

# UNIVERSITÀ DEGLI STUDI DI PADOVA

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## Phase I of the ANNIE experiment: Data Acquisition system and preliminary data analysis

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*Agli amici più grandi.  
A chi ho perso per strada.*



# Overview

This thesis is placed within the context of the The Accelerator Neutrino Neutron Interaction Experiment (ANNIE), a water Cherenkov detector built at the Fermi National Accelerator Laboratory. The main aim of ANNIE is to study in depth the nature of neutrino-nucleus interactions by analysing the yield of final state neutrons produced in this kind of interactions. New technologies, such as gadolinium-loaded water and, for the first time, Large Area Picosecond Photodetectors (LAPPDs) will be also employed in future phases of the experiment. The measurement will have relevant implications for next generation Water Cherenkov detectors, in that these techniques may play a significant role in reducing backgrounds in relation to proton decay measurements, supernova neutrino observations and neutrino interaction physics.

This paper deals with the Phase I of the experiment, in which photomultipliers (PMT) are adopted within the tank and the forward Veto and the Muon Range Detector (MRD) are partially being employed. A small container, called Neutron Volume Capture (NVC) is also inside the tank, for preliminary neutron yield studies. The main work of the thesis consists of the development of the CAMAC electronics Data Acquisition system (DAQ); the already existing VME electronics DAQ, for the water PMTs, is described. Early stage data are also analysed, and event reconstruction techniques are proposed.

The R&D activities were undertaken in the Particle Physics Research Group of the Queen Mary University of London.

This thesis is divided as follows:

**Chapter 1** Neutrino Physics is briefly introduced, as well as some experimental techniques for their detection.

**Chapter 2** The concept and the apparatus of ANNIE is described.

**Chapter 3** The DAQ system is illustrated and some future developments are proposed.

**Chapter 4** The data analysis algorithm, developed for signal/noise discrimination, is shown.

**Chapter 5** The analysis procedures are applied to preliminary data sets and their validity are also tested.

**Chapter 6** Conclusion.



# Contents

<b>Overview</b>	<b>iii</b>
<b>1 Introduction</b>	<b>1</b>
1.1 Neutrino interactions . . . . .	2
1.2 Neutrino detection . . . . .	5
1.2.1 Water cherenkov . . . . .	6
1.2.2 Gadolinium neutron capture . . . . .	8
1.3 Neutrino Production . . . . .	9
<b>2 The ANNIE Experiment</b>	<b>11</b>
2.1 Physics of the experiment . . . . .	12
2.2 Neutrino beam . . . . .	13
2.3 The Hall . . . . .	15
2.3.1 Water tank . . . . .	15
2.3.2 Photodetectors . . . . .	17
2.3.3 Veto and MRD . . . . .	18
<b>3 Data Acquisition</b>	<b>21</b>
3.1 Main DAQ Chain and VME Chain . . . . .	22
3.1.1 Hardware . . . . .	22
3.1.2 Software . . . . .	23
3.2 MRD Chain . . . . .	25
3.2.1 Hardware . . . . .	25
3.2.2 Software . . . . .	26
3.3 Future improvement . . . . .	28
<b>4 Data Analysis procedures</b>	<b>31</b>
4.1 Data selection . . . . .	31
4.2 Individual pulse analysis . . . . .	31
4.3 Signal and noise discrimination . . . . .	36
<b>5 Data analysis results</b>	<b>39</b>
5.1 Data size reduction . . . . .	39
5.2 Cosmic muons . . . . .	39
5.3 Centre of interaction . . . . .	41
5.4 Beam events . . . . .	44
5.5 Muon decay . . . . .	46
5.6 Neutron yield . . . . .	47
5.7 First MRD data . . . . .	47
<b>6 Conclusions</b>	<b>49</b>

<b>A</b>	<b>Booster Neutrino Beam</b>	<b>51</b>
A.1	BNB details . . . . .	51
A.2	Resistive Wall Monitor . . . . .	51
<b>B</b>	<b>Monte Carlo simulation</b>	<b>53</b>
<b>C</b>	<b>Fit results</b>	<b>55</b>

# Chapter 1

## Introduction

[From Giunti-Kim] The Standard Model (SM) is a gauge theory that describes the strong, electromagnetic, and weak interactions of elementary particles in the framework of quantum field theory. The theory is based on the local symmetry group

$$\mathrm{SU}(3)_C \otimes \mathrm{SU}(2)_L \otimes \mathrm{U}(1)_Y \quad (1.1)$$

where  $C$ ,  $L$  and  $Y$  denote color, left-handed chirality and weak hypercharge, respectively. The gauge group uniquely determines the interactions and the number of vector gauge bosons that correspond to the generators of the group. They are eight massless gluons that mediate strong interactions, corresponding to the eight generators of  $\mathrm{SU}(3)_C$ , and four gauge bosons, of which three are massive ( $W^\pm$  and  $Z$ ) and one is massless, corresponding to the three generators of  $\mathrm{SU}(2)_L$  and one generator of  $\mathrm{U}(1)_Y$ , responsible for electroweak interactions. The symmetry group of the SM fixes the interactions, i.e. the number and properties of the vector gauge bosons, with only three independent unknown parameters: the three coupling constants of the  $\mathrm{SU}(3)_C$ ,  $\mathrm{SU}(2)_L$ , and  $\mathrm{U}(1)_Y$  groups, all of which must be determined from experiments. On the contrary, the number and properties of scalar bosons and fermions are left unconstrained, except for the fact that they must transform according to the representations of the symmetry group, while the fermion representations must lead to the cancellation of quantum anomalies. The known elementary fermions are divided in two categories, quarks and leptons, according to the scheme:

Generation	1st	2nd	3rd
Quark	$u$	$c$	$t$
	$d$	$s$	$b$
Leptons	$e$	$\mu$	$\tau$
	$\nu_e$	$\nu_\mu$	$\nu_\tau$

and their respective antiparticles. They are distinguished by the fact that quarks participate in all the interactions whereas leptons participate only in the electroweak interactions.

In the SM, electroweak interactions can be studied separately from strong interactions, because the symmetry under the color group is unbroken and there is no mixing between the  $\mathrm{SU}(3)_C$  and the  $\mathrm{SU}(2)_L \otimes \mathrm{U}(1)_Y$  sectors. On the other hand, the Glashow, Salam, and Weinberg theory well explains the group mixing between electromagnetic and weak interactions caused by a symmetry breaking process. This model and the discovery of the predicted  $W$  and  $Z$  bosons, in addition to the gluon, the top, and charm quarks, made the fortune of the Standard Model. Their predicted properties were experimentally confirmed with good precision and the recent discovery of the Higgs Boson [? ] [? ] is the last crowning achievement of SM.

Despite being the most successful theory of particle physics to date, the SM is actually limited in its approximation to reality, in that some clear evidences cannot be explained.

The most outstanding breakthrough is the neutrino oscillations, which was awarded the Nobel Prize in Physics in 2015 and has proved that the neutrinos are not all massless, as it is assumed by theory. Mass terms for the neutrinos can be included in the SM, with the implications of theoretical problems. Likewise, the SM is unable to provide an explanation of the observed asymmetry between matter and anti-matter. It was noted by Sakharov that a solution to this puzzle would require some form of C and CP violation in the early Universe, along with Baryon number violation and out-of-equilibrium interactions. These facts suggest that the Standard Model is not a complete theory and additional physics Beyond the Standard Model (BSM) is required.

The study of neutrinos is for sure one of the most promising probe to BSM physics and is of vital importance to the future development of particle physics, in particular through precision measurement of their interactions. A deep understanding of neutrino interactions, and neutrino-nucleon interactions in particular, could lead to a great impact on long-baseline experiments, proton decay search, and supernova detection.

## 1.1 Neutrino interactions

Neutrinos are colourless and chargless particles, thus sensitive only to weak interactions. Because of their nature, these leptons have small cross-sections and are difficult to measure. All the interactions are described by the electroweak part of the SM, based on the symmetry group  $SU(2)_L \otimes U(1)_Y$ , and are governed by the lagrangian  $\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}^{(CC)} + \mathcal{L}^{(NC)}$ . In fact, neutrinos are mediated by the  $W^\pm$  for charged-current (CC) interactions and by the  $Z$  boson for neutral-current (NC) ones, whose respective lagrangians are:

$$\mathcal{L}^{(CC)} = -\frac{g}{2\sqrt{2}}(j_{W,L}^\mu W_\mu + \text{h.c}) \quad (1.2)$$

$$\mathcal{L}^{(NC)} = -\frac{g}{2\cos\vartheta_W} j_{Z,\nu}^\mu Z_\mu, \quad (1.3)$$

where the two currents are given by

$$j_{W,L}^\mu = 2 \sum_{\alpha=e,\mu,\tau} \overline{\nu_{\alpha L}} \gamma^\mu l_{\alpha L} \quad (1.4)$$

$$j_{Z,\nu}^\mu = \sum_{\alpha=e,\mu,\tau} \overline{\nu_{\alpha L}} \gamma^\mu \nu_{\alpha L}, \quad (1.5)$$

and  $\vartheta_W = 28.7^\circ$  is the Weinberg angle.

The easiest interaction that can be studied is the neutrino-electron elastic scattering

$$\nu_\alpha + e^- \rightarrow \nu_\alpha + e^-, \quad (1.6)$$

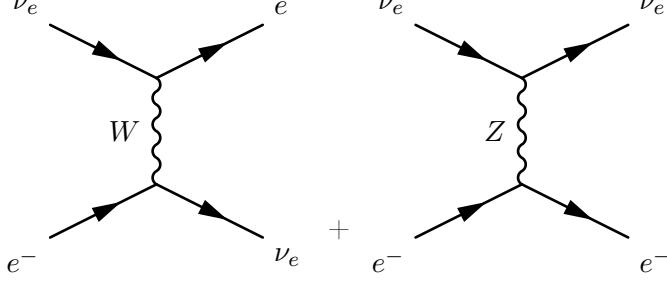
and its antineutrino counterpart<sup>1</sup>. For the electronic neutrino, both CC and NC interactions are allowed, while for  $\alpha = \mu, \tau$  the charged-current interactions are forbidden. The respective Feynman diagrams are shown in Fig. 1.1 and ???. For low neutrino energies, where the effects of the  $W$  and  $Z$  propagators can be neglected, the above processes are described by the effective charged-current and neutral-current lagrangians

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{eff}}(\nu_e e^- \rightarrow \nu_e e^-) = -\frac{G_F}{\sqrt{2}} [\bar{\nu}_e \gamma^\mu (1 - \gamma^5) \nu_e] [\bar{e} \gamma_\mu ((1 + g_V^l) - (1 + g_A^l) \gamma^5) e] \quad (1.7)$$

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{eff}}(\nu_\alpha e^- \rightarrow \nu_\alpha e^-) = -\frac{G_F}{\sqrt{2}} [\bar{\nu}_\alpha \gamma^\mu (1 - \gamma^5) \nu_\alpha] [\bar{e} \gamma_\mu (g_V^l - g_A^l) \gamma^5 e] \quad (\alpha = \mu, \tau). \quad (1.8)$$

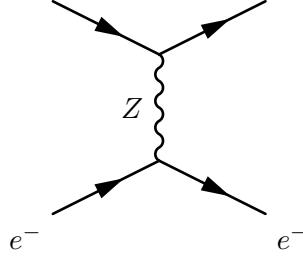
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<sup>1</sup>In terms of Feynman diagrams, the  $t$ -channel diagram is replaced by the  $s$ -channel diagram.



**Figure 1.1:** Tree-level Feynman diagrams for the process  $\nu_e + e^- \rightarrow \nu_e + e^-$ . The respective anti-neutrino CC interaction is a  $s$ -channel process, instead.

$\nu_{\mu,\tau}$



**Figure 1.2:** Tree-level Feynman diagrams for the process  $\nu_{\mu,\tau} + e^- \rightarrow \nu_{\mu,\tau} + e^-$ . Only the NC process is permitted, which is also valid in the anti-neutrino case.

The differential cross-section with respect to the momentum transfer  $Q^2$

$$\frac{d\sigma}{dQ^2} = \frac{G_F^2}{\pi} \left[ g_1^2 + g_2^2 \left( 1 - \frac{Q^2}{2p_\nu \cdot p_e} \right)^2 - g_1 g_2 m_e^2 \frac{Q^2}{2(p_\nu \cdot p_e)^2} \right]. \quad (1.9)$$

The quantities  $g_1$  and  $g_2$  depend on the flavour of the neutrino and related to the vector and axial couplings,  $g_V$  and  $g_A$ . They are:

$$g_1^{\nu_e} = \frac{1}{2} + \sin^2 \vartheta_W \quad , \quad g_2^{\nu_e} = \sin^2 \vartheta_W \quad (1.10)$$

$$g_1^{\nu_{\mu,\tau}} = -\frac{1}{2} + \sin^2 \vartheta_W \quad , \quad g_2^{\nu_{\mu,\tau}} = \sin^2 \vartheta_W. \quad (1.11)$$

The differential cross-section as a function of the electron scattering angle in the laboratory frame is

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d\sigma}{d\cos\theta} = \sigma_0 \frac{4E_\nu^2(m_e + E_\nu)^2 \cos\theta}{[(m_e + E_\nu)^2 - E_\nu^2 \cos^2\theta]^2} & \left[ g_1^2 + g_2^2 \left( 1 - \frac{2m_e E_\nu \cos^2\theta}{(m_e + E_\nu)^2 - E_\nu^2 \cos^2\theta} \right)^2 \right. \\ & \left. - g_1 g_2 \frac{2m_e^2 \cos^2\theta}{(m_e + E_\nu)^2 - E_\nu^2 \cos^2\theta} \right], \end{aligned} \quad (1.12)$$

where

$$\sigma_0 = \frac{2G_F^2 m_e^2}{\pi}. \quad (1.13)$$

For what concern the experiments, neutrino interactions with nucleons are easier to study thanks to the much larger cross-section and a more diverse range of processes, despite being less straightforward to deal with theoretically. In general, these processes can be categorised according to the momentum transfer. At small  $Q^2$ , elastic interactions dominate and may be brought about by both charged and neutral currents. When this occurs via neutral currents, all flavour of neutrinos and anti-neutrinos can scatter off both neutrons and protons in what is referred to as “NC elastic” scattering. The process is:

$$\nu_l + N \rightarrow \nu_l + N, \bar{\nu}_l + N \rightarrow \bar{\nu}_l + N, \quad (1.14)$$

Once neutrinos acquire sufficient energy they can also undergo the analogous charged current interactions, called “quasi-elastic”, due to the fact that the recoiling nucleon changes its charge and mass transfer occurs. The processes are

$$\nu_l + n \rightarrow p + l^- \quad (1.15)$$

$$\bar{\nu}_l + p \rightarrow n + l^+, \quad (1.16)$$

with  $l = e, \mu, \tau$ . For the muonic neutrino with energy below one GeV, the CCQE is the dominant interaction, even though the cross-section plateaus at higher energies, as the available  $Q^2$  increases: it becomes increasingly unlikely for the nucleon to remain intact.

The physics behind the CC quasi-elastic processes is more complicated. The differential cross-section for the scattering in the laboratory frame is given by

$$\frac{d\sigma_{CC}}{dQ^2} = \frac{G_F^2 |V_{ud}|^2 m_N^4}{8\pi (p_\nu \cdot p_N)^2} \left[ A(Q^2) \pm B(Q^2) \frac{s-u}{m_N^2} + C(Q^2) \frac{(s-u)^2}{m_N^4} \right], \quad (1.17)$$

where the plus sign refers to the  $N = n$  interactions, while the minus sign to  $N = p$ .

$$\frac{d\sigma_{CC}}{d\cos\theta} = -\frac{G_F^2 |V_{ud}|^2 m_N^2}{4\pi} \frac{p_l}{E_\nu} \left[ A(Q^2) \pm B(Q^2) \frac{s-u}{m_N^2} + C(Q^2) \frac{(s-u)^2}{m_N^4} \right], \quad (1.18)$$

The functions  $A(Q^2)$ ,  $B(Q^2)$ , and  $C(Q^2)$  depends on the nucleon form-factors in the following way:

$$A = \frac{m_l^2 + Q^2}{m_N^2} \left\{ \left( 1 + \frac{Q^2}{4m_N^2} \right) G_A^2 - \left( 1 - \frac{Q^2}{4m_N^2} \right) \left( F_1^2 - \frac{Q^2}{4m_N^2} F_2^2 \right) + \frac{Q^2}{m_N^2} F_1 F_2 - \frac{m_l^2}{4m_N^2} \left[ (F_1 + F_2)^2 + (G_A + 2G_P)^2 - \frac{1}{4} \left( 1 + \frac{Q^2}{4m_N^2} \right) G_P^2 \right] \right\} \quad (1.19)$$

$$B = \frac{Q^2}{m_N^2} G_A (F_1 + F_2) \quad (1.20)$$

$$C = \frac{1}{4} (G_A^2 + F_1^2 + \frac{Q^2}{4m_N^2} F_2^2). \quad (1.21)$$

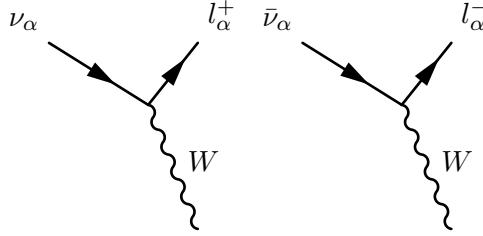
The form factors  $F_1(Q^2)$ ,  $F_2(Q^2)$ ,  $G_A(Q^2)$ , and  $G_P(Q^2)$  are called, respectively, *Dirac*, *Pauli*, *axial*, and *pseudoscalar* weak charged-current form factors of the nucleon. These funtions of  $Q^2$  describe the spatial distributions of electric charge and current inside the nucleon and thus are intimately related to its internal structure.

CCQE interactions are particularly important to neutrino physics for mainly two reasons:

- measurements of the differential cross-section in Eq. 1.17 give information on the nucleon form-factors, which are difficult to measure;
- their nature as two-body interactions enable the kinematics to be completely reconstructed, and hence the initial neutrino energy determined which is critical for measuring the oscillation parameters.

In fact, if the target nucleon is at rest, at least compared to the neutrino energy, then this can be calculated as:

$$E_\nu = \frac{m_n E_l + \frac{1}{2} (m_p^2 - m_n^2 - m_l^2)}{m_n - E_l + p_l \cos\theta_l}, \quad (1.22)$$

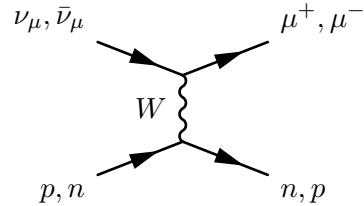


**Figure 1.4:** Production vertexes for neutrinos in CC.

where the measurement of the momentum,  $p_l$  and the angle with respect to the neutrino,  $\theta_l$ , of the outgoing charged lepton are only required.

Similar calculations can be made for the NCQE scatterings. The cross-sections have the same form as the CC cross-sections in Eq. 1.17 and 1.18, without the mixing term  $|V_{ud}|^2$  and with the proper nucleon form factors. Since the values of the electromagnetic form factors,  $F_1$  and  $F_2$ , are reasonably well known and the part in Eq. 1.19 containing  $G_P$  can be often neglected, thanks to the different mass magnitudes of leptons and nucleons, the axial form factor,  $G_A$ , can be determined through measurements of the charged-current quasielastic scattering processes. On the contrary, measurements of the neutral-current elastic scattering cross-section give information on the *strange* form factors of the nucleon, whose main contribute comes from the strange quark.

The low  $Q^2$  region also presents an inelastic scattering contribution mostly affected by resonance production, where the nucleon is excited into a baryonic resonance before decaying. At high  $Q^2$ , inelastic scattering is dominated by deep inelastic scattering (DIS), because the neutrino can scatter directly off a constituent quark, fragmenting the original nucleon. In between these extreme scenarios, an additional contribution comes from interactions where the hadronic system is neither completely fragmented nor forms a recognisable resonance. These interactions are referred to as “shallow inelastic scattering”, and there is no clear model for dealing with them.



**Figure 1.3:** CC interaction of a neutrino with a nucleon, producing the corresponding lepton. This interaction is called Quasi Elastic.

## 1.2 Neutrino detection

Being electrically neutral and uncoloured particles, neutrinos can only interact through weak interactions. For this reason, coupled with the small cross-sections typical of the weak force, the study of neutrino results in a challenging task. Direct observation is unfeasible, thus detection must rely on weak interactions with matter, where their SU(2) charged counterparts are either produced or scattered, by CC or NC interactions respectively. The physics is mediated by the lagrangians in Eq. 1.2 and 1.3.

Large active volumes have to be employed, such that a significant number of neutrino can be considered and interaction probability is thus increased. These apparatus are often built underground to shield the detector from cosmic rays and other background radiation. Apart from providing matter to interact with, at the same time these volumes must be capable of detecting the scattered charged leptons. Many are the materials or substances that can be used, like chlorine, gallium, solid or liquid scintillators.

One of the most promising techniques is to combine liquid argon with time projection chambers. As with most other liquefied noble gases, argon has a high scintillation light yield (ca 51 photons/keV[arXiv:1004.0373]), is transparent to its own scintillation light,

and is relatively easy to purify. Compared to xenon, argon is also cheaper and has a distinct scintillation time profile which allows the separation of electronic recoils from nuclear recoils.

A more dated and better-known technology is the *water Cherenkov* method, where the detector is used to record the Cherenkov light produced when the particles pass through tanks full of purified water.

### 1.2.1 Water cherenkov

The speed of light in vacuum is a universal constant,  $c$ , and it is a physical limit of the propagation of information, as stated by the special theory of Relativity. However, when in a medium, light may travel at speed significantly less than  $c$ . This reduction of speed depends on the relative permittivity,  $\varepsilon$ , of the material in which light is propagating. Because of the non-zero real part of the dielectric constant, the electromagnetic (EM) field is modified and the phase velocity of light changes into

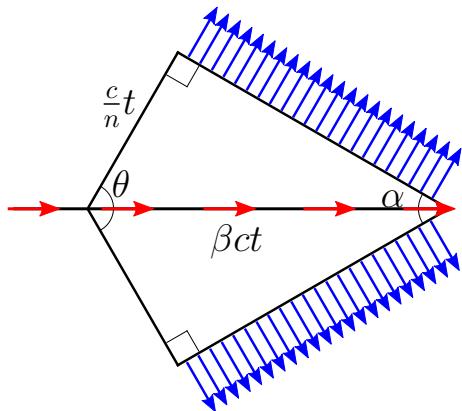
$$v_P = \frac{c}{\sqrt{\varepsilon(\lambda)}} = \frac{c}{n(\lambda)}, \quad (1.23)$$

where  $n(\lambda) > 1$  is the *refractive index* of the medium and depends on the wavelength (energy) of the wave.

A charged particles moving at a constant velocity in a dielectric medium disrupts the local electromagnetic field, by deforming its molecules and temporarily polarising the material. The dipoles are restored almost instantaneously and thus become impulsive sources of EM waves. If the velocity of the passing particle,  $v = \beta c$ , is less than the speed of the light in the medium as expressed in Eq. 1.23, i.e.  $\beta < 1/n$ , then the total energy flux of the excited field is zero and EM waves are not irradiated. On the contrary, if  $\beta > 1/n$ , the perturbation left by the passage of the particle is such that the energy is released coherently. The result is that the field is different from zero in a cone coaxial with respect to the direction of the charged particle, whose direction is opposite to the particle motion. As far as the photons are concerned, these are emitted coherently to a fixed angle with respect to the particle motion. With the help of Fig. 1.5, it is easy to find that:

$$\sin \alpha = \frac{1}{\beta n} \quad (1.24)$$

$$\cos \theta = \frac{1}{\beta n}. \quad (1.25)$$



**Figure 1.5:** The geometry of the Cherenkov radiation. The blue arrows represent the emitted photons, the red ones the track of the charged particle.

where  $\alpha$  is the apex angle of the cone and  $\theta$  is the photon angle with respect to the particle direction. For an ultra-relativistic particle, for which  $\beta \sim 1$ , there is a maximum angle of emission, given by:

$$\cos \theta_{MAX} = \frac{1}{n}. \quad (1.26)$$

The phenomenon is called *Cherenkov effect*, and it occurs everytime a charged particle passes through a dielectric medium at a speed:

$$\beta > \frac{1}{n}. \quad (1.27)$$

According to the theory of electromagnetic waves, a charged particle moving uniformly does not irradiate and this proves that the Cherenkov radiation is not related with Bremsstrahlung.

This condition can be expressed in terms of the particle energy, given that  $E^2 = p^2 + m^2$  and  $\beta = p/E$ . The threshold becomes:

$$\frac{E}{m} > \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - 1/n^2}}, \quad (1.28)$$

with  $m$  the mass of the charged particle.

The radiation is emitted in the visible and near visible regions of the EM spectrum, for which  $n > 1$ . A real medium is always dispersive and radiation is restricted to those frequencies bands for which  $n(\nu) > \frac{1}{\beta}$ . In the x-ray region, for instance,  $n(\nu)$  is always less than one and radiation is forbidden at this energies, because Eq. 1.27 cannot be satisfied.

Truly, coherent emission of light needs two more conditions to be fulfilled:

- the length of the track of the particle in the medium should be large compared with the wavelength,  $\lambda$ , of the radiation in question, otherwise diffraction effects will become dominant;
- the velocity of the particle must be constant during its passage through the medium, or, to be more specific, the differences in the times for particle to traverse successive  $\lambda$  distances should be small compared with the period  $\frac{\lambda}{c}$  of the emitted light.

The number of photons emitted by a charged particle of charge  $Ze$  per unit path length and per unit energy interval, or equivalently to  $\lambda$ , of the photons is equal to:

$$\frac{d^2N}{dx d\lambda} = \frac{2\pi\alpha Z^2}{\lambda^2} \left(1 - \frac{1}{\beta^2 n^2(\lambda)}\right). \quad (1.29)$$

This means that the greater part of Cherenkov photons are emitted in the ultraviolet range, because of the proportionality to  $1/\lambda^2$ .

*Cherenkov detectors* take advantage of this effect, detecting the light produced by charge particles. A large volume of transparent material, such as water, ice, or liquid scintillator, can be surrounded by lightsensitive detectors in order to capture the Cherenkov radiation. This technique is largely used in neutrino detection, since they cannot be detected directly: the charged lepton, yeilded in CC or NC interactions, is observed. From the light collected, it is possible to reconstruct information on the interaction, such as the velocity of the charged particle, which is somehow related to the energy of the incident neutrino, or the position of the interaction vertex. If the charged lepton drop under the Cherenkov threshold, the light is emitted in the shape of a ring, which further data can be inferred from. Not every neutrino energy allows the production of a charged lepton<sup>3</sup>, but only MeV-scale neutrinos can be observed in a Cherenkov detector.

<sup>2</sup>For this calculation, the convention  $c = 1$  is adopted.

<sup>3</sup>For instance, the CCQE process  $\bar{\nu}_e + p \rightarrow n + e^+$  has a energy threshold of 1.81 MeV and the interaction  $\nu_\mu + n \rightarrow p + \mu^-$  has the threshold of 110.16 MeV, because of the muon mass.

### 1.2.2 Gadolinium neutron capture

to be improved.

Current multi-kiloton scale water Cherenkov detectors, like Super-Kamiokande (SK), have provided many clues in the experimental understanding of the neutrino, be it originated in solar, atmospheric, or accelerator reactions. However, in spite of the large lifetime of the experiment, some analyses are still limited by statistical uncertainty, and would benefit from increasing exposure. Other analyses suffer from background contamination, as in the case of the supernova relic neutrinos (SRN) search, and would benefit more from the development of new background suppression techniques. This hindrance can be overcome by studying the yield of neutrons in neutrino interactions, such as the *inverse beta decay* (the antineutrino CCQE scattering). It would allow a handle on antineutrinos rate, and possibly a method of background reduction for other studies.

Since neutrons are chargeless, they cannot interact with matter by means of the Coulomb force, which dominates the energy loss mechanisms for charged particles, described by the Bethe formula. Neutrons can interact with nuclei in various way, depending on the energy:

- elastic and inelastic scattering;
- transmutation;
- neutron activation;
- spallation reaction;
- neutron-induced fission;

As a result of the interaction, the neutron may either be absorbed, or change its energy and direction significantly. In this way the average energy of a neutron beam can be completely or partly reduced up to thermal energies, close to 0.025 eV. In this range of energy, the neutron presents a different and often much larger effective neutron absorption cross-section for a given nuclide, compared to, for instance, fast neutrons, hence *thermalisation* can result in a *neutron activation* process. This occurs when atomic nuclei capture free thermal neutrons, creating heavier nuclei, often in an excited state. The excited nucleus decays almost instantaneously emitting usually gamma rays.

The neutron energy distribution is adopted to the Maxwellian distribution known for thermal motion. The time required by the thermalisation of neutrons follows an exponential, and the time constant is largely studied, [ref needed], amongst all the thermalisation in water. It was found that neutron thermalisation in water has a time constant of  $5\mu\text{s}$  [fujino, sumita, shiba]. Neutrons can be captured by either the hydrogen or the oxygen. Free neutron will capture on a hydrogen nucleus, releasing a 2.2 MeV gamma. In SK, for instance, this gamma results in about seven photo-electrons, and thus only detectable with  $\simeq 20\%$  efficiency.

Gadolinium-157 has the highest thermal neutron capture cross-section among any stable nuclides: 259,000 barns. Dissolving gadolinium compounds in water could considerably increase the neutron capture probability. The neutron in water thermalises quickly and can thus be captured by a Gd nucleus with a probability of 90 %. Upon capturing a neutron the Gd emits 3-4 gamma rays having a total energy of about 8 MeV. The time and spatial correlation of the positron and neutron capture events (20  $\mu\text{s}$  and 4 cm) can significantly reduce the backgrounds, and hence enhance the neutrino signal events. Even moderately energetic neutrons ranging from tens to hundreds of MeV will quickly lose energy by collisions with free protons and oxygen nuclei in water. Once thermalised, the neutrons undergo radiative capture, combining with a nearby nucleus to produce a more tightly bound final

state, with excess energy released in a gamma-ray ( ) cascade. Gd-doped water enhances the capture cross-section compared to pure water (49,000 barns compared with 0.3 barns on a free proton) and, since the cascade happens at higher energies (8 MeV vs 2.2 MeV), it produces enough optical light to be reliably detected in a large target volume.

### 1.3 Neutrino Production

Numerous are the neutrino sources at the reach of neutrino experiments. Neutrinos are produced in CC interactions, which can happen in nuclear reaction, as for *solar* or *reactor* neutrinos, or in cosmic rays impacts with the Earth's atmosphere, conveying energetic *atmospheric* neutrinos.

Artificial neutrinos are also yielded in high-energy proton accelerators. Accelerator neutrino beams are fundamental instrumental discovery tools in particle physics, in that more control less variables are involved. Neutrino beams are derived from the decays of charged  $\pi$  and  $K$  mesons, which in turn are created from proton beams striking thick nuclear targets. The precise selection and manipulation of the  $\pi/K$  beam control the energy spectrum and type of neutrino beam.

The  $\pi^\pm$  mesons have a mass of 139.6 MeV and a mean lifetime of  $2.6 \times 10^{-8}$  s. The primary decay mode of a pion, with a branching fraction of 99.9877 %, is a leptonic decay into a muon and a muon neutrino:

$$\begin{aligned} \pi^+ &\rightarrow \mu^+ + \nu_\mu & (1.30) \\ \pi^- &\rightarrow \mu^- + \bar{\nu}_\mu & (1.31) \end{aligned}$$

The second most common decay mode of a pion, is the leptonic decay into an electron and the corresponding neutrino,  $\pi^\pm \rightarrow \nu_e + e$ . In spite of the considerable differences in the space momentum, this process is suppressed with respect to the muonic one. This effect is called *helicity suppression* and is due to the great mass of the muon ( $m_\mu = 105.658$  MeV) compared to the electron's ( $m_e = 0.510$  MeV); this results in a stronger helicity-chirality correspondence for the electron rather than for the muon. Given that the  $\pi$  mesons are spinless, neutrinos are left-handed, and antineutrinos are right-handed, the muonic channel is preferred because of spin and linear momentum preservation. The suppression of the electronic decay mode with respect to the muonic one is given approximately within radiative corrections by the ratio:

$$R_\pi = \left(\frac{m_e}{m_\mu}\right)^2 \left(\frac{m_\pi^2 - m_e^2}{m_\pi^2 - m_\mu^2}\right) = 1.283 \times 10^{-4} \quad (1.32)$$

The measured branching ratio of the electronic decay is indeed  $(1.23 \pm 0.02) \times 10^{-4}$ .

As far as the charged  $K$  meson is concerned, it mainly decays in a muon and its corresppective neutrino, with a branching ratio of 63.55 %:

$$\begin{aligned} K^+ &\rightarrow \mu^+ + \nu_\mu & (1.33) \\ K^- &\rightarrow \mu^- + \bar{\nu}_\mu & (1.34) \end{aligned}$$

The second most frequent decay (20.66 %) is the decay into two pions,  $K^\pm \rightarrow \pi^0 + \pi^\pm$ . Other decays have a branching ratio of 5 % or less and are listed in table Tab. 1.1. On the contrary, the decays of the neutral kaon produce neutrino in few cases. Because of the

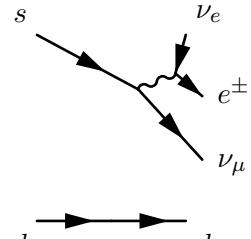
**Table 1.1:** Decay mode for a charged kaon,  $K^\pm$ , sorted by branching ration (in percent).

$\mu^\pm + \nu_\mu^{(-)}$	$65.55 \pm 0.11$
$\pi^\pm + \pi^0$	$20.66 \pm 0.08$
$\pi^+ + \pi^\pm + \pi^-$	$5.59 \pm 0.04$
$\pi^0 + e^\pm + \nu_e^{(-)}$	$5.07 \pm 0.04$
$\pi^0 + \mu^\pm + \nu_\mu^{(-)}$	$3.35 \pm 0.03$
$\pi^\pm + \pi^0 + \pi^0$	$1.76 \pm 0.02$

oscillation phenomenon given by the mixing between  $K^0$  and  $\bar{K}^0$ , the neutral kaon has two manifestations, the short kaon  $K_S$  and the long kaon  $K_L$ , named after their lifetimes. While the  $K$ -short decays only in two pions ( $2\pi^0$  or  $\pi^+ + \pi^-$ ), the  $K$ -long has a wider variety of final state combination, all of them involving three particles. Among these, neutrinos are produced in the processes:

$$K_L^0 \rightarrow \pi^\pm + \mu^\mp + \nu_\mu^{(-)} \quad (1.35)$$

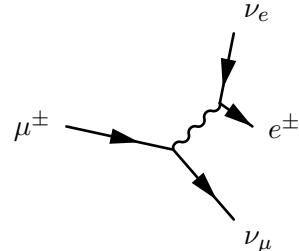
$$K_L^0 \rightarrow \pi^\pm + e^\mp + \nu_e^{(-)} \quad (1.36)$$



Neutrinos are also produced by the decay of muons. Muons are unstable elementary particles and decay via the weak interaction. The dominant decay mode, called *Michel decay*, is also the simplest possible: because lepton numbers must be conserved, one of the product neutrinos of muon decay must be a muonic neutrino and the other an electronic antineutrino, along with an electron, because of the charge preservation. Vice versa, an antimuon decay produces the corresponding antiparticles. These two decays are:

$$\mu^- \rightarrow e^- + \bar{\nu}_e + \nu_\mu \quad (1.37)$$

$$\mu^+ \rightarrow e^+ + \nu_e + \bar{\nu}_\mu \quad (1.38)$$



The neutrino source provided by the muon decay, is more of a nuisance background, because of the long lifetime, which give rise to electronic component in neutrino spectrum. Usually a beam absorbed is located at the end of the decay region of an accelerator line, to stop the hadronic and muonic component of the beam, and only an almost pure neutrino beam pointing towards the detector remains.

## Chapter 2

# The ANNIE Experiment

As more neutrino data become available, lack of knowledge of the fine details of neutrino-nucleus interactions begins to limit the physics reach of future experiments. For instance, final-state neutron abundance from pure neutrino interactions is currently poorly known and difficult to measure. Data on neutron yield in relation to energy and direction of final-state muons can be used to better constrain nuclear models of neutrino interaction physics and are an essential input for Monte Carlo models, used for calculating detection efficiencies, expected background rates, accurate limits, and confidence levels. The count of neutrons can also be used to reject contamination by atmospheric neutrino interactions in proton decay experiments and in a sample of diffuse supernova background neutrinos and may also help to statistically address wrong-sign contamination in oscillation analyses. In addition to helping understand fundamental neutrino-interaction physics, tagging events by the presence and number of final-state neutrons can provide physics analyses with a better handle for signal/background separation and even allow for discrimination between different types of neutrino interactions.



**Figure 2.1:** Logo of the ANNIE experiment.

A study of final-state neutron abundance can be accomplished by the Accelerator Neutrino Neutron Interaction Experiment (ANNIE), which will provide a complementary measurement of neutron yields in neutrino-nucleon interactions. The ANNIE experiment is a prototype neutrino detector currently taking data at the Fermi National Accelerator Laboratory (FNAL, Fermilab), in Chicago, USA. It consists of a small water Cherenkov detector, placed at the former location of the SciBooNE experiment ref[Phys. Rev. D 78 (2008) 112004] and

deployed on the intense Booster Neutrino Beam (BNB). An upstream forward Veto and a downstream Muon Range Detector (MRD) are also installed in the hall. The experiment aims to be a test bed for many new technologies, such as the gadolinium-doped water and the use of early prototype Large Area Picosecond Photodetectors (LAPPDs). The ANNIE experiment will be an innovative application of these devices demonstrating their feasibility for Water Cherenkov neutrino detectors.

The experiment is planned to proceed in two stages, spread over five years:

**Phase I** a partially-instrumented test-beam run using only Photomultipliers (PMTs) for the purpose of measuring critical neutron backgrounds to the experiment;

**Phase II** a longer run with a more fully-instrumented detector where incremental research and development for the LAPPDs and accompanying fast electronics will be fulfilled, as long as the expansion of the photodetector coverage (both LAPPDs and PMTs)

required.

*Year 1* will focus on the R&D, particularly on the development of the Data Acquisition system, along with the testing in water of the first model of LAPPD. Installation of the first LAPPDs and a significant fraction of the additional PMTs, as well as the calibration system, will take place in *Year 2*. Data-taking would commence in *Year 3* and continue through *Year 5*, with the physics reach of the detector improving as the fraction of LAPPDs increases over time. Publication of derived results would occur by the end of *Year 5*.

This thesis takes place at the beginning of *Year 1*, where the experimental setup of Phase I is tested and R&D is undertaken.

## 2.1 Physics of the experiment

Aside from the opportunity to test new technologies, ANNIE will also collect valuable data by observing interactions between neutrinos and nucleons. Little is known about the Physics behind these processes, except from that it is strictly influenced by the complex interplay of multiple particles; current models are limited in their approximation to reality.

The principal process at first order, that the experiment is sensitive to, is the charged current quasi-elastic scattering (CCQE, see section ref) of the muon neutrino on a bound nucleon; the interaction yields a proton (neutron) from the neutrino (anti-neutrino) interaction. CC scattering without pions in the final state is a critical component for neutrino oscillation experiments. However, CCQE cross section precise measurements have been unavailable, for several reasons:

- neutrino beams typically span a wide energy range thereby preventing an incoming energy constraint on the reaction;
- the neutrino flux itself is often poorly known, hampering normalization of reaction rates;
- background processes are frequently significant and difficult or impossible to separate from the CCQE signal;
- the target nucleon is not free but bound in a nucleus and correlations between nucleons are important.

The theory describing these interactions is under development and is often weakly constrained by the available data. Higher-order processes and multi-scale nuclear physics, including secondary (p,n) scattering of struck nucleons within the nucleus, charge exchange reactions of energetic hadrons in the nucleus (e.g.,  $\pi^- p \rightarrow n \pi^0$ ), and Meson Exchange Currents (MEC), where the neutrino interacts with a correlated pair of nucleons, all modify theoretical expectations.

The MiniBooNE experiment ref, has been able to measure the double differential cross section for the CCQE interactions of muon neutrinos on a carbon ( $^{12}\text{C}$ ) target. Employing a modified Real Fermi Gas model (Smith-Moniz), the axial mass,  $M_A$ , of the dipole axial form factor was measured to be greater than older measures. Within the model prediction, a larger value for  $M_A$  implies a larger cross section, because the CCQE cross section increases approximately linearly with the axial mass. This may indicate a significant contribution from neglected mechanisms for CCQE-like scattering from a nucleus such as multi-nucleon processes. For instance, the double differential cross section for CCQE interactions is better described by models including *two-body currents*, where low-energy neutrinos scatter off correlated pairs of nucleons. Several models [martini et al, Nieves] have been developed on two body currents, but there is no consensus on many details how these events look like.

A model-independent consequence of two-body currents is higher multiplicity of final state neutrons, therefore a key handle in understanding neutrino-nucleus interaction would be the number and type of nucleons ejected from the interaction. As established previously, detection of neutrons from nuclear interactions would have a transformative impact on a wide variety of neutrino physics measurements. Nevertheless there are major limitations on the effective execution of neutron tagging techniques, for both sides of Physics:

- theoretically, large theoretical uncertainties on the nuclear mechanisms that produce neutrons in GeV-scale neutrino interactions are not still clear;
- experimentally, the neutron yield hasn't been satisfactorily measured yet.

ANNIE can study neutron yields from mostly-pure neutrino interactions separately and will study neutron yields in relation to the energy and direction of final-state muons with respect to the original neutrino. The search for a delayed signal from neutron capture on Gadolinium (Gd) salts dissolved in water is a promising technique for detecting final state neutrons. The probability of producing zero, one, or multiple neutrons from a neutrino interaction must be characterised, as a function of both interaction type and momentum transfer. This evaluation is expected to require on the order of ten thousands neutrino interactions, considering the efficiencies and acceptances of the experimental setup, which should be around the 10 % of the interactions in the detector. This corresponds to one year of data with the detector fully instrumented. With additional statistics (additional two years of data) and improved detector performance, the more demanding goal of studying neutron yields for specific event classes can be met.

Neutron tagging in Gd-loaded water may also play a significant role in reducing backgrounds from atmospheric neutrinos in next generation proton-decay searches using megaton-scale Water Cherenkov detectors, like Hyper-Kamiokande ref. Similar techniques might also be useful in the detection of supernova neutrinos. Accurate determination of neutron tagging efficiencies will require a detailed understanding of the number of neutrons produced by neutrino interactions in water as a function of momentum transferred. This accuracy can be achieved by using precision timing, thank to the LAPPDs, to localise interaction vertices in the small fiducial volume of the detector.

ANNIE is a Cherenkov water detector. How many photons do we expect?

$$N = L2\pi\alpha Z^2 \int_{\lambda_2}^{\lambda_1} \frac{1}{\lambda^2} \left(1 - \frac{1}{\beta^2 n^2(\lambda)}\right) d\lambda. \quad (2.1)$$

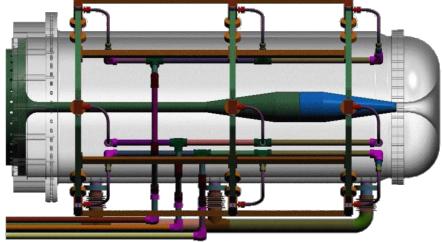
$$N = 2L\pi\alpha \sin^2 \theta_C \left(\frac{1}{\lambda_1} - \frac{1}{\lambda_2}\right). \quad (2.2)$$

PMT shows a QE of about 20 % from 300 nm to 500 nm. Given that  $\theta_C = 41^\circ$ , the number of photons is  $N = 87,709.878,89$ . Including the QE and the photocoverage of the bottom  $\frac{4}{15}\pi$ , the photons detected are  $N = 14,033.580,62$ .

The maximum transit time for direct light to travel in the ANNIE tank is less than 20 ns. The difference in transit time between two photons arriving at the same photosensor from two different forward-pointing tracks is just a few nanoseconds.

## 2.2 Neutrino beam

ANNIE is run on axis from the *Booster Neutrino Beam* (BNB), which deploys 8.89 GeV protons accelerated from the Fermilab booster operating at 15 Hz. The primary beam from the *Linac* uses protons accelerated to 8 GeV kinetic energy by the Fermilab booster. Selected batches containing approximately  $5 \times 10^{12}$  protons are extracted and bent toward



**Figure 2.2:** BNB horn system.

a beryllium target via dipole magnets. Each spill is composed of 81 bunches of protons, approximately 6 ns wide each and 19 ns apart, for a total spill duration of 1.6  $\mu$ s. As far as the detector is concerned, the neutrino beam is seen to arrive with a spill frequency of 15 Hz, divided in pulse train, around 1 s apart each other.

Beam proton trajectories and positions are monitored on a pulse-by-pulse basis. Upstream of the target, the primary proton beam is monitored on a pulse-by-pulse basis using four systems: two toroids measuring its intensity (protons-per-pulse), beam position monitors (BPM) and a multi-wire chamber determining the beam width and position, and a resistive wall monitor (RWM) measuring both the time and intensity of the beam spills. A logic signal is also generated by the last device for every intensity peak. It is employed to trigger the experiment in correspondence of each spill. The BNB is dealt in detail in the appendix A.

Hadronic interactions of the protons with the target material produce a beam of secondary mesons, mostly pions and kaons. A magnetic focusing horn, shown in Fig. 2.2, surrounds the beryllium target, bending and sign-selecting the secondary particles emitted along the direction pointing to the hall. The focusing is produced by the toroidal magnetic field present in the air volume between the horn's two coaxial conductors made of aluminium alloy. The beam of focused, secondary mesons emerging from the target/horn region is further collimated, via passive shielding, and allowed to decay into neutrinos in a cylindrical decay region filled with air at atmospheric pressure, 50 m long and 90 cm in radius. The polarity of the horn current flow can be (and has been) switched, in order to focus negatively charged mesons, and therefore produce an antineutrino instead of a neutrino beam.

[From SciBooNE] Neutrino flux predictions are the same produced by the SciBooNE collaboration, obtained via a GEANT4-based beam Monte Carlo simulation. The same simulation code developed by the MiniBooNE Collaboration is used, where a realistic description of the geometry and materials present in the BNB target hall and decay region is used. Primary protons are generated according to the expected beam optics properties upstream of the target. The interactions of primary protons with the beryllium target are simulated according to state-of-the-art hadron interaction data. Of particular importance for this analysis is a  $\pi^+$  production in proton-beryllium interactions, which uses experimental input from the HARP [cite] and BNL E910 [cite] experiments. Production of secondary protons, neutrons, charged pions, and charged and neutral kaons is taken into account, and elastic and quasi-elastic scattering of protons in the target are also simulated. Particles emanating from the primary proton-beryllium interaction in the target are then propagated within the GEANT4 framework, which accounts for all relevant physics processes. Given the importance of the target (beryllium and aluminium) hadronic reactions, these are described by custom models, while other hadronic processes and all electromagnetic processes (energy loss, multiple scattering, effect of horn magnetic field, etc.) are described according to default GEANT4 physics lists.

A second, FORTRAN-based Monte Carlo code is responsible for generating the neutrino kinematics distributions from meson and muon decays, and for obtaining the final neutrino fluxes extrapolated to the detector hall with negligible beam Monte Carlo statistical errors. Once produced by the simulation, neutrinos are extrapolated along straight lines toward the detector and all neutrinos whose traces cross any part of the active volume are considered for the flux predictions. Based on accurate survey data, the distance between the centre of the beryllium target and the centre of the SciBar detector is taken to be 99.9 m, with the detector located on beam axis within a tolerance of a few centimetres.

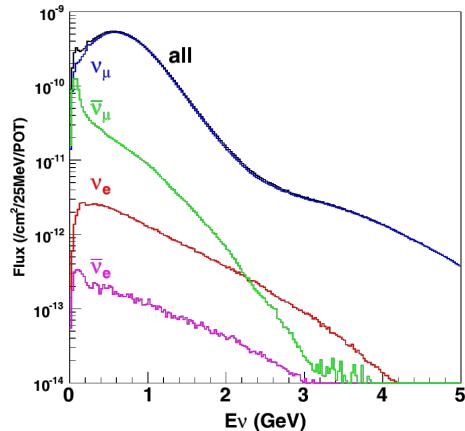
The neutrino flux prediction at the detector location and as a function of neutrino energy is shown in Fig. 2.3. A total neutrino flux per proton on target of  $2.2 \times 10^{-8} \text{ cm}^{-2}$  is expected at the hall location and in neutrino running mode (positive horn polarity), with a mean neutrino energy of 0.7 GeV. The flux is dominated by muon neutrinos (93 % of total), with small contributions from muon antineutrinos (6.4 %), and electron neutrinos and antineutrinos (0.6 % in total). For the neutrino flux predictions, no information from BNB (SciBooNE or MiniBooNE) neutrino data was used as experimental input. The projected number of protons incident on the target (POT) per year for the BNB is about  $2 \times 10^{20}$  POT. The rates expected per year when running in neutrino mode for one ton of water (see section ref) are about sixteen thousands neutrino interactions, where eleven thousands of those would be  $\nu_\mu$  CC interactions. This spectrum peaks ideally in the region of interest at 700 MeV as a result of the simulation shown in Fig. 2.3, and has the target rate of neutrino interactions per year. Another consideration beyond the rates and spectra of in-detector neutrino interactions is the probability of seeing multiple events in one beam spill. The number of muon neutrino per spill at the SciBooNE location is found to be significantly less than one. In fact from the preliminary simulations, the neutrino interactions occur in the tank approximately every 150 spills of  $4 \times 10^{12}$  POTs. Additionally our simulations suggest an externally generated muon enters the tank once every  $\sim 195$  spills. These rates are ideal as they ensure single neutrino interactions in the detector.

## 2.3 The Hall

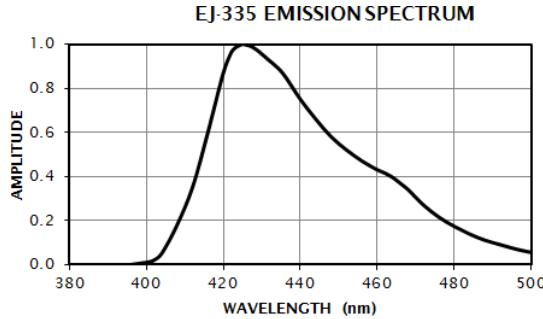
The experiment is set up in the former site of the SciBooNE experiment, located 8 m below the surface and the 100 m from the BNB target. Already existing instrumentation in the hall is borrowed by the ANNIE experiment.

### 2.3.1 Water tank

The main component of the experiment is the water tank, built and installed in the hall. It consists of a welded steel water tank, which dimensions are 10 ft (slightly more than three metres) of diameter per 13 ft (nearly four metres) of height, enclosing roughly 23 tonnes of water. The characteristic dimension of the tank can be compared to the diagonal of the cylinder, which is about five meters. It corresponds to circa seventeen light-nanoseconds.



**Figure 2.3:** Neutrino flux predictions from the GEANT4/FORTRAN simulation.

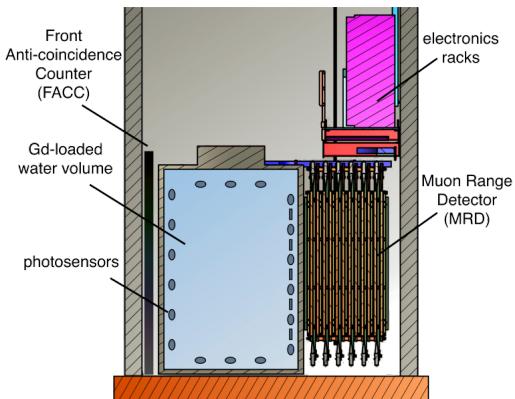


**Figure 2.5:** EJ-335 emission spectrum. This scintillator contains mineral oil substituted for some of the aromatic solvent for purposes of higher hydrogen content and higher flash point for use in very large tanks. The gadolinium content is 0.25% by weight. The wavelength of peak emission is 424 nm.

The inner volume is lined with a black, water tight plastic bag and outfitted with a PVC (87 % light reflection) inner support structure mounted with 60 PMTs, and capable of ultimately housing several hundred photo-sensors. The tank is filled with pure water and used in conjunction with a smaller acrylic vessel containing Gd-loaded scintillator to measure neutron backgrounds, called Neutron Volume Capture (NCV). Due to its two orders of magnitude smaller volume compared to Super-Kamiokande, ANNIE's water transparency requirements are less stringent: ANNIE needs only to keep a transparency about 25 meters to lose less than 10 % of the light, as opposed to SK's effective water attenuation length of 90 meters. The ANNIE water volume requires a source of dry nitrogen in order to suppress the growth of biologics in the water. This nitrogen is bubbled through the water during fill and afterwards a blanket of nitrogen will be maintained above the surface of the water. The re-circulation is kept as low as necessary to maintain a pure N<sub>2</sub> environment. ANNIE also relies on the plastic liner to prevent ions, that might compromise transparency, from leaching into the water from the tank walls. Water quality is supposed to be monitored using the detected light intensity from cosmic ray muons.

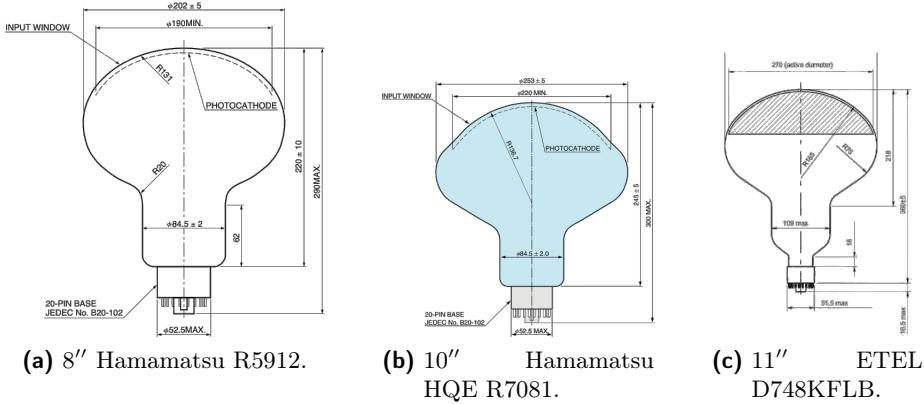
A concentrated solution of high-quality (99.99% TREO<sup>1</sup>) gadolinium sulphate Gd<sub>2</sub>(SO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>3</sub> will be mixed in a portable polypropylene barrel with pure water. The available 50 kg of Gd are enough for one test loading (4 kg) and one full loading (40 kg), with 6 kg left over for various other studies and tests. Thanks to the complex of water re-circulation system, the Gd-loaded water can be removed and stored in a secondary tank, then returned and re-purified with minimal loss of Gd, between ANNIE's runs. Upon completion of the experiment the gadolinium can be easily recovered using a portable demineraliser. Measurement of neutron background will be possible thanks to the NCV. It consist of a moveable 2.5 cm thick, 50 cm × 50 cm transparent acrylic vessel, which holds 100 L of Gd-doped EJ-335 liquid scintillator, specialised for neutron detection. The light spectrum is shown in Fig. 2.5.

The vessel is weighted so as to have a negative buoyancy. Position dependence of the neutron rates from different overburdens of water can be studied by raising and lowering the NCV and translating it along the beam axis.



**Figure 2.4:** Schematic of the experimental hall.

<sup>1</sup>TREO expresses the Total Rare Earth Oxide percentage in the element.



**Figure 2.6:** Schematic of the PMTs employed in the experiment.

### 2.3.2 Photodetectors

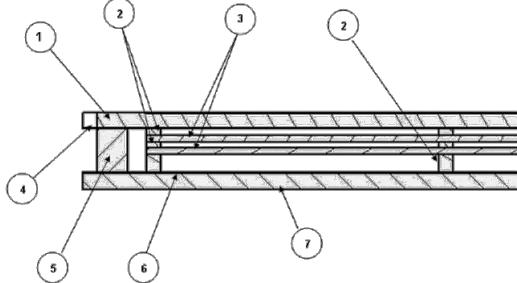
Voltage of PMTs, positive because of water. Little electric scheme? Impedance etc. The core of the experiment is the Cherenkov light detection. The coverage provided by 60 8" PMTs borrowed from the WATCHBOY experiment<sup>2</sup> is enough for the Phase I. The photomultipliers are mounted in a frame on the bottom of the tank, facing upward. The frame is designed to support both the weight of the phototubes in gravity as well as the buoyant forces in water. The detectors, immersed in water, are operated at a positive high-voltage (HV), with a single cable for both power and signal. This is due to the fact that the water volume acts as a ground and the employed voltages could lead to electrical breakdown through the glass of the PMT, if a negative voltage is applied to the cathode. Supplying a positive voltage to the anode, instead, help avoid this issue, since the cathode is set to ground. Capacitors are required in order to filter the signal from the power supply voltage.

As noted earlier, the necessary photo-coverage to reconstruct events in water will be achieved in ANNIE Phase II by:

- reusing the 8" Hamamatsu PMTs recovered from ANNIE Phase I.
- purchasing new High Quantum Efficiency (HQE) 10" Hamamatsu PMTs;
- employing refurbished 11" Electron Tubes Enterprise PMTs [arXiv:1512.06916v2].

In order to determine the necessary photocathode coverage, a series of simulations has been run with different sizes and numbers of PMTs. These full simulations consider neutron captures on both Gd (90 %) and the hydrogen from the water (10 %). After cost and availability are taken into account, it is found that the detection can be optimised by using 58 8" tubes, 20 11" tubes, and 45 HQE 10" tubes. Detection probability depends on the number of PMTs hit per neutron capture. Gadolinium captures typically produce several photons, therefore the probability of observing enough hits to detect the event is related to the number of photoelectrons produced. This number is strictly correlated with the number of hits. The predictions agree well with a simple scaling argument based on measurements at Super-Kamiokande. Using the planned mix of 11" tubes, 8" tubes, and HQE 10" tubes, it is found that 5 (good correlation) and 10 (strong correlation) photoelectrons are produced respectively 99 % and 94 % of the time.

<sup>2</sup>The WATCHBOY experiment was designed to measure the rate of radionuclide production in water created by muon spallation. Three primary nuclei of interest, <sup>11</sup>Li, <sup>8</sup>He, and <sup>9</sup>Li, can produce a high energy beta particle in coincidence with a neutron, thus mimicking an antineutrino induced inverse beta decay. The experiment was constructed in 2013 at the Kimballton Underground Research Facility (KURF) in Virginia, US.



**Figure 2.7:** The basic structure of the LAPPD detector. The sealed vacuum tube consists of a top window with the photocathode on the inner surface (1), an accelerating gap for the initial photo-electron (2), a pair of 20-cm-square MCPs in a Cherenkov geometry that amplify the photo-electron by factors up to  $5 \times 10^7$  (3), a gap after the output of the second MCP (2), and the anode that collects the exiting electrons (6). The package is less than 15 mm thick.

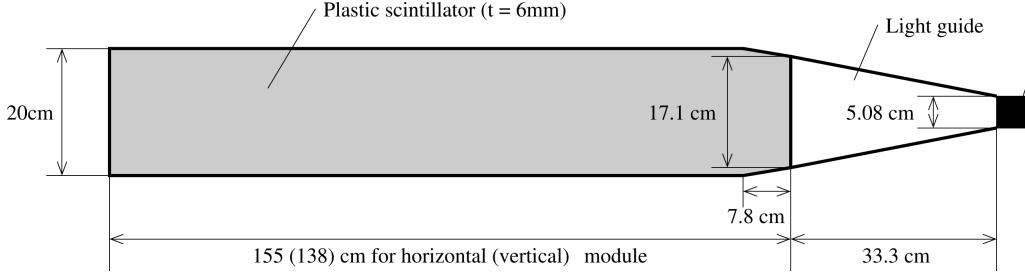
Precise vertex reconstruction will be required for the next stages of the experiment. In addition to the PMT coverage improvement, the use of advanced, high resolution photodetectors could have a transformative impact on future neutrino detectors relying on light collection. The most promising technology, selected for ANNIE, is the Large Area Picosecond Photodetector (LAPPD), a microchannel plate (MCP) based photomultiplier. Thanks to atomic layer deposition (ALD) technique<sup>3</sup>, is possible to produce large-format MCP detector systems using by conformally coating inactive, micro-pore glass substrates. The technique allows for the independent optimization of the geometric, resistive, and secondary electron emission properties of the channel plates. The final detector can achieve single photoelectron time resolutions less than 100 ps and spatial imaging capabilities to within a single centimetre. This provides a much crisper detection of the Cherenkov radiation edge and greatly improves the ability to distinguish between closely separate rings, compared to PMTs which have time resolution of the order of the nanosecond and act as a single pixel, despite the large active area. The combination of LAPPDs and PMTs allows the full detector to work as a tracking detector, with track and vertex reconstruction approaching size scales of just a few centimetres. It also favours the reconstruction of events very close to the wall of the detector, thanks to the small thickness of the LAPPDs (less than 1.5 cm): the fiducial volume is thus maximised. The LAPPD capabilities also translate into better energy resolution and better discrimination between dark noise and photons from neutron captures. Large Monte Carlo ensembles show that photon pileup on LAPPDs is low enough that only one or two hist per channel are typically visible. Thus, each photon can individually be measured. Preliminary studies show that 20 LAPPDs can provide sufficient coverage and have well-suited performance characteristics for addressing the challenges of water Cherenkov reconstruction in a small volume. Better reconstruction could be possible as larger numbers of LAPPDs become available. Reaching a 10% isotropic coverage would allow not only from identifying multi-track events but in also identifying the constituent particles and the exact topology potentially expanding the physics reach of the experiment.

### 2.3.3 Veto system and Muon Range Detector

ANNIE is composed of two more detectors other than the water tank in the hall: the Veto system and a muon detector.

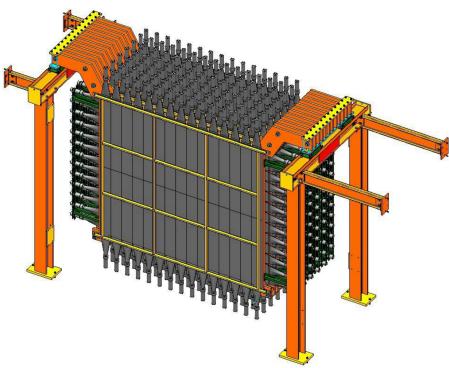
The Veto is provided by a Forward Anti-Coincidence Counter (FACC) consisting of

<sup>3</sup>ALD is a thin film deposition technique that is based on the sequential use of a gas phase chemical process. The process is based on binary reaction sequences where two surface reactions occur and deposit a thin binary compound film.



**Figure 2.9:** Paddle used for the MRD.

two layers of overlapping scintillating paddles. Each layer employs 13 paddles to detect charged particles produced in the dirt upstream of the hall or muons from the BNB, which hasn't decayed. This allows the rejection of events in the tank unrelated to neutrino interactions. It employs 2" PMTs to read the signals from the scintillator.



**Figure 2.8:** Drawing of the MRD.

An iron-scintillator sandwich, inherited from the SciBooNE experiment, is also in the hall. The Muon Range Detector (MRD) is used to range out and fit the direction of daughter muons produced by CCQE interactions in the water target. Its schematic drawing is shown in Fig. 2.8. The muon's energy can be reconstructed thus giving also a handle on the neutrino energy. The MRD is designed to measure the momentum of muons up to 1.2 GeV/c using the range measurement. It consists of 12 iron plates and 13 alternating horizontal and vertical scintillator planes. Each iron plate is 5 cm thick, and covers an area of  $274 \times 305$  cm $^2$ . The total mass of absorber material is approximately 48 tonnes, while the detector weighs about sixty tonnes. The density of a spare iron plate has been measured at several positions of the plate, to be  $7.841 \pm 0.002$  g/cm $^3$ . Each scintillator plane consists of 20 cm wide, 6 mm thick scintillator paddles, as illustrated in Fig. 2.9. Each vertical plane is comprised of 138 cm long paddles, arranged in a  $2 \times 15$  array to have an active area of  $276 \times 300$  cm $^2$ . On the other hand, each horizontal scintillator plane consists of 155 cm long paddles, arranged in a  $13 \times 2$  array to have an active area of  $260 \times 310$  cm $^2$ . In total, 362 paddles, 182 vertical and 180 horizontal, are used in the MRD. The scintillator paddles are read out by five types of 2" PMTs; the vertical planes consist of Hamamatsu 2154-05 and RCA 6342A PMTs, the horizontal planes consist of EMI 9954KB, EMI 9839b and 9939b PMTs. All PMTs used for horizontal modules have 14 stage dynodes, while those used for vertical modules have 10 stage dynodes. This choice is due to space limitations. Hence, the PMTs used for the vertical planes have relatively low gain and efficiency compared to that used for horizontal planes. To ensure the same efficiencies, the vertical modules are amplified by the factor of 10 using LeCroy 612 amplifiers. **MRD is not magnetised.**

As far as the electronics are concerned, the FACC and MRD are essentially the same system. Both detectors are composed of scintillating paddles and small phototubes, and both detectors follow the same rectilinear geometry. The FACC consists of two layers of 13 horizontal paddles. On the MRD side, only a fraction of the detector is operational for Phase I of ANNIE. One vertical and one horizontal layer of the MRD (the second and the third layers, respectively) are read. *Layer 2* consists of two sets of 13 horizontal paddles, while *Layer 3* consists of two sets of 15 paddles. The number of needed readout channels

from these two subsystems are

- 26 channels for the forward Veto;
- 26 channels for *Layer 2* of the MRD;
- 30 channels for *Layer 3* of the MRD;

for a total of 82 channels.

In place of the full CAMAC electronics implementation (see section ref), the two detectors signals are summed and read by VME electronics (section ref) to give a primary handle on these devices. CAMAC electronics (see section ref) is employed to read these channels.

## Chapter 3

# Data Acquisition system

Modern high energy Physics experiment's require automated procedures to collect data from detectors and save them in long term storage for ensuing analysis. These routines are gathered in automated system called Data Acquisition system (DAQ), which typically includes three fundamental components:

1. sensors, to convert physical parameters to electrical signals;
2. signal conditioning circuitry, to convert sensor signals into a form that can be converted to digital values.
3. conversion from analog signals to digital values and subsequent storage.

The last step is vital in that it allows data manipulation and analysis by a computer.

As far as ANNIE is concerned, the first requirement has already been discussed in section ref: the experiment has multiple simultaneous data sources, i.e. the forward Veto, water PMTs and the MRD, as well as a blend of front-end electronics technologies (VME, CAMAC and custom FADCs) for ADC/TDC and waveform digitisation. Considering this variety of devices, the whole system has also some requirements to achieve:

- stability, on long acquisition runs;
- control all the aspect of the experiment;
- calibration;
- real time online monitoring;
- direct and remote user control.

Provided a solid electronic system, these tasks are thoroughly accomplished on the software's side, since the system is based upon the *ToolDAQ Framework*<sup>1</sup>, developed by Dr Benjamin Richards [ref] for the Hyper Kamiokande collaboration (HK). The HK group has used this opportunity to undertake R&D and testing of DAQ software and tools for future use in the HK experiment. ANNIE experiment has allowed extensive testing of the flexibility of the software and all the above features to take place within a single deployment.

ToolDAQ is designed to incorporate the best features of other frameworks along with:

- being very easy and fast to develop DAQ implementations in a very modular way;
- Dynamic Service Discovery and Publishing;
- scalable network infrastructure (provided by ZeroMQ) to allow its use on large scale experiments.

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<sup>1</sup>ToolDAQ is open source and available on GitHub [repo].

The main executable relies on user-defined modular classes, called *Tools*, which present three chief functions, *Initialise*, *Execute*, and *Finalise*. The Tools can be daisy-chained to a *ToolChain* and then handled sequentially by the process whenever one of those functions is called. A ToolChain also manages the more complicated aspects of the DAQ system, like the remote control, the service discovery, and the status of the contained Tools. Parameters, data and other variables are passed between Tools by an editable shared data class. Each tool is allowed to read, update, and modify it, due to it is owned by the ToolChain. The bare structure is sketched in Fig. 3.1.

In the following sections, the whole DAQ structure is analysed as it currently is. It is composed of three parallel ToolChains: the Main DAQ Chain, the VME Chain, and the CAMAC/MRD Chain. The latter hasn't been implemented in the Main DAQ system yet, which is composed by the first two Chains only. At the moment the MRD Chain is employed as a standalone DAQ, working in parallel with the Main DAQ, on a different machine with resulting difficulties. Future integration of the two DAQ in the same machine are also discussed.

## 3.1 Main DAQ Chain and VME Chain

### 3.1.1 Hardware

The primary readout for ANNIE Phase I is provided by a VME-based system developed for the KOTO experiment<sup>2</sup> by University of Chicago. The *VMEbus* is a computer architecture, where “VME” stands for VERSA Module Eurocard. It is widely used in High Energy Physics due to the fact that it is of public domain and its data transfer speed is quite fast<sup>3</sup>.

The crates are governed by a VME-based CPU board which runs Internet Rack Monitor software. This latest version runs on the MVME162-22 CPU board with MC68040 CPU, 4MB dynamic ram, 0.5MB static ram, 1MB flash memory, Ethernet interface, and support for up to four Industry-Pack daughter boards. The latter allows connection to I/O signals via ribbon cables to digital and analog interface boards mounted inside the IRM chassis. The Ethernet interface allows network connection and supports widely-used Internet protocols that allow data request and setting access as well as alarm reporting, all based upon the UDP (User Datagram Protocol) transport layer.

The system consists of two types of VME module:

- 4-channel 500 MHz sampling pipeline 14 bit custom FADC cards, which primarily record the traces from the PMTs in the ANNIE water volume.
- Master Trigger (MT) cards which distribute the 125 MHz clock, synchronises the FADC cards, provides the trigger, and provides a busy signal.

The leading edge of photomultiplier signal is too fast for an 8-ns sampling. To avoid dead time and allow the 500 MHz sampling, the output signals from the detectors are

<sup>2</sup>The KOTO experiment at J-PARC, Japan, aims at observing the rare kaon decay  $K_L \rightarrow \pi^0 \bar{\nu} \nu$  to search for new physics beyond the standard model that breaks the CP symmetry. The experiment, with a new beam line and new detector components, is underway and the first run was performed in May 2013.

<sup>3</sup>For instance the latest manifestation, the VME320/2eSST protocol, can double the theoretical bandwidth of VME to 320MB/s. cite[<http://www.vita.com/VME320-2eSST-Protocol>].



**Figure 3.1:** Schematic of a ToolChain.

stored in 8000 samples pipelines inside Field Programmable Gate Arrays (FPGAs) until a trigger decision is made. The three levels trigger system uses the waveform information with increased sophistication at each level. Each MT card can address 8 FADC cards, but can be daisy-chained or arrange hierarchically to address more total cards. Given the 16 FADC cards of the ANNIE readout, 3 MT cards are used: one Level-0 card distributes the clock between two Level-1 MT cards, each addressing 8 FADCs.

The Muon Range Detector and the Forward Veto nominally rely on the same FADC system as the PMTs in the water volume for the first runs. The signals coming from the paddles are combined through an analog OR and sent to a few spare FADC channels on the KOTO boards.

For storage limitations, a down-sampling to 125 MHz was established. The resolution of 8 ns suffices the needs of the R&D stage of Phase I. An 80  $\mu$ s long time window is collected, therefore with this resolution, four data sets can be held in the 40000 samples buffer. Each set corresponds to a spill from the beam.

### 3.1.2 Software

The data from the water PMTs and the logical sum from the Veto and MRD are acquired by the Main DAQ, which hinges upon two strictly complementary ToolChains: the Main Chain and the VME Chain. The Main Chain is the primary ToolChain of the DAQ system, which communicates with the other two processes.

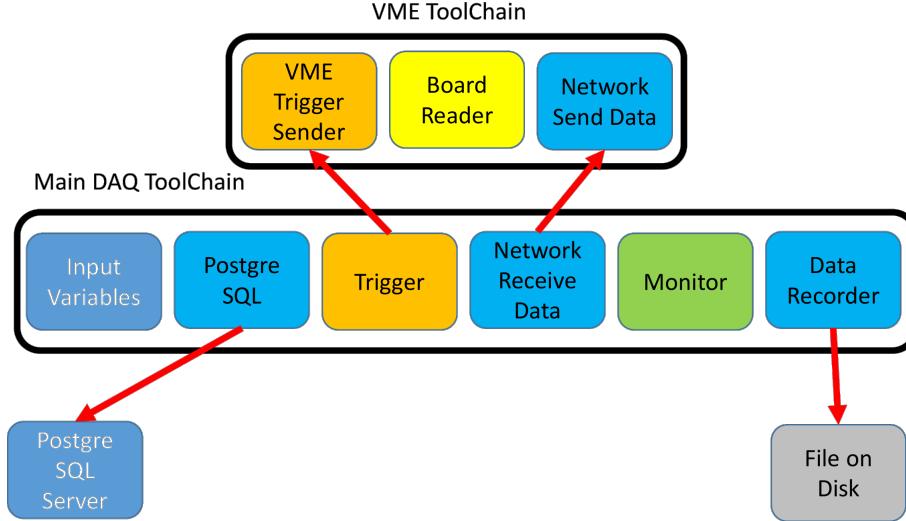
The Chain's tools are depicted in Fig. 3.2 and they are the following:

Main DAQ	VME
Input variables	
PostSQL	VME Trigger Send
Trigger	Board Reader
Network Receive Data	Network Send Data
Monitor	
Data Recorder	

The *Input variables* tool loads some initialisation parameters and the specification of the current *run*, i.e. data taking session. Three typologies of run are available and are sent to the VME CPU: a test run, an LED run for PMTs calibration, a pedestal run, and a beam run. The triggering of the digitisers is influenced by changing the kind of the run. For instance, a beam run is triggered by the RWM, while an LED run is triggered by the LED pulser. The *PostSQL* tool updates an SQL database of the DAQ, where all the information about the run, such as the number of events, the start and the stop time, and others, are saved. *Trigger* tool blocks the Chain, awaiting and sending a trigger query from the VME. When the VME replies, the Chain is run back again. As explained, four 10000samples data sets are collected from the VME cards, which equates to four consecutive spills from the beam. The *Network receive data* tool handles the data transfer via ZeroMQ messaging<sup>4</sup> between the main chain and the VME one. Like most of the HEP experiments, even ANNIE requires real-time monitoring so as to check whether the DAQ system works flawlessly. This is achieved by the *Monitor* tool, which updates a dedicated web-page with random plots of data collected.

On the VME electronics side, the Chain communicates with the VME CPU retrieving all the information about the cards and the trigger. The *Trigger Sender* tool check the

<sup>4</sup>*ZeroMQ* is a high-performance asynchronous messaging library, aimed at use in distributed applications. The API provides *sockets*, each of which can represent a many-to-many connection between endpoints, operating with a message-wise granularity. ZeroMQ is developed by a large community of contributors and distributed under the LGPL license. <http://zeromq.org/>



**Figure 3.2:** ANNIE’s current main DAQ makes use of two parallel tool chains.

status of the VME controller. If the ADC are triggered, a trigger message is sent to the Main Chain. The data are dumped from the FPGA’s buffer by the *Board Reader* tool and are sent to the Main Chain via ZeroMQ messaging over TCP.

The last tool of the Main Chain, *Data recorder*, saves data into the following ROOT tree structure:

**LastSync** : time of data acquisition;

**SequenceID** : incrementale number;

**StartTime** : same as lastsync;

**CardID** : number of ADC card;

**Channels** : channel of ADC card;

**PMTID** : global identifier of PMT (labelled from 1 to 60);

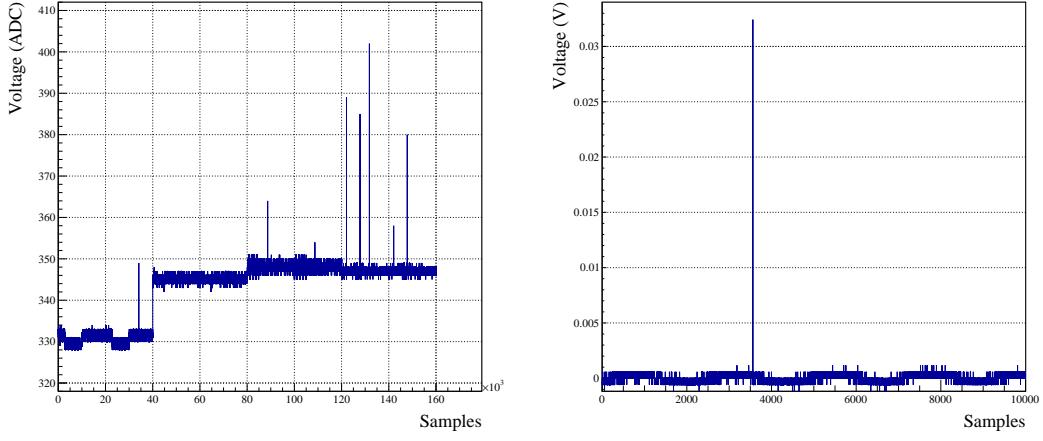
**BufferSize** : size of the buffer per channel;

**FullBufferSize** : size of the buffer per card;

**Data** : an array holding the full buffer of a single card.

Each entry corresponds to an acquisition of the full buffer from the cards saved in a 160000 long float array, i.e. the digitised time profile of four consecutive  $80 \mu\text{s}$  data set times the four channels. The ROOT files are then post processed: the buffer is split and an entry is created for each beam event, or trigger, the baseline is calculated and removed from the time profiles, and the precise time stamp is reconstructed. In Fig. 3.3 an example of time profile is shown before and after the post-processing. Moreover, each channel is mapped to its equivalent PMT. This stage reduces the file sizes by a nearly a factor of four.

Provided that the spill’s frequency is  $\sim 15$  Hz and four spills are acquired, the buffer takes around a quarter of a second to fill. The longest portion of the chain to execute is the disk saving and it is meant to be done between pulse trains, so as to minimise the number of spills lost. A whole execution of the chain lasts nearly a second, slightly less than the pulse train frequency.



(a) Before post-processing, arrays include the full buffer from each card.

(b) After post-processing, arrays are split per trigger and hold 80  $\mu$ s worth of data.

**Figure 3.3:** Time profile before and after the post-processing.

## 3.2 MRD Chain

### 3.2.1 Hardware

As explained in Sec. ref, the signal from the FACC and two layers of the MRD are logically summed and read by the VME digitisers. The PMTs of these two detectors are supposed to be read individually by both Time-to-Digital Converters (TDC) and ADCs in future stages of the experiment and for this purpose a third ToolChain has been developed to collect data from both the VETO and the MRD’s second and third layers (see section ref).

CAMAC<sup>5</sup> electronic modules are employed for these two detectors: LeCroy 3377 modules for the time digitisation, while LeCroy 4300B for analog conversion.

The LeCroy Model 3377 is a 32-channel time-to-digital converter (TDC) and optimised with a low conversion time and a high speed readout of 100 ns/word. With 10-bit words, the longest time window achievable is 4088.0 ns, using a resolution of 4.0 ns. A delayed signal from the RWM acts as a “common start” for the TDC cards and each internal counter is individually stopped by hit signals. The channels are fed with the discriminated PMT signals of the VETO and of the second and the third layer of the MRD.

The LeCroy Model 4300B FERA contains 16 independent 11bit charge-to-digital converters. An 8-bit register and a memory containing the individual pedestal values to be subtracted from each ADC are also available. These converters haven’t been installed in the electronic chain yet. Nevertheless the software interface has been developed anyway.

All the cards are addressed via the Weiner CCUSB controller module. The CCUSB is a full-featured CAMAC Crate controller with integrated high speed USB-2 interface. For fast data acquisition applications the CCUSB has a built-in command list sequencer, called *command stack* with data buffering in a 22kB size FIFO. A XILINX Spartan 3 family FPGA performs all CCUSB logic and functions.

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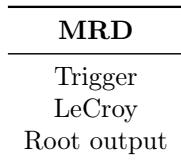
<sup>5</sup>Computer-Aided Measurement And Control (CAMAC) is a bus and modular-crate electronic standard for data acquisition and control used mainly in nuclear and particle physics experiments and in industry. The bus allows data exchange between plug-in modules and a crate controller, which then interfaces to a CPU or to a VME-CAMAC interface.

### 3.2.2 Software

The thesis's work is mainly focused on the development of a dedicated data acquisition system for the CAMAC electronics of the experiment. A separate MRD DAQ has been created from scratch within the ToolDAQ Framework in order to acquire the MRD and the forward Veto data. These two detectors rely on the CAMAC electronics for front-end read out of the PMTs signals and the USB controller vendor provides a C++ class to interface the controller with the computer.

Some C++ classes were developed with the purpose of handling more easily the modules. A base class takes care of opening the USB connection for the CCUSB controller and storing information on the cards, such as the Slot number. It also allows the configuration of the command stack, i.e. the CAMAC command sequencer. Two derived classes implement wrapper functions to deliver CAMAC commands via the NAF addressing<sup>6</sup>.

The MRD's ToolChain employs the CAMAC classes to interface with the controller and the cards. As illustrated in Fig. 3.2, the Tools contained in the Chain are:



The *Trigger* tool reads the FIFO of a specified card: if it is not empty, then all cards presenting data are read and other tools are executed. Currently, a hit signal is generated in each TDCs by delaying the common start signal of  $\sim 1 \mu\text{s}$ , such that the FIFOs are never empty in coincidence with the beam's spills. Three triggering behaviours are supported: external trigger, software trigger with random card access, and software trigger with card test function.

The *LeCroy* tool is meant to work for both the TDCs and ADCs cards. If only either TDCs or ADCs are employed, then only one tool should be added in the *ToolChain*. Otherwise, if both are used, then two *LeCroy* tools are required. Given that the ADCs haven't been installed in the crates yet, only one tool is needed for the TDCs. Nevertheless the charge converters have been tested, as well.

The last tool fills a ROOT tree and save it to file. The tree has the following branches:

**Trigger** : incremental number of the trigger;

**OutNumber** : number of channels read;

**Type** : string telling whether the data refer to TDC or to ADC;

**Value** : actual value retrieved from the card.

**Slot** : slot number of the card;

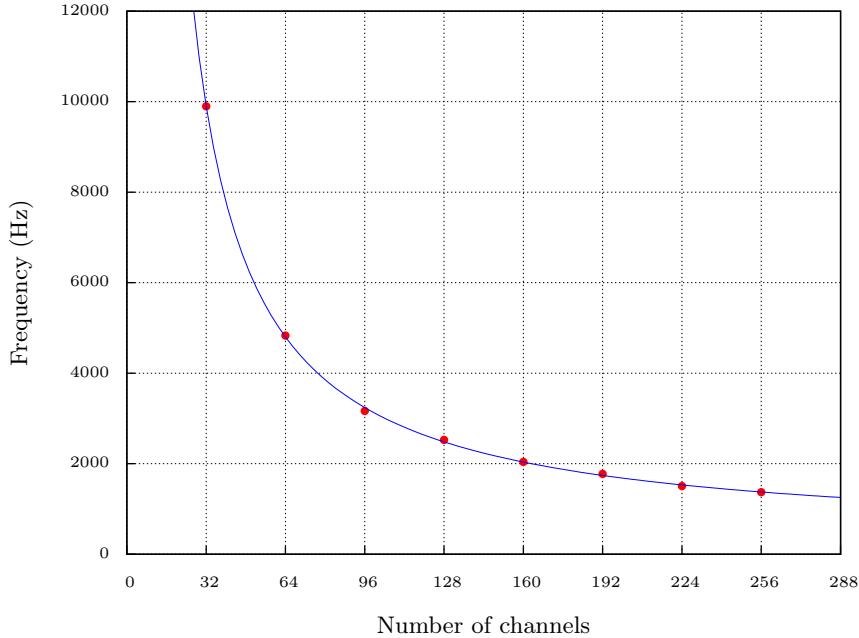
**Channel** : channel of the card from which the value was retrieved;

**TimeStamp** : UNIX time stamp of the entry, since epoch, in ms.

The MRD Chain runs in a different PC than the Main DAQ and the ToolChain is executed at a different speed, for it is a standalone process. For this reason, a method has been realised to correlate the events between the two DAQs. Timestamps were designated for this fundamental task: both DAQs assign UNIX time to each event, since the clocks are synchronised to the same NTP server, which uses GPS time sources. With the help

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<sup>6</sup>Module addressing is achieved knowing the slot Number, the subAddress, and the Function code.



**Figure 3.4:** DAQ frequency reading TDCs with all channels fired, but 1.6% time occupancy.

of the Fermilab spill database [ref here], the events from the two DAQs can be related to each other.

This method is effective as long as the frequency of the chain execution is greater than the spill frequency. The frequency should be above the 15 Hz spill frequency in order not to miss any beam event. However the CAMAC event rate has been found to be quite low in this early stage, around 0.20 Hz<sup>7</sup>, since only two layers of the MRD are used, in addition to the Veto. This suggest that the modules present data only the ~1.3% of the time.

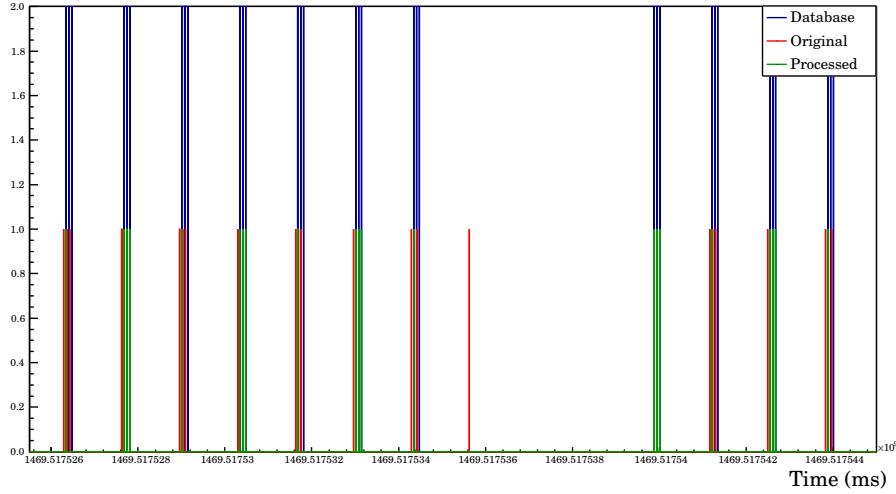
Concerning the MRD DAQ, the longest portion of the chain is the CAMAC addressing and data collecting. The software has been tested using software triggering, employing the test functions of the modules, and counting the time required for 100,000 repeated cycles with 1.3% firing probability; the frequency was afterwards estimated. The result is shown in Fig. 3.4, where frequency vs number of channel is plotted for TDC modules. It's clear that the frequency is well above the lower theoretical limit of 15 Hz. Rescaling the frequency to full time firing, i.e. the number of channel to be read is maximum for every DAQ cycle, the limit is easily reached with just ten modules, corresponding to five layers of MRD, Veto excluded.

The command stack of the CCUSB controller is not employed, because the USB connection can provide fast enough communication to address all the active cards.

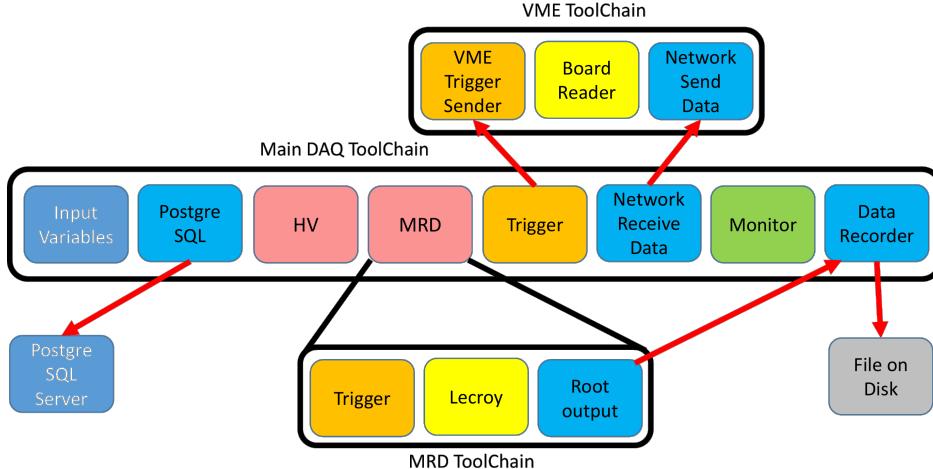
Concerning the TimeStamp, a time variable drift in the MRD TimeStamps has been found, likely due to imprecise synchronisation with the NTP server (accuracy given to be less than 30 ms) which occurs every 1024 ms. A post-processor has been written to fix the TimeStamps, identifying time patterns in the spill spectrum and comparing them to the database information. In Fig. 3.5 a detail of the result of the synchronisation is plotted. The blue lines are given by the database, used as a reference. The TimeStamps before and after the post-processing are printed respectively in red and green.

The post-processor also handles other aspects of the raw data, like converting the module's values into physical quantities and mapping each channel to its PMT.

<sup>7</sup>The rate is measured from output ROOT file, dividing the number of entries, i.e. events, by the time passed between the first and the last TimeStamp.



**Figure 3.5:** Detail of the time stamp alignment with the database data.



**Figure 3.6:** Final version of ANNIE's DAQ, with all the Chains integrated.

### 3.3 Future improvement

The final version of the DAQ system needs a full integration of the Main Chain with the CAMAC one. A possible solution is depicted in Fig. 3.6. A new tool could be employed to embody a simplified version of the MRD ToolChain, rather than run it in a parallel process. The MRD Chain, as proved in previous sections, is fast in execution, so it should not significantly slow down the Main DAQ. In this way, the TimeStamp synchronisation technique is not required anymore because all the acquisitions are done by the same CPU and simultaneously. As far as the output files are concerned, the ROOT trees could be merged into a single ROOT file triggering the two recording tools with ZeroMQ communication. Final reconstruction of PMTs data and MRDs could be done in a post-processing stage.

In view of the next phases of the experiment, an other DAQ-related issue is the memory storage. During early test runs, the digitiser would sample at a frequency of 500 MHz, but it has been promptly downgraded to 125 MHz because of lack of long term memory storage. As a matter of fact, noise is mostly shown in the  $80 \mu\text{s}$  time window and the meaningful signal is limited short, compared to the time window. Considering that an high time resolution is pointless in the R&D stage of the experiment, the downgrade was established.

Soon, *zero-suppression* method would be employed, which will definitely overcome storage needs. The preliminary data analysis undertaken can back this decision up, as explained in section [ref].



## Chapter 4

# Data Analysis procedures

Interpreting the electronic signals produced by the detector is a mandatory step for event reconstruction process. Energies, momenta, and directions of the involved particles must be established in order to determine the detected physical interaction, whose study is the ultimate goal of the experiment. ANNIE's early stage data have been studied and analysis algorithms were developed and tested from scratch: they are implemented in a purpose-built software, which studies the signals acquired from the water PMTs. The code's procedures relies on individual pulse analysis and it is largely focuses on the rejection of background with respect to event signals. Some of these methods, illustrated, in this chapter could be employed into a more complete analysis framework, valid even for the future phases of the experiment.

### 4.1 Data selection

The Main DAQ is programmed to create a new *Run* every time the Chain is stopped and restarted. Due to being an R&D phase, the DAQ has been improved in various occasion during data taking, hence the size and the number of post-processed files, that constitute the *Runs*, are not constant. Nevertheless high statistics were achieved most of the time. The post-processed ROOT files (see section ref) from the DAQ are used in the data analysis. The buffer retrieved from the VME boards is properly split for each trigger (hardware or software) signal, in that each set of data consists of 80  $\mu\text{s}$  worth of digitised signal. A single file holds 383 full buffers and this translates to 1532 triggers, or physically speaking to 122.560 ms.

Two distinctive couples of consecutive runs were selected as model data set, with the intention to outline the best data analysis procedures. These are:

- two runs with the beam off and a random trigger: these data are mostly *cosmics*;
- two runs with the *beam* on, but with one PMT mounted on top of the NCV, in order to observe the neutron capture.

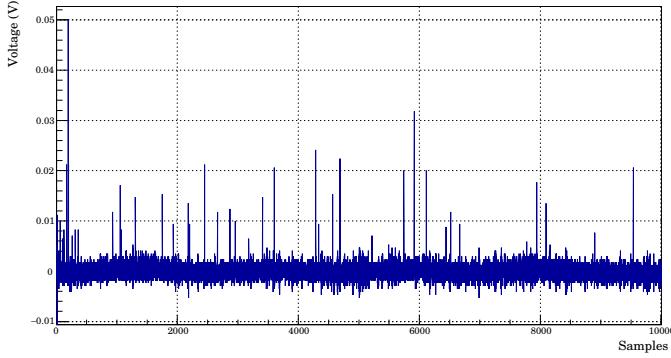
All the couples have been merged in single files after being scanned by the data analysis algorithm and so treated as ones. Their quantitative features are shown in Tab. 4.1. For the analysis's sake, the *beam* and the *cosmics* data set are the same, but for a different photodetector.

### 4.2 Individual pulse analysis

The data analysis software scans all the post-processed time profile which the *Run* consists of, as the one shown in Fig. 4.1, sorted by trigger and PMT number. Any peak

**Table 4.1:** Runs selected for data analysis. They are composed of different numbers of file, resulting in diverse number of triggers. Total time is the number of triggers times  $80 \mu\text{s}$ . The listed memory sizes refer to the post-processed files.

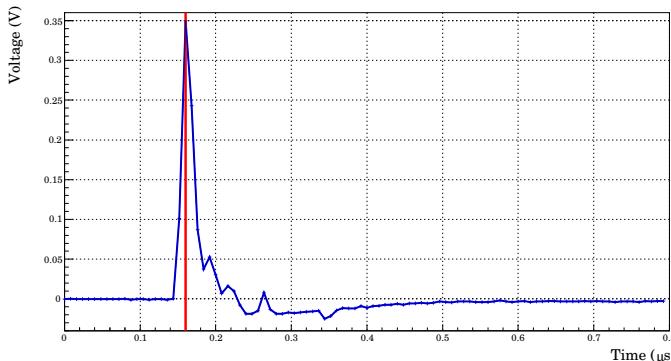
Run type	N of files	N of Triggers	Total time (ms)	Data size (MB)
Cosmics	142	217,544	17,403.520	106,130.447
Beam	164	251,248	20,099.840	122,542.009



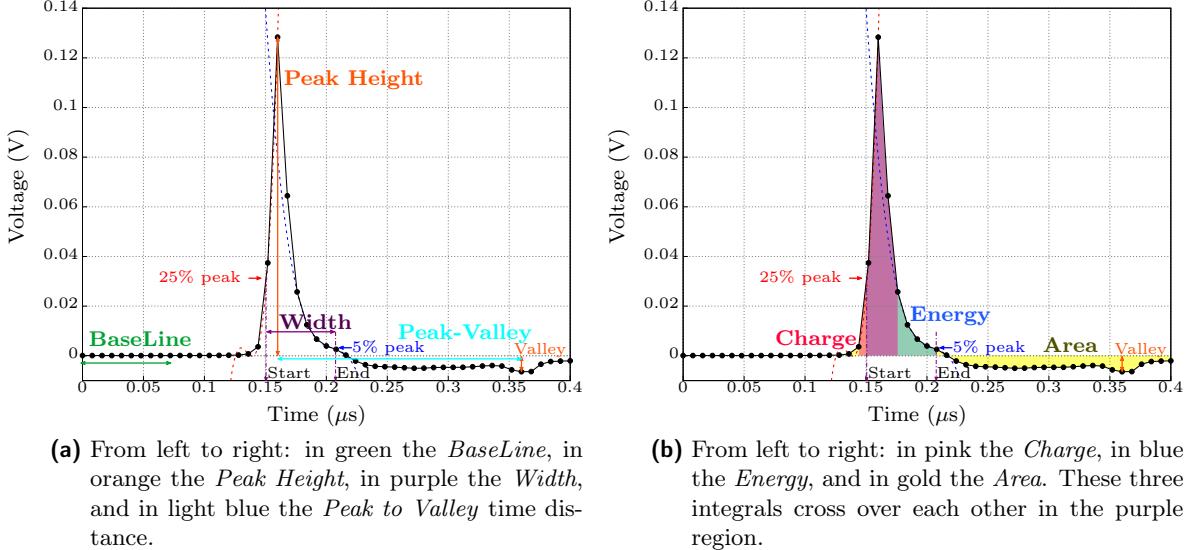
**Figure 4.1:** Time profile of a single trigger: the signals of the sixty PMTs are here overlaid.

above a certain voltage threshold,  $V_T$ , is selected and an enclosing time window of a predefined length,  $L$ , is trimmed around it. A length of  $L = 100$  samples was chosen, resulting in a  $0.8 \mu\text{s}$  long window. The position of the peak inside this window was set to 20% of its length, i.e. the peak is always set at  $0.16 \mu\text{s}$  from the beginning of the time window. These subsets of data are called *pulses* and are collected in another ROOT file. The choice of window length and the peak position is the result of a compromise between speed of the code, memory usage and loss of physical information. In fact, many pulses shows consecutive multiple peaks, as the one in Fig. 4.2, mainly given by light reflections in the water tank.

Each pulse is individually analysed and processed by a routine of algorithms. As a result, a set of values is gathered from every pulse, in addition to Veto and MRD coincidences. These quantities, outlined in Fig. 4.3, are useful for following analysis and they are labelled:



**Figure 4.2:** Time profile of a single pulse. The red line marks the 20 % of the window's length, at  $0.16 \mu\text{s}$ . The first peak and the second peak are about forty nanoseconds apart, which is the time needed for the light to travel back and forth inside the tank (see section ref).



**Figure 4.3:** Illustration of the pulse analysis values. The 25 % and 5 % *peak height* marks, which define the *Start* and *End* of the signal, are common to both diagrams. The dashed lines represent the cubic interpolations.

**Baseline** : it is the average of first 10 points of the pulse; this value is then subtracted from the whole array.

**Height** : it is the height of the peak (maximum) with respect to the zero.

**Peak to valley** : it is the time distance from the peak to the valley (minimum).

**Start** : it is the position of the 25% of the rising edge of the pulse, estimated with precision using cubic interpolation

**Width** : it is the time that spans from Start to the 5% of the falling edge of the pulse (End), calculated using the same algorithm employed for Time.

**Charge** : it is the sum of the 5 points around peak, weighted with the bin width.

**Energy** : it is the signal integral form the Start to the End.

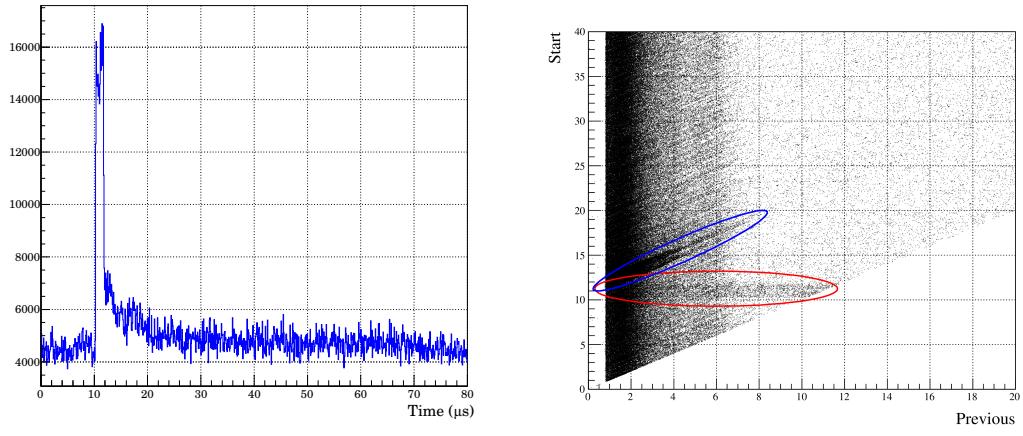
**Area** : it is the area of the modulus of the pulse.

**Time of flight** : is the time difference between the Start and RWM signal.

**Previous** : is the time difference between the Start and the Start of the previous pulse, if from the same PMT.

Being a water Cherenkov detector, the event reconstruction in ANNIE relies on time and energy of the signals and for this fact these two quantities must be measured precisely. The time position of the pulses, or *Start*, is thus determined with high precision thanks to data interpolation<sup>1</sup>, within the time resolution of the ADCs. In Fig. a of 4.4 the spectrum of the *Starts* of a beam run is plotted: the frequency boost with respect to the background suggests that the beam occurs ten microseconds after the beginning of the

<sup>1</sup>The algorithm looks for four points around the threshold (25 % for the *Start* or 5 % for the *End*), which are used to define a cubic function. Using Newton's method, the correct time position is found.



- (a) The beam is clearly visible at the beginning of the  $80\ \mu\text{s}$  buffer; the second half is basically free of beam related events.
- (b) *Start* is plotted against *Previous*; both axes are in  $\mu\text{s}$ . The beam pulses are split into two groups: the pulses in the red ellipse are independent of their previous pulse, while a correlation is visible in the set of the blue ellipse.

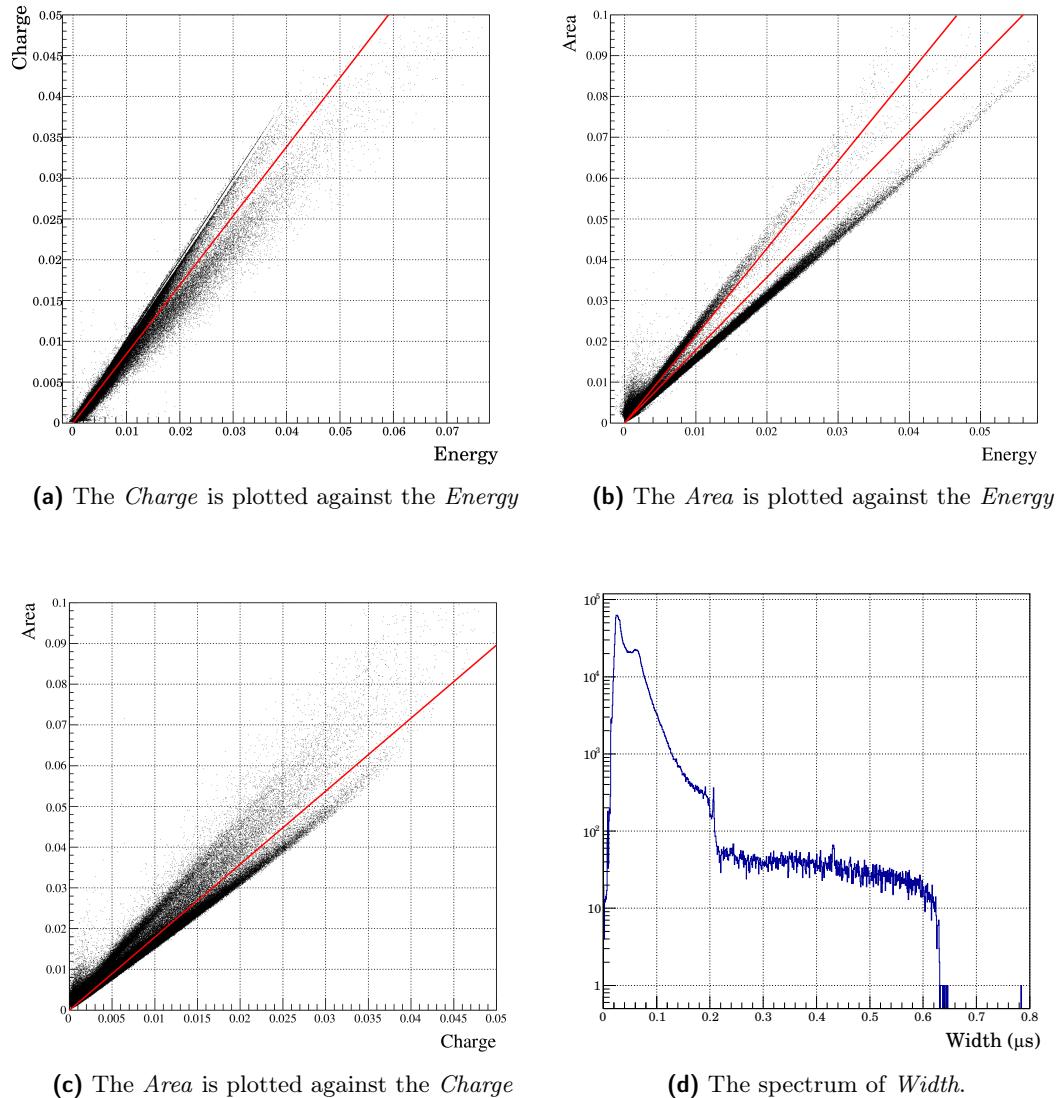
**Figure 4.4:** Time distribution of the pulses of a beam run.

data acquisition. The distinctive trait of the neutron capture by gadolinium is a delayed signal, detected  $20\text{-}30\ \mu\text{s}$ . Therefore studying the relative time distance between pulses is fundamental, particularly in the ANNIE experiment. The *Previous* entry has the potential to accomodate this neccessity and reveal other interesting features. For instance, in Fig. b of 4.4 *Start* is plotted against *Previous*.

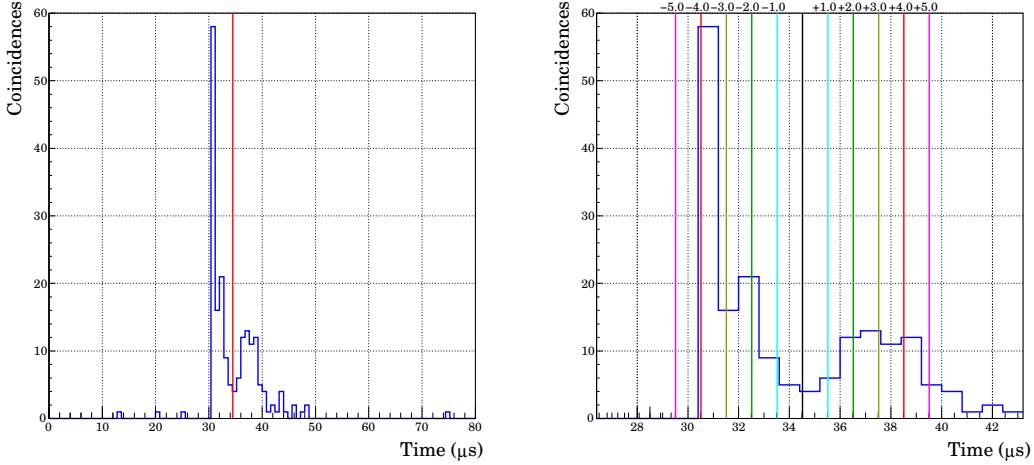
On the other hand, establishing the signals' energy is more complicated, since the PMTs have not been calibrated yet. However, the photodetectors are set with the same gain, therefore an evaluation of the pulse integral is a good indicator of the total charge deposited on each PMT. Three different methods to estimate the area enclosed in a pulse integral have been implemented. The names *Charge*, *Energy*, and *Area* were only chosen in order to distinguish them from each other. As suggested from Fig. 4.2, there is a partial superimposition of the three: they show indeed interesting correlation patterns, reported in Fig. 4.5.

For every Trigger, the time distribution of the peaks is studied, as well as the time coincidences between the PMTs signals: a time allowance of  $0.8\ \mu\text{s}$  is considered to count of pulses happening simultaneously; this easily translates to the number of PMTs fired at the same time. When the latter exceeds a defined threshold,  $N_{PMT}$ , then an *Event* is appointed and its precise time position is afterwards estimated by a weighted average of the adjacent coincidences. The multiplicity of an *Event* is a good indicator of the nature of the detected interaction. As discussed in section ref, a cosmic muon, likely coming from above, would project the Cherenkov radiation on the bottom of the tank, thus lighting the majority of the water PMTs. On the other hand, a muon arisen from the interaction of a beam neutrino with a nucleon would emit gammas along the beam direction: only a portion of the light cone could be captured, hence the PMTs would be partially triggered. Even natural radioactivity, from radionuclide in the glass of the phototubes, can be detected, although these events have lower multiplicity and are readily filtered by a proper threshold of  $N_{PMT}$ . An high-multiplicity event is exemplified in Fig. 4.6.

Not every pulse in a trigger belongs to an event. For instance, in Fig. 4.6 there are at least four pulses outside from the main pulse cluster. These might be likely generated by noise sources and therefore they are useless in view of the event reconstruction. In order to discriminate the pulses, an arbitrary time interval, whose radius is  $\Delta_T$ , is defined



**Figure 4.5:** Correlation plots among the three integral quantities. The red lines isolate areas with different correlation, likely due to different widths of the pulses.



(a) The red line marks the weighted average of the coincidences, which is  $34.51\ \mu\text{s}$  in this example. (b) The coloured lines mark the five time window for noise rejection,  $\Delta_T$  in  $\mu\text{s}$ , listed in Tab. 4.2.

**Figure 4.6:** Both plots show the same histogram, filled with the *Start* time of each pulse belonging to the same trigger. A high multiplicity event is found near  $31\ \mu\text{s}$ . In this particular case, the time distribution of the signals is quite long: the light in the tank lasts for about twenty microseconds.

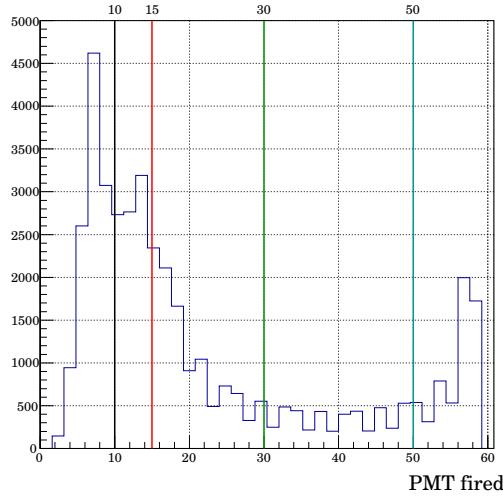
around the Event time position. Every pulse that falls within this window is designated as a *signal*; otherwise it is *noise*.

### 4.3 Signal and noise discrimination

Discriminating signal from background is a step of utmost importance for data analysis. Being a first stage study, the algorithm only relies on  $V_T$ ,  $N_{PMT}$ , and  $\Delta_T$ , in order to distinguish event pulses from noise ones. It is necessary, even for future analysis framework, to determine the best combination of the three parameters. To achieve that, these have been varied and the data have been analysed multiple times. Twelve combination were chosen and they are listed in Tab. 4.2. The variation of the voltage threshold affects the total number of pulses, because any peak below  $V_T$  is neglected. The five values employed are all well above the electronic noise, which is of the order of the millivolt.

The ratio between *signals* and *noises* is rather governed by the other two parameters, the number of PMTs fired and the rejection time window. Respectively four and five values were picked for these parameters. The increase of  $N_{PMT}$  restricts the number of *events*, as suggested by Fig. 4.7 where the multiplicity of the events is plotted. This value is indeed closely related to the number of PMTs hit in an interaction. The rise in the frequency, near the end of the x-axis, is likely due to high multiplicity cosmic muon events. The time allowance of the *event* definition was also studied, varying the  $\Delta_T$  parameter. Understanding the relevance of belated photons, possibly given by reflection inside the tank, is decisive for developing a correct analysis framework. The selected intervals are illustrated in Fig. b of 4.6.

The processed data sets present therefore different number of pulses and different proportion between signals and noises. Every collection of processed data is then studied a posteriori and tested with diversified methods.



**Figure 4.7:** Frequency of the number of PMTs hit in an event.

**Table 4.2:** The combination of the employed thresholds. The first one, in bold letters, is common to each subset.

Label	$V_T$ (V)	$N_{PMT}$	$\Delta_T$ ( $\mu$ s)
<b><math>C</math></b>	<b>0.02</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>4.0</b>
$V_{00}$	0.005	10	4.0
$V_{01}$	0.01	10	4.0
$V_{05}$	0.05	10	4.0
$V_{10}$	0.10	10	4.0
$N_{15}$	0.02	15	4.0
$N_{30}$	0.02	30	4.0
$N_{50}$	0.02	50	4.0
$\Delta_{50}$	0.02	10	5.0
$\Delta_{30}$	0.02	10	3.0
$\Delta_{20}$	0.02	10	2.0
$\Delta_{10}$	0.02	10	1.0



# Chapter 5

## Data analysis results

Some data analysis results are presented in this chapter, regarding either the method developed or simulation. The plots presented here were realised using the  $C$  data set.

### 5.1 Data size reduction

A zero-suppression method is planned to be implemented in the data acquisition system for the next stages of ANNIE. As a matter of fact, most of the digitised time window from the VME cards is of no use with respect to the event reconstruction. Taking advantage of circular memory, this technique basically saves a narrower buffer every time an arbitrary voltage threshold is reached. Only individual signals are stored, avoiding long-term memory wasting.

The developed pulse analysis, discussed in chapter 4, is comparable to the zero-suppression method. Even though the signal selection is done after the data acquisition, the outcome is similar: the unnecessary information are nullified. It is easy to appreciate the benefits derived from this technique, just by looking at Tab. 5.1. The memory size of the analysed files varies from 0.3 % to 3 %, with minima of the order of 0.1 %, depending on the choice of the parameters. The results in Tab. 5.1 indicates that  $V_T$  has the strongest influence on the final data size, as expected. The other two parameters, instead, are not of great concern, since they don't impact on the effective number of the pulses. Combined with the post-processor software, which reduces the raw data files to almost a quarter of the initial size, the zero-suppression method could achieve a compression factor of about four-hundred.

### 5.2 Cosmic muons

High energy particles, mainly originated outside the Solar System and thus called *Cosmic Rays*, impact on the Earth's atmosphere and producing mesons, which in turn generate secondary particle shower by decaying. The primary particles are about 99 % made of ionised nuclei (whose 86 % made of protons, 12.7 % of helium nuclei, and 1.3 % of heavier nuclei), while the remaining 1 % is mostly composed by electrons cite[theodorsson]. The intensity of the nucleons in the energy range from several GeV to somewhat beyond 100 TeV is given approximately by

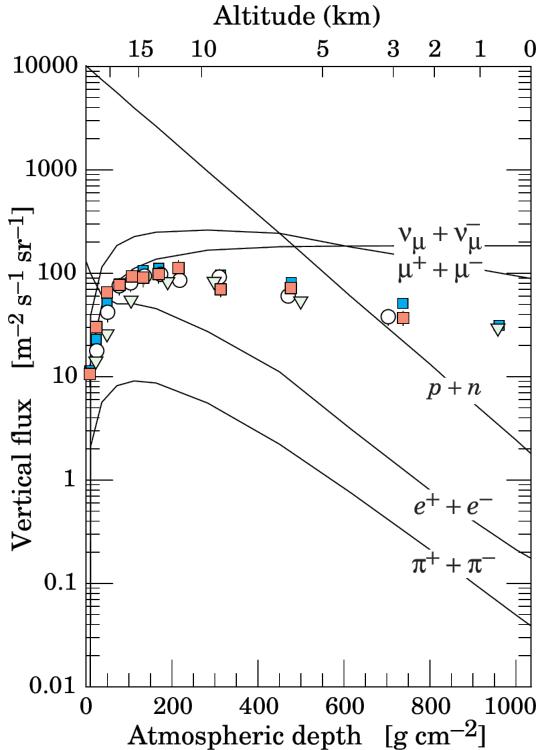
$$I_N(E) \simeq 1.8 \times 10^4 \left( \frac{E}{1 \text{ GeV}} \right)^{-\alpha} \frac{\text{nucleons}}{\text{m}^2 \text{ s sr GeV}}, \quad (5.1)$$

where  $E$  is the energy-per-nucleon, including rest mass energy, and  $\alpha = \gamma + 1 = 2.7$  is the differential spectral index of the cosmic ray flux, with  $\gamma$  the integral spectral index.

**Table 5.1:** Data sizes of the analysed data sets. The *ratio* columns present the ratio between the final data size and the original size of the post-processed files, listed in Tab. 4.1.

<b>Label</b>	<b>Cosmics</b>		<b>Beam</b>		<b>Neutron</b>	
	Data size (MB)	Ratio %	Data size (MB)	Ratio %	Data size (MB)	Ratio %
<i>C</i>	329.331	0.310	235.490	1.142	675.355	0.886
<i>V</i> <sub>00</sub>	621.029	0.585	624.499	3.028	1779.345	2.333
<i>V</i> <sub>01</sub>	510.056	0.481	484.903	2.351	1384.335	1.815
<i>V</i> <sub>05</sub>	121.439	0.114	132.196	0.641	351.355	0.461
<i>V</i> <sub>10</sub>	91.656	0.086	99.596	0.483	249.068	0.327
<i>N</i> <sub>15</sub>	326.970	0.308	240.755	1.167	669.110	0.877
<i>N</i> <sub>30</sub>	321.029	0.302	226.179	1.097	646.297	0.848
<i>N</i> <sub>50</sub>	318.970	0.301	221.396	1.074	631.707	0.828
$\Delta_{50}$	320.291	0.302	245.097	1.188	678.463	0.890
$\Delta_{30}$	321.040	0.302	236.294	1.146	675.090	0.885
$\Delta_{20}$	321.896	0.303	237.732	1.153	679.243	0.891
$\Delta_{10}$	320.299	0.302	233.977	1.135	666.223	0.874

Many are the secondary products reaching the sea level, among which muons, neutrinos, nucleons, and electrons. The first two, muons and neutrinos, derive from the decay chain of charged mesons, while electrons and photons originate in decays of neutral mesons. As Fig. 5.1 shows, muons are the most numerous charged particles at sea level. Their direction of propagation is the same as that of their parents pions and in average they receive close to 80 % of their parent's energy. They are very penetrating as their nuclear interaction cross section is only about  $2 \times 10^{-29} \text{ cm}^2$  (or two micro-barns). The energy loss to ionisation is at a fairly constant rate of about 2 MeV per  $\text{g/cm}^2$ . Given that the vertical depth of the atmosphere is about  $1000 \text{ g/cm}^2$ , muons will lose about two GeV before reaching the ground. The mean energy of muons at sea level is about four GeV; therefore the mean energy at creation, typically fifteen kilometres high, is probably near six GeV. Their energy and angular distribution reflect a convolution of the production spectrum, energy loss in the atmosphere, and decay. The integral intensity of vertical muons above 1 GeV/c at sea level is nearly



**Figure 5.1:** Vertical fluxes of cosmic rays in the atmosphere with  $E > 1 \text{ GeV}$  estimated from the nucleon flux of Eq. 5.1. The points show measurements of negative muons with 1 GeV from ref[32–36].

$$I_{\text{MSL}} \simeq 70 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1} \text{sr}^{-1}, \quad (5.2)$$

for horizontal detectors. The overall angular distribution of muons at the ground is some-

how:

$$\frac{dN}{dA\Omega dt} \propto \cos^k \theta, \quad (5.3)$$

where  $k \simeq 2$ . There is no expected dependence on the azimuthal angle  $\phi$ , while the above relation is not expected to be valid for  $\theta > 80^\circ$  where the Earth's curvature becomes an important consideration. However, integrating with respect to the solid angle, with a zenith angle  $0 < \theta < \pi/2$ , it is possible to estimate the rate of muons per area unit:

$$I_0 = 2\pi I_{\text{MSL}} \int_0^{\pi/2} \cos^2 \theta \sin \theta d\theta = \frac{2}{3}\pi I_{\text{MSL}} \simeq 147 \text{ m}^{-2}\text{Hz}, \quad (5.4)$$

With the beam off, only cosmic rays leave a trace in the ANNIE detector. From Eq. 1.28, every muon with an energy  $E > 159.739$  MeV can produce Cherenkov radiation, given that the refractive index of water is  $n = 1.33$  and the muon mass is 105.658 MeV<sup>1</sup>. Since the average energy of the muon reaching the ground is well above the Cherenkov threshold, the nominal flux at sea level can be used to evaluate the cosmic background rate. The water tank is placed eight meters below the surface, and it fits the hall's walls, hence only the top area of the tank (slightly more than 7 m<sup>2</sup>) could be taken in consideration. A rough estimation suggests that the rate of muons reaching the detector is

$$I \simeq 7 \text{ m}^2 I_0 \simeq 1036 \text{ Hz}. \quad (5.5)$$

This rate can be estimated, counting the Events found by the analysis algorithm. For a more realistic calculation, events that show coincidences with the Veto or the MRD are discarded. The Beam run could also be used for this evaluation, for instance exploiting the fact that beam events are limited to the first half of the 80  $\mu\text{s}$  buffer. However either the Veto or the MRD signals are on most of the time, being the trigger synchronised with the beam, therefore the tally is not feasible, but with the Cosmic run. The rate is the result of the division between the number of events and the time of the considered triggers. The number of pulses in this kind of event are also counted in order to find the average number of pulses in a muon event. The measured rate is compared to the theoretical value in Eq. 5.5: the outcome ratio is a combination of the detector's efficiency (geometry and photodetector quantum efficiency), as well as the validity of the data analysis algorithm. In Tab. 5.2 the results are shown. The  $\Delta_T$  parameter doesn't influence the count of the cosmic muons as much as the other parameters do. The cut in the PMT number selects the most energetic events, while the voltage threshold remove a lot of low energy pulses, instead.

### 5.3 Centre of interaction

Simple event reconstruction was undertaken with preliminary data, although the spatial resolution of the present photodetector array is limited. The idea is to analyse the pattern of the photon deposited on the PMTs, in order to infer the nature of the interaction which generated the Cherenkov radiation. As a first step, the Cosmic run has been taken in consideration, because it doesn't contain beam events, but muon ones; the validity of the selection method has been also tested, with also the help of an easy Monte Carlo simulation (see App. B).

For the sake of simplicity, the simulation generates only vertical muons, with  $\beta = 1$ , and the propagation of Cherenkov photons inside ANNIE's tank is reproduced. Muons don't enter vertically in the tank, but it can be considered as a strong assumption, taking

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<sup>1</sup>The muon mass is known with an accuracy of order  $10^{-8}$ . According to the PDG,  $m_\mu = 105.658,371,5 \pm 0.000,003,5$  MeV.

**Table 5.2:** Cosmic muon rate, estimated using the analysed Cosmic data. For evaluating the rate, the total time is given by the number of triggers time  $80 \mu\text{s}$ . The last column is the ratio between the measured rate with the theoretical one, in Eq. 5.5.

Label	Trigger	Event	Pulse	Mean pulse	Rate (Hz)	Ratio (%)
$C$	217,530	8078	330,111	40.865	464.189	44.806
$V_{00}$	225,412	14,210	635,602	44.729	788.002	76.064
$V_{01}$	222,539	11,362	488,371	42.983	638.203	61.603
$V_{05}$	111,640	5590	229,456	41.048	625.896	60.415
$V_{10}$	59,690	5056	195,273	38.622	1058.804	102.201
$N_{15}$	216,157	6692	296,674	44.333	386.987	37.354
$N_{30}$	214,474	4980	247,709	49.741	290.245	28.016
$N_{50}$	210,007	458	25,212	55.048	27.261	2.631
$\Delta_{50}$	217,506	8079	331,452	41.026	464.298	44.816
$\Delta_{30}$	217,574	8095	328,772	40.614	465.072	44.891
$\Delta_{20}$	217,634	8122	324,632	39.969	466.494	45.028
$\Delta_{10}$	217,964	8135	307,014	37.740	466.533	45.032

**Table 5.3:** Fit result of the correlation of the plot max hit vs muon position. The function  $y = a + bx$  was employed. The correlation is independent of the value of reflection.

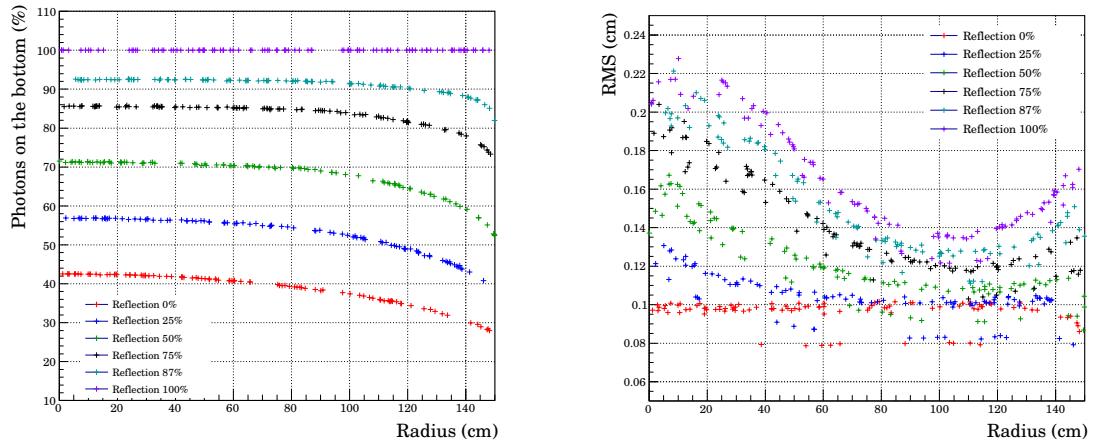
Reflection	$\rho_{a,b}$	a (cm)	b
0 %	-0.837	$0.0 \pm 0.2$	$1.001 \pm 0.002$
25 %	-0.866	$0.2 \pm 0.2$	$0.998 \pm 0.002$
50 %	-0.839	$0.3 \pm 0.2$	$0.998 \pm 0.002$
75 %	-0.862	$0.0 \pm 0.2$	$1.000 \pm 0.002$
87 %	-0.871	$0.2 \pm 0.2$	$0.998 \pm 0.002$
100 %	-0.878	$0.1 \pm 0.2$	$0.999 \pm 0.002$

into account the geometry of the hall of the experiment. The distribution of the photons on the bottom of the detector, with respect to the position of the entering muon and the reflection of the inner walls, is thus studied. Five significant reflection percentages were chosen (0 %, 25 %, 50 %, 75 %, 100 %), in addition to the value given by the vendor (87 %). The percentage of photons reaching the bottom of the cylinder is shown in Fig. 5.2 for each reflection values. This plot can help in the pattern reconstruction of collected data, in that the role of the walls has not been determined yet.

The simulation also shows that the position of the muon is strongly correlated with the spot of highest gathering of photons. A linear fit was computed and the results are listed in Tab. 5.3. This suggests that the position where most of the photons are deposited should be used when handling real data. On the other hand, the relation with the barycenter of the light pattern is less straightforward and depends on the reflection of the walls, as shown in Fig. 5.3, even though the behaviour of the dispersion (RMS) of the photons is easier to interpret.

Regarding the data collected, the space is discretised, because of the physical limitation of the photomultipliers. For this reason, using the position of the most frequent hit PMT does not provide any further information. The average position,  $\hat{d}$ , of the PMTs with respect to the centre of the water tank, weighted by the overall energy collected<sup>2</sup>, is employed, instead, and is plotted versus the average energy,  $\hat{E}$ , per pulse. In Fig. 5.4, the plot for both noise and event signals in data set  $C$  are shown. A far resemblance can be

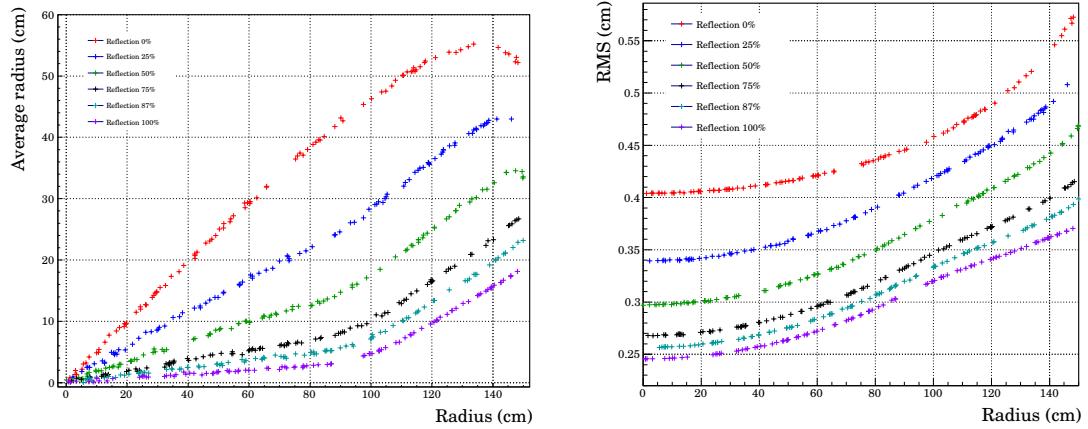
<sup>2</sup>The definition of *energy* is explained in section ref.



(a) As expected, all photons reach the bottom when the reflection is 100 %. If the walls fully absorbe, about 40 % of the photons hit the base of the tank.

(b) Dispersion of hte photon on the bottom of the tank. If the walls fully absorbe, the photons are evenly distributed, otherwise the minium dispersion is reached at about one metre from the centre.

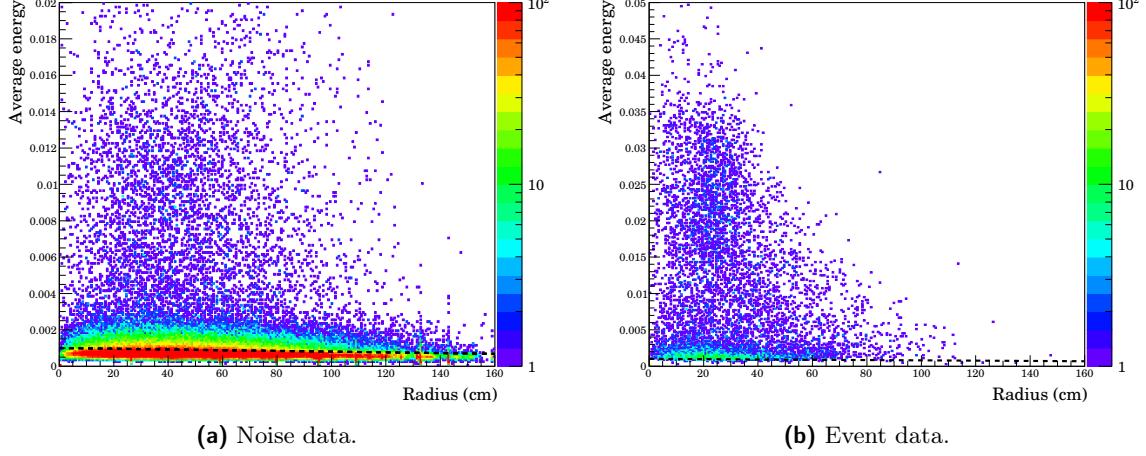
**Figure 5.2:** Photons deposited on the bottom of the water tank, with different values of wall reflection. The x-axes is the distance of the muon with respect to the center of the tank.



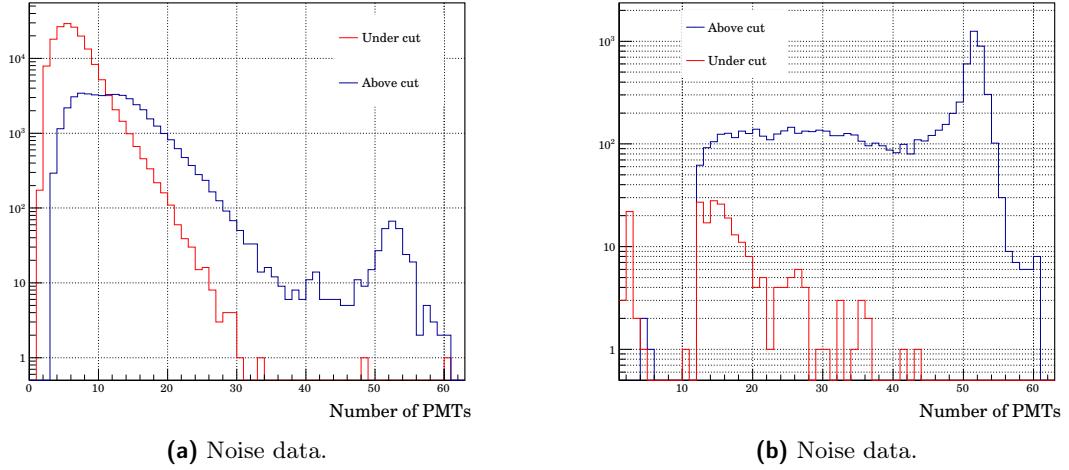
(a) Average distance of the deposited photons. The correlation is basically liner if the walls absorbe all the light.

(b) Deviation of the distance of the deposited photons from the average. The relation is somehow parabolic within one metre from the centre of the tank. In all cases, the smallest dispersion occur for coaxial muons.

**Figure 5.3:** Correlation plots versus the distance of the muon with respet to the centre of the cylinder.



**Figure 5.4:** Average energy distribution versus the barycenter of the PMTs. The black dashed line is used to reject false positive events and corresponds to Eq. 5.6.



**Figure 5.5:** Frequency plot of the number of PMT hit. The spectrum is split in the two subset given by the cut rule in Eq. 5.6.

seen with the simulation results. A high-frequency region is visible in the noise plot, which misses from the event one. This area can be roughly separated with the following formula:

$$\hat{E} = 10^{-3} - 2 \times 10^{-6} \hat{d}, \quad (5.6)$$

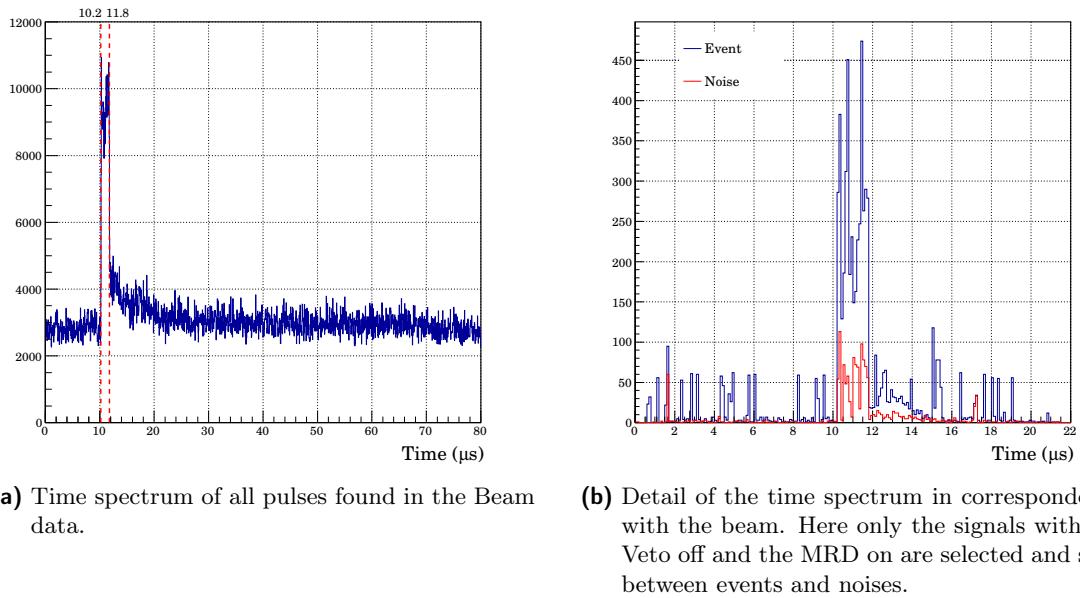
that is supposed to count type I errors of the selection algorithm. The results are listed in Tab. 5.4.

## 5.4 Beam events

Changing the analysis software parameters, the proportion between *signals* and *noises* varies consequently. With the help of the beam run an evaluation on the strength of the rejection method can be undertaken, selecting beam related event only. As illustrated in Fig. 5.6, the beam events happen from 10.2 to 11.8 microseconds. To make sure only beam-related processes are counted, signals which have a corresponsive Veto signals are

**Table 5.4:** False positive count.

<b>Label</b>	<b>Event</b>				<b>Noise</b>			
	Total	Under	Above	Ratio (%)	Total	Under	Above	Ratio (%)
$C$	8078	224	7854	2.773	209,452	164,787	44,665	21.325
$V_{00}$	14,210	5839	8371	41.091	211,202	197,338	13,864	6.564
$V_{01}$	11,362	2824	8537	24.855	211,177	189,744	21,433	10.149
$V_{05}$	5590	3	5587	0.054	106,050	63,881	42,169	39.763
$V_{10}$	5056	1	5055	0.020	59,690	31,404	23,230	38.918
$N_{15}$	6692	84	6608	1.255	209,465	163,808	45,657	21.797
$N_{30}$	4980	28	4952	0.562	209,494	162,540	46,954	22.413
$N_{50}$	458	1	457	0.218	209,549	158,370	51,179	24.432
$\Delta_{50}$	8079	230	7846	2.847	209,427	163,232	46,327	22.121
$\Delta_{30}$	8095	232	7862	2.866	209,479	164,312	45,200	21.577
$\Delta_{20}$	8122	260	7863	3.201	209,512	164,642	44,837	21.401
$\Delta_{10}$	8135	289	7849	3.553	209,559	165,821	44,606	21.287

**Figure 5.6:** Time spectrum realised using the *Start* of the pulses of the Beam run.

**Table 5.5:** Count of pure beam events. The last column is the ratio of Events with respect to the totality of pulses.

Label	Total	Event	Noise	Ratio (%)
$C$	5176	4254	922	82.187
$V_{00}$	6480	4232	2248	65.309
$V_{01}$	6527	4583	1944	70.216
$V_{05}$	1034	1033	1	99.903
$V_{10}$	0	0	0	N/A
$N_{15}$	5070	4179	891	82.426
$N_{30}$	4998	4038	960	80.792
$N_{50}$	4724	3780	1398	80.017
$\Delta_{50}$	5378	4505	873	83.767
$\Delta_{30}$	5178	4272	906	82.503
$\Delta_{20}$	5148	4095	1053	79.545
$\Delta_{10}$	5178	3780	1398	73.001

discarded, while only the pulses with both layers of the MRD on are selected. As a consequence, these restrictions permit to consider interactions happening inside the water volume and producing outgoing charged particles, i.e. mostly CCQE interaction. In Tab-5.5, the results.

## 5.5 Muon decay

As explained in section ref, the dominant decay channel of the muon is the *Michel decay*, which is reported in Eq. 1.37 and 1.38. The muon lifetime is a physical quantity well known and measured to be on average

$$\tau_{\text{avg}} = (2.196,981,1 \pm 0.000,002,2) \mu. \quad (5.7)$$

There is basically no discrepancy between  $\mu^-$  and  $\mu^+$  lifetime, respectively  $\tau_{\mu^-}$  and  $\tau_{\mu^+}$ . It has been measured that

$$\frac{\tau_{\mu^+}}{\tau_{\mu^-}} = 1.000,024 \pm 0.000,078, \quad (5.8)$$

and

$$\frac{\tau_{\mu^+} - \tau_{\mu^-}}{\tau_{\text{avg}}} = (2 \pm 8) \times 10^{-5}. \quad (5.9)$$

It is possible that a muon, either a cosmic one or produced in a CCQE interaction, decays inside ANNIE's volume, and the daughter electron is ejected with a velocity above the Cherenkov threshold: in this case, the electron can be detected. Measuring the abundance of electrons produced in such way, the muon lifetime can be inferred.

Observing the time spectrum of the Beam run, an exponential tail is found after the beam position, as stressed in Fig. 5.7. The time profile of event is fitted with the function

$$y = N e^{-x/\tau} + c_E, \quad (5.10)$$

while the time profile of noise is fitted with

$$y = A \exp \left( -\frac{(x - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2} \right) + c_N. \quad (5.11)$$

**Table 5.6:** False positive count.

<b>Label</b>	Event	Noise	Total	
	$\tau$ ( $\mu\text{s}$ )	$\mu$ ( $\mu\text{s}$ )	$\tau_T$ ( $\mu\text{s}$ )	$\mu_T$ ( $\mu\text{s}$ )
$C$	$2.94 \pm 0.06$	$17.66 \pm 0.05$	$3.2 \pm 0.1$	$18.13 \pm 0.05$
$V_{00}$	$4.25 \pm 0.04$	$17.85 \pm 0.03$	$4.29 \pm 0.09$	$17.76 \pm 0.02$
$V_{01}$	$4.02 \pm 0.03$	$17.73 \pm 0.03$	$4.66 \pm 0.09$	$17.78 \pm 0.03$
$V_{05}$	$2.8 \pm 0.2$	$18.16 \pm 0.05$	$1.8 \pm 0.2$	$18.10 \pm 0.09$
$V_{10}$	$2.16 \pm 0.05$	$18.22 \pm 0.06$	$9.3 \pm 0.7$	$17.397 \pm 0.002$
$N_{15}$	$3.06 \pm 0.07$	$17.61 \pm 0.04$	$4.7 \pm 0.2$	$18.24 \pm 0.06$
$N_{30}$	$3.07 \pm 0.09$	$17.56 \pm 0.06$	$3.4 \pm 0.1$	$18.26 \pm 0.05$
$N_{50}$	$3.3 \pm 0.1$	$17.76 \pm 0.07$	$5.31 \pm 0.08$	$17.81 \pm 0.02$
$\Delta_{50}$	$2.48 \pm 0.02$	$18.03 \pm 0.04$	$3.5 \pm 0.1$	$18.16 \pm 0.05$
$\Delta_{30}$	$2.64 \pm 0.07$	$17.04 \pm 0.07$	$3.8 \pm 0.1$	$18.17 \pm 0.05$
$\Delta_{20}$	$2.07 \pm 0.04$	$17.65 \pm 0.06$	$2.76 \pm 0.08$	$18.03 \pm 0.05$
$\Delta_{10}$	$2.09 \pm 0.04$	$17.60 \pm 0.05$	$3.8 \pm 0.1$	$18.17 \pm 0.05$

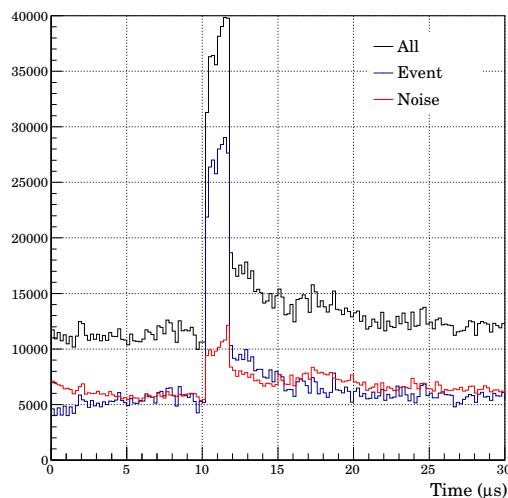
Event the sum of the two spectra is fitted, with a function that is the sum the Ed. 5.10 and 5.11:

$$y = N_T e^{-x/\tau_T} + A_T \exp\left(-\frac{(x - \mu_T)^2}{2\sigma_T^2}\right) + c_T. \quad (5.12)$$

In Tab. 5.6, the fitted lifetime and the gaussian peak are only reported. The fit results in their entirety are reviewed in App. C.

## 5.6 Neutron yield

## 5.7 First MRD data



**Figure 5.7:** The time spectrum of the Beam run has split, between event (blue) and noise (red) pulses. After the beam position, an exponential tail is visible for the events, while there is a gaussian peak for the noises. The total plot, in black, therefore would present a tail given by the sum of an exponential and a gaussian distribution.

# Chapter 6

# Conclusions

Physics sucks.



## **Appendix A**

# **Booster Neutrino Beam**

### **A.1 BNB details**

### **A.2 Resistive Wall Monitor**



## Appendix B

### Monte Carlo simulation



## Appendix C

### Fit results

