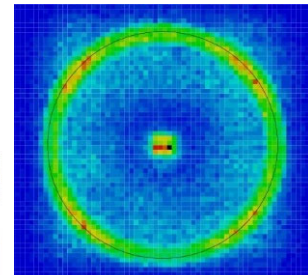
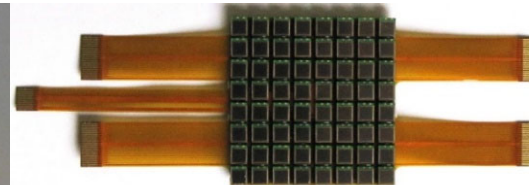
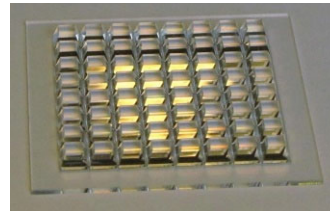
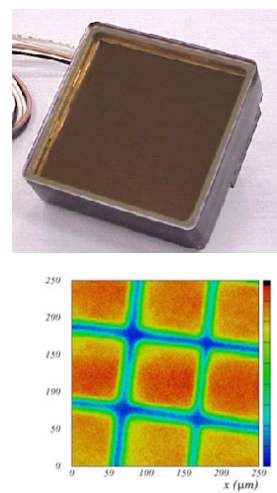
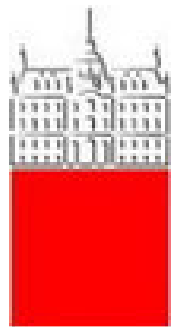


The 2025 International Workshop on the High Energy Circular Electron Positron Collider

Nov 5 – 10, 2025, Guangzhou Dongfang Hotel

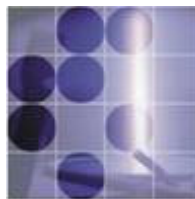


Review of photon detectors

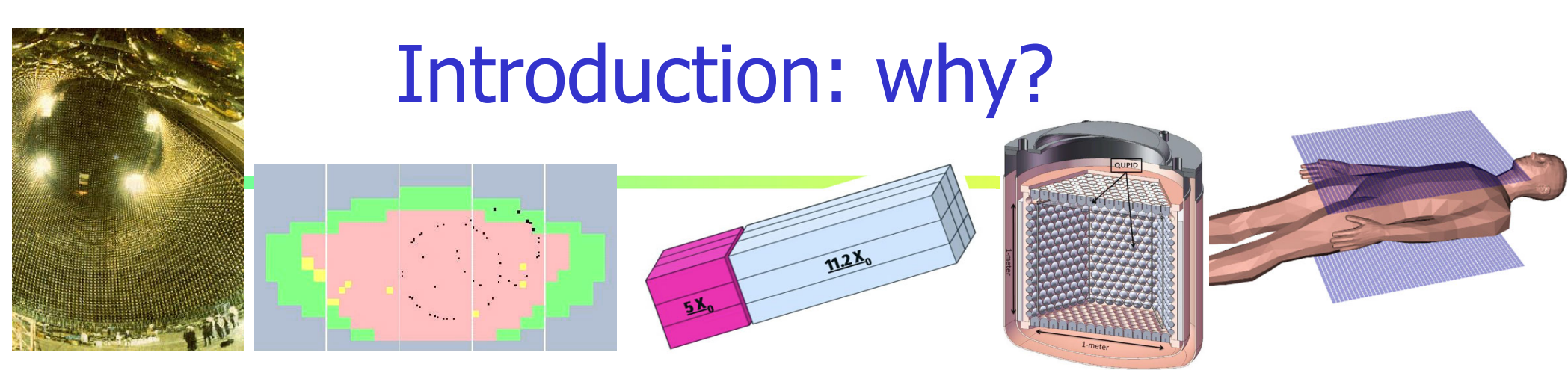


Peter Križan

University of Ljubljana and J. Stefan Institute



Introduction: why?



Photon detectors are at the heart of most experiments in particle and nuclear physics. Moreover, they are also finding applications in other scientific fields (chemistry, biology, medical imaging) and are ubiquitous in society in general.

New environments where we need to detect light (in particular low light levels) → need advances in existing technology and transformative, novel ideas to meet the demanding requirements.

Two main lines of R&D to be pursued, as identified by the ECFA Detector R&D Roadmap:

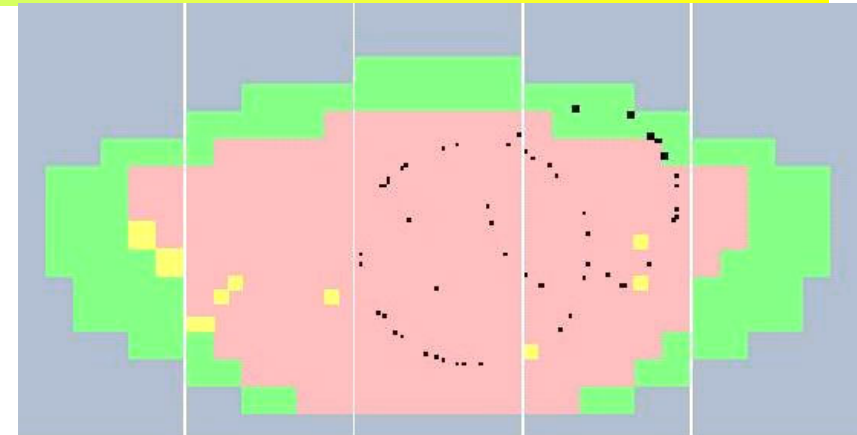
- Enhance timing resolution and spectral range of photon detectors.
- Develop photosensors for extreme environments.

This talk: photosensors will be discussed in this spirit; also: the main emphasis will be on low light level detection since this is highly relevant for PID applications.

Photo sensors for particle identification

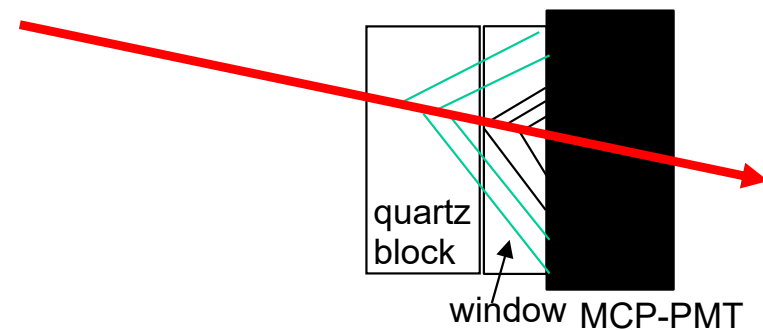
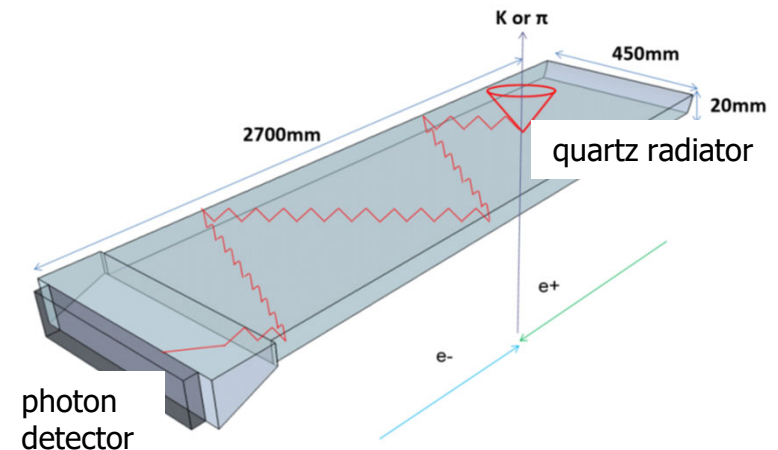
RICH detectors:

- Detection of single photons, spread over $\sim$ large area
- Few photons: need high detection efficiency and low noise.
- Spatial resolution: sensors with fine granularity
- Radiation tolerant for extreme environments
- Resistance for extended exposure to light
- Overlapping rings from pile-up events: precise timing is an important advantage.



Time-of-Flight detectors:

- Fast for TOF resolution
- For Cherenkov photon based TOF: again, few photons, need high detection efficiency and low noise.
- Radiation tolerance and resistance to extended light exposure
- Spatial resolution for time-of-propagation devices



Contents

Introduction: why and what kind of photosensor?

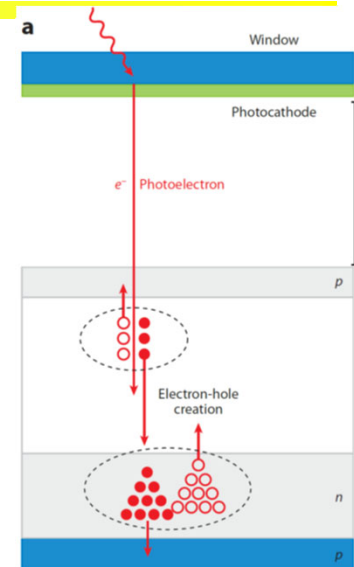
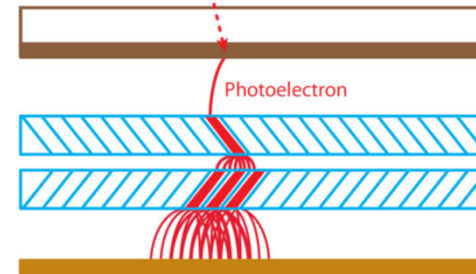
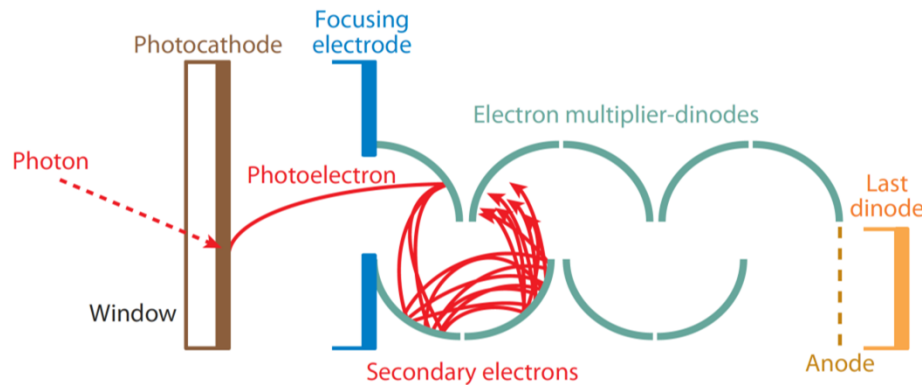
Vacuum-based photodetectors

Solid state low light level photosensors

Gas-based photodetectors

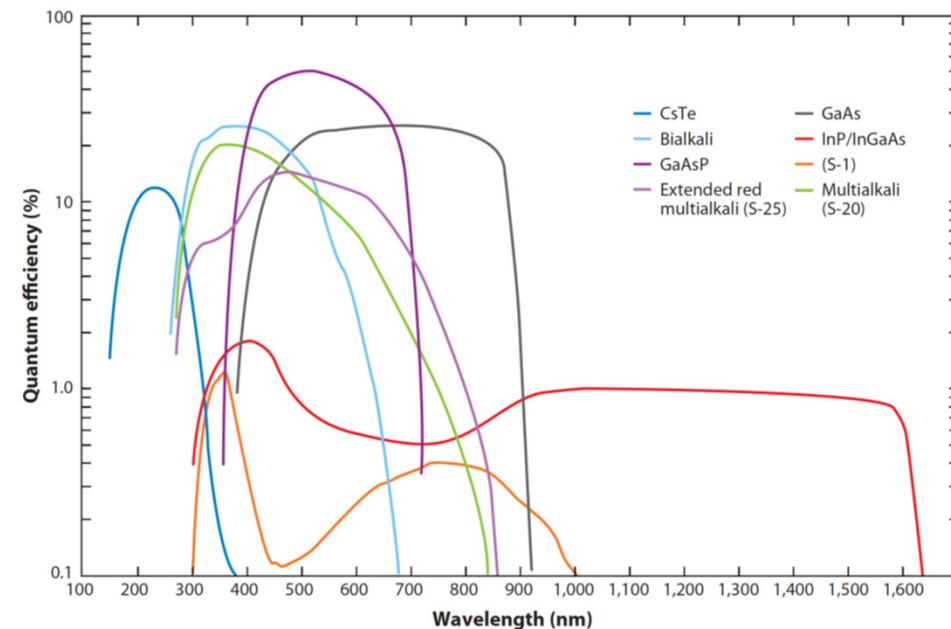
Summary and outlook

Vacuum-based photodetectors

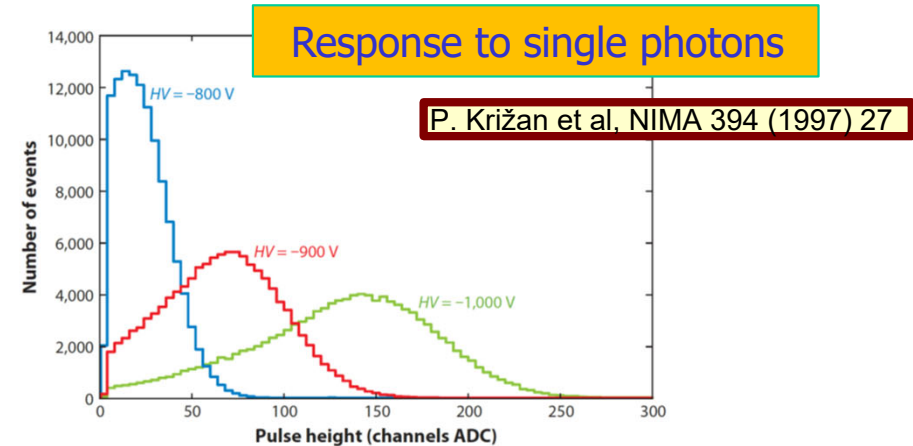
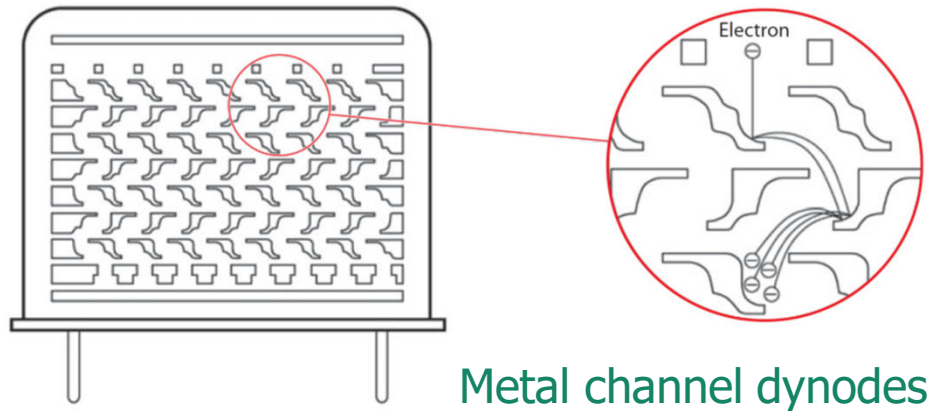


Generic steps:

- Photon $\rightarrow$ photoelectron conversion
- Photoelectron collection in the multiplication system
- Multiplication (dynodes, microchannel plates, high E field + Si)
- Signal collection



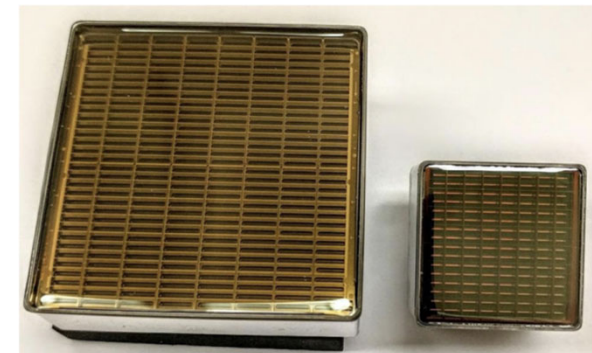
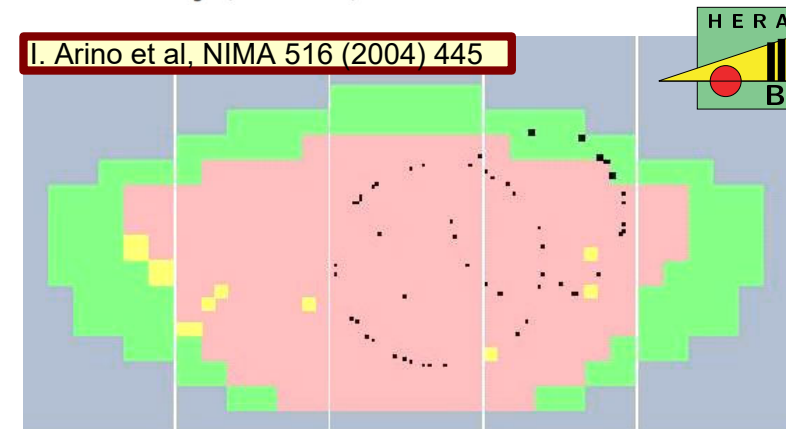
Multianode photomultiplier tubes (MAPMTs)



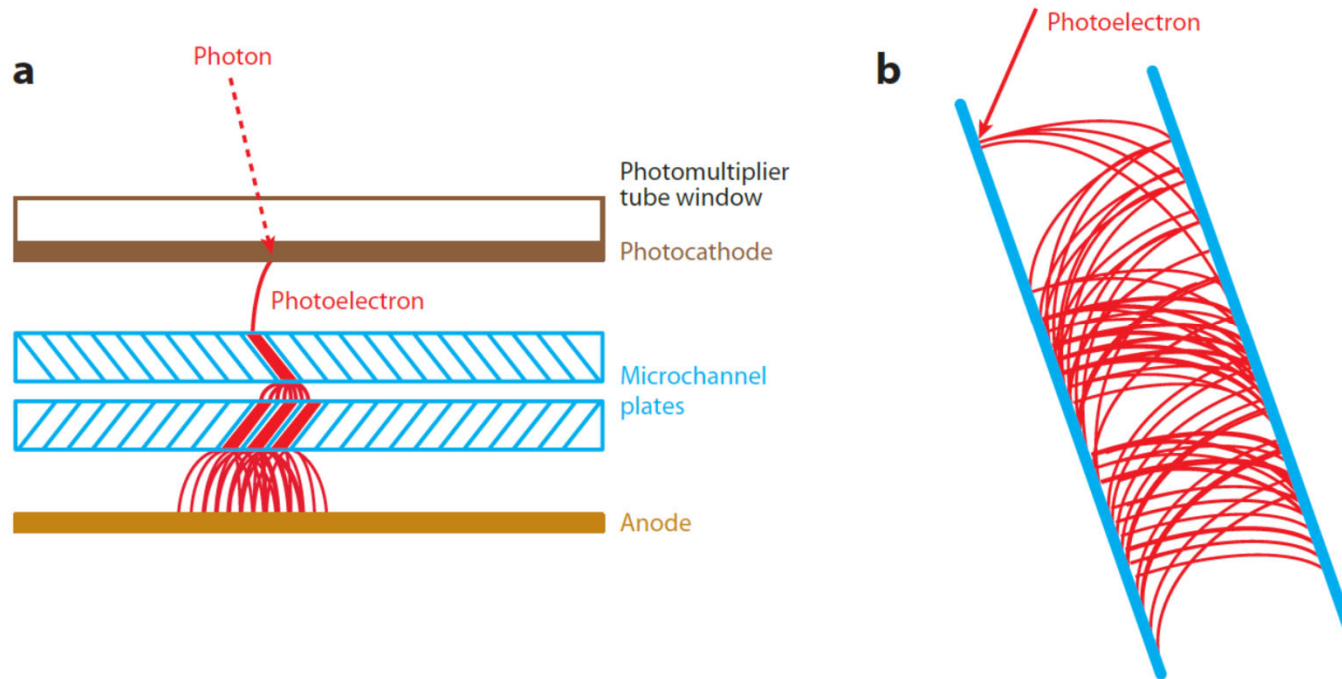
Excellent performance (excellent single photon detection efficiency, very low noise, low cross-talk), best choice for large areas with no B field

Pioneered in the HERA-B RICH (Hamamatsu R5900), later used in RICH detectors of COMPASS, CLASS12 and GlueX

Recent use in the upgraded LHCb RICH detectors (R12699 and R11265); planned for CBM RICH



Micro Channel Plate PMT (MCP-PMT)



Multiplication step: a continuous dynode – a micro-channel

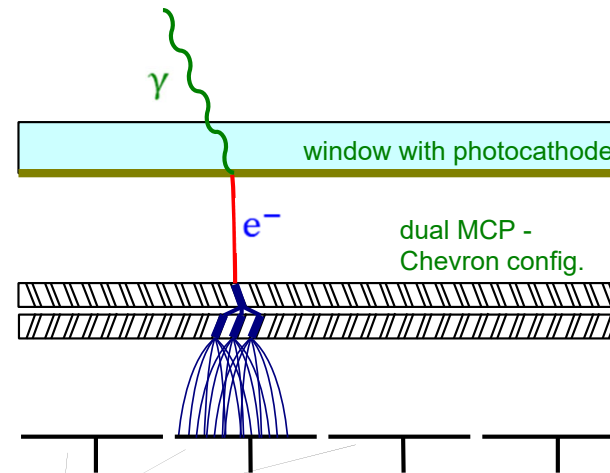
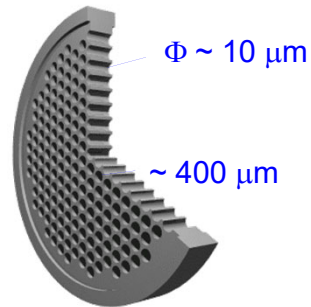
Micro Channel Plate PMT (MCP-PMT)

Similar to ordinary PMT – the dynode structure is replaced by MCPs.

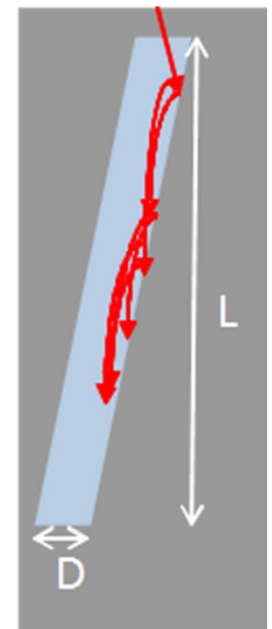
Basic characteristics:

- Gain $\sim 10^6 \rightarrow$ single photon sensitivity
- Collection efficiency $\sim 60\%$
- Small thickness, high field $\rightarrow$ small TTS
- Works in magnetic field
- Segmented anode $\rightarrow$ position sensitive

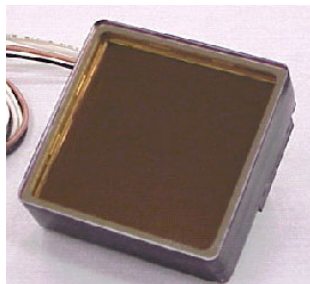
MCP is a thin glass plate with an array of holes ($<10\text{-}100\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ diameter) - a continuous dynode structure



Anodes $\rightarrow$ can be segmented according to application needs



MCP gain depends on L/D ratio – typically 1000 for L/D=40



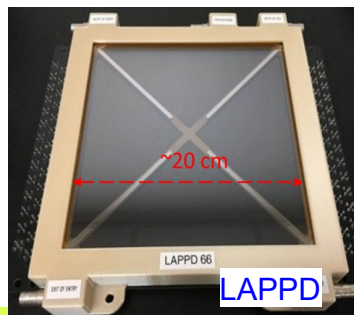
PHOTONIS



HAMAMATSU

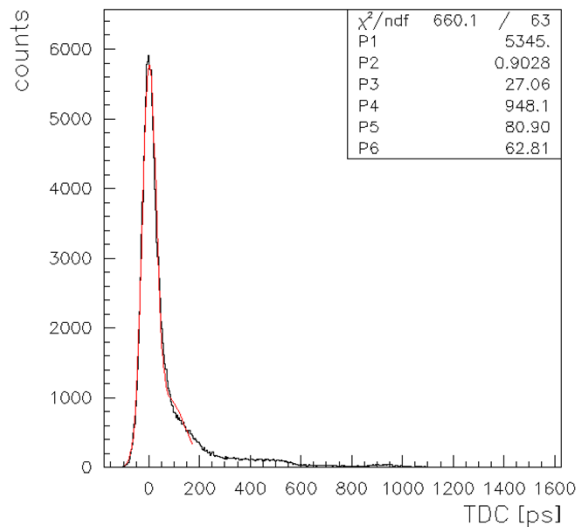


PHOTEK

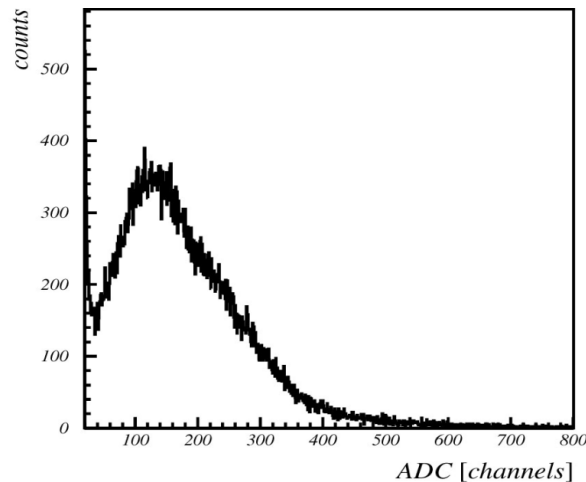


LAPPD

MCP-PMT: single photon pulse height and timing



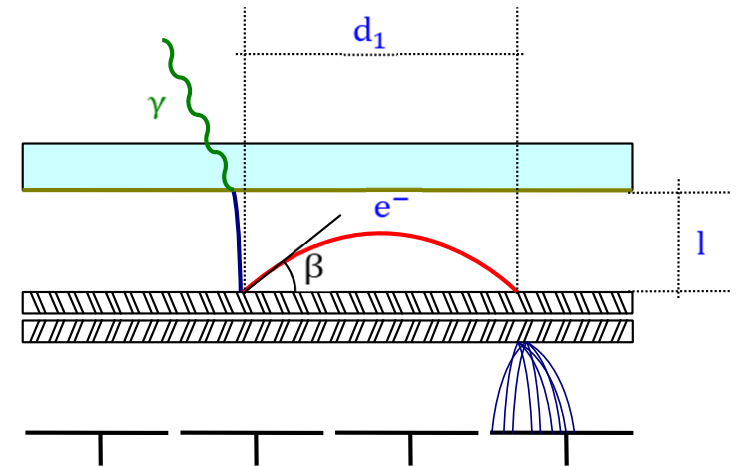
Very thin $\rightarrow$ very fast
Typical single photon timing distribution with a narrow main peak ($\sigma \sim 40$ ps) and contributions from photoelectron elastic (flat distribution) and inelastic back-scattering.



Gain in a single channel saturates at high gains due to space charge effect $\rightarrow$ peaking distribution for single photoelectrons

Photoelectron back-scattering produces a rather long tail in timing distribution and position resolution.

Photoelectron backscattering reduces collection efficiency and gain, and contributes to cross-talk in multi-anode PMTs. Improves in B field perp to PMT.



S.Korpar et al, Nucl. Instrum. Meth. A 595 (2008) 169

MCP-PMT modeling: photoelectron in a uniform electric field

Photoelectrons travel from photocathode to the electron multiplier (uniform electric field $\frac{U}{l}$, initial energy $E_0 \ll Ue_0$):

- photoelectron range

$$d_0 \approx 2l \sqrt{\frac{E_0}{Ue_0}} \sin(\alpha)$$

- and maximal travel time (sideway start)

$$t_0 \approx l \sqrt{\frac{2m_e}{Ue_0}}$$

- time difference between downward and sideways initial direction

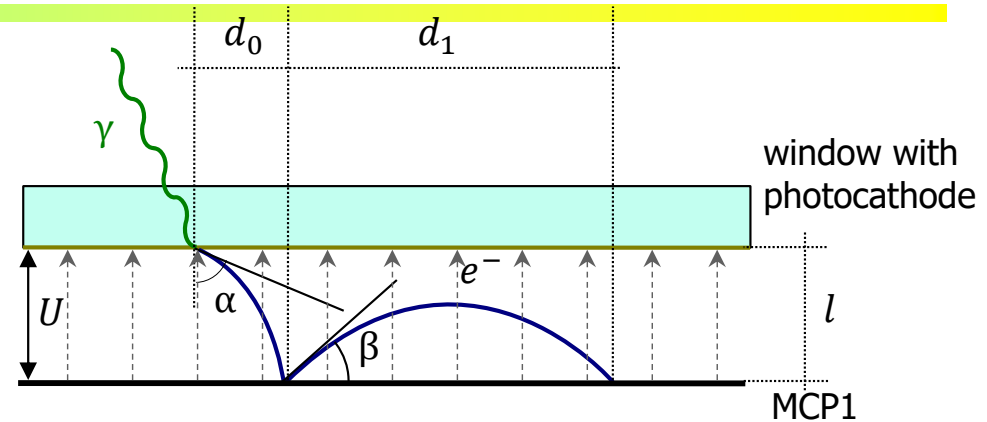
$$\Delta t \approx t_0 \sqrt{\frac{E_0}{Ue_0}}$$

Example ($U = 200 \text{ V}$, $E_0 = 1 \text{ eV}$, $l = 6 \text{ mm}$) photoelectron:

- max range $d_0 \approx 0.8 \text{ mm}$
- p.e. transit time $t_0 \approx 1.4 \text{ ns}$
- $\Delta t \approx 100 \text{ ps}$

backscattering:

- max range $d_1 = 2l = 12 \text{ mm}$
- max delay $t_1 = 2.8 \text{ ns}$



S.Korpar et al, NIMA 595 (2008) 169

Backscattering delay and range (maximum for elastic scattering):

- maximum range vs. angle

$$d_1 = 2l \sin(2\beta)$$

maximum range for backscattered photoelectron is twice the photocathode – first electrode distance

- maximum delay vs. angle

$$t_1 = 2t_0 \sin(\beta)$$

maximum delay is twice the photoelectron travel time

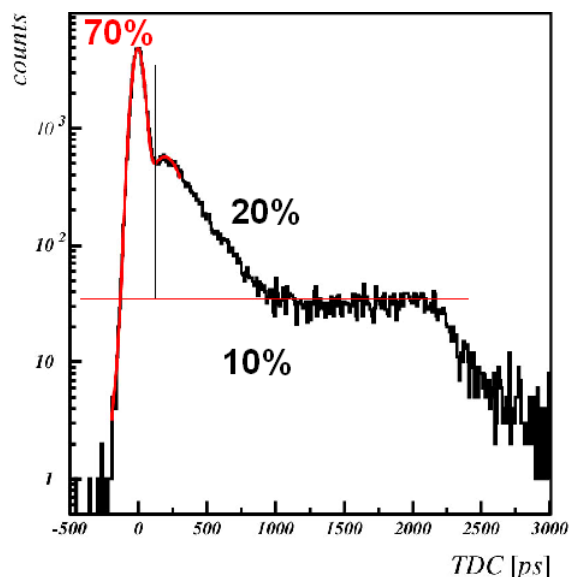
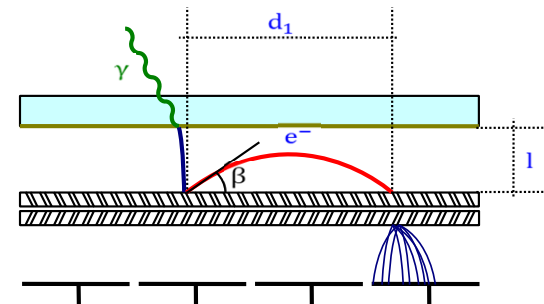
- time of arrival of elastically scattered photoelectrons: flat distribution up to max $t_1 = 2t_0$

- Note: the maximum range is dramatically reduced in high B-field perpendicular to the MCP-PMT window

S. Korpar, Talk at PD07

S. Korpar, submitted to Nucl. Instrum. Meth. A

MCP PMT modeling

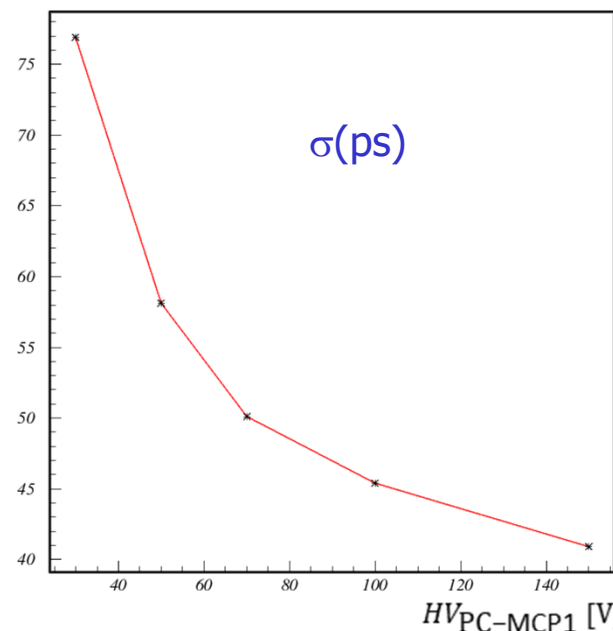


Tails understood (elastic and inelastic scattering of photoelectrons off the MCP), can be significantly reduced by:

- decreased photocathode-MCP distance and
 - increased photocathode-MCP voltage difference
- prompt signal ~ 70%
 - short delay ~ 20%
 - ~ 10% uniform distribution

Timing: Expect to improve with increased photocathode-MCP voltage difference as $\sqrt{HV_{PC-MCP1}}$

MCP-PMT LAPPD – timing vs PC-MCP1 voltage →

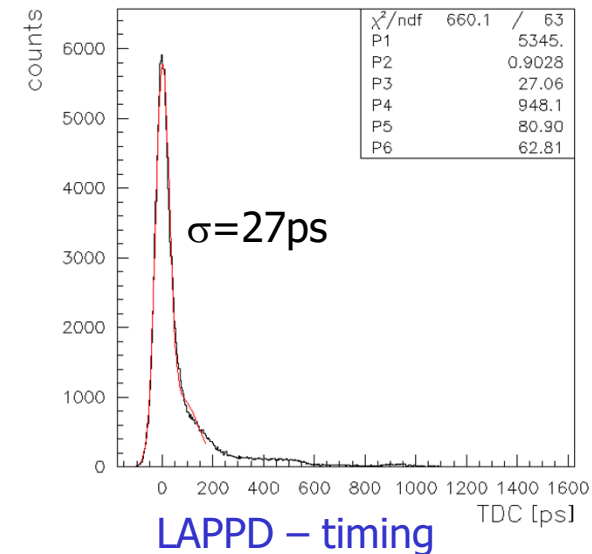
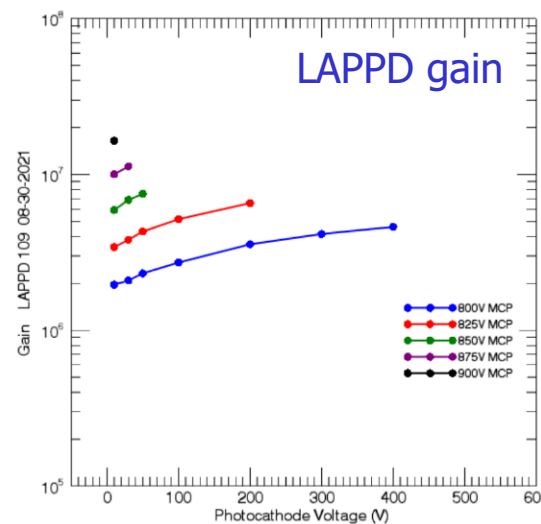
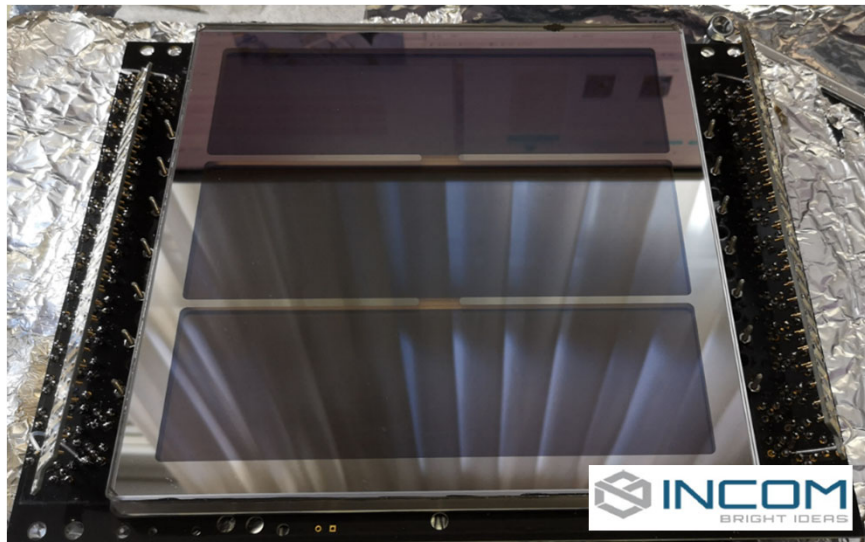
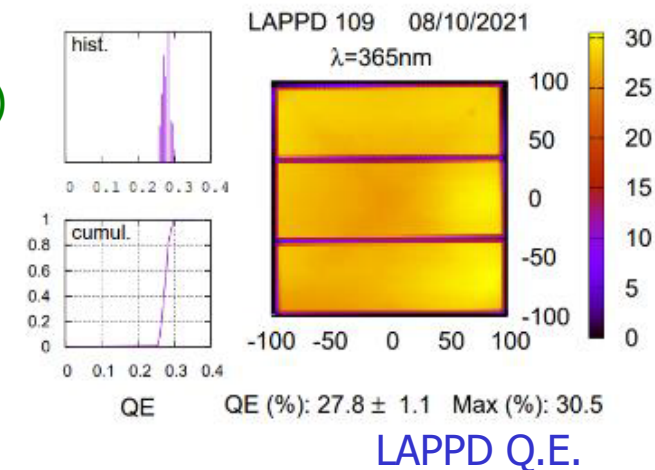


R. Dolenec et al, Nucl. Instrum. Meth. A 1069 (2024) 169864

LAPPD (large area picosecond photodetector) Gen II

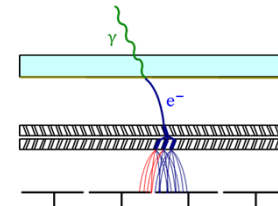
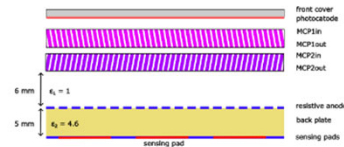
Characteristics (Incom):

- MCPs with a novel, cheaper production method (ALD-coated glass)
- two parallel spacers (active fraction $\approx 97\%$)
- gain $\approx 5 \cdot 10^6$ @ ROP (825 V/MCP, 100 V on photocathode)
- peak QE $\approx 25\%$
- borosilicate back plate with interior resistive ground plane anode – 5 mm / 2mm thick
- capacitively coupled readout electrode
- size 230 mm x 220 mm x 22 mm (243 mm X 274 mm X 25.2 mm with mounting case)
- Dark Count rate @ ROP: ~ 70 kHz/cm² with 8×10^5 gain

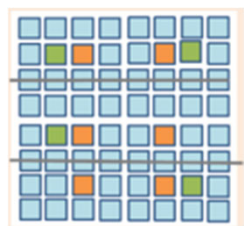


MCP PMT readout: capacitive coupling vs. internal anodes

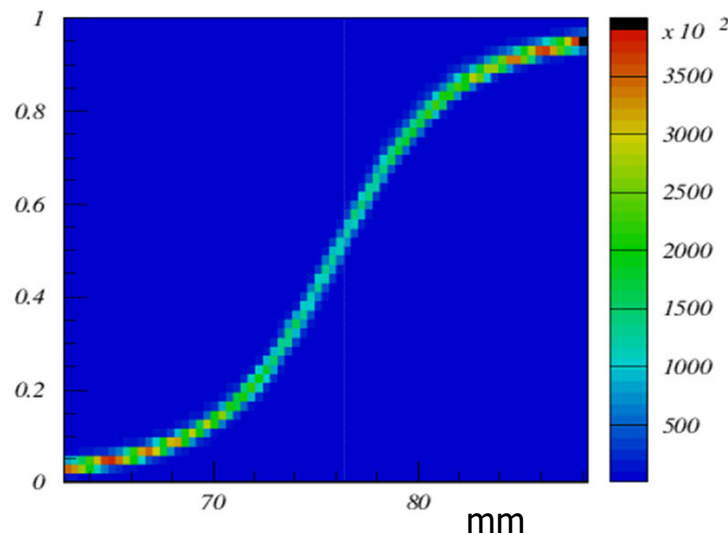
Secondary electrons spread out when traveling from the MCP-out electrode to the anode and can hit more than one anode → **Charge sharing**



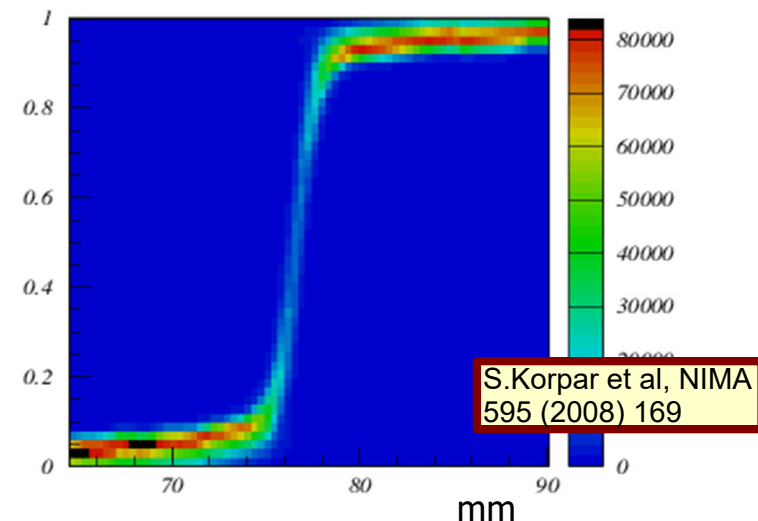
LAPPD (capacitive coupling through the backplane)



Fraction of charge detected by the right pad as a function of red laser spot position



BURLE/Photonis PLANACON (internal anodes)



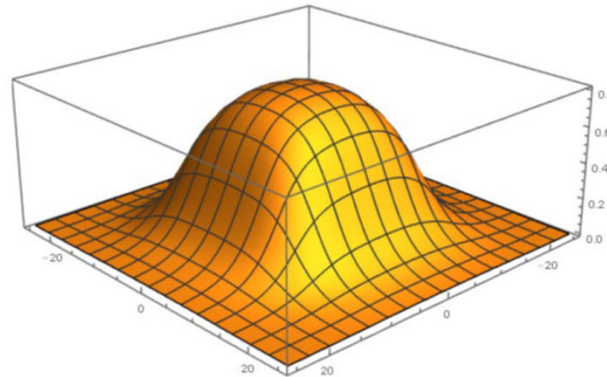
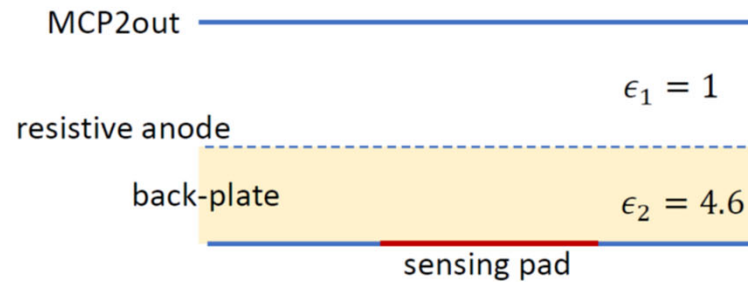
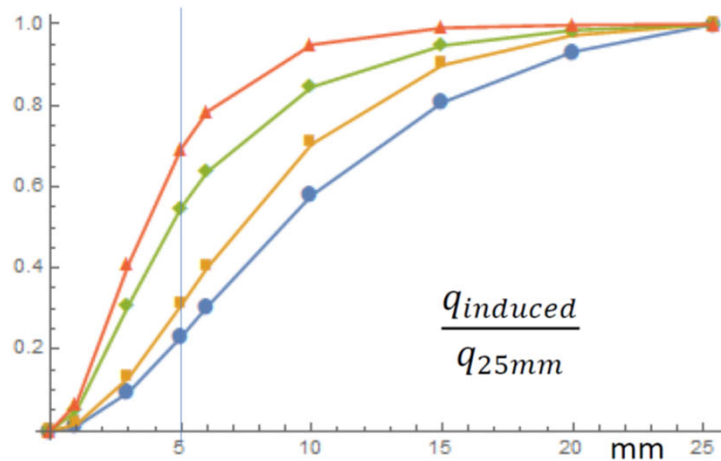
Capacitive coupling vs. internal anodes: signal spread comparison for two MCP PMTs with the same pad size, same range: **charge sharing is more effective in the case of capacitive coupling (induced charge spreads over larger area).**

Advantage or not? Depends on the usage

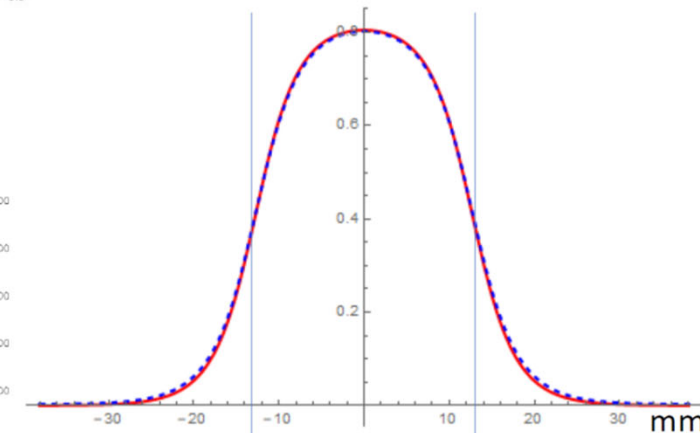
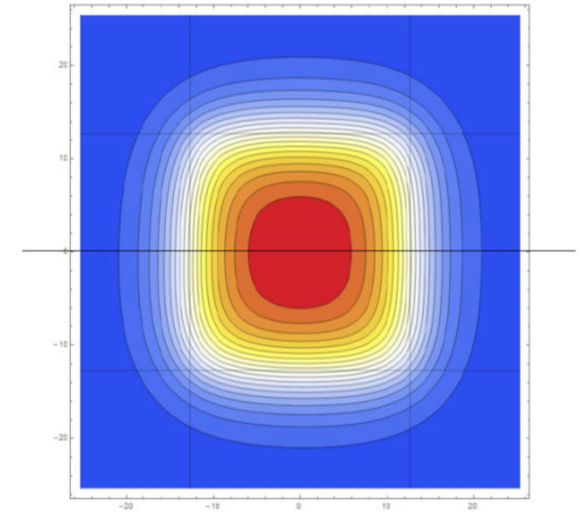
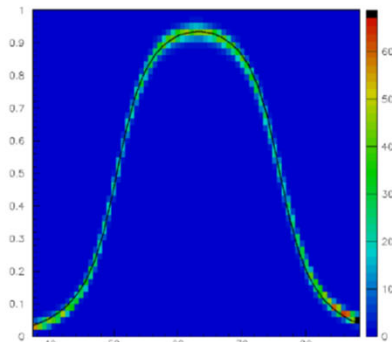
MCP PMT readout: capacitive coupling, modeling

LAPPD charge sharing

- calculation of charge sharing for different MCP2out-resistive anode/resistive anode-sensing electrode distances (6/5-measured, 2/5, 6/2, 2/2)
- fraction of the charge induced vs. square pad size when signal is produced in the centre of the pad



6/5
2/5
6/2
2/2

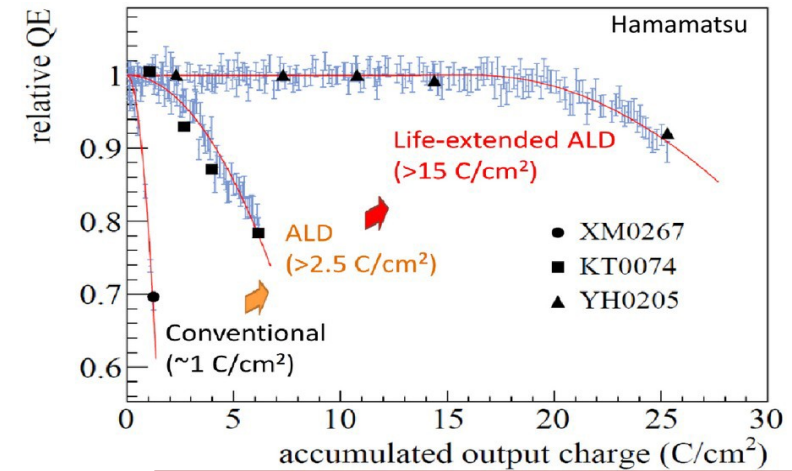
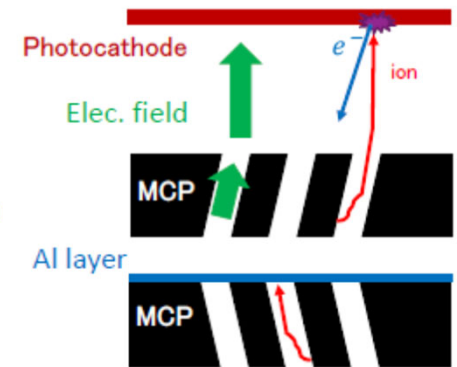


MCP PMT ageing

MCP PMTs: photo-cathode degradation due to ion feedback, main concern in high intensity experiments

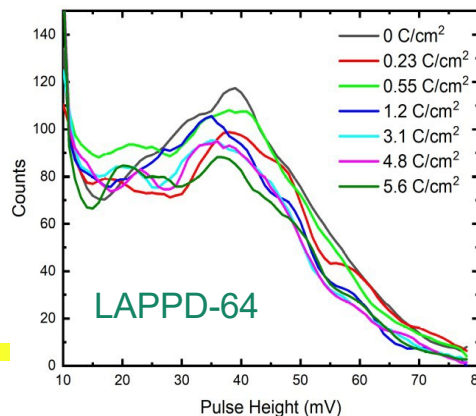
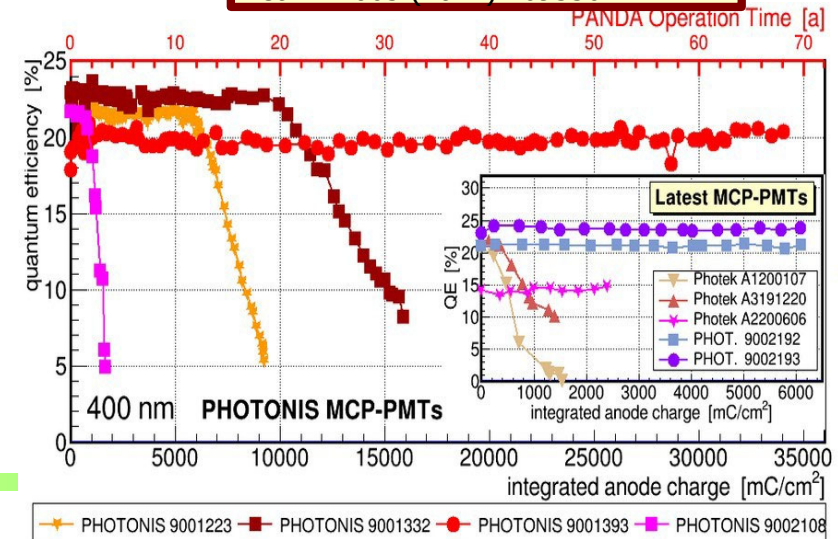
ALD (atomic layer deposition) coating of MCP pores $\rightarrow$ $\sim 100\times$ photo-cathode lifetime increase

- Hamamatsu 1-inch YH0205 (>20 C/cm²) [K. Inami, 2021]
- No QE degradation for Photonis MCP-PMT (R2D2) to >34 C/cm²
- Little QE degradation in LAPPD 8-inch up to 5.6 C/cm² [V. A. Chirayath, CPAD2021]



K. Inami, 2021, Talk at ECFA TF4 Symposium

A. Lehmann et al., Nucl. Instrum. Meth.A 1065 (2024) 169536



V.A. Chirayath et al.,
Talk at CPAD 2021

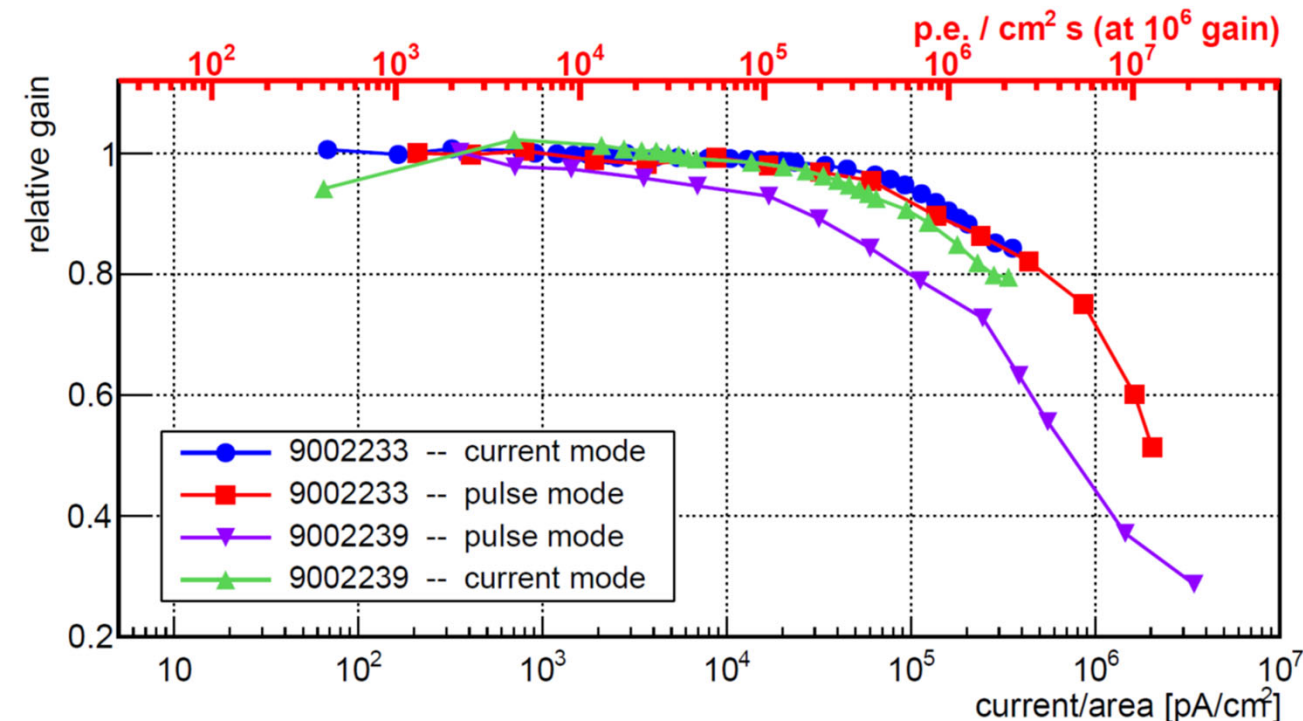
Nov 9, 2025

CEPC2025

MCP PMTs: high rate operation

High rate performance studies

A. Lehmann et al.,
Nucl. Instrum. Meth.A 1065 (2024) 169536



→ Gain degradation at fluxes of 10^7 photoelectrons per cm^2

Novel vacuum-based devices

MCP-PMT with CMOS anode

Conceptual design for 4D detection of single photons

Hybrid concept: MCP-PMT where the pixelated anode is an ASIC (CMOS) embedded inside the vacuum

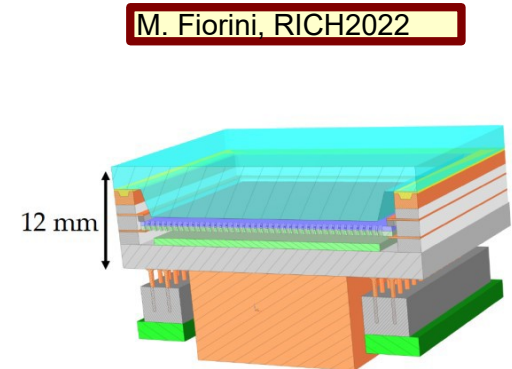
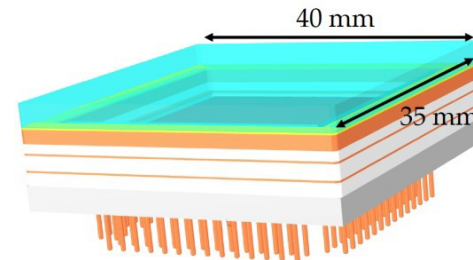
Prototype with Timepix4 ASIC as anode (array of 23k pixels)

Envisaged performance

<100 ps time resolution and 5-10 μm spatial resolution

Rate capability of >100 MHz/cm² (<2.5 Ghits/s @ 7 cm² area)

Low gain ($\sim 10^4$) operation possible $\rightarrow$ x100 lifetime increase



Tynodes ($\rightarrow$ Time Photon Counter)

Transmission mode dynode $\rightarrow$ tynode

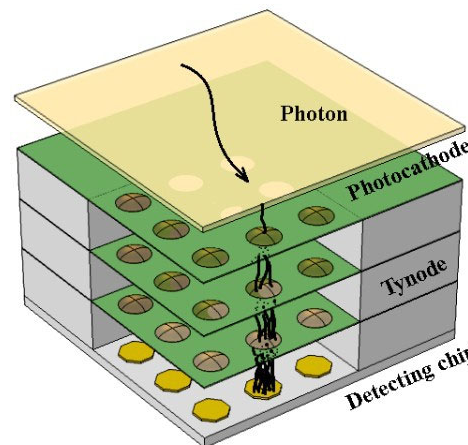
Fabrication of tynodes (MgO ALD, diamond) using MEMS technology

"Anode" is a CMOS chip (e.g., TimePix)

Very promising properties

Very compact; high B-field tolerance; very fast

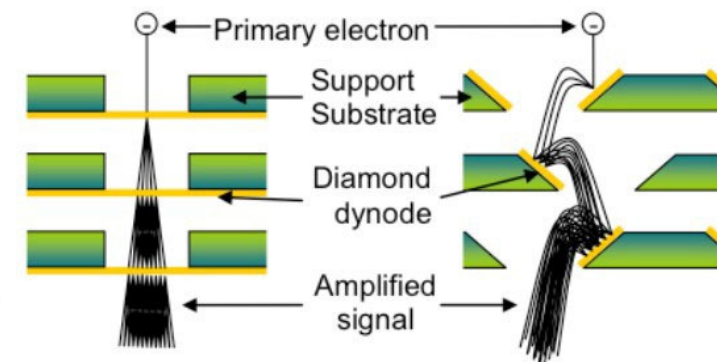
Very low DCR; very good 2D spatial resolution



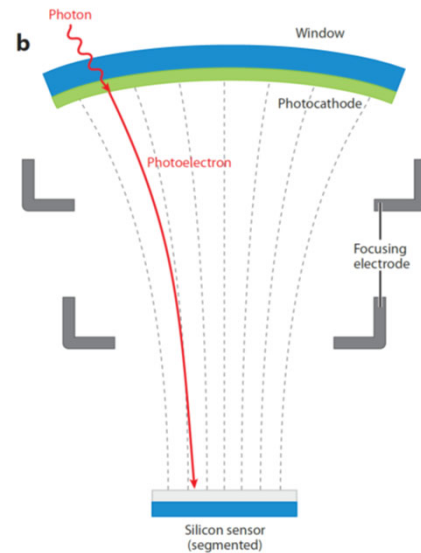
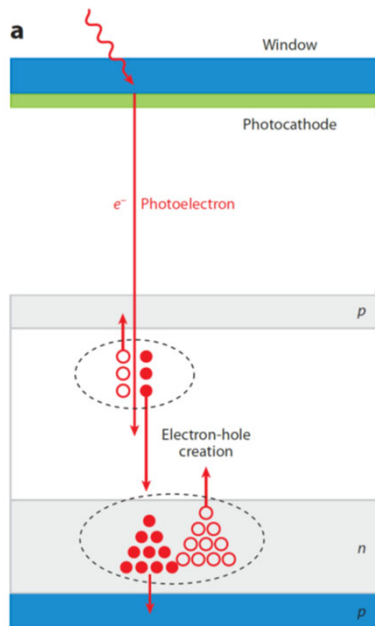
H. van der Graaf et al., NIM A847 (2017) 148

Transmission

Reflection



Hybrid photodetectors (HPD, HAPD)



Focusing and proximity focusing configurations

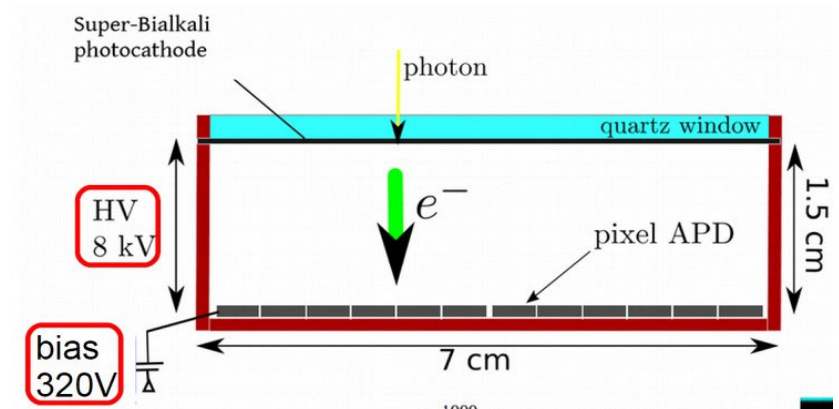


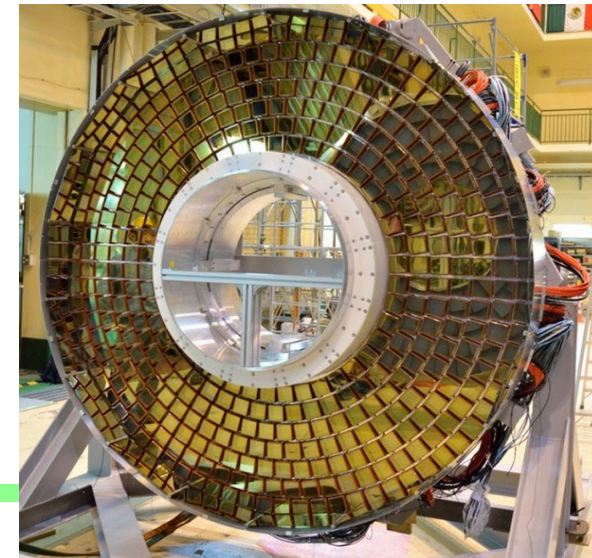
Photo-electron acceleration in a static electric field (8kV to 25 kV)

Photo-electron detection with

- Segmented PIN diode (HPD)
- Avalanche photo diode (HAPD)
- Silicon photomultiplier (VSIPMT)

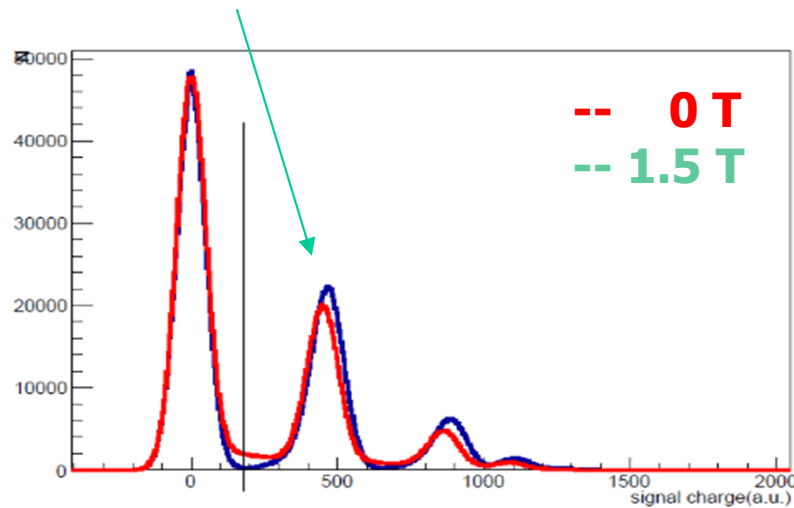
Employed on a large scale:

- HPD: RICH1+RICH2 of LHCb (Run 1+2), CMS HCAL
- HAPD: Aerogel RICH detector of Belle II

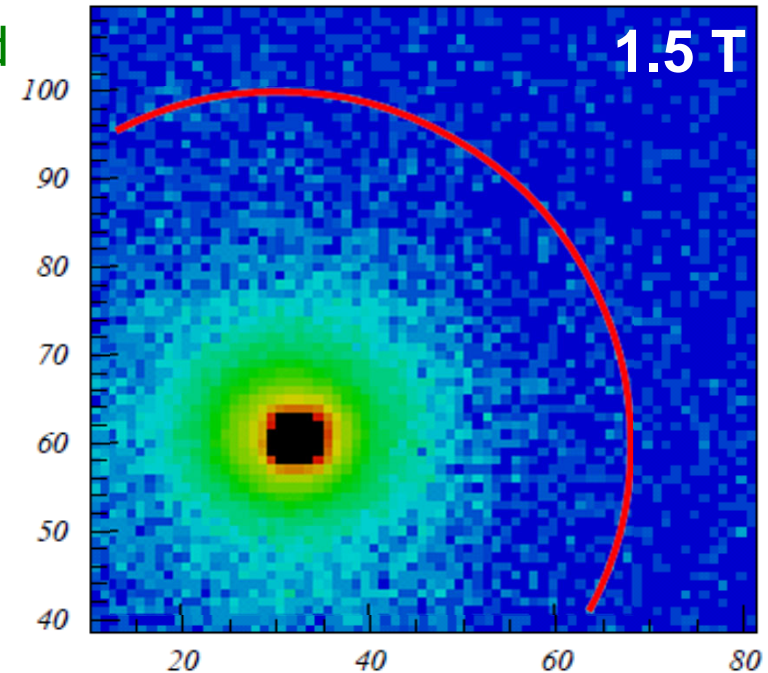
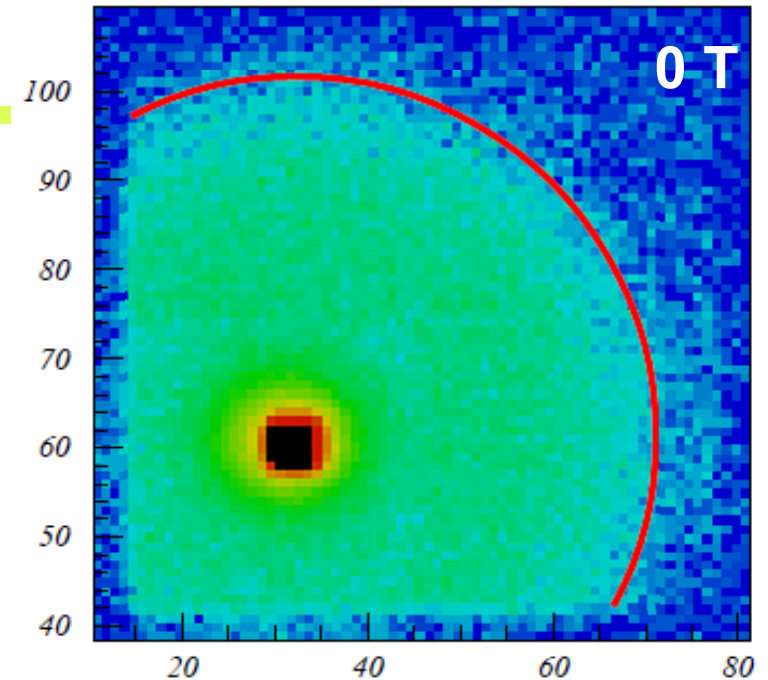


HAPD: photoelectron backscattering in magnetic field

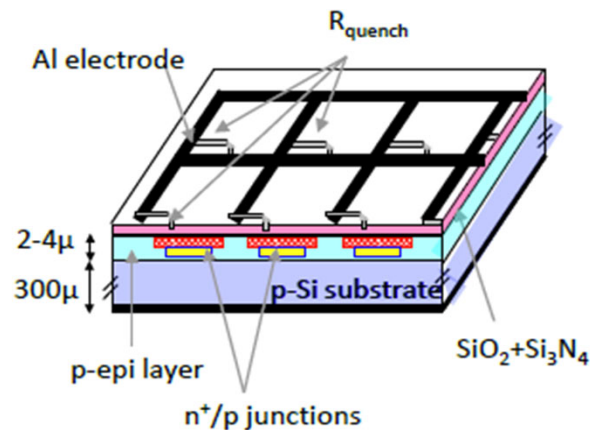
- around 20% of photoelectrons back-scatter and the maximum range is twice the distance from photocathode to APD $\sim 40\text{mm}$
- in a strong magnetic field (perp. to the HAPD window) scattered photoelectrons follow magnetic field lines and fall back to the same pad
- photoelectron energy is deposited at the same pad



H. Kindo et al., NIM A876 (2017) 269



Solid state low-light-level sensors

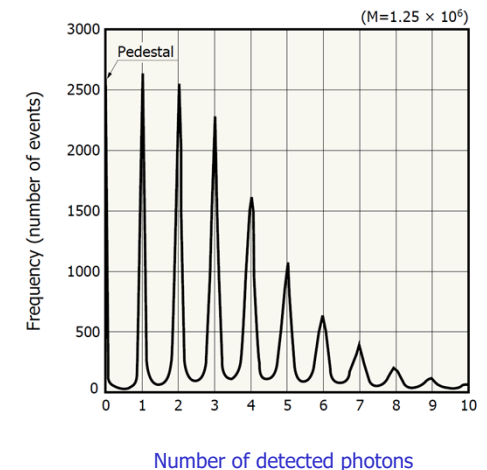
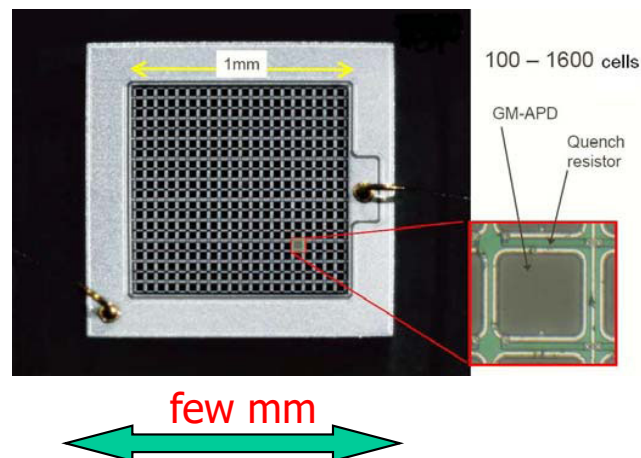
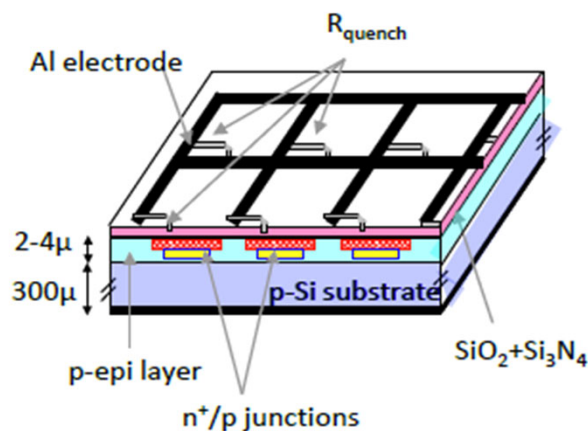


Solid state low light level photosensors: Silicon photomultipliers SiPM

An array of APDs operated in Geiger mode – above APD breakdown voltage (microcells or SPADs – single photon avalanche diodes)

Detection of photons:

- absorbed photon generates an electron-hole pair
- an avalanche is triggered by the carrier in the high field region → signal
- voltage drops below breakdown and avalanche is quenched (passive or active quenching)
- each triggered microcell contributes the same amount of charge to the signal

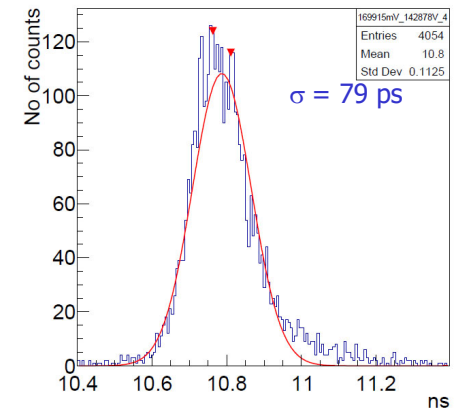
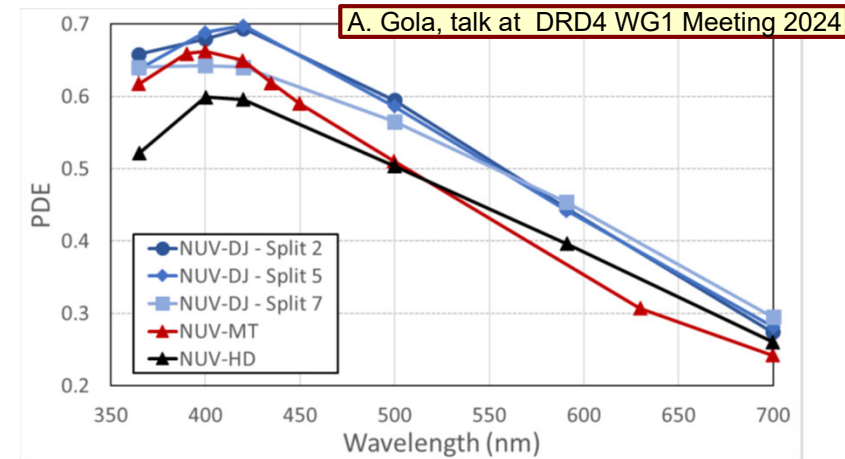
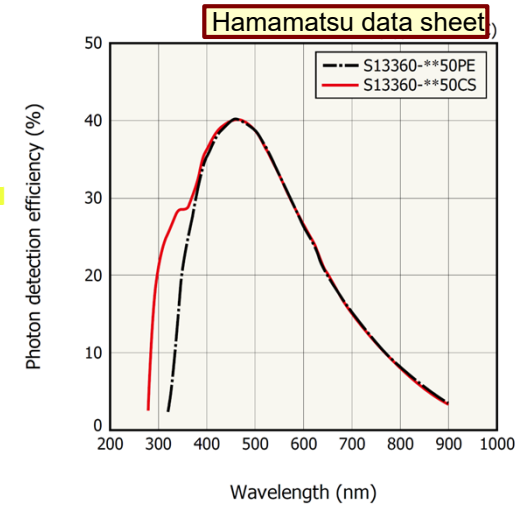


SiPMs as single photon detectors

SiPM as low-light-level sensors.
Characteristics:

- low operation voltage $\sim 10\text{-}100\text{ V}$
- gain $\sim 10^6$
- peak PDE up to 65%(@400nm)
$$\text{PDE} = \text{QE} \times \epsilon_{\text{geiger}} \times \epsilon_{\text{geo}} \text{ (up to 5x PMT!)}$$
- ϵ_{geo} – dead space between the cells
- time resolution $\sim 100\text{ ps}$
- works in high magnetic field
- dark counts $\sim \text{few } 100\text{ kHz/mm}^2$
- radiation damage (p,n)

*PDE = photon detection efficiency



M.V. Nemallapudi et al
2016 JINST 11 P10016

SiPMs as photon detectors for RICH detectors?

Excellent properties, but

- dark counts $\sim$ few 100 kHz/mm²

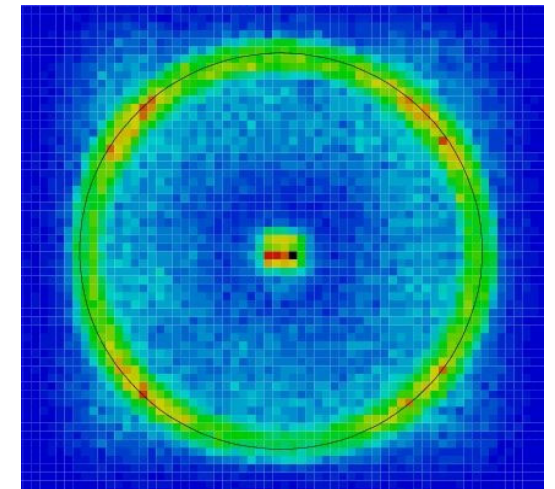
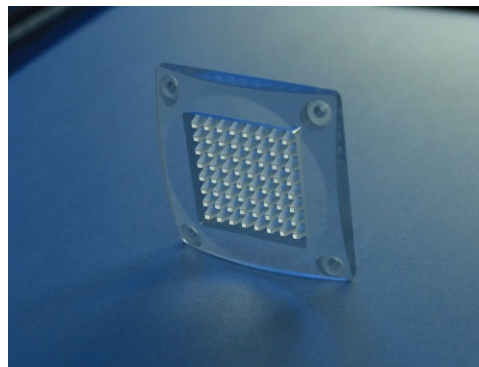
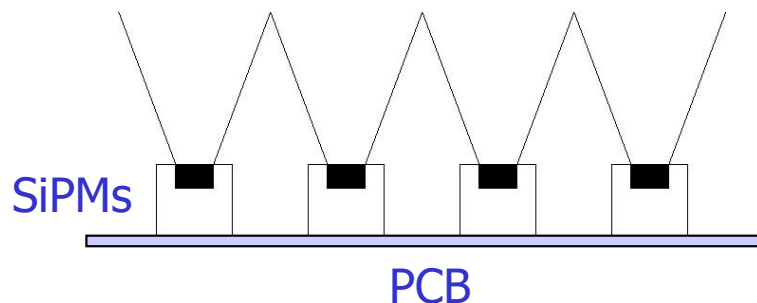
Not trivial to use in a RICH where we have to detect single photons!

Dark counts have single photon pulse heights (rate 0.1-1 MHz per mm²)

Improve the signal to noise ratio:

- Reduce the noise by a narrow (<10 ns) time window (Cherenkov light is prompt!)
- Increase the number of signal hits per single sensor by using light collectors

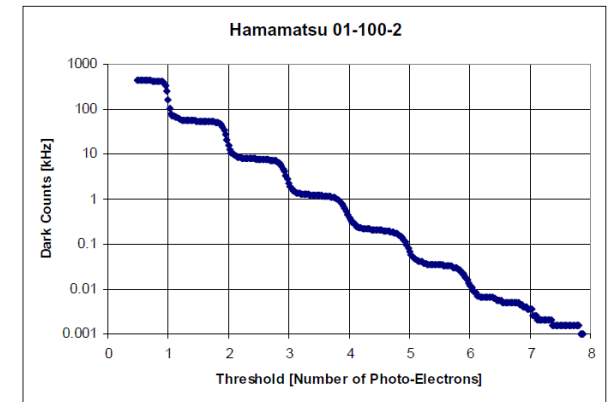
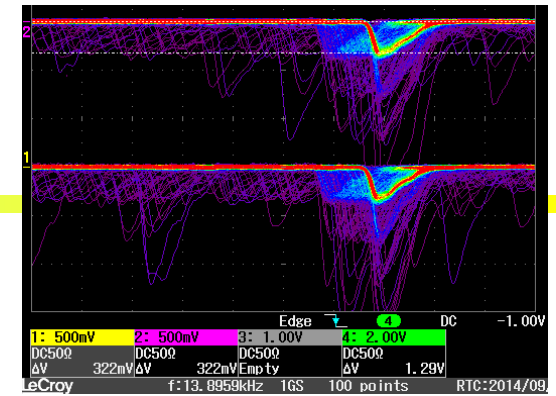
E.g. light collector with reflective walls or plastic light guide



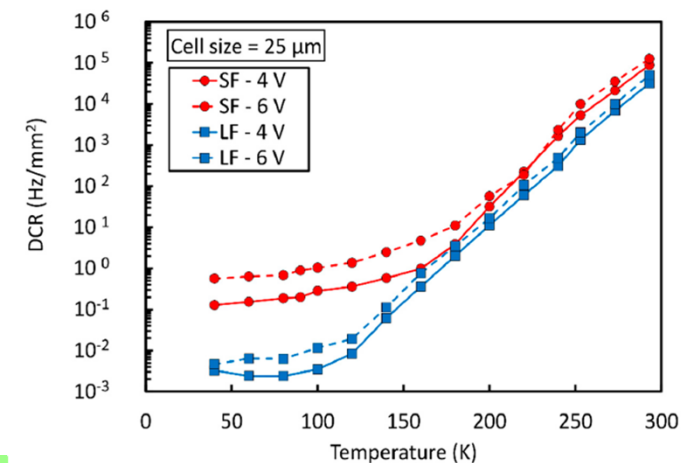
Used in the first detection of Cherenkov rings with SiPMs →

SiPM: noise

- dark counts are produced by thermal generation of carriers, trap assisted tunnelling or band gap tunnelling
 - signal equal to single photon response
 - typical rate dropped from $\approx 1\text{MHz/mm}^2$ for early SiPM devices to below 100kHz/mm^2 for more recent devices
 - gets roughly halved for every -8°C
 - increases linearly with fluence
-
- optical cross-talk produced when photons emitted in avalanche initiate signal in a neighbouring cell; reduced by screening – trenches
-
- after-pulses produced by trap-release of carriers or delayed arrival of optically induced carriers in the same cell



A. Gola et al. Sensors 19(2019)308



SiPM: parameter correlation

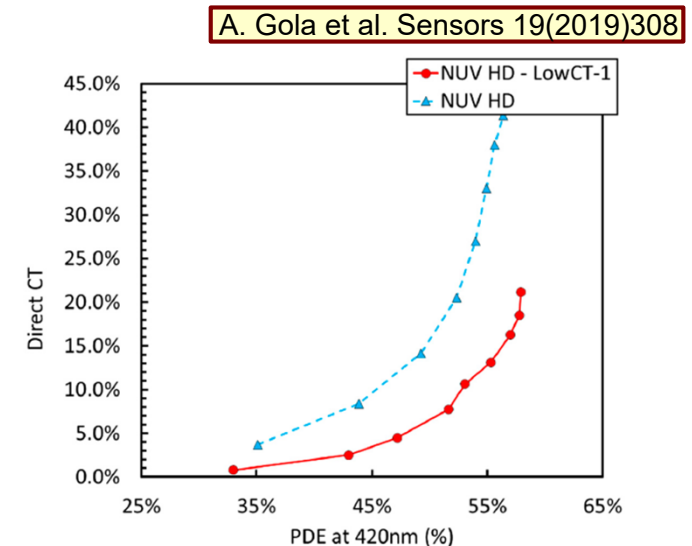
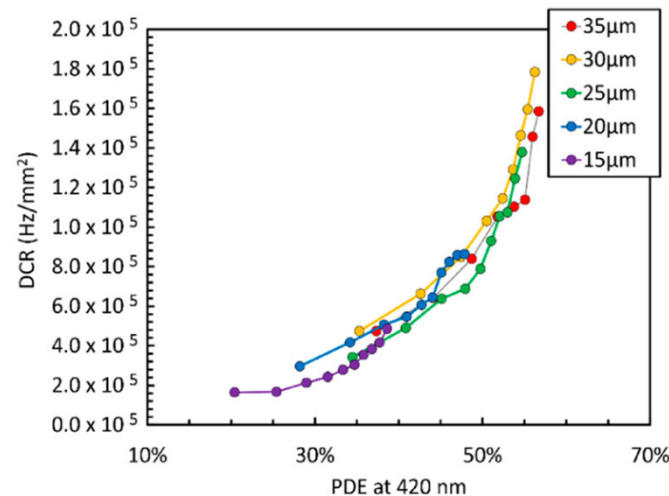
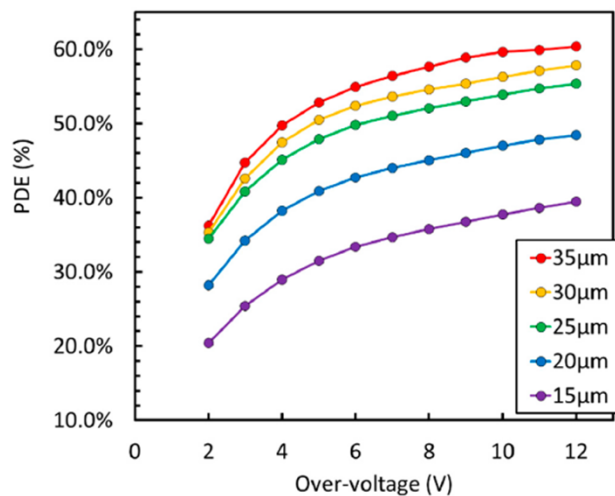
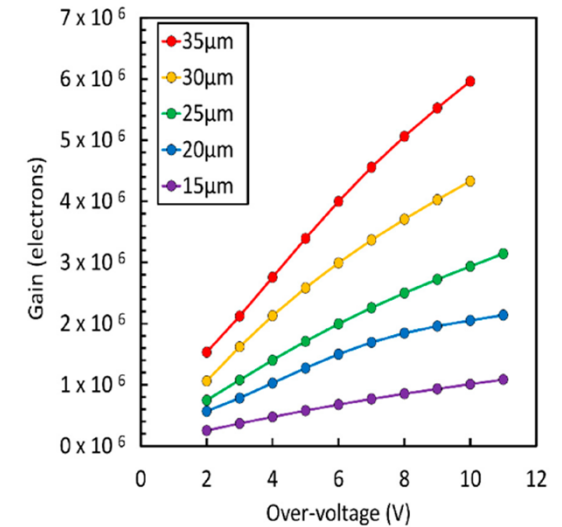
Higher overvoltage:

➤ higher field:

- higher avalanche trigger probability → higher PDE
- faster signal → better timing

➤ higher gain:

- better signal to noise (electronic)
- more optical cross-talk → higher ENF, worse timing
- more after-pulses



VUV SiPM for cryogenic applications

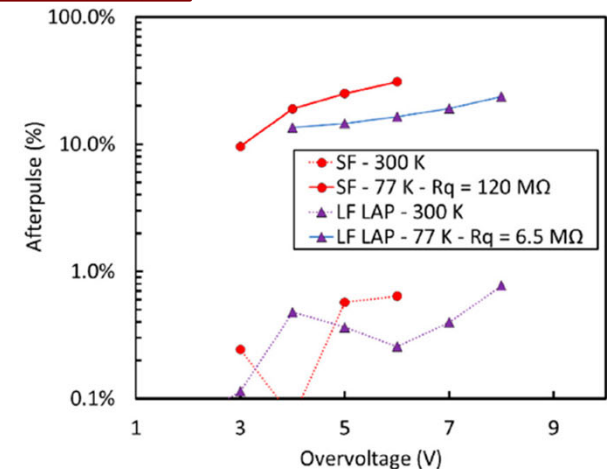
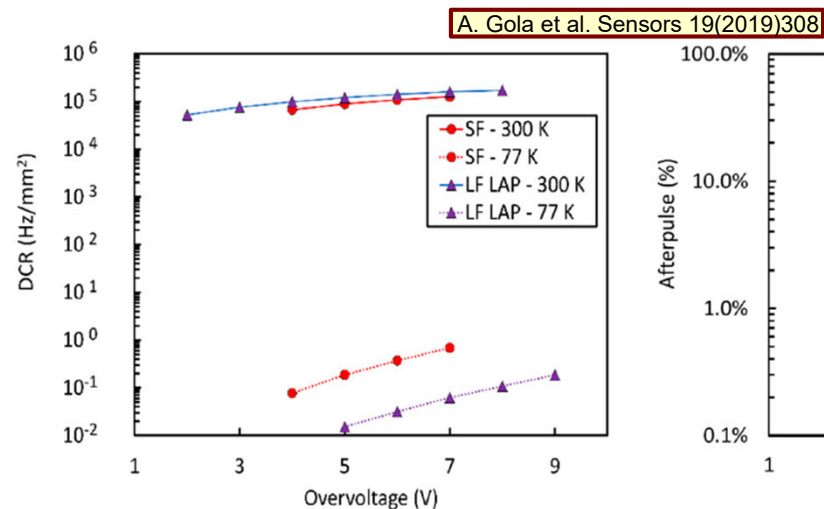
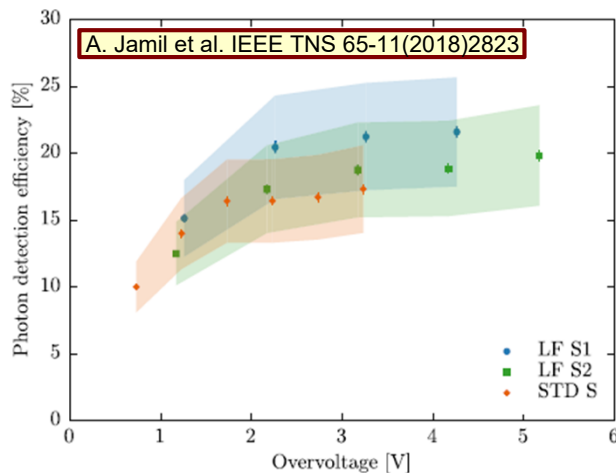
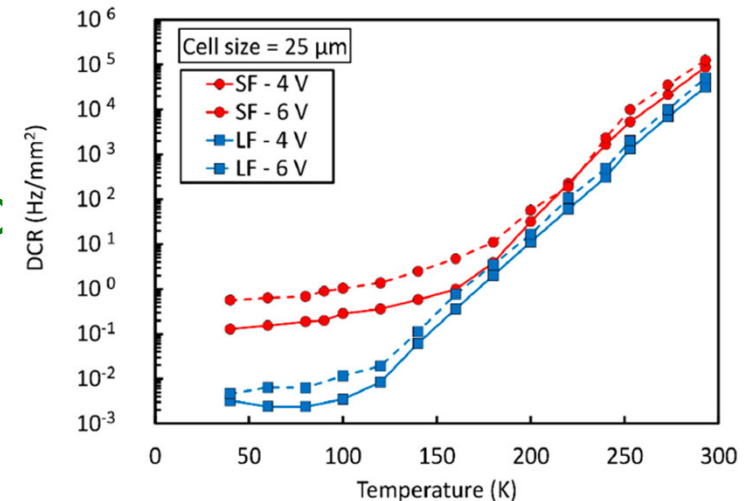
LAr, LXe applications:

➤ VUV sensitivity required:

- 128 nm (LAr), 178 nm (LXe)
- optimization of anti-reflective coating ARC
- PDE $\approx 20\%$

➤ cryogenic temperatures:

- low DCR $\approx 10\text{mHz/mm}^2$ dominated by band-band tunnelling, reduced by low-field avalanche region
- higher after-pulse rate $\approx 10\%$



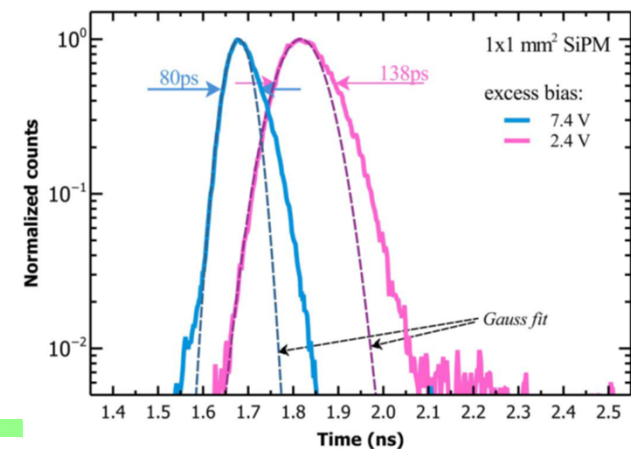
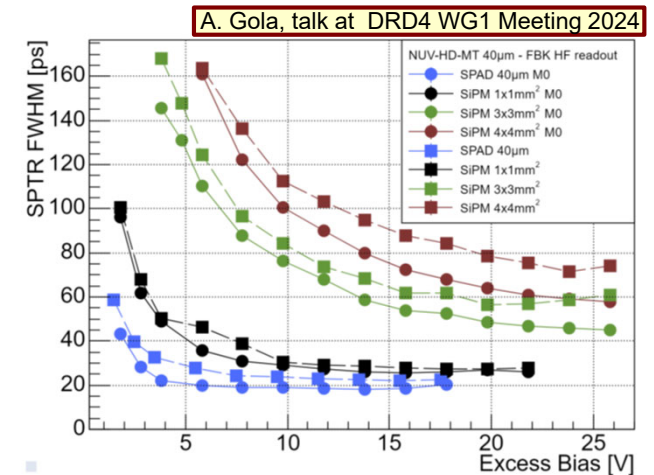
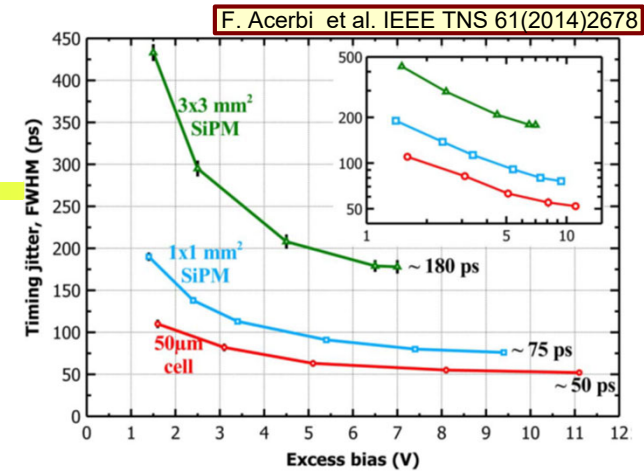
SiPM: single photon timing

Intrinsic TTS of SiPM microcells is extremely fast, < 20 ps for single microcells (SPAD), but timing deteriorates for larger devices. The main contributions:

- nonuniformity within microcell (edges)
- spread between microcells
- overall SiPM capacitance
- λ dependence - tails

Comparison of timing properties for single $50\mu\text{m}$ SPAD, $1 \times 1 \text{ mm}^2$ and $3 \times 3 \text{ mm}^2$ SiPMs with the same SPAD for microcells:

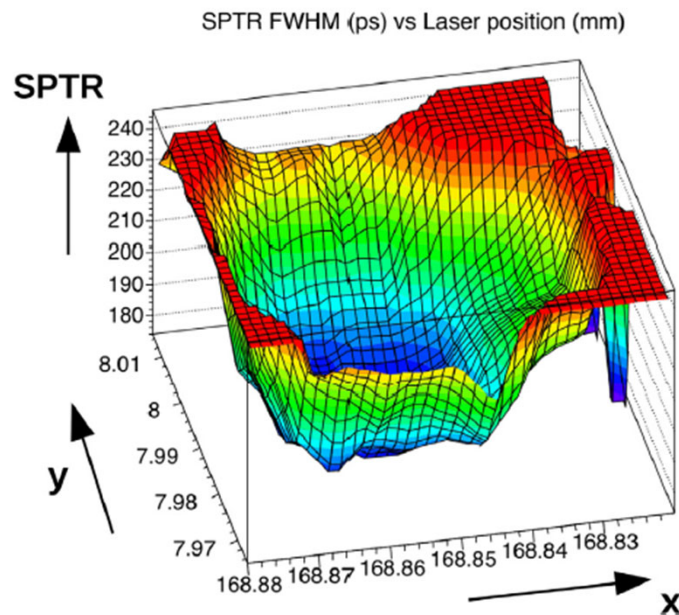
- timing improves with higher overvoltage – larger pulses, at the expense of increased SiPM noise
- best timing resolutions for single cell signals are $\sigma \approx 21$ ps, 32 ps and 77 ps
- TTS deterioration mainly due to a larger overall capacitance $\rightarrow$ reduced signal slope, $\sigma_t \approx \sigma_{el.} \left(\frac{dU}{dt} \right)^{-1}$



SiPM: timing variation

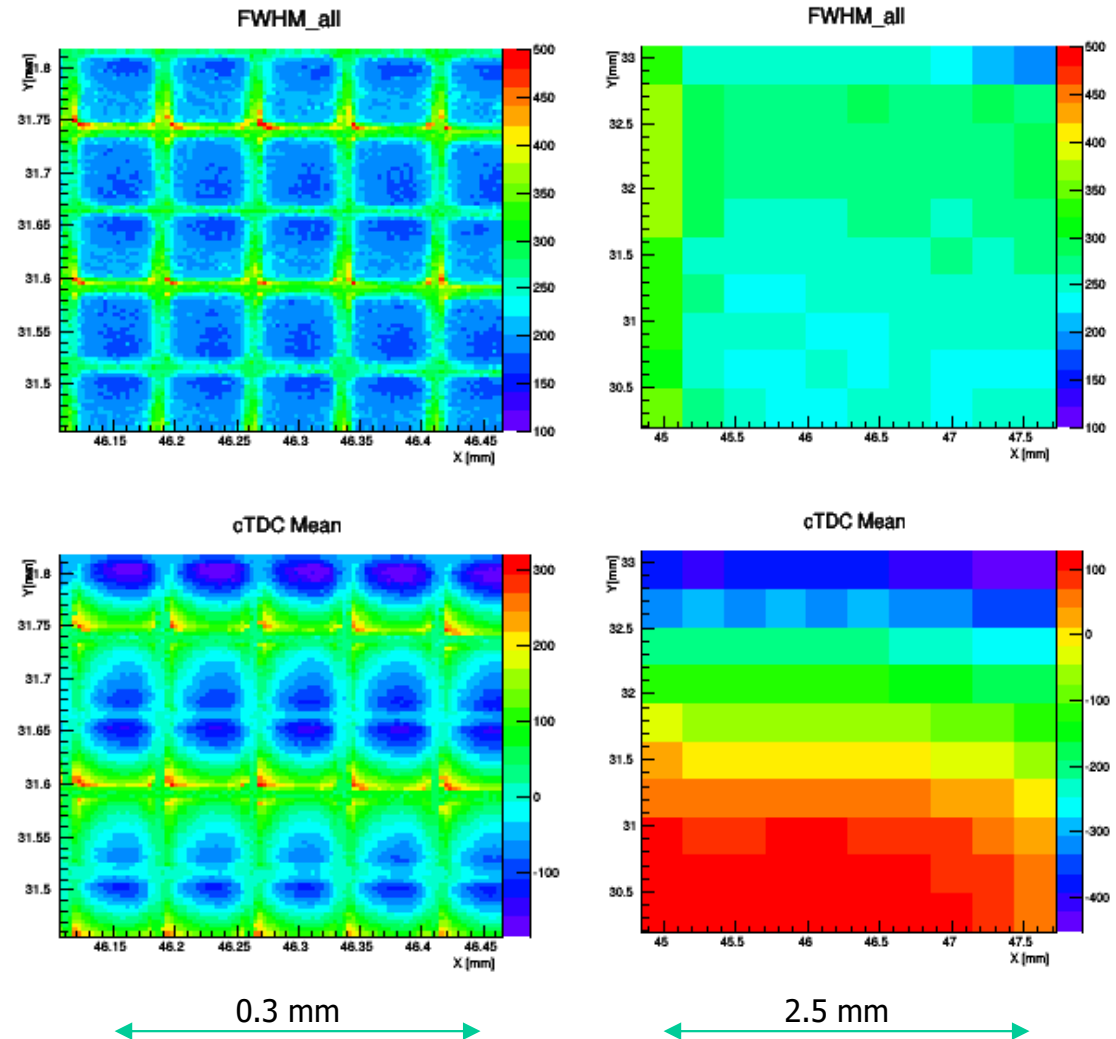
Variation of TTS over the device surface can contribute to overall time spread:

- variation within micro-cell
- variation for different micro-cells



F. Acerbi et al. NIM A926(2019)16

KETEK PM3375TS-SBO (early design) S. Korpar et al. @IEEE 2015

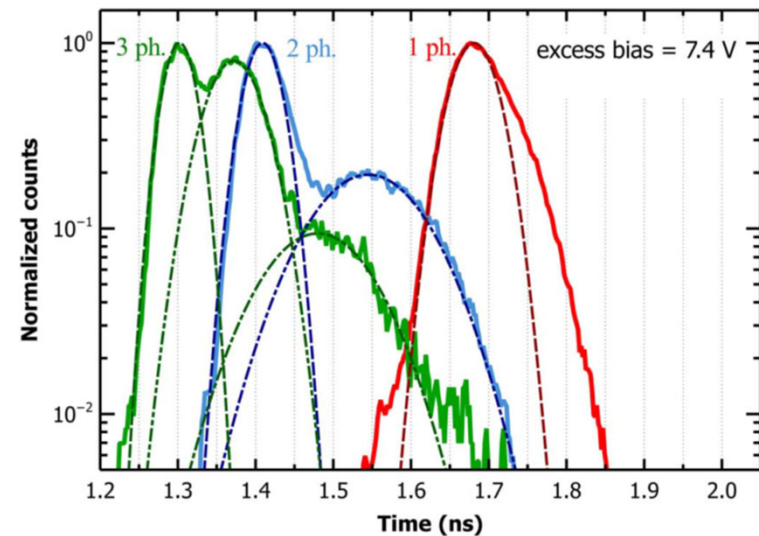
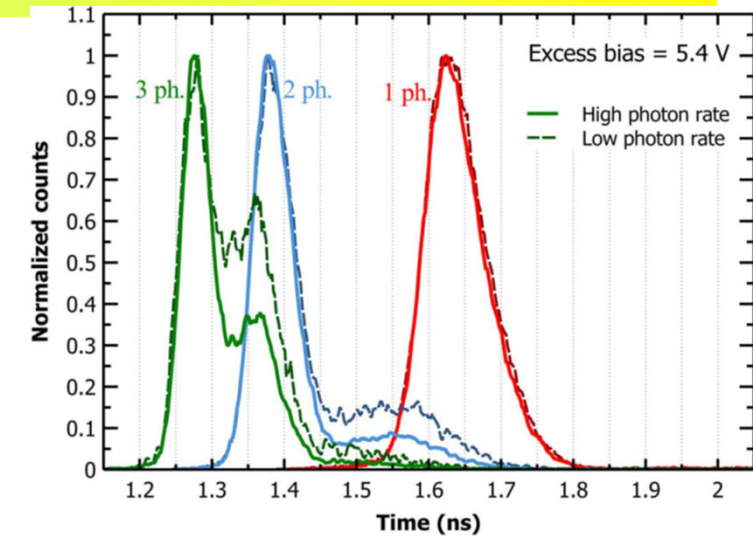


FBK: Masking of outer regions of micro-cells: Improve signal peaking and mask areas of micro-cell with worse timing

SiPM: timing for multi-cell signals

Optical cross-talk contribution to multi-cell signals spoils timing distribution – does not scale with $\frac{1}{N^{1/2}}$:

- two components for 2-micro-cell signals:
 - double photon events – proper scaling
 - single photon with cross-talk, timing somewhere between single and double micro-cell signals and resolution is worse
- ratio between contributions changes with light intensity confirming optical cross-talk origin
- even more components for multi-micro-cell signals



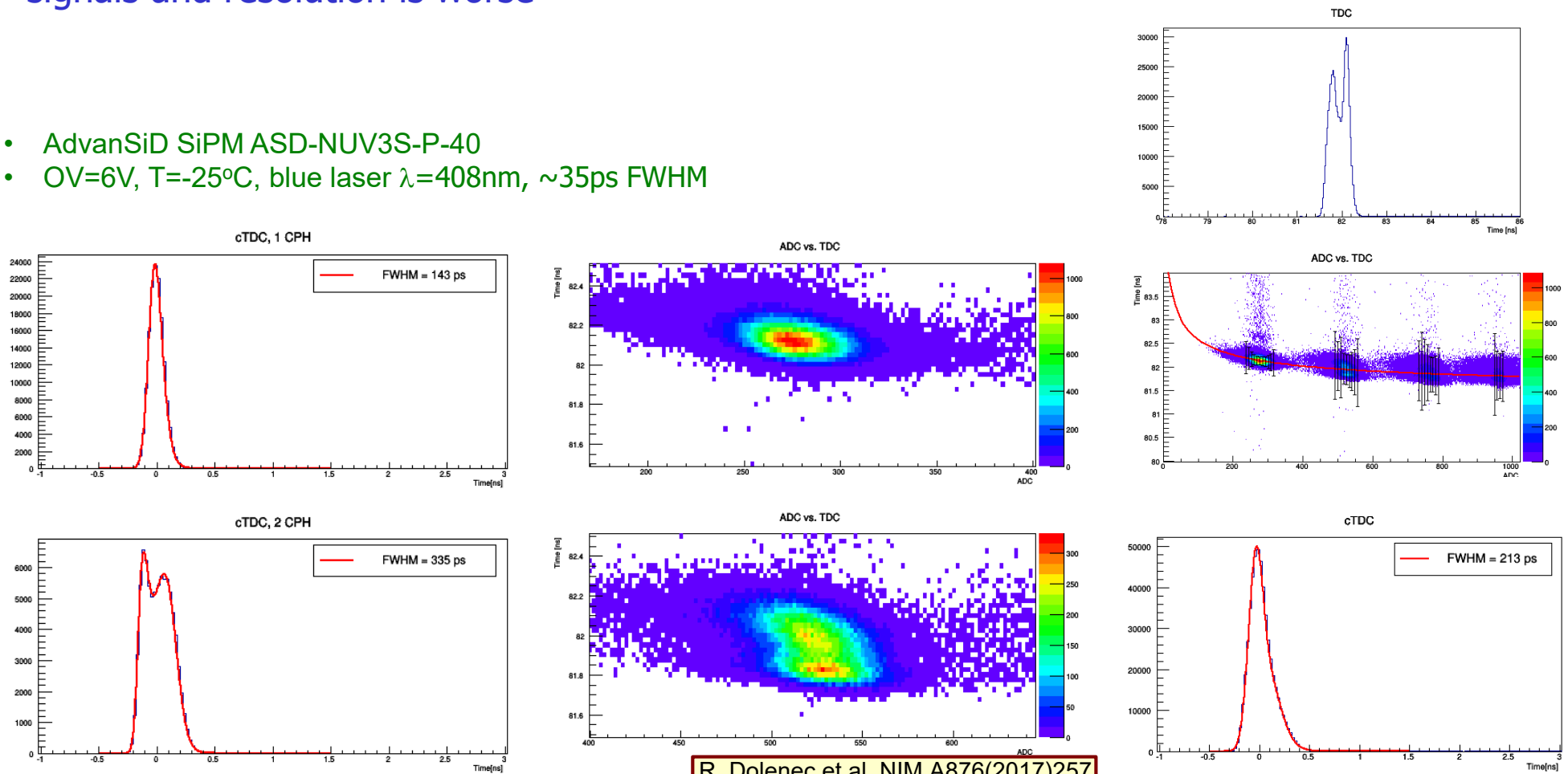
F. Acerbi et al. IEEE TNS 61(2014)2678

SiPM: timing test with pico-second laser

Optical cross-talk contribution to multi-cell signals spoils timing distribution-
two components for 2-micro-cell signals:

- double photon events – proper scaling
- single photon with cross-talk, timing somewhere between single and double micro-cell signals and resolution is worse

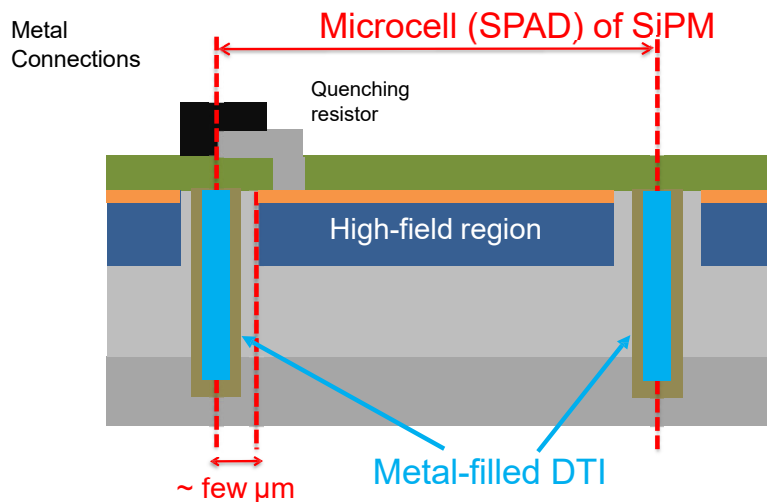
- AdvanSiD SiPM ASD-NUV3S-P-40
- OV=6V, T=-25°C, blue laser $\lambda=408\text{nm}$, $\sim 35\text{ps}$ FWHM



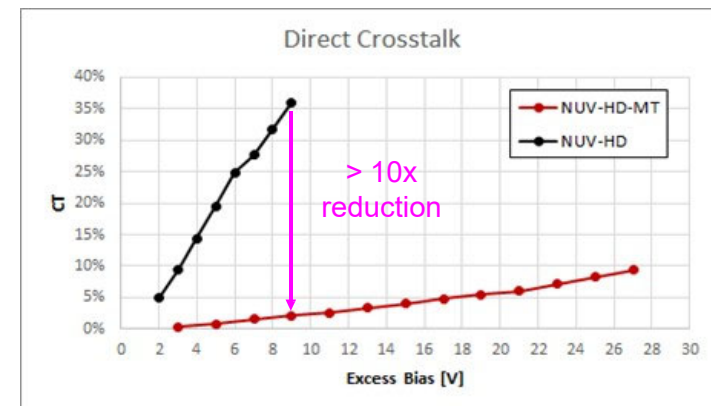
Reduction of optical crosstalk

Starting from the NUV-HD technology, FBK and Broadcom jointly developed the NUV-HD-MT technology, adding metal-filled deep trench isolation to strongly suppress optical crosstalk.

Other changes: low electric field variant, layout optimized for timing.



Conceptual drawing of the NUV-HD-MT, with the addition of metal-filled Deep Trench Isolation.



Reduction of optical crosstalk probability in NUV-HD-MT, compared to the “standard” NUV-HD. Measurement without encapsulation resin, i.e. only considering internal crosstalk probability.

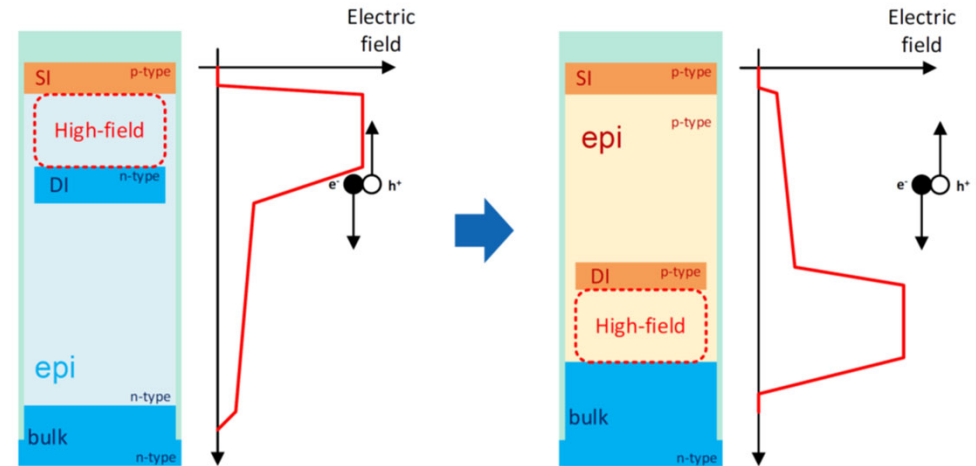
A. Gola, talk at RICH2022

SiPMs: structure optimization, example

By moving the high-field region towards the bottom of the epitaxial layer, the PDE is enhanced.

Avalanche is mostly triggered by electrons.

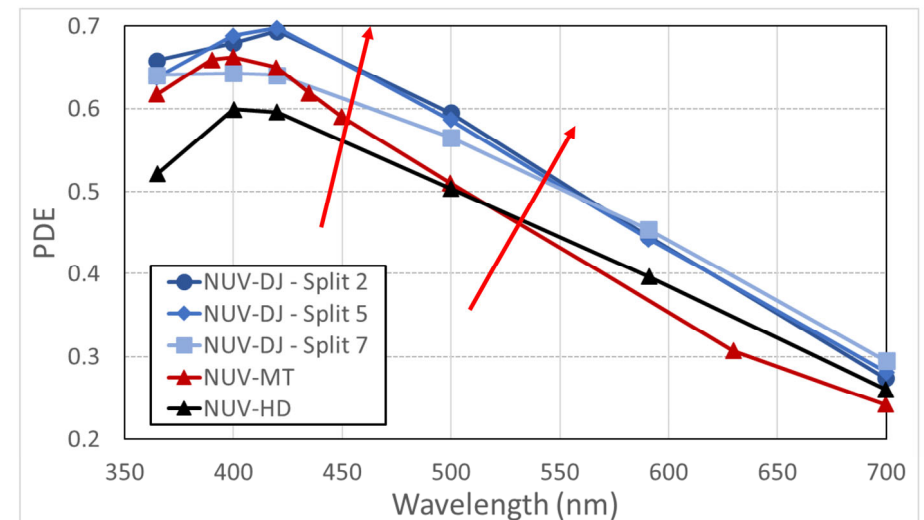
Conceptual drawing of the different NUV.MT (left) and NUV-DJ (right) → microcell structures



Conceptual drawing of the different NUV.MT and NUV-DJ microcell structures (cross-sections, not to scale)

PDE increase: from holes to electrons triggering the avalanche

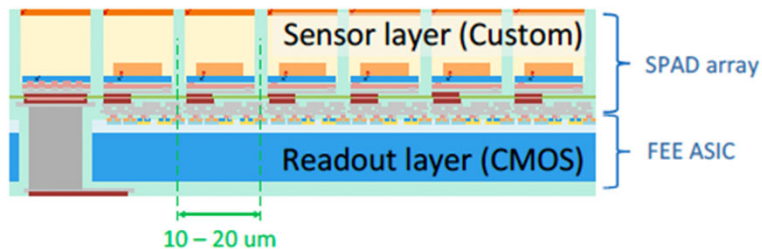
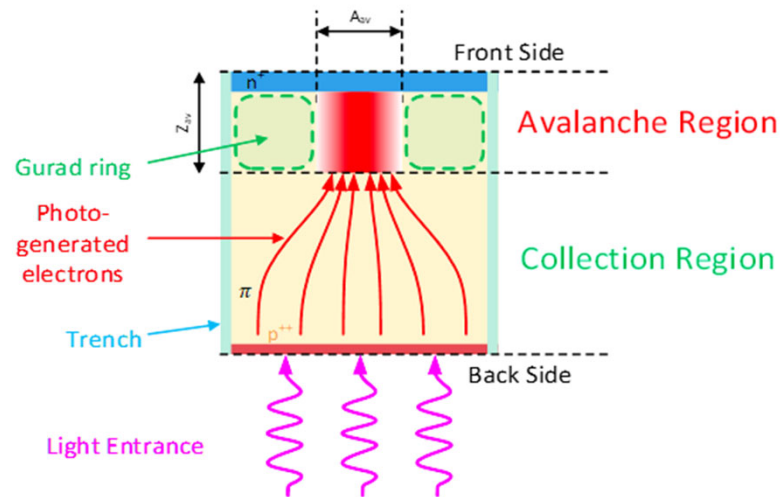
PDE vs. wavelength measured on the 45 μm cell of the NUV-HD-MT technology (12 V) and on the 40 μm cell of the NUV-HD and of the newly introduced NUV-DJ SiPM technologies (9 V).



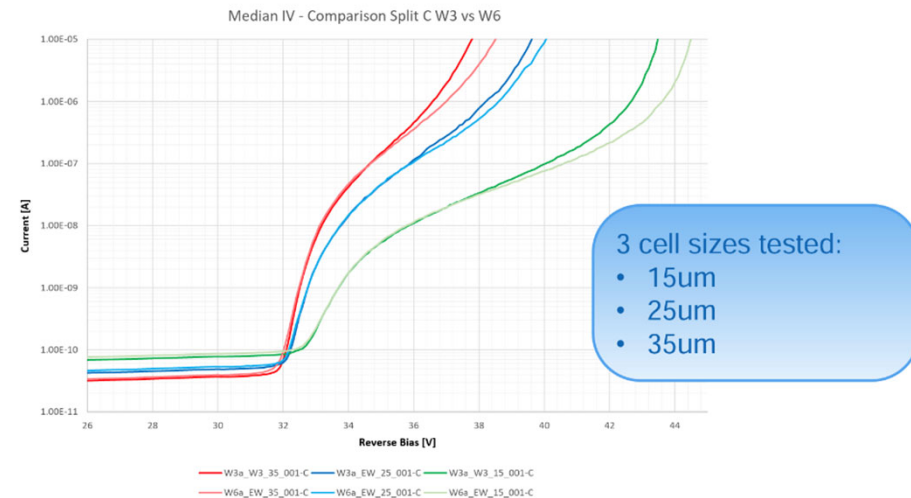
PDE vs. wavelength measured on the 45 μm cell of the NUV-HD-MT technology (12 V) and on the 40 μm cell of the NUV-HD and of the newly introduced NUV-DJ SiPM technologies (9 V).

Backside illuminated SiPMs

Backside illuminated (BSI) SiPMs:
potential for an enhanced PDE and a
better radiation tolerance.

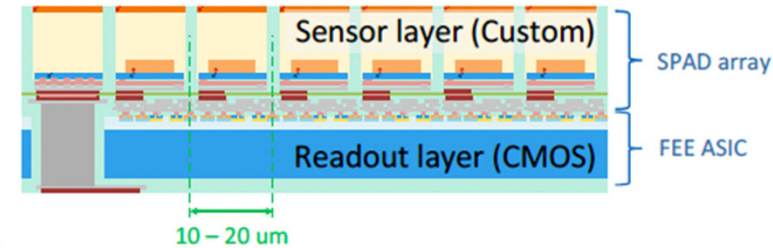


The first results of the
FBK IBIS Run samples



Hybrid SiPMs

Separated sensing and readout layers, both in CMOS



Custom SiPM technology for sensing layer

- CMOS-compatible → transfer to large-volume foundries is possible
- ~10 lithographic masks - Lower cost per unit area compared to a full CMOS process (>40 masks)
- Customized fabrication process, no constraint from transistor fabrication → best electro optical performance possible, also after irradiation (e.g. DCR, DCR vs.T , PDE, correlated noise, etc)
- Cheap to iterate/adjust the design → Different sensing layers for different applications, room for subsequent upgrades without changing readout ASIC
- All the wafer area is sensitive to light → maximum detection efficiency (PDE)

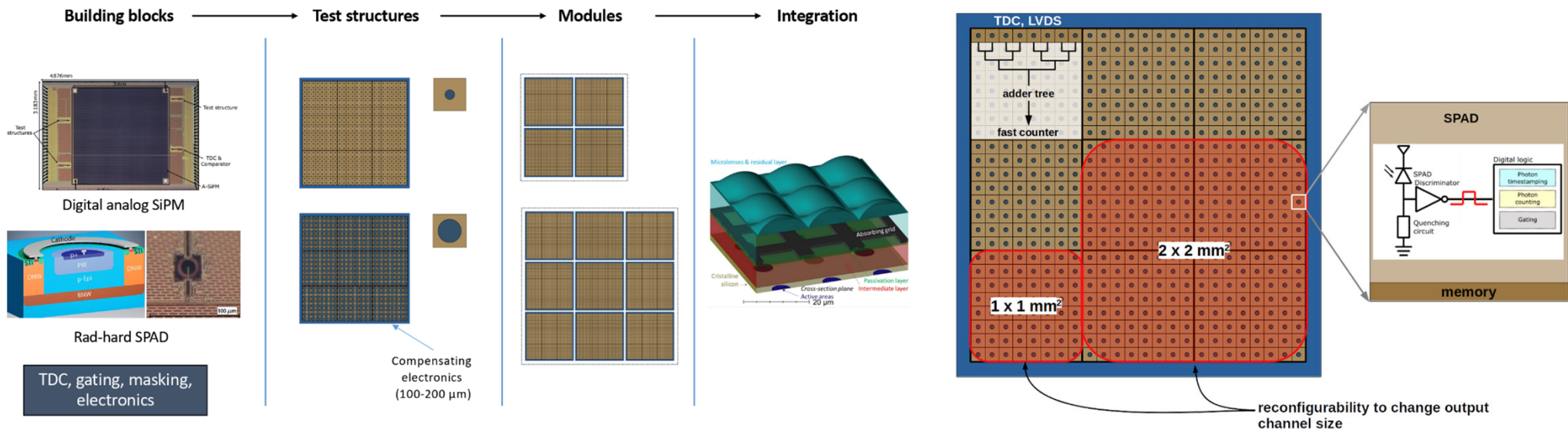
CMOS technology for readout layer

- Free choice of CMOS node → optimal performance of readout.
- CMOS area can be smaller than sensing area (2.5D) → lower cost
- Independent design cycles of the sensing layer and readout layer → more efficient R&D phase

SiMs: SPAD with micro-lenses

CMOS-SPAD light sensors: co-integration of SPADs and electronics, digitised output signals

spadRICH - Radiation-hard digital analog silicon photomultipliers for future upgrades of Ring Imaging Cherenkov detectors



Light concentrators

At the device level (lenses, Winston cones):

- For a given **active** area reduce **sensor** area – reduce dark count rate (tolerate higher fluences)
- use smaller faster devices

Higher concentration – narrower angular acceptance

Imaging light concentrators:

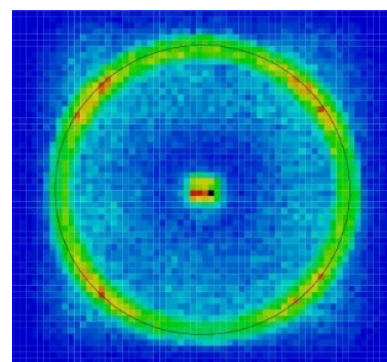
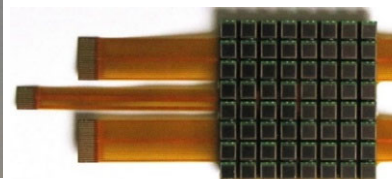
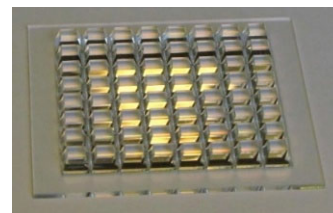
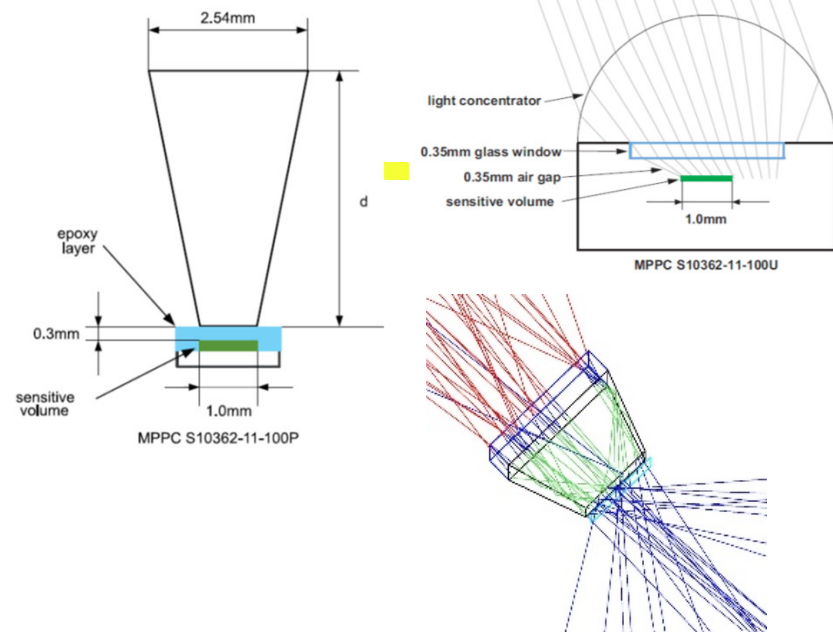
- smaller photon impact angles on the sensor
- can be used with position-sensitive arrays

Non-imaging light concentrators:

- larger photon impact angles on the sensor – directly coupled to the sensor

At the micro-cell level (micro-lenses, diffractive lenses, meta lenses):

- compensate for low fill factor – small cells, dSiPM
- concentrate light in cell centre – better timing



RICH with SiPMs +
light concentrators

E. Tahirović et al., NIM A787 (2015) 203

Peter Križan, Ljubljana

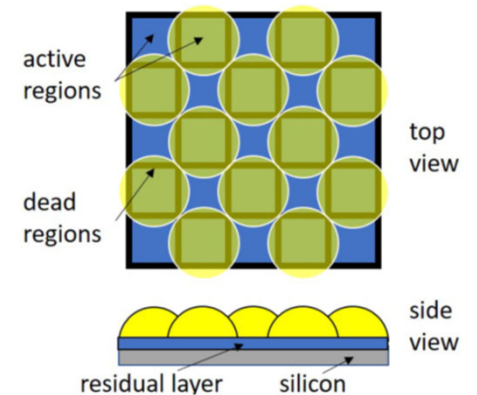
Microlenses for light collection

Light concentration at the micro-cell level (micro-lenses, diffractive lenses, meta lenses):

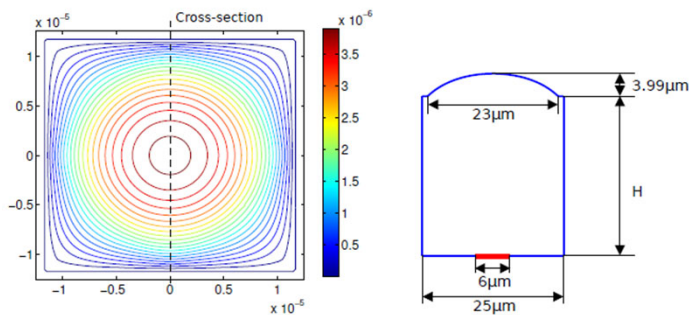
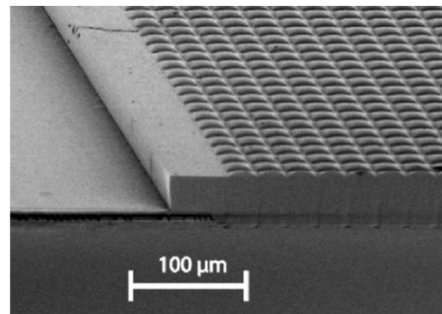
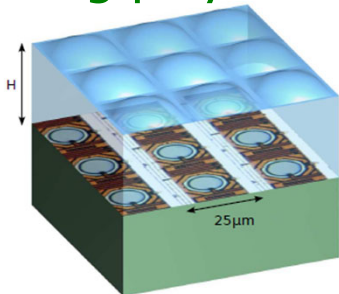
- compensate for low fill factor – small cells, dSiPM
- concentrate light in cell centre – better timing

Micro-lens array coupled to SPAD array

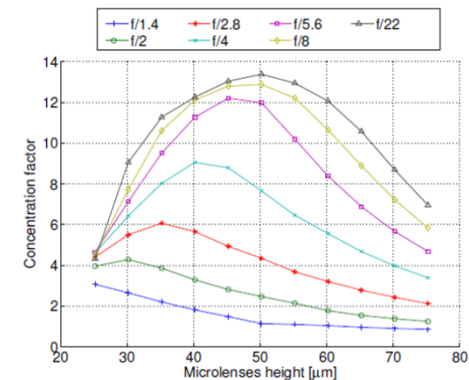
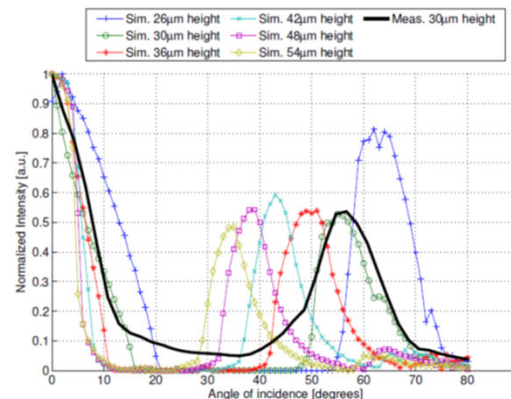
- CMOS SPAD array, 128x128 $6\mu\text{m}$ diameter @25 μm pitch – 5% fill factor
- matching polymer plano-convex micro-lens array



G. Haefeli et al., TNS,
DOI 10.1109/TNS.2025.3542597



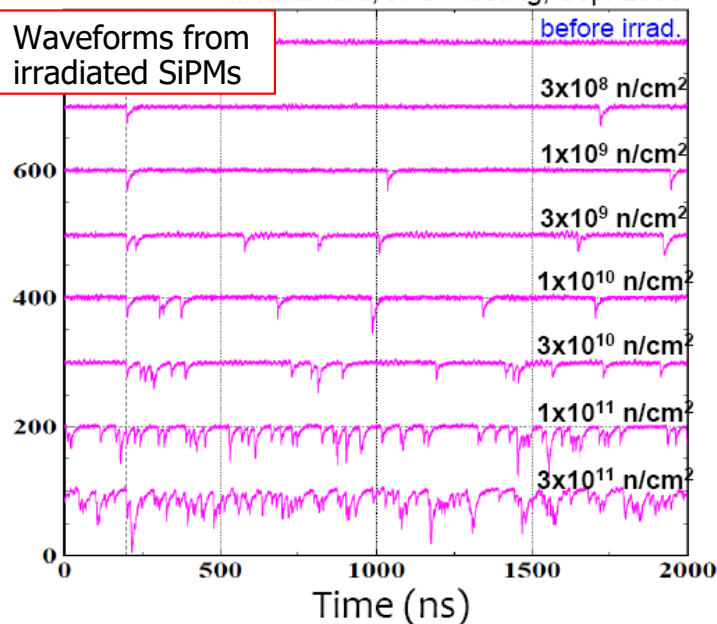
J.M. Pavia et al. Opt.Exp. 22-4(2014)4202



SiPMs: Radiation damage

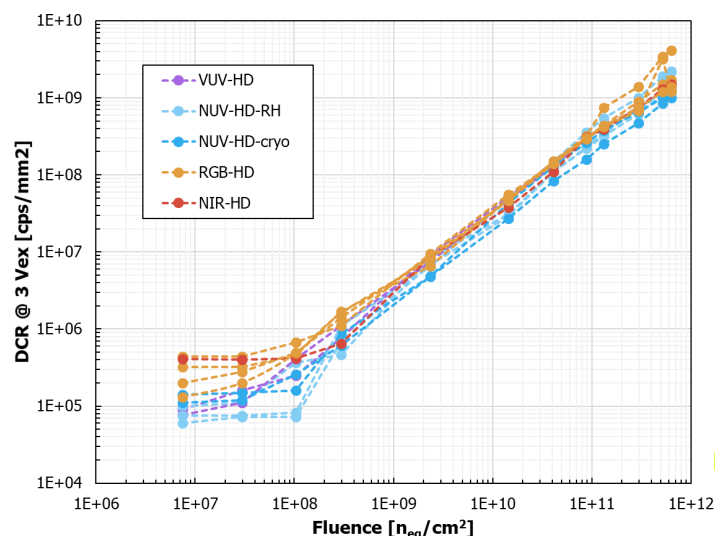
I. Nakamura, JPS meeting, Sep. 2008

Waveforms from irradiated SiPMs



Show stopper at fluences above $\sim 10^{11}$ n cm⁻² in case single (or few) photon sensitivity is required!

- Use of wave-form sampling readout electronics
- Operating the SiPMs at lower temperature
- Annealing periodically (annealing at elevated temperature is preferred)
- Reducing recovery time to lower cell occupancy
- Radiation resistant SiPMs, other materials?



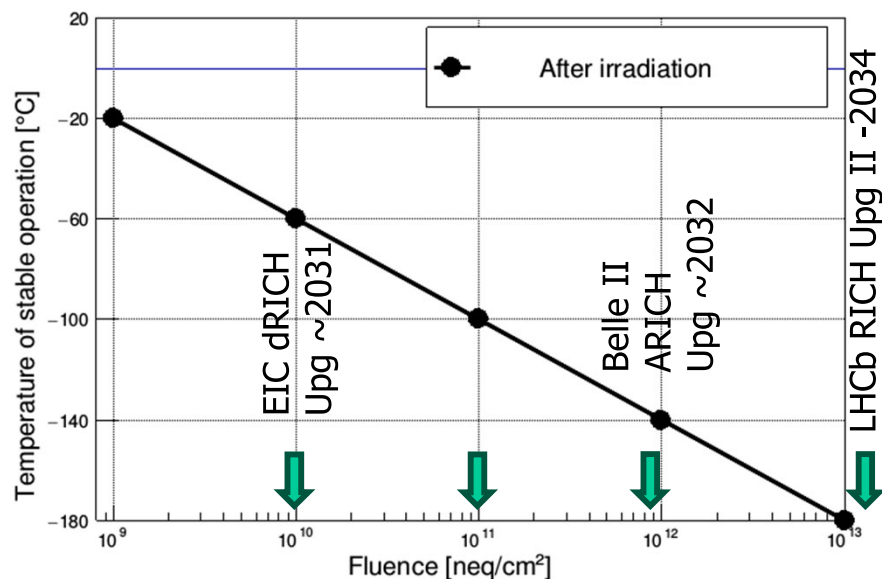
Beyond $10^7 \div 10^8$ n_{eq}/cm² little correlation between the DCR before and after irradiation:

- All technologies seem to “converge” toward similar values after irradiation
- Independence of bulk damage from contaminants in the SiPM starting material?
- Room temperature annealing has little effect if shorter than ~ 1 day

SiPMs: radiation damage, mitigation

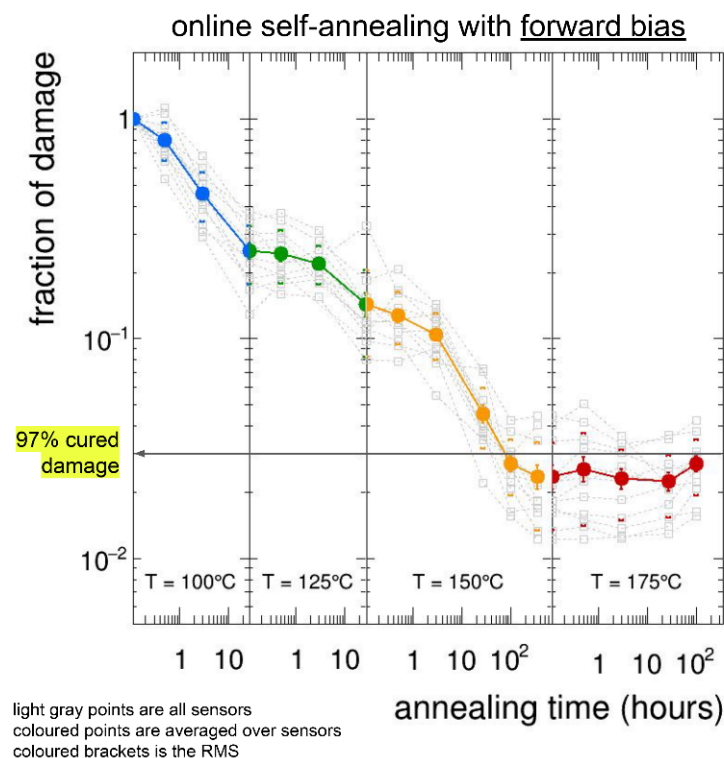
Operation of highly irradiated SiPMs for single photon detection – cooling and annealing

Cooling: Temperature at which the SiPMs are “usable” for single-photon detection, i.e. where the single photo electron peak @ 9V over-voltage is separated from the background.



D. Consuegra-Rodriguez et al., Eur. Phys. J. C 84, 970 (2024)

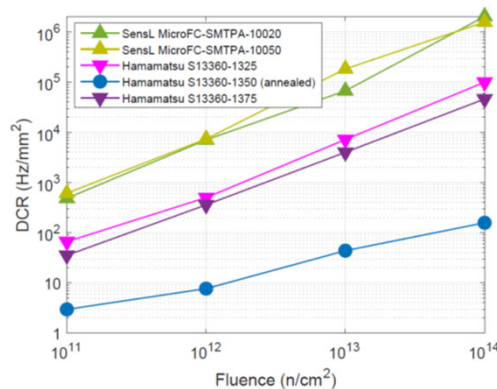
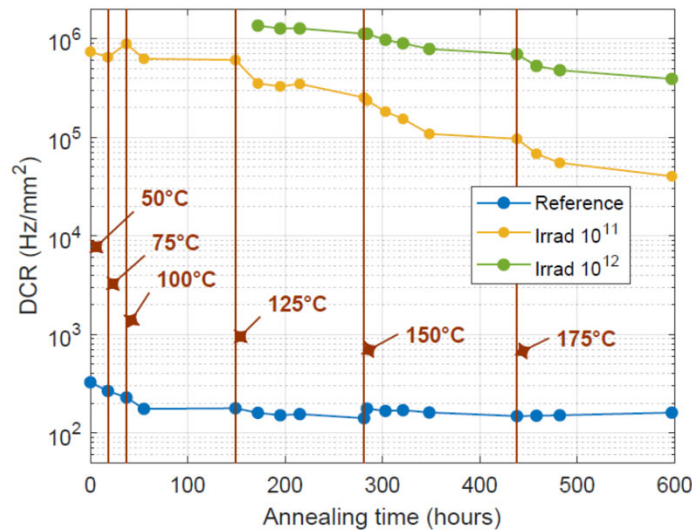
Annealing



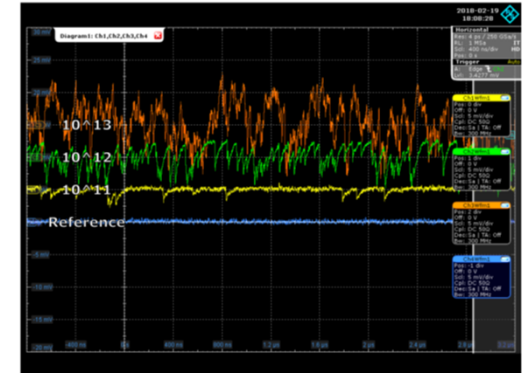
R. Preghenella, talk at PD24

SiPMs: Radiation damage, annealing at elevated temperatures

Dark counts at -30C of Hamamatsu S13360-1350CS SiPMs: non irradiated (blue) and irradiated up to 10^{11} (yellow), 10^{12} (green) and 10^{13} (orange) n_{eq}/cm^2

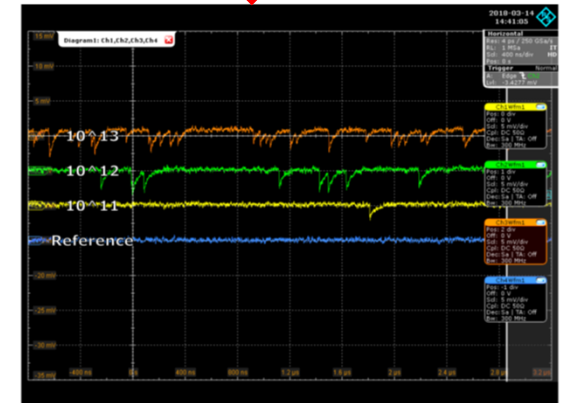


DCR at 77 K versus neutron fluence
Blue circles: annealed sample
→ Annealing helps also at 77 K



M. Calvi et al., NIMA 922 (2019) 243-249

annealing



SiPMs: radiation damage, mitigation

Fast & radiation hard SiPMs - enabling the use of SiPM in highly irradiated areas

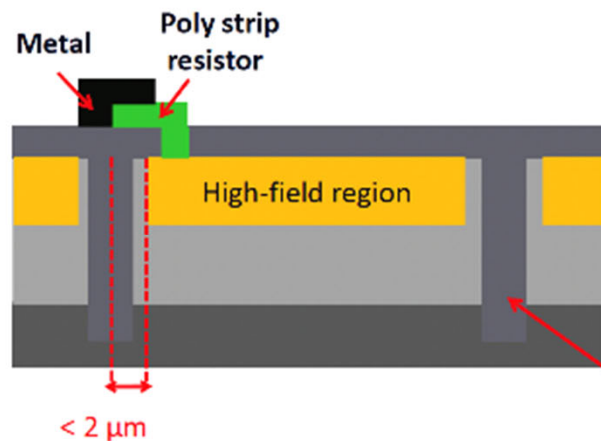
Experimental structures

Two different technologies:

- Low electric field
- Ultra Low electric field

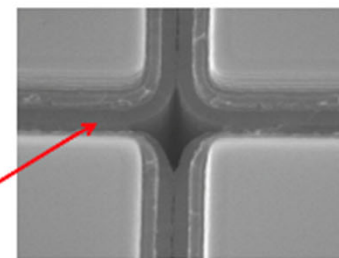
Cell pitch: 15, 25, 40, 75 μ m; SiPM sizes: (0.25, 0.5, 1, 2, 3) 2 mm 2

NUV-HD for AIDAInnova



Advantages:

- Lower cross-talk



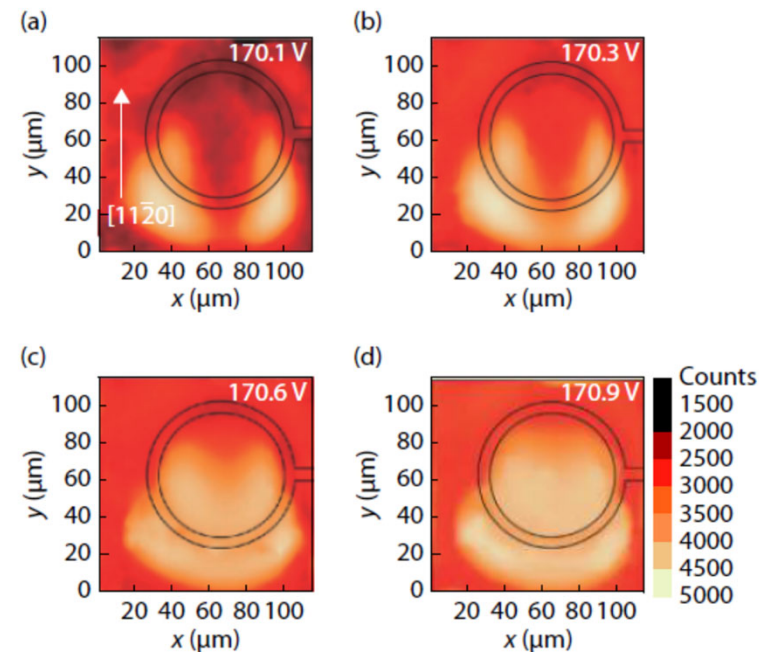
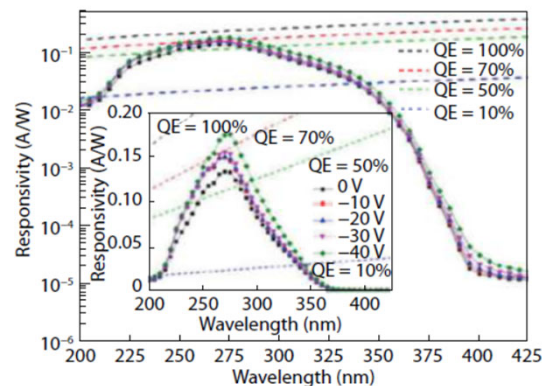
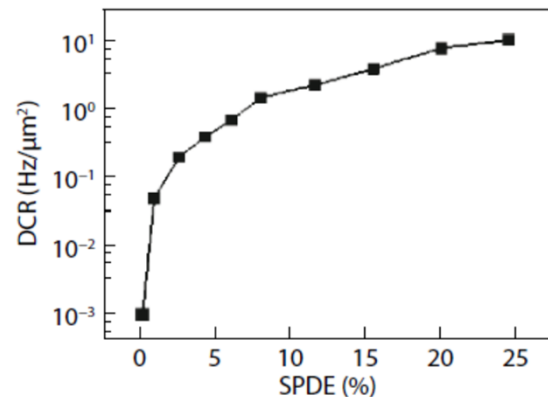
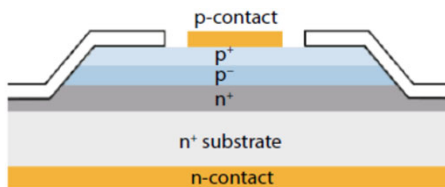
Trenches between cells filled with highly doped polysilicon as light absorbing material

New materials

- new higher band gap materials - possibly lower DCR - higher radiation resistance, higher temperature
- (V)UV sensitive
- high dark count rate – dominated by trap assisted tunnelling

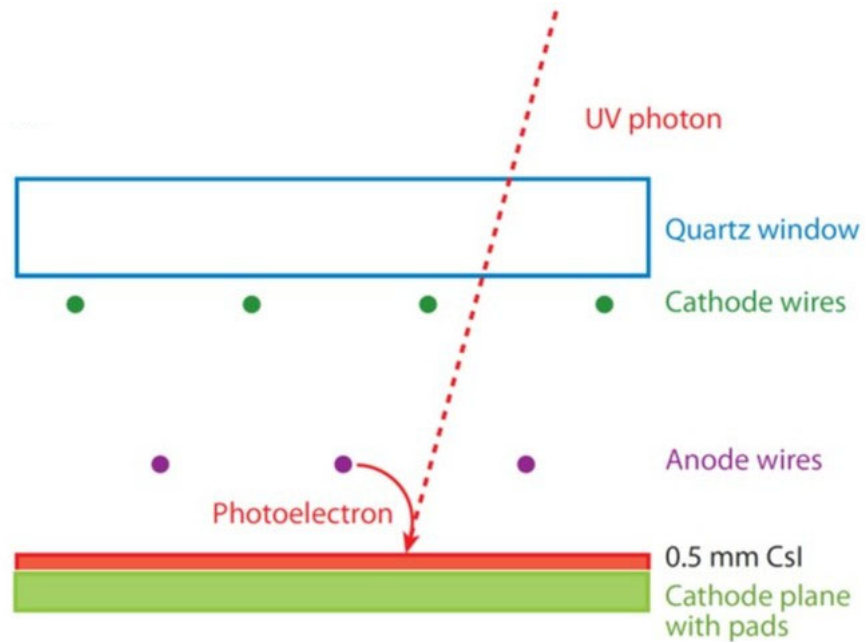
4H-SiC:

- $E_g = 3.26 \text{ eV}$
- $\text{PDE} \approx 10\%$
- $\text{DCR} > 1 \text{ MHz/mm}^2$
- nonuniform response

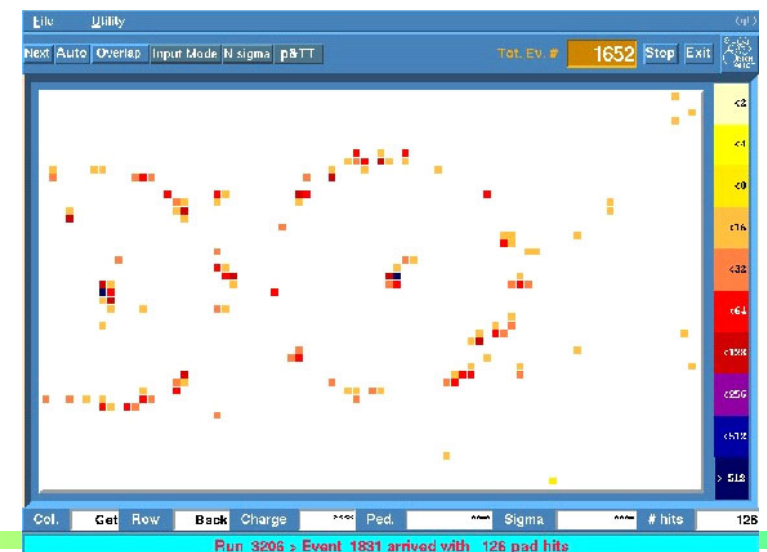
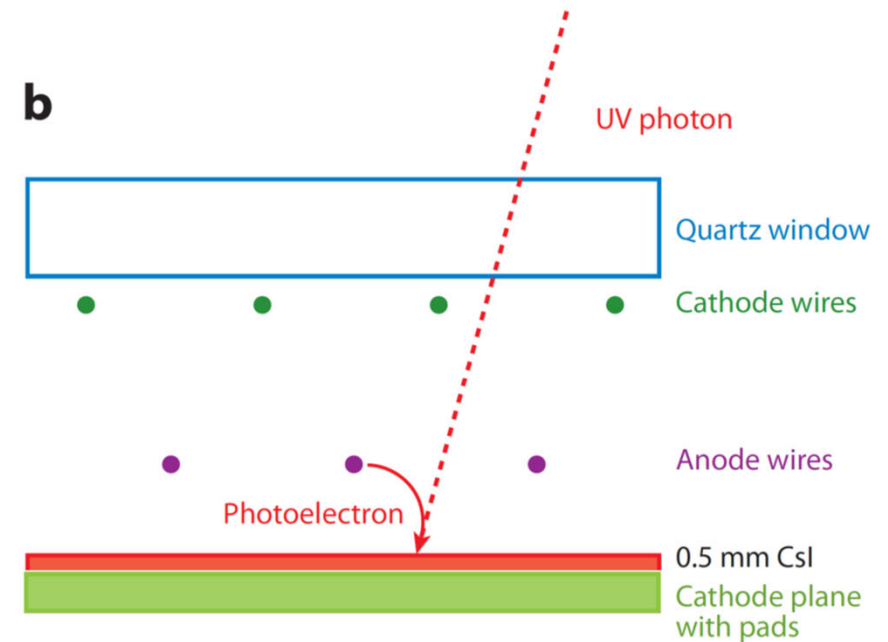
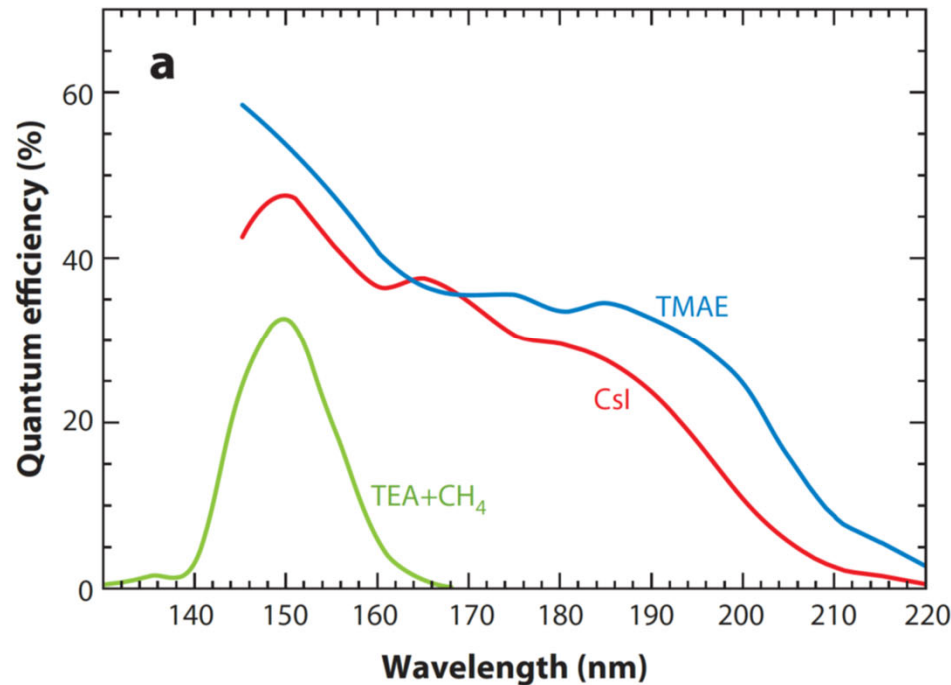


L. Su et al. J. Semicond. 40(2019)121802

Gas-based light sensors



Gas based photon detectors



Standard photosensitive substance: CsI
evaporated on one of the cathodes.
Large scale application: $\sim 11 \text{ m}^2$ ALICE RICH

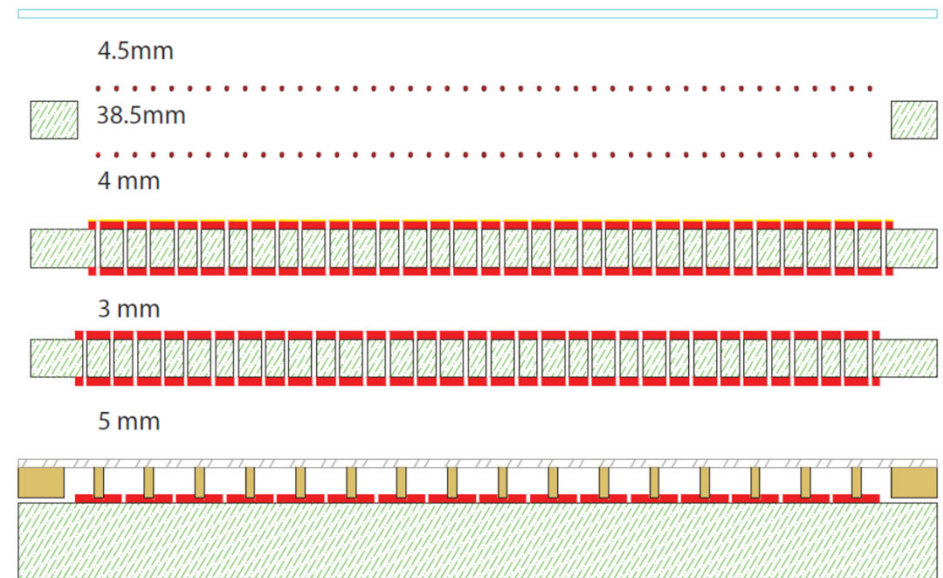
Gas based photon detectors: recent developments

Instead of MWPC:

- Use chambers with multiple GEM or thick GEM (THGEM) gas amplification stages with transm. or refl. photocathode
- COMPASS RICH: transm. Photocathode, 2x THGEM + MicroMegas

S. Dalla Torre, NIM A 970 (2020) 163768

Ion damage of the photocathode:
blocking ions – non-aligned GEM holes



New developments:

- Smaller pads
- Novel photocathode material: nano-diamond layer

Summary and outlook

Next generation of experiments in particle physics: photosensors with faster timing, wider spectral range and improved radiation tolerance.

Many new interesting developments are underway, in particular in SiPMs and MCP-PMTs – not all of them could be covered in this talk.

A detector R&D collaboration (DRD4) was set up early in 2024 to facilitate collaboration in this area of research