

Chapter 3

The Deep Underground Neutrino Experiment

The Deep Underground Neutrino Experiment (DUNE) experiment [66, 88–90] is a future long-baseline neutrino experiment with a diverse physics program hosted by Fermilab, IL, U.S.. The far detector will be at the Sanford Underground Research Facility (SURF) near Lead, South Dakota, providing a baseline of 1300 km. A cartoon of the experiment is shown in Figure 3.1.

The DUNE experiment will be discussed in this present chapter. As the experiment utilises liquid argon TPCs, a brief history and description of this detector technology is provided as a basis in Section 3.1. An overview of the experiment, including its motivation, will be presented in Section 3.2 before the experimental details are discussed in Section 3.3. The sensitivities of the experiment and its potential discoveries are the subject of Section ???. Finally, the schedule and strategy implemented by the collaboration to ensure commencement of data taking in around ten years’ time is outlined in Section 3.5.

3.1 The LAr TPC Concept

The use of a liquid argon time projection chamber (LArTPC) as a high-precision fine-grained detector medium holds much promise for the successful resolution of the open questions in neutrino physics. A great amount of R&D work has taken place to advance the maturity of the technology and pioneering experiments, such as ICARUS [91], have further increased the understanding of the neutrino community of the detector techniques. Past and currently running experiments at Fermilab, such as ArgoNeuT [92], LArIAT [93] and MicroBooNE

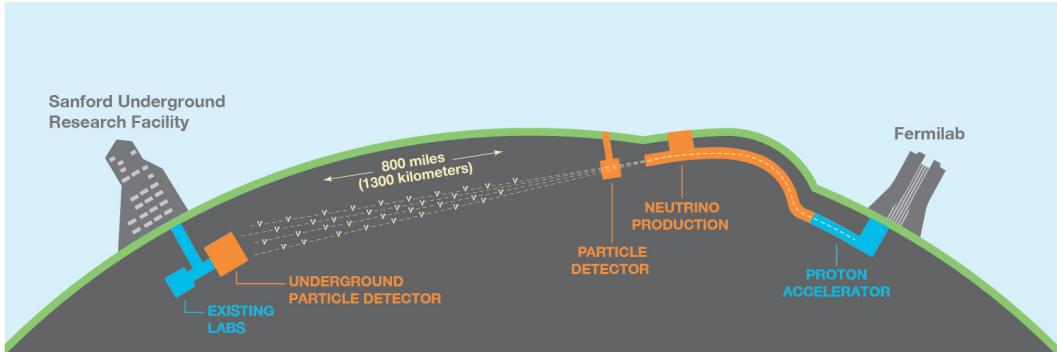


Fig. 3.1 Cartoon showing the configuration of the Deep Underground Neutrino Experiment. The experiment will be based at Fermilab, shown at the right of the figure, and will send neutrinos towards SURF, at the left hand side. The distance travelled, through the Earth's crust, will be 1300 km.

[94], are successfully using LArTPCs to take and analyse data and it seems certain to be the future of neutrino physics in the U.S. [95].

This section will provide a brief history of LArTPC technology and motivate its potential when used in a large experiment such as DUNE. The basic operation of such a detector will also be described to provide background for discussion of the DUNE and 35 ton experiments, and of reconstruction in LArTPCs, in future chapters.

3.1.1 A Brief History of Time (Projection Chambers)

The use of a time projection chamber as a potential particle detector was put forward by David Nygren in 1974 [96]. He envisioned bubble-chamber quality data but with the possibility of digital readout of the data, facilitating extremely fine spatial resolution, good timing resolution and fast recovery after triggering. The basic concept is a drift chamber containing a noble gas placed within a field to drift ionisation electrons created by a propagating particle towards a multielectron array. This setup allows full three-dimensional reconstruction by combining information from the two-dimensional readout plane with the drift time. Nygren also included a magnetic field to assist particle identification in his design, shown in Figure 3.2.

The extension of this concept to a liquid argon TPC and its potential as a high-precision fine-grained detector medium in neutrino physics was proposed by Carlo Rubbia in 1977 [97]. The use of a noble liquid rather than gas is necessary in neutrino experiments to provide a high enough target mass for increased probability of neutrino interactions. Noble liquids have high electron mobility and low diffusion, favourable properties as the detection of particles is from the ionisation and scintillation light created by the particles. Given the necessity of a high electric field in order to drift these electrons to the readout places, excellent dielectric

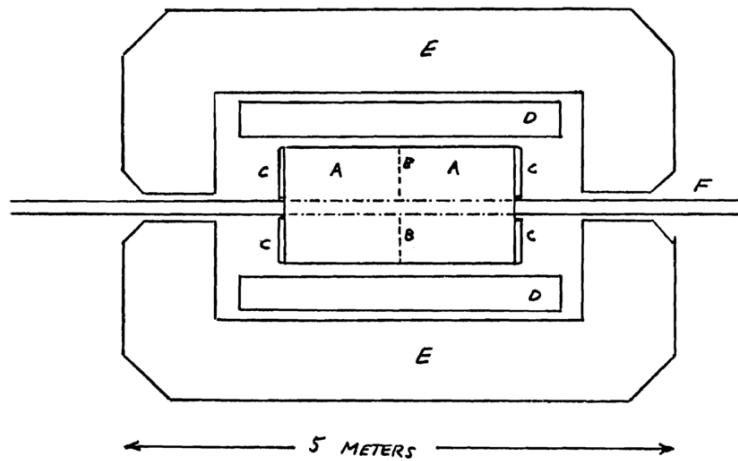


Fig. 3.2 The original concept of the time projection chamber particle detector, drawn by David Nygren in 1974 [96]. The sections are labelled as follows: methane-filled region (A), screen to establish electron field (B), end-cap detectors (C), superconducting solenoid (3.33 T) (D), iron return yoke for magnetic field (E), beam vacuum pipe (F).

properties are also required; noble liquids possess such qualities. The properties of liquid argon which make it almost perfect for this use are demonstrated in Table 3.1.

An additional advantage of this technology is the low threshold for detection; this is set by the ionisation threshold of liquid argon and is only 23.6 ± 0.5 eV [99]. Rubbia realised that a LArTPC could be the digital replacement for the high quality particle detection methods used in bubble chambers, very common in neutrino physics in the 1970s. He proposed the first LArTPC detector design, shown in Figure 3.3, which bears a striking resemblance to the LArTPCs in use today.

Table 3.1 Properties of noble liquids relevant when considering a TPC medium for a neutrino experiment [98].

	Water	He	Ne	Ar	Kr	Xe
Boiling point [K] @ 1 atm	373	4.2	27.1	87.3	120.0	165.0
Density [g/cm ³]	1	0.125	1.2	1.4	2.4	3.0
Radiation length [cm]	36.1	755.2	24.0	14.0	4.9	2.8
Scintillation [γ/MeV]	-	19 000	30 000	40 000	25 000	42 000
dE/dx [MeV/cm]	1.9	0.24	1.4	2.1	3.0	3.8
Scintillation λ [nm]	-	80	78	128	150	175
Abundance (Earth atm) [ppm]	5×10^4	5.2	18.2	9340.0	1.10	0.09
Electron mobility [cm ² /Vs]	low	low	low	400	1200	2200

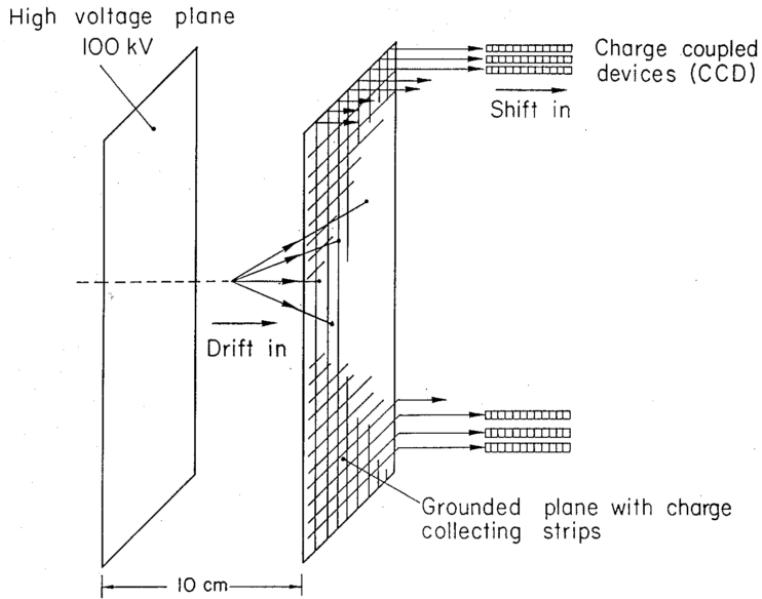


Fig. 3.3 The LArTPC detector proposed by Carlo Rubbia in 1977 [97].

Constructing and operating such a detector was beyond the technology of the time, and is still being understood today. The operation of a LArTPC detector and the challenges associated with this are the subject of Section 3.1.2.

3.1.2 LAr TPC Operation

A LArTPC typically consists of one or more anodes and cathodes at either end of an active drift region. An ionising particle passing through a LArTPC causes electrons to become free from argon atoms and, in the presence of a field, drift towards an anode where they are read out.

The readout consists of multiple wire planes with different orientations to facilitate the reconstruction. The wires are either ‘induction’ wires, which allow the electrons to deposit charge but continue past, or ‘collection’ wires, on which the electric field lines end and all the charge on the electron is collected. Each wire plane is therefore held at a different ‘bias voltage’ to prevent any field lines ending on the induction wire, thus creating local electric fields which promote the continuing forward motion of the electrons. The signal seen is therefore dependent on the type of wire plane; a bipolar pulse on an induction plane wire and unipolar on a collection plane wire. It is also common, though not essential, to make use of a ‘grid plane’ upstream of the signal planes in order to shield them from the electron charge until the drift electrons are close. Without such a plane, the bipolar pulse would be highly asymmetric, though would still have zero integral. It also makes changing the drift voltage

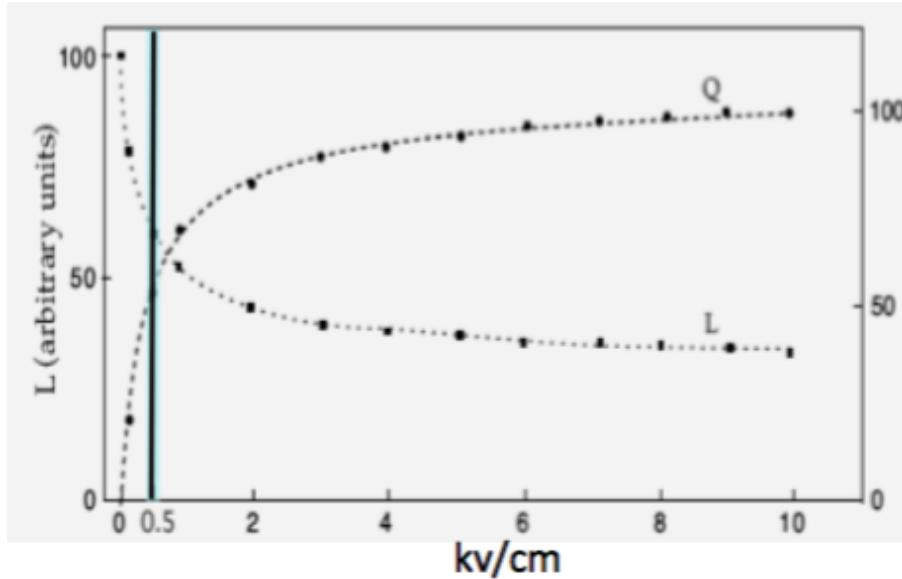


Fig. 3.4 Demonstration of the competing effect the electric field has on the luminosity of the ionisation electrons and scintillation light arriving at the detector readout. Since both are essential in reconstructing the complete interactions, a balance must be found. [PLACEHOLDER IMAGE].

(controlling the electric field) slightly easier as the signal planes are somewhat shielded from its effects. MicroBooNE does not operate with a grid plane and, although the 35 ton and the DUNE reference design make use of a grid plane, it is uncertain whether the benefit outweighs the cost for a huge LArTPC detector such as the DUNE far detector. There are alternative readout possibilities to this typical design which have been suggested but, given the scale of future LArTPCs, it is highly unlikely a viable solution which delivers superior readout at a comparable cost will be found.

Upon ionisation, an electron has a certain probability (around 60%) of recombining before the field can separate it from its ion. Whilst this compromises the signal observed, it is accompanied by a flash of scintillation light which may be detected and used to assign an ‘event time’ to the interaction, known as T0. Without this information, it would be impossible to place an absolute time scale on the event and result in an unresolved coordinate along the drift direction. The magnitude of the applied electric field must be chosen to balance these two effects; a larger field would result in less recombination and therefore compromise the scintillation light while a smaller field would have consequences on the signal received at the wire planes. Figure 3.4 demonstrates this and justifies the field value of 500 V/cm which is often chosen in current LAr neutrino experiments.

The basic operational principles of a LArTPC is demonstrated in Figure 3.5. The specifics of how the ionisation charge and the scintillation light is collected and processed is experiment-specific and will be discussed in the context of DUNE in Chapter 3 and the 35 ton experiment in Chapter 4. This information is all that is required to fully understand and analyse the interactions occurring in the detector; methods used to reconstruct particles and interactions in LAr will be the subject of Chapter 5.

3.1.3 LArTPC Challenges

There is no doubt of the promise of LArTPCs for the future of neutrino physics but with such expectation comes many challenges. This will be elaborated upon in more detail when discussing the 35 ton run in Section 4.8 but will be briefly mentioned here for completeness.

Given the drift fields required, and the necessary distances, the associated high voltage on the cathode must be on the order of ~ 100 kV. This presents engineering challenges related to the feedthrough and cryostat design but also can lead to dielectric breakdown of the liquid nearby such huge voltages. The properties of LAr and the design implications must be very well understood to ensure this does not endanger the quality of the detector medium.

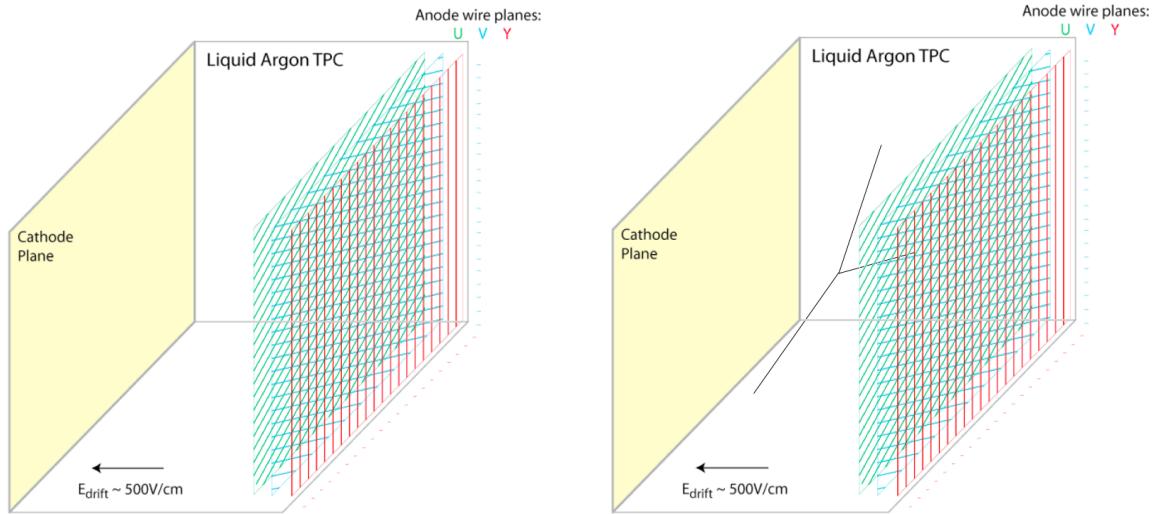
The presence of electro-negative impurities in the argon can capture drift electrons as they travel towards the anode planes and hinder the signal observed. The probability of this recombination is referred to as the ‘electron lifetime’ and is directly affected by the maintained purity of the argon. DUNE expects a contaminant no greater than ## ppm O₂ and ## ppm N₂ [to be filled in when I write the DUNE chapter]. This necessitates a purification system to remove impurities and requires the constant recirculation of the liquid through it. A liquifier is also necessary to recondense any boiled-off gases at the surface.

Along with the possibility of lost signal through finite electron lifetimes, the electrons may also undergo interactions and drift off course either transversely or longitudinally. This ‘diffusion’ affects the location and size of the observed signal so must also be well understood.

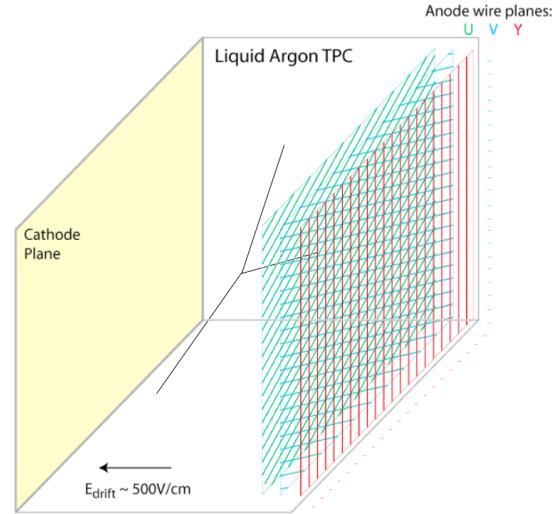
With so much resting on the success of the DUNE experiment, and considering all these effects which must be understood, prototyping is essential. The 35 ton prototype was constructed as an attempt to better understand LArTPCs and is the subject of Chapter 4.

3.2 Overview of DUNE

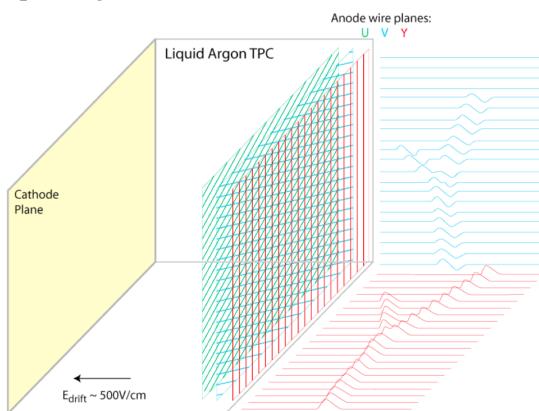
The outstanding questions in neutrino physics discussed in Section 2.3, namely the resolution of the mass hierarchy, the determination of the CP-violating phase δ_{CP} , the measurement of the octant of θ_{23} and precision calculations of all the mixing angles, motivate the need for



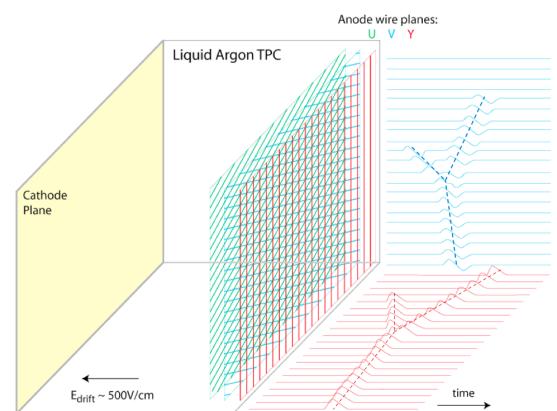
(a) Typical LArTPC with one cathode (left) and three read out anode planes (right) (two induction, U and V, and one collection, Y), setting up an electric field. The central region is filled with liquid argon.



(b) An ionising particle enters the detector and liberates electrons from the medium, which then drift towards the anode planes.



(c) As the electrons drift through, charge is induced on the first two wire planes and collected on the final one. Due to the differing orientations of the wires between planes, three complementary views of the interaction are provided (two are shown).



(d) By combining the two dimensional information provided by the anode planes with the drift time information, the original particle tracks can be inferred.

Fig. 3.5 Schematic demonstrating the basic operational principles of a LArTPC. The images are stills taken from an illustration created by Bo Yu (BNL) ([do I need to cite this? It's a very common slide and I can't actually find a Bo Yu talk with it in... everyone just puts his name on the slide!](#)).

next generation experiments. The DUNE experiment will make decisive contributions to each of these areas; it will also search for nucleon decay with the ability to set world-leading proton lifetime limits and make detailed, unique measurements of the ν_e flux from a core-collapse supernovae within our galaxy should one occur during the experiment. Along with this, DUNE will be used to look for Beyond Standard Model physics (such as non-standard interaction and sterile neutrinos), signatures of dark matter and, utilising the capable near detector, measurements of a range of neutrino cross-sections and nuclear effects including final state interactions.

The chosen technology for the DUNE far detector, in order to maximise sensitivity to all these factors, is a liquid argon (LAr) TPC (LArTPC), introduced and described in Section 3.1. The detector will contain four modules, each comprised of 10 kt fiducial LAr and separate data acquisition and readout systems. The beam will be provided by Fermilab as part of its PIP-II program [100] and will be wide band, enabling the study of a range of neutrino energies. This facilitates a study of multiple oscillation peaks, essentially due to differing L/E ratios, and is relevant when considering the effects of an unknown CP-violating phase and unresolved mass hierarchy. Since the impact of both of these uncertainties is apparent as an asymmetry between neutrinos and antineutrinos (Equation 2.32), there is an implicit degeneracy which must be resolved to ensure both phenomena are correctly determined. Having access to multiple oscillation peaks means this may be dealt with in a single experiment, as demonstrated in Figure 3.6 [101].

DUNE was officially formed in early 2015 following the dissolution and merging of two leading next generation long-baseline experiments: the Long Baseline Neutrino Experiment (LBNE) in the U.S. [102–104] and the Large Apparatus for Grand Unification, Neutrino Astrophysics, and Long Baseline Neutrino Oscillations (LAGUNA-LBNO) in Europe [105]. Given the scale of these projects, it was decided in 2014 that efforts should be focussed on one flagship experiment utilising the expertise of as many experts in neutrino physics and LArTPC technology as possible [106]. The Particle Physics Project Prioritisation Panel review recommended..... The benchmark DUNE design is very similar to that of the former LBNE experiment, which also made use of an upgraded Fermilab neutrino beam and a large LArTPC at SURF, and gained the understanding of dual phase LArTPC detectors developed by LAGUNA-LBNO. **Need to mention dual phase in the first section.** It is likely that at least one of the four DUNE detector modules will be a dual phase LArTPC.

The experiment will be facilitated by the Long Baseline Neutrino Facility (LBNF), which will oversee the technical side of the project and ensure the DUNE experiment can function as desired. The relationship between the LBNF and the DUNE projects is based on the model used at CERN to manage the Large Hadron Collider (LHC) and each of the experiments

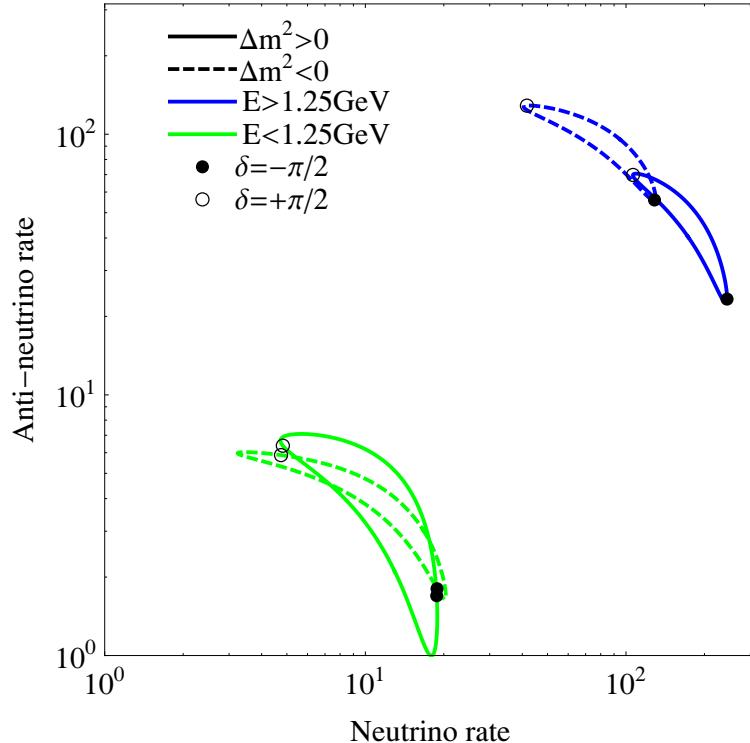


Fig. 3.6 Demonstration of how having access to multiple oscillation maxima facilitates measurements of both the neutrino mass hierarchy and leptonic CP-violation using the same experiment. In the plot, θ_{13} is held constant and the rates are determined by the number of neutrino and antineutrino events respectively. Assuming a baseline of 1300 km, as for DUNE, the first oscillation maximum is at $E_\nu = 2.5$ GeV and the second is at $E_\nu = 0.84$ GeV. The banana-shaped distributions are obtained as the value of δ_{CP} is varied from $-\pi$ to π . There is good separation between the distributions associated with each hierarchy at the first maximum whereas at the second maximum this is degenerate and the rates are similar for a given value of δ_{CP} regardless of the hierarchy. It can be seen how complimentary measurements at each maxima can be used to make unambiguous measurements of both the mass hierarchy and of CP-violation with the same experiment. Taken from [101].

which use it. LBNF has its own management structure and operates separately from DUNE, though the two projects work closely together. It is supported mainly via the Department of Energy in the U.S. whereas DUNE is internationally funded. The DUNE collaboration is responsible for defining the scientific goals of the experiment and the corresponding technical requirements. Using these, LBNF will design and construct all technical facilities, such as the beam upgrade, the facilities for the near detectors at Fermilab and the excavation and outfitting of the large caverns for the far detectors underground at SURF along the required infrastructure to support the construction of the cryostats and the associated cryogenic systems. DUNE will provide the four massive LArTPCs and the near detector systems, to be constructed at the sites supplied by LBNF. These will be discussed further in Section 3.3. During the lifetime of the experiment, LBNF is responsible for the maintaining and operation of all the facilities whilst DUNE will commission and operate the detectors. The scientific research program conducted with the collected data is the duty of the DUNE collaboration and will be explored in Section ??.

Given the scale of the projects, work is already underway. Construction at the far detector site starts this year, with installation of the first detector module due to commence in 2021. The start of the DUNE experiment will then correspond to the completion of this module, scheduled in 2024. The PIP-II upgraded 1.2 MW beam will be ready in 2025 and will signify the commencement of beam data taking. Subsequent detector modules will be added as soon as is feasible thereafter, increasing the fiducial volume up to the target mass of 40 kt. Further beam upgrades, up to 2.4 MW (PIP-III) are envisaged beyond this to bring the experiment up to full power and maximise the physics capability of the project. The timescales of both LBNF and DUNE, along with all the essential research which must be conducted as the plans progress, is the subject of Section 3.5.

3.3 Experimental Details

3.3.1 Beam

3.3.2 Near Detector

3.3.3 Far Detector

3.4 The Physics of DUNE

The staged approach to the DUNE experiment will allow early preliminary results but will require more time for facilities from later phases to be constructed and commissioned. For

Table 3.2 Exposures anticipated for the DUNE experiment for the first few years of operation. Due to the staged approach in construction, it will take some time to reach full design capabilities. The first exposure column represents the exposure expected in that year and the next column the cumulative total.

Year	Exposure (kt·MW·year)	Total (kt·MW·year)	Detector stage
Year 1	10.7	10.7	10 kt far detector, no near detector, 1.07 MW 80 GeV proton beam (1.47×10^{21} pot per year)
Year 2	21.4	32.1	Addition of second 10 kt far detector module
Year 3	32.1	64.2	Addition of third 10 kt far detector module and initial constraints from near detector
Year 4	42.8	107.0	Addition of fourth 10 kt far detector module
Year 5	42.8	149.8	Inclusion of constraints from full near detector data analysis
Year 7	85.6	278.2	Upgrade beam power to 2.14 MW for 80 GeV proton beam

this and other reasons, the accumulated data is often referred to as an ‘exposure’, a function of detector size, beam power and time with units kt·MW·year. The current assumptions on exposures for the first few years of operation are shown in Table 3.2. This staging will be assumed in all sensitivities presented in this section.

The appearance probability expected at the DUNE far detector is demonstrated in Figure 3.7 for various values of δ_{CP} .

3.4.1 Mass Hierarchy

The sensitivity of DUNE to the neutrino mass hierarchy is shown in Figure 3.8.

3.5 The Road to DUNE

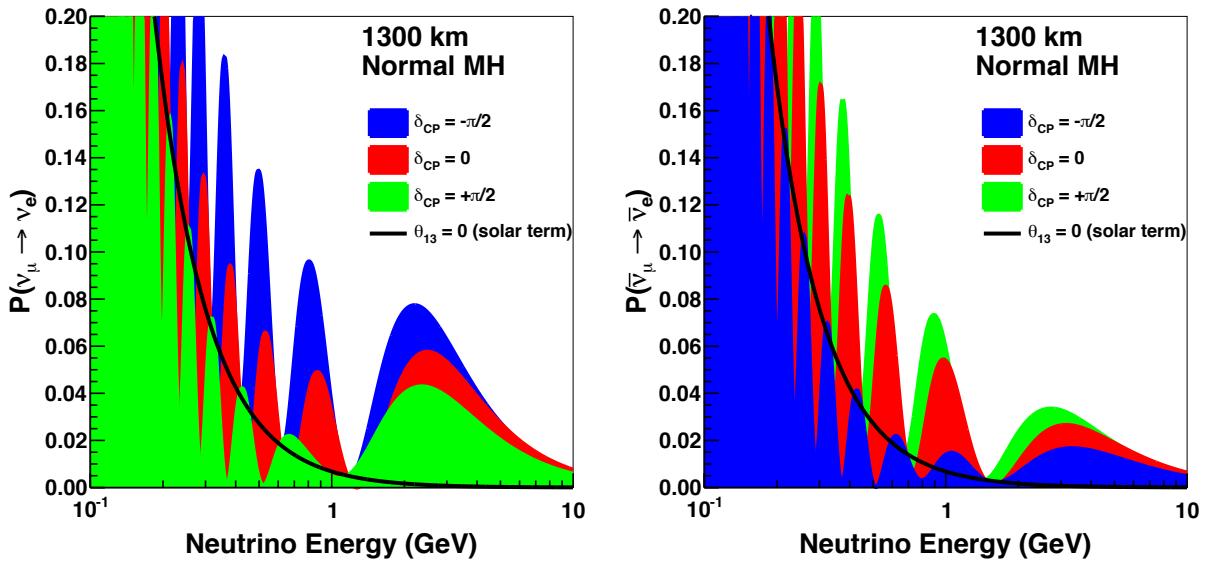
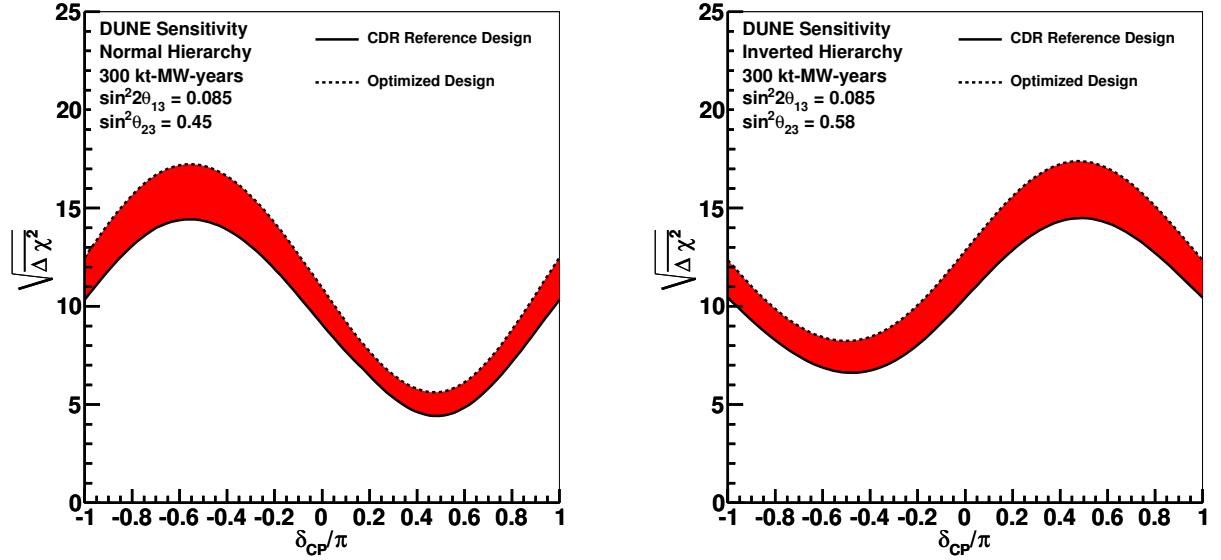
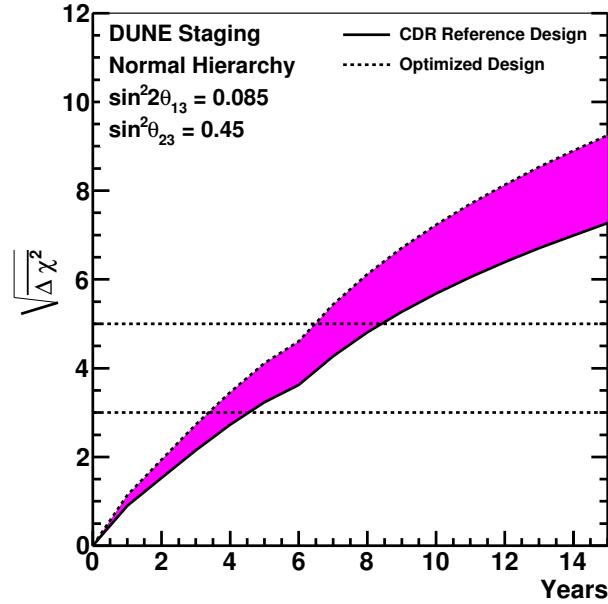


Fig. 3.7 The appearance probability at a baseline of 1300 km, as a function of neutrino energy, for $\delta_{CP} = -\pi/2$ (blue), 0 (red) and $\pi/2$ (green) for neutrinos (left) and antineutrinos (right), for normal hierarchy. The black lines indicates the oscillation probability if θ_{13} were equal to zero. Taken from [88].



(a) The significance with which the mass hierarchy can be determined as a function of the value of δ_{CP} for an exposure of 300 kt·MW·year assuming normal hierarchy (left) and inverted hierarchy (right). Taken from [88].



(b) Assuming normal hierarchy, the minimum significance (the lowest point on the curve in Figure 3.8a) with which the mass hierarchy can be determined for all values of δ_{CP} as a function of years of running under the assumptions in Table 3.2. Taken from [66].

Fig. 3.8 Sensitivity of the DUNE experiment to the neutrino mass hierarchy.

Chapter 7

Analysis of 35 ton Data

Could this chapter be a little more specifically titled?

The 35 ton run (see Section 4.8) provided 22 days of good quality (high purity, stable field (250 V/cm), stable DAQ), analysable data. Due to the issues encountered, high quality physics analyses proved very challenging and instead more time was taken developing software to mitigate issues such as coherent noise and digitiser stuck bits. Analyses, particularly those presented here, focused on trying to understand the detector and characterise previously untested responses. In this respect, the 35 ton proves to be a vital experiment in informing the next generation of prototypes and even the final DUNE far detector design. It also boasts datasets which no planned experiment will have before the full DUNE modules; it is therefore essential as much information as possible is extracted from the 35 ton analyses.

Before analyses are presented, techniques developed to enhance the quality of the data, and the data selection, will be discussed in Section 7.1. A short section demonstrating how LAr purity may be determined from data is contained in Section 7.2 before the main analyses, concerning tracks passing across APA gaps and through the APA frames, are presented in Section 7.3 and Section 7.4 respectively. Finally, a brief investigation into the performance of basic shower and calorimetric reconstruction on the 35 ton data is discussed in Section 7.5.

7.1 Preparing 35 ton Data for Analysis

To ensure analyses are as accurate as possible, careful pre-selection and preprocessing of the data is performed. Methods for producing the analysable sample are discussed in the section.

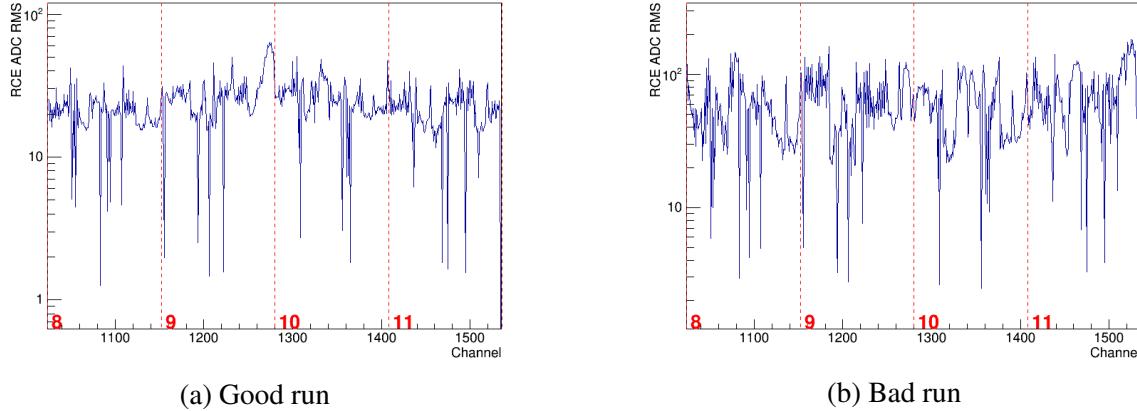


Fig. 7.1 Comparison between noise levels for ‘good’ and ‘bad’ 35 ton runs. The channels shown are on APA2 (online convention, APA0 offline) and are read out by RCEs 8 through 11 (labelled). The increase in read out charge RMS is evident in the case of the noisy run. These plots are from runs 15797 (Fig 7.1a) and 15790 (Figure 7.1b) and were taken only 50 minutes apart.

7.1.1 Selecting the Data

The level of noise present in the TPC data varied hugely between runs – this is evident from analysing the RMS of the charge read out on a particular channel. Figure 7.1 shows a comparison of this metric for ‘good’ and ‘bad’ runs.

Runs which exhibited the lowest noise were selected for analysis. In all there were 1269 runs used representing some data taken before the FNAL site wide power outage (3rd March 2016) with most the week after stabilising the experiment again (9th March – 17th March). A selection of bad channels, classified as either ‘dead’ (electrically) or ‘bad’ (exhibit sufficiently more than average noise), represent 8% of the total number of channels.

Due to the continuous nature of data taking, there is a non-trivial correlation between a ‘DAQ event’, a collection of fragments read out by the DAQ, and a ‘physics event’, an event in which particle interactions occurred. The external triggers used in the 35 ton, namely the external muon scintillators and the photon detectors, are used to define the event time. Given the trigger rate at which most data was taken (~ 1 Hz), a typical run comprising a few thousand events will only contain $\mathcal{O}(10)$ triggered events. Furthermore, given the data format, these events often straddle multiple DAQ events (refer to Figure 6.5 for a demonstration of this). A splitter/stitcher module is employed to search for triggers within runs and construct physics events containing the useful information for analysis. This produces a file with just this relevant information, which are then used for analysis.

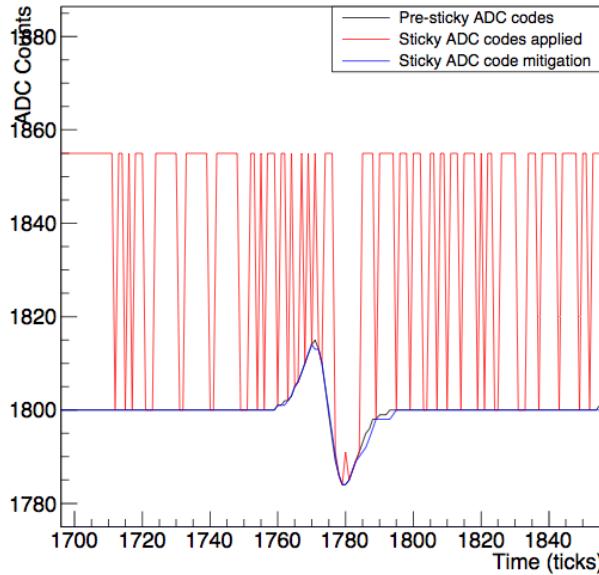


Fig. 7.2 Simulated demonstration of the method used to correct for stuck codes in the 35 ton data. On a given channel, ADCs exhibiting the consequences of this problem are corrected by interpolating charge at neighbouring time units. This is tested by simulating a waveform and adding the observed stuck code effect; the efficacy of the method at correcting the afflicted bits can then be evaluated.

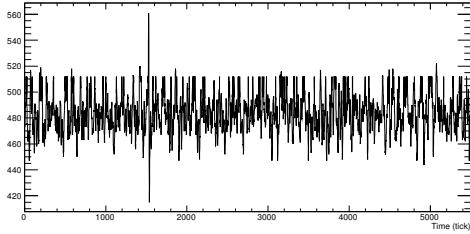
7.1.2 Improving Data Quality

Two issues present in the raw data, namely the presence of correlated noise and the stuck bits in the digitiser, are dealt with as an initial step of the reconstruction. First, an algorithm attempting to correct for the stuck bits analyses waveforms on a wire and identifies problematic ADCs; interpolating between charges read out at neighbouring times is successful at reconstructing the initial waveform in most cases. Figure 7.2 demonstrates this interpolation method on simulated data. The effect of applying this algorithm on a full waveform, to correct for all the stuck bits, is apparent in Figure 7.3.

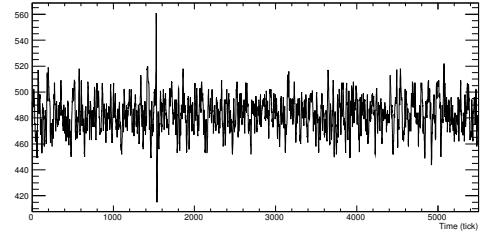
Following this process, a coherent noise removal stage is applied. This simply looks at the average noise across channels sharing a front-end voltage regulator and removes this component from the readout ADC for each channel. The effect of this correction is seen in Figure 7.4.

7.1.3 Reconstructing Muon Tracks

All analyses discussed below only make use of information recorded on the collection planes. Since the induction wires are longer (a necessity for wrapping), a larger capacitance results in higher noise levels, complicating the reconstruction. In general, after applying the

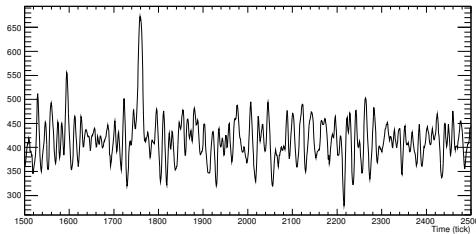


(a) Raw waveform before correcting for stuck bits.

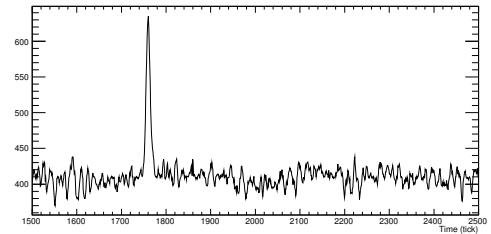


(b) After applying stuck bit mitigation.

Fig. 7.3 The effect of applying stuck bit mitigation to a waveform as seen in raw data. This particular waveform is from run 15660, channel 722 (induction channel).



(a) Waveform before removing coherent noise.



(b) After removing coherent noise.

Fig. 7.4 The effect of removing coherent noise from all channels on a voltage regulator. This waveform is from run 15660, channel 2010 (collection channel). The signal is noticeably larger following this process, considerably improving reconstruction performance.

refinements outlined in Section 7.1.2, the signals on the collection channels are prominent enough for competent analyses. The methods used to select tracks are described in this section and applied during the subsequent studies.

Using only the collection plane presents challenges, the most obvious being the impossibility of full 3D reconstruction. A hit on a collection wire at a given time gives well-defined x and z coordinates but cannot give any information in the y -direction. ‘Quasi-3D’ reconstruction is achieved by making use of the external counters. Through-going muons are triggered by the coincidence of hits in two opposite counters; this information can be used to give a crude handle on the y position of hits.

Figure 7.5 outlines the stages of selecting hits originating from the particle track which caused the trigger. Figure 7.5a shows all hits from an example event containing a through-going muon. The first stage of track selection involves taking those hits which lie in the ‘counter shadow’, the narrow section of collection plane area physically inbetween the opposing counters through which the triggering particle passed. The hits which remain are shown in Figure 7.5b. The track hits are visible along with further, unrelated hits. These are removed by requiring that only hits on wires with single occupancy be kept, and then applying a linear fit and removing all hits with residual > 2 cm. The final output after these stages is shown in Figure 7.5c.

The result of this track selection, as evident from Figure 7.5c, is a well-formed, high quality track with which it is possible to perform analyses. These will be the focus of the remainder of this chapter.

7.1.4 Preparing Simulated Data

Comparisons with simulated data are often essential in understanding various phenomena in the data. Throughout the analyses presented in this chapter, simulations were used to aid investigations and therefore it is important to ensure the Monte Carlo is as similar to the real data as possible.

The standard LArSoft simulation tools were used as described in Section 5.1, employing the CRY cosmic ray generator. The data passing through the detector was filtered on counter coincidences, exactly as the raw data is triggered. The simulated data was then processed in the same way as the real data and reconstructed using the methods described in Section 7.1.3.

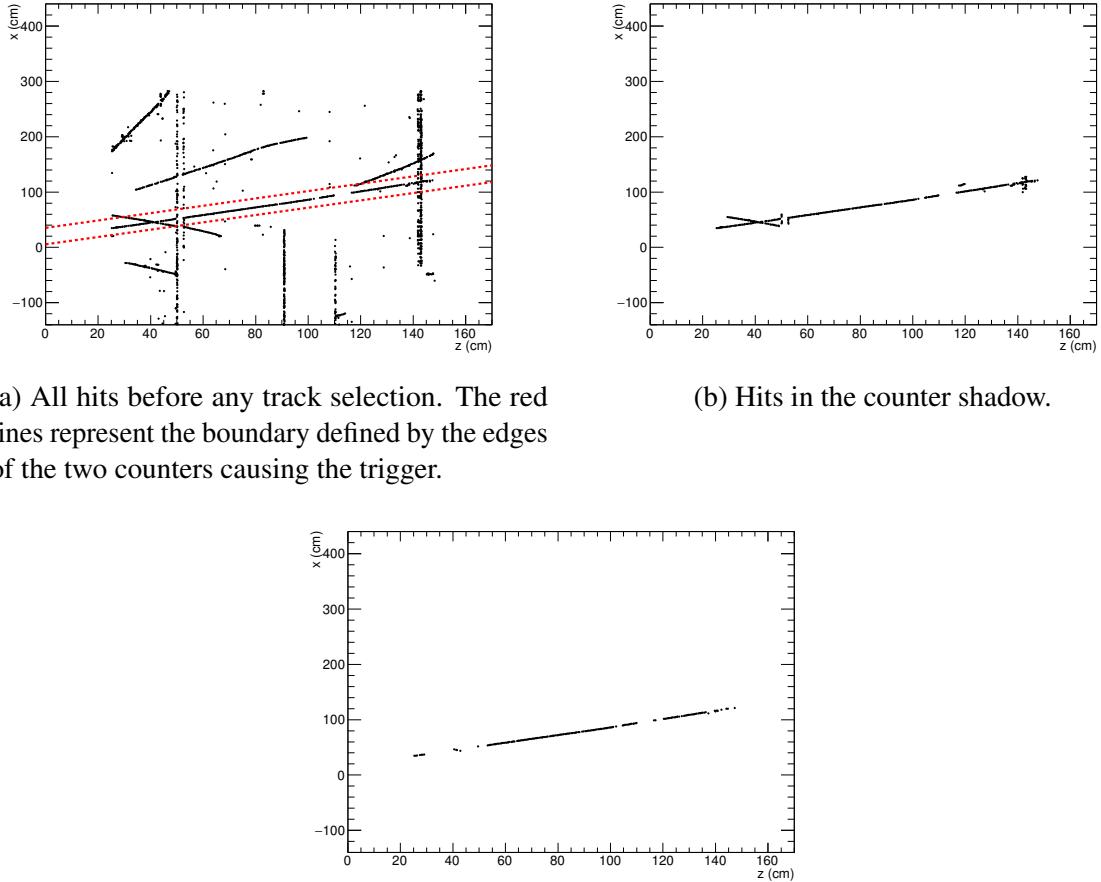


Fig. 7.5 Demonstration of the successive stages applied to hits on collection wires in order to select hits from the through-going track associated with the particle which caused the trigger. The hits left after all stages are taken forward into the analyses.

7.2 Measuring LAr Purity from Crossing Muons

The purity of the liquid argon is directly related to the concentration of electronegative impurities present in the medium which may capture drift electrons before they reach the anode planes. This gives rise to the concept of ‘electron lifetime’, τ , which affects the charge $Q_{\text{collected}}$ collected by the readout wires;

$$Q_{\text{collected}} = (Q_{\text{ionised}} - Q_{\text{recombination}})e^{-t/\tau}, \quad (7.1)$$

where Q_{ionised} is the ionised charge, $Q_{\text{recombination}}$ is the charge lost due to initial recombination with the position ion and t is the drift time of the charge packet. The lifetime is related to the impurity concentration empirically:

$$\tau = \left(\sum_i k_i n_i \right)^{-1}. \quad (7.2)$$

k is some shit.

It is possible to make a rough measurement of the electron lifetime directly from crossing muon tracks

7.3 APA Gap-Crossing Muons

One of the primary motivations for the design of the 35 ton TPC was to test its modular form, where a single drift region is read out by multiple anode assemblies. Particles passing through the detector will inevitably leave deposits in multiple TPCs and will pass uninstrumented regions of the detector, such as gaps in between neighbouring APAs. Many APA gap-crossing tracks are evident from the event display in Figure 7.6 and an example such track is demonstrated schematically in Figure 7.7. It is essential the implications of this design choice are understood before constructing the far detector modules, each of which will contain 150 APAs.

The 35 ton dataset consisting of muons which pass across the face of APAs and therefore deposit charge in consecutive TPCs is discussed in this present section. An analysis of these tracks to calculate the size of the gaps is presented in Section 7.3.1 and a study of the charge deposited by such tracks is the subject of Section 7.3.2.

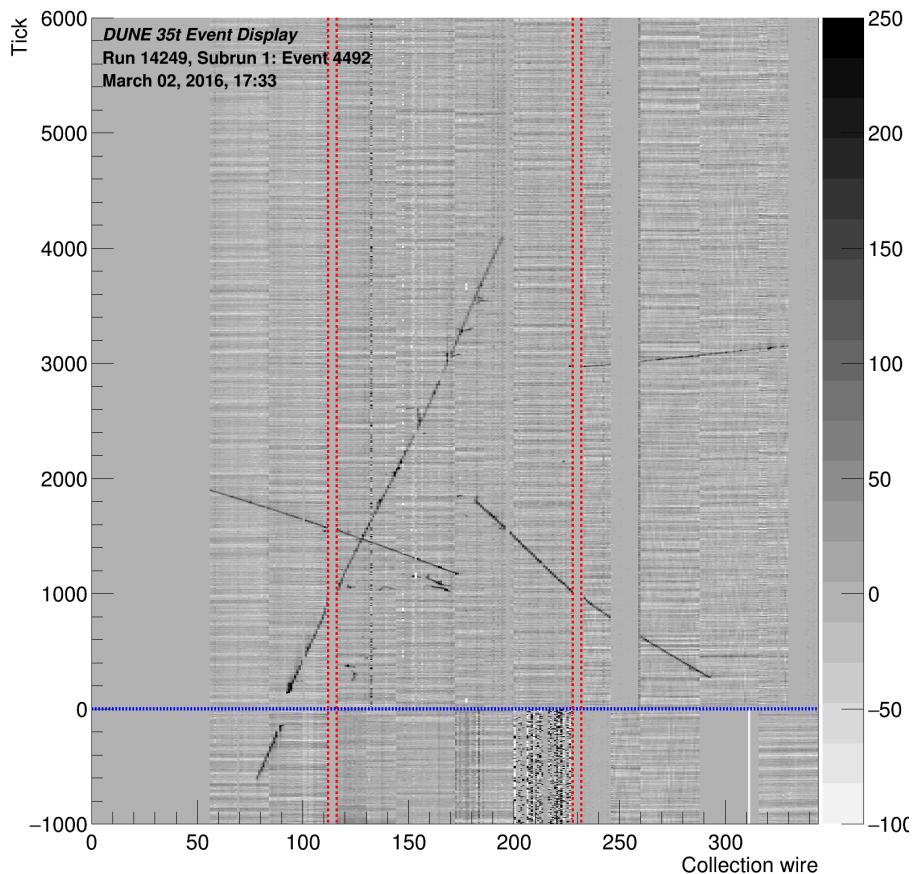


Fig. 7.6 Event display showing tracks passing across APA gaps and also through the APAs. A study of the tracks which pass across gaps between the APAs (the red lines) is the subject of Section 7.3. There is a visible offset apparent as the track crosses through the APAs (the blue line); correcting for T_0 would eliminate this and yield a single accurately connected track. This is discussed further in Section 7.4.

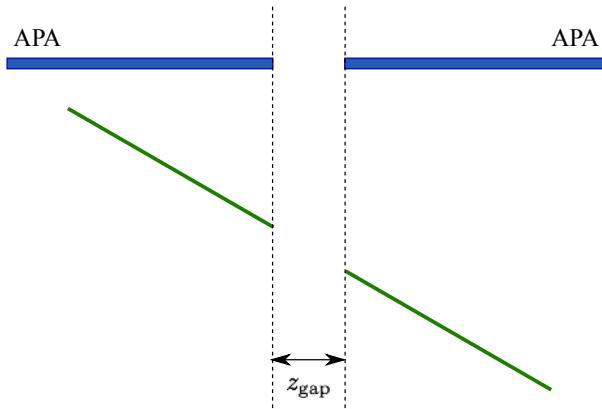


Fig. 7.7 Schematic showing an example APA-gap crossing track as viewed looking down from the top of the detector. The vertical direction represents the drift direction (x); the horizontal direction represents the z -direction. In general, these tracks make an angle with respect to the face of the APAs, as shown in the figure. As the gap in between the APAs is uninstrumented, no charge is deposited in this region.

7.3.1 APA-Gap Offset Determination

It is possible to use these gap crossing tracks to make measurements of the gaps between each of the APAs. This involves aligning the track segments from neighbouring TPCs, demonstrated in Figure 7.8. The value of the z -offset, Δz , is determined by considering a range of offset hypotheses, performing a linear fit and finding the offset which minimises the residual least squares

$$L = \sum_i^{nhits} (o_i - e_i)^2, \quad (7.3)$$

where $o_i - e_i$ is the distance from hit i to the best fit line.

There are eight gaps which can be measured from the data, demonstrated in Figure ???. Due to very low statistics, it was found measurements of the gaps on the short drift volume side of the APAs were not possible using the 35 ton data. Analysis of the gaps using tracks passing through the long drift volume, hereafter named TPC1/TPC3, TPC1/TPC5, TPC3/TPC7 and TPC5/TPC7, was therefore the focus of this study.

A number of cuts were applied to ensure only high quality tracks were included for analysis:

- Only hits greater than 1 cm and less than 15 cm away from the gap were included in the track segments. The purpose of this cut is to limit the effect of multiple scatterings and the poorly understood region closest to the gap, where charge deposited in the uninstrumented region may later be collected.

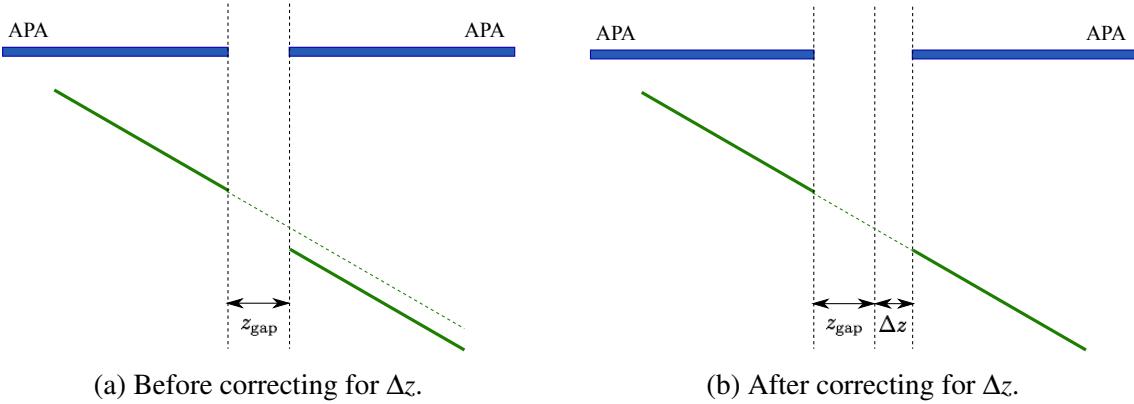


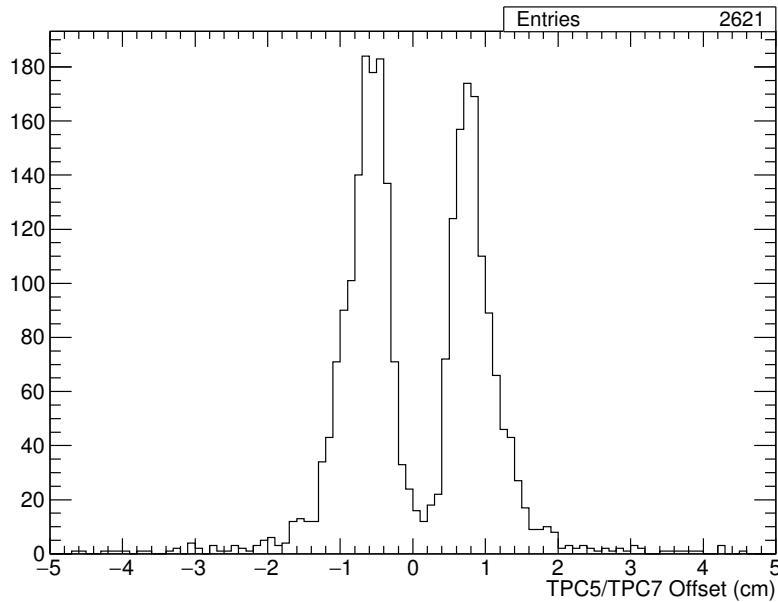
Fig. 7.8 Schematic showing an example track crossing two drift regions offset by an unknown quantity Δz . The effect of this is evident from the track deposits (Figure 7.8a) and can be corrected by ensuring the segments are aligned between the TPCs (Figure 7.8b).

- Each track segment must contain at least ten hits to allow an accurate measure of the gradient.
- The angle between the track segments either side of the gap must be less than 2° to remove any poorly reconstructed tracks, or segments originating from different particle tracks.
- The angle the track makes with respect to the APA face must be large enough that the gap offset effect can be measured to an acceptable accuracy. It is common in the 35 ton to refer to a ‘counter gradient’, the offset between the two counters forming the through-going particle trigger in the drift direction, in units of counter length (refer to Figure ??). The tracks must have a counter gradient of at least three.

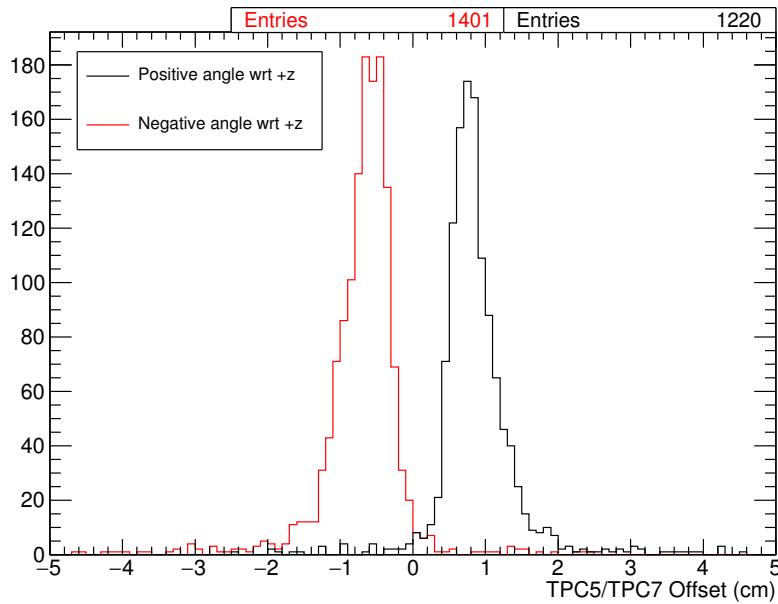
7.3.1.1 Measuring the APA Gaps

The gap which may expect the largest number of crossers is TPC5/TPC7 and so the method will be demonstrated using data from this channel. The z -offset determined using the method and cuts described above is shown in Figure 7.9. An unexpected feature is evident from this distribution; there is not a single peak but two, seemingly related to the angle which the through-going particle makes with respect to the APAs.

One explanation for this observed double-peak effect involves considering the possibility of additional offsets from the assumed positions of the APAs. This is demonstrated in Figure 7.10. It appears an offset in the x -position of the APAs could result in the problems encountered in the data. In order to test this, these offsets were artificially introduced into the simulation; the findings are presented in Figure 7.12. It appears the distribution of Δz



(a) Full distribution.



(b) Separated by the angle the track makes to the APAs.

Fig. 7.9 The z -offset for the TPC5/TPC7 gap measured in the 35 ton data. A very noticeable double-peak structure is evident in Figure 7.9a; this bias appears to be related to the sign of the angle the particle track makes to the APA planes.

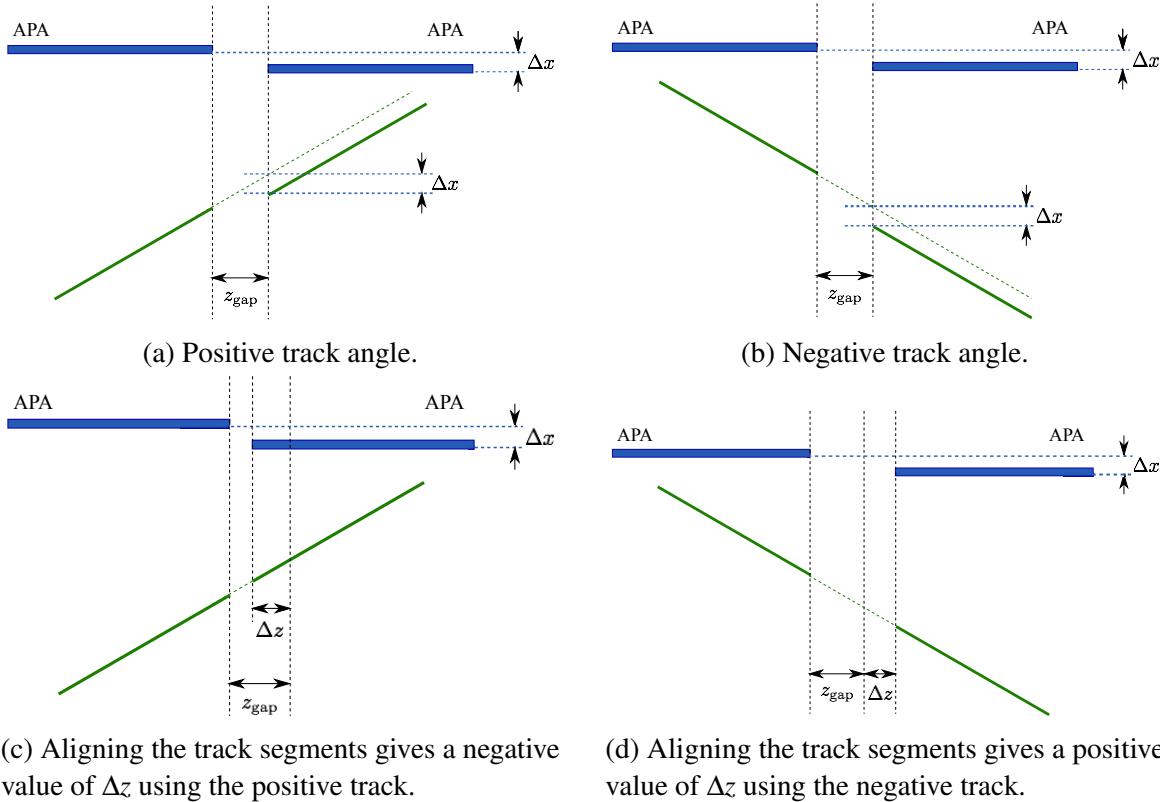


Fig. 7.10 Demonstration of how an x -offset in the positions of the APAs can explain the degeneracy evident in the z -offset measured using the 35 ton data (Figure 7.9). In the left-hand plots, Figures 7.10a and 7.10c, the through-going particle makes a positive angle to the face of the APAs and in the right-hand plots, Figures 7.10b and 7.10d, the particle is travelling with a negative gradient. In both cases, the offset of the APAs in the x -direction is the same. It is clear from Figures 7.10c and 7.10d how the sign of the measured Δz is dependent on the angle of the track.

measured from the data is consistent with APAs with offsets from expectation in both x and z . Moreover, it may be possible to measure both offsets from the same data set.

It is clear from Figure 7.12 that the z -offset may be determined as the minimum between the angular-separated distributions. This can be justified by geometrical considerations, explained in Figure 7.13. In this case, this may be achieved by fitting a function of the form

$$f(x) = a(x - b)^2 + c \quad (7.4)$$

and extracting parameter b as the true value of Δz . This is shown in Figure 7.14.

Using this measured value of Δz , the offsets can be analysed again, this time measuring the x -offset by correcting for the z -offset. The measured x -offset distribution is shown in

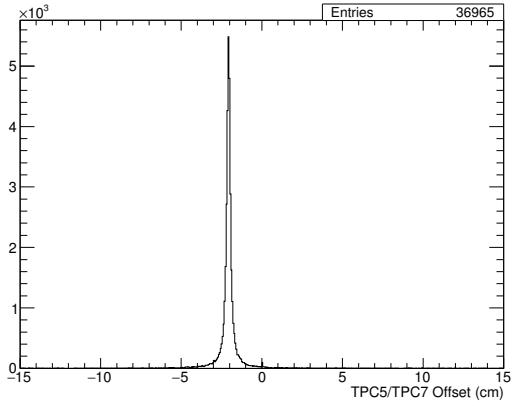
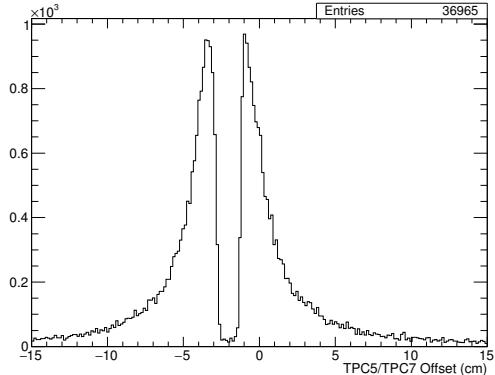
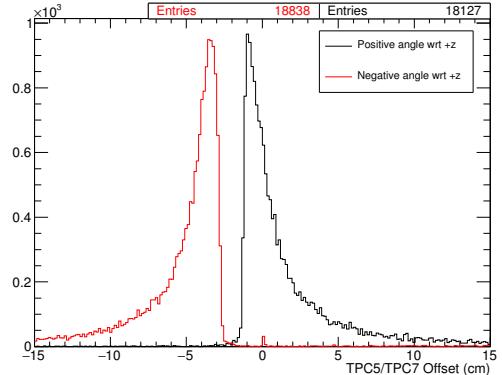
(a) $z\text{-offset} = 2 \text{ cm}$, $x\text{-offset} = 0 \text{ cm}$.(b) $z\text{-offset} = 2 \text{ cm}$, $x\text{-offset} = 0.5 \text{ cm}$.(c) $z\text{-offset} = 2 \text{ cm}$, $x\text{-offset} = 0.5 \text{ cm}$.

Fig. 7.11 Studies of the effects of offsets in the positions of the APAs in simulation. Artificial z - and x - offsets are introduced and their impact observed in the measurements of Δz . Figure 7.12a shows the effect of an offset in the z -direction; as expected, there is a single peak measuring the inputted value. Figures 7.12b and 7.12c show the consequence of offsets in both the x - and z -directions. This appears to show exactly what is seen in the 35 ton data (Figure 7.9).

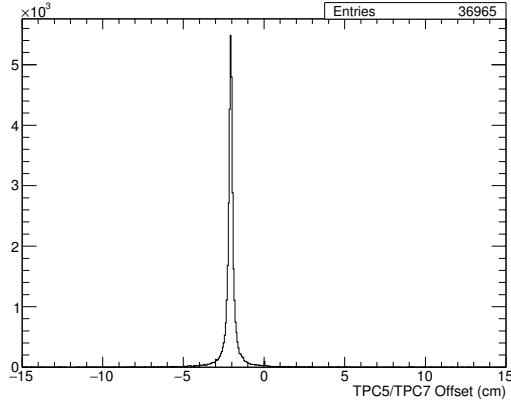
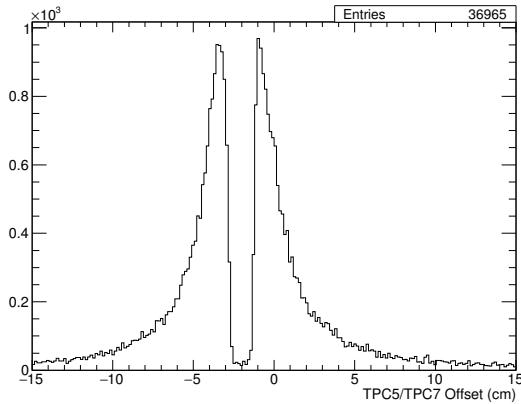
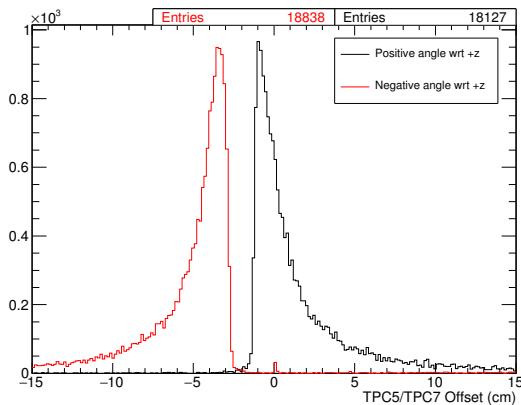
(a) $z\text{-offset} = 2 \text{ cm}$, $x\text{-offset} = 0 \text{ cm}$.(b) $z\text{-offset} = 2 \text{ cm}$, $x\text{-offset} = 0.5 \text{ cm}$.(c) $z\text{-offset} = 2 \text{ cm}$, $x\text{-offset} = 0.5 \text{ cm}$.

Fig. 7.12 Same as previous page – which is better? I prefer the layout of the previous page but I like this one because you can see the 2cm offset in line with each other down the page!

Studies of the effects of offsets in the positions of the APAs in simulation. Artificial z - and x - offsets are introduced and their impact observed in the measurements of Δz . Figure 7.12a shows the effect of an offset in the z -direction; as expected, there is a single peak measuring the inputted value. Figures 7.12b and 7.12c show the consequence of offsets in both the x - and z -directions. This appears to show exactly what is seen in the 35 ton data (Figure 7.9).

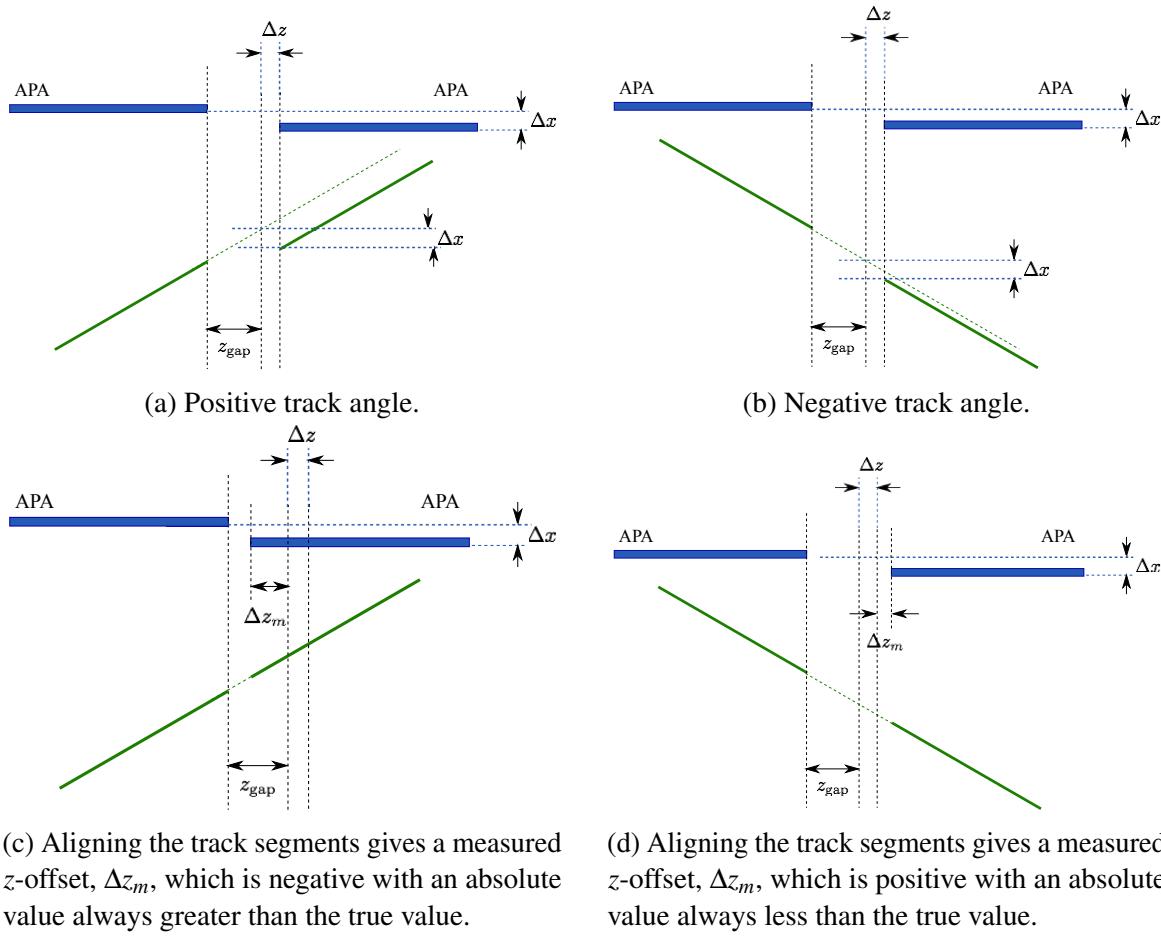


Fig. 7.13 Demonstration of the effects of offsets in both the x - and z -directions in the determination of Δz between TPC5 and TPC7. With an x -offset present, it is impossible for the true value of Δz to be measured – this is evident from Figure 7.12. It is clear from these geometrical considerations how the measured offset Δz_m will populate distributions either side of the true value; the true value Δz is given by the minimum between the two distributions.

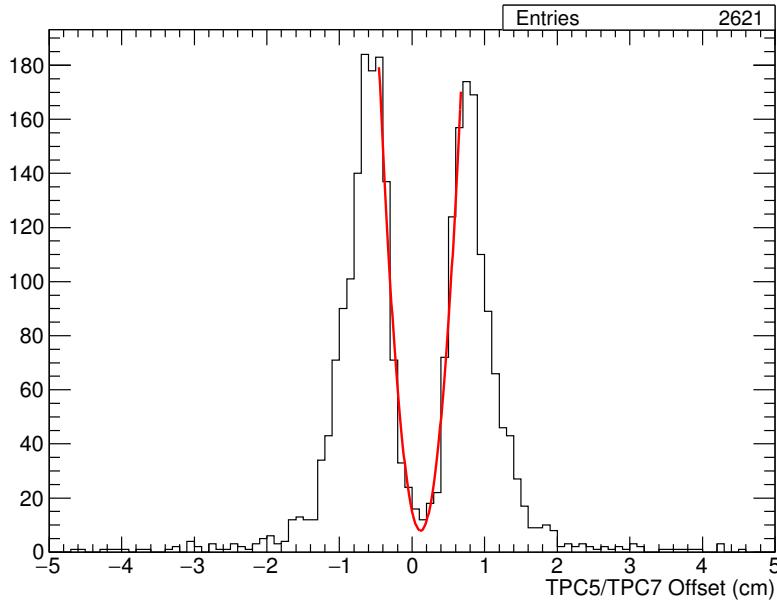


Fig. 7.14 Extraction of the true value of Δz from the full distribution of measured z -offsets. A measured value of 0.117 ± 0.007 cm is found.

Figure 7.15. With this value of Δx , the z -offset can be evaluated once more to ensure the distribution contains a single peak, as initially expected. This is confirmed in Figure 7.16.

7.3.1.2 Measurements of the APA Offsets

The offsets apparent from the data for all of the gaps accessible using TPC tracks in the long drift volume were determined as described in Section 7.3.1.1. Appendix ## contains all relevant figures (does an appendix seem a good idea here? I don't think we need the same figures as the previous section for each of the gaps here, but might be nice to have them somewhere?). Table 7.1 contains all the measurements and the new gaps, taking these offsets into account, are presented in Table 7.2.

NOTE: this discussion is exactly the same as what I put in the paper... is this a problem?
It seems silly rephrasing everything but I understand it may be necessary.

The determined errors are statistical only; the effects of systematic uncertainties were not considered and assumed to be negligible in comparison. Given the method used to determine these offsets, which involved multiple fits in differing parameter spaces, one may expect correlations between the uncertainties in the offsets measured in x and z . The implications of this correlation was considered by varying the value of each parameter across the range of its 1σ error and evaluating the effect of this on subsequent measurements. It was found this

Table 7.1 Measurements of all the APA offsets determined from the 35 ton TPC data. The method followed is described in Section 7.3.1.1. The first row represents the initial measurements of the z -offset from the two-peak distribution, with the following two lines detailing the measured offsets that follow from these results.

	TPC1/TPC3	TPC1/TPC5	TPC3/TPC7	TPC5/TPC7
Initial z -offset (cm)	-0.64 ± 0.04	0.15 ± 0.01	0.58 ± 0.06	0.117 ± 0.007
x -offset (cm)	-0.377 ± 0.006	-0.252 ± 0.002	-0.16 ± 0.01	-0.286 ± 0.002
z -offset (cm)	-0.63 ± 0.02	0.131 ± 0.007	0.55 ± 0.03	0.103 ± 0.004

Table 7.2 The corrected gaps between the APAs, in x and z , based on the offsets measured (Table 7.1).

	Assumed (cm)	Offset (cm)	Corrected (cm)
TPC1/TPC3 x -gap	0	-0.377 ± 0.006	-0.377 ± 0.006
TPC1/TPC5 x -gap	0	-0.252 ± 0.002	-0.252 ± 0.002
TPC3/TPC7 x -gap	0	-0.16 ± 0.01	-0.16 ± 0.01
TPC5/TPC7 x -gap	0	-0.286 ± 0.002	-0.286 ± 0.002
TPC1/(3)/TPC7 x -gap	0	-0.538 ± 0.003	-0.538 ± 0.003
TPC1/(5)/TPC7 x -gap	0	-0.537 ± 0.010	-0.537 ± 0.010
TPC1/TPC3 z -gap	2.53	-0.63 ± 0.02	1.90 ± 0.02
TPC1/TPC5 z -gap	2.08	0.131 ± 0.007	2.211 ± 0.007
TPC3/TPC7 z -gap	1.63	0.55 ± 0.03	2.18 ± 0.03
TPC5/TPC7 z -gap	2.08	0.103 ± 0.004	2.183 ± 0.004
TPC1/(3)/TPC7 z -gap	4.16	-0.08 ± 0.04	4.08 ± 0.04
TPC1/(5)/TPC7 z -gap	4.16	0.23 ± 0.01	4.39 ± 0.01

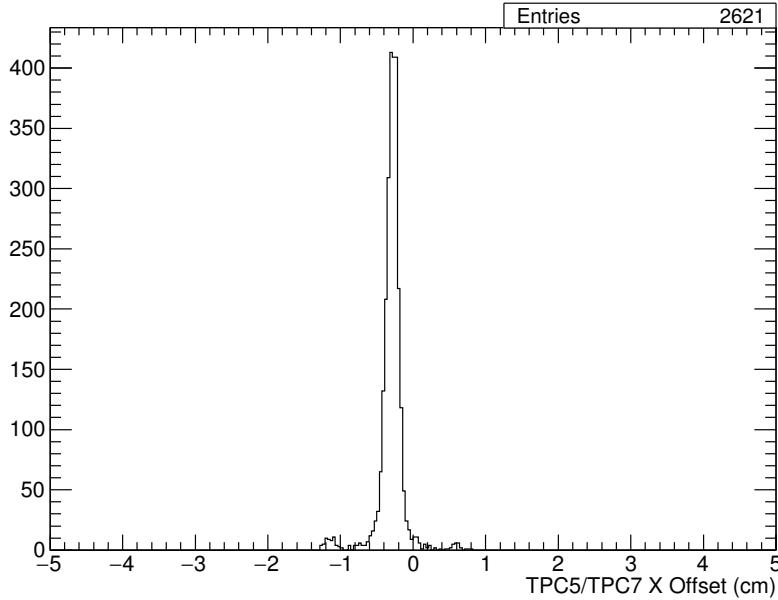


Fig. 7.15 Measurement of the x -offset between TPC5 and TPC7 after applying the z -gap corrected determined using the method described in the text and Figure 7.14. A measurement of -0.286 ± 0.002 cm is determined.

is negligible in the context of the determined uncertainties and would not justify thorough evaluation.

There appears to be some consistency in the measurements of the x -offsets by considering differences in this value between TPC1 and TPC7. Despite the fact they do not neighbour each other, this is possible by considering the successive offsets measured between TPC1/TPC3 and TPC3/TPC7, and TPC1/TPC5 and TPC5/TPC7. An exceptional agreement is seen between the two values. There also seems to be slight evidence of a rotation between TPC1 and TPC7 when considering the associated z -offsets; the offset at the top of the APA (when measured via TPC5) is greater than at the bottom (when measured via TPC3). However, this can certainly be explained in the context of the limitations of the method and statistical fluctuations and would require more data and a more robust approach to justify these claims. Such analysis is not possible with the 35 ton data.

The method demonstrated here will have direct implications for similar studies using the full DUNE far detector. All the gaps between the APAs, both in the drift and z directions, will need to be understood for accurate reconstruction and are essential in order to make the precise physics measurements DUNE wishes to. For example, accurate calorimetric reconstruction is imperative in order to perform particle identification and shower energy

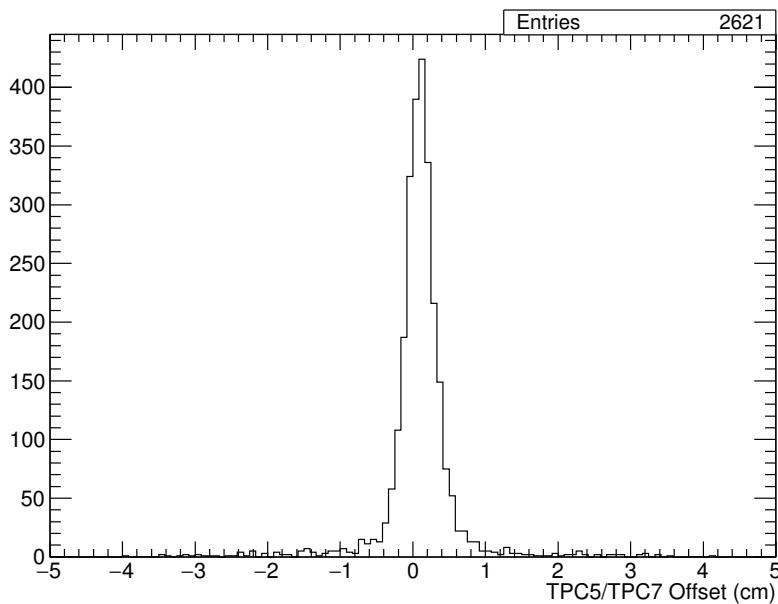


Fig. 7.16 Measurement of the z -offset between TPC5 and TPC7 after applying the x -offset determined from Figure 7.15. As initially anticipated, there is a single peak distributed around the true value of the offset. This validates the method used and confirms the initial presence of an x -offset between the neighbouring APAs. The final measurement of Δz is 0.103 ± 0.004 cm which agrees reasonably with the value measured previously (0.117 ± 0.007 cm from Figure 7.14).

determination and is directly related to the drift time of the ionisation electrons; any offsets in APA positions will lead to systematic uncertainties in this information.

7.3.2 Charge Deposited by APA-Gap Crossing Muons

7.4 APA-Crossing Muons

The 35 ton is the only proposed experiment before the full DUNE far detector modules that have fully implemented anode planes within the cryostat reading out data from multiple drift regions simultaneously (ProtoDUNE will have wrapped wire APAs but will only read out one drift region each and SBND has the CPAs in the centre of the cryostat with the APAs at the edges). Referring to Figure ??, this is a design consideration that features prominently in the eventual detector so any implications in the data must be well understood. Analysis of tracks which pass through the APAs and deposit charge in both drift regions is the subject of this section.

In Section 7.4.1, a method to determine the absolute event time, T0, from APA crossing tracks is presented and in Section 7.4.2 the charge deposited by these tracks, particularly when crossing through the planes, is studied. Comparisons between the two drift regions, made possible by comparing tracks left by the same particle, are contained in Section 7.4.3.

7.4.1 T0 Determination from APA Crossing Tracks

Given the nature of a TPC detector, an ‘event time’ (T0) must be known in order to set an absolute timescale, and therefore absolute position, on all interactions within the detector. An accurate T0 is essential for calorimetric reconstruction: in order to understand how much charge a hit had when it was created, a lifetime correction dependent on the total drift time must be applied. An incorrect T0 would lead to a systematic under- or over-estimation of the reconstructed energy and have implications in particle identification and shower energy determination.

In a LArTPC, an event time is usually given by an external triggering system. The DUNE far detector will rely on the instantaneous detection of photons produced from the immediate recombination of the ionisation electrons with positive Ar ions. In the 35 ton, an additional external system was provided by the scintillation counters. Since the sample of APA crossing muons used in this analysis were all selected and reconstructed using counter information, an interaction time is immediately known.

Without correctly accounting for T0, the tracks on each side of the APAs appear offset from the planes. This is evident from the event display shown in Figure 7.6. By aligning the

track segments on either side of the APAs, a measurement of T_0 can be made directly from the TPC data.

7.4.1.1 Aligning APA Crossing Tracks

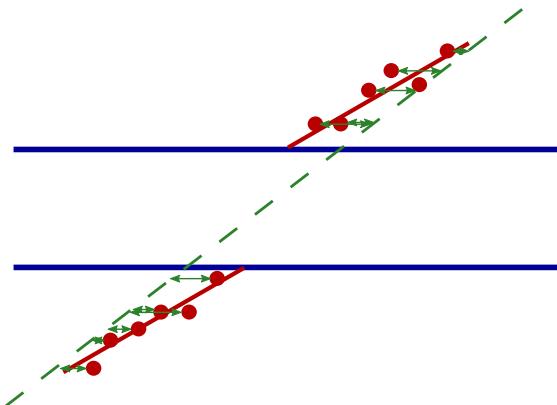
Two complementary methods were used to accurately align the track segments across the APA. Both involved initially correcting for the counter T_0 , T_0^{counter} , before considering a range of alternative T_0 hypotheses and minimising a relevant metric to determine the most likely value. In the first method, demonstrated in Figure 7.17, a least square linear fit is applied to the track and the residual minimised (the ‘residual method’). The second method, demonstrated in Figure 7.18, involves fitting a line to each segment in turn and minimising the projected distance between the intersections of the lines with the centre of the APAs ($x = 0$) (the ‘separation point method’). As will be shown, and can be seen from Figs. 7.17b and 7.18b, the two methods agree very well with each other.

Naively, one would expect the T_0 determined using these methods, T_0^{TPC} , to agree with T_0^{counter} . This is confirmed by applying the analysis to simulated data and demonstrated in Figure 7.19a. However, there appears to be a systematic offset between the T_0 given by the counters and measured from the TPC data. The distribution of this discrepancy is shown in Figures 7.19b and 7.19c for each of the two methods described; it peaks around 61 ticks ($30.5 \mu\text{s}$) and is importantly incompatible with zero. This suggests an inconsistency somewhere in the data taking and attempts to understand this track misalignment will be the subject of the remainder of this section. Figure 7.20 shows an example track before and after this disparity is corrected for. As is evident from Figure 7.19, the separation point method provides more consistent results so this will be used exclusively for alignment measurements in the rest of this section.

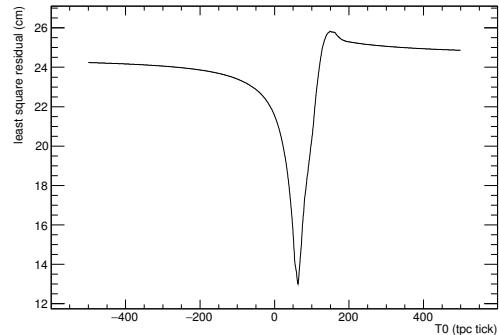
7.4.1.2 Understanding the Misalignment of APA Crossing Tracks

The underlying issue described above is essentially a misalignment of the same particle track between the two drift regions, demonstrated plainly in Figure 7.21. This obviously is not physical and stems from an issue with the detector or data readout. The most obvious cause is a miscalibration of the DAQ timing systems for the separate detector components, as previously assumed. There are however other possible solutions to the problem and it is likely the effect arises from a combination of different factors.

Geometry Apart from timing, a misunderstanding of the geometry could explain this perceived misalignment. The spacing between the collection planes is one such example,

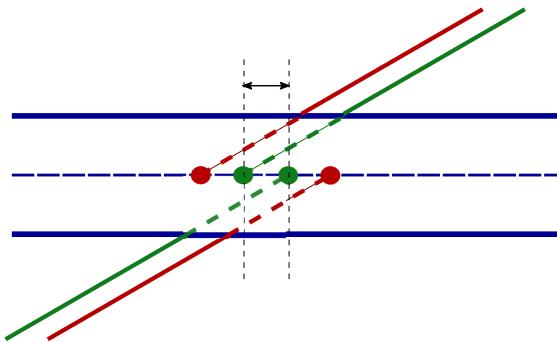


(a) Demonstration of the calculation of residuals from a linear fit through all hits. The red points are hits and the green line represents a linear fit through all points on both sides of the APAs.

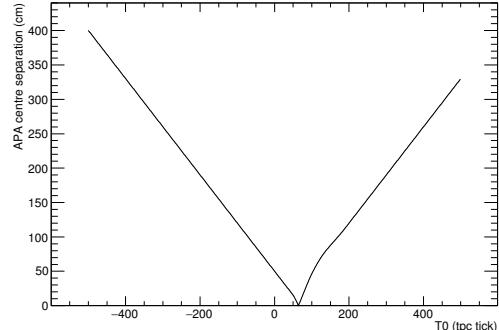


(b) The residuals to the linear fit of the track over a range of T_0 candidates. The value of T_0 which minimises this distribution (62 ticks in this case) is considered the most likely interaction time.

Fig. 7.17 Method to align track segments on either side of the APAs involving minimising residuals from a linear least square fit. A fit is applied to all hits and the resulting residual, a representation of the ‘goodness of fit’, is minimised over a range of T_0 candidates to find the most likely interaction time for the particle leaving the track.

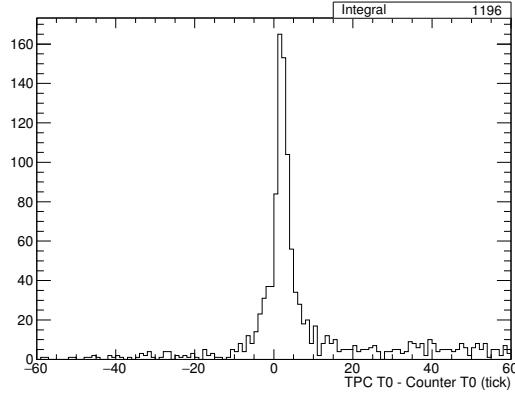


(a) Demonstration of the determination of the distance between the track segments at the centre of the APAs. The red and green lines represent linear fits to the hits (applied separately on each side of the APA) for different values of T_0 .

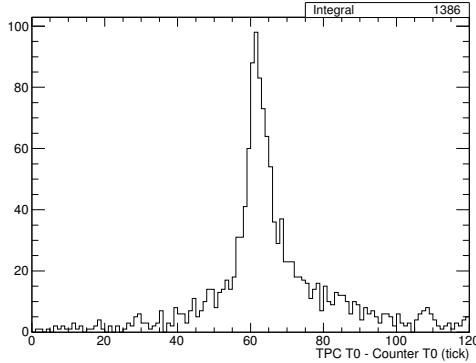


(b) The separation distance over a range of T_0 candidates. The value of T_0 which minimises this distribution (63 ticks in this case) is considered the most likely interaction time.

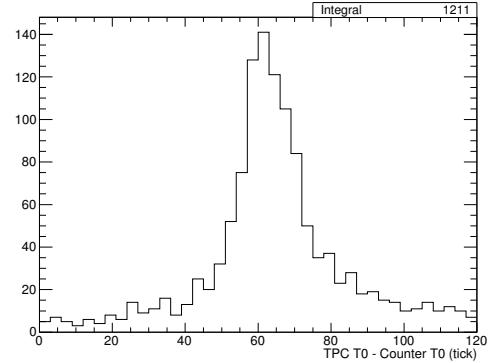
Fig. 7.18 Method to align track segments on either side of the APAs involving minimising the distance between the projected intersection of each with the centre of the APAs. A fit is applied to each track segment separately and the distance between the intersection of these lines with the centre of the APA is minimised over a range of T_0 candidates to find the most likely interaction time for the particle leaving the track.



(a) 35 ton simulation. The difference in the two measurements of T_0 is distributed around zero, as expected, and validates the method. The peak is actually at 1 tick, indicating a slight systematic offset.



(b) 35 ton data using the separation point method.



(c) 35 ton data using the residual method.

Fig. 7.19 Difference between the T_0 calculated from TPC data and the T_0 provided by the counters representing the trigger time of the through-going muon, for simulation (Figure 7.19a) and data (Figures 7.19b and 7.19c). If the two measurements of T_0 agree the distribution would peak around zero, confirmed in simulation; the fact this is not the case for data is indicative of a systematic offset somewhere in the data taking.

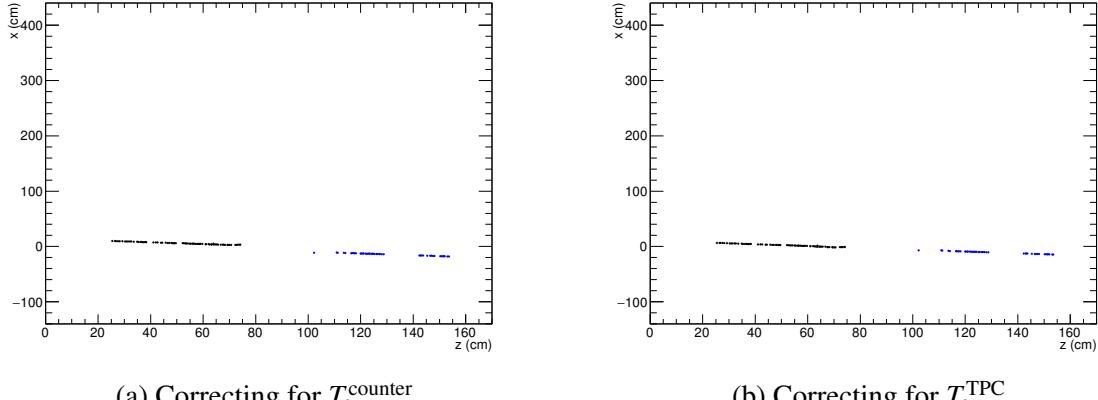


Fig. 7.20 Correcting for T_0 using T_0^{counter} (Figure 7.20a) and T_0^{TPC} (Figure 7.20b). The difference is subtle but noticeable; the method for determining T_0 directly from the TPC data can be validated by eye. The minimisation of the metrics to determine T_0^{TPC} in this case are demonstrated in Figs. 7.17b and 7.18b.

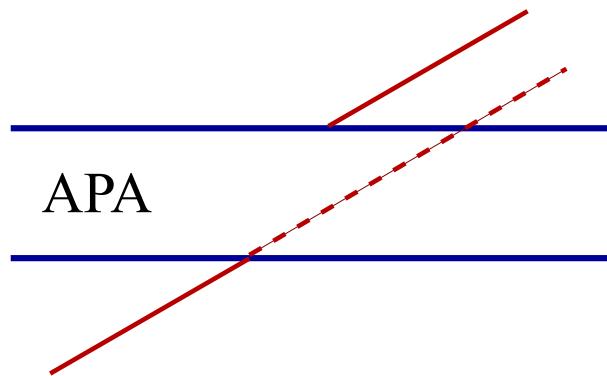
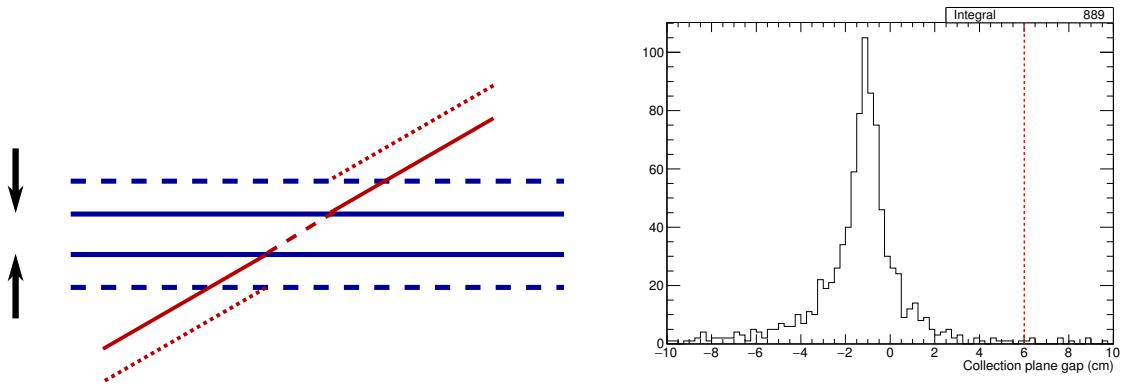


Fig. 7.21 Possibly unnecessary, but helps to explain all the various factors which could explain the offset. Can remake if necessary. Demonstration of the effect observed in the 35 ton data concerning tracks crossing the APAs. Even after correcting for the T_0 provided by the counters, there is still a misalignment of the track segments across the APA frames.



(a) Demonstration of how the track misalignment could be explained by an incorrect collection plane spacing.

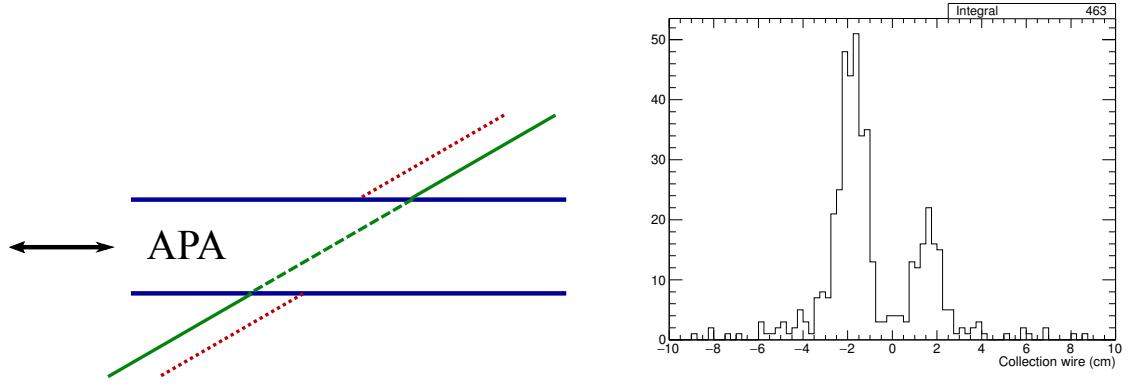
(b) Corrected spacing between the collection planes after considering a range of values and aligning the track segments. The red line shows the spacing used in the geometry. The distribution peaks at -1.19 ± 0.05 cm.

Fig. 7.22 Attempting to correct the track segment misalignment by assuming a misunderstanding of the spacing between the collection planes. It appears the resulting spacing necessary to correct for this issue would involve physically reversing the order of the planes.

as demonstrated in Figure 7.22a; the spacing necessary to explain this affect, determined by aligning the tracks using the methods discussed above over a range of collection plane spacing hypotheses, is demonstrated in Figure 7.22b. As is evident from the figure, the collection planes must be repositioned in such a way that they would be reversed; the track alignment complications cannot be explained solely by this.

A further problem is related to the wire positioning on the APAs in the z -direction; it is understood there may be a discrepancy between the two sides of the APA resulting in hits from the long and short drift regions at the same z -position reconstructed with a systematic offset. Figure 7.23a shows how this could be utilised to explain the apparent track misalignment with Figure 7.23b showing the distribution of corrected z positions necessary to resolve the issue. Offsets of ~ 2 cm, as suggested by these results, are highly unlikely given the scale of offsets identified in Section 7.3.1.2, indicating again the track alignment problem cannot be resolved in this way.

Drift velocity The drift velocity affects the angle of the tracks in wire/time space; a high velocity would result in a refraction-like effect towards the APA planes. As demonstrated in Figure 7.24a, this could explain the track segment misalignment if the effect was large enough. Figure 7.24b shows the necessary drift velocity required to account for the disparity



(a) Demonstration of how the track misalignment could be explained by an offset in the wire z -position on either side of the APA.

(b) Corrected z -positions of the APA wires after considering a range of values and aligning the track segments.

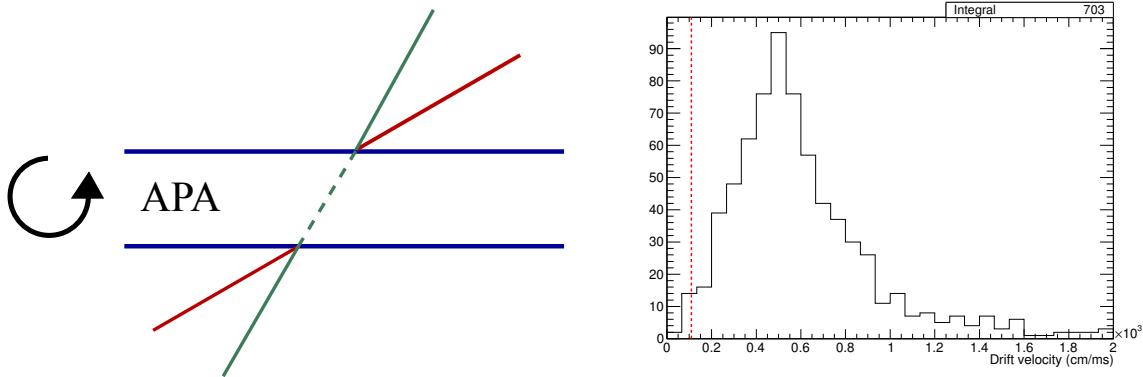
Fig. 7.23 Attempting to correct the track segment misalignment by assuming a misunderstanding of the positioning of the collection wires inside the detector. The wire offset would have to be around 2 cm to fix this issue.

observed in data; compared to a nominal value of 109 cm/ms, the scale of the change required to explain the oddity is unreasonably large, around a factor of five.

This can be tested by measuring the drift velocity directly from the data. Taking tracks which pass through opposite counter pairs and comparing this drift distance with drift time is a trivial exercise, demonstrated in Figure 7.25. The measured value of 110.6 ± 0.6 cm/ms agrees very well with the aforementioned value, determined theoretically, of 109 cm/ms. It may therefore be assumed the drift velocity is as expected and does not contribute at all to the track alignment anomaly.

Timing The timing offset calculated in Section 7.4.1.1, $32 \mu\text{s}$, is so large it was assumed another explanation for the track segment misalignment was likely. However, after reviewing all possibilities it appears there must be a significant timing offset present somewhere in the data. Further evidence for this hypothesis is presented in Figure 7.26 which displays the T0-corrected time distribution for all hits on the APA crossing track. The minimum drift time these hits may have, since they pass directly through the planes, is the interaction time, T0. As is evident from the distribution in Figure 7.26b, this is around 58 ticks ($29 \mu\text{s}$) and is notably inconsistent with zero. The curious spike at the interaction time motivates the work presented in Section 7.4.2 and will be discussed there.

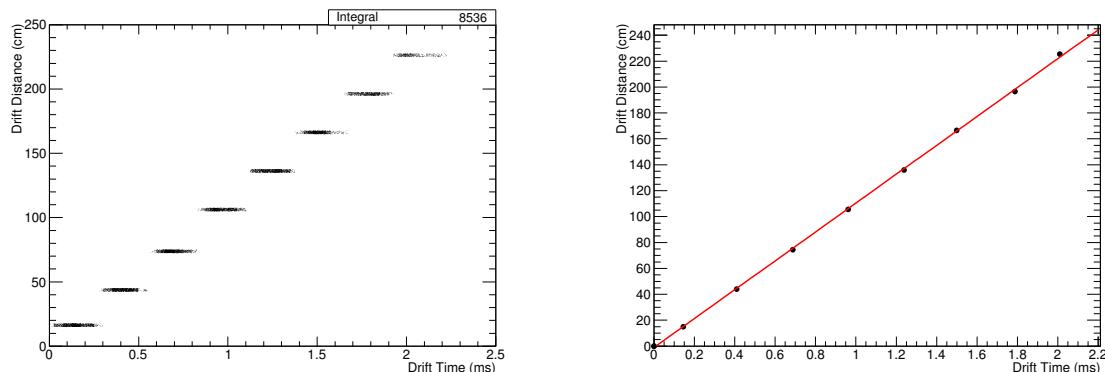
This interesting result provoked further investigation into the notion of a timing offset between detector components, specifically the TPC and counter readout (RCEs and PTB respectively). Confirmation of this miscalibration is displayed in Figure 7.27 which shows the



(a) Demonstration of how the track misalignment could be explained by an incorrect drift velocity.

(b) Corrected drift velocity required to align the track across the APAs. The red line shows the assumed value of 109 cm/ms.

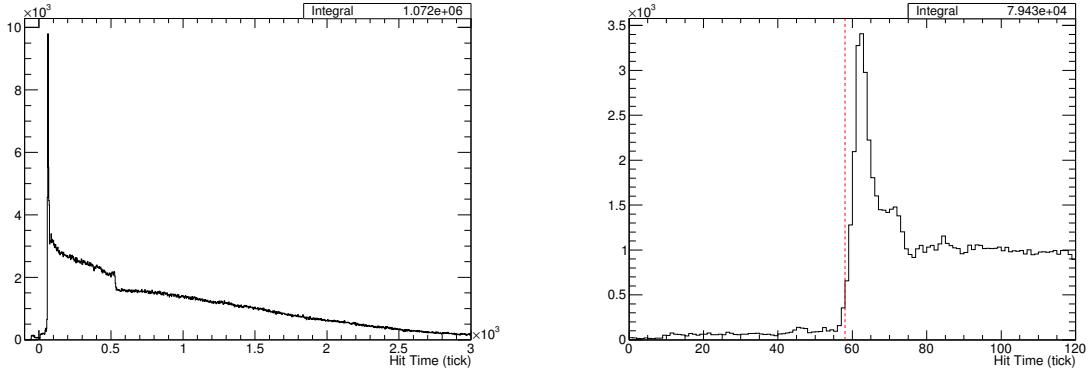
Fig. 7.24 Attempting to correct the track segment misalignment by assuming an incorrect drift velocity. In order to account for the effect noted in the data the drift velocity would have to be around five times larger than that initially calculated from models.



(a) Distribution of hit drift times for eight sets of counter pairs, assuming all tracks pass through the centres of the counters.

(b) The eight points found from taking the Gaussian mean of the time distributions for each rough drift distance.

Fig. 7.25 Measuring the drift velocity of the ionisation electrons by taking tracks passing through opposite counter pairs and comparing the corresponding drift distance to the drift time. Assuming all tracks pass through the geometric centres of the counters, a poor assumption, a distribution of hit time for this drift distance can be found; this is shown in 7.25a. Taking each counter pair separately and fitting a Gaussian to the distribution of drift times nullifies the assumptions necessary due to a lack of exact knowledge, on a track by track basis, of the exact x -position. This is shown in the graph in Figure 7.25b.



(a) Over the full range of drift times. The sharp dip around 500 ticks corresponds to the maximum drift time for hits in the short drift region; beyond this only hits in the long drift region contributes to the distribution.

(b) Zoomed in on the interaction time. The red line is drawn at 58 ticks ($29 \mu s$) and represents, by eye, the start of the distribution.

Fig. 7.26 The T0-corrected drift time for hits on APA crossing tracks. The lower leading edge of this distribution is an indication of the interaction time, T0.

difference between the timestamps recorded by each of the subcomponents upon receiving the trigger.

There are now three measurements of the timing offset with a slight disagreement between each. This will be discussed further in Section 7.4.1.3.

7.4.1.3 Combined Offset Analysis

The discussion in Section 7.4.1.2 hints strongly at an intrinsic timing offset present in the data. However, as already shown in Section ??, it is understood there are geometrical offsets in the positions of the APAs in the x - and z -dimensions. Attempting to measure all these offsets simultaneously presents challenges since they all affect each other. It is possible the tension between the measurements of the timing offset may be resolved by combining the results from each of the offset calculations.

The timing offset will not influence the determination of the geometrical APA gaps (found in Section 7.3) unless the track segments used to measure the gaps cross through the APA frames; the timing is consistent for each drift region. A simple cut was used to exclude such events when making these measurements. However, the geometrical offsets will have an impact on the APA crossover analysis. For example, the drift times measured for each hit will be affected by the physical positions of the APAs. Figure 7.28 shows the distribution of the drift times for all track hits corrected for the offsets implied by the x -gap measurements.

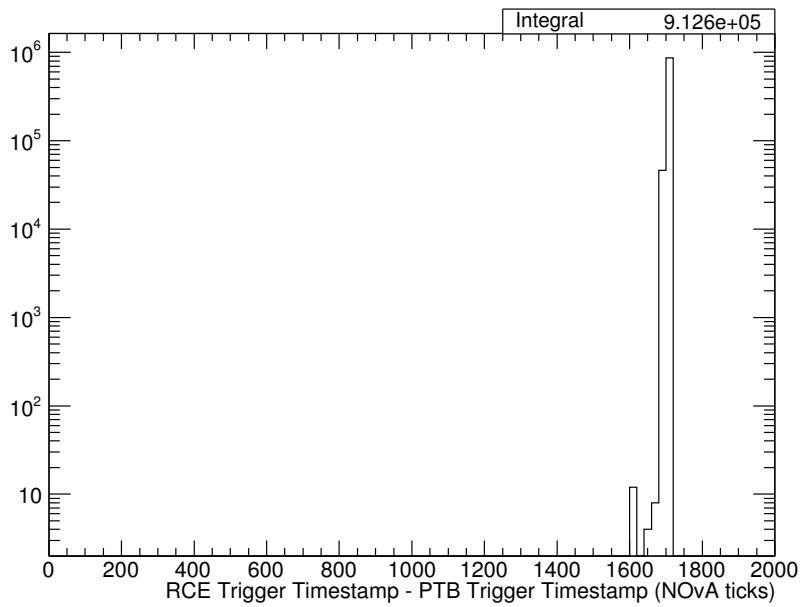


Fig. 7.27 The difference between the timestamps recorded by the PTB and the RCEs upon receiving a trigger. The absolute timing for the DAQ system is given, along with most experiments at FNAL, by ‘NOvA time’: a 64 MHz clock starting on 1st January, 2010 (with one NOvA tick therefore being 15.625 ns). The distribution peaks sharply at 1705 NOvA ticks, or 26.6 μ s.

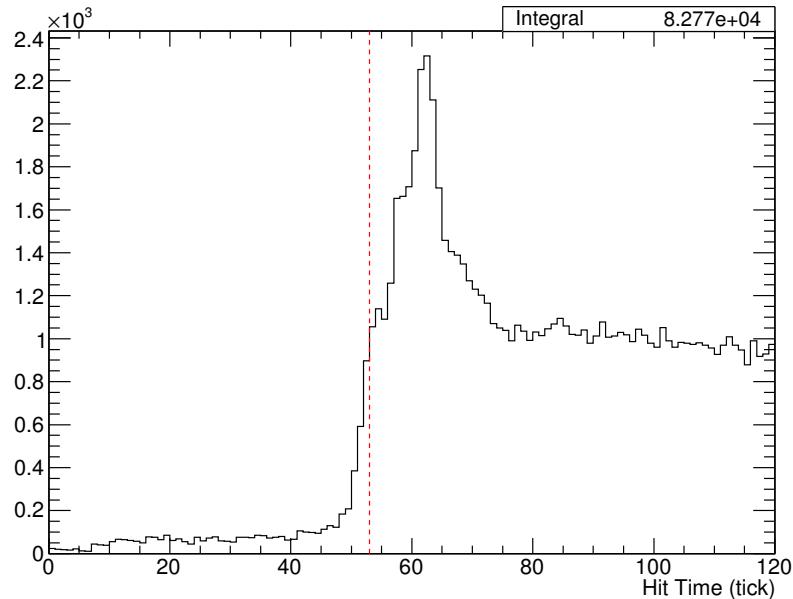


Fig. 7.28

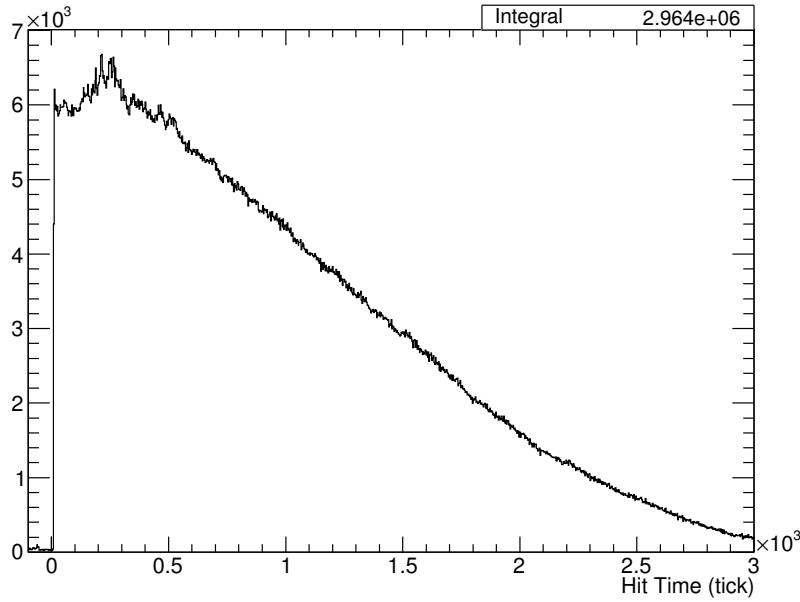


Fig. 7.29 The T0-corrected drift time for all hits on an APA crossing track in simulation. The equivalent plot for 35 ton data is shown in Figure 7.26a.

7.4.2 Charge Deposited by APA Crossing Tracks

The intriguing distribution of the T0-corrected hit times observed in the data, shown in Figure 7.26a, hints at some aspect of the detector response that needs to be understood. In the DUNE far detector, a large number of events will contain particles which pass through the APA frames so characterising resulting effects is critical. The equivalent plot for simulated data is shown in Figure 7.29. Comparing these distributions, there is a very obvious difference around the interaction time. It appears there is an effect present in the data, not currently being simulated, which manifests in around twice the amount of hits occurring at T0 on the collection planes for APA crossing tracks. This is described in Section 7.4.2.1 and the phenomenon is visible on event displays presented in Section 7.4.2.2.

7.4.2.1 Interaction Time Hits

The excess of hits at the interaction time is due to the use of a grounded ‘mesh’ at the centre of the APAs. The purpose of such a design choice is to ensure a uniform electric field across the face of the APA; without it the field would be ill-defined given the presence of the grounded, rectangular APA frames with positively biased planes on either side. It is plausible therefore to consider a ‘backward-facing’ field being set up between the grounded mesh and the positively biased collection planes which would lead to hits drifting the ‘wrong’ way

when produced in this region; APA crossing tracks would hence leave twice as many hits on the collection plane as the other planes. This is demonstrated schematically in Figure 7.30.

A convenient way of confirming whether or not the mesh can explain this excess of hits at the interaction time is possible since one of the four APAs in the 35 ton was constructed without the mesh, precisely for this purpose. Unfortunately, this was the APA which was more plagued by noise issues so very little good data is available from channels on this APAs. It is however possible to make a crude comparison; this is shown in Figure 7.31. The appears to confirm the shark peak of hits occurring at the interaction time comes from the APAs which use a mesh.

Using the 35 ton dataset, it is also possible to confirm that the mesh is functioning as expected. Without a mesh, one may expect a difference between the hits deposited on wires towards the centre of an APA face and wires at the edges, in front of the grounded frame. The functionality of the grounded mesh ensures there is no difference between any wires on a given APA. Figure 7.32 comfirms this is the case.

A natural question to pose at this point is to ask if these ‘extra’ hits deposited by APA crossing tracks as a result of this ‘backwards’ field have similar properties to the ‘correct’ hits. The most important property to consider is the charge of the hits; Figure 7.33 shows the average charge per hit for hits occurring at the interaction time and all other hits. It is clear from this there is nothing different about these additional hits and they can be treated in the same way.

As alluded to earlier, the DUNE simulation software is simplistic and does not simulate any ionisations within the region of the APA planes; in the case of APA crossing muons this results in no hits being created after the track passes through the first induction wires. Evidently, this is an important region and must be understood and well simulated in order to test reconstruction and analyses. When this is added to the software, the 35 ton data will be essential for validation purposes.

7.4.2.2 Event Displays of APA Crossing Tracks

The effect investigated in Section 7.4.2.1 is directly observable in the raw data, as shown in Figure ???. The electrons ionised as the particle track passes between the collection plane and the mesh are observable as hits which appear to have drifted in the negative time direction. The outcome is a little ‘hook’ shape in the data.

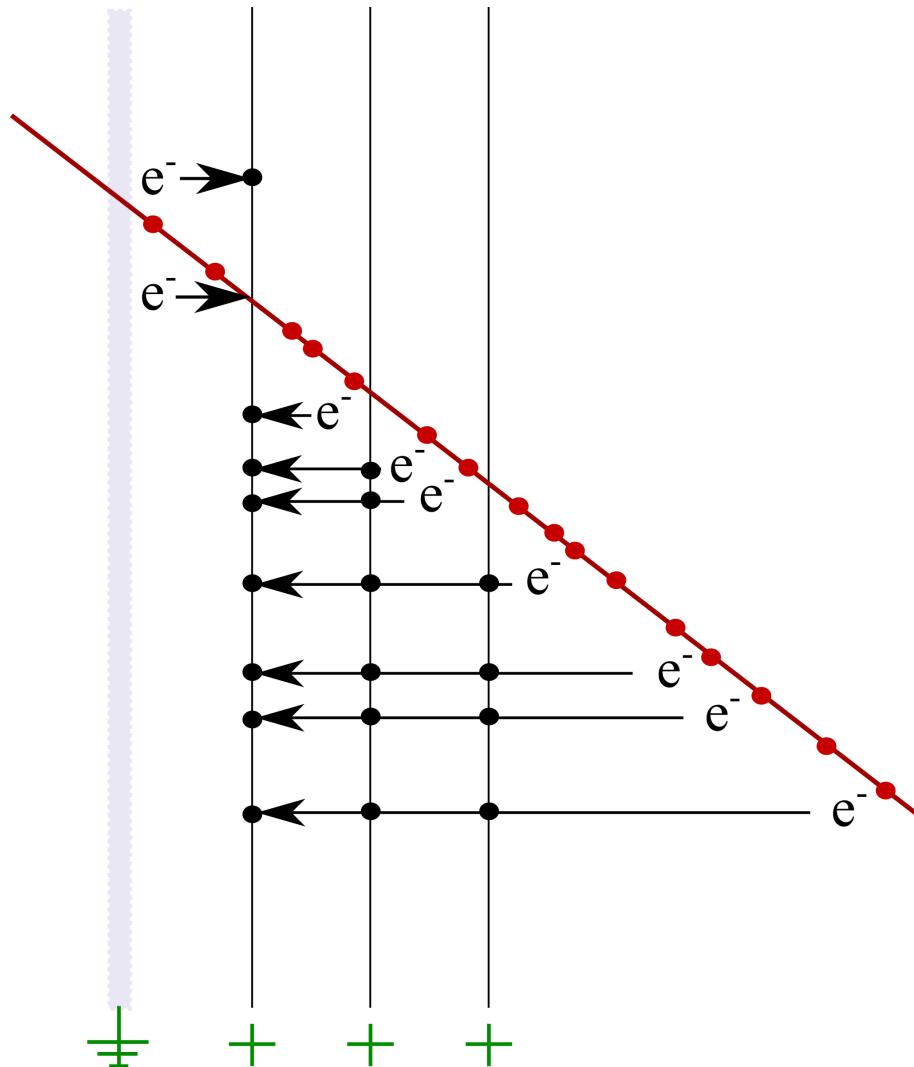
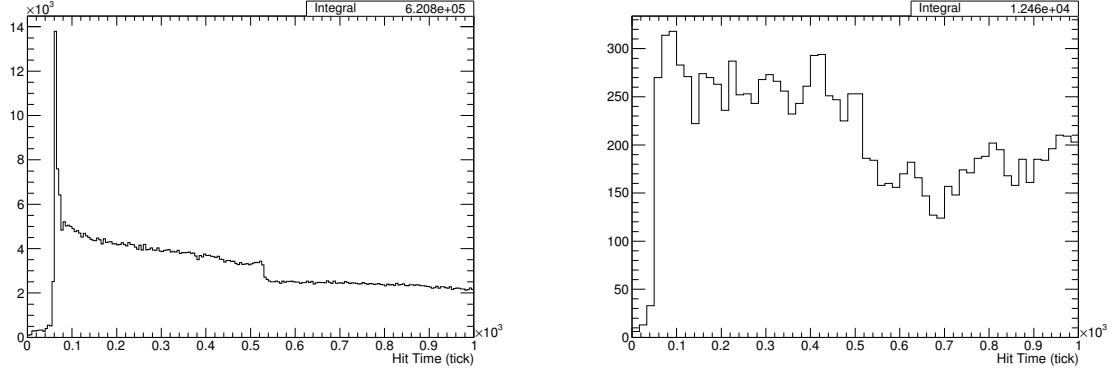


Fig. 7.30 Demonstration of the ionisation and hit collection for APA crossing tracks. The red line represents a track passing through the anode planes, shown in black. The grey region is the centre of the APA frame on which the grounded mesh is afixed. The red dots correspond to the ionisation of electrons which then drift, depositing charge (black dots) on the readout wires. The three planes shown are, from left to right, the collection plane and the two induction planes. The biasing of each of the planes and mesh sets up field lines which all terminate on the collection wires, resulting in charge collected from before the track passes through and after.



(a) Hit times for all hits on APAs 0, 2 and 3; these are the three APAs containing the grounded mesh at the centre.

(b) Hit times for all hits on APA 1, the APA without a grounded mesh at its centre.

Fig. 7.31 Comparison between the T0-corrected hit time distributions on APAs with and without the grounded mesh. Even given the very low stats in Figure 7.31b, there is a noticeable difference in the distribution of hits around the interaction time.

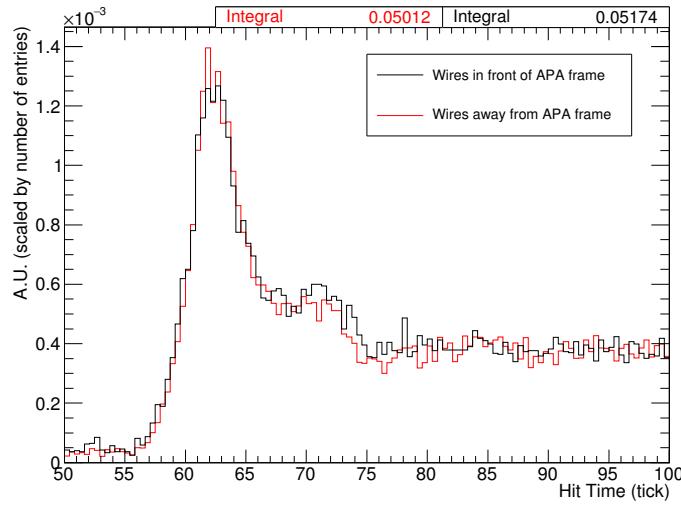
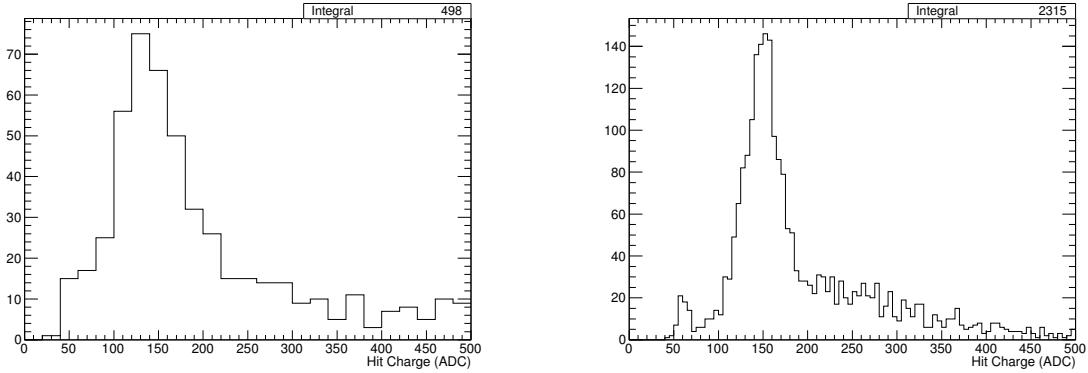


Fig. 7.32 Comparison between the distribution of T0-corrected hit times for hits on wires in front of the APA frame and away from the APA frame to validate the functionality of the mesh. Both distributions are normalised by the number of entries. There is no evidence of any differences between the two distributions so this suggests the mesh is working as intended.



(a) Hits occurring around the interaction time; $50 < \text{tick} < 70$. A fitted Gaussian of the peak yields a mean of 149 and width of 49.

(b) Hits occurring away from the interaction time; $\text{tick} < 50$, $\text{tick} > 70$. A fitted Gaussian of the peak yields a mean of 152 and a width of 28.

Fig. 7.33 Average lifetime-corrected charge per hit for hits on an APA crossing track separated according to whether or not the hit was collected around the interaction time. There is no evidence to suggest the ‘extra’ hits collected around the interaction time have significantly more or less average charge than ‘regular’ hits.

7.4.3 Comparison Between Drift Regions Using APA Crossing Tracks

APA crossing tracks may be utilised to make unique, specific measurements of the detector made possible since they originate from the same particle. For example, any drift velocity differences between the drift regions may be observed and the noise levels on the collection readouts on either side of the APA can be studied and compared.

The drift velocity is given by the angle of the track in wire/time space and any difference between this velocity in the two drift regions would be noticeable in a refraction-like effect. This is demonstrated in Figure 7.34a. A measure of the angle between the track segments in the different regions would therefore be a measure of the change in drift velocity; this is shown in Figure 7.34b.

The relative noise on the two collection planes can be evaluated by considering the number of hits present in the counter shadow, in each drift region, which were not reconstructed as part of the track associated with the triggering particle. The difference between each collection plane for a given event should peak at zero if similar levels of noise were observed in each drift region; this is confirmed in Figure 7.35.

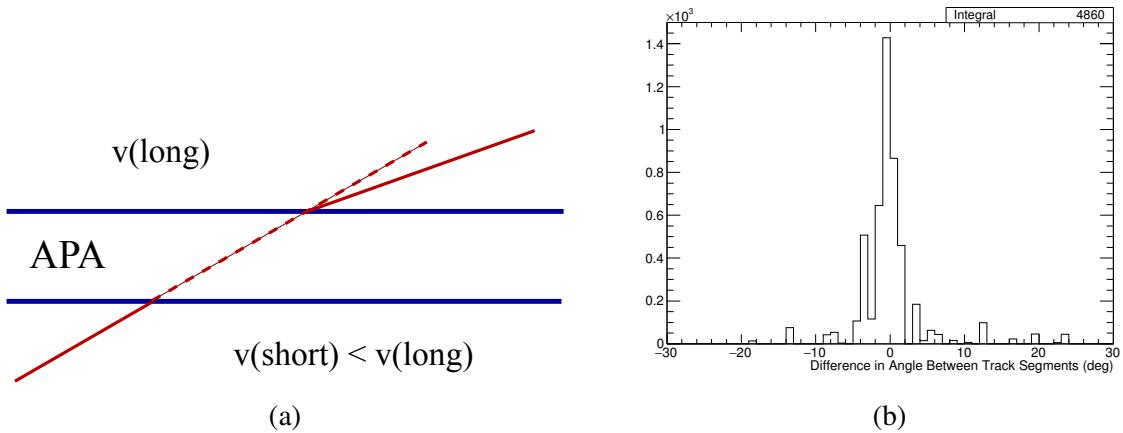


Fig. 7.34

Fig. 7.35

7.5 Shower Reconstruction in 35 ton Data

The developments to the reconstruction in LArSoft, discussed in Chapter 5, were originally motivated by an interest in reconstructing and analysing π^0 mesons in the 35 ton data. Given the unfortunate eventual problems prevalent in the data, such analyses would be extremely challenging and likely impossible. Since it is still interesting and instructive to analyse how well the reconstruction performs on a sample of real data, this will be briefly explored in the present section.

Considerations relevant when applying the reconstruction developed on simulation to data are discussed in Section 7.5.1 before the necessary reanalysis of the calorimetry is presented in Section 7.5.2. The algorithms are applied to a shower and a π^0 candidate found in the data in Sections 7.5.3 and 7.5.4 respectively.

7.5.1 Data Specific Reconstruction

The BlurredCluster and EMShower algorithms, outlined in Sections 5.4.2 and 5.4.3 respectively, were applied to the data in an attempt to reconstruct particle objects. In general, the algorithms worked out the box and required no tuning. Since this requires real 3D reconstruction, as opposed to the subtle techniques developed to circumvent the issues with the induction planes (described in Section 7.1.3), the use of more than just the collection plane is necessitated. Reconstruction is therefore only possible for showers with large enough signals on induction planes, following the coherent noise removal, and following hit disambiguation.

As showering particles are unlikely to be associated with through-going muons, an unassociated method for obtaining the interaction time is required. In general, the photon detectors are designed for this purpose so the use of these seems natural.

Since it is highly unlikely the electronics models and detector responses used in the simulation are perfectly accurate, applying the calorimetric reconstruction to the data without modification would be inappropriate. The relevant calorimetric constants and functions must be determined from the data; this is essential for complete reconstruction and is discussed in Section 7.5.2.

7.5.2 Calorimetry Reconstruction

There are two relevant calorimetric conversions which are pertinent to shower reconstruction (both previously discussed in Section 5.3): the calorimetry constant and the shower energy conversion. The methods used to determine these for data will be discussed in this section.

It should be stressed that due to the large noise levels, accurate calorimetry will not be possible in the 35 ton data. This may be understood by considering the distribution of charge deposited by ionising particles; typically this is sampled from a Landau distribution with a most probable value dependent on the electron drift distance (due to lifetime effects). Since hit reconstruction tends to put cut on the hit ‘threshold’, the height of the peak above pedestal, this compromises lower energy hits populating the full charge distribution and biases the reconstruction toward higher energies. This is demonstrated in Figure 7.36. As far as possible, steps to mitigate these effects have been applied in the proceeding discussion. There will however be an inevitable bias so the following should not be treated as wholly reliable.

The procedure invoked to determine the calorimetry constant is largely identical to that used in simulation: the dE/dx of a through-going MIP is calculated and the constant varied until the expected distribution is obtained. The through-going muons used in the analyses described in Sections 7.4 and 7.3 were utilised to make these measurements. Additional necessary information, such as the interaction time (to correct the charge for lifetime) and the track angle (to correct the dE/dx for track pitch), is provided by the counters. In order to produce reliable results, an additional cut requiring at least 20 consecutive wires with a single hit on each was applied, with the dE/dx measurement obtained using just these hits. The eventual dE/dx distribution is demonstrated in Figure 7.37 and implies a calorimetry constant of ## (for comparison, the value used for the collection plane in simulation is ##).

In simulation, truth information was used to find a general charge to energy conversion used in, for example, the determination of total shower energy. This obviously is not possible in data so a similar technique to the calculation of the calorimetry constant described above

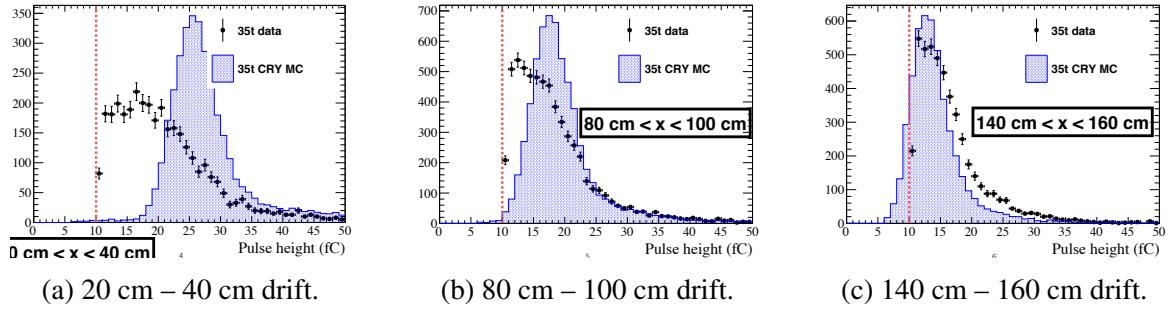


Fig. 7.36 The bias in the hit selection due to a high noise level in the 35 ton data. The charge distribution for through-going muons is shown for three different displacements along the drift direction, $20 \text{ cm} < x < 40 \text{ cm}$, $80 \text{ cm} < x < 100 \text{ cm}$ and $140 \text{ cm} < x < 160 \text{ cm}$. The red line represents a typical hit finding threshold. The most probable value of the distribution is close to this boundary in each of the cases, resulting in the lower charge hits being missed. This introduces a bias towards higher charge and has implications for the reliability of calorimetry in the 35 ton data sample.

Fig. 7.37

was used. The lifetime-corrected charge and track pitch information can be utilised to find a value of dQ/dx (ADC/cm), which may then be converted into a measure of dE/dx (MeV/cm) using the calorimetry constant previously determined. This may in turn be used to find the total deposited energy by taking into account the distance travelled by the associated track in the collection view. As demonstrated in Figure ??, there exists a linear relationship between total deposited lifetime-corrected charge and the particle energy; this is also seen in data in Figure 7.38. The displayed linear fit is not a best fit, it is chosen to agree at lower charge since this is more reliable. This may then be used as a conversion in shower energy reconstruction.

7.5.3 Shower Reconstruction

Using the modifications discussed in Sections 7.5.1 and 7.5.2, the performance of the showering reconstruction on real data can be assessed by applying it to an electromagnetic shower. The result of applying the algorithms to the famous 35 ton shower depicted in Figure ?? is shown in Figure 7.39. The calorimetric reconstruction yields a dE/dx of 1.1 MeV/cm and a total shower energy of 196 MeV. These results appear feasible and are consistent with an electron shower, for which one would expect a dE/dx peaked around

Fig. 7.38

Fig. 7.39

2.1 MeV/cm; 1.1 MeV/cm is not an unreasonable value in the tail of this distribution. Given the electron energy, it is likely to have been produced by Compton scattering.

The T0 for this particle was determined to be 4740 ticks from reconstructing flash information collected by the photon detectors – this makes this shower the only fully automated reconstructed particle object in the 35 ton dataset.

7.5.4 π^0 Reconstruction

An important calorimetric test of particle detectors involves demonstrating a reasonable reconstructed π^0 mass peak. It was for this reason that the shower reconstruction discussed in Chapter 5 was developed. An analysis of a π^0 candidate event is briefly considered here.

Without full reconstruction and selection, identifying candidate events is very difficult. Such a event was observed in the online event display however and is shown in Figure 7.40. Unlike the shower discussed in Section 7.5.3, there is no associated photon detector information for this event; however, one of the candidate photons passes through the APA frames so techniques developed for the APA-crosser analysis (Section 7.4) may be employed to determine the relevant interaction time. Applying the calorimetry reconstruction, the dE/dx information associated with the high energy candidate photon (the one which crosses the APAs) gives a value of 4.75 MeV/cm, entirely consistent with the expectation for a photon of a distribution centred around 4.2 MeV/cm. The low energy candidate photon travels almost completely along the collection view direction resulting in unreliable dE/dx information. The total energy for each shower is determined to be 168.84 MeV and 526.34 MeV with an implied invariant mass of

$$m_{\pi^0?} = 164.4 \text{ MeV}, \quad (7.5)$$

comparable to the true π^0 mass of 140 MeV.

Without fully considering uncertainties and biases present, it is not possible to make a judgement as to the performance of the basic calorimetric reconstruction discussed in Section 7.5.2 or to confirm whether or not the event displayed in Figure 7.40 represents a π^0 decay. However, dE/dx values of 1.1 MeV/cm and 4.75 MeV/cm for different showers appear consistent with electron and photon particles respectively and, within the limits of the analysis presented here, it is believable the particle with invariant reconstructed mass of 164.4 MeV is indeed a π^0 .

The

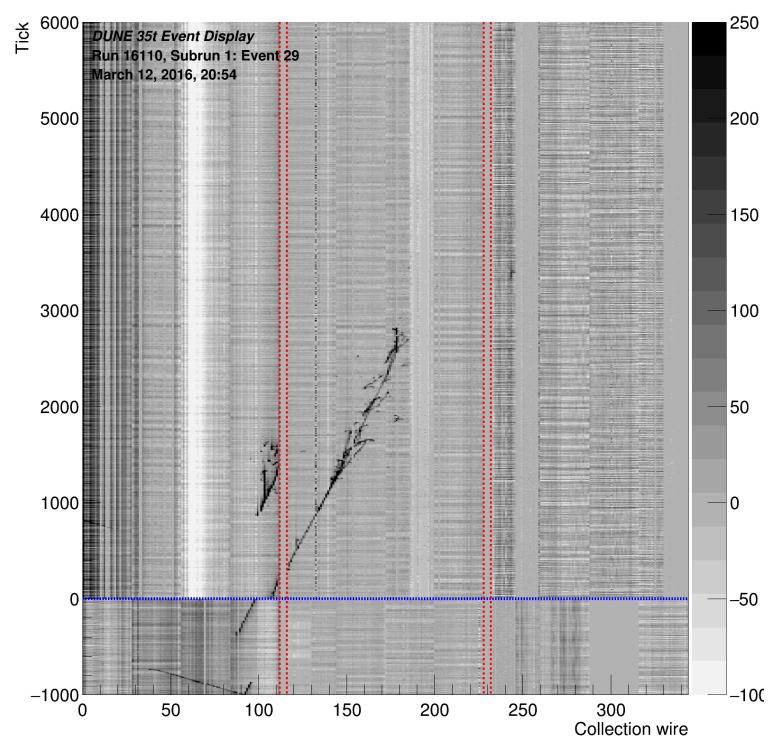


Fig. 7.40 A candidate π^0 event observed in the online event display during the run.

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