

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

Bachelorarbeit
von

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1. Introduction

Astrophysical and cosmological observations over the last decades indicate the existence of some none-baryonic dark matter. By analyzing the anisotropy of cosmic microwave background, the dark matter energy contribution is estimated to be 27% of the universe [AAA⁺16]. 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 is often assumed to have mass of $\mathcal{O}(100 \text{ GeV})$, with an interaction cross section with ordinary matter of the order of weak interaction scale.

The EDELWEISS experiment is aimed to search direct signal of elastic scattering of WIMP on germanium bolometers. Due to the expected low rate of WIMP-nucleus scattering, the main challenge of the experiment is to understand and exclude possibly 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 measurements. The remaining neutron background causes a nuclear recoil in detectors, which cannot be distinguished from a WIMP-signal. The neutrons are produced respectively from the cosmic-ray muons. To protect the detectors from the cosmic muon backgrounds, 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 system of 46 plastic scintillator modules.

Since the start of EDELWEISS experiment, the modules as well as the electronics have decayed significantly. The goal of this presented work is to estimate the stability of the muon veto system over long term measurements. Four extra scintillator modules installed in 2010 are equipped with LEDs to monitor the stability of the system.

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

2. Search of WIMPs with 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 focus on WIMP. 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 on 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. CMB, 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. In the following a more detailed description of evidence of dark matter in galaxy is given.

Galaxy rotation curve

Take a simplified model with only the gravitation, the rotation velocity of an object at large distances from the galactic centre can be approximated:

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

M denotes the galactic mass, and r the distance to the galactic centre. Therefore, the velocity is expected to be $ev \approx r^{-1/2}$ at large distances according to the Kepler's law. However, observation of flat rotation curves shows discrepancy from the expectation. In 1980, an extensive study of 21 galaxies suggests that most stars in spiral galaxies have roughly the same orbit velocity, which implies the existence of some kinde 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) 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). Although MOND successfully solves the problem in galactic scale, it cannot cope with the observations at larger scales.

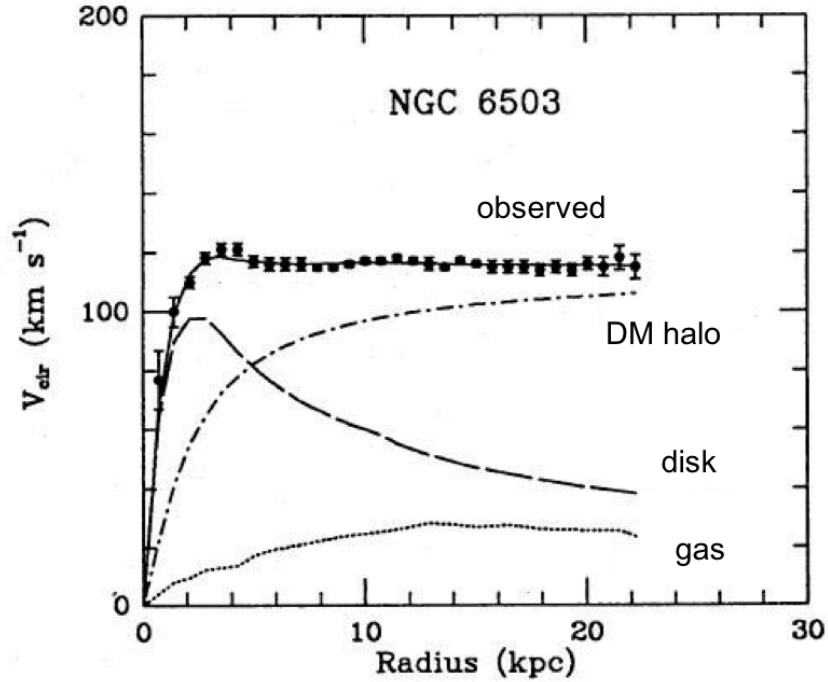


Figure 2.1.: An example of galaxy rotation curve (NGC 6503). The observed rotation curve is plotted with the individual components. . Extracted from [RTF80].

2.2. WIMP as dark matter candidate

The Λ cold dark matter (Λ 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, Λ CDM model contains a cosmological constant (denoted with Λ) 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 itself and other particles through gravitation and weak force. They has to be stable, otherwise they would not exist with such abundance nowadays.

In standard model, no particle satisfies all the properties above. The standard model is thus to be extended. There are many hypothetical particles as potential dark matter candidates, e.g. Axions, sterile neutrinos, WIMPs. 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 candidate of warm dark matter if their mass is in keV range. The dark matter candidate of interest in this work is called WIMP (weakly interacting massive particle), a generic class of hypothetical particles.

WIMP is expected to have mass of 100 GeV and interact weakly and gravitationally. For sufficiently high temperatures, like in the early universe, the WIMPs are constantly created and annihilated. As the temperature drops, the WIMPs almost cease to interact and the particle density remains roughly the same. A promising candidate of WIMP is the so-called lightest supersymmetric particle (LSP) of the supersymmetric model (SUSY). SUSY is an extension of the standard model that 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 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 EDELWEISS experiment.

2.3. EDELWEISS-III 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 cannot be distinguished from the WIMP-signal, is described in detail in chapter 3.

2.3.1. Experimental setup and backgrounds at EDELWEISS

The EDELWEISS experiment is located in the underground laboratory of Mondane (*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 $5 \mu/\text{m}^2/\text{d}$ [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.

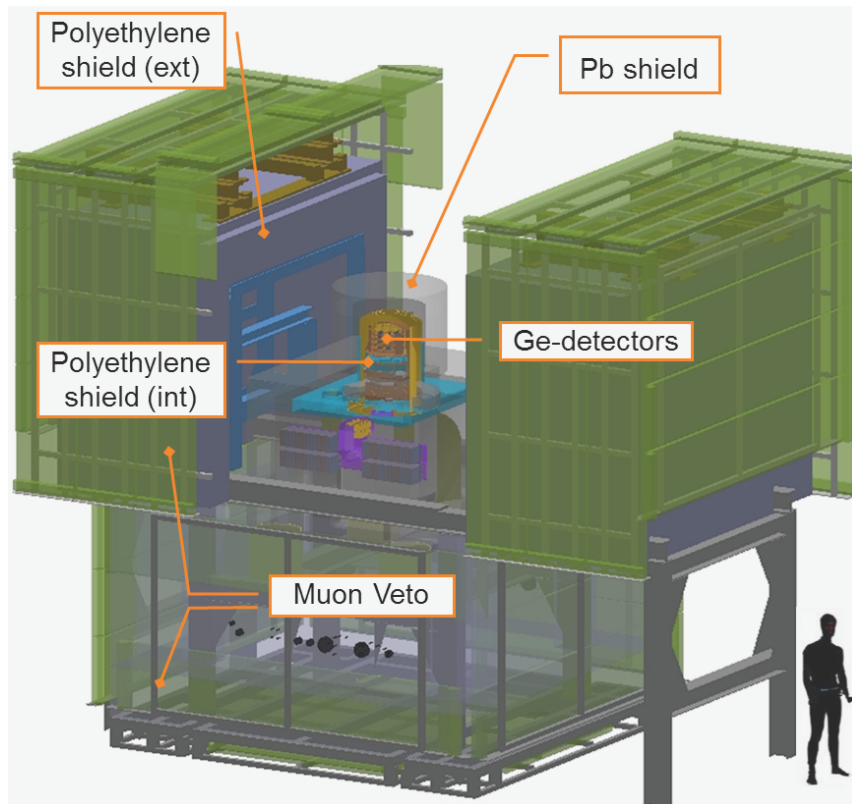


Figure 2.2.: Schematic view of EDELWEISS experimental setup. In the center are the Ge-bolometers hosted in a cryostat. The cryostat is surrounded by a lead shield, a PE shield and an active muon veto system to minimize the backgrounds.

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 γ background. The nature lead contains radioactive isotopes—e.g. ^{210}Pb , ^{238}U and ^{232}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 ^{210}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 background is the ^{222}Rn as a decay product of ^{238}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 $T = (18.000 \pm 0.002)$ mK.

2.3.2. Working principle of Ge Bolometer

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

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

$$\Delta T = \frac{E_{\text{rec}}}{CT} \quad (2.2)$$

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

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

with characteristic constants $R_0 = \mathcal{O}(0.1 \Omega)$ and $T_0 = \mathcal{O}(1 \text{ K})$. At the operating temperature of 18 mK, the resistance becomes a few M Ω . 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_{ion} is simultaneously measured. Electron-hole pairs are produced in the germanium crystal for a energy deposit over 2.96 eV. The created charged carriers are drifted to the biased electrodes and collected.

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

$$Q = \frac{E_{\text{ion}}}{E_{\text{rec}}} \quad (2.4)$$

Since the WIMPs and neutrons scatter off nuclei, the required energy to produce a pair of charge carriers is higher than which of electron recoil. The most energy deposited by nuclear recoils are 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⁺01]:

$$Q_n = 0.16 \cdot (E_{\text{rec}}[\text{keV}])^{0.18} \quad (2.5)$$

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, respectively produced in muon-induced showers or muon-nuclear interactions.

3. Muon detection in EDELWEISS experiment

Despite the rock overburden of LSM reduces the cosmic muon flux by 6 orders of magnitude, the remaining muons can produce neutrons and mimic WIMP signals WIMPs. 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 K  f  lian. [K  f16]

3.1. Setup of the Muon veto system

The muon-veto system is the outermost layer of shieldings and covers a surface of 100 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 locates in a clean room and host 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.

To cover the gap resulted from the opening of the upper parts, M7, M8, M15 and M16 are 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 upper part.

The other modules have a width of 65 cm and a thickness of 5 cm. Their lengths varies from 2 m to 4 m. Due to the opening for electronics and the shorter length of some modules, the overall geometric efficiency is 98%. However, the muon going through the gap can partly be detected via the particle showers induced by them.

A group of four Photomultiplier Tubes (PMT) are installed at each module end. Each PMT group is individually biased with a high voltage (HV). The HV values are set around -1500 V and seldom changed over years to compensate the aging effect of the modules. To ensure 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 Muon veto system

3.2.1. Muon Energy deposit in the scintillator modules

The average muon energy at LSM is $\langle E_\mu \rangle_{\text{LSM}} \approx 260\text{ GeV}$. The high energy muons deposit 2 MeV/cm in the muon-veto modules according to the Bethe formula. Since the scintillator

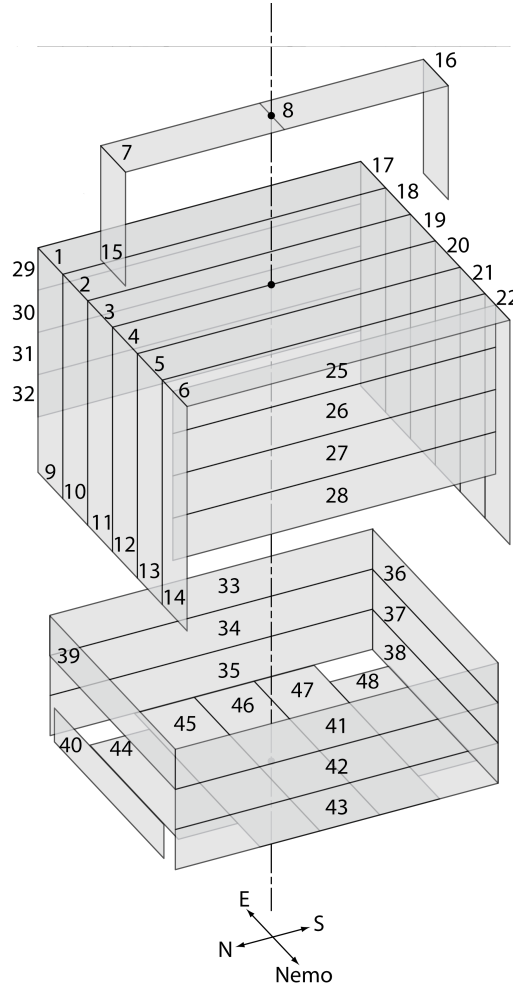


Figure 3.1.: Schematic view of Muon-Veto System. Each wall of the system is labelled according to its geometric orientation in the laboratory.

modules have 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 deadtime 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 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 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. Readout electronic 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 romm is taken place. When a muon goes through the scintillator modules, it deposits energy via different processes and products scintillation lights. 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 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 2 PMT groups within 100 ns time window, all non-zero signals of the muon-veto system are stored as one event. After the triggering, there is dead-time of $\tau = 0.16$ 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 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:

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

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

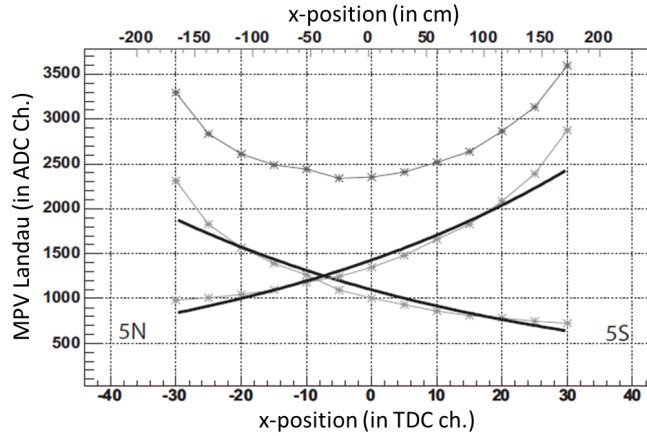


Figure 3.2.: Light measured in the north and south PMT groups of Module 5 and the sum of them. The data are fitted with exponential curves. Extracted from [Hab04].

In 2003/2004 the attenuation length of two 4 m modules were measured. Fig. 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 far end. For M5 Λ_{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 Data of the Muon-Veto Run

The measured events are stored in data files and combined to so-called Runs. Each Run contains up to 99 files, with each file stores 8 hours measurement. That means, one Run file usually contains data of one month measurement. 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⁺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 conversion threshold. For an event with energy deposit under this value, the ADC is not stored and set to -1. The threshold is 120 ADC channels and differs from each other.
- **TDC:** The arrival time of 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 are stored in seconds. For the muon-veto events to be compared with bolometer events, an additional timestamp in 10 μ s precision is saved. However, such precision is of no interest in 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 eastern wall to M8 and DistanceNemo stores the distance from western wall to M6. For each event, the distances obtained from last laser measurement are saved.
- **IsLEDFired:** The LEDs installed on extra top modules fire every eight hours to monitor the stability of the system. When the event is caused by LED firing, the bool value IsLEDFired is set to true, allowing a distinction between LED events and other events.

4. Analysis of the LED data

As described in Chapter 3, the four extra modules added in 2010 covering the gap of veto system are equipped with LEDs. M7 and M8 have three LEDs: one at the center and the other two at two ends. 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 μ -veto system. They are clearly defined comparing to muon induced events, therefore the LED events are good probe to estimate the long term stability of these four modules.

4.1. Data selection

The 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. Long term stability

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 short time. Thus the 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. 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 two off-center LEDs differ about 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 effect are even more significant in other modules.

In fig.4.2, the error bar of a single data point is the statistical error given by the gaussian fit. Since most LED events in one fire serie have good gaussian form, the statistical error is mostly much smaller than the actually error. Several other effects lead to the

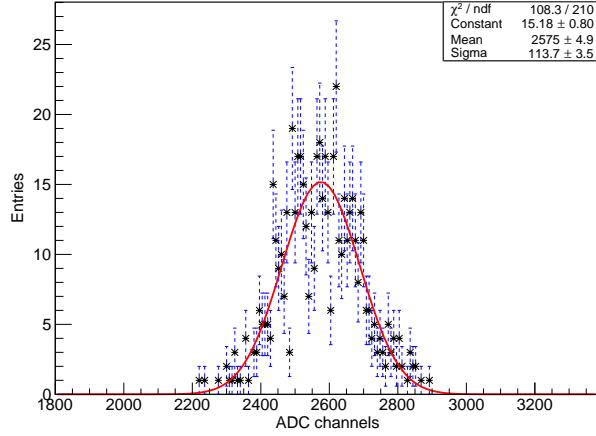


Figure 4.1.: Example of an gaussian fit to nine LED fire series in Module 8, north PMT group. The spectrum is fitted with log likelihood method in ROOT.

fluctuation of the ADC value, for example, the switch-on effect of electronics after a long pause. Consequently, the systematic error can only be approximated. The result of the linear fits are listed in Tab.4.1 with errors. The systematic error of the slope is estimated by fitting different parts of the time period and taking the difference of the maximum and minimum slopes.

Various effect could lead to the decrease of 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 is then proportional to 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 each end of a module. Last, light output of a LED varies over time and leads to same change of value measured in two PMT groups.

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Same procedure is applied on other 3 modules M7,M15 and M16 and the result is similar.

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

slope in channels/month			
	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	$-3.02 \pm 0.07 \pm 5.50$	$-1.49 \pm 0.06 \pm 2.92$	$0.59 \pm 0.05 \pm 2.74$

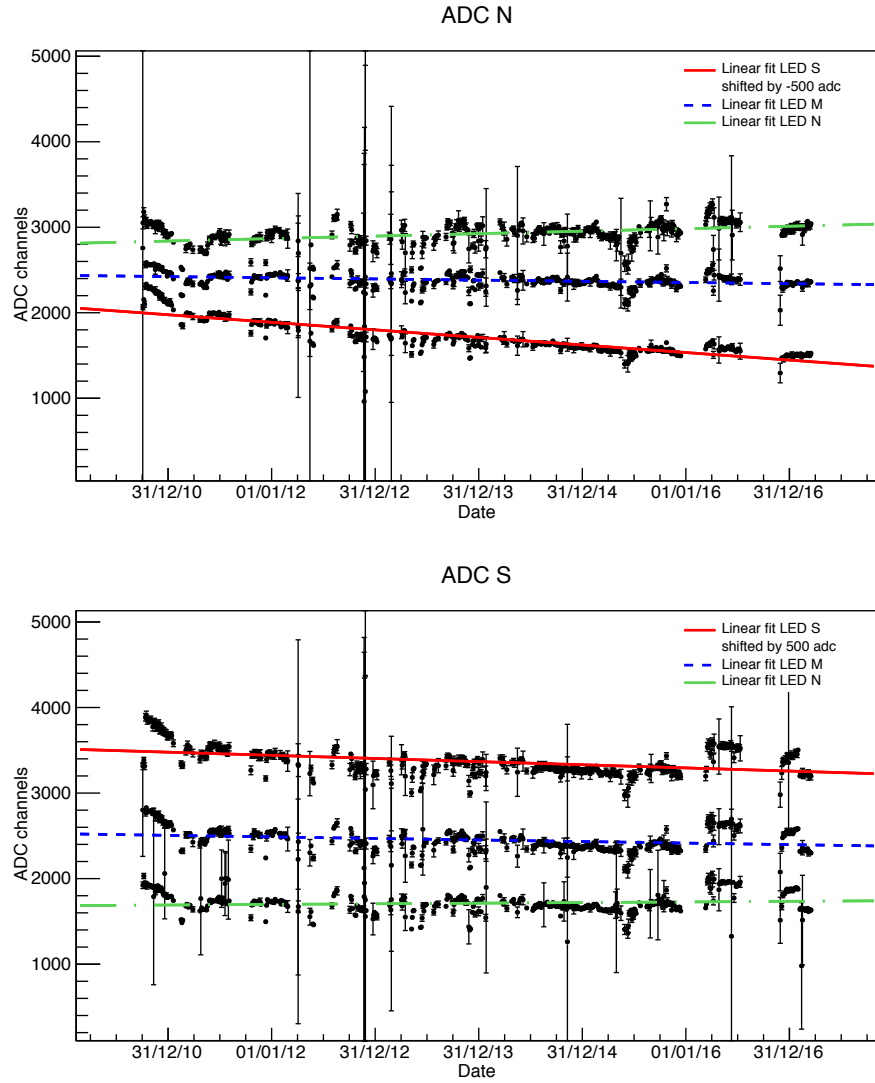


Figure 4.2.: The ADC values of LED signals over time in Module 8.

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.

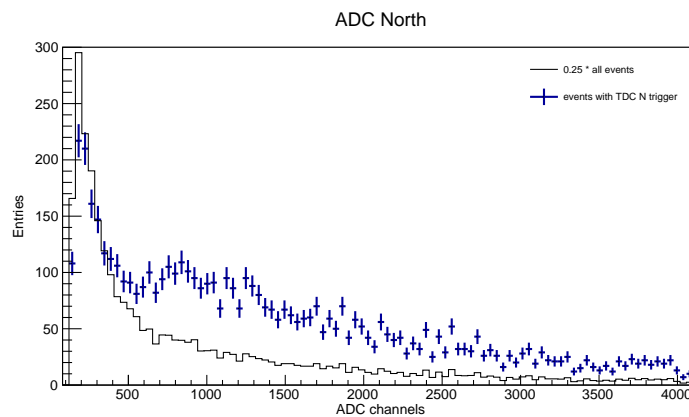
5. Determination of the long term stability using muon events

5.1. Muon Events

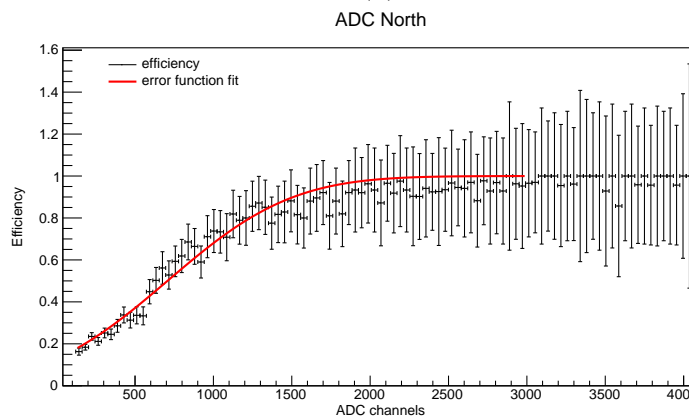
- selection criterium, runs...
- Landau-spectrum, method detailed for M6..., compare M8 with LED.

5.2. Determination of the effective threshold

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



(a)



(b)

6. Conclusions

Appendix

A. First Appendix Section

Wonderful Appendix!

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