely to be on time with a muon. In order
 4014 to increase the integrated time without increasing the acquisition time too much, the width of the
 4015 acquisition windows are increased to 10 μ s. The time distribution of the hits is expected to be flat, as
 4016 shown by Figure B.1b.

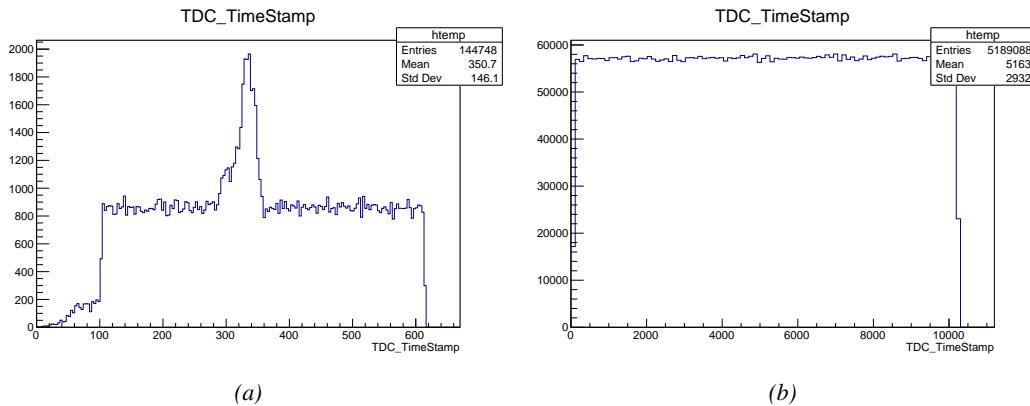


Figure B.1: Example of expected hit time distributions in the cases of efficiency (Figure B.1a) and noise/gamma rate per unit area (Figure B.1b) measurements as extracted from the raw ROOT files. The unit along the x-axis corresponds to ns. The fact that "the" muon peak is not well defined in Figure 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 inconsistency in the first 100 ns of both time distributions is an artefact of the TDCs and are systematically rejected during the analysis.

4017 The ROOT files include a TTree called RunParameters containing, among other things, the in-
 4018 formation related to the type of run. The run type can then be accessed as described by Source
 4019 Code B.12 and the function IsEfficiencyRun() is then used to determine if the run file is an effi-
 4020 ciency run or, on the contrary, another type of run (noise or gamma measurement).

```

4021
4022     TTree* RunParameters = (TTree*)dataFile.Get("RunParameters");
4023     TString* RunType = new TString();
4024     RunParameters->SetBranchAddress("RunType", &RunType);
4025     RunParameters->GetEntry(0);

```

4023 *Source Code B.12: Access to the run type contained in TTree* RunParameters.*

4024 Finally, the data files will have a slightly different content whether it was collected before or after
4025 October 2017 and the upgrade of the DAQ software that brought a new information into the ROOT
4026 output. This is discussed in Appendix A.4.3 and implies that the analysis will differ a little depending
4027 on the data format. Indeed, as no information on the data quality is stored, in older data files, the cor-
4028 rections for missing events has to be done at the end of the analysis. The information about the type
4029 of data format is stored in the variable **bool** `isNewFormat` by checking the list of branches contained
4030 in the data tree via the methods `TTree::GetListOfBranches()` and `TCollection::Contains()`.

4031 **B.6.2 Beam time window calculation for efficiency runs**

4032 Knowing the run type is important first of all to know the width of the acquisition window to be used
4033 for the rate calculation and finally to be able to seek for muons. Indeed, the peak that appears in the
4034 time distribution for each detectors is then fitted to extract the most probable time window in which
4035 the tool should look for muon hits. The data outside of this time window is then used to evaluate the
4036 noise or gamma background the detector was subjected to during the data taking. Computing the
4037 position of the peak is done calling the function `SetBeamWindow()` defined in file `src/RPCHit.cc` that
4038 loops a first time on the data. The data is first sorted in a 3D array of 1D histograms (`GIFH1Array`, see
4039 `include/types.h`). Then the location of the highest bin is determined using `TH1::GetMaximumBin()`
4040 and is used to define a window in which a gaussian fit will be applied to compute the peak width.
4041 This window is a 80 ns defined by Formula B.1 around the central bin.

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

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

4042 Before the fit is performed, the average number of noise/gamma hits per bin is evaluated using
4043 the data outside of the fit window. Excluding the first 100 ns, the average number of hits per bin
4044 due to the noise or gamma is defined by Formula B.2 after extracting the amount of hits in the time
4045 windows $[100; t_{low}]$ and $[t_{high}; 600]$ thanks to the method `TH1::Integral()`. This average number
4046 of hits is then subtracted to every bin of the 1D histogram, in order to *clean* it from the noise or
4047 gamma contribution as much as possible to improve the fit quality. Bins where $\langle n_{hits} \rangle$ is greater
4048 than the actual bin content are set to 0.

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

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

4049 Finally, the fit parameters are extracted and saved for each detector in 3D arrays of **float**
4050 (`muonPeak`, see `include/types.h`), a first one for the mean arrival time of the muons, `PeakTime`,

4051 and a second one for the width of the peak, `PeakWidth`. The width is defined as 6σ of the gaussian
 4052 fit. The same settings are applied to every partitions of the same detector. To determine which one
 4053 of the detector's partitions is directly illuminated by the beam, the peak height of each partition is
 4054 compared and the highest one is then used to define the peak settings.

4055 **B.6.3 Data loop and histogram filling**

4056 3D arrays of histogram are created to store the data and display it on the DQM of GIF++ webDCS
 4057 for the use of shifters. These histograms, presented in section B.2.1.1, are filled while looping on
 4058 the data. Before starting the analysis loop, it is necessary to control the entry quality for the new
 4059 file formats featuring `QFlag`. If the `QFlag` value for this entry shows that 1 TDC or more have a
 4060 `CORRUPTED` flag, then this event is discarded. The loss of statistics is low enough to be neglected.
 4061 `QFlag` is controled using the function `IsCorruptedEvent()` defined in `src/utils.cc`. As explained
 4062 in Appendix A.4.3, each digit of this integer represent a TDC flag that can be 1 or 2. Each 2 is
 4063 the sign of a `CORRUPTED` state. Then, the data is accessed entry by entry in the ROOT `TTree` using
 4064 `RAWData` and each hit in the hit list is assigned to a detector channel and saved in the corresponding
 4065 histograms. In the first part of the analysis, in which the loop over the ROOT file's content is
 4066 performed, the different steps are:

4067 **1- RPC channel assignment and control:** a check is done on the RPC channel extracted thanks
 4068 to the mapping via the method `Mapping::GetLink()`. If the channel is not initialised and is 0, or if
 4069 the TDC channel was greater than 5127, the hit is discarded. This means there was a problem in the
 4070 mapping. Often a mapping problem leads to the crash of the offline tool.

4071 **2- Creation of a `RPCHit` object:** to easily get the trolley, slot and partition in which the hit has
 4072 been assigned, this object is particularly helpful.

4073 **3- General histograms are filled:** the hit is filled into the time distribution and the general hit
 4074 distribution histograms, and if the arrival time is within the first 100 ns, it is discarded and nothing
 4075 else happens and the loop proceeds with the next hit in the list.

4076 **4- Multiplicity counter:** the hit multiplicity counter of the corresponding detectors incremented.

4077 **5-a- Efficiency runs - Is the hit within the peak window? :** if the peak is contained in the peak
 4078 window previously defined in section B.6.2, the hit is filled into the beam hit profile histogram of
 4079 the corresponding chamber, added into the list of muon hits and increments the counter of *in time*
 4080 hits. The term *in time* here refers to the hits that are likely to be muons by arriving in the expected
 4081 time window. If the hit is outside of the peak window, it is filled into the noise profile histogram
 4082 of the corresponding detector, added into the list of noise/gamma hits and increments the counter of
 4083 noise/gamma hits.

4084 **5-b- Noise/gamma rate runs - Noise histograms are filled:** the hit is filled into the noise profile
 4085 histogram of the corresponding detector, added into the list of noise/gamma hits and increments the
 4086 counter of noise/gamma hits.

4088 After the loop on the hit list of the entry is over, the next step is to clusterize the 3D lists filled
 4089 in the previous steps. A 3D loop is then started over the active trolley, slot and RPC partitions to
 4090 access these objects. Each `NoiseHitList` and `MuonHitList`, in case of efficiency run, are clusterized
 4091 as described in section B.5.2. There corresponding cluster size and multiplicity histograms are filled
 4092 at the end of the clustering process. Then, the efficiency histogram is filled in case of efficiency run.
 4093 The selection is simply made by checking whether the RPC detected signals in the peak window
 4094 during this event. Nevertheless, it is useful to highlight that at this level, it is not possible yet to
 4095 discriminate in between a muon hit and noise or gamma hit. Thus, `MuonCSize_H`, `MuonCMult_H`
 4096 and `Efficiency0_H` are subjected to noise and gamma contamination. This contamination will be
 4097 estimated and corrected at the moment the results will be written into output CSV files. Finally, the
 4098 loop ends on the filling of the general hit multiplicity histogram.

4099 **B.6.4 Results calculation**

4100 As mentioned in section B.2.1, the analysis of DAQ data provides the user with 3 CSV files and
 4101 a ROOT file associated to each and every ROOT data file. The fourth CSV file is provided by the
 4102 extraction of the CEAN main frame data monitored during data taking and will be discussed later.
 4103 After looping on the data in the previous part of the analysis macro, the output files are created and a
 4104 3D loop on each RPC readout partitions is started to extract the histograms parameters and compute
 4105 the final results.

4106

4107 **B.6.4.1 Rate normalisation**

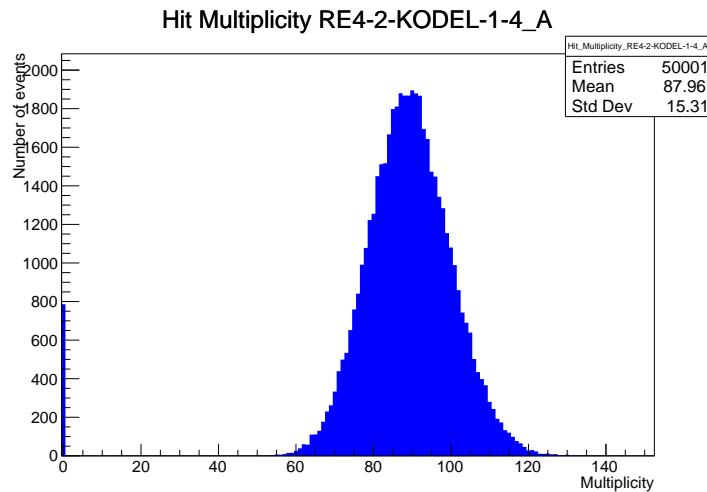


Figure B.2: The effect of the quality flag is explained by presenting the reconstructed hit multiplicity of a data file without `Quality_flag`. The artificial high content of bin 0 is the effect of corrupted data.

4108 To analyse old data format files, not containing any quality flag, it is needed to estimate the amount
 4109 of corrupted data via a fit as the corrupted data will always fill events with a fake "0 multiplicity".
 4110 Indeed, as no hits were stored in the DAQ ROOT files, these events artificially contribute to fill
 4111 the bin corresponding to a null multiplicity, as shown in Figure B.2. In the case the mean of the

4112 hit multiplicity distribution is high, the contribution of the corrupted data can easily be evaluated
 4113 for later correction by comparing the level of the bin at multiplicity 0 and of a skew fit curve that
 4114 should indicate a value consistent with 0. A skew fit has been chosen over a Poisson fit as it was
 4115 giving better results for lower mean multiplicity values. Nevertheless, for low irradiation cases,
 4116 as explained in Appendix A.4.3, the hit multiplicity distribution mean is, on the contrary, rather
 4117 small and the probability to record events without hits can't be considered small anymore, leading
 4118 to a difficult and non-reliable estimation of the corruption. As can be seen in Source Code B.13,
 4119 conditions have been applied to prevent bad fits and wrong corruption estimation in cases where :

4120 • The difference in between the data for multiplicity 1 and the corresponding fit value should be
 4121 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
 4122 of entries with multiplicity 1, $sk(1)$ the value of the skew fit, as defined by Formula ??, for
 4123 multiplicity 1 and N_{tot} the total number of entries.

4124 • The amount of data contained in the multiplicity 0 bin should not exceed 40% : $\frac{n_{m=0}}{N_{tot}} \leq 0.4$
 4125 where $n_{m=0}$ is the number of entries with multiplicity 0. This number has been determined
 4126 to be the maximum to be able to separate the excess of data due to corruption from the hit
 4127 multiplicity distribution.

4128 Those 2 conditions need to be fulfilled to estimate the corruption of old data format files. If the
 4129 fit was successful, the level of corruption is written in `Offline-Corrupted.csv` and the number of
 4130 corrupted entries, refered as the integer `nEmptyEvent`, is subtracted from the total number of entries
 4131 when the rate normalisation factor is computed as explicit in Source Code B.13. Note that for new
 4132 data format files, the number of corrupted entries being set to 0, the definition of `rate_norm` stays
 4133 valid.

```

4134
    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;

4135
        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 = GIFIInfra->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.

4137 B.6.4.2 Rate and activity

4138 At this point, the strip rate histograms, StripNoiseProfile_H.rpc[T][S][p], only contain an in-
 4139 formation about the total number of noise or rate hits each channel received during the data taking.
 4140 As described in Source Code B.14, a loop on the strip channels will be used to normalise the content
 4141 of the rate distribution histogram for each detector partitions. The initial number of hits recorded for
 4142 a given bin will be extracted and 2 values will be computed:

- 4143 ● the strip rate, defined as the number of hits recorded in the bin normalised like described in
 4144 the previous section, using the variable `rate_norm`, and

- 4145 ● the strip activity, defined as the number of hits recorded in the bin normalised to the average
 4146 number of hits per bin contained in the partition histogram, using the variable `averageNhit`.
 4147 This value provides an information on the homogeneity of the detector response to the gamma
 4148 background or of the detector noise. An activity of 1 corresponds to an average response.
 4149 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);
}

```

4151 *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.*

4152 On each detector partitions, which are readout by a single FEE, all the channels are not processed
 4153 by the same chip. Each chip can give a different noise response and thus, histograms using a chip
 4154 binning are used to investigate chip related noise behaviours. The average values of the strip rate
 4155 or activity grouped into a given chip are extracted using the using the function `GetChipBin()` and
 4156 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;
}

```

4159 *Source Code B.15: Function used to compute the content of a bin for an histogram using chip binning.*

```

4160   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 developed for this purpose.

```

4174   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}
      \rightarrow Rate}{\#mu_{Strip Rate}}\#right)",strip_homog);
   StripHomogeneity_H.rpc[T][S][p]->GetYaxis()->SetRangeUser(0.,1.);

4175   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}
      \rightarrow 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.

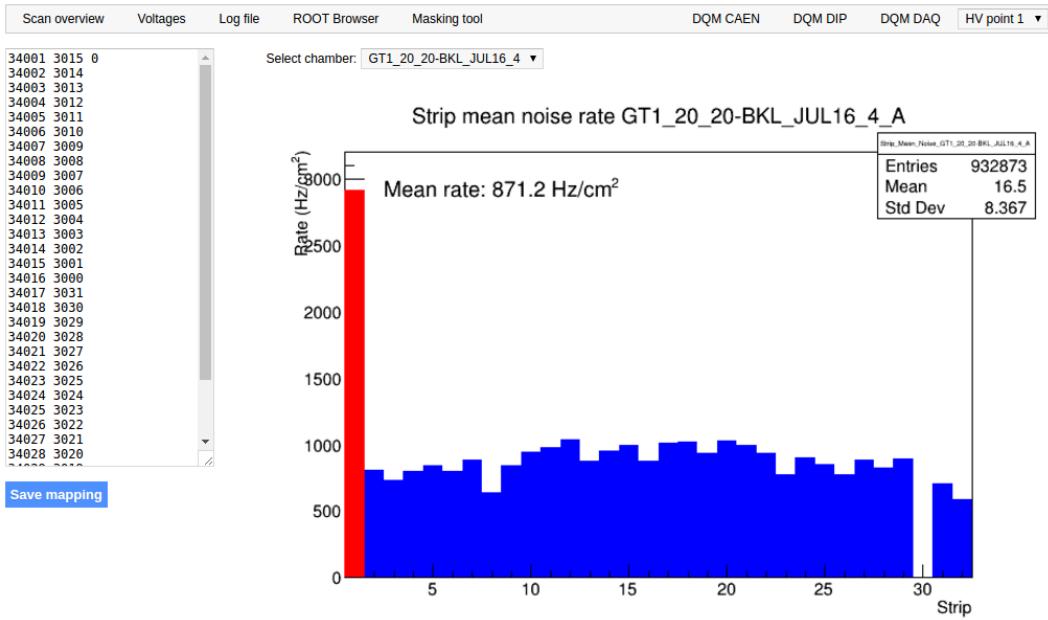


Figure B.3: Display of the masking tool page on the webDCS. The window on the left allows the shifter to edit ChannelsMapping.csv. To mask a channel, it only is needed to set the 3rd field corresponding to the strip to mask to 0. It is not necessary for older mapping file formats to add a 1 for each 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.

4183 From the code point of view, the function `GetTH1Mean()` is used to retrieve the mean rate par-
 4184 tition by partition after the rates have been calculated strip by strip and filled into the histograms
 4185 `StripNoiseProfile_H.rpc[T][S][p]`, as described through Source Code B.18.

4186 Once the mask for each rejected channel has been updated, the shifter can manually run the of-
 4187 fline tool again to update the DQM plots, now including the masked strips, as well the rate results
 4188 written in the output CSV file `Offline-Rate.csv`. If not done during the shifts, the strip masking
 4189 procedure needs to be carefully done by the person in charge of data analysis on the scans that were
 4190 selected to produce the final results.

```

4191
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.

4194 B.6.4.4 Output CSV files filling

4195 All the histograms have been filled. Parameters will then be extracted from them to compute the
 4196 final results that will later be used to produce plots. Once the results have been computed, the very
 4197 last step of the offline macro is to write these values into the corresponding CSV outputs. Aside of
 4198 the file `Offline-Corrupted.csv`, 2 CSV files are being written by the macro `offlineAnalysis()`,
 4199 `Offline-Rates.csv` and `Offline-L0-EffCl.csv` that respectively contain information about noise
 4200 or gamma rates, cluster size and multiplicity, and about level 0 reconstruction of the detector effi-
 4201 ciency, muon cluster size and multiplicity. Details on the computation and file writing are respec-
 4202 tively given in Sources Codes B.19 and B.20.

4203 **Noise/gamma background variables** are computed and written in the output file for each detector
 4204 partitions. A detector average of the hit and cluster rate is also provided, as shown through Sources
 4205 Code B.19. The variables that are written for each partition are:

- 4206 • The mean partition hit rate per unit area, `MeanPartRate`, that is extracted from the histogram
 4207 `StripNoiseProfile_H` as the mean value along the y-axis, as described in section B.6.4.3. No
 4208 error is recorded for the hit rate as this is considered a single measurement. No statistical error
 4209 can be associated to it and the systematics are unknown.
- 4210 • The mean cluster size, `cSizePart`, is extracted from the histogram `NoiseCSize_H` and it's
 4211 statistical error, `cSizePartErr`, is taken to be 2σ of the total distribution.
- 4212 • The mean cluster multiplicity per trigger, `cMultPart`, is extracted from the histogram `NoiseCMult_H`
 4213 and it's statistical error, `cMultPartErr`, is taken to be 2σ of the total distribution. It is impor-
 4214 tant to point to the fact that this variable gives an information that is dependent on the buffer
 4215 window width used for each trigger for the calculation.
- 4216 • The mean cluster rate per unit area, `ClustPartRate`, is defined as the mean hit rate normalised

4217 to the mean cluster size and it's statistical error, `ClustPartRateErr`, is then obtained using the
 4218 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.

4221 **Muon performance variables** are computed and written in the output file for each detector parti-
 4222 tions as shown through Sources Code B.20. The variables that are written for each partition are:

- 4223 ● The muon efficiency, `eff`, extracted from the histogram `Efficiency0_H`. It is reminded that
4224 this offline tool doesn't include any tracking algorithm to identify muons from the beam and
4225 only relies on the hits arriving in the time window corresponding to the beam time. The con-
4226 tent of the efficiency histogram is thus biased by the noise/gamma background contribution
4227 into this window and is thus corrected by estimating the muon data content in the peak re-
4228 gion knowing the noise/gamma content in the rate calculation region. Both time windows
4229 being different, the choice was made to normalise the noise/gamma background calculation
4230 window to it's equivalent beam window in order to have comparable values using the variable
4231 `windowRatio`. Finally, to estimate the data ratio in the peak region, the variable `DataRatio`
4232 is defined as the ratio in between the estimated mean cluster multiplicity of the muons in the
4233 peak region, `MuonCM`, and of the total mean cluster multiplicity in the peak region, `PeakCM`.
4234 `MuonCM` is itself defined as the difference in between the total mean cluster multiplicity in the
4235 peak region and the normalised mean noise/gamma cluster multiplicity calculated outside of
4236 the peak region. The statistical error related to the efficiency, `eff_err`, is computed using a
4237 binomial distribution, as the efficiency measure the probability of "success" and "failure" to
4238 detect muons.
- 4239 ● The mean muon cluster size, `MuonCS`, is calculated using the total mean cluster size and multi-
4240 plicity in the peak region, respectively extracted from histograms `MuonCSize_H` and `MuonCMult_H`,
4241 the noise/gamma background mean cluster size and normalised multiplicity, extracted from
4242 `NoiseCSize_H` and `NoiseCMult_H`, and of the estimated muon cluster multiplicity `MuonCM` pre-
4243 viously explicated. The associated statistical error, `MuonCM_err`, is calculated using the propa-
4244 gation of errors of the mentioned variables.
- 4245 ● The mean muon cluster multiplicity in the peak region, `MuonCM`, explicated above whose sta-
4246 tistical error, `MuonCM_err`, is the sum of statistical error associated to the total mean clus-
4247 ter multiplicity in the peak reagion, `PeakCM_err`, and of the mean noise/gamma cluster size,
4248 `NoiseCM_err`.

4249 In addition to these 2 CSV files, the histograms are saved in ROOT file `Scan00XXXX_HVY_Offline.root`
4250 as explained in section B.2.1.1.

4251

```

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';
        }
    }
}

```

4252

4253

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 multiplicity, along with their errors, for each partition and as well as a detector average.

4254 B.7 Current data Analysis

4255 Detectors under test at GIF++ are connected both to a CAEN HV power supply and to a CAEN
4256 ADC that reads the currents inside of the RPC gaps bypassing the supply cable. During data tak-
4257 ing, the webDCS records into a ROOT file called `Scan00XXXX_HVY_CAEN.root` histograms with the
4258 monitored parameters of both CAEN devices. Are recorded for each RPC channels (in most cases,
4259 a channel corresponds to an RPC gap):

- 4260 • the effective voltage, HV_{eff} , set by the webDCS using the PT correction on the CAEN power
4261 supply,
- 4262 • the applied voltage, HV_{app} , monitored by the CAEN power supply, and the statistical error
4263 related to the variations of this value through time to follow the variation of the environmental
4264 parameters defined as the RMS of the histogram divided by the square root of the number of
4265 recorded points,
- 4266 • the monitored current, I_{mon} , monitored by the CAEN power supply, and the statistical error
4267 related to the variations of this value through time to follow the variation of the environmental
4268 parameters defined as the RMS of the histogram divided by the square root of the number of
4269 recorded points,
- 4270 • the corresponding current density, J_{mon} , defined as the monitored current per unit area,
4271 $J_{mon} = I_{mon}/A$, where A is the active area of the corresponding gap,
- 4272 • the ADC current, I_{ADC} , recorded through the CAEN ADC module that monitors the dark
4273 current in the gap itself. First of all, the resolution of such a module is better than that of
4274 CAEN power supplies and moreover, the current is not read-out through the HV supply line
4275 but directly at the chamber level giving the real current inside of the detector. The statistical
4276 error is defined as the RMS of the histogram distribution divided by the square root of the
4277 number of recorded points.

4278 Once extracted through a loop over the element of GIF++ infrastructure via the C++ macro
4279 `GetCurrent()`, these parameters, organised in 9 columns per detector HV supply line, are written in
4280 the output CSV file `Offline-Current.csv`. The macro can be found in the file `Current.cc`.

References

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