

Performance of the MICE diagnostic system

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The MICE Collaboration

Abstract

Muon beams of low emittance provide the basis for the intense, well-characterised neutrino beams of a neutrino factory and for multi-TeV lepton-antilepton collisions at a muon collider. The international Muon Ionization Cooling Experiment (MICE) has demonstrated the principle of ionization cooling, the technique by which it is proposed to reduce the phase-space volume occupied by the muon beam at such facilities. This paper documents the performance of the detectors used in MICE to measure the muon-beam parameters.

1 Introduction

Stored muon beams have been proposed as the basis of a facility capable of delivering lepton-antilepton collisions at very high energy [1, 2] and as the source of uniquely well-characterised neutrino beams [3–5]. In the majority of designs for such facilities the muons are produced from the decay of pions created when an intense proton beam strikes a target. The phase-space volume occupied by the tertiary muon beam must be reduced (cooled) before it is accelerated and subsequently injected into the storage ring. The time taken to cool the beam using techniques that are presently in use at particle accelerators (synchrotron-radiation cooling [6], laser cooling [7–9], stochastic cooling [10], and electron cooling [11]) are all long when compared with the lifetime of the muon. losses through decay. Ionization cooling [12, 13], in which a muon beam is passed through a material (the absorber), in which it loses energy, and is then re-accelerated, occurs on a timescale short compared with the muon lifetime. Ionization cooling is therefore the only technique available to cool the muon beam at a neutrino factory or muon collider. The international Muon Ionization Cooling Experiment (MICE) provided the proof-of-principle demonstration of the ionization-cooling technique [14].

MICE was operated on the ISIS neutron and muon source at the STFC Rutherford Appleton Laboratory from 2008 to 2018. ISIS accelerates protons to 800 MeV at a repetition rate of 50 Hz. For MICE operation, a titanium target was dipped into the halo of the proton beam with rate of 0.78 Hz. Pions created in the interaction were captured in a quadrupole triplet (see figure 1). A conventional beam line composed of dipole, solenoid, and quadrupole magnets captured muons produced through pion decay and transported the resulting muon beam to the MICE apparatus. The momentum of the muon beam was determined by the settings of two dipole magnets. The emittance of the beam injected into the experiment was tuned using a set of adjustable tungsten and brass diffusers. The cooling cell was composed of a liquid-hydrogen or lithium-hydride absorber placed inside a focus-coil (FC) module, sandwiched between two scintillating-fibre trackers (TKU, TKD) placed in superconducting solenoids (SSU, SSD). Together, SSU, FC, and SSD formed the magnetic channel. The MICE coordinate system is such that the z -axis is coincident with the beam direction, the y -axis points vertically, and the x -axis completes a right-handed co-ordinate system.

This paper documents the performance of the instrumentation which was used to characterise fully the beam, its evolution across the magnetic channel, and to quantify the properties of the liquid-hydrogen absorber. The instrumentation consisted of three time-of-flight detectors (TOF0, TOF1, TOF2) discussed in section 2, two threshold Cherenkov counters (CkovA, CkovB) discussed in section 3, a sampling calorimeter (KL) discussed in section 4, a tracking calorimeter (EMR) discussed in section 5, and the scintillating-fibre trackers (section 6). The instrumentation of the liquid-hydrogen absorber is discussed in section 7.

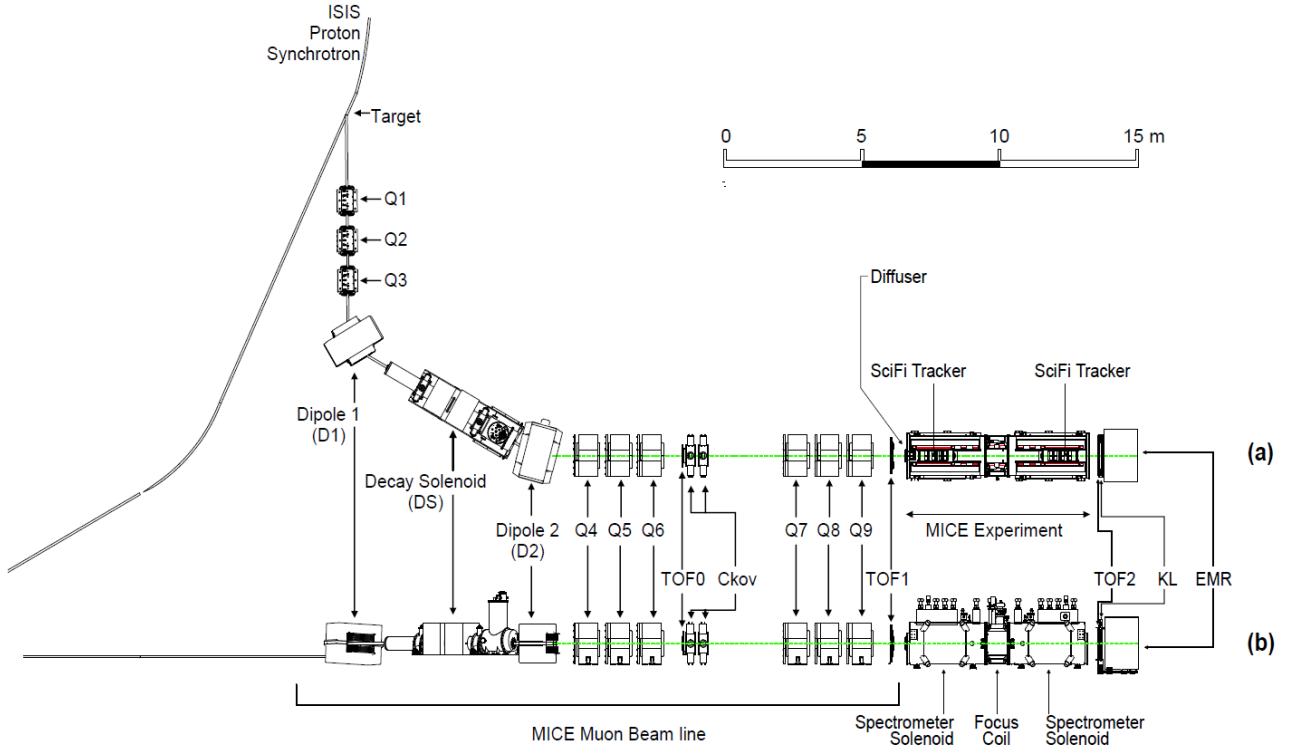


Figure 1: MICE, top (a) and side (b) views, showing the full beam line starting from the target position on the proton synchrotron with the quadrupoles and dipoles (Q1 to Q9, D1, D2), the Decay Solenoid, and instrumented magnetic channel elements (including the trackers upstream and downstream of the cooling channel, placed inside superconducting solenoids) with all the other PID detectors (three TOF stations, two Ckov detectors, KL and the EMR). The cooling channel, defined by the liquid-hydrogen absorber vessel inside the Focus Coil, is shown in figure 18.

2 Time-of-flight detectors

45 Three scintillator hodoscopes were used to measure the time of flight (TOF) of the particles that made up the beam, the transverse position at which the particle crossed each of the detectors, and to provide the trigger for the experiment. TOF0 and TOF1 [15–17] were placed upstream of the magnetic channel, while TOF2 [18] was located downstream of the channel, mounted in front of the KL pre-shower detector (see figure 1). The range of particle momentum delivered to the experiment was determined by the settings of the two dipole
50 magnets D1 and D2. At 240 MeV/c, the difference in the TOF for a muon and a pion between TOF0 and TOF1 was about 1.3 ns. The system was therefore designed to measure the TOF with a precision of 100 ps. This allowed the TOF between the first pair of TOF stations to be used to discriminate between pions, muons, and positrons contained within the beam with near 100% efficiency [19]. In addition, by assuming a particular mass for each particle, the TOF measurement was used to infer the particle momentum. The TOF detectors operated
55 smoothly during the running periods and were essential for all the measurements that were performed [14, 19–23].

Each TOF station was made of two planes of 1 inch thick scintillator bars oriented along the x and y directions. The bars were made of BC-404 plastic scintillator. A simple fishtail light-guide was used to attach each end of each bar to R4998 Hamamatsu fast photomultiplier tubes (PMTs). Each PMT was enclosed in an
60 assembly that included the voltage divider chain and a 1 mm thick μ -metal shield. The shield was required to

reduce the stray magnetic field within the PMT to a negligible level [17]. To increase the count-rate stability, active dividers were used. The TOF detector is illustrated in figure 2.

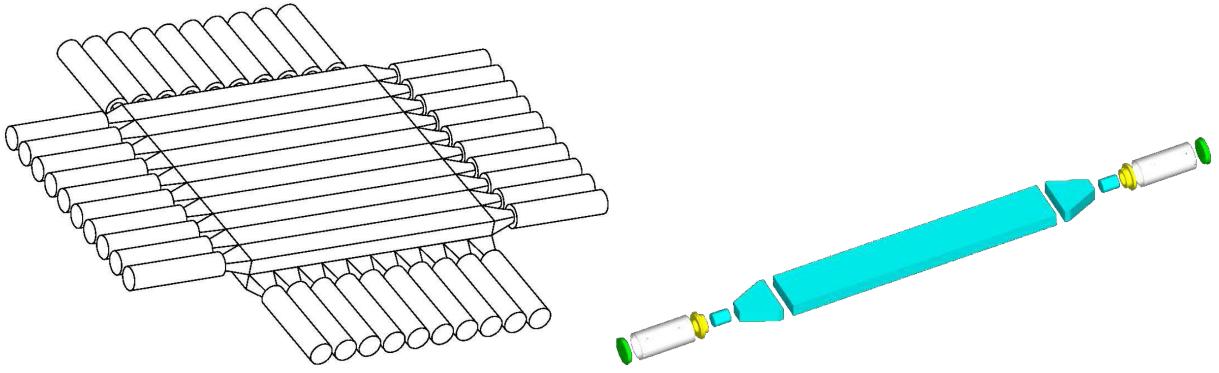


Figure 2: The structure of the time-of-flight detectors [15, 17] showing the horizontal and vertical layers of slabs (left) and an exploded view of each slab (right). The components of each slab are the central scintillator bar, two fishtail, clear plastic light-guides coupled to clear plastic matching pieces, and two PMTs.

The active areas of the three hodoscopes are $40 \times 40 \text{ cm}^2$ (TOF0), $42 \times 42 \text{ cm}^2$ (TOF1), and $60 \times 60 \text{ cm}^2$ (TOF2). Each of the planes in TOF0 had ten scintillator slabs. Stations TOF1 and TOF2 had respectively 65 7 and 10 scintillator slabs in each plane. A passive splitter was used to take the signal from each of the PMTs to a CAMAC Lecroy 4115 leading-edge discriminator followed by a CAEN V1290 TDC for time measurement and to a CAEN V1724 FADC for pulse-height measurement. A local readout trigger was issued if the signals from each of the two PMTs on a single slab crossed a specific threshold and overlapped. TOF1 was used to trigger the readout of the experiment for most of the data taking.

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Calibration

The intensity of the scintillation light produced when a particle crossed the plastic scintillator rose rapidly, subsequently decaying with a characteristic time of 1.8 ns. The scintillation light propagated from the particle-crossing point to each end of the scintillator slab. The light-travel time was dependent on the distance of the 75 particle crossing from the PMT. The largest difference between the time of arrival of the light at the two ends of a scintillator bar occurred when a particle crossed close to one end of the bar. The light-propagation speed was determined to be 13.5 cm/ns, so that the maximum light-travel time differences for slabs in TOF0, TOF1, and TOF2 were approximately 3.0 ns, 3.1 ns, and 4.4 ns respectively.

The readout-trigger signal was distributed to all TDC boards and was used as the reference time. As a result 80 of the light-propagation effect the trigger time was dependent on the position at which the particle crossed the TOF station in which the trigger was generated. As a consequence, the reference time had a bias dependent on the position of the crossing, an effect referred to as the readout-trigger signal delay. To compensate for this, the final time measurement in each station was determined as an average of the times recorded for each channel above threshold.

85 Further delay was introduced by the signal-transit time of each PMT and of the cable that led the signal to the readout electronics. These signal-transit times were unique for each individual readout channel and were determined in dedicated measurements. The use of a linear, leading-edge discriminator lead to a correlation between the total charge in the pulse and the time at which the discriminator fired. This correlation, referred to as the time-walk, introduced a systematic bias in the time recorded by the TDC dependent on the pulse height.

90 Precise determination of the TOF requires a calibration procedure that allows channel-by-channel variations in the response of the system to be accounted for. The calibration procedure described in [24] accounted for

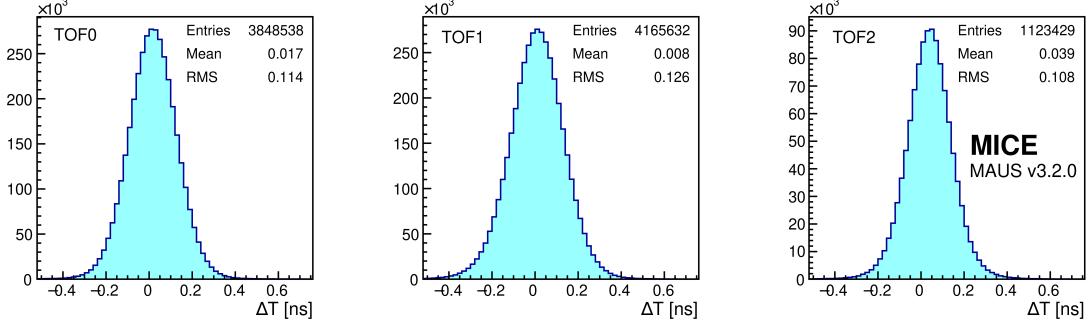


Figure 3: Slab ΔT distributions. Total width of the distribution was due to the resolution of individual pixels and due to the offsets in their ΔT distributions.

each of the effects identified above.

Reconstruction

A particle crossing a TOF station passes through two orthogonal slabs. Signals from each PMT were corrected for time-walk, readout-trigger signal delay, and the channel-specific delays. The slab-crossing time was taken to be the average of the corrected PMT times. Two slabs were taken to have been produced by the passage of a particle if their slab-crossing times were within a 4 ns window. The two matched slabs were used to define a pixel of area given by the width of the slabs. The particle-crossing time was then determined as the average of the slab times and the approximate position of the particle crossing was refined using the PMT signals in the two orthogonal slabs.

Performance

The difference, ΔT , between the slab times for matched slabs was used to determine the intrinsic time resolution, σ_T , of the TOF system. Assuming that the intrinsic resolution is the same in each of the planes that make up a particular TOF station, the ΔT resolution, $\sigma_{\Delta T}$ will be given by $\sigma_{\Delta T} = 2\sigma_T$. Figure 3 shows the distributions of ΔT for TOF0, TOF1, and TOF2 for a representative set of data taken in 2018. The RMS width of the distributions are 114 ps, 126 ps, and 108 ps for TOF0, TOF1, and TOF2 respectively. The distributions are similar and the RMS of each distribution is consistent with the measured intrinsic resolution of approximately 60 ps [17].

Figure 4 shows an example of distribution of the measured TOF between TOF0 and TOF1. The TOF peaks characteristic of positrons, muons, and pions are clearly separated. The width of the positron peak is approximately 0.10 ns, consistent with the spread calculated from a naive quadrature addition of the timing resolution of the individual TOF stations.

3 Cherenkov Detectors

The threshold Cherenkov counters were designed primarily to provide π - μ separation for particle momentum $\gtrsim 200$ MeV/c where the precision of the time-of-flight measurement was not sufficient for conclusive particle identification. Two high-density silica aerogel Cherenkov detectors with refractive indices $n=1.07$ (CkovA) and $n=1.12$ (CkovB) were used [25]. The structure of the detectors is shown in figure 5. Light was collected in each counter by four eight-inch, UV-enhanced PMTs and recorded using CAEN V1731 FADCs (500 MS/s) [26]. The two detectors were placed directly one after the other in the beamline and located just

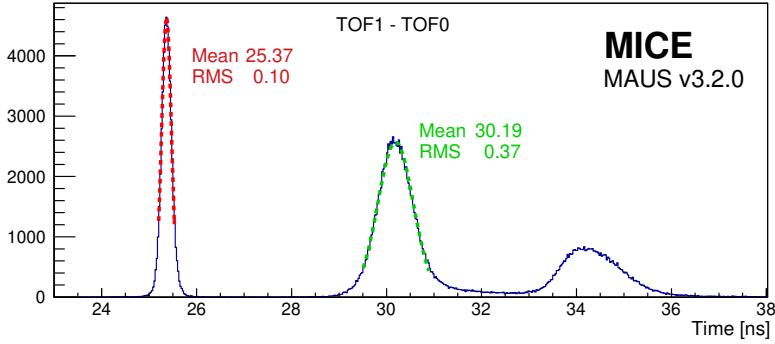


Figure 4: Time of flight between TOF0 and TOF1 after all corrections have been applied. From the left: the well separated electron, muon and pion distributions.

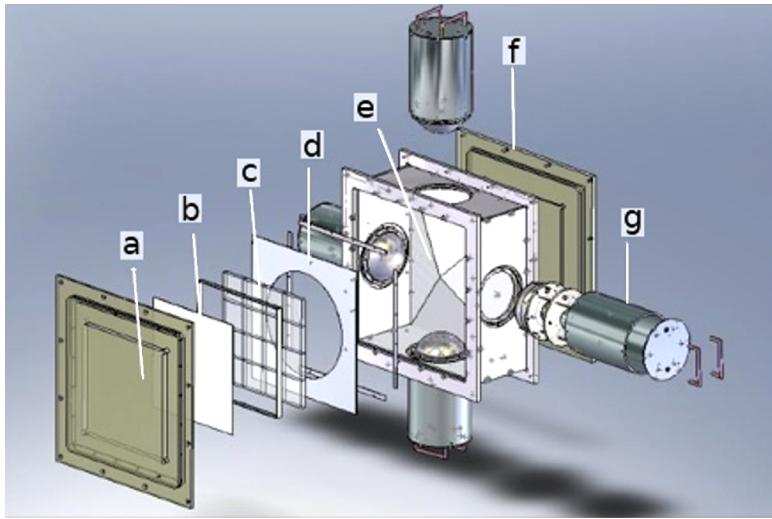


Figure 5: MICE aerogel Cherenkov counter: a) entrance window, b) mirror, c) aerogel mosaic, d) acetate window, e) GORE reflector panel, f) exit window and g) eight-inch PMT in iron shield.

after TOF0.

The refractive indices of Ckova and Ckovb result in detection thresholds for muons of approximately 280 MeV/c and 210 MeV/c in Ckova and Ckovb respectively. For pions the thresholds are approximately 125 367 MeV/c (Ckova) and 276 MeV/c (Ckovb). MICE was designed to operate using beams with a central momentum between 140 MeV/c and 240 MeV/c. The thresholds of Ckova and Ckovb were chosen to match this range since the TOF system was able to identify muons with high efficiency for momenta below 210 MeV/c. For 130 momentum greater than 210 MeV/c and less than 276 MeV/c, above the maximum beam momentum, muons will produce a signal in Ckovb while pions will produce no signal in either detector. Unambiguous identification of particle species using the Cherenkov exploited the measurement of momentum provided by the trackers.

Performance

The performance of the detectors was obtained using beams for which the momentum range was broad enough to observe the turn-on point and to allow the asymptotic light yield (as $\beta \rightarrow 1$) to be obtained from a fit to the 135 data. The normalised photo-electron yields observed in Ckova and Ckovb are plotted as a function of $\beta\gamma$

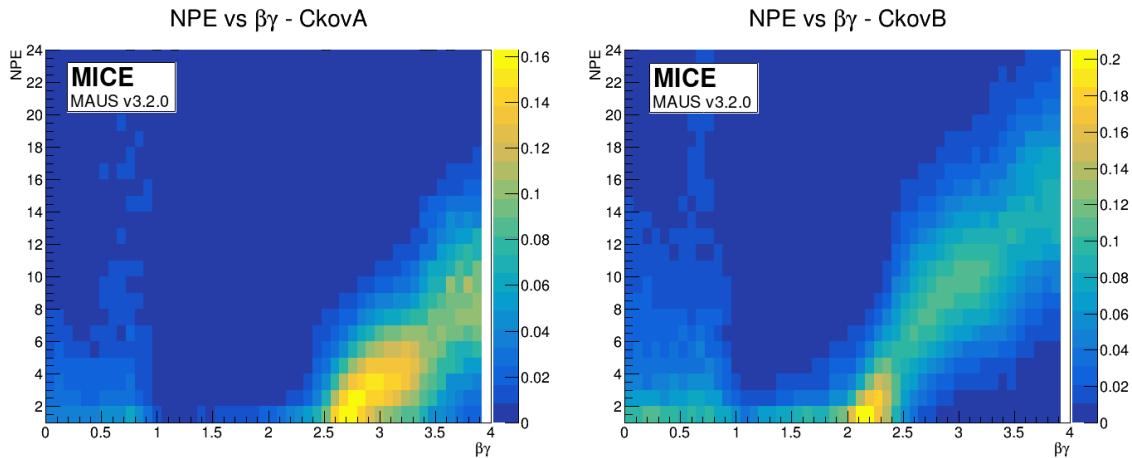


Figure 6: Photoelectron yields versus $\beta\gamma$ in CkovA and CkovB.

in figure 6. The pedestal in the photo-tube response arising from background photons has been subtracted. The approximate turn-on points for CkovA and CkovB were found at $\beta\gamma \approx 2.6$ and ≈ 2.1 respectively. The refractive indices of $n \approx 1.07$ and ≈ 1.11 for CkovA and CkovB respectively are in broad agreement with the properties of the aerogel radiators.

140 4 KLOE-Light Calorimeter

The KLOE-Light (KL) pre-shower sampling calorimeter was composed of extruded lead foils in which scintillating fibres were placed. At normal incidence the thickness of the detector was 2.5 radiation lengths. The detector provided energy deposition and timing information and was used to distinguish muons from decay electrons [19]. The KL consisted of a series of layers of 1 mm diameter BICRON BCF-12 scintillating fibres embedded in an appropriately shaped lead sheet (see figure 7). Each fibre was separated by 1.35 mm from its neighbours within a layer and the distance between the centres of the fibres in adjacent layers were separated by 0.98 mm, one layer being shifted by half the fibre pitch with respect to the next. The volume ratio of scintillator to lead was approximately 2:1, “lighter” than ratio of 1:1 used in the calorimeter of the KLOE experiment [27]. Lead/scintillator layers were stacked into slabs, 40 mm in depth. A total of 7 slabs forms the whole detector, which has an active volume of $93\text{ cm} \times 93\text{ cm} \times 4\text{ cm}$. Scintillation light was guided from each slab into a total of six PMTs (three on each side). Iron shields were fitted to each photomultiplier to mitigate the stray magnetic fields. The signal from each PMT was sent to a shaping amplifier (SA) module that stretched the signal in time thereby matching the sampling rate of the flash ADCs.

Performance

The response of the KL to muons, pions, and electrons is shown for various beam momentum settings in figure 8. For this analysis the particle momentum was determined from the measured time-of-flight between TOF0 and TOF1. To compensate for the effect of attenuation the performance was evaluated in terms of the ‘‘ADC product’’ given by:

$$\text{ADC}_{\text{prod}} = 2 \times \text{ADC}_{\text{left}} \times \text{ADC}_{\text{right}} / (\text{ADC}_{\text{left}} + \text{ADC}_{\text{right}}); \quad (1)$$

155 where ADC_{left} and $\text{ADC}_{\text{right}}$ are the signals from the two ends of a slab and the factor of 2 is present for normalisation. Data was taken with no field in the spectrometer solenoids or the focus coils at beam-momentum settings chosen to span the range of momenta used during MICE running. The resulting beam-momentum

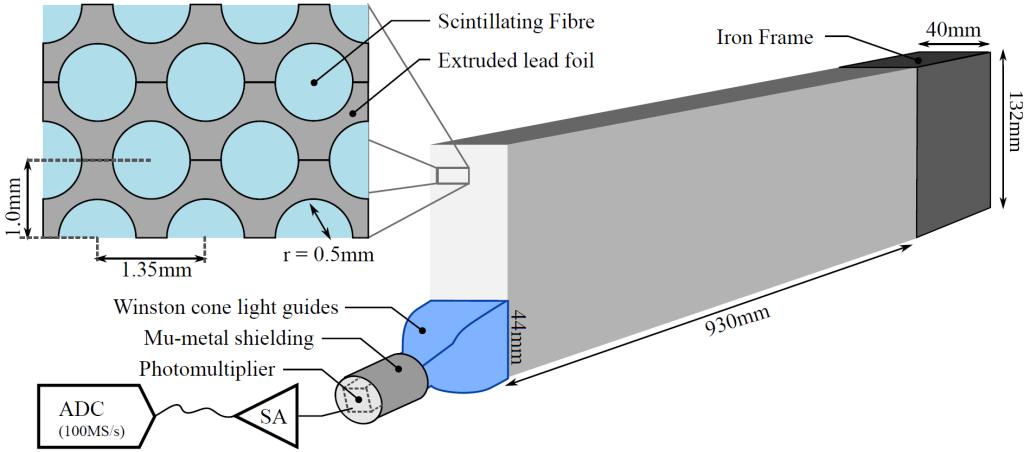


Figure 7: Single slab design of MICE KLOE-Light Calorimeter.

distributions were centred at 140, 170, 200, 240, and 300 MeV/c. The results presented below are obtained from runs without magnetic fields in the trackers or focus coil. The response of the KL to muons and pions is
 160 seen to increase with beam momentum.

Figure 9 presents a comparison of the response to muon, pions and electrons for various beam momentum settings. At high momentum, for example 300 MeV/c the ADC product distributions for muons and pions are similar. At lower momentum the the distributions become increasingly dissimilar, the pions having a broader distribution arising hadronic interactions. The difference between the detector's response to pions and muons
 165 has been exploited to determine the pion contamination in the muon beams used for the MICE cooling measurements [19].

The ADC product distribution measured using a 400 MeV/c beam is compared to the MAUS simulation of the detector response in figure 10. The simulation takes into account the photo-statistics in the scintillating fibres, the response of the PMTs for which the gain was approximately 2×10^6). The data is well described by
 170 the simulation.

5 Electron Muon Ranger

The main purpose of the Electron-Muon Ranger (EMR) was to identify positrons arising from muon decay within the apparatus. The EMR was a fully-active scintillator detector [28] with a granularity that allowed for track reconstruction. The EMR consisted of extruded triangular scintillator bars arranged in planes. One
 175 plane contained 59 bars and covered an area of 1.27 m^2 . Figure 11 the bar cross section and the arrangement of the bars in a plane. Triangular bars were chosen so that tracks moving parallel to the detector axis would not travel along the gaps between bars. Planes were mounted such that the angle between successive planes was 90° so that hits in neighbouring planes defined horizontal and vertical interaction coordinates. A single
 180 “X–Y module” was composed of an orthogonal pair of planes. The scintillation light was collected by using a wave-length shifting (WLS) fibre glued inside each bar. At each end, the WLS fibre was coupled to clear fibres that transported the light to a PMT. All the WLS fibres from one edge of a plane were read out using a single-anode PMT so that an integrated charge measurement could be used to determine the energy deposited in the plane. The signals from the fibres emerging from the other edge of the plane were recorded individually using multi-anode PMTs (MAPMTs). The full detector was composed of 24 X–Y modules giving a total active
 185 volume of approximately 1 m^3 .

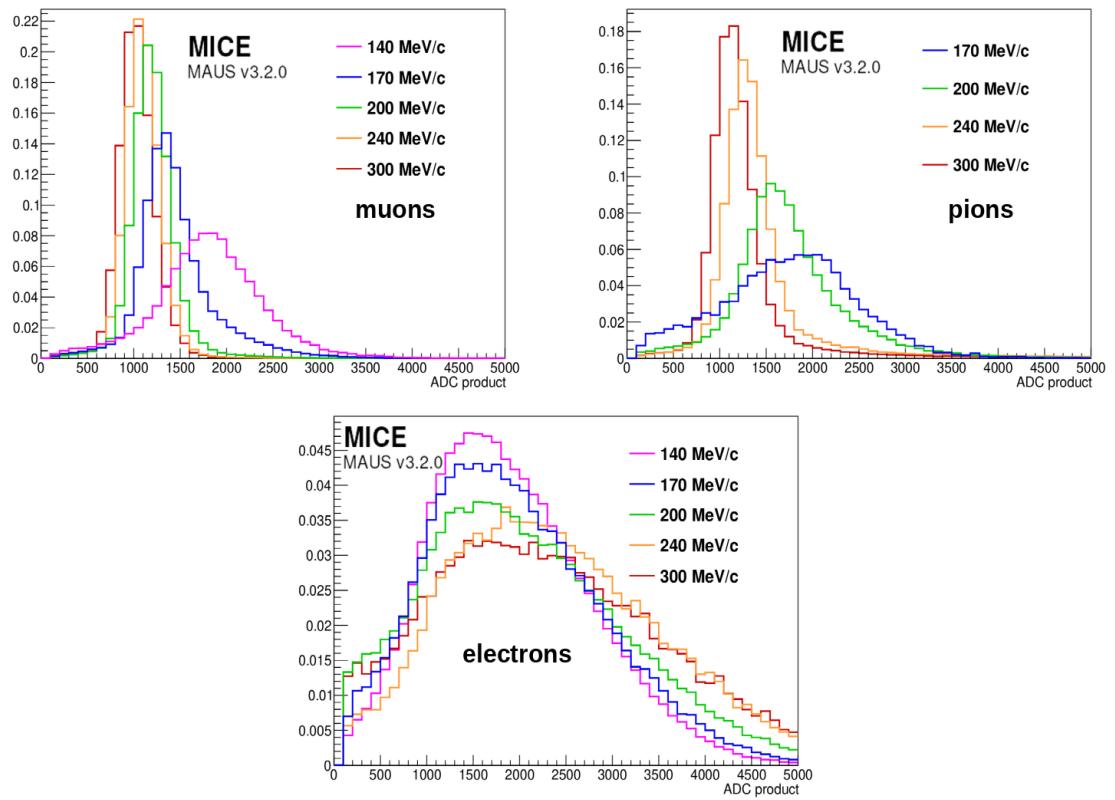


Figure 8: KL response to muons (top left), pions (top right) and electrons (bottom) for all available momenta. The charge deposited by particles in KL in arbitrary units is shown. All histograms are normalised to unity.

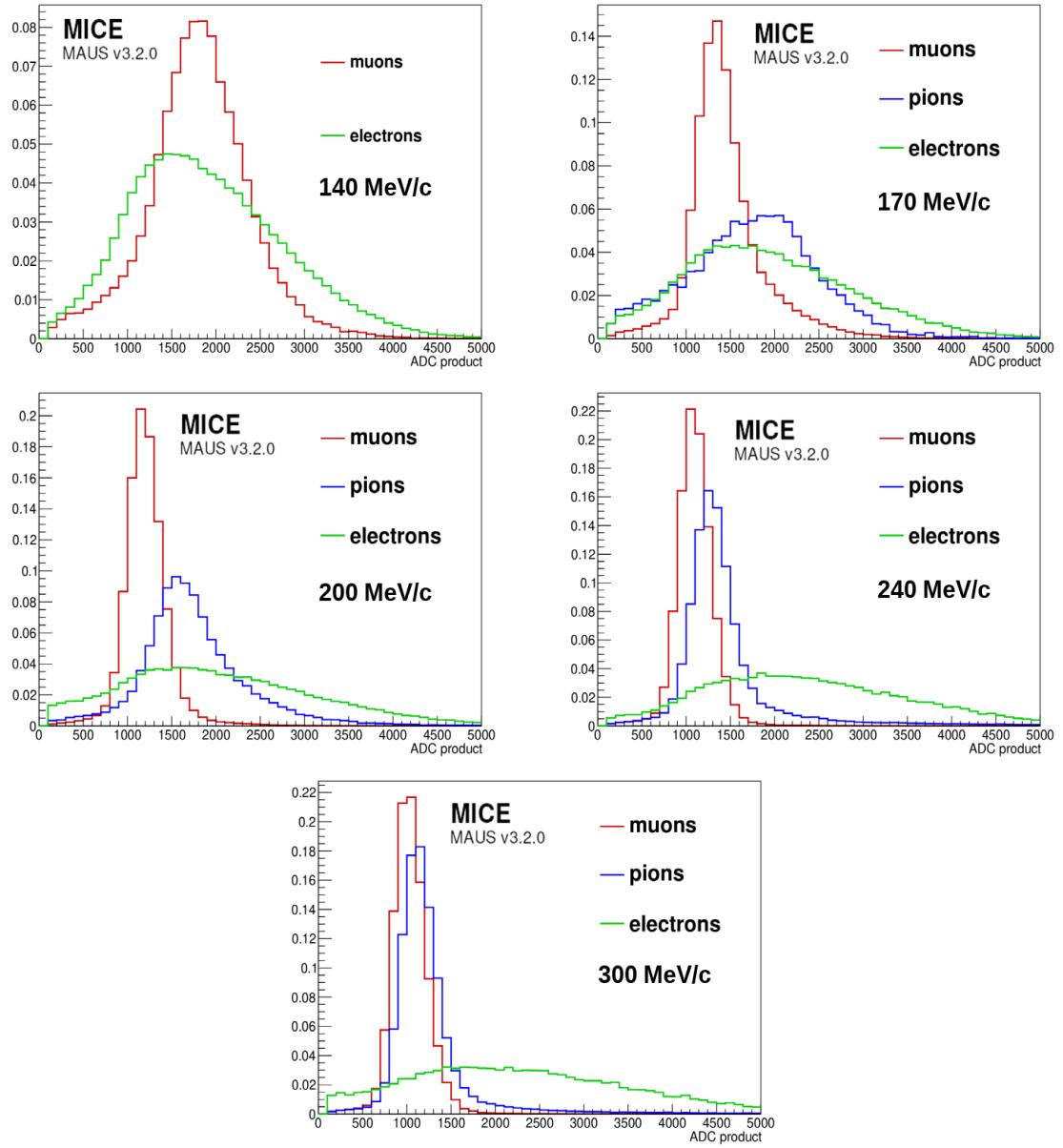


Figure 9: Comparison of ADC products of muons, pions and electrons at 140 MeV/c (top left), 170 MeV/c (top right), 200 MeV/c (middle left), 240 MeV/c (middle right) and 300 MeV/c (bottom).

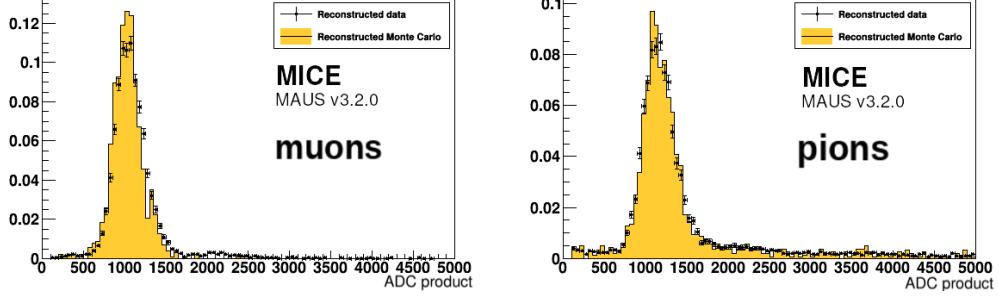


Figure 10: Comparison between data and Monte Carlo simulation of KL response to muons (left) and pions (right) at 300 MeV/c.

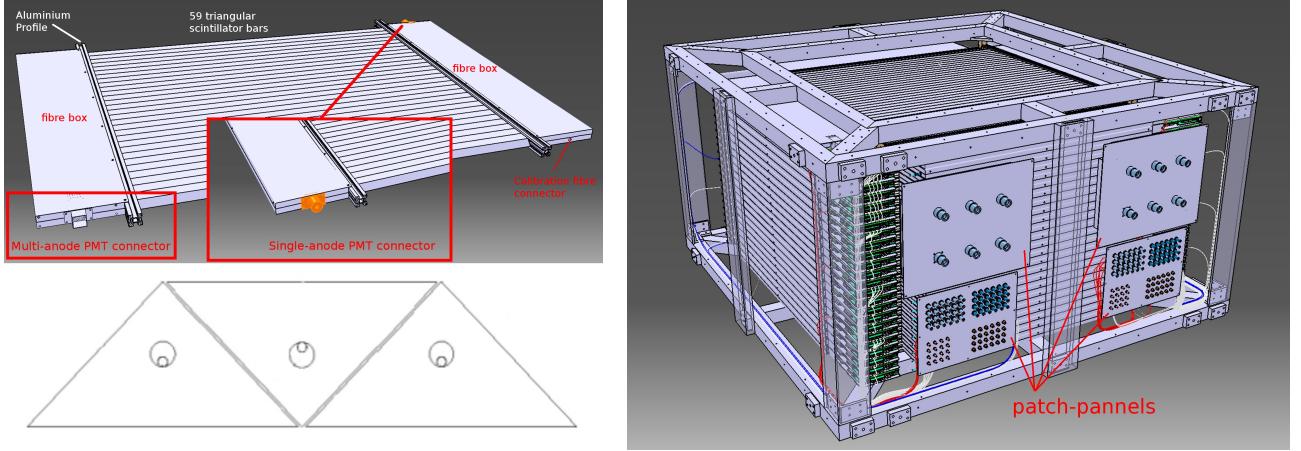


Figure 11: Drawing of one EMR plane (top left), cross section of the arrangement of 3 bars and their wavelength shifting fibres (bottom left) and drawing of the full detector and its supporting structure (right).

Measurements of the performance of the completed detector demonstrated an efficiency per plane of $99.73 \pm 0.02\%$ [28, 29]. The level of crosstalk was within acceptable values for the type of multi-anode photomultiplier used, with an average of $0.20 \pm 0.03\%$ probability of occurrence in adjacent channels and a mean amplitude equivalent to $4.5 \pm 0.1\%$ of the primary signal intensity. Only four dead bars were identified.

The primary purpose of the EMR was to distinguish between muons and their decay products, identifying muons that have crossed the entire magnetic channel. Muons and electrons exhibited distinct behaviours in the detector. A muon followed a single straight track before either stopping or exiting the scintillating volume. Electrons showered in the lead of the KL and created a broad cascade of secondary particles. Two main geometric variables, the plane density and the shower spread, were used to differentiate them. The detector was capable of identifying electrons with an efficiency of 98.6 %, providing a purity for the MICE beam that exceeds 99.8 %. The EMR also proved to be a powerful tool for the reconstruction of muon momenta in the range 100–280 MeV/c [22].

Performance

A full description of the detector and the reconstruction algorithms used may be found in reference [22]. Here the performance of the EMR detector over the course of the experiment is summarised.

To maximise beam transmission to the EMR and to increase the range of muons within the detector the

MICE beamline was set to deliver a nominal momentum of approximately 400 MeV/c. In this configuration the beamline produced pions and muons in comparable quantities and positrons. Time-of-flight between TOF1 and TOF2 was used to identify particle species and only particles compatible with the muon hypothesis were included in the analysis. Particles entering the muon sample had a momentum larger than 350 MeV/c at the upstream surface of TOF2 and were expected to cross both TOF2 and the KL and penetrate the EMR. 99.62 ± 0.03 % of the particles entering TOF2 were observed to produce hits in the EMR. The small inefficiency may be attributed to pions in the muon sample that experienced hadronic interactions in the KL. If hits were produced in the detector, an (x, y) pair, defining a space point, was reconstructed 98.56 ± 0.06 % of the time.

To evaluate the efficiency of the scintillator planes, only the muons that penetrated the entire detector were used. Muons were selected which produced a hit in the most downstream plane. For these events a hit was expected in at least one bar in each plane on its path. In 3.26 ± 0.02 % of cases a plane traversed by a muon did not produce a signal in the MAPMT, the mode of the hit-multiplicity distribution per plane was one, and the probability that the track was not observed in the SAPMT was 1.88 ± 0.01 %.

Electron rejection

A broad range of beamline momentum settings was used to characterise the electron-rejection efficiency. Particle species was characterised upstream of the EMR using the time-of-flight between TOF1 and TOF2. For each momentum setting, a Gaussian fit was carried out to determine the position of the muon and positron time-of-flight peaks. Events which fell within **XX standard deviations** of the central value of the muon time-of-flight peak were accepted into a muon-template sample while events which fell within **XX standard deviations** of the positron peak formed the positron-template sample. Particles with a time-of-flight larger than the upper limit of the muon sample were either pions or slow muons and were rejected.

The hits produced by a muon in the EMR appear as a clean straight track. By contrast, an electromagnetic shower was initiated by the passage of a positron through the lead of the KL. This resulted in a disjointed and spread-out hit signature for positrons in the EMR. Two particle-identification variables were defined based on these distinct characteristics. The first is the plane density, ρ_p

$$\rho_p = \frac{N_p}{Z_p + 1}, \quad (2)$$

where N_p is the number of planes hit and Z_p the number of the most downstream plane [22]. A muon deposits energy in every plane it crosses until it stops, producing a plane density close to one. A positron shower contains photons that may produce hits deep inside the fiducial volume without leaving a trace on their path, reducing the plane density. The second variable is the normalised $\hat{\chi}^2$ of the fitted straight track given by

$$\hat{\chi}^2 = \frac{1}{N - 4} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{\text{res}_{q,i}^2 + \text{res}_{y,i}^2}{\sigma_x^2 + \sigma_y^2}, \quad (3)$$

where N is the number of space points (one per bar hit), $\text{res}_{q,i}$ the residual of the space point with respect to the track in the qz projection and σ_q the uncertainty on the space point in the qz projection, $q = x, y$ [30]. This quantity represents the transverse spread of the hits produced by the particle in the EMR. A muon produced a single track and was expected to have a $\hat{\chi}^2$ close to one, while an electron shower was expected to produce a larger value. The two discriminating variables can be combined to form a statistical test on the particle hypothesis. Dense and narrow events will be tagged as muons while non-continuous and wide electron showers will not. The quality of a test statistic may be characterised in terms of the fraction, α , of the the muon sample that is rejected, and the contamination, β , the fraction of the electron sample that is selected.

The momentum of the particles was measured by the downstream tracker and this information used to determine the momentum dependence of the contamination and loss in the range 100–300 MeV/c. Figure 12 shows

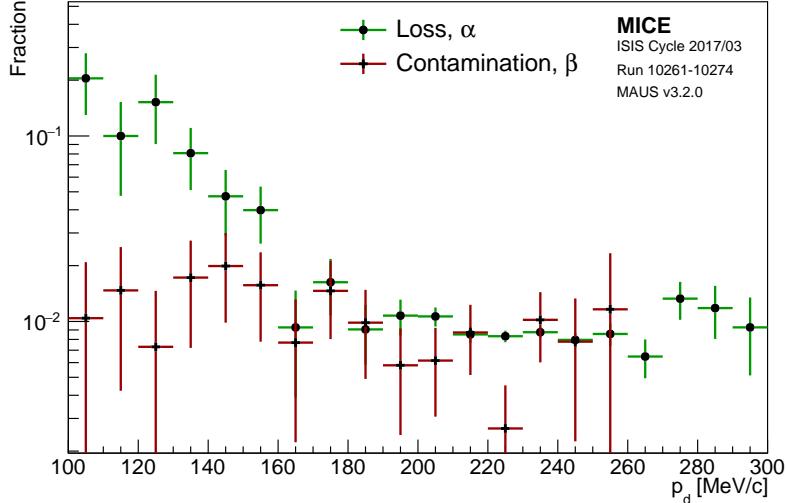


Figure 12: Percentage of electron contamination, β , and muon loss, α , for different ranges of momentum measured in the downstream tracker, p_d . The error bars are based on the statistical uncertainty in a bin, and the bin width set by the resolution of the measurement.

the loss, α , and the contamination, β , as a function of the momentum measured in TKD. The loss statistic increases towards low muon momentum. This is due both to an increase in the decay probability between TOF2 and the EMR and a decrease in the number of muons that cross the KL to reach the EMR.

6 Tracking

The MICE instrumentation allowed particles to be tracked from TOF0 to the EMR, a distance of more than 15 m. High-resolution particle tracking was provided by two scintillating-fibre trackers (section 6.1). The precise relative alignment of the time-of-flight hodoscopes and the trackers was obtained by combining the measurements of both detector systems (section 6.2).

6.1 Trackers

The two high-precision scintillating-fibre trackers each had a sensitive volume that was 110 cm in length and 30 cm in diameter [31]. Each tracker was composed of five stations (labelled 1 to 5, with station 1 being closest to the cooling cell) held in position using a carbon-fibre space-frame. Adjacent stations were separated by a different distance ranging from 20 cm to 35 cm. The separations were chosen to ensure that the azimuthal rotation of track position does not repeat from one station to the next. This property was exploited in the ambiguity-resolution phase of the pattern recognition. Each tracker was instrumented with an internal LED calibration system and four 3-axis Hall probes to monitor the field. A photograph of one of the trackers on the bed of the coordinate measuring machine used to verify the mechanical alignment of the stations is shown in figure 13).

Each tracker station consisted of three doublet layers of 350 μm scintillating fibres, these layers were arranged such that each was set at an angle of 120° with respect to the next. This arrangement ensured that there were no inactive regions between adjacent fibres. Bundles of seven fibres were grouped into a single readout



Figure 13: Photograph of one of the MICE trackers, showing the five stations. Each station has three doublet planes of scintillating fibres, each plane at 120° to the next (the central fibres of plane can be seen as darker lines traversing the station). Bundles of seven $350\ \mu\text{m}$ fibres were grouped together, to be read out by 1 mm light guides.

channel to reduce the number of readout channels. This resulted in a spatial resolution per doublet layer of $470\ \mu\text{m}$ and measured light yield of approximately 10 photo-electron [31]. The light from the seven scintillating fibres was coupled into a single clear fibre which took it to a visible light photon counter (VLPC) [32]. The signals from the VLPCs were digitised using electronics developed by the D0 collaboration [33].

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Reconstruction

The reconstruction software for the trackers is described in [34]. Each of the 15 tracker doublet layers provided 214 readout channels. Calibration data taken without beam was used to determine the position of the pedestal and the gain of each channel. These calibrations were used to calculate the number of photoelectrons (NPE) corresponding to the signal recorded by the tracker electronics. The first step in the reconstruction was to record the unique channel number associated with each NPE value in a “digit”. Digit profiles were used to identify hot or dead channels which were masked from the reconstruction to reduce the rate of ambiguities that had to be resolved in the pattern recognition and to ensure the accuracy of calibration. The reconstruction proceeded to create “spacepoints” from the intersection of digits in adjacent double layers. Spacepoints were constructed from clusters from all three planes (a triplet spacepoint) or from any two out of the three planes (a doublet spacepoint). The pattern-recognition algorithm searched for spacepoints from neighbouring stations that were consistent with the helical trajectory of a charged particle in the solenoidal field. In the final stage of the tracker reconstruction the track parameters were estimated using a Kalman filter algorithm.

275 **Noise**

Digits above a certain NPE threshold were admitted to the spacepoint-finding algorithm. Noise in the electronics arising from, for example, the thermal emission of electrons could give rise to digits passing the threshold. Any digit not caused by the passage of a charged particle was classified as noise. To isolate noise from signal during beam-on data collection, events containing a track which included a spacepoint in each of the five tracker stations were selected. All digits corresponding to the track were removed from the total set of digits and the remainder were considered to be noise. The average noise rate per channel per event was then calculated as the total number of digits above the NPE threshold divided by the number of active channels and the number of events in the sample. The result of this calculation was that, for an NPE threshold of 2, the fraction of digits

Momentum	Nominal Emittance	Upstream Tracks Found	Downstream Tracks Found
200 MeV/c	3 mm	98.38 %	99.19 %
200 MeV/c	6 mm	99.42 %	96.07 %
140 MeV/c	6 mm	98.37 %	99.16 %
140 MeV/c	10 mm	98.47 %	98.93 %
Average		98.70 %	98.21 %

Table 1: The track finding efficiency for the upstream and downstream trackers for 140 MeV/c and 200 MeV/c beams, and for 3, 6 and 10 mm nominal emittances.

Momentum	Nominal Emittance	Upstream Spacepoints Found	Downstream Spacepoints Found
200 MeV/c	6 mm	99.41 %	94.63 %
200 MeV/c	3 mm	98.04 %	97.41 %
140 MeV/c	6 mm	97.99 %	99.16 %
140 MeV/c	10 mm	98.07 %	97.44 %
Average		98.44 %	97.01 %

Table 2: The spacepoint finding efficiency, in the presence of a track, for the upstream and downstream trackers for 140 MeV/c and 200 MeV/c beams, and for 3, 6 and 10 mm nominal emittances.

arising from noise was 0.18% in the upstream tracker and 0.06% in the downstream tracker.

285

Track-finding efficiency

The track-finding efficiency was determined using a sample of events for which the time-of-flight determined using hits found in TOF1 and TOF2 was consistent with passage of a muon. This requirement ensured that the particle had been transmitted successfully through the magnetic channel, crossing both trackers. The track-finding efficiency was defined to be the number of events in which a track was successfully reconstructed divided by the total number of events in the sample. The results of the efficiency analysis are tabulated in table 1 for a range of nominal beam momentum and emittance settings. The track-finding efficiency obtained in this way averaged over beam conditions was 98.70% for the upstream tracker and 98.93% for the downstream tracker. The spacepoint-finding efficiency, defined as the number of spacepoints found divided by the number of space points expected, was also determined. The spacepoint finding efficiency is summarised for a range of beam conditions in table 2. Overall the high track-finding efficiency was found to be consistent with that introduced by the number of dead channels and did not introduce significant systematic uncertainties in the analysis of the MICE data.

The efficiency of the trackers over the data taking period was evaluated by selecting events with a measured time-of-flight between TOF1 and TOF2 consistent with the passage of a muon. Events were required to contain at least one hit within the fiducial volumee of the tracker. An event was added to the numerator of the efficiency calculation if it contained a single space point in each of the five tracker stations. The evolution of the tracking efficiency in the upstream and downstream trackers is shown in figure 14. The efficiency is shown separately for data taken in the presence of a magnetic field (“helical”) and with the solenoids turned off (“straight”). The data shows that the efficiency was generally greater than 99.0%. Water ingress to the cold end of the VLPC cassettes caused the loss of channels and contributed to a reduction in the tracking efficiency. This was periodically recovered by warming and drying the VLPCs.

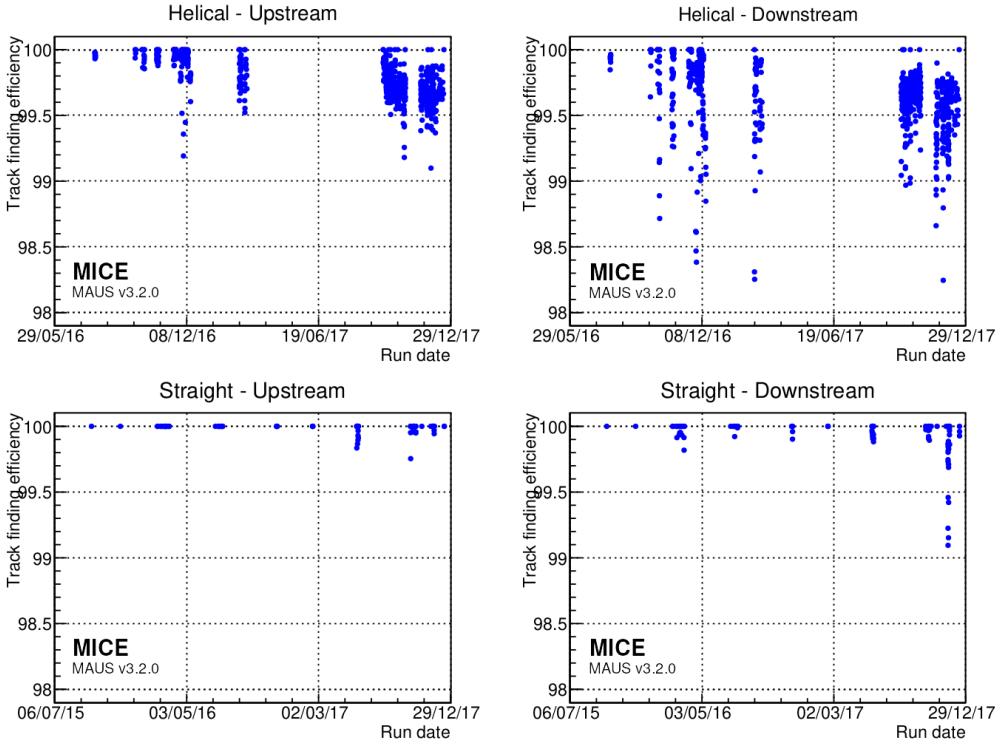


Figure 14: Evolution of the straight and helical track finding efficiency over time for the upstream (left) and downstream (right) trackers during the key periods of data taking since 2015.

Track-fit performance Monte Carlo simulation was used with realistic field and beam conditions to estimate the performance of the track fit. A beam centred at $140\text{ MeV}/c$ with 10 mm nominal emittance, representing a typical data set, was used for the study. Results are presented in figure 15 for the upstream tracker and figure 16 for the downstream tracker. The resolution in the total momentum and transverse momentum is observed to be $\sim 1.1\text{ MeV}/c$ independent of momentum in the range $120\text{ MeV}/c$ to $160\text{ MeV}/c$. The small bias in reconstructed momentum and transverse momentum is understood to be due to ...?

315 6.2 Beam-based detector alignment

A beam-based alignment algorithm was developed to improve the resolution on the position of the scintillating-fibre trackers relative to the time-of-flight hodoscopes. The starting point for the beam-based alignment was the geometrical survey of the detectors in the MICE Hall which was performed using laser geodesy. Survey monuments on the TOF frames were surveyed with respect to the MICE Hall survey network. The trackers had been dowelled in position in the bores of the spectrometer solenoids. The dowels were used to precisely locate the trackers with respect to the axis of the warm bore of the solenoid. The position of the trackers along the beam line was inferred from the measurement of survey monuments mounted on the spectrometer-solenoid cryostats. The beam-based alignment was used to determine the azimuthal orientation of the trackers with a resolution of $6\text{ mrad}/\sqrt{N}$ and their position transverse to the beamline with a resolution of $20\text{ mm}/\sqrt{N}$, where N is the number of tracks used in the analysis [35]. The position of the trackers along the beam line was taken from the survey.

Analysis method

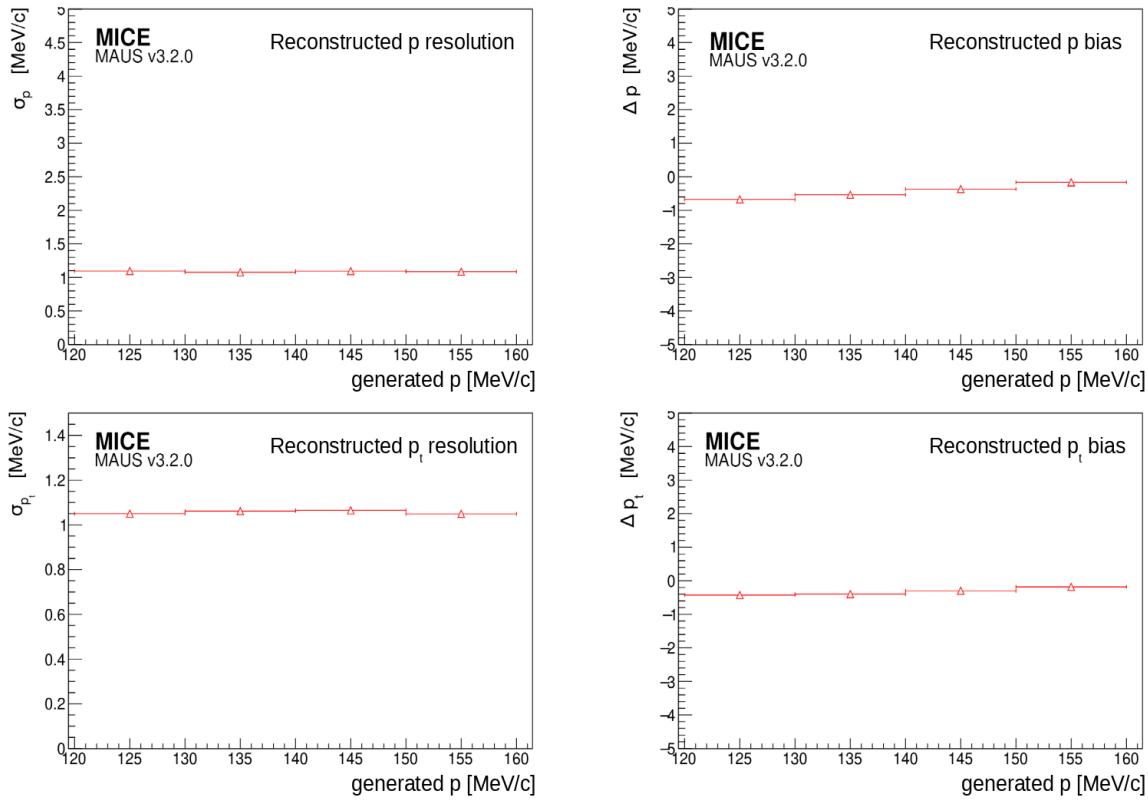


Figure 15: Upstream tracker: from simulated data.

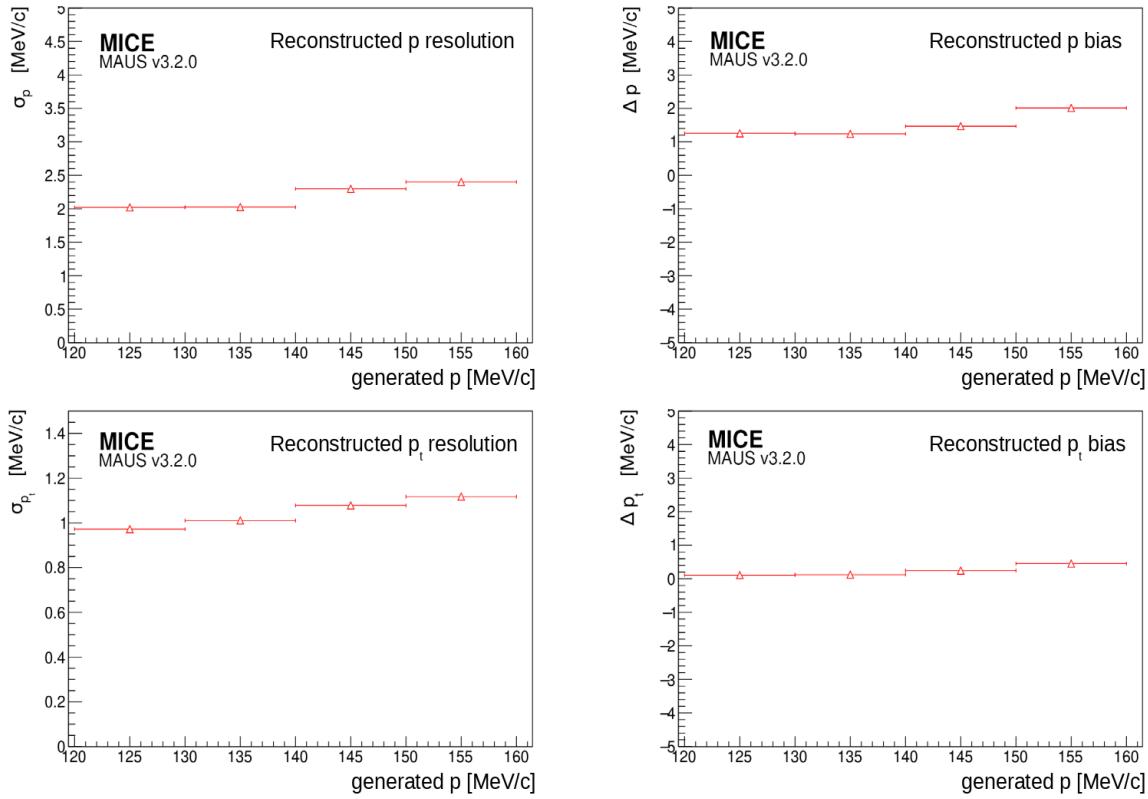


Figure 16: Upstream tracker: from simulated data.

	x [mm]	y [mm]	α [mrad]	β [mrad]
TKU	-0.032 ± 0.094	-1.538 ± 0.095	3.382 ± 0.030	0.412 ± 0.029
TKD	-2.958 ± 0.095	2.921 ± 0.096	-0.036 ± 0.030	1.333 ± 0.030

Table 3: Summary table of the optimal alignment constants measured in the high-momentum straight-track data acquired during part of 2017 data taking.

The position of each tracker in the MICE Hall coordinate system was specified using the location of its centre and a set of three angles corresponding to rotation about the x axis (α), the y axis (β) and the z axis (ϕ). The rotation of the tracker about the z axis has a negligible effect on the alignment since the angular location was determined precisely at installation. The position of each tracker along the beamline was determined from the survey. The surveyed location of the TOFs was used as the reference for the tracker alignment. The line that joins the centre of TOF1 with the centre of TOF2 was chosen as the reference axis. A deviation from this axis was considered to be due to misalignment of the trackers. The alignment could not be determined on a single-particle basis due to multiple Coulomb scattering in the absorber and other material present on the beamline. Therefore, the mean residuals in position (x and y) and angle (α and β) of the trackers with respect to the TOF1–TOF2 axis were evaluated to determine the alignment constants.

Each TOF provided a single spacepoint in the Hall coordinate system. In Hall coordinates, on average, the track reconstructed between TOF1 and TOF2 should agree with the track reconstructed in each tracker, i.e. the mean residuals in x , y , α , and β should be zero. Applying this reasoning to the unknown offset and angles leads to a system of equations for the four unknown constants [35]. The measurement of four residual distributions per tracker yields the alignment constants. The main source of bias was the scattering in the material between TOF1 and TOF2. If the beam was not perfectly centred, particles preferentially scraped out on one side of the magnet bore, anisotropically truncating the tail of the residual distribution. A fiducial cut is applied to the upstream sample in order to remove this effect.

Data were recorded with the superconducting magnets turned off. High momentum beams were used to reduce the RMS scattering angle and to maximise transmission. Each data set was processed independently. Figure 17 shows the alignment parameters determined for each run during a specific data taking period. The measurements are in good agreement with one another and show no significant discrepancy: an agreement between the independent fits guaranteed an unbiased measurement of the alignment constants. The constant fit χ^2/ndf was close to unity for each fit, indicating that there were no additional sources of significant uncertainty. The optimal parameters are summarised in table 3.

7 Liquid-Hydrogen Absorber

The accurate characterisation of the properties of the liquid-hydrogen absorber were a critically important contribution to the study of ionisation cooling. The instrumentation used for this purpose and its performance are presented in this section.

The absorber vessel consisted of a cylindrical aluminium body sealed with two thin aluminium end windows, as shown in figure 18. The absorber vessel contained 221 of liquid. The body of the absorber had an inner diameter of 300 mm and the end flanges were separated by a distance of 230 mm. The length along the central axis, between the two domes of the thin aluminium end windows, was 350 mm [36].

Variation of the density of liquid-hydrogen due to varying temperature and pressure

The energy lost by a muon travelling through the liquid-hydrogen absorber depends on the path length the

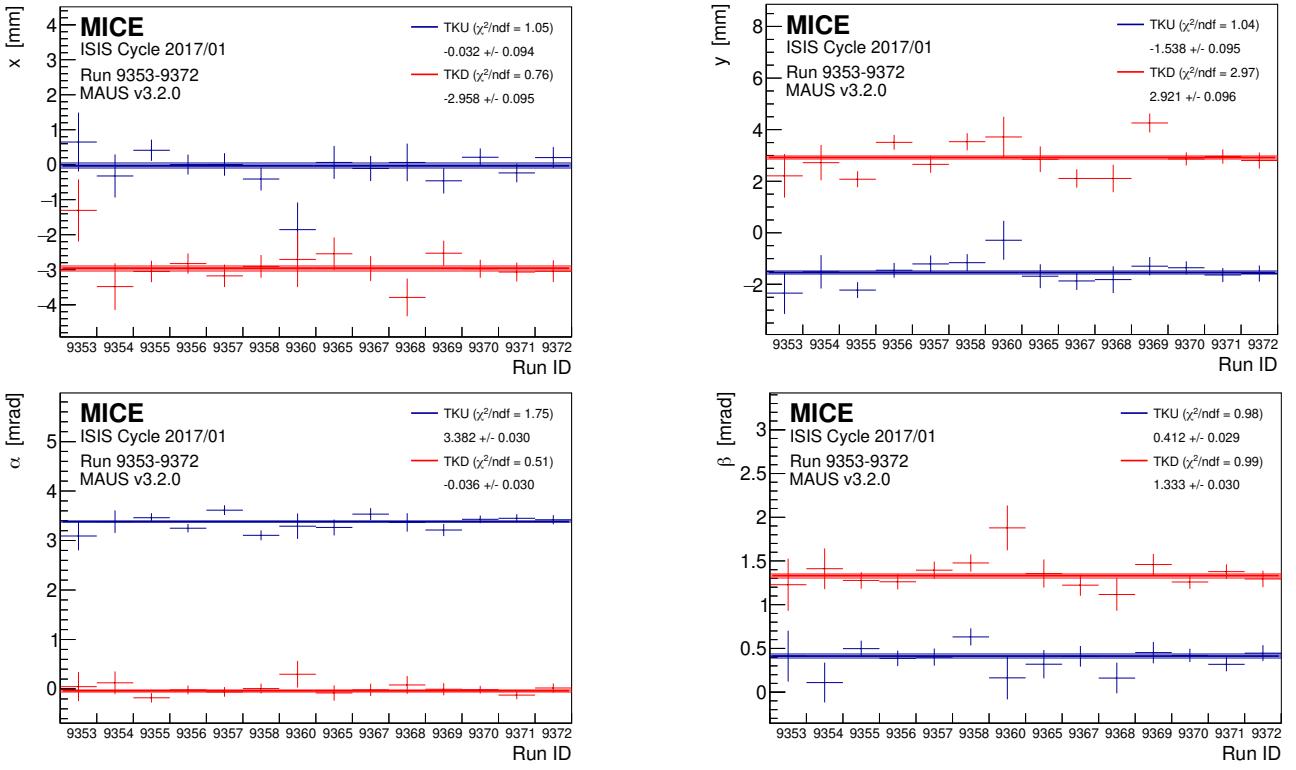


Figure 17: Consistency of the alignment algorithm across runs acquired during the 2017/01 ISIS user cycle.

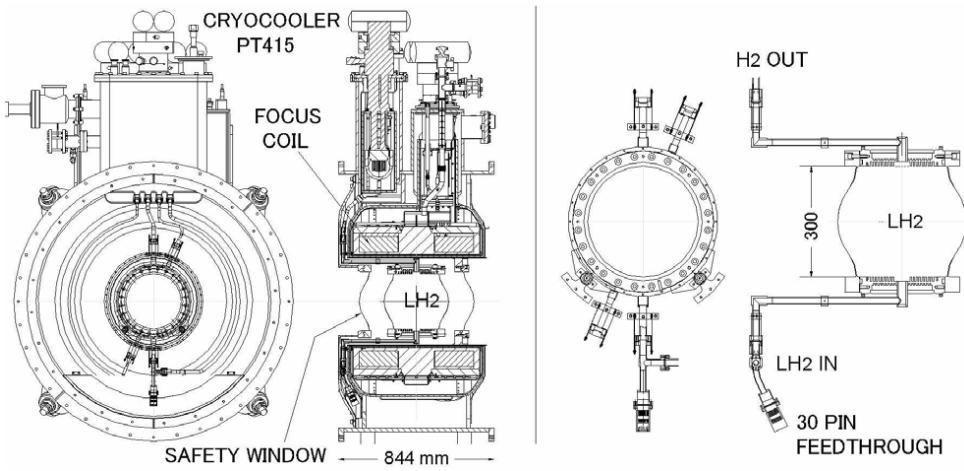


Figure 18: Left panel: Drawing of the absorber/focus-coil (AFC) module showing the principal components. Right panel: detail of the liquid-hydrogen absorber vessel [36].

365 muon travelled through and on the density of the liquid-hydrogen. The density of liquid-hydrogen is a function
of temperature and pressure. The temperature of the vessel was recorded by eight LakeShore Cernox 1050 SD
sensors with a resolution of 0.1 K. Four of the sensors were used solely as temperature sensors, while the other
four were used also as level sensors and exploited to ensure the liquid hydrogen reached the top of the vessel.
The sensors were arranged in pairs, with two mechanically clamped at the top of the vessel, two at a polar angle
370 of 45° to vertical from the top of the vessel, two at a polar angle of further rotation of 45° to the bottom of the
vessel, and a final two at the bottom of the vessel.

375 cooldown and liquefaction were completed slowly over eight days at a pressure of 1.15 Bar after which the
vessel's pressure was lowered to 1.085 Bar [36]. The vessel then remained in this steady-state until the venting
process began. During this process the cryocooler used to liquefy hydrogen was switched off and heaters
were switched on to deliver a nominal power of 50 Watt to the absorber vessel. This resulted in an increase in
pressure and temperature until the temperature stabilised at the boiling point. A rapid increase in temperature
was observed once all the liquid-hydrogen had boiled off.

380 The temperature sensors had a typical accuracy of ± 9 mK and a long-term stability of ± 12 mK at 20 K. The
magnetic-field dependent temperature error at 2.5 T is 0.04%, $\Delta T/T$, equivalent to ± 8 mK at 20 K [37][38].
These uncertainties were quoted by the manufacturer of the sensors. Magnetic fields cause a reversible
calibration shifts on the temperature measurements. To reduce the uncertainty in the liquid-hydrogen density a
calibration procedure was devised that using the boiling point. A correction to the observed temperature reading
385 was obtained by applying a cut-off correction, a correction for the effect of the magnetic field based on the
current in the focus coil and its polarity, a correction for the non-linearity of the sensors, and a boiling point
scaling factor [39].

390 The boiling point of hydrogen at 1.085 Bar is 20.511 K. The sensors have a total uncertainty of 17 mK (9 mK
accuracy, 12 mK stability, 8 mK magnetic). The deviation from the non-linearity of the sensors adds, on average,
0.03 K to the uncertainty. The temperature scaling and magnet-current correction factors also have an
associated uncertainty as they are based on the 0.1 K resolution of the sensors. For example, a calibrated sensor
at boiling temperature and 1.505 Bar should read 21.692 K, but can only read 21.65 K (21.6 K cut-off plus 0.05
cut-off correction) i.e. it is off by 0.042 K. The pressure sensors had an uncertainty of ± 5 mBar which equates
395 to ± 0.016 K during steady state. The pressure uncertainty (± 5 mBar) adds another uncertainty to the temperature
calibration constants of ± 0.014 K. Collectively, all these uncertainties sum in quadrature to 0.2 K for each
sensor.

400 In the steady state condition, the liquid-hydrogen was close to the boiling temperature of liquid parahydrogen [39] with a density of 70.53 kg/m³. The average temperature of the eight sensors during steady-state was
(20.51 \pm 0.07) K at 1.085 Bar (figure 19) and allows us to determine the uncertainty in the density as 0.08 kg/m³.

Contraction of the absorber vessel due to cooling

The absorber was cooled from room temperature to the operating temperature of the experiment (20.51 K), which resulted in the contraction of the vessel. The linear contraction of Al-6061 as it is cooled from 293 K is given by:

$$\alpha = -4.1277 \times 10^{-3}T - 3.0389 \times 10^{-6}T^2 + 8.7696 \times 10^{-8}T^3 - 9.9821 \times 10^{-11}T^4 \quad (4)$$

400 where T is the operating temperature [40]. The equation is the result of a fit to data collated by the National
Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) and has an associated curve fit error of 4%. At the MICE operating
temperature, this corresponds to a linear contraction of the vessel along each plane of 0.415%. As a result
the length of the bore contracted by (1.45 \pm 0.05) mm. The vessel was suspended within the warm bore of the
focus coil and was therefore free to contract in each plane without restriction.

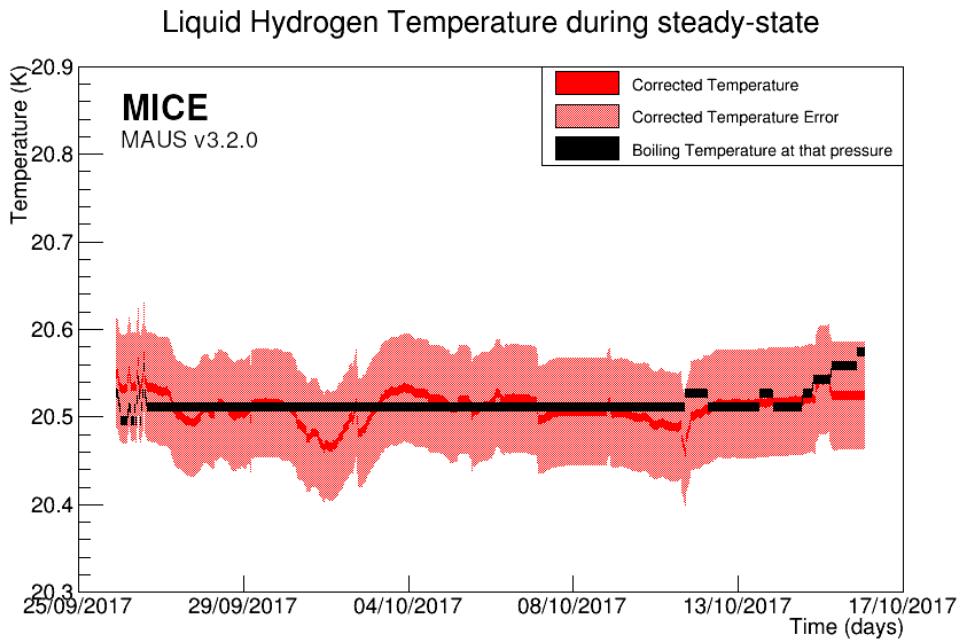


Figure 19: Average LH₂ temperature recorded by the sensors during the steady-state period. After applying all the correction factors the temperature remains at or close to the boiling point temperature.

405 Deflection of absorber vessel windows due to internal pressure

To minimise energy loss and Coulomb scattering by the absorber vessel, the window thickness was minimised. It was necessary for the liquid-hydrogen circuit to be pressurised above atmospheric pressure to prevent air ingress [36][41]. The vessel was required to withstand a pressure of 1.5 Bar at which pressure the the relief valve would operate.

410 The pressure at which the absorber operated resulted in deflection of the absorber windows, these deflections were modelled using ANSYS [42]. The uncertainty in the window deflection derived from the model was 20%. The model showed a linear dependence of the window deflection on pressure up to 2 Bar when the windows begin to yield. The pressure sensors were accurate to ± 5 mBar (0.25% of 2 Bar). At (1085 ± 5) mBar, the typical MICE operating pressure, this corresponded to a deflection of (0.5374 ± 0.1076) mm (model uncertainty) ± 0.0022 mm (sensor uncertainty) at the centre of the absorber window.

Variation of the absorber vessel window thicknesses

On its passage through the absorber a muon would loose energy in the aluminium of the pair of hydrogen-containment windows, the two aluminium safety windows, and the liquid-hydrogen itself. At the centre of 420 the absorber, the total amount of aluminium the muon beam passes through was (785 ± 13) μm , a variance of 1.68%. However, as the windows were thin, the effects on energy loss were negligible. A 200 MeV/c muon passing along the central axis of an empty absorber loses 0.345 MeV, and introduces a 0.006 MeV uncertainty on energy loss.

425 Total systematic uncertainty on energy loss

The principal contributions to the systematic uncertainty on energy loss in the liquid-hydrogen absorber are: the uncertainty in the contraction of the absorber vessel, the uncertainty in the deflection of the hydrogen-containment windows due to internal pressure, and the uncertainty in the variation of the window thickness. The impact of the contraction of vessel and the deflection of the windows resulted in a reduction of the length

430 of the vessel on axis of (0.4 ± 0.2) mm. Combined, the change in thickness of the absorber windows on axis $13 \mu\text{m}$. The average temperature during the steady state period of the experiment when the pressure remained constant at (1085 ± 5) mBar is (20.51 ± 0.07) K corresponding to a liquid-hydrogen density of $(70.53 \pm 0.08) \text{ kg/m}^3$.

435 During the MICE data taking, muon beams with nominal momenta of 140, 170, 200 and 240 MeV/c were used. The energy loss and its uncertainty were calculated. The calculation used a central bore length of (349.6 ± 0.2) mm, a total window thickness of (0.785 ± 0.013) mm and a liquid-hydrogen density of $(70.53 \pm 0.08) \text{ kg/m}^3$ for a particle travelling straight through the centre of the absorber. For a 140 MeV/c muon, this corresponds to an energy loss of (10.88 ± 0.02) MeV, while for a 200 MeV/c muon particle this corresponds to an energy loss of (10.44 ± 0.02) MeV. For a muon travelling along the centre axis of the absorber the systematic uncertainty 440 in the energy loss is 0.2%.

8 Summary and conclusions

A complete set of particle detectors has permitted the full characterisation and study of the evolution of the phase space of a muon beam through a section of a cooling channel, leading to the first measurement of ionization cooling. The PID performance of the detectors is summarised in table 4 and table 5.

Detector	Characteristic	Performance
Time-of-Flight	time resolution	0.10 ns
KLOE-Light	muon PID efficiency	99 %
Electron Muon Ranger	electron PID efficiency	98.6 %
Trackers	track finding efficiency	>98 %

Table 4: Summary of the MICE detectors PID.

Momentum	KL efficiency			EMR efficiency		Track finding efficiency					
	electrons	muons	pions	electrons	muons	3 mm		6 mm		10 mm	
	US	DS		US	DS	US	DS	US	DS	US	DS
140 MeV/c	95 %	97 %	n.a.	98 %	35 %			98 %	99 %	98 %	99 %
170 MeV/c	95 %	99 %	89 %	99 %	99 %						
200 MeV/c	94 %	99 %	95 %	100 %	99 %	99 %	96 %	99 %	96 %		
240 MeV/c	96 %	99 %	97 %	99 %	99 %						
300 MeV/c	95 %	99 %	98 %	n.a.	99 %						

Table 5: Summary of the MICE detectors PID for different beam settings.

445 All the different elements of the MICE instrumentation have been used to characterise the beam and the measurement of the cooling performance for a different variety of beam momenta, emittance, and absorbers. The experiment has thus demonstrated a technique critical for a muon collider and a neutrino factory and brings those facilities one step closer.

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