



Particle Identification at High Energies

Part 2

- RICHes with vacuum based photodetection
- Auxiliary systems for RICHes
- Alternative particle ID methods

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CERN / EP

This lecture is dedicated to
our colleague and friend
Tom Ypsilantis
1928 - 2000

Vacuum based Photo detectors



Introduction

Photocathodes in the visible range

- Basics about PC
- Characterization of PC
- Types of PC (bialkali, multi-alkali, solar blinds, semi-conductors)

Photomultiplier Tubes

- Basics about PMT (gain, gain spread, magnetic field)
- PMT types (head on, side on, multi anode, flat panel)
- Examples

Hybrid Photodiodes

- Basics about HPD (gain, gain spread, magnetic field)
- HPD types
- Examples

Photocathode fabrication

- Basics of vacuum deposition / epitaxial growth
- Phototube processing

Applications

- HERMES
- LHCb
- DIRC

Auxiliary systems

- Fluids circulation systems (radiator liquids and gases, detector gases)
- Fluids cleaning
- T measurement (monochromator)
- N measurement (prism spectrograph, Fabry-Perot interferometer)

Alternative Particle ID methods

- dE/dx (Bethe-Bloch, gaseous detectors, solid state detectors)
- TOF
- Lifetime (impact parameter measurement in micro-vertex detectors)

Literature:

See Peter Krizan's selection



Additional literature...

Philips Photomultiplier Handbook, French version
"Photomultiplicateurs" (Available from Photonis, France
<http://www.photonis.com>)

Proceedings of the Beaune Photosensor conferences
(1996 and 1999), NIM A 387 (1997) and NIM A 442 (2000)

A.H. Sommer. Photoemission materiale, J.Wiley & Sons
(1968)

Particle Detectors, CERN Academic Training Lecture series
(C. Joram)
http://training.web.cern.ch/Training/ACAD/acad0_E.html

Thanks for providing very useful material to ...

E. Aschenauer, T. Bellunato, M. Davenport, W. Klempt,
D. Liko, M. Mayer (Hamamatsu), V. Shelkov, O. Ullaland,
J. Va'vra

Ring Imaging CHerenkov Detectors with vacuum based photodetection

Introduction

What is a vacuum based photo detectors ?

A device which detects light by means of a photocathode in an evacuated volume. No gas amplification involved !

Why vacuum based photo detectors ?

A RICH aims to detect the maximum number of photons with the best angular resolution.

Number of detected photoelectrons $N_{p.e.}$

$$N_{p.e.} = L \sin^2 \theta \frac{a}{hc} \int_{E_1}^{E_2} e_Q(E) \prod_i e_i(E) dE$$

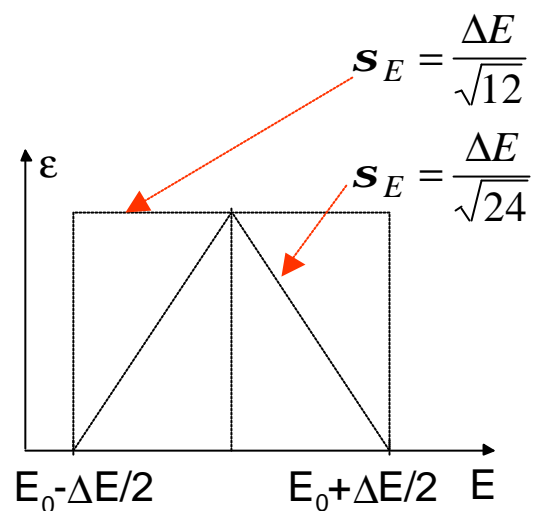
$$N_0 = 370 \cdot eV^{-1} \cdot cm^{-1} \langle e_{total} \rangle \Delta E$$

$\Delta E = E_2 - E_1$ is the width of the sensitive window of the photodetector. $N_{p.e.} \propto \langle \epsilon_{total} \rangle \cdot \Delta E \rightarrow$ to be maximized.

A large dE increases however the chromatic error

$$s_q = \frac{1}{n \tan q} s_n = \frac{1}{n \tan q} \frac{dn}{dE} s_E$$

dn/dE is the dispersion of the radiator medium.

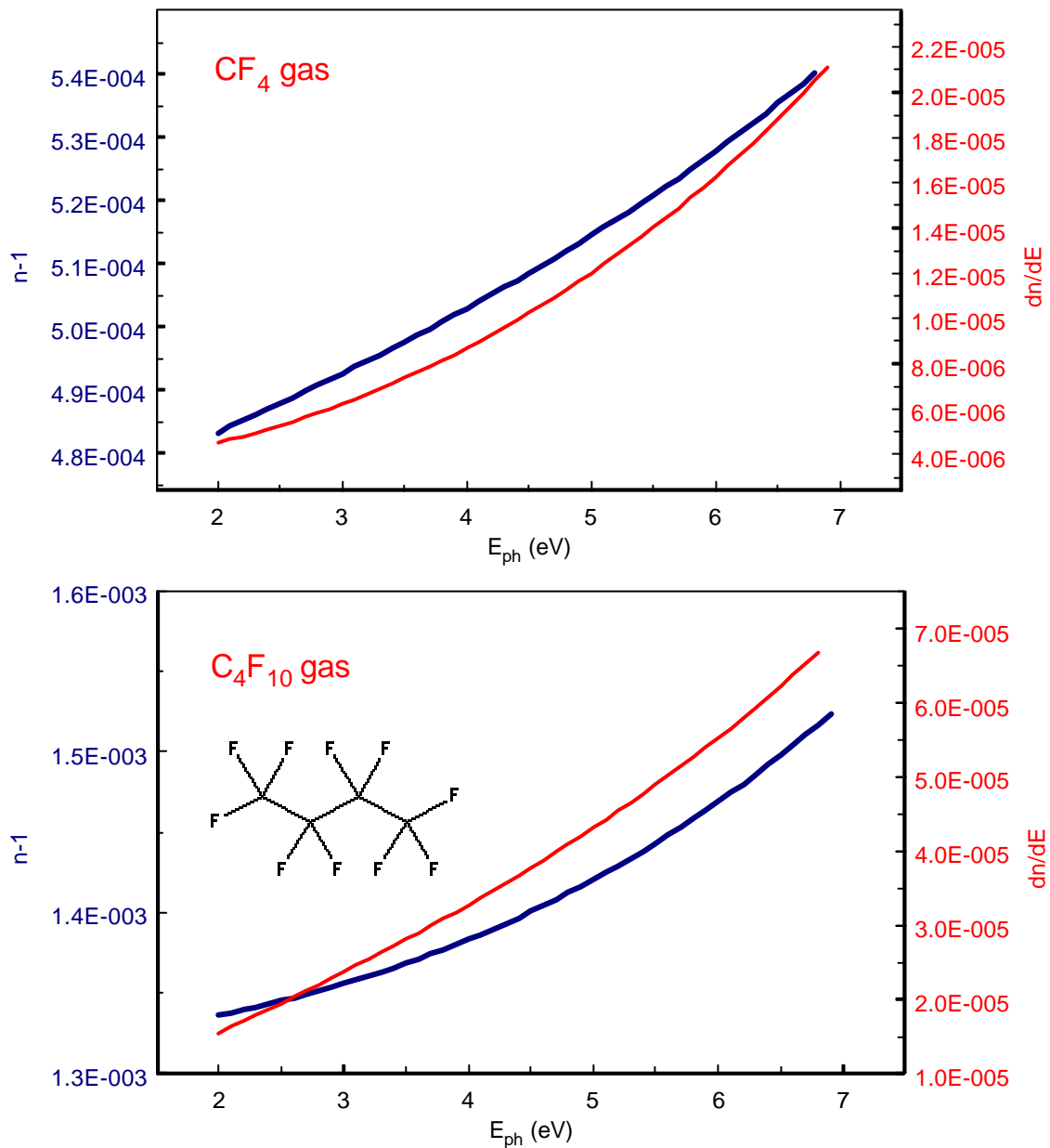


$s_q \propto dn/dE \cdot \Delta E \rightarrow$ to be minimized.

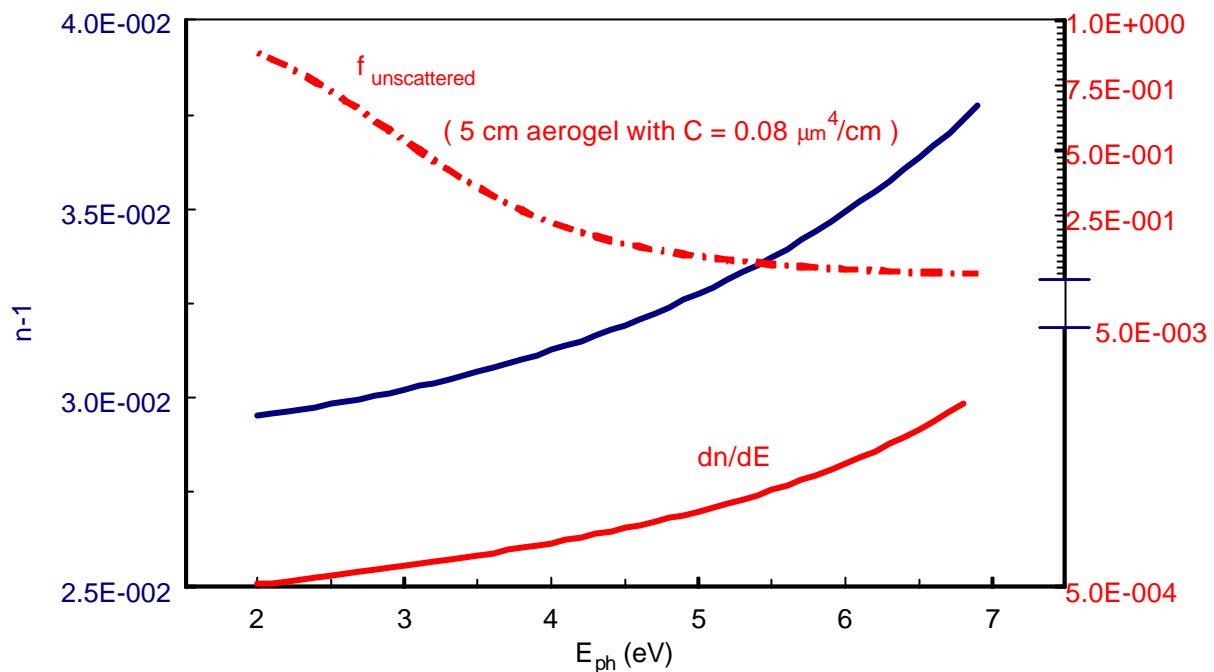
A RICH should provide a good compromise between $N_{p.e.}$ and s_q

→ Look for a photodetector with large ΔE which can be combined with a radiator with small dn/dE .

Refractive index and dispersion of CF_4 and C_4F_{10} gas gases



Refractive index ($n-1$) and dispersion dn/dE increase with the photon energy.



Aerogel can reduce the gap between gases ($n-1 < \approx 0.002$) and liquids ($n-1 > \approx 0.25$)

$$n-1_{\text{aerogel}} \approx 1.01 - 1.10$$

However: aerogel is a colloidal form of quartz, a extremely light microporous material. Light suffers scattering coherent from the micro bubbles, **Rayleigh scattering**. The probability for not being scattered is

$$P = e^{-CL/I^4} \quad C = \text{clarity coefficient. } 0.05 - 0.1 \mu m^4/cm$$

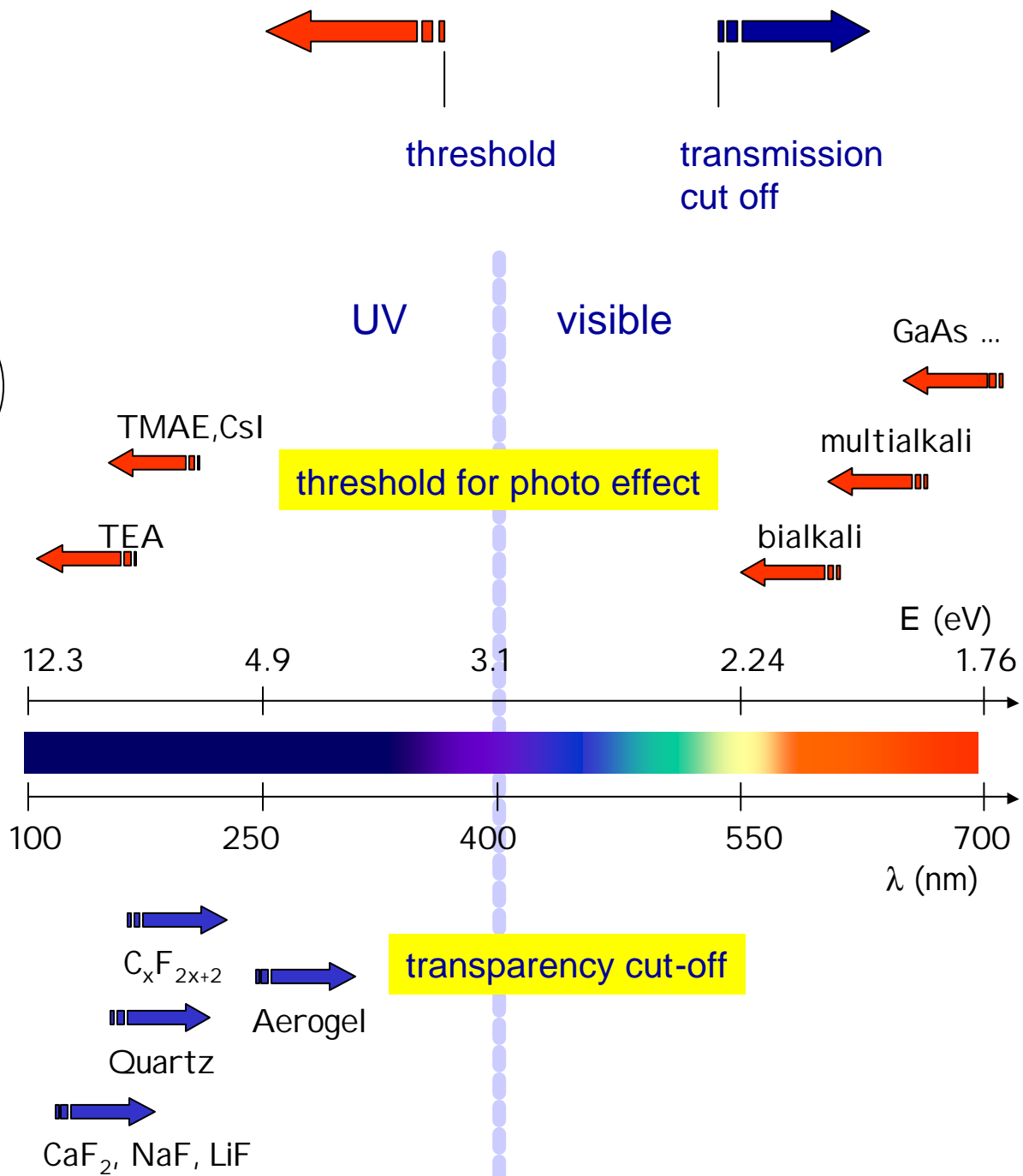
The unscattered fraction of Cherenkov light being uniformly emitted over the length L is

$$f_{unscattered} = \frac{I^4}{CL} \left(1 - e^{-CL/I^4} \right)$$

Photocathodes in the the visible range



Overview: **Photocathodes** and Cherenkov radiators



Advantages - Disadvantages



Vacuum based detectors...

- ◆ work in the visible and near UV range. Dispersion dn/dE much smaller than in deep UV
- ◆ cover a large energy / wavelength range $\Delta E = 3-4$ eV
- ◆ can be combined with a large variety of radiator and window materials (incl. aerogel radiators).
- ◆ are easy to operate

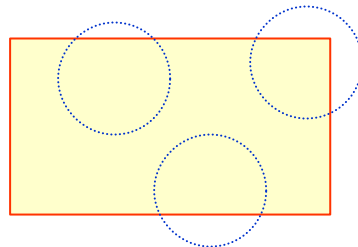
But...

- ◆ are housed in small fragile glass tubes
- ◆ are quite expensive
- ◆ fairly difficult to fabricate

Basic requirements of photo detectors in RICH counters

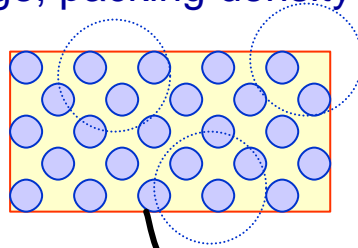


- total surface



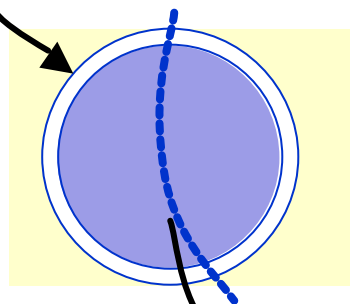
$$\rightarrow N_{p.e.}$$

- surface coverage, packing density



$$\rightarrow N_{p.e.}$$

- active area, granularity



$$\begin{aligned} &\rightarrow N_{p.e} \\ &\rightarrow \sigma_{\theta} \end{aligned}$$

- quantum efficiency $\rightarrow N_{p.e}$

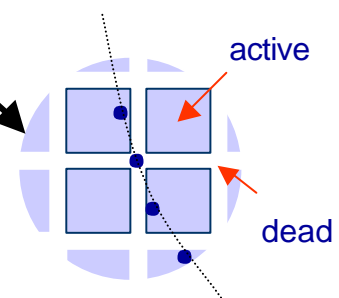
- wavelength range $\rightarrow N_{p.e.}, \sigma_{\theta}$

- speed, dead time

- noise

- cost

- ...



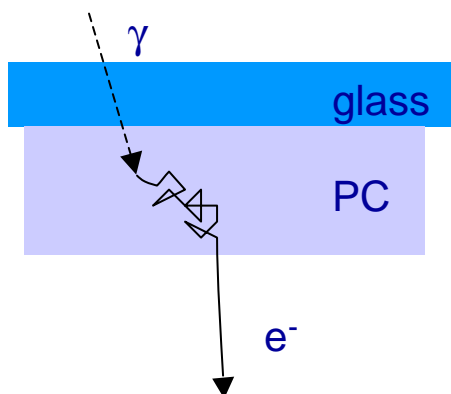
Photoemission



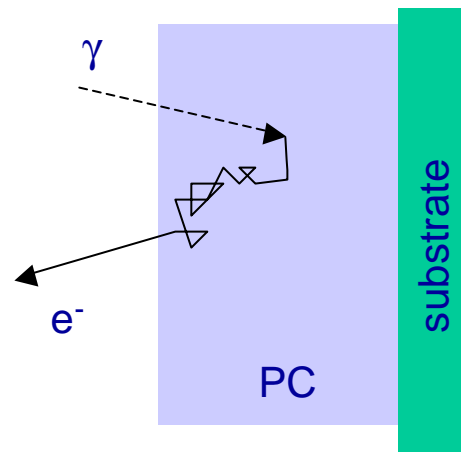
2-step process

- ◆ photo ionization of molecule
- ◆ escape of electron back into the vacuum

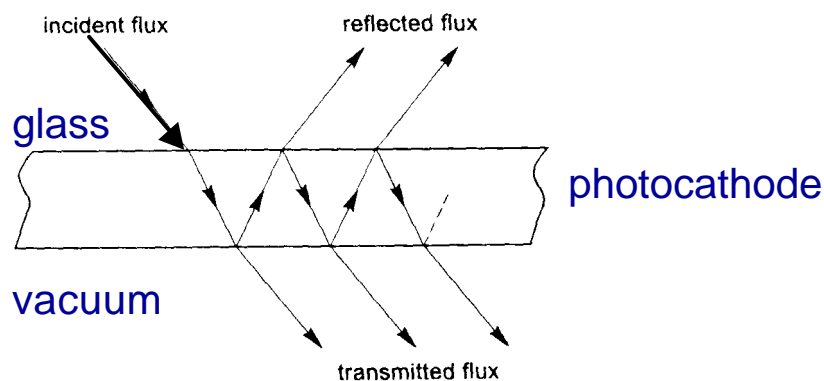
Semitransparent photocathode



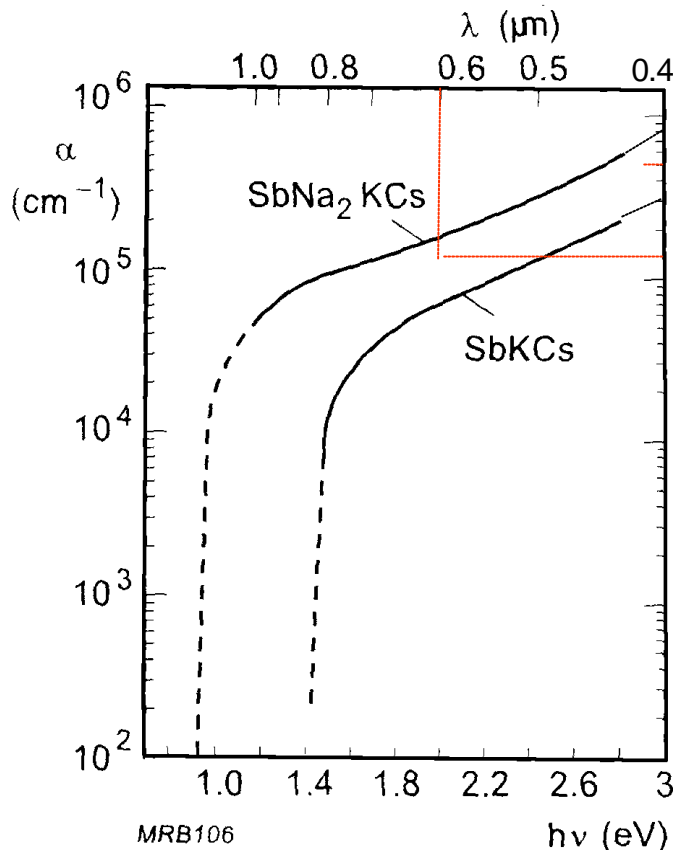
Opaque photocathode



In reality the situation is more complex: Due to the high refractive index of the photocathode (example bialkali: $n(\lambda = 442 \text{ nm}) = 2.7$) we get a multi reflection / interference situation



Experimentally...



$$\lambda_A = 1/\alpha$$

Red light ($\lambda \approx 600 \text{ nm}$)

$$\alpha \approx 1.5 \cdot 10^5 \text{ cm}^{-1}$$

$$\lambda_A \approx 60 \text{ nm}$$

Blue light ($\lambda \approx 400 \text{ nm}$)

$$\alpha \approx 4 \cdot 10^5 \text{ cm}^{-1}$$

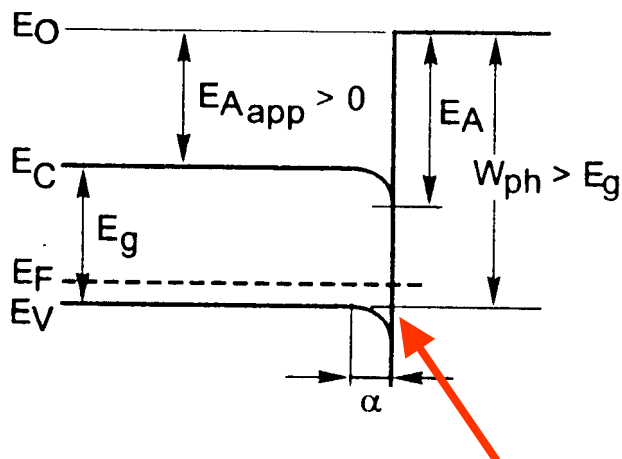
$$\lambda_A \approx 25 \text{ nm}$$

Blue light is stronger absorbed than red light !

In the band model:

Photocathodes are semiconductors:

$$E_V < E_F < E_C$$



Photon energy has to be sufficient to bridge the band gap E_g , but also to overcome the electron affinity E_A , so that the electron can be released into the vacuum.

p-doping (Cesium) deforms bands at surface and results in a lower apparent electron affinity. Lower threshold for photoeffect.

The 'hot' photoelectron in the conduction band has to reach the PC surface. Energy loss due to electron-phonon collisions. $\Delta E \approx 0.05$ eV per collision. Free path between 2 collisions

$\lambda \approx 2.5 - 5$ nm.

→ escape depth $\lambda_E \approx$ some tens of nm.

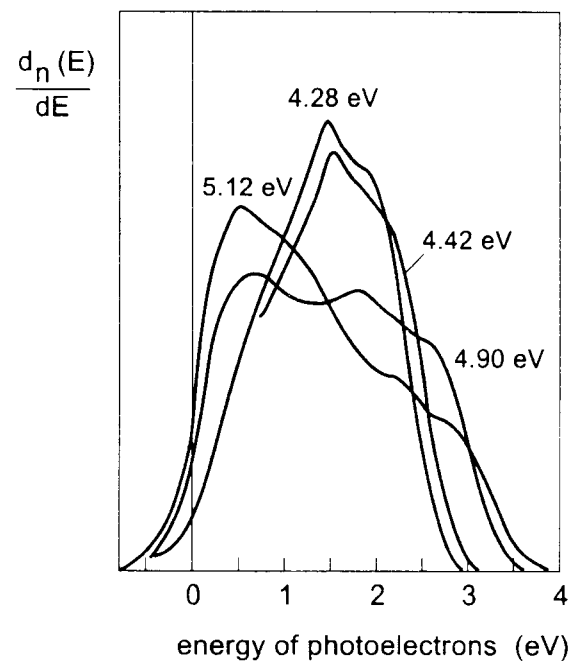
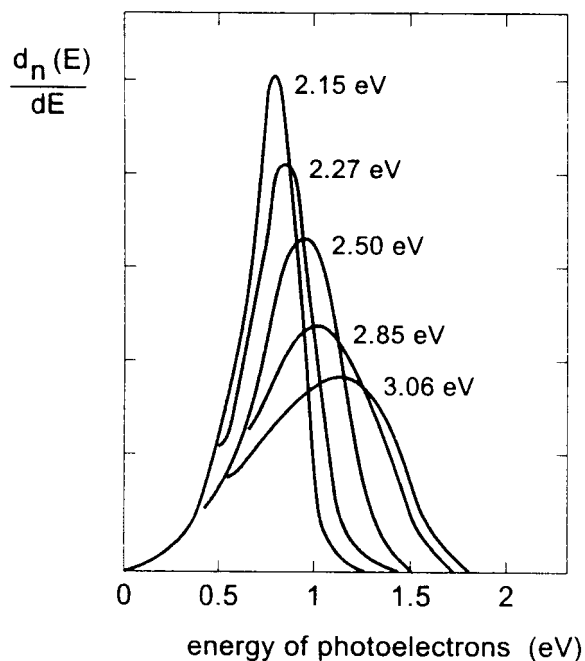
→ Particularly for semi-transparent cathodes one has to find the best compromise for the thickness of the PC:

photon absorption length $\lambda_A(E_{ph}) \leftrightarrow$ electron escape depth $\lambda_E(E_e)$

thick cathode: high red response - low blue response

thin cathode: low red response - high blue response

The energy of the emitted photoelectron still depends a bit on the energy of the photon. Typical energies are 0.5 - 2 eV.



Sensitivity characteristics



◆ Quantum efficiency

$$e_Q = \frac{N_e}{N_g}$$

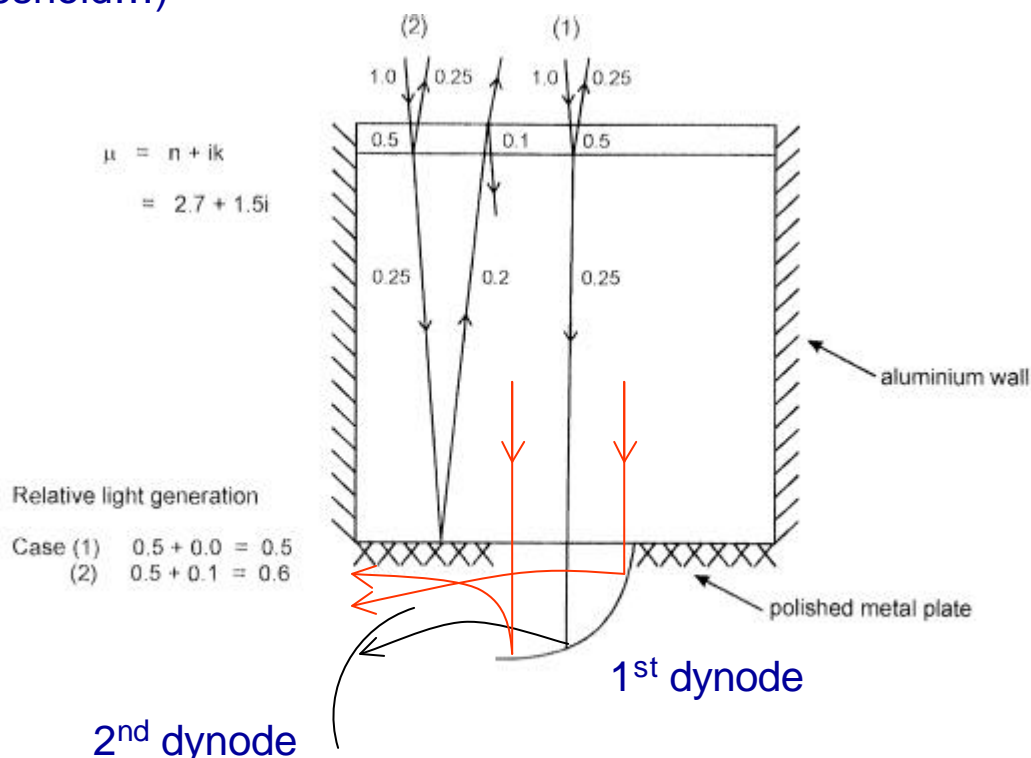
◆ Cathode radiant sensitivity

$$S_k (mA/W) = \frac{I_k (mA)}{\Phi_g (W)}$$

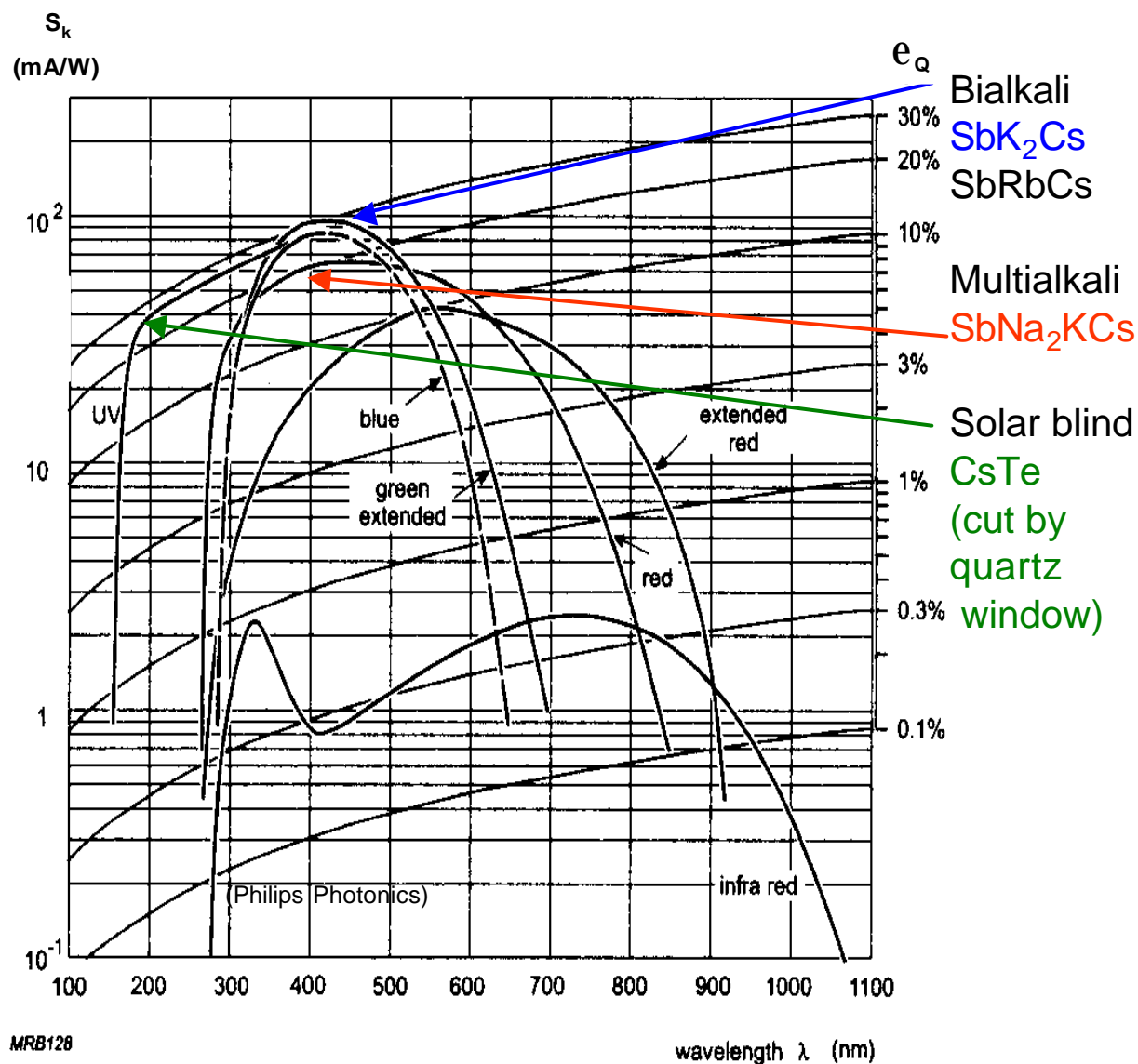
$$e_Q = S_k \frac{hn}{e} = S_k \frac{hc}{Ie} \quad e_Q (\%) \approx 124 \cdot \frac{S_k (mA/W)}{I (nm)}$$

ϵ_Q is relatively difficult to measure with high precision.

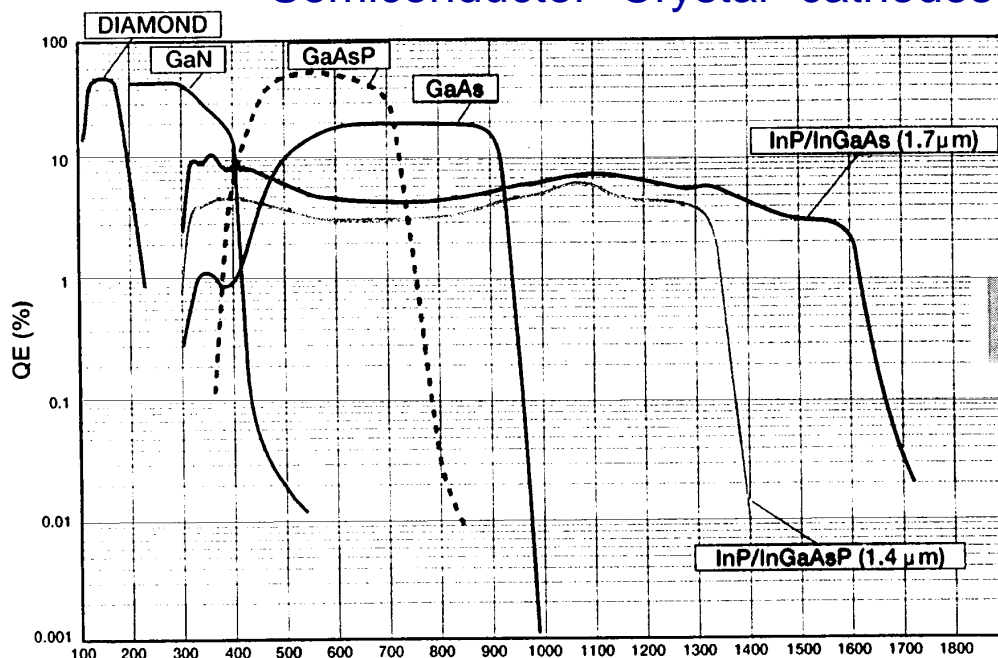
Often one determines only an **effective detection efficiency**, where other effects are folded in (e.g. internal reflection from a metallic surface, collection of the photoelectrons, electronic threshold...)



Sensitivity of “standard” photocathodes

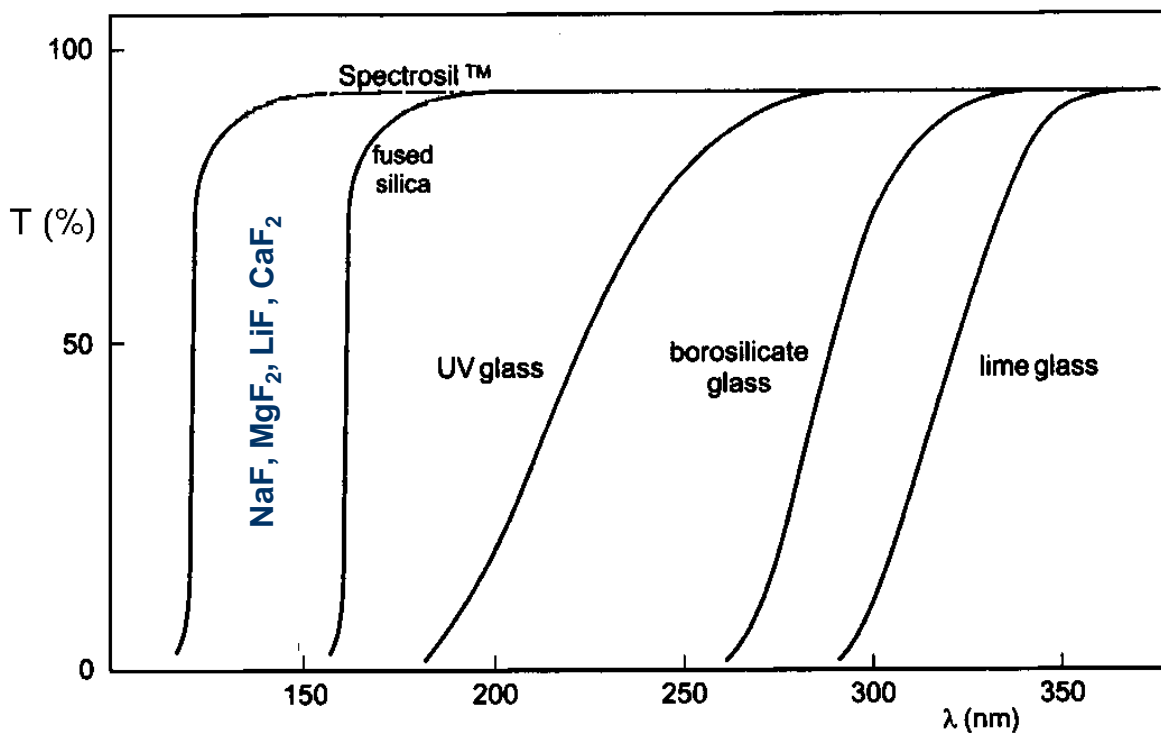


Semiconductor "Crystal" cathodes



(Hamamatsu)

Transmission of frequently used windows



Photocathode fabrication



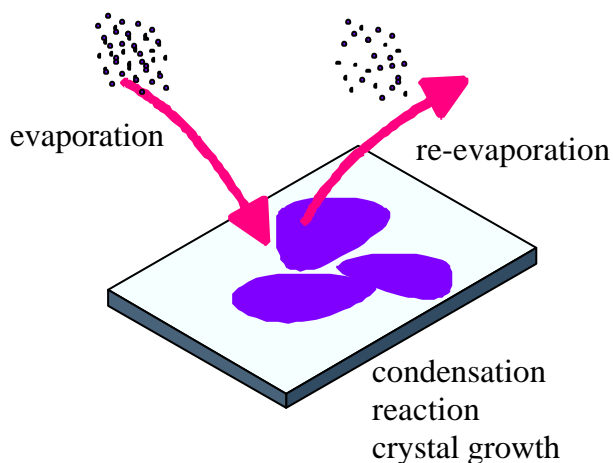
“Metallic” cathodes (alkali)
(SbK_2Cs , SbNaKCs ,...)



Vacuum evaporation

Evaporation of metals in a
ultra high vacuum.
Condensation of vapour and
chemical reaction on
entrance window.

Relatively simple technique



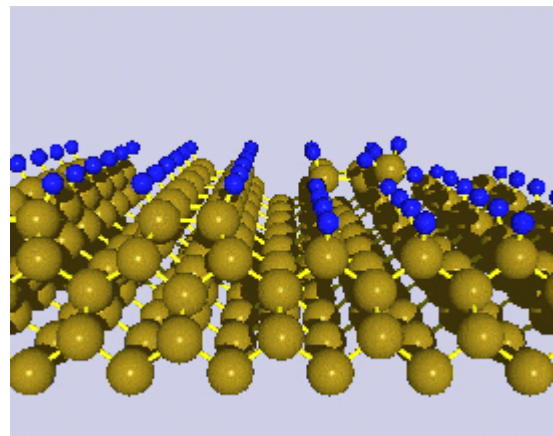
Semiconductor cathodes
 GaAs , GaInAs ,...



Molecular beam epitaxial growth

Bombardement of a substrate
crystal (similar lattice
dimensions) with a molecular
beam → formation of a
crystalline semiconductor

Fairly difficult technique

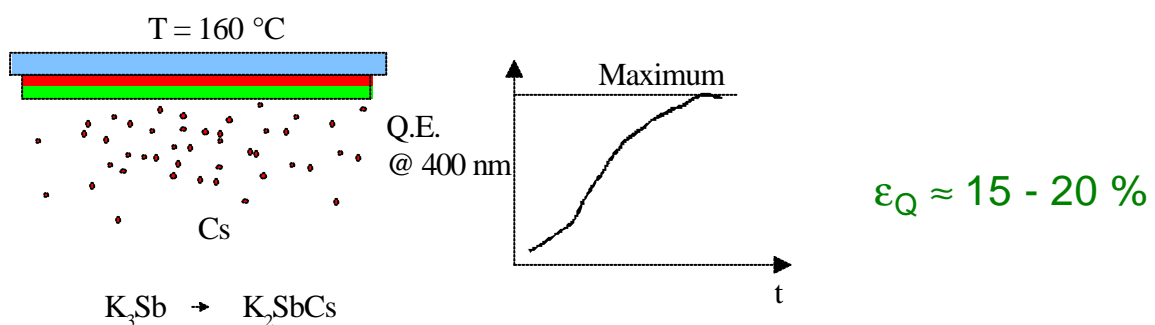
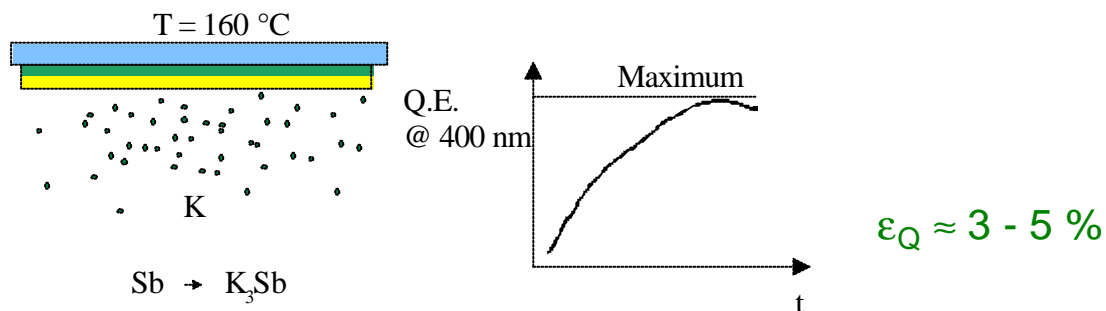
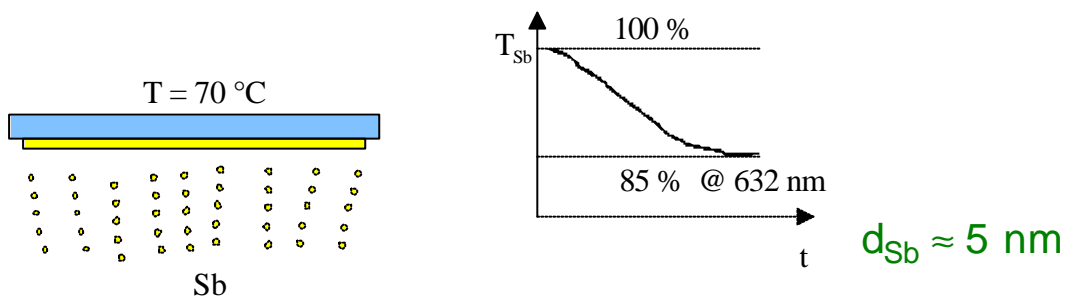


Alkali photocathode fabrication



vacuum requirements

- ◆ $< 10^{-7}$ mbar
- ◆ $< 10^{-9}$ mbar H_2O partial pressure
- ◆ no other contaminants (CO , $\text{C}_x\text{H}_y\ldots$)
- ◆ thorough bakeout of process chamber ($>150^\circ\text{C}$) and substrate ($>300^\circ\text{C}$) required. The higher the better.
- ◆ Example: simplified sequential bialkali process (SbK_2Cs)



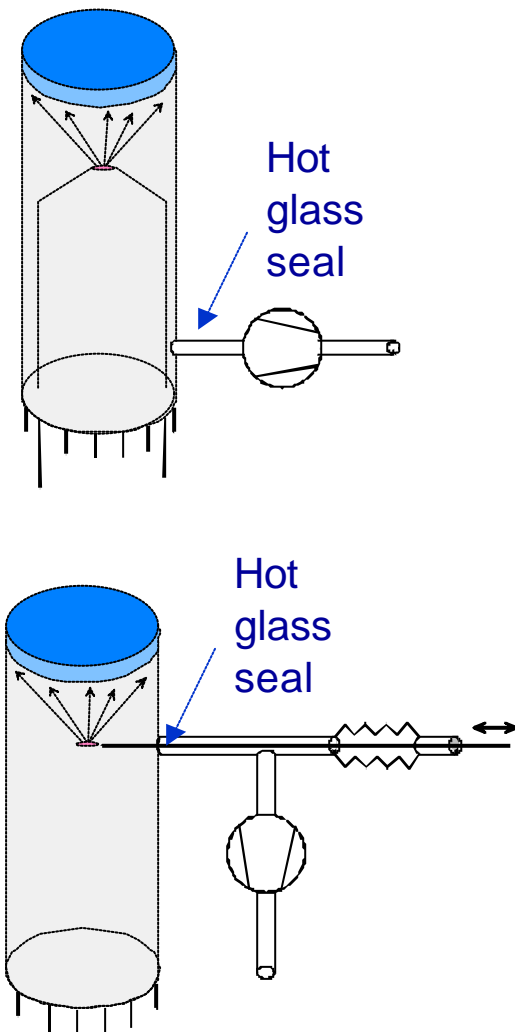
Phototube fabrication

(very schematic)

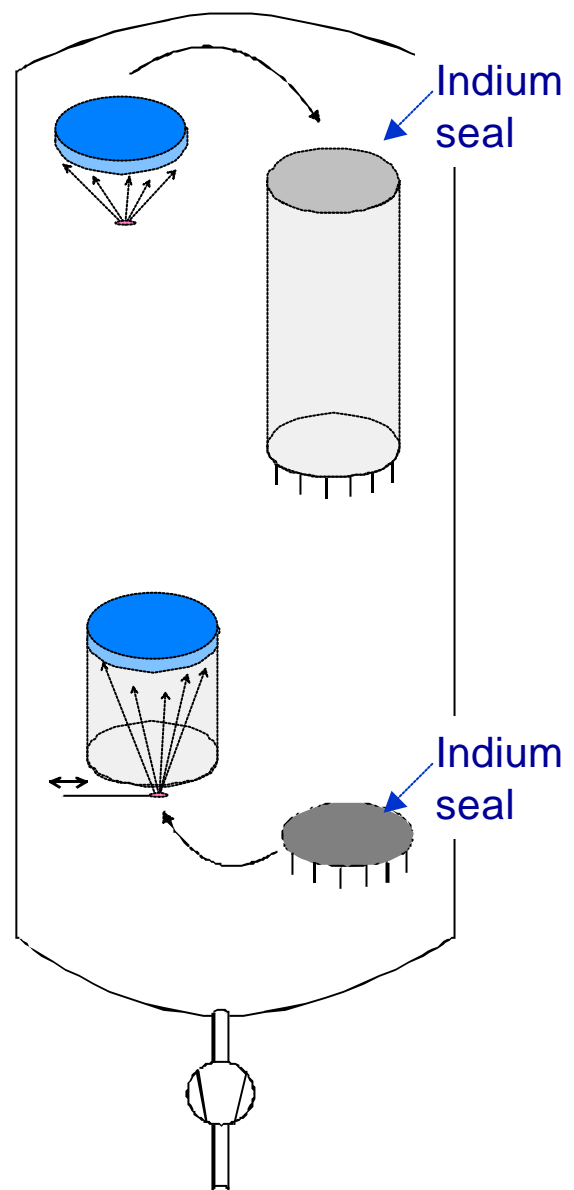


process types (very schematic)

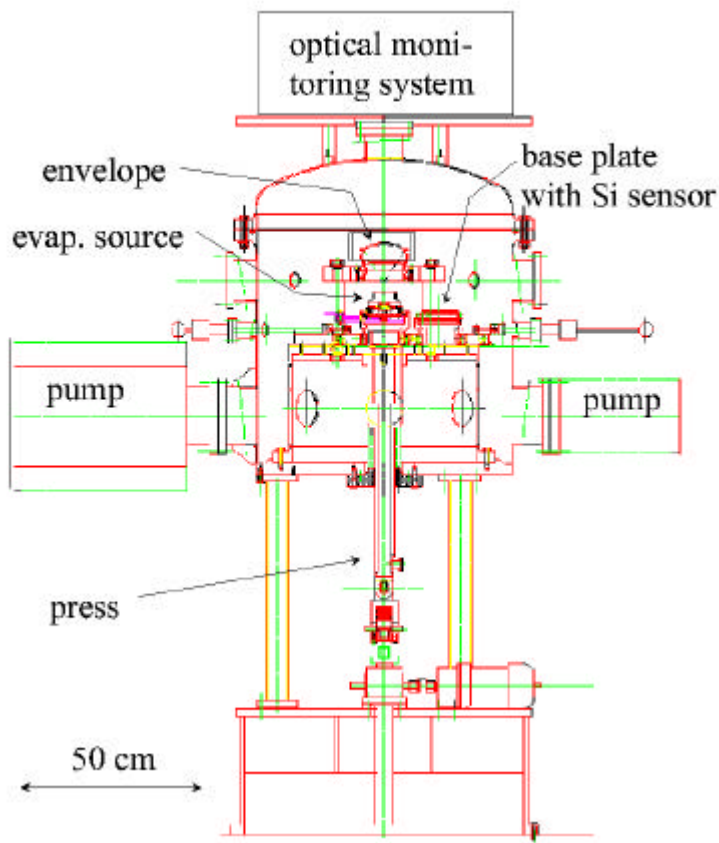
internal



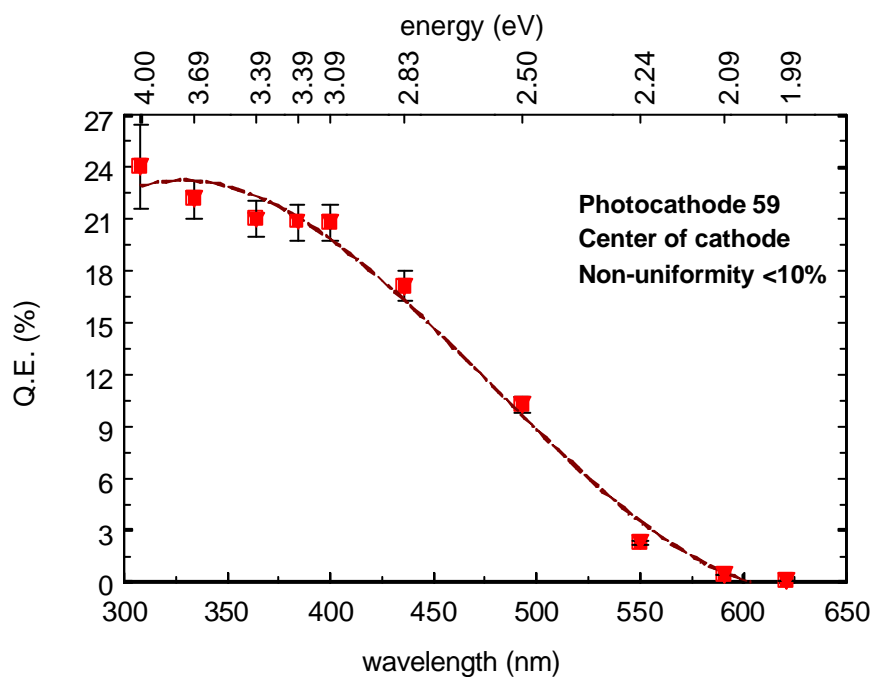
external (transfer)



Tube manufacturing (photocathode processing, sealing). CERN/LHCb



The evaporation and encapsulation facility

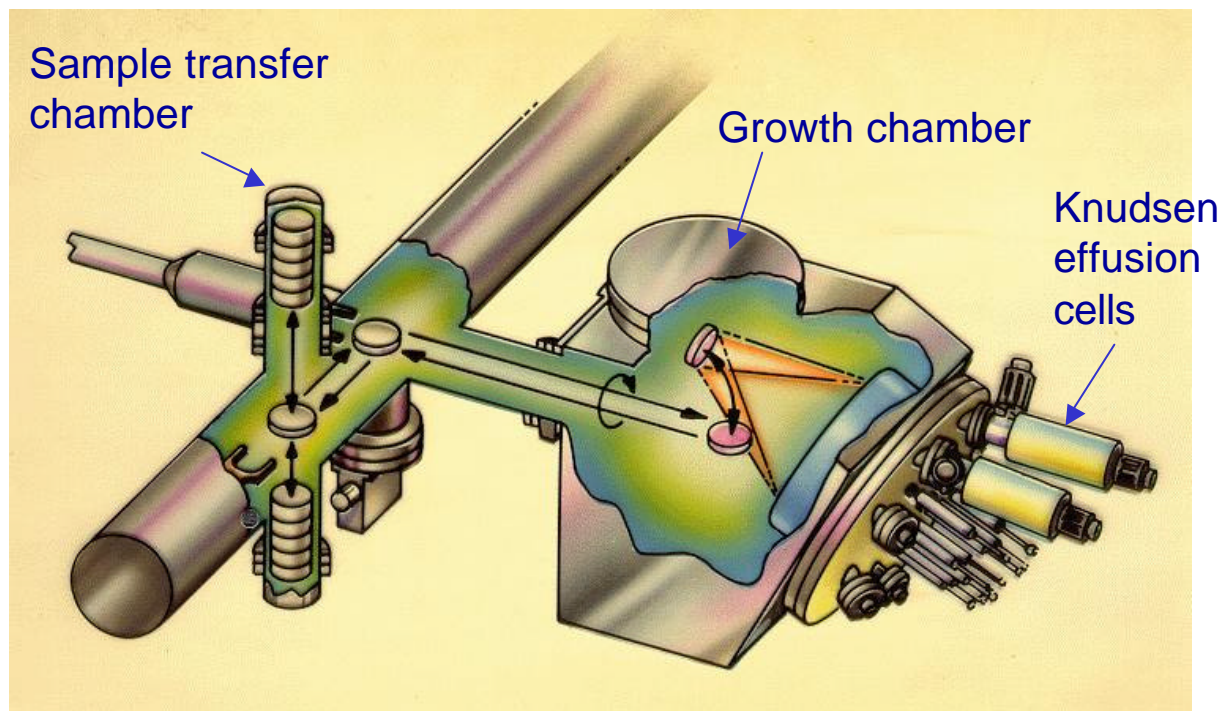


Semiconductor photocathode fabrication



Method: **Molecular beam epitaxial growth.**

Very stringent vacuum requirements (10^{-10} mbar)



How to produce semitransparent cathodes ? (very schematic)

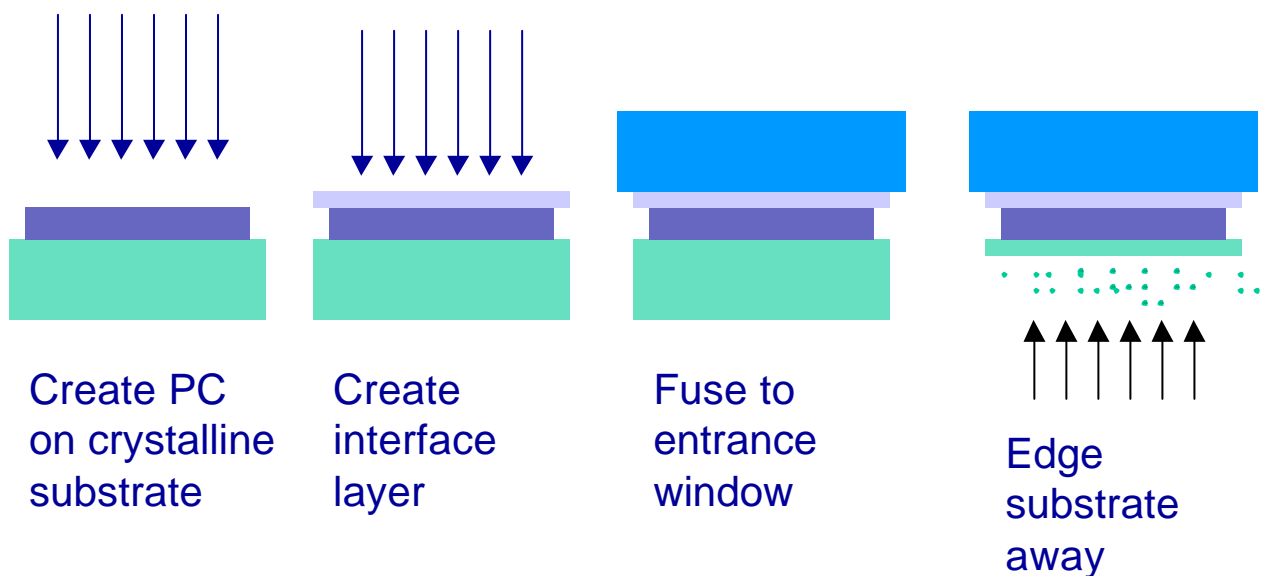
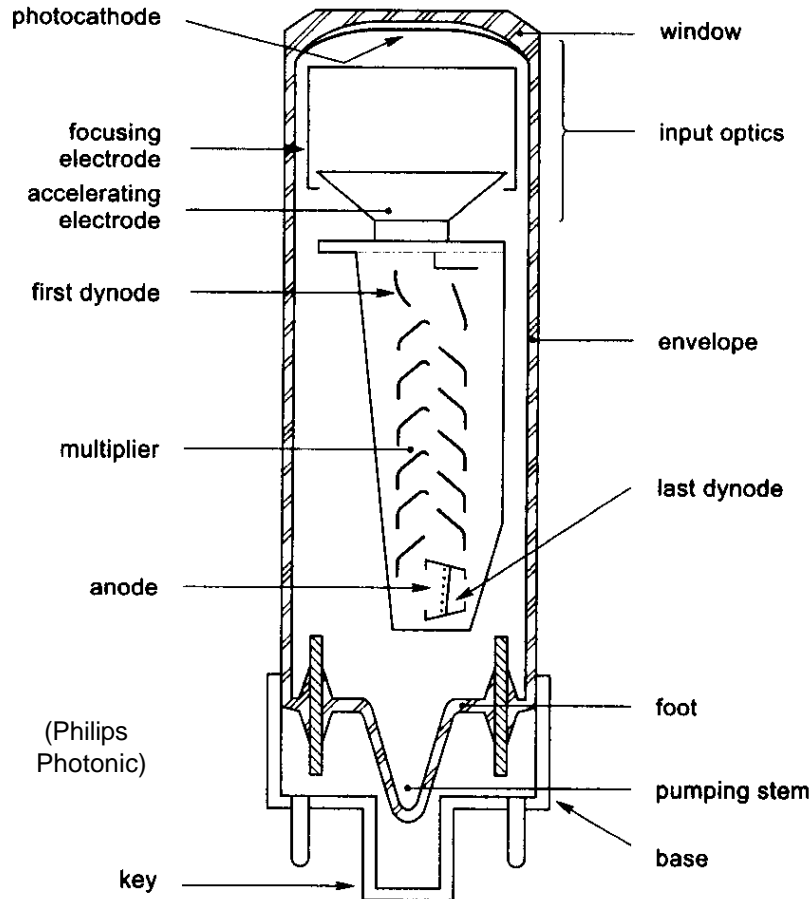


Photo Multiplier Tubes



basic principle:



- photo emission from photo cathode.
 $Q.E. = N_{p.e.}/N_{photons}$

- secondary emission from dynodes.

- dynode gain $g = 3 - 50 (f(E))$

- total gain $M = \prod_{i=1}^N g_i$

- 10 dynodes with $g=4$ $M = 4^{10} \approx 10^6$

Gain spread / Energy resolution

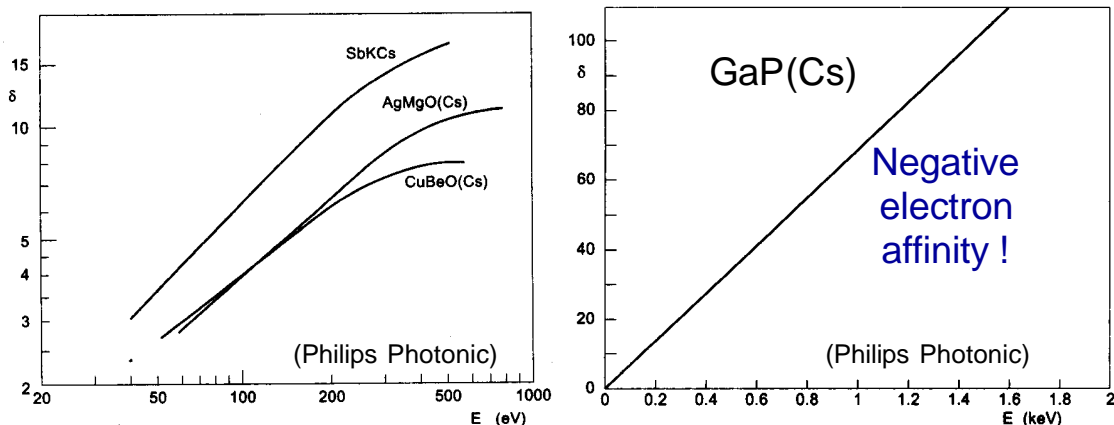


Mainly by the fluctuation of the number of secondary electrons emitted from the first dynodes.

Poisson distribution:
$$P(\bar{n}, m) = \frac{\bar{n}^m e^{-\bar{n}}}{m!}$$

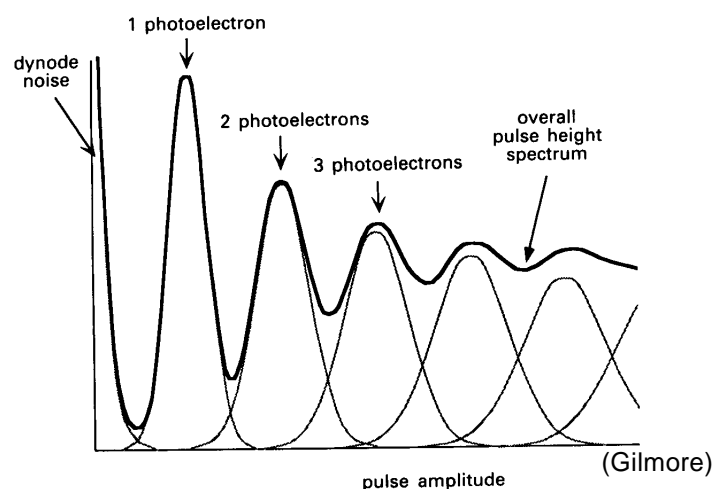
Relative fluctuation:
$$\frac{s_n}{\bar{n}} = \frac{\sqrt{\bar{n}}}{\bar{n}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\bar{n}}}$$

Fluctuations biggest, when \bar{n} small ! \rightarrow 1st and 2nd dynode !

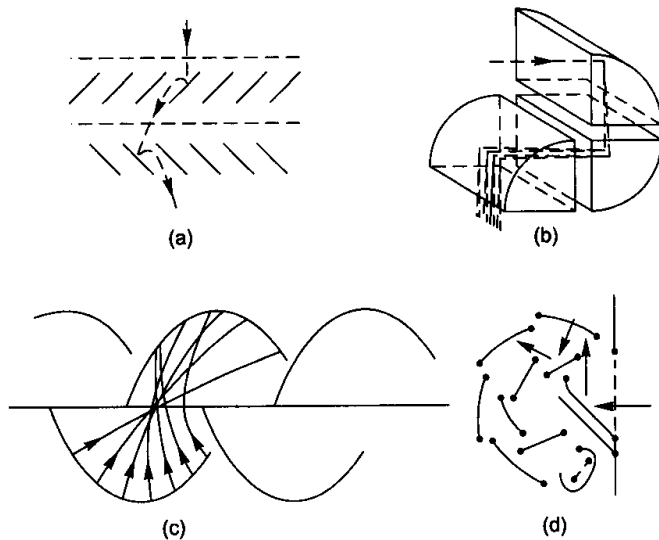


Backscattering
($\eta \approx 0.25, \propto Z_{\text{dynode}}$)
reduces effective δ !

Illustration of a pulse
height spectrum of a PM.
First dynode: $\delta = 25$

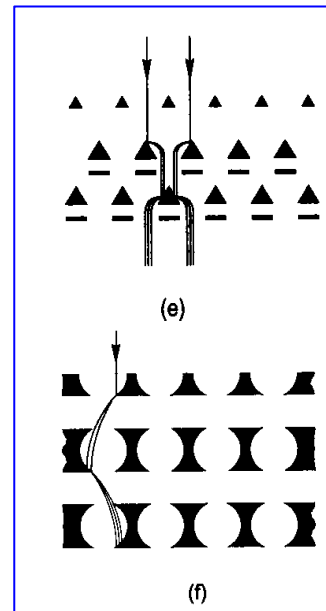


Dynode configurations

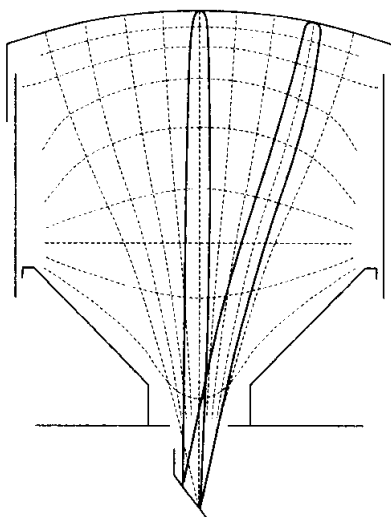


(Philips Photonics)

Dynode configurations: (a) venetian blind, (b) box, (c) linear focusing, (d) circular cage, (e) mesh and (f) foil



position
sensitive
PM's



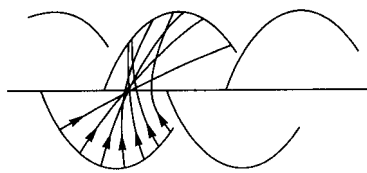
Equi-potentials and trajectories
in a fast input system

“Fast” PM’s require well designed
input optics to limit chromatic
(energy spread) and geometric
aberrations (path length)
→ transit time spread < 200 ps

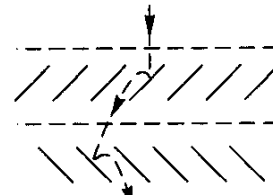
Sensitivity to magnetic fields



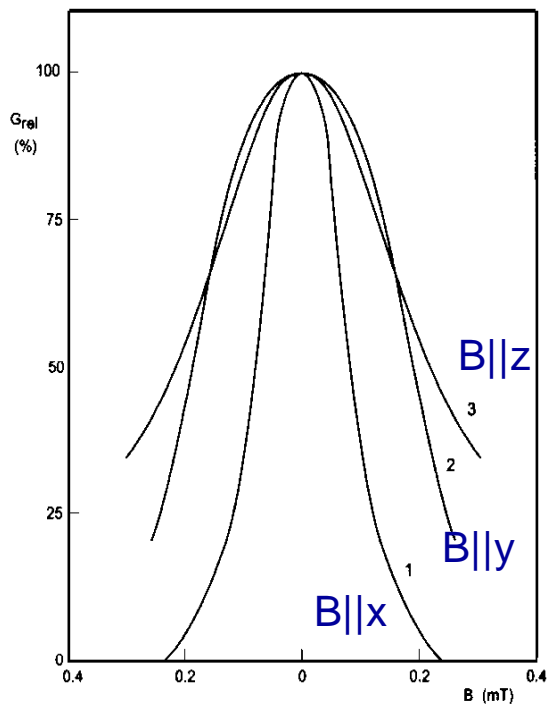
PM's are in general very sensitive to B-fields, even to earth field (30-60 μT). μ -metal shielding required.



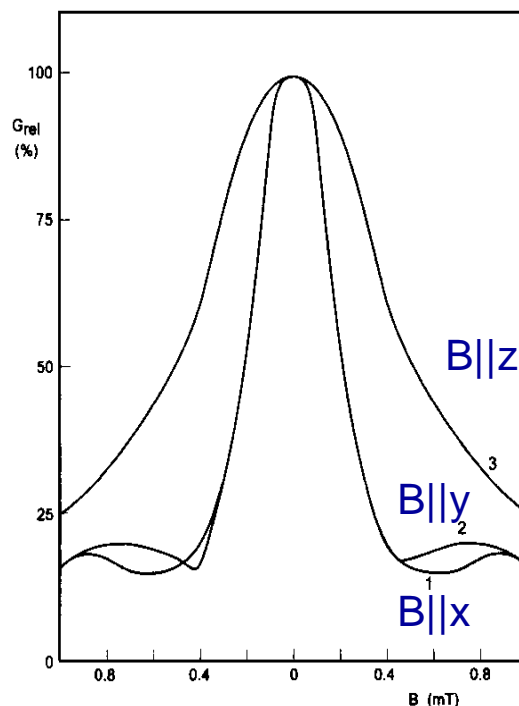
"Linear focusing"



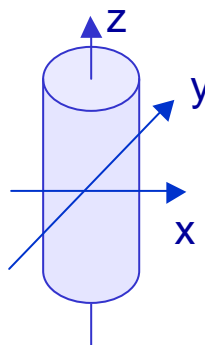
"Venetian blind"



$\pm 50 \mu\text{T}$
 $\pm 0.5 \text{ Gauss}$



$\pm 200 \mu\text{T}$
 2 Gauss

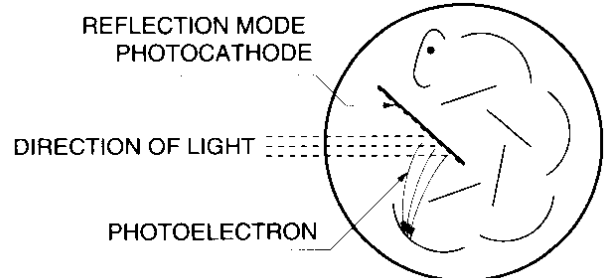
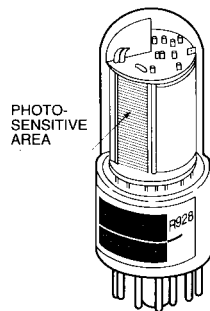


Photomultiplier types used in RICH detectors



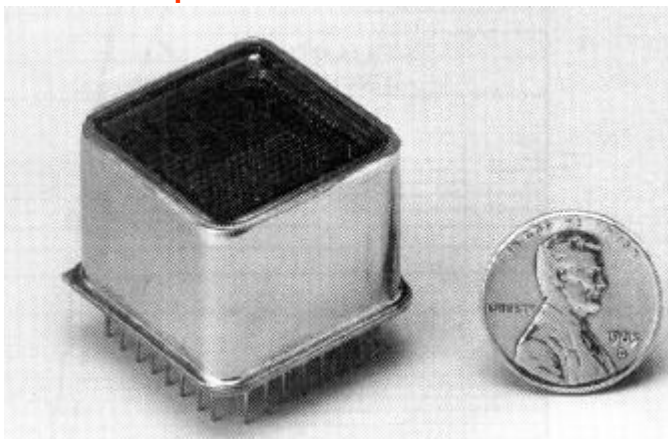
- ◆ **Standard:** cylindrical **head on** multipliers exist in a large range of diameters (3/8"-5")
examples: DIRC (BaBar), HERMES

Side on
PMTs
(opaque PC)
are not used
for RICH
applications.

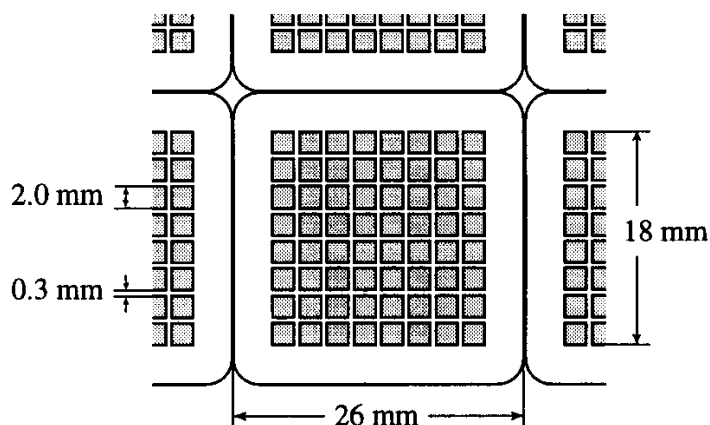


- ◆ **Position sensitive PMs**
examples: HERA-B, LHCb (backup)

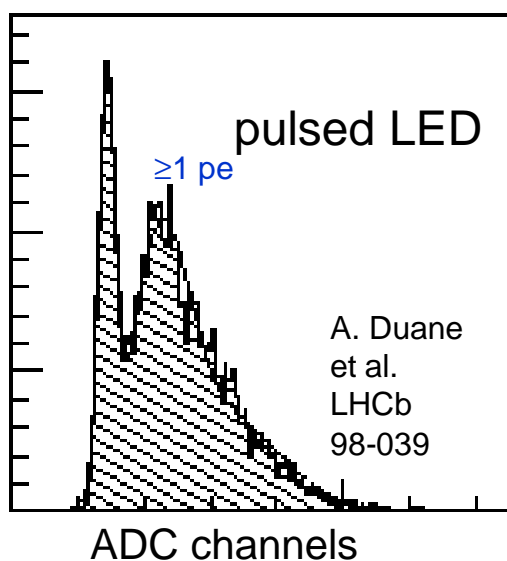
Position sensitive Multi Anode PM
example: Hamamatsu R5900 series.



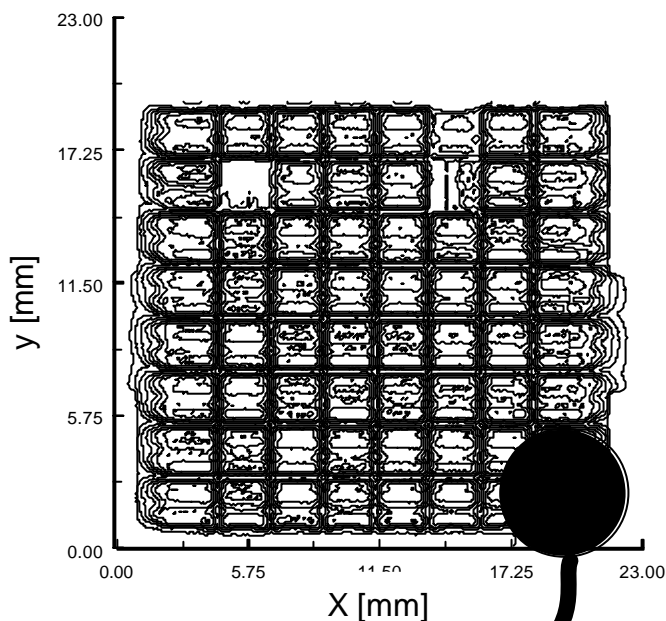
Up to 8x8 channels.
Size: 26x26 mm².
Bialkali PC:
Q.E. = 20% at
 $\lambda_{\text{max}} = 400 \text{ nm}$.
Gain $\approx 10^6$.



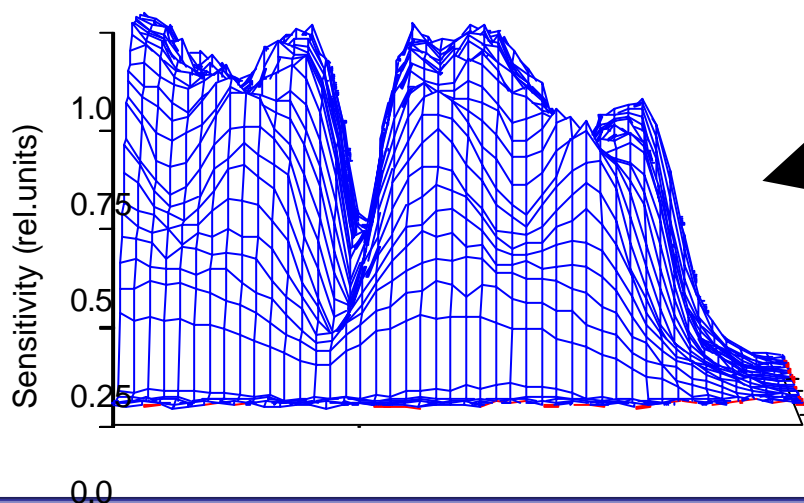
Active area
fraction 38%.



Pulse height spectrum of
Hamamatsu R5900

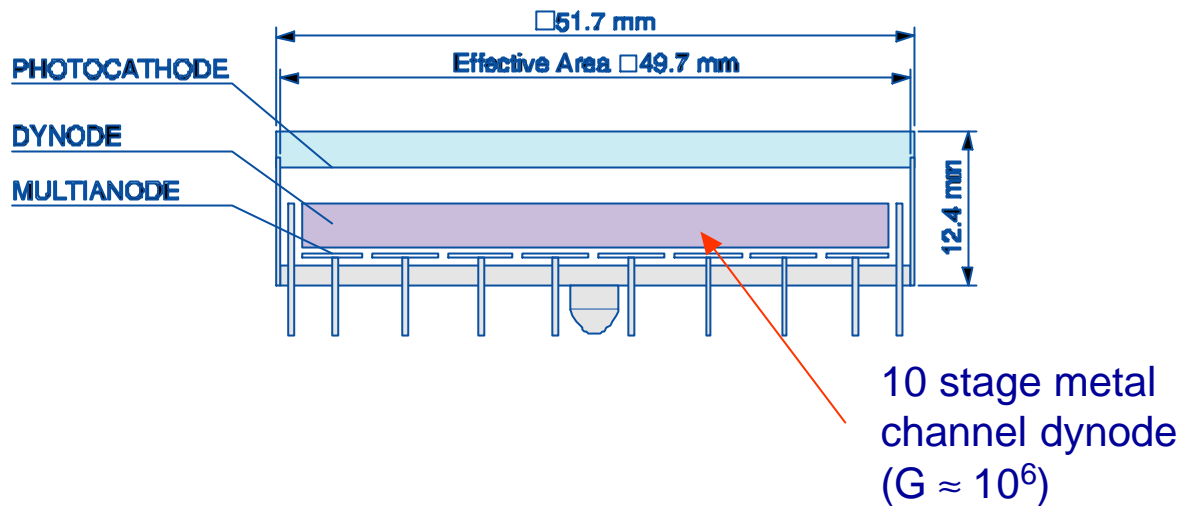


Collection efficiency of
R5900-64 is not very
uniform. Deep valleys
between pixels.



A. Duane et al. LHCb 98-039 and
N. Smale, Oxford Univ.,
private communication

Example: Hamamatsu Flat Panel PMT (FPP)

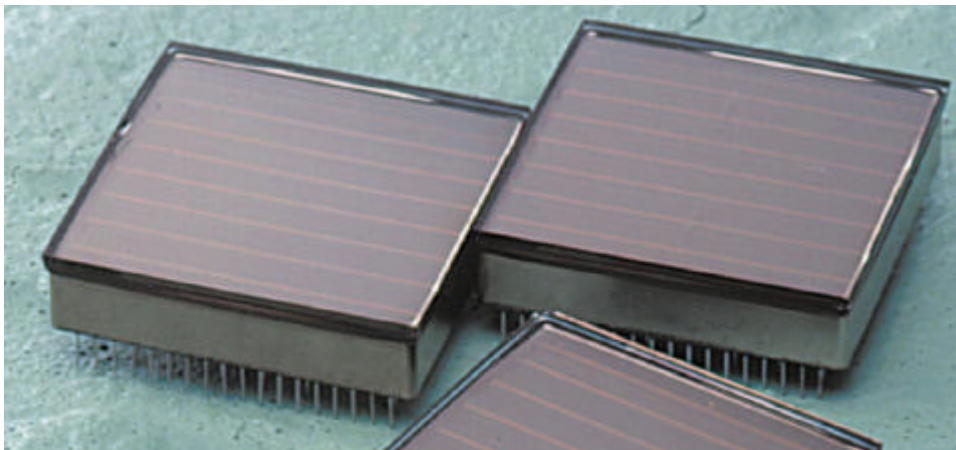


Excellent surface coverage (>90%)

Bialkali PC, $\varepsilon_Q \approx 20\%$ (blue)

Availability: Soon !?

Price: “cost/surface cheaper than for MaPMT”



Micro Channel Plates

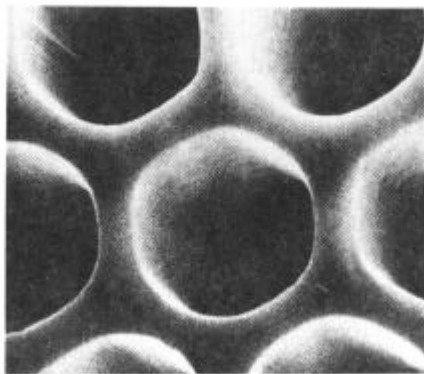
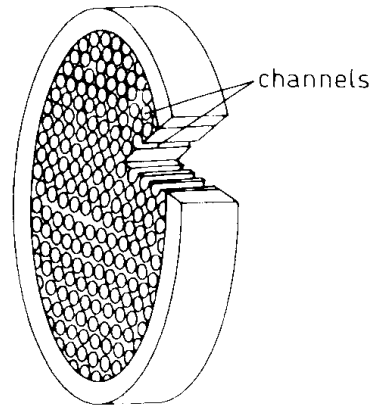
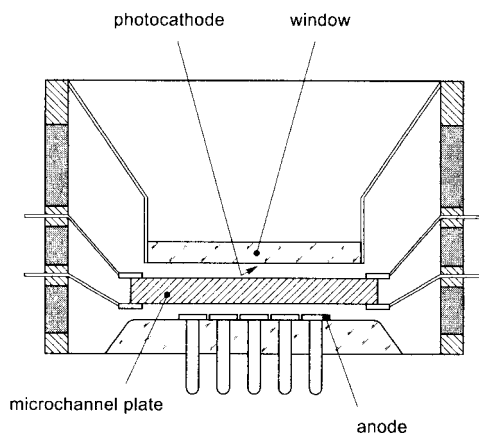
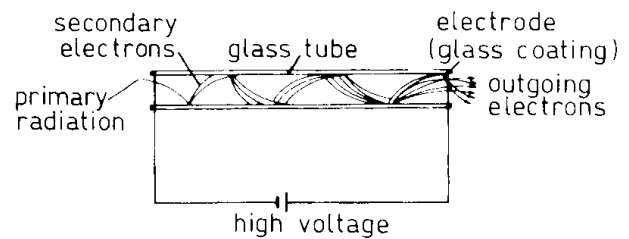


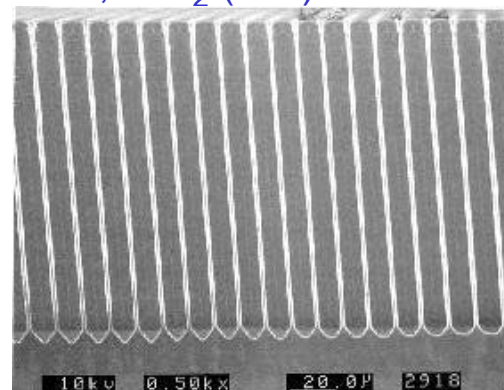
Fig. 5.6. Microphotograph of microchannels [384].



(Philips Photonics)

- + fast signal (transit time spread ≈ 50 ps),
- + little sensitive to B-field (0.1 T)
- + 2-dimensional readout possible
- limited life time (0.5 C/cm²)
- limited rate capability (μ A/cm²)

New development: MCP on Si, SiO₂ (+...) basis



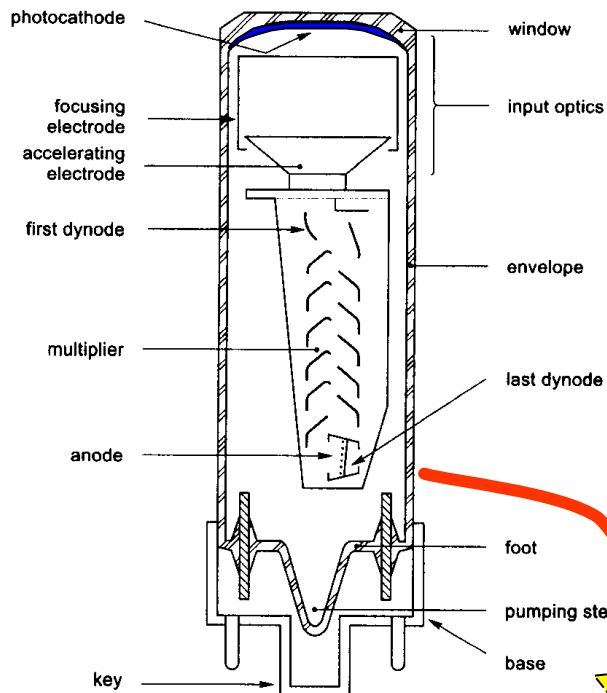
www.nanosciences.com

Precise photolithographic manufacturing
Very low background rate
chemically inert

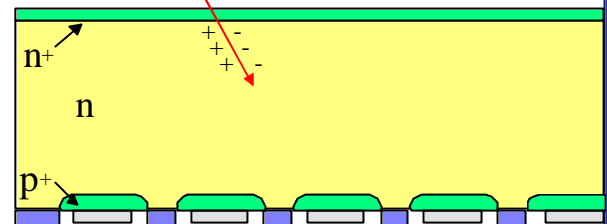
Hybrid Photo Diodes



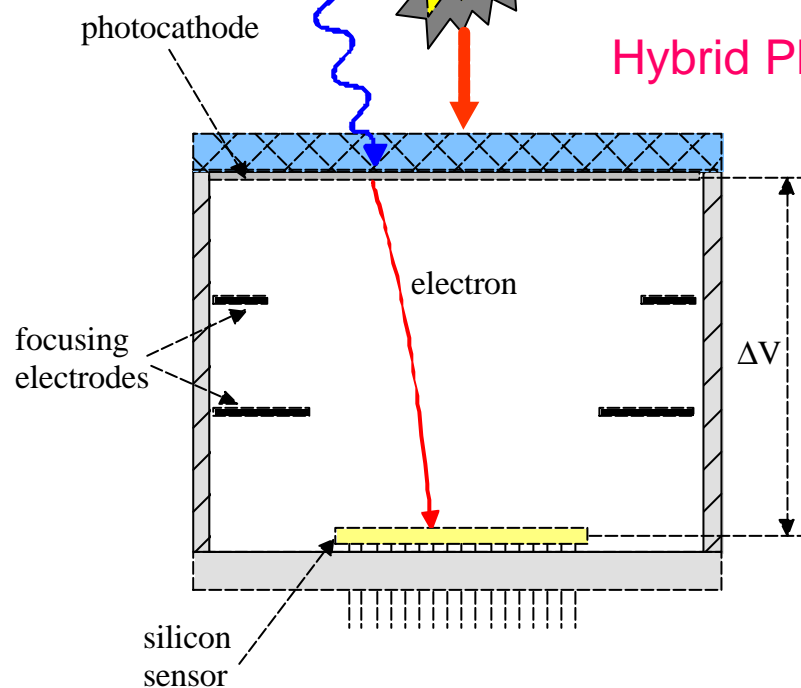
Photo Multiplier Tube



Silicon Sensor



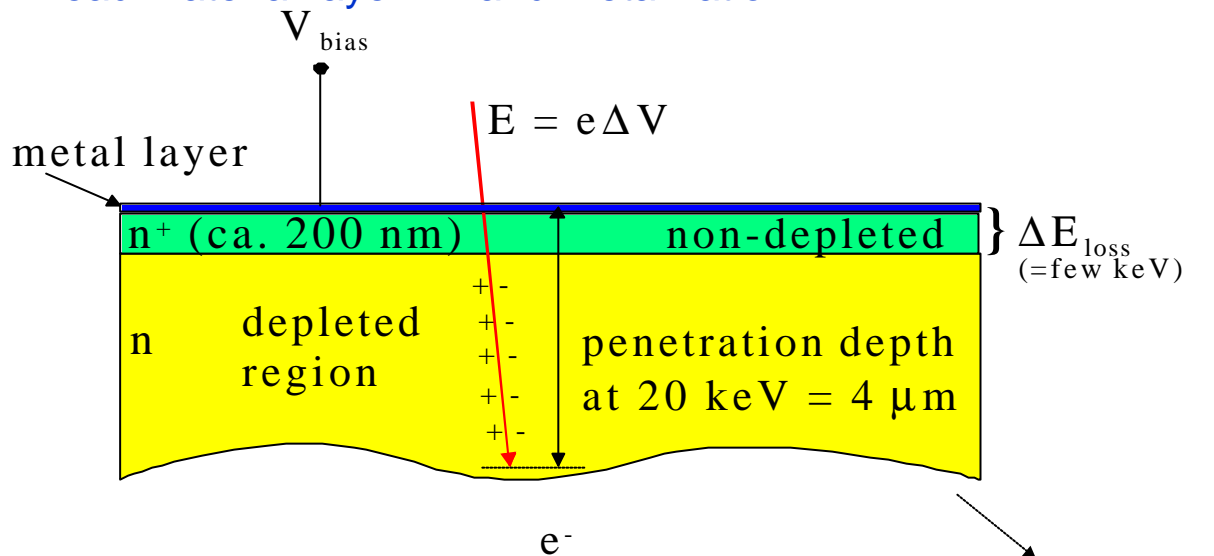
Hybrid Photo Diode



Why use a Si sensor ?



- $W_{e/h}(\text{Silicon}) = 3.6 \text{ eV}$
- But no internal amplification, i.e. gain $G_{Si} = 1$
- Dead material layer: n^+ and metalization

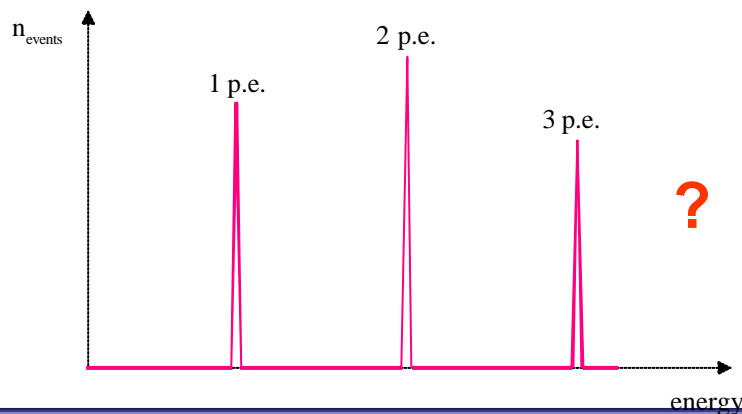


- Gain of the HPD: $G_{HPD} \approx \frac{e\Delta V - E_{\text{loss}}}{W_{e/h}}$
- Example: $\Delta V = 20\text{kV}, E_{\text{loss}} = 2\text{keV} \rightarrow G_{HPD} = 5000$

fast signals
 $t_{\text{rise}} \leq 1\text{ns}$

→ Expected energy resolution (m photoelectrons):

$$S_{\text{int}}^m = \sqrt{m \cdot F \cdot G_{HPD}} = \sqrt{m \cdot 22} \text{ e} \quad \text{with } F_{Si} = 0.1$$



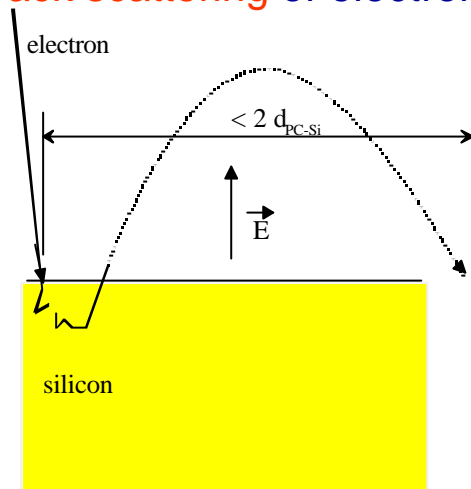
But...



- Electronic noise, typically of the order of ≥ 500 e

$$s_{total}^2 = s_{int.}^2 + s_{E_{loss}}^2 + s_{elec.}^2 \gg s_{int.}^2$$

- Back scattering of electrons from Si surface

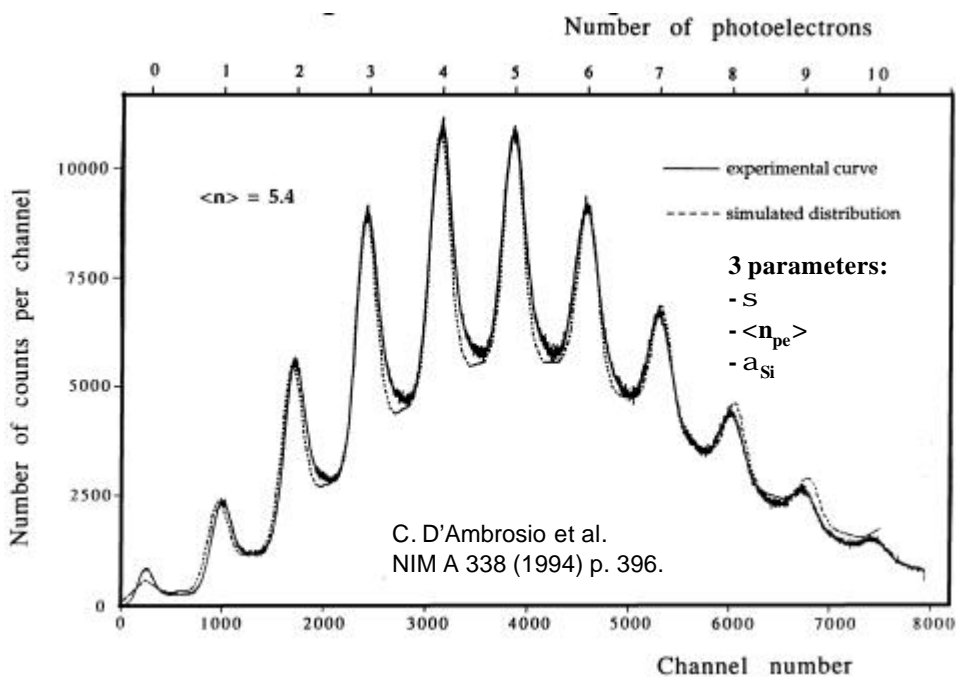


back scattering
probability at $E \approx 20$ kV

$$a_{Si} \approx 0.2$$

20% of the electrons
deposit only a fraction
 $0 \leq \epsilon < 1$ of their initial energy
in the Si sensor.

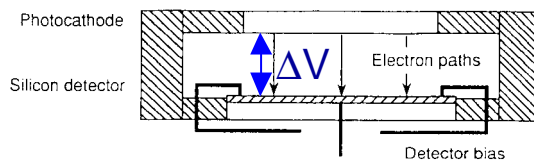
→ continuous background
(low energy side)



HPD Designs

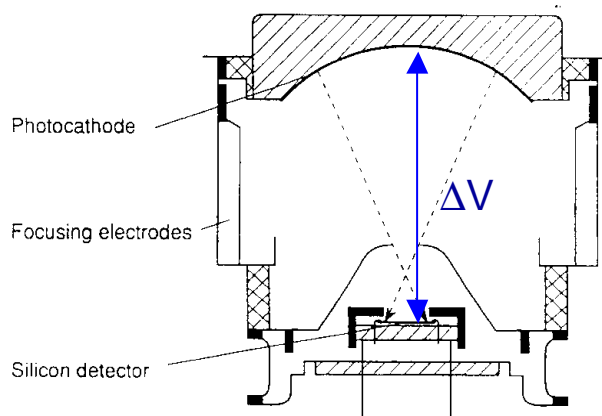


proximity focusing (i.e. no focussing)



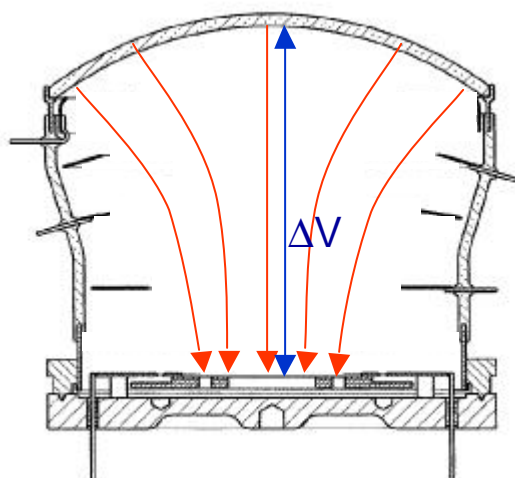
- demagnification = 1
- $A_{\text{sensitive}} = A_{\text{silicon}}$
- small gap → insensitive to B-field

cross focusing



- demagnification > 1
- $A_{\text{sensitive}} > A_{\text{silicon}}$
- optics allows very good spatial resolution
- typical small pin cushion distortion for large r
- large gap → sensitive to B-field

fountain focusing



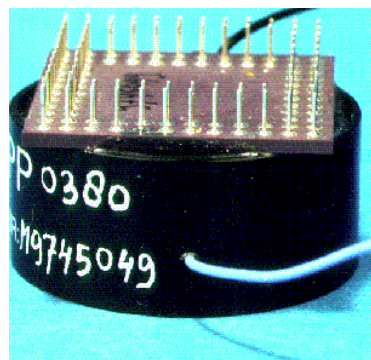
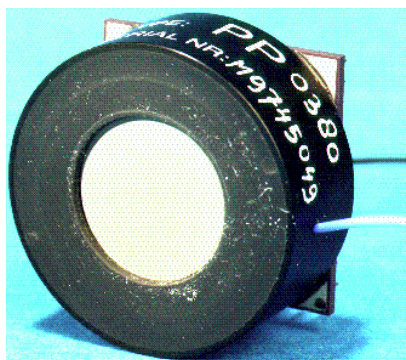
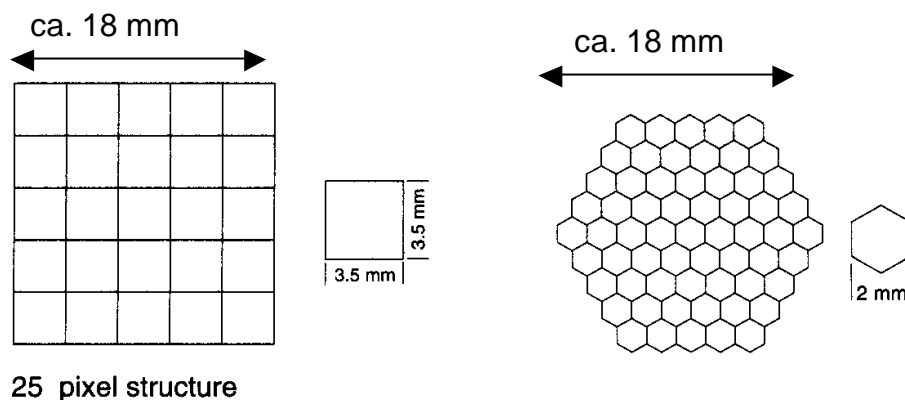
- demagnification > 1
- $A_{\text{sensitive}} > A_{\text{silicon}}$
- uniform mapping but lower spatial resolution
- large gap → sensitive to B-field

Commercially available HPD's



- **DEP (Delft Electronic Products, NL)**

- various single pixel (upto 40 mm Ø)
- and multi pixel (7, 25, 61) HPD's, prox. focused
- electronics not enclosed in tubes

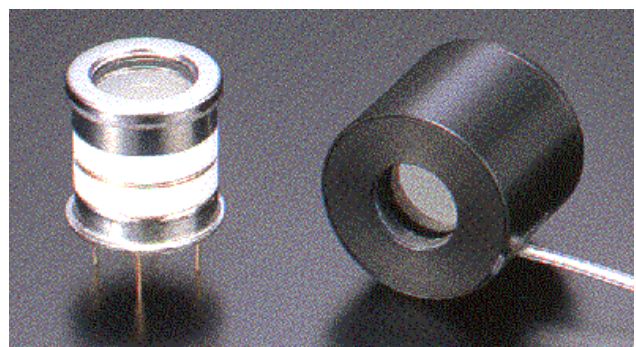


DEP 61 pixel
HPD

Problem: sensitive
area fraction « 50%

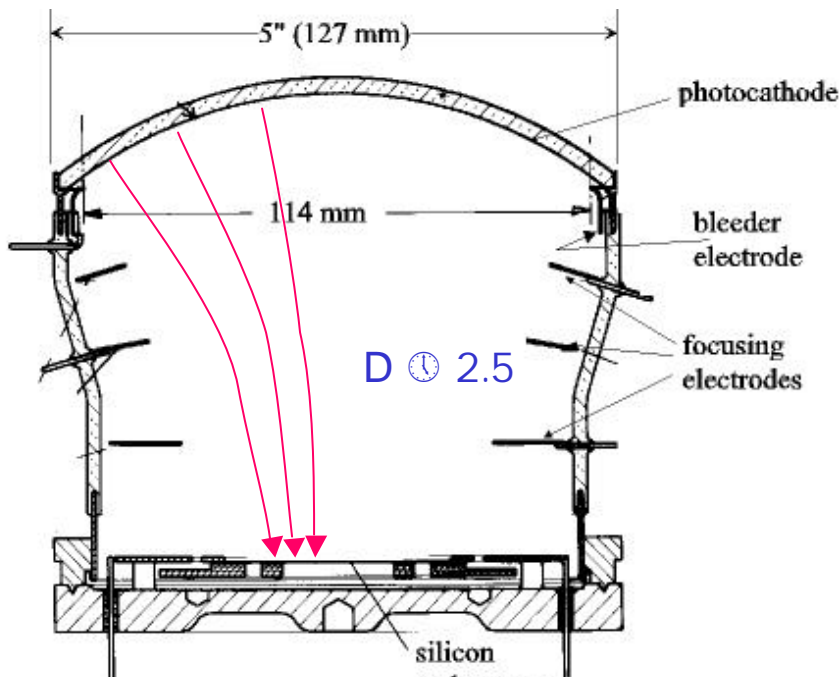
- **Hamamatsu (Japan)**

- only single pixel Si PIN diode or APD, proximity focused
- S20 or GaAsP(Cs) photocathode
- sensitive area: 8 mm Ø
- gain: 1600 (PIN), 65000 (APD)
- active area fraction: 16%

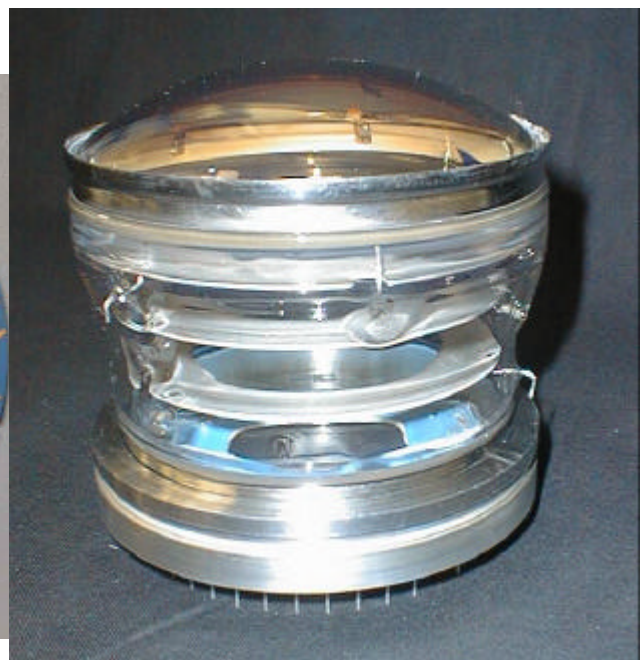
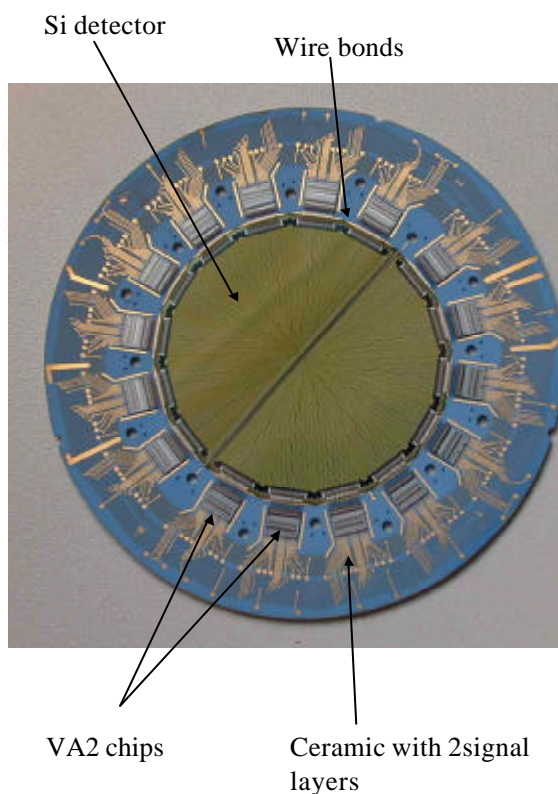


5" Pad-HPD prototype

developed for the LHCb RICH



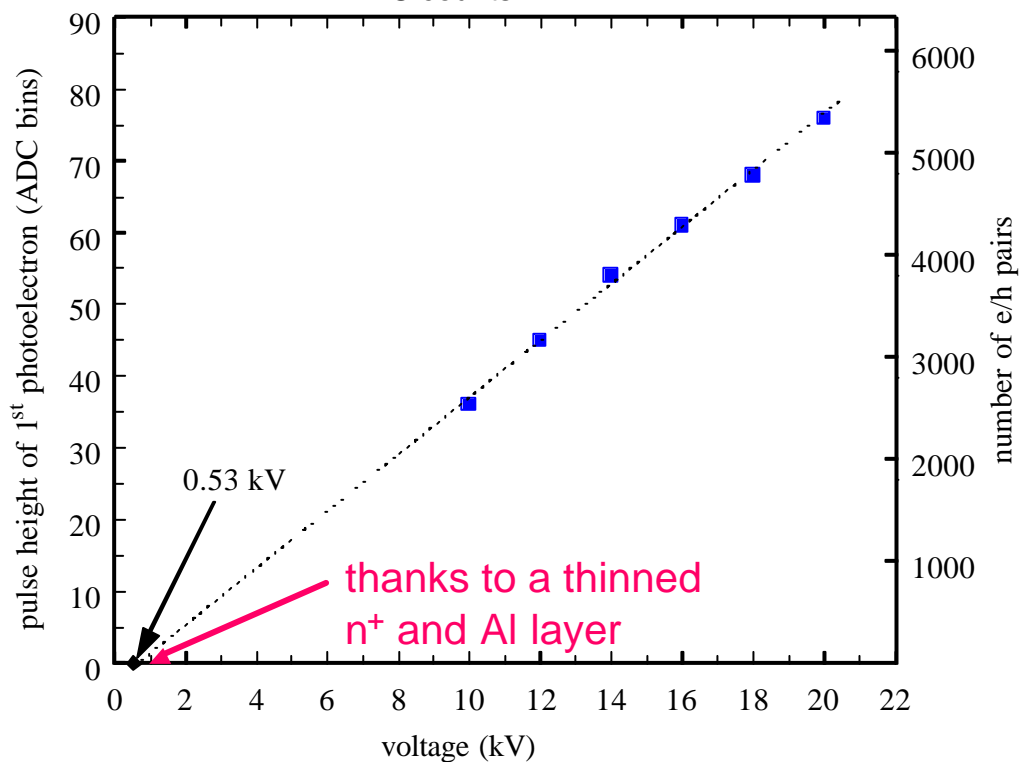
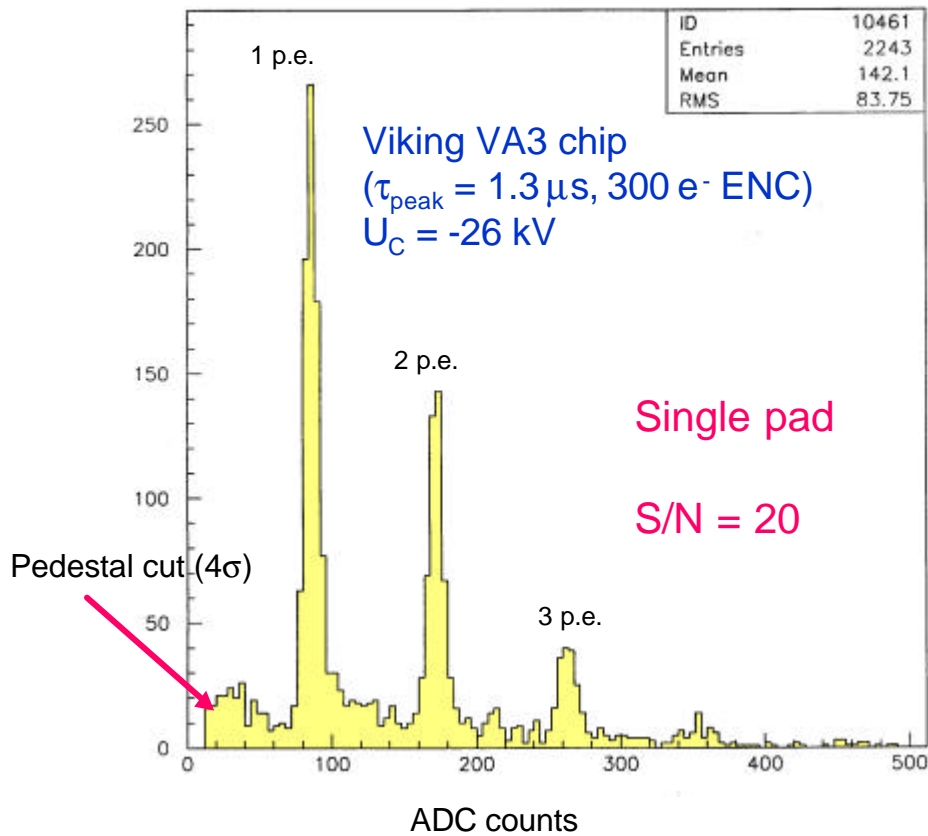
- fountain-focused
- 2048 pixels
- electronics enclosed in vacuum envelope.
- active area 91%

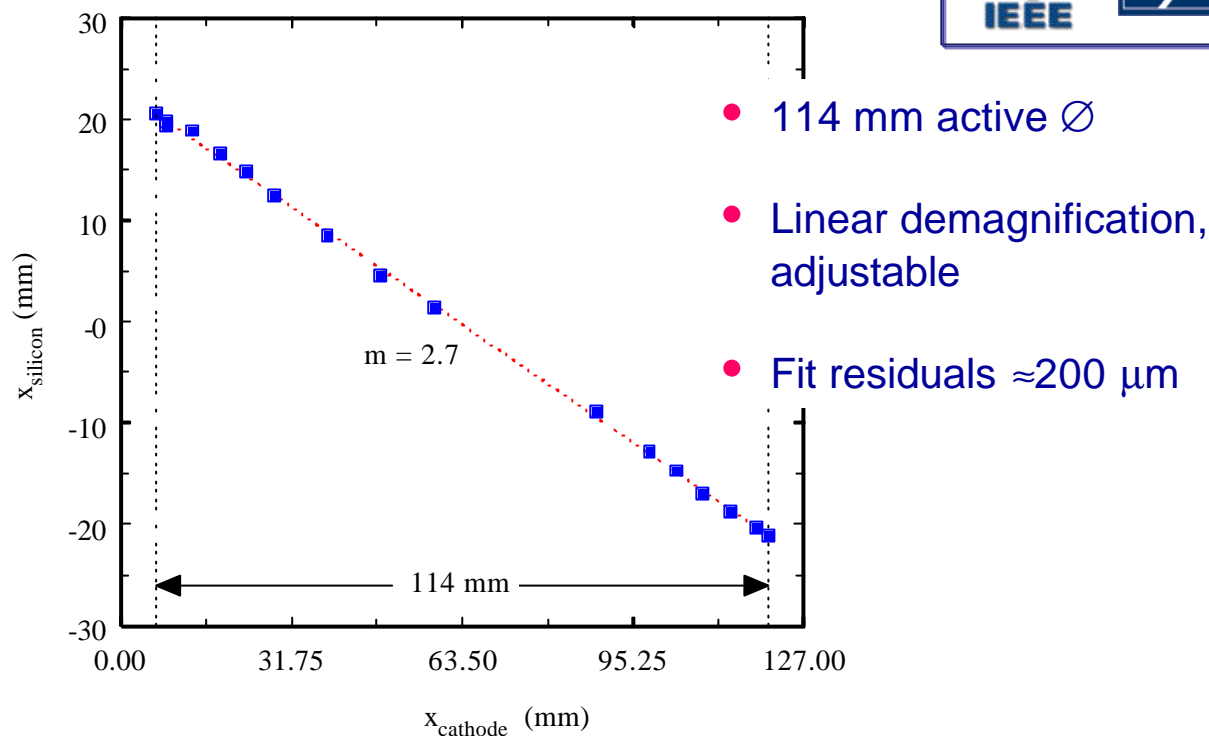


Pad size 1 x 1 mm²

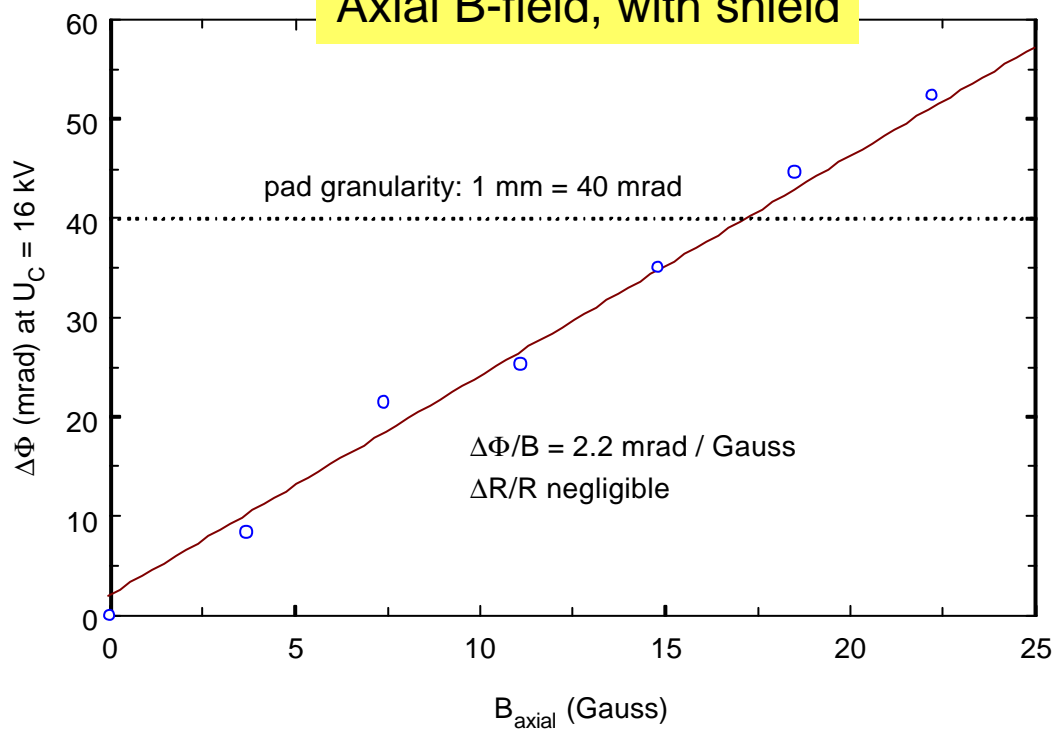
A. Braem et al., NIM A 442 (2000) 128

◆ Signals on the Si sensor





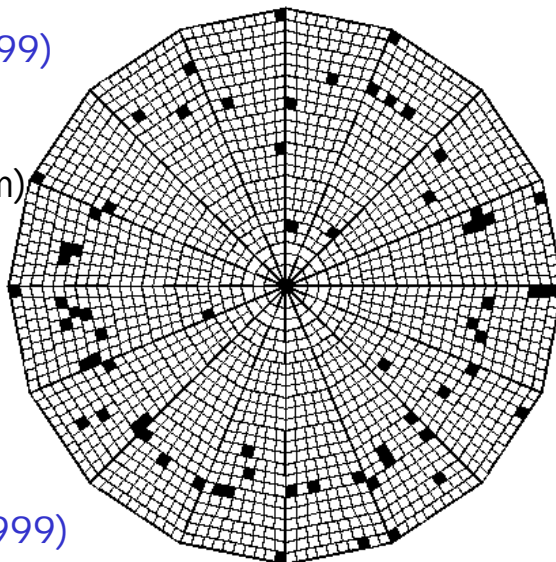
Axial B-field, with shield



Testbeam (Sep. 1999)
1 Pad HPD

C_4F_{10} radiator (1.8m)

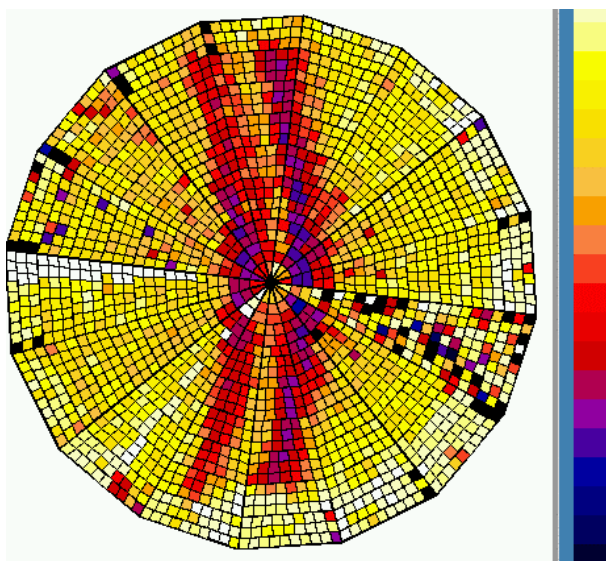
Single event



Testbeam (Nov. 1999)
2 Pad HPD

Aerogel radiator

Multi-event display
($\pi + p$ at 8 GeV)



M. Alemi et al., LHCb note 2000-76 RICH, in preparation