

# FAKULTÄT FÜR PHYSIK Institut für Experimentelle Kernphysik

# Untersuchung der Langzeitstabilität des EDELWEISS Myon-Veto-Systems (Investigation of the long term stability of the EDELWEISS muon veto system)

Bachelorarbeit von

### Chenran Xu

am Institut für Experimentelle Kernphysik

Reviewer: Prof. Dr. Guido Drexlin

Second Reviewer: Dr. Klaus Eitel

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### 1. Introduction

Astrophysical and cosmological observations over the last decades indicate the existence of some non-baryonic dark matter. By analyzing the anisotropy of cosmic microwave background, the dark matter energy contribution is estimated to be 27% of the universe [Col16]. Yet no knowledge of the particle constituent of the dark matter is obtained.

A generic class of hypothetical particles, the Weakly Interacting Massive Particle (WIMP), is a prominent candidate for the dark matter. WIMPs are often assumed to have a mass of  $\mathcal{O}(100\,\mathrm{GeV})$ , with an interaction cross section with ordinary matter of the order of the weak interaction scale.

The EDELWEISS experiment aims to search for a direct signal of elastic scattering of WIMPs on germanium nuclei. Due to the expected low rate of WIMP-nucleus scattering, the main challenge of the experiment is to understand and exclude potentially all the background events.

The detectors are surrounded by multiple layers of external shielding, which absorb and reject background radioactivity. Further backgrounds from the radioactivity of the shielding materials can be discriminated by the simultaneous readout of heat and ionization signals. The remaining neutron background causes a nuclear recoil in detectors, which can hardly be distinguished from a WIMP-signal. The neutrons are produced either by  $(\alpha, n)$  reaction from natural radioactivity or by cosmic-ray muons and natural radioactivity. To protect the detectors from the cosmic muon background, EDELWEISS is located in the underground laboratory in Modane (Laboratoire Souterrain de Modane, LSM), where the muon flux is reduced to  $5\,\mu/\text{m}^2/\text{d}$  [SAA+13]. The remaining muons are tagged by a muon-veto systemof 46 plastic scintillator modules.

Since the start of the EDELWEISS experiment, the scintillator modules as well as the electronics have aged significantly. The goal of this work is to estimate the stability of the muon veto system over a period of several years. Four extra scintillator modules installed in 2010 are also equipped with LEDs allowing to monitor the stability of the system with this special light source.

In chapter 2 the case of dark matter with focus on WIMPs is discussed, followed by a brief description of the general setup of the EDELWEISS experiment. In chapter 3 the setup and the working principle of the muon-veto systemis described. First, in chapter 4 the LED events are analysed to estimate the long term stability of these four modules. Second, in chapter 5 the muon events are selected for the analysis of all modules. Additionally, the effective threshold of each module is determined to estimate the change of the detection efficiency of the muon-veto system.

# 2. Search for WIMPs with the EDELWEISS experiment

Nowadays, the search for dark matter becomes one of the central topics in astroparticle physics. Numerous experiments aim to search for dark matter. In this chapter, observational evidences of dark matter are given, followed by a description of particle candidates of dark matter with the focus on WIMPs. EDELWEISS is one of the experiments to directly search for dark matter. The general setup and working principle is described.

#### 2.1. Evidences of dark matter

In 1933, while studying the velocity dispersion of galaxies inside the Coma galaxy cluster, F.Zwicky inferred the existence of some kind of unseen mass, which he called *dunkle Materie* (dark matter). Since then, his idea was supported by numerous observations on different scales – e.g. Cosmic Microwave Background(CMB, [Col16]), the Bullet Cluster. The Bullet Cluster (1E 0657-56) consists of two clusters, which collided around 100 Myrs ago. Using gravitational lensing and X-Ray analysis, it is found that the two galaxy concentrations have moved ahead of their plasma clouds, which indicates the existence of weak-interacting dark matter [CBG<sup>+</sup>06]. In the following a more detailed description of the evidence of dark matter in galaxies is given.

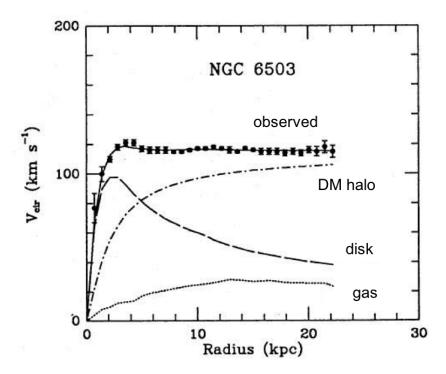
#### Galaxy rotation curve

Taking a simplified model where almost all the galactic mass is inside a radius R, the rotation velocity of an object at large distance from the galactic centre can be approximated:

$$v(r) = \sqrt{\frac{GM}{r}} \tag{2.1}$$

M denotes the galactic mass, and r the distance to the galactic centre with r > R. Therefore, the velocity is expected to behave as  $v \approx r^{-1/2}$  at large distances according to Kepler's law. However, observation of flat rotation curves shows discrepancy from the expectation. In 1980, an extensive study of 21 galaxies suggested that most stars in spiral galaxies have roughly the same orbital velocity, which implies the existence of some kind of unseen matter [RTF80]. Fig 2.1 shows an example of the observed rotation curve of one spiral galaxy. The contribution of baryonic matter (disk and gas) to the velocity decreases with distance, whereas the DM-halo one rises. Together they lead to the observed flat curve at large radius.

It should also be mentioned that there are alternative theories to explain the problem of galaxy rotation curves, such as Modified Newtonian Dynamics (MOND, [Mil83]). Although MOND successfully solves the problem in galactic scale, it cannot cope with the observations at larger scales.



**Figure 2.1.:** An example of a galaxy rotation curve (NGC 6503). The observed rotation curve is plotted together with the individual components. Extracted from [RTF80].

#### 2.2. The WIMP as a dark matter particle candidate

The  $\Lambda$  cold dark matter ( $\Lambda$ CDM) model is a parametrization of the Big Bang model and successfully explains the evolution of the universe. It is therefore often referred to as the standard model of cosmology. As the name suggests, the  $\Lambda$ CDM model contains as most prominent contribution a cosmological constant (denoted with  $\Lambda$ ) and cold dark matter, which means that dark matter mostly consist of non-relativistic particles. Also, dark matter is electrically uncharged and mostly collisionless. The DM particles only interact with themselves and other particles through gravitation and weak force. They have to be stable on a cosmological time scale, otherwise they would not exist with such abundance nowadays.

In the Standard Model (SM), no particle satisfies all the properties above. The SM is thus to be extended. There are many hypothetical particles as potential dark matter candidates, e.g. axions, sterile neutrinos, WIMPs. The axion is a hypothetical elementary particle to solve the strong CP problem [PQ77]. Sterile neutrinos are right-handed neutrinos that only interact via gravitation. They would be a candidate of warm dark matter if their mass is in the keV range. The dark matter candidate of interest in this work is called WIMP (weakly interacting massive particle), a generic class of hypothetical particles.

The WIMP is expected to have mass of a few GeV to a few TeV and interact weakly and gravitationally. For sufficiently high temperatures, like in the early universe, the WIMPs are constantly produced and annihilated. As the temperature drops, the WIMPs eventually cease to interact and the particle density remains roughly the same. A promising candidate of WIMPs is the so-called lightest supersymmetric particle (LSP) of the supersymmetric model (SUSY). SUSY is an extension of the standard model where each SM-particle has a SUSY-partner which differs only by a half-integer spin. In many models the LSP turns out to be neutralino, which is the mixture of four SUSY-particles.

Due to the low interaction cross section, WIMPs are extremely hard to detect. They can be detected through different methods. They can be produced by the collision of SM-

particles. WIMPs can also be detected indirectly by measuring the SM-particles produced in self-annihilation of dark matter. Lastly, they can be directly detected by observation of WIMP-nucleus scattering like in the EDELWEISS experiment.

#### 2.3. The EDELWEISS Experiment

The EDELWEISS experiment is dedicated to detect the scattering of WIMPs on ordinary matter at cryogenic temperature. In order to achieve the expected sensitivity down to  $10^{-9}$  pb, the main challenge is to exclude all the backgrounds induced by radioactivity or cosmic rays. The general setup of the experiment and the possible backgrounds are summarized in section 2.3.1. The remaining backgrounds can be discriminated by measurements of two channels of the signal. This working principle of germanium bolometers is briefly described in section 2.3.2. The problematic muon-induced neutrons, which can hardly be distinguished from the WIMP-signal, are described in detail in chapter 3.

#### 2.3.1. Experimental setup and backgrounds of EDELWEISS-III

The EDELWEISS experiment is located in the underground laboratory of Modane (Laboratoire Souterrain de Modane, LSM). Under 1780 meters of rock, the cosmic muon flux is reduced by more than a factor  $10^6$  to a remaining rate of  $5\,\mu/\mathrm{m}^2/\mathrm{d}$  [SAA+13]. The remaining throughgoing muons are tagged with an active muon-veto system, which is the outermost layer of the setup (see fig.2.2). A detailed description and working principle are given in chapter 3.

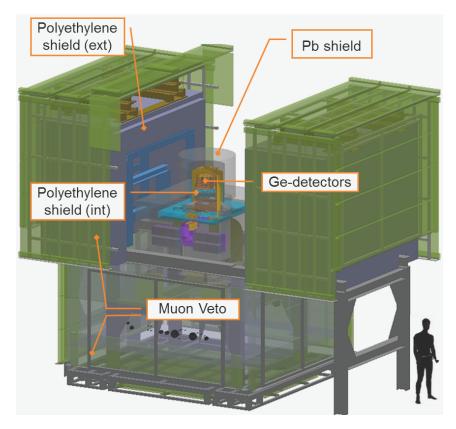


Figure 2.2.: Schematic view of the EDELWEISS experimental setup. In the center are the Ge-bolometers hosted in a cryostat. The cryostat is surrounded by a lead shield, a PE shield and an active muon veto system to minimize the backgrounds.

Extracted from [Kéf16].

The next layer is a polyethylene (PE) shield of about 50 cm thickness to attenuate the neutron flux from the radioactivity of rock and experiment materials. The fast neutron flux

with energy above 1 MeV, which produces similar recoils as from WIMPs, is reduced by 5 to 6 orders of magnitude. Next to the PE shield is a lead shield of 20 cm thickness to reduce the ambient  $\gamma$  background. The natural lead contains radioactive isotopes—e.g. <sup>210</sup>Pb, <sup>238</sup>U and <sup>232</sup>Th, which also contribute to the background. To reduce its natural radioactivity, the innermost 2 cm of the shield is made of Roman lead discovered in a sunken ship. The <sup>210</sup>Pb has a half-life of  $T_{1/2}=22$  years, so that its abundance is decreased by two orders of magnitude [SAA+13]. Another source of external background is the <sup>222</sup>Rn gas in the air which is a decay product of <sup>238</sup>U.

The upper part with the cryostat is installed in a clean room with renewing air to minimize the radon level. The space between the lead shield and the cryostat is flushed with filtered air. The upper part of the shieldings are mounted on rails and can be opened in halves to access the cryostat and electronics. Additional layers of PE and lead shields are installed inside the cryostat to reduce the background induced by electronics and cables.

The cryostat is a  ${}^{3}\text{He}/{}^{4}\text{He}$  dilution refrigerator made of low-radioactivity materials. The detectors are enclosed in five thermal screens and the temperature decreases from room temperature over 100 K, 40 K, 4 K, 1 k to 10 mK. In standard operations, the temperature of the detectors is tuned to  $T = (18.000 \pm 0.002) \,\text{mK}$ . More detail of the setup can be found in [A<sup>+</sup>17].

#### 2.3.2. Working principle of Ge Bolometer

The bolometers used in the EDELWEISS experiment are made of high-purity monocrystalline germanium. They are equipped with aluminium ring electrodes and glued with 2 Neutron Transmutation Doped (NTD) sensors.

The thermalized phonon signals are measured via the change of resistance of the NTD Ge sensors. The small temperature rise resulted by an energy deposit  $E_{\text{rec}}$  is

$$\Delta T = \frac{E_{\rm rec}}{C(T)} \tag{2.2}$$

by which C(T) is the total heat capacity of the germanium crystal and two NTD sensors. The temperature dependency of the resistance is given by

$$R(T) = R_0 exp\sqrt{\frac{T_0}{T}} (2.3)$$

with characteristic constants  $R_0 = \mathcal{O}(0.1 \,\Omega)$  and  $T_0 = \mathcal{O}(1 \,\mathrm{K})$ . At the operating temperature of 18 mK, the resistance becomes a few M $\Omega$ . The NTD sensors are biased with a square modulated current and the resistance change is obtained by change of the voltage.

For each event, the ionization energy  $E_{\rm ion}$  is simultaneously measured. Electron-hole pairs are produced in the germanium crystal for an energy deposit above 2.96 eV. The produced charge carriers are drifted to the biased electrodes and collected.

The discrimination between electron recoils and nuclear recoils is based on the ionization yield Q, defined as the fraction of ionization energy and recoil energy:

$$Q = \frac{E_{\rm ion}}{E_{\rm rec}} \tag{2.4}$$

Since the WIMPs and neutrons scatter off nuclei, the required energy to produce a pair of charge carriers is higher than the one of electron recoils. Most energy deposited by nuclear recoils is directly transmitted to phonons, which leads to a generally smaller ionization yield than electron recoils.

The heat and ionization channels are calibrated with the 356 keV line of  $^{133}$ Ba, which induces electron recoils. With the ionization yield of electron recoils set to 1, the neutron ionization yield is determined with a neutron calibration [DBC<sup>+</sup>01]:

$$Q_{\rm n} = 0.16 \cdot (E_{\rm rec}[\text{keV}])^{0.18}$$
 (2.5)

With combination of the heat and ionization measurements, the electron recoils can be distinguished from the neutron recoils. Therefore, the remaining problematic background is neutrons, mostly produced in muon-induced showers or muon-nuclear interactions.

# 3. Muon detection in EDELWEISS experiment

Despite the rock overburden of LSM which reduces the cosmic muon flux by 6 orders of magnitude, the remaining muons can produce neutrons and mimic WIMP signals. These muons are tagged by an active veto system. The general setup and the working principle of the system is described in this chapter. The description is mainly based on the doctoral thesis of C. Kéfélian [Kéf16].

#### 3.1. Setup of the muon-veto system

The muon-veto system is the outermost layer of shieldings and covers a surface of  $100\,\mathrm{m}^2$ . As shown in the fig. 3.1, it is made of 46 plastic scintillator modules. The modules are labelled from 1 to 48. Each wall is labelled according to the orientation. The western wall is named "Nemo", which is the name of the neighbour experiment in LSM. The muon-veto is divided in two levels, the upper level made of 30 modules is located in a clean room which hosts the cryostat and the detectors. The lower level has 16 modules. As described in section 2.3.1, the upper level is mounted on rails and can be opened in two parts to grant access to electronics and the cryostat.

To cover the gap resulted from an extension of the cryogenic support line, additional modules M7, M8, M15 and M16 were installed in 2010. The four extra modules are equipped with LEDs to monitor the stability of the system. M7 and M8 have 3 LEDs along their axis, each of M15 and M16 has one LED installed in the middle. M7 and M8 are 2.1 m long. M15 and M16 are around 1 m long and cover only partly the opening of the upper part.

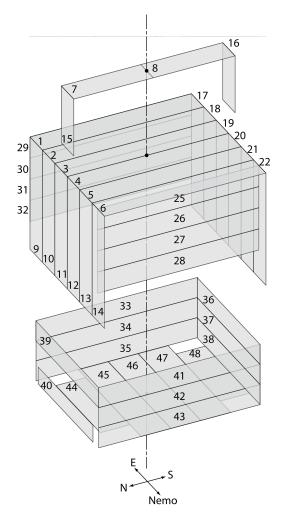
All modules have a width of 65 cm and a thickness of 5 cm. Their lengths vary from 2 m to 4 m. Due to the opening for electronics and the shorter length of some modules, the overall geometric coverage is 98%. However, a muon going through the gap can partly be detected via the particle showers induced by it or at its exit hitting another module.

A group of four Photomultiplier Tubes (PMT) is installed at each module end. Each PMT group is individually biased with a high voltage (HV). The HV values are set around  $-1500\,\mathrm{V}$  and seldom changed over years to compensate the aging effect of the modules. To ensure that the system is fully closed while operating, two lasers measure the position of two halves of the upper part every 15 minutes. One measures the distance from the western wall to M6, the other from the eastern wall to M8. The gap width is calculated by subtracting the two distances.

#### 3.2. Working principle of the muon-veto system

#### 3.2.1. Muon energy deposit in the scintillator modules

The average muon energy at LSM is  $< E_{\mu} >_{\rm LSM} \approx 260\,{\rm GeV}$  [Klu13]. The high energy muons deposit  $2\,{\rm MeV/cm}$  in the muon-veto modules according to the Bethe formula. Since



**Figure 3.1.:** Schematic view of the muon-veto system. Each wall of the system is labelled according to its geometric orientation in the laboratory.

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the scintillator modules have a thickness of 5cm, the muon energy deposit in a module is typically above 10 MeV. Therefore, the muon events can be separated from the background events with energy deposit normally lower than 4 MeV, which reduces the dead-time of the experiment. The stochastic process of muon energy deposit can be described by a Landau distribution [Lan44]. Such distribution is asymmetric and has a long tail towards the high energy region. To avoid the contribution of large energy deposit from the long tail, the most probable value (MPV) is usually taken to characterize the distribution. The total energy deposit of muon is also dependent on its path length in a module. The spectrum is thus smeared due to the different orientation of modules and the angular distribution of the muon flux. Most muons at LSM have small zenith angle, therefore the muons deposit minimal energy in top and bottom modules and the track length is of the order of the module thickness. It is also possible that a muon goes through the edge of a module, which is called a grazing muon. In such case, the muon traverses only partly the module thickness and deposits lower energy.

#### 3.2.2. The electronic readout chain

The data acquisition of the muon-veto system is independent from the bolometer. The muon-veto is only rarely switched off when operation in the clean room is taking place. When a muon goes through the scintillator modules, it deposits energy via different processes and produces scintillation light. The photons reflect in the module and are guided to the

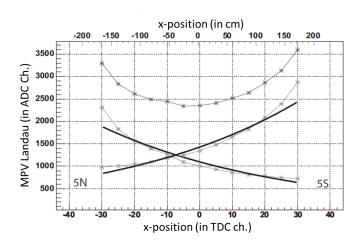
PMT groups. In a PMT group, the photons are then converted to electrons and amplified to a measurable electric signal. Once the signal amplitude is over the trigger threshold, the signal is integrated in the Analog-to-Digital-Converter (ADC) card to obtain the total energy deposit of a muon in a module. At the mean time, the Time-to-Digital-Converter (TDC) card stores the time of the signal. If there is a coincidence of both PMT groups in a module within a 100 ns time window, all non-zero signals of the muon-veto system are stored as one event. After the triggering, there is a dead-time of  $\tau=0.16\,\mathrm{ms}$  when no events can be detected [Sch13]. The trigger threshold is set to 150 mV to ensure the detection efficiency of low energy events without introducing too much dead-time.

#### 3.2.3. Position-dependent light output

In addition to the fluctuation of the muon energy deposit, the light output is also dependent on the position of the interaction in the scintillator modules. Since the light is guided up to  $4 \,\mathrm{m}$  to the PMT group, which is much larger than the attenuation length, the light measured by PMT decreases exponentially with the path length d. The relation can be approximately determined by the Beer-Lambert law:

$$I(d) = I_0 \cdot e^{-\frac{d}{\Lambda_{\text{eff}}}} \tag{3.1}$$

The  $\Lambda_{\rm eff}$  denotes the effective attenuation length and is a detector specific constant. The scintillator modules in EDELWEISS were previously used in the KARMEN experiment. The effective attenuation length was measured to be  $\Lambda \approx 600\,{\rm cm}$  in 1997/1998 [Rei98]. However, the modules have aged since then. Some of the effects are radiation damages and decrease of the transparency.



**Figure 3.2.:** Light measured in the north and south PMT groups of Module 5 and the sum of them. The data are fitted with exponential curves. Extracted from [Hab04].

In 2003/2004, the attenuation lengths of two 4 m modules were measured. Fig. 3.2 shows the measured signal in M5 for two individual PMT groups and the sum of them. As shown in the figure, the light yield varies by a factor of 2 from the near end to the far end. For M5  $\Lambda_{\rm eff}$  was around 340 cm and for M1 around 200 cm [Hab04]. The measurement shows that the effective attenuation length of scintillator modules has decreased significantly since production, which leads to a decrease of discrimination efficiency for low energy events. This also motivates the importance to analyze the long term stability of the muon-veto system.

#### 3.2.4. Available information of the muon-veto events

The measured events are stored in data files and combined to so-called Runs. Each Run contains up to 99 files, where each file stores 8 hours measurement. This means, one Run usually contains data of one month measurement time. The data in each Run file are converted to a *KData* file. *KData* is a ROOT-based [BR97] data structure and analysis toolkit developed at KIT. It combines the muon-veto data and the bolometer data for coincidence studies [CAA<sup>+</sup>12]. The data branches relevant in the context of this work and available for the analysis are listed below:

- ADC: When triggered, the integrated signal in each PMT group is stored in ADC units. The HVs of each PMT group are calibrated before the experiment to ensure a uniform gain of each module. Since the modules have aged individually, the correspondence between ADC channels and energy in MeV varies from module to module. There is also a digital conversion threshold. For an event with energy deposit below this value, the ADC is not stored and set to -1. The digital threshold is typically 120 ADC channels.
- **TDC:** The arrival time of a signal in each PMT group is stored. By subtracting the two TDC values in one module, the event position can be reconstructed. In the presented work, the TDC values are only used to probe if a PMT group is triggered.
- **PC Time:** The time of each event is stored in units of seconds. For the muon-veto events to be compared with bolometer events, an additional timestamp in 10 µs precision is saved. However, such precision is of no interest in the analysis of the long term stability. Therefore, the event time in seconds is used in the following analysis.
- **DistanceEst, DistanceNemo:** As described before, the gap size of the upper part of the system is measured every 15 minutes. DistanceEst stores the distance from the western wall to M8 (eastern half of the muon-veto) and DistanceNemo stores the distance from western wall to M6 (western-most module of the upper muon-veto). For each event, the distances obtained from the last laser measurement are stored.
- **IsLEDFired:** The LEDs installed on the extra top modules fire every eight hours to monitor the stability of the system. When the event is caused by LED firing, the boolean value IsLEDFired is set to true, allowing a distinction between LED events and other events.

# 4. Long term behavior of data acquired with LEDs

As described in Chapter 3, the four extra modules added in 2010 covering the gap of the muon-veto system are equipped with LEDs. M7 and M8 have three LEDs: one at the center and the other two symmetrically at the end. M15 and M16 both have one LED installed at the center. The LEDs send out pulses every eight hours. The LED data are used to perform a stability control of the muon-veto system. They are clearly defined in light emission, position and time comparing to muon induced events, therefore the LED events are a good probe to estimate the long term stability of these four modules.

#### 4.1. Data selection

For the following analyses, data of muon-veto Run70 to Run138 are used to analyze the aging effect of the veto system. This corresponds to a date from 24.08.2010 to 28.03.2017. When converting the raw data to ROOT-format, the events induced by LED firing are flagged. Therefore, they are easily separated from other events. The LEDs fire three times every day. Each LED fires 60 pulses in one minute and they fire one after another, which also allows a separation of signals from different LEDs in M7 and M8.

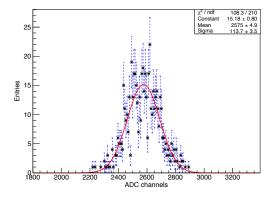
#### 4.2. Data Analysis

The LEDs are fixed on the modules, so the energy spectrum is not smeared by the position dependent light readout. Also, the LEDs are supposed to have constant light output over a short time. Thus the obtained ADC spectrum can be fitted with a gaussian function to get the average ADC values of several series. To increase the statistical power of a single point, events of nine shot series (three days) are combined to perform a gaussian fit. An example of such fit is illustrated in fig.4.1.

The mean ADC values obtained from each gaussian fit are plotted over time. A change of these values over time could be due to various effects, e.g. a decrease of the LED light output, aging of scintillator modules, problem of the PMTs or readout electronics. To identify the contribution of different factors, the values are plotted separately for two PMT groups and three LEDs (for M7 and M8). Linear regressions are made for each data set, see fig.4.2. The lines with different color represent the data from different LEDs. In the following, the result is described in detail for a sample module M8.

As can be seen in the figure, the mean ADC values of the two off-center LEDs differ about 500 to 1000 channels from the far end to the near end. Since M7 and M8 are only half the length of other top modules, such position dependent effects are expected to be even more remarkable in other modules.

In fig.4.2, the error bar of a single data point is the statistical uncertainty given by the gaussian fit. Since most LED events in one fire series have good gaussian form, the statistical



**Figure 4.1.:** Example of an gaussian fit to nine LED fire series in Module 8, north PMT group. The spectrum is fitted with a log likelihood method in ROOT.

uncertainty is mostly much smaller than the total uncertainty. Several other effects lead to the fluctuation of the ADC value, for example, the switch-on effect of electronics after a long pause. Consequently, the systematic uncertainty can only be approximated. The result of the linear fits are listed in Tab.4.1 with uncertainty. The systematic uncertainty of the slope is estimated by fitting different parts of the time period and taking the difference of the maximum and minimum slopes.

#### 4.2.1. Interpretation of the results

Various effects could lead to the decrease or even increase of the mean ADC value of LED events. First, the transparency of plastic scintillator decreases over time. Assuming that such aging effect is homogeneous in one module, the loss of light output depends on the distance from the event position to the PMT group. This leads to roughly the same decrease for events that have same track length to the PMT group, e.g. LED N to ADC S and LED S to ADC N. Second, the PMTs as well as the junction of scintillator module and PMT group have aged individually, which leads to different variation of ADC values at two ends of a module. Last, the light output of an LED may vary over time and thus leads to the simultaneous change of measured values in two PMT groups.

The slopes of middle LED in two ends of M8 are about the same, implying that the two PMT groups of M8 have aged similarly. Therefore the aging effect of the plastic scintillator can be estimated by subtracting the slope of same LED at the far end from the one at the near end. Furthermore the decrease is noticeably more rapid at earlier stage (about 2010-2011) and becomes flat later. The reason can be that the transparency loss of scintillator is not linear over time. The assumption of linear trend is thus only an approximation. Averaging over time, the decrease due to aging of plastic scintillator is estimated to be  $\approx 3 \, \text{channels/month}$ . During the total period of experiment (about 90 months), the change of ADC values caused by scintillator aging is about 250 channels for M8.

**Table 4.1.:** Slopes of the linear regressions of 3 LEDs in M8. The first uncertainty is the statistical uncertainty from the linear fit, the second is the estimated systematic uncertainty.

	S.	lope in channels/mont	h
	LED S	LED M	LED N
ADC N	$-7.26 \pm 0.05 \pm 4.32$	$-1.13 \pm 0.05 \pm 1.06$	$+2.37 \pm 0.07 \pm 3.12$
ADC S	$-3.02 \pm 0.07 \pm 5.50$	$-1.49 \pm 0.06 \pm 2.92$	$+0.59 \pm 0.05 \pm 2.74$

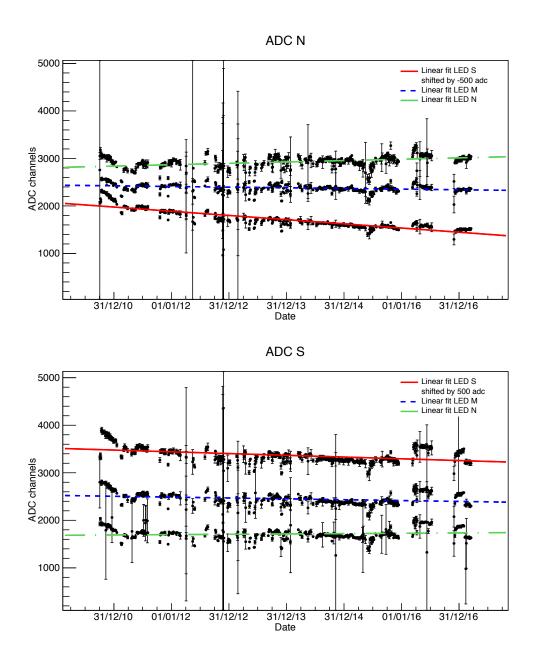


Figure 4.2.: ADC mean values of LED signals over time in Module 8. The energy deposit of LED signals in ADC channels from Run70 to Run138 are plotted separately for 2 PMT groups (north in upper chart, south in lower chart). The trend of ADC values of different LEDs over time are approximated by linear fits: the green line (LED north), the blue line (LED middle), and the red line (LED south). For clarity reasons, the signals of the south LED are decreased by 500 channels in upper chart and increased by 500 in lower chart.

Same procedure is applied on other three modules M7,M15 and M16 and shows similar results. Since other modules are longer then the four modules, the decrease of ADC values are expected to be more significant. The detection efficiency reduces especially for events to be measured in the far PMT group, as the transportation length of light is longer.

# 5. Determination of the long term stability using muon events

Analysis of LED events can only be applied on the four extra top modules. To determine the stability of the total muon-veto system, aging of all modules are investigated. In this chapter, the muon-events are selected and analysed. Additionally, the effective threshold of each module is determined using an independent method, which allows to estimate the change of the detection efficiency of the modules.

#### 5.1. Analysis of muon events

#### 5.1.1. Selection of muon-veto data

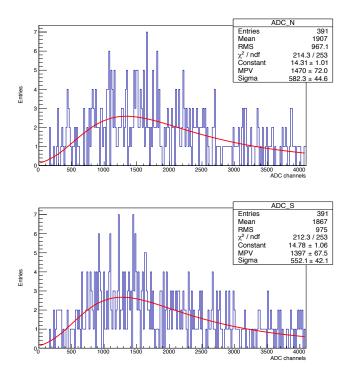
All the data from Run70 (Aug 2010) to Run138 (Mar 2017) are investigated in the following analysis. Since the goal of the analysis is to several cuts must be applied on the data to ensure a stable condition of the system during the investigated time period and to decrease First, data taken when the muon-veto system was not fully closed are cut. As described in 3.1, two lasers measure the position of the upper part of the muon-veto every 15 minutes. Time periods when the gap size deviates more than 5 cm from the closed configuration are cut, since the muon-veto system is either fully closed or fully opened. When the system is opened, the detection efficiency of through-going muons decreases and the background rate increases largely, which will lead to a increase of low energy events and .

When the muon-veto system is closed, most muons go through at least 2 modules. Therefore a coincidence in 2 distinct modules is required for selecting muon events. An energy deposit with full information in each module is required—i.e. both TDCs and ADCs have non-zero values. It respectively reduces events caused by secondary particles or natural backgrounds since they mostly deposit less energy than muons. By applying this cut criterium, the event rate in one module is reduced to the order of 10 events/day.

#### 5.1.2. Data analysis

As mentioned in section 3.2, the spectrum of muon energy deposit in modules can be described by a Landau distribution. The ADC values of muon events in a time period are fitted with a Landau distribution and the obtained MPVs in different time periods are used to analyse the long term behaviour of the muon-veto system. The fig. 5.1 shows an example of the Landau fit. Since the muon event rate is low, the obtained ADC values in a two months period are combined to perform each fit.

The MPVs obtained from the Landau fit are plotted over time (see fig. 5.2). Some time periods with too few entries due to the system shutoff are excluded, since no reliable Landau fit can be performed. It is to be noticed that the data points have rather large uncertainty, which is partially due to the smeared spectrum. As explained before, the light output is strongly position dependent and decreases exponentially with the path length from the



**Figure 5.1.:** Example of a Landau fit in M6. The fit uses a log likelihood method in ROOT.

interaction point to the PMT group. Furthermore, there are some sudden changes of the MPVs. The reason could be the restart of the muon-veto system after operations.

The change of the MPVs are again approximated by a linear regression and the obtained slopes are listed in tab. 5.1. It can be seen that the slopes for two ends in a single module don't vary much from each other, which means that the aging of plastic scintillator is as expected almost symmetric and the electronics of two PMT groups have also aged similarly. The value obtained in M8 is also listed for comparison with the result from LED data. The decrease of the MPVs is larger than the one of ADC mean values of middle and northern LED events and lies in the uncertainty regions of southern LED events. The abnormal increase of ADC mean values of LED S in M8 (see tab.4.1) is not to be found in the data obtained from muon events. Thus it can be concluded that the problem is merely due to the behaviour of the LED but not the scintillator module. Despite the various effects that may lead to a sudden change of the ADC value, the MPVs of the Landau spectrum in all 46 modules show a general decrease of several hundred ADC channels since 2010.

**Table 5.1.:** Slopes of the linear regressions of MPVs in example modules M6, M8 and M44. The statistical uncertainty is obtained from the fit program in ROOT.

Module	slope in channels/month			
	ADC N	ADC S		
M6	$-5.44 \pm 1.34$	$-4.87 \pm 1.12$		
M8	$-5.26\pm0.52$	$-6.00 \pm 0.46$		
M44	$-5.76 \pm 3.71$	$-3.71 \pm 1.12$		

#### 5.2. Determination of the detection efficiency

The analysis above shows that the gain of the PMT groups have decreased remarkably since the start of the experiment. However, it doesn't provides a direct measure of the change of the muon detection efficiency. To estimate the detection efficiency, the knowledge of the trigger threshold of each module is needed. Before the experiment, the scintillator modules have been calibrated using cosmic muons [Hab04]. Due to the aging effects of the modules, the trigger threshold must be determined again. As the muon flux in the underground laboratory is reduced significantly, the cosmic muons cannot be used for calibration anymore. In this section, an alternative approach to determine the trigger threshold is described. The detection efficiencies in different time periods are derived using the obtained threshold values.

- conversion threshold, effective threshold
- method to determine threshold
- result, change of efficiency

#### 5.2.1. Effective trigger threshold

As discussed in section 3.2, there are two thresholds in the measurement of muon-veto system. One is a digital conversion threshold, which is typically set to 120 ADC channels. The influence of digital threshold on the muon detection efficiency can be neglected, because the MPVs are typically above 1000 ADC channels and the Landau distribution falls quickly towards the low energy region.

The trigger threshold, on the other hand, is relevant for the following analysis. It is a hardware threshold which is set to 150 mV. Only the pulse with an amplitude above this value triggers the data acquisition. Although the hardware threshold is set to same voltage in each module, the value in ADC channels depends on the gain of the individual PMT groups. Thus the value of trigger threshold is different in each module. Additionally, it depends on the shape of measured pulse, since the ADC value is the integral of a signal. For example, a flat pulse has a larger energy deposit than a steep pulse with same amplitude. The pulse shape also depends on the light propagation and is thus position dependent. Therefore, the effective trigger threshold is expected to be a curve instead of a step function.

The efficiency of a module is a function of energy, which is low for low energy deposit and is expected to be 100% in high energy regions. It is similar to the behaviour of an error function:

$$\operatorname{erf}(x) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^x e^{-t^2} dt \tag{5.1}$$

It describes the convolution of a Heaviside function  $\Theta(x)$  with a Gaussian distribution. By shifting and rescaling, the error function is able to imitate the behaviour of the actual detection efficiency curve at the threshold. It is characterised by two parameters, the effective threshold  $E_{\rm thr}$  and the standard deviation  $\sigma$ . The effective trigger threshold is defined as the ADC value where detection efficiency is 50% and the  $\sigma$  describes the smearing effect of the spectrum.

#### Method of effective trigger threshold determination

When a module is triggered, all the non-zero signals in the muon-veto system are stored. It is therefore possible to analyse the the events for a certain module I even if they don't trigger the module I. For the analysis of one PMT group X in module I, the ADC values of all the events that have triggered another module J are stored in histogram H1. In contrast

**Table 5.2.:** Slopes of the linear regressions of MPVs in example modules M6 and M44. The statistical uncertainty is obtained from the fit program in ROOT.

Module	End	MPV in .	Threshold ADC channe	$\sigma_{ m erf}$ els	$\epsilon_{20\%}$	$\epsilon_{ m 50\% MPV}$	$\epsilon_{ ext{MPV}}$	$\epsilon_{ m tot,50\%MPV}$
M6	N S	1401 1256	532 615		0.86 0.83	0.90 0.86	0.97 0.95	

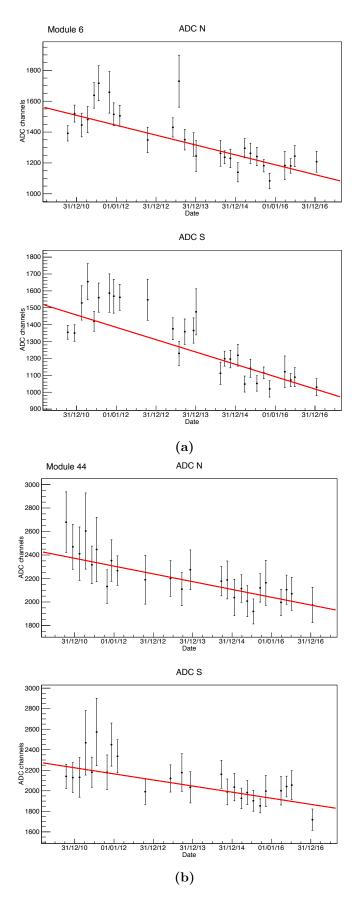
to the condition of muon selection, which requires both non-zero TDC values, the trigger condition of a PMT group X used in the following analysis requires only that the TDC on the same side has a non-zero value. Requiring both TDC channels will introduce a dependency on the PMT group on the other side, while the trigger threshold is determined separately for two ends of a module. The events with one TDC trigger are stored in histogram H2. The efficiency of one PMT group is determined by the division of H2 and H1.

Fig. 5.3 shows an example of this method. The events that triggered one PMT group are plotted with all events. As expected, the detection efficiency increases with ADC values and goes toward 100%. As can be seen in the figure, the increase is slightly asymmetric: it is more rapid at first and is then flatter.

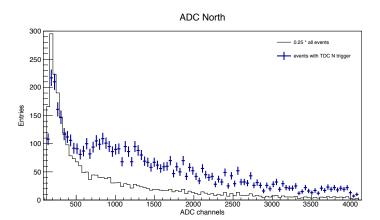
The effective trigger threshold in ADC units are calculated for each PMT group in different time periods. To increase statistics, several runs are combined to perform the error function fit. Run 70-79 (year 2010) are investigated for the early time period and Run 124-138 (year 2015-2017) for the late time period. The results are listed in tab. 5.2 in the following section.

#### 5.2.2. Detection efficiency of a module

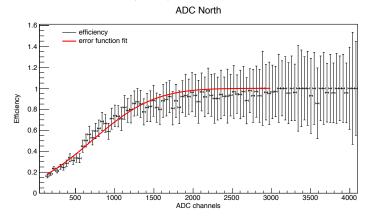
The muon energy deposit can be described with a Landau distribution. The measured energy deposit is however dependent on the response of the individual modules. Therefore, the ADC spectrum is expected to be a Landau multiplied by an error function.



**Figure 5.2.:** MPVs over time with linear fits in two example modules. The two upper figures show the MPVs in M6 (top module) and the two lower figures show the MPVs in M44 (bottom module).

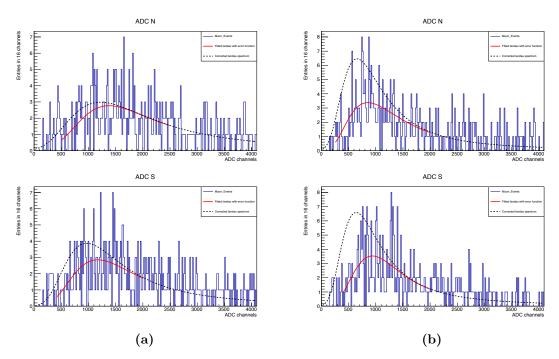


(a) Example of the spectrum with and without trigger condition of ADC N in M6. The data points (blue) are events which satisfy the trigger condition in the same end (Northern PMT group). The spectrum of all events (black) are scaled by a factor of 4.



(b) Histogram of events triggering the PMT group on the same side divided by all events with error bars (black) and the error function fit (red).

**Figure 5.3.:** Example of the method to determine the effective trigger threshold of a PMT group.



**Figure 5.4.:** Spectrum of muon-induced in M6 in earlier runs (left) and latest runs (right). The spectra are fitted with a Landau distribution with an error function (red). The corrected spectrum (black, dotted) is determined by dividing the error function.

### 6. Conclusions

## Appendix

#### A. Detection Efficiency

some text!

**Table A.1.:** Slopes of the linear regressions of MPVs in example modules M6 and M44. The statistical uncertainty is obtained from the fit program in ROOT.

Module	End	MPV	Threshold	$\sigma_{ m erf}$	$\epsilon_{20\%}$	$\epsilon_{50\%\mathrm{MPV}}$	$\epsilon_{ ext{MPV}}$	$\epsilon_{ m tot,50\%MPV}$
		in	ADC channe					
M1	ADC[0]	1036	939	690	0.66	0.65	0.80	0.4
	ADC[1]	827	191	2193	0.69	0.71	0.75	0.4
M2	ADC[0]	625	786	1622	0.56	0.60	0.66	
	ADC[1]	214	829	1905	0.53	0.55	0.57	
M3	ADC[0]	647	494	98	0.88	0.83	1.00	
	ADC[1]	918	635	136	0.90	0.90	1.00	
M4	ADC[0]	352	880	194	0.01	0.01	0.01	
	ADC[1]	355	890	157	0.00	0.00	0.00	
M5	ADC[0]	1197	554	865	0.79	0.84	0.93	
	ADC[1]	1108	645	607	0.78	0.83	0.94	
M6	ADC[0]	1401	532	737	0.86	0.90	0.97	
	ADC[1]	1256	615	712	0.83	0.86	0.95	
M7	ADC[0]	1080	190	366	0.97	0.99	1.00	
	ADC[1]	941	202	223	0.98	0.99	1.00	
M8	ADC[0]	1443	638	155	0.99	0.99	1.00	
	ADC[1]	2217	251	101	0.98	1.00	1.00	
M9	ADC[0]	1320	751	791	0.71	0.82	0.93	
	ADC[1]	3000	100	1282	0.86	0.97	1.00	
M10	ADC[0]	650	476	910	0.68	0.76	0.84	
-	ADC[1]	1410	100	989	0.87	0.93	0.98	
M11	ADC[0]	1133	685	409	0.82	0.86	0.98	
	ADC[1]	952	493	176	0.94	0.97	1.00	
M12	ADC[0]	881	660	120	0.92	0.86	1.00	
	ADC[1]	1140	395	146	0.97	1.00	1.00	
M13	ADC[0]	799	122	1184	0.79	0.85	0.90	
	ADC[1]	1331	298	784	0.84	0.94	0.98	
M14	ADC[0]	1118	836	489	0.73	0.75	0.92	
3.54.0	ADC[1]	1138	100	1729	0.77	0.82	0.87	
M15	ADC[0]	2674	560	143	0.99	1.00	1.00	
	ADC[1]	1292	186	13	1.00	1.00	1.00	
M16	ADC[0]	2481	267	91	0.99	1.00	1.00	
	ADC[1]	2451	296	103	0.98	1.00	1.00	
M17	ADC[0]	1200	515	112	0.99	1.00	1.00	
	ADC[1]	1043	100	740	0.88	0.94	0.98	
M18	ADC[0]	893	692	1254	0.65	0.69	0.78	
	ADC[1]	2184	517	153	0.97	1.00	1.00	
M19	ADC[0]	1207	587	146	0.97	0.98	1.00	

	ADC[1]		533	146		1.00	1.00	
M20	L J	2133	1352	1343		0.72	0.87	
	ADC[1]	1476	687	639	0.74	0.90	0.98	
M21	ADC[0]	1117	701	841	0.65	0.79	0.91	
	ADC[1]	1219	529	1024	0.73	0.84	0.92	
M22	ADC[0]	442	1156	349	0.09	0.08	0.14	
	ADC[1]	396	1008	227	0.01	0.01	0.01	
M25		349	100	745	0.78	0.83	0.87	
	ADC[1]	1261	708	1196	0.69	0.77		
M26		488	355	866	0.70	0.77		
	ADC[1]	1202	1005			0.70		
M27		1139	1110	810	0.60	0.61		
	ADC[1]	1035	1104	941	0.58	0.58		
M28		339	879	1238		0.55		
11120	ADC[1]	958	1075	856	0.45	0.60		
M29	ADC[0]	696	1289	836		0.41		
11120	ADC[1]	1334	1253	1137		0.62		
M30	ADC[0]	1166	1269	998	0.56	0.57		
11100		816	1054	1184		0.57		
M31		1142	1164	847	0.52	0.57		
10101		504	969	1574	0.56	0.59 $0.58$		
M32	ADC[1] ADC[0]	466	1387	1456	0.34 $0.41$	0.38 $0.46$		
W132	ADC[0] ADC[1]	340	1338	1263	$0.41 \\ 0.37$	0.40 $0.41$		
1499		1031						
M33	ADC[0]		593	264	0.86	0.93	1.00	
M94	ADC[1]	1404	755 1450	321	0.91	0.94		
M34	ADC[0]	1091	1459	1129	0.39	0.52		
Mar	ADC[1]	1157	1404	852	0.49	0.49		
M35	ADC[0]	1125	1723	1192	0.41	0.42	0.54	
1.100	ADC[1]	1016	1557	1039	0.42	0.41	0.52	
M36	ADC[0]	1452	912	803	0.61	0.80	0.93	
3.60=	ADC[1]	1346	821	568	0.79	0.83	0.96	
M37	ADC[0]	1411	730	505	0.77	0.90	0.99	
3.500	ADC[1]	1329	746	425	0.85	0.89	0.99	
M38	ADC[0]	1446	1247	1167	0.61	0.65	0.79	
3.500	ADC[1]	1223	1293	700	0.54	0.54	0.75	
M39	ADC[0]	1570	967	734	0.74	0.81	0.95	
3.5.40	ADC[1]	1156	876	484	0.75	0.75	0.92	
M40	ADC[0]	1208	1098	913	0.62	0.64	0.79	
3.5.44	ADC[1]	1243	1064	721	0.66	0.67	0.84	
M41	ADC[0]	1476	879	973	0.77	0.78	0.90	
3.5.40	ADC[1]	1238	903	853	0.72	0.73	0.86	
M42	ADC[0]	1262	934	631	0.73	0.74	0.90	
3.5.10	ADC[1]	1036	817	648	0.68	0.72	0.87	
M43	ADC[0]	988	1448	1336	0.46	0.49	0.60	
	ADC[1]	632	676	1566	0.63	0.68	0.73	
M44	ADC[0]	2772	521	103	1.00	1.00	1.00	
	ADC[1]	2757	541	123	1.00	1.00	1.00	
M45	ADC[0]	1193	1327	962	0.56	0.55	0.69	
	ADC[1]	994	1141	741	0.54	0.54	0.69	
M46	ADC[0]	1687	1231	846	0.72	0.73	0.89	
	ADC[1]	1479	899	788	0.78	0.80	0.93	
M47	ADC[0]	1893	1036	628	0.86	0.88	0.98	
	ADC[1]	1400	1000	422	0.81	0.81	0.96	
M48	ADC[0]	2642	713	345	0.99	1.00	1.00	
	ADC[1]	2780	614	196	1.00	1.00	1.00	

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