

Response of microchannel plates to single particles and to electromagnetic showers

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Abstract

We report on the response of microchannel plates (MCPs) to single relativistic particles and to electromagnetic showers. Particle detection by means of secondary emission of electrons at the MCP surface has long been proposed and is used extensively in ion time-of-flight mass spectrometers. What has not been investigated in depth is their use to detect the ionizing component of showers. The time resolution of MCPs exceeds anything that has been previously used in calorimeters and, if exploited effectively, could aid in the event reconstruction at high luminosity colliders. Several prototypes of photodetectors with the amplification stage based on MCPs were exposed to cosmic rays and to 491 MeV electrons at the INFN-LNF Beam-Test Facility. The time resolution and the efficiency of the MCPs are measured as a function of the particle multiplicity, and the results used to model the response to high-energy showers.

Key words: Micro-channel plates, secondary emission, electromagnetic showers, time response, calorimetry

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28 1 Introduction

29 With the packet structure of beams at hadron colliders, high luminosities are
30 achieved at the cost of an increased number of concurrent collisions per beam
31 crossing at the experiment collision point. At the LHC, there are typically 20-
32 30 overlapping interactions per beam crossing, spread over a length of about
33 5 cm root mean square (RMS) along the beam axis. Event reconstruction ex-
34 ploits the association of individual particles to an interaction vertex: tracks
35 or energy deposits inconsistent with the vertex of interest are filtered, or sta-
36 tistically subtracted. This approach becomes strained at the High-Luminosity
37 LHC (HL-LHC) - and, in prospect, at future colliders -, where about 140-200
38 collisions per beam crossing are anticipated. With peak vertex densities above
39 1 mm^{-1} , tracks from nearby vertices could be merged into a fake, high-energy
40 event vertex [1]. More importantly, even at moderate vertex densities, the
41 random overlap of energy deposits from neutral particles - mainly photons -,
42 which cannot be tied to any vertex, deteriorates the performance of calorime-
43 ters in terms of energy measurement and particle identification, as particles
44 appear to be less isolated. A precise measurement of the time of the energy
45 deposits, and of each collision vertex has been advocated as a means to miti-
46 gate these effects [2]. Due to the length of the packets, collision vertices at the
47 HL-LHC have a time spread of about 200 ps RMS. A time resolution of about
48 20 ps would therefore reduce the ‘effective multiplicity’ of concurrent collisions
49 by a factor 10, down to a level comparable to the LHC. This resolution is one
50 order of magnitude better than at current LHC experiments [3], [4], [5].

51 In this work, we characterize the response of microchannel plates (MCPs) [6]
52 to single relativistic particles and to the ionizing component of electromagnetic
53 showers. Due to their superior time response, a layer of MCPs embedded in a
54 calorimeter, or in a preshower compartment of it, could be exploited to provide
55 a precise measurement of the photon time. In addition, even for moderate
56 efficiencies to minimum ionizing particles, the time of each vertex could be
57 reconstructed from the time of energy deposits associated to charged tracks,
58 owing to the large track multiplicity at hadron colliders. This detector would
59 therefore enable, at once, time separation of vertices in spatial overlap and
60 assignment of the neutral energy to the proper vertex. A preshower would
61 factorize the quest for precision timing from the technological choice of the
62 full calorimeter in future experiments, or could be added in front of existing
63 calorimeters in an upgrade program of current detectors.

64 The use of secondary emission of electrons at the MCP surface to sample the
65 ionizing component of showers was pioneered in 1990 [7]. The MCP response
66 to relativistic particles was also investigated in the ’90s, and detection efficien-
67 cies of around 70%, with time resolution of 70 ps were achieved [8]. Recent
68 technological progress of the Large Area Picosecond Photodetector Collabo-

69 ration [9] may result in a reduction of the cost production for MCPs and is
70 spurring a renewed interest in this detection techniques. A set of measure-
71 ments - similar in scope to our work - has been recently reported in [10],
72 where the response of photodetectors based on MCP multipliers was tested in
73 proton and positron beams. Time resolution of order 20-30 ps at shower maxi-
74 mum were obtained. The contribution to the detector response from secondary
75 emission at the MCP surface was indirectly inferred by estimating the contri-
76 bution from Cherenkov emission in the optical window of the photodetector
77 at different window thicknesses.

78 At variance with that work, we directly measure and characterize the sec-
79 ondary emission from the MCP surface in MCP-based photomultipliers (PMT-
80 MCP), by applying a retarding bias to the photocathode, in order to inhibit
81 avalanche formation from electrons emitted at the photocathode. We refer
82 to this setup as to an 'ionization-MCP' (i-MCP). Measurements are also re-
83 ported for the PMT-MCP operation mode, where Cherenkov emission from
84 the photodetector window was exploited. The potential advantage of an i-MCP
85 consists in the elimination of the photocathode, resulting in a more robust de-
86 sign and in a potentially improved radiation tolerance, since radiation damage
87 mostly affects the photocathode response [11].

88 In this paper, after the description of the detectors and of the measurement
89 setup (Sec. 2), we present results on the response to single particles and to
90 showers at different depths in radiation lengths (Sec. 3 and 4). A response
91 model for the MCPs is developed along with the discussion of the results,
92 and then used to anticipate the performance of a preshower detector (Sec. 5).
93 Ways to further improve the response of i-MCPs are also indicated.

94 2 Detector description and operation modes

95 Our measurements are carried out with PMT-MCPs developed at BINP (No-
96 vosibirsk), in collaboration with the Ekran FEP manufacturer. Full charac-
97 terization of these photodetectors is reported in [12]. Four MCP-PMTs were
98 made available for this study¹. All the devices have an 18 mm diameter and
99 1.2 mm thick optical window, made of borosilicate glass coated with multi-
100 alkali photocathode, which provides a peak quantum efficiency of about 15%
101 at 500 nm. The amplification stage consists of two stacked layers of 0.4 mm
102 thick MCP wafers made of lead glass, with channel diameters ranging between
103 7 and 10 μm , and channel pitch ranging between 10 and 12 μm , depending
104 on the device. The channels in the first and second MCP layer have a bias
105 angle to the photodetector axis of 5° and 13° , respectively. The photocathode

¹ Courtesy of M. Barnyakov

106 is separated from the input stage of the MCP by a gap of 0.2 mm, while the
107 gap from the MCP output to the anode is of 0.4 mm.

108 In addition, we use also one Photonis-XP85012 PMT-MCP, comprising an
109 optical window 53x53 mm² wide, and an amplification stage made of two lead
110 glass MCP layers - each 1 mm thick - with 25 μ m diameter channels. The
111 optical window, 3 mm thick, is coated with bialkali photocathode providing a
112 peak quantum efficiency of about 22% at 380 nm. The anode readout plane is
113 segmented in 64 pads. In our measurements, this granularity was not exploited,
114 and a common signal (of positive polarity) at the output of the second MCP
115 was read out. This configuration is not optimized for time measurements, as
116 the capacitance associated with the wide readout area impacts on the time
117 response. Therefore, data from these measurements are not exploited to qualify
118 the time performance of Photonis-XP85012, but only to study the secondary
119 emission from the MCPs. Noteworthy, the geometry of the MCP wafers is
120 different from Ekran FEP devices, but the ratio of the channel diameter to
121 the wafer thickness (known as ‘aspect ratio’) is about 1:40 in both cases. The
122 bias angle is also similar.

123 A voltage divider is used to provide about 90% of the voltage drop through the
124 MCP layers. Two alternate configurations are used to characterize the MCP
125 response. In the ‘PMT-MCP mode’, 10% of the voltage drop is equally shared
126 between the photocathode-to-MCP and MCP-to-anode gaps. In this config-
127 uration, the response of the detector is driven by avalanches in the MCPs
128 triggered by photoelectrons following Cherenkov emission in the optical win-
129 dow. We estimate that a relativistic particle crossing the optical window at
130 normal incidence generate about four photoelectrons on average. In the ‘i-
131 MCP mode’, a retarding bias is instead applied to the photocathode-to-MCP
132 gap, to prevent photoelectrons from reaching the MCP surface and triggering
133 an avalanche. In this configuration, the response of the detector is uniquely
134 determined by secondary emission of electrons from the MCP layers when
135 crossed by ionizing particles.

136 **3 Time measurements with cosmic-ray muons**

137 The time response of the Ekran FEP MCPs to single particles was carried
138 out with cosmic-ray muons. The cosmic-ray stand consists of a stack of three
139 MCPs aligned to the vertical. The upper and lower detectors are Ekran FEP
140 MCP photomultipliers, operated in PMT-MCP mode to provide trigger and
141 a reference time measurement, upon the passage of a cosmic ray. The third
142 MCP detector, interposed between the other two, is used either in PMT-MCP
143 or in i-MCP mode. In this setup, the rate of muons within the acceptance of
144 the trigger is about 1 h⁻¹.

145 Anode signals, with rise time of order 1 ns, are delayed by about 10 ns relative
 146 to the trigger, and sampled on a 50 Ω load with a Tektronix DPO7254, pro-
 147 viding an 8-bit digitization of the waveforms at 20 GSample/s with an input
 148 bandwidth of 2.5 GHz. On each trigger, fired by the coincidence of the upper
 149 and lower PMT-MCPs, the waveforms of all the three detectors are recorded
 150 for offline analysis. The time information is extracted from interpolated wave-
 151 forms via constant fraction discrimination (CFD), with a threshold set at 40%
 152 of the maximum amplitude. A time-over-threshold algorithm was also tested,
 153 and provided comparable performance. Signals are retained in the analysis, if
 154 their amplitude is five times larger than the RMS of the electronic noise.

155 The distribution of the time difference between the MCP detector and one of
 156 the MCP trigger signals is shown in Fig.1 for an operating voltage of 2500 V. In
 157 the left panel, results are obtained when both detectors are operated in PMT-
 158 MCP mode, while in the right panel one of the detectors is operated in i-MCP
 159 mode. A time spread of 40 ps is observed in the first case, corresponding to
 160 a time resolution of 30 ps to relativistic charged particles in each detector. In
 161 the second configuration, the observed time spread is 60 ps, implying that the
 162 time resolution of the i-MCP detector to single particles is about 50 ps. While
 163 in PMT-MCP mode the detectors are fully efficient to relativistic charged
 164 particles, in the i-MCP mode the efficiency ranges between 10% and 50%,
 165 depending on the bias voltage. Higher resolution and efficiency are expected
 166 for showers, where the multiplicity of secondary particle crossing the MCPs is
 167 higher.

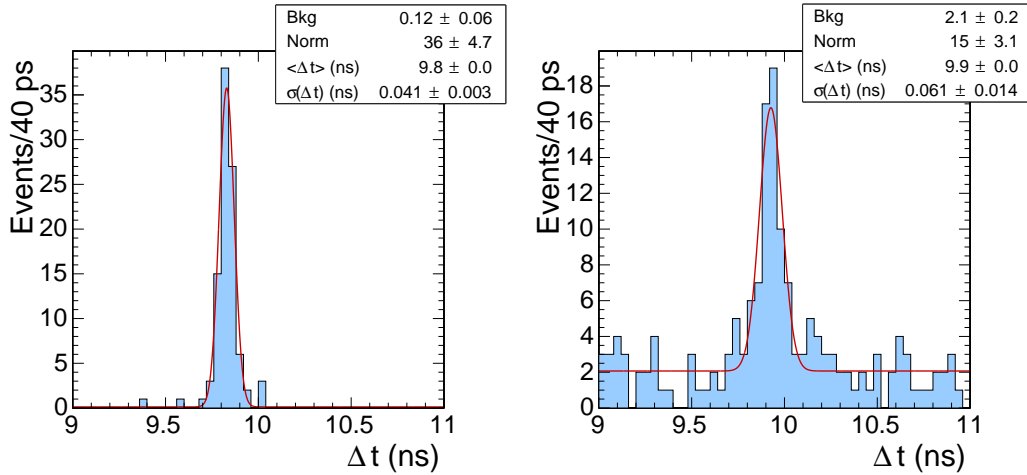


Fig. 1. Distribution of the time difference between signals due to cosmic ray muons through two PMT-MCPs, for signals generated by photoelectrons from Cherenkov emission in the optical window of the two PMT-MCPs (*left*), and for signals generated by secondary emission of electrons at the MCP surface in one of the two PMT-MCPs (*right*).

168 4 Measurements with 491 MeV electrons

169 4.1 Setup at the LNF-BTF electron beam

170 For further characterization of the response and measurement of the efficiency
171 to single particles and to showers, the MCP detectors were exposed to an elec-
172 tron beam at the Beam Test Facility (BTF) of the INFN Laboratori Nazionali
173 di Frascati (Italy) [13]. The beam provides 10 ns long electron pulses with
174 tuneable energy (up to about 500 MeV), repetition rate (up to 49 Hz) and
175 intensity ($1 \div 10^{10}$ particles/pulse). Our measurements were performed with
176 491 MeV electrons and an intensity tuned to provide a mean multiplicity of
177 about one electron per pulse.

178 The MCP photomultipliers were mounted in a light-tight box with the optical
179 window towards the beam and orthogonal to the beam direction. The first and
180 last MCPs along the beam line were operated in PMT-MCP mode, to provide
181 a reference event selection for efficiency measurements. A logic signal, syn-
182 chronous with the beam gate, was used to trigger the waveform digitization of
183 the anode signals, over 200 ns, into a 12-bit 5 GSample/s switched capacitor
184 digitizer (CAEN-V1742). Delays were set to sample about 50 ns of baseline be-
185 fore the signal pulse. Auxiliary beam counters upstream of the MCPs were also
186 readout into gated-ADCs for beam diagnostics and off-line selection purposes.
187 These include a 5 mm thick plastic scintillator with 24×24 mm² cross section
188 and a scintillating fibre hodoscope, covering an acceptance of 8×8 mm² with
189 1 mm pitch in the two coordinates transverse to the beam. Further details on
190 this ancillary instrumentation are given in Ref. [14].

191 Pulses consistent with a single electron entering the test setup, identified from
192 the pulse-height of the signal in the scintillator beam counter, are retained
193 in the offline analysis. Furthermore, the fibre hodoscope is used to identify
194 electrons within the geometric acceptance of the MCPs. The selection is fur-
195 ther refined by requesting a pulse in the first PMT-MCP in the beam line,
196 operated in PMT-MCP mode. The charge and the time of each pulse in the
197 downstream MCPs are extracted upon integration and CFD discrimination
198 of the individual waveforms in a time window of 4 ns in coincidence with the
199 signal of the first PMT-MCP. Events are selected if the charge is five times the
200 RMS noise of the detector, measured from the integration of a 4 ns window in
201 the baseline region before the pulse. Empty beam pulses, i.e. with a signal in
202 the scintillator counter consistent with the pedestal, are used to estimate the
203 rate of accidental signals in the MCPs.

205 To measure the efficiency to single electrons, a coincidence is required between
 206 the first and the last PMT-MCP along the beam line. Events in the MCP
 207 detector under study are accepted if a signal with charge exceeding five times
 208 the RMS noise is found in coincidence within 1 ns of the mean time of the
 209 reference PMT-MCP signals. The raw efficiency result is corrected for random
 210 coincidences of accidental signals falling within the same time window, which
 211 amount to less than 0.1% of the triggers.

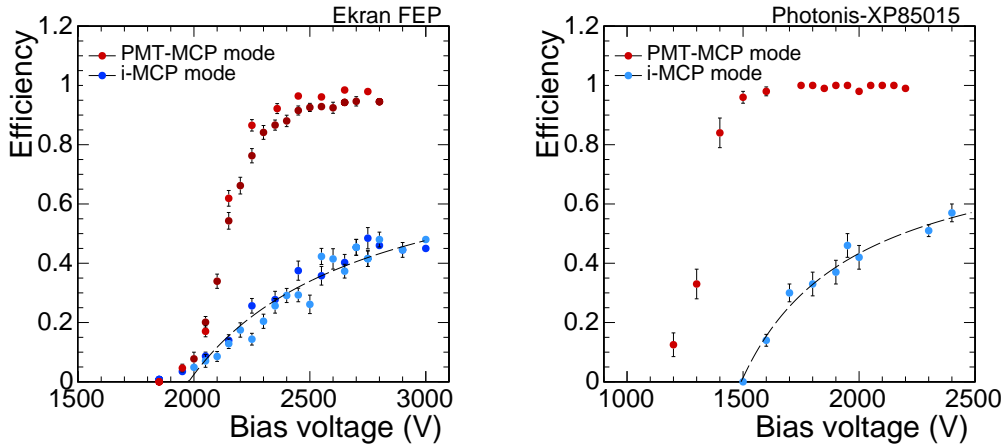


Fig. 2. Efficiency to 491 MeV electrons as a function of the bias voltage for MCP detectors with direct (red dots) and retarding bias (blue dots) between the photocathode and the first MCP layer. The curve through the points is a fit to data of a response model (see text for details). The left panel is for two Ekran FEP MCP detectors; the right panel for Photonis-XP85012.

212 The efficiencies to 491 MeV electrons as a function of the bias voltage are
 213 shown in Fig. 2. Data in the left panel were collected with Ekran FEP MCP
 214 photomultipliers operated in PMT-MCP mode (red dots) and in i-MCP mode
 215 (blue dots). Results in the right panel refer to Photonis-XP85012: due to
 216 limited beam time availability, they include data collected at the cosmic muon
 217 test stand.

218 In PMT-MCP mode, with direct bias to the photocathode, a plateau efficiency
 219 close to 100% is achieved with all the devices. In this configuration, secondary
 220 emission and amplification are operated by separated elements of the detector:
 221 photoelectrons extracted from the photocathode upon Cherenkov emission are
 222 amplified above detection threshold by the MCPs. From the properties of the
 223 optical window and of the photocathode, we estimate the mean number of
 224 photoelectrons to be $\mu \simeq 3 \div 4$ and $15 \div 20$ for the Ekran FEP and the Photonis-
 225 XP85012 photodetectors, respectively. Data are well consistent with a residual
 226 inefficiency of $\exp(-\mu)$ at plateau, where the MCP gain is sufficient to supply

227 single photoelectron detection.

228 In i-MCP mode, a steady increase of the efficiency with the bias voltage is
 229 observed above a threshold voltage not lower than in PMT-MCP mode. A
 230 maximum efficiency in slight excess of 50% is achieved at the maximum high
 231 voltage operated during the tests, but the curve is still not plateauing. In
 232 this configuration, the MCP layers carry out the dual function of seeding the
 233 cascade process, via the secondary electrons extracted from the MCP, and
 234 of providing signal amplification. The amplification process takes place over
 235 different channel lengths, depending on the longitudinal position in the chan-
 236 nel where the secondary electron is extracted. Inefficiency could arise either
 237 because of lack of secondary emission or because of insufficient amplification
 238 in the cascade following the secondary emission. The efficiency can therefore
 239 be written as:

$$240 \quad \epsilon = s \left(1 - \frac{L_{eff}}{L} \right), \quad (L_{eff} \leq L) \quad (1)$$

241 where s (bound to $s \leq 1$) indicates the probability of secondary emission
 242 over the entire MPC length L , and $L_{eff} = L_{eff}(V)$ is the minimum channel
 243 length that, at given voltage, provides sufficient gain to overcome the detection
 244 threshold. In other words, up to gain fluctuations, secondary emissions in the
 245 downstream section of the channel of length L_{eff} do not result in detectable
 246 signals; secondary emissions from the complementary section of length $(L_{eff} -$
 247 $L)$ generate detectable signals. Under the hypothesis that the gain over the
 248 entire channel has a power-law dependence on the bias voltage, with power
 249 index proportional to L , Eq. (1) can be cast in the form:

$$250 \quad \epsilon = s \left(1 - \frac{1}{b \ln(V/V_{th}) + 1} \right), \quad (V \geq V_{th}) \quad (2)$$

251 where V_{th} and b are parameters to be extracted from data. At the threshold
 252 voltage V_{th} , secondary electrons generated at the upper surface of the MCP
 253 receive just the exact gain to become detectable. Noteworthy, this thresh-
 254 old voltage corresponds to the threshold for single photoelectron detection
 255 in PMT-MCP mode: at $V < V_{th}$ the channel length that would be needed
 256 to supply sufficient gain for a single photoelectron to be detected would ex-
 257 ceed the physical length of the channel ($L_{eff} > L$). In agreement with this,
 258 the threshold voltage is approximately the same in both operation modes
 259 with the Ekran FEP detectors (Fig. 2-left), for which the mean number of
 260 photoelectrons following Cherenkov emission is just slightly above unity. In
 261 the Photonis-XP85012 detector with $\mu \simeq 15 - 20$, the efficiency threshold in
 262 PMT-MCP mode occurs at an MPC gain that is about one order of magnitude
 263 lower than in i-MCP mode, i.e. at a bias voltage about 200 V lower than V_{th}
 264 (Fig. 2-right).

265 The dashed curves in Fig.. 2 show the results of the fit to the data of the model
 266 described by Eq.(2). Consistency with data is found for $s \simeq 1$, implying that
 267 there is at least one secondary emission following the passage of an ionizing
 268 particle through the two MCP wafers. This means that the secondary emission
 269 probability from a single wafer is at least 50%. From the aspect ratio and the
 270 bias angle of the MCPs, similar in all the devices under study, we estimate
 271 that beam electrons at normal incidence on the MCP detectors cross an MCP
 272 surface about 10 times as they go through one wafer. We conclude that the
 273 secondary emission probability is of order 10% per crossing of a channel surface
 274 by the primary particle.

275 The dependence of the efficiency on the bias voltage is logarithmic, and the
 276 efficiency gain on the bias voltage too slow to be practical. Moreover, the signal
 277 amplitude depends on where the secondary emission occurs, which may be sub-
 278 optimal for some applications. Lines of investigations that we are pursuing to
 279 enhance the response to single particles in i-MCP include configurations with
 280 multiple MCP stacks, larger bias angles, and wafers with enhanced secondary
 281 emission. These variations in assembly or in properties of the wafers impact
 282 on the total amount of secondary emission and on the channel gain. Based on
 283 our results, for example, we expect that a stack of three MCP wafers could
 284 provide an efficiency of 70% or more.

285 While work is ongoing to refine the MCPs parameters, an efficiency of 50%
 286 to single particles looks already promising for applications in environments
 287 where the track multiplicity is high. This may be sufficient, for example, to
 288 estimate the time of a collision vertex or of electromagnetic showers.

289 4.3 *Response to electromagnetic showers*

290 Further insight in the response of i-MCP detectors is acquired from the anal-
 291 ysis of data collected with a set of absorbers of variable thickness in front of
 292 the MCP detector under test. Similarly to the previous analysis, trigger coun-
 293 ters and one PMT-MCP detector located just upstream of the absorbers are
 294 used to identify beam pulses with single electrons entering the test setup. No
 295 requirements are instead placed on MCPs downstream of the one under test,
 296 not to bias the selected sample with showers with multiplicity of secondary
 297 particles higher than the average. Signals in the i-MCP detector exceeding
 298 five times the RMS noise and in coincidence with the PMT-MCP within 1 ns
 299 are searched for. The efficiency is measured by counting the fraction of these
 300 events within the selected sample.

301 The efficiency to 491 MeV electrons as a function of the absorber thickness,
 302 in radiation lengths (X_0) for an i-MCP operating voltage of 2900 V are shown

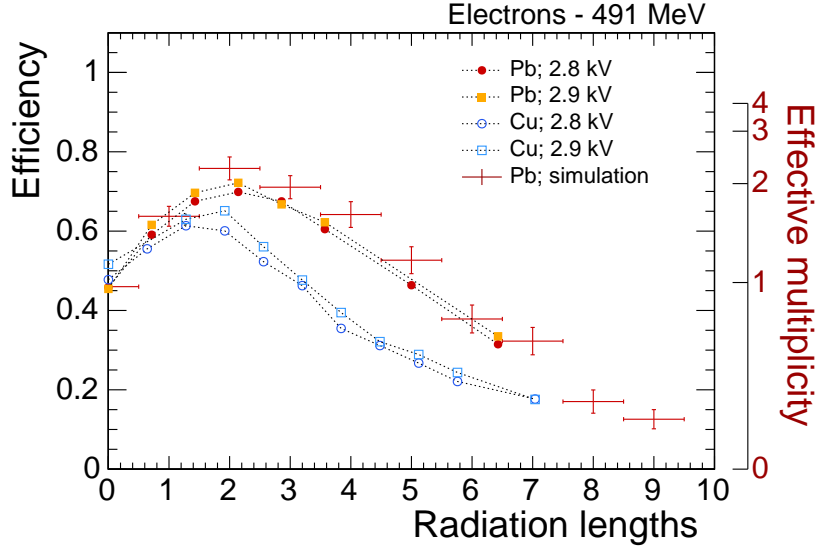


Fig. 3. Efficiency to 491 MeV single electrons in an i-MCP detector as a function of the thickness of lead (full symbols) and copper (open symbols) absorbers. A comparison to simulation for lead (crosses), and the effective multiplicity of particles crossing the MCPs are also shown (see text for details). Errors on the data points are smaller than the marker size. Lines are drawn to guide the eye.

in Fig. 3. Results for two different materials, copper and lead, are displayed. Since lead has a lower critical energy, the multiplicity of secondary particles is expected to be larger with lead absorbers than with copper ones. The efficiency at zero thickness is consistent with the efficiency measured in the analysis of the response to single electrons. As the thickness increases, the efficiency raises from 45% to a maximum of about 70% with the lead absorber at a depth of about $2X_0$. A maximum at a somewhat shallower depth, and with an efficiency of about 65% is observed with a copper absorber. At larger thicknesses, the efficiency decreases and eventually vanishes. This is understood as the effect of the evolution of charged particle multiplicity within the shower for 491 MeV electrons.

Data are also compared to a Monte Carlo (MC) simulation based on the Geant4 package [15, 16]. Electrons of 491 MeV are fired on the absorber. The beam profile is tuned to match the distribution measured at the hodoscope with the events selected by the analysis. Secondary particles from the shower cascade are traced to the MCP surface, and each charged particle with sufficient energy to cross the full thickness of the wafers is assigned a probability $\epsilon = 45\%$ to generate a detectable signal. Primary electrons are counted, if at least one secondary electron generated a signal. This is equivalent to describe the MCP response with a binomial per-event probability:

$$\epsilon(n) = 1 - (1 - \epsilon_0)^n, \quad (3)$$

324 where ϵ_0 is the efficiency to single particles without absorber, and n is the
 325 multiplicity of charged particles crossing the MCP at a given absorber depth.
 326 These equation could be used to extract from data the effective multiplicity
 327 at each depth. Results from simulation, shown for the lead absorber in Fig.3,
 328 are in good agreement with data and confirm our interpretation of the evo-
 329 lution of the response as a function of the absorber depth. According to this
 330 interpretation, the efficiency at the maximum corresponds to an effective mul-
 331 tiplicity of two charged particles per 491 MeV electron. A multiplicity in excess
 332 of four would bring the efficiency to electromagnetic showers above 90%, for
 333 $\epsilon_0 = 45\%$. Improvements to the efficiency to single particles in future devices
 334 would directly reflect in an improved response to showers.

335 **5 Extrapolation to photons of high energy**

336 The simulation and the response model are extended to evaluate the poten-
 337 tial of photon timing at high energies with MCP detectors embedded in a
 338 preshower. A detailed design study is beyond the scope of this document, but
 339 we focus on two aspects to help clarify some performance requirements: on
 340 the one side, precision timing could be fully exploited if achieved with suffi-
 341 cient efficiency, and on the other, the impact on the energy resolution of the
 342 calorimeter system should remain small. Both aspects are studied in dedicated
 343 simulations.

344 In the study of the efficiency, electrons and photons of 30 GeV are simulated
 345 and propagated through the same MC simulation shown to match test beam
 346 results (see Sec. 4). These energies are representative of physics processes rel-
 347 evant at the HL-LHC. We find that one i-MCP detector with 45% efficiency
 348 to single particles would be sufficient to provide full efficiency to electrons
 349 and more than 80% efficiency for photons after $3X_0$ of lead. The increase in
 350 efficiency relative to direct measurements with 491 MeV electrons should be
 351 ascribed to the higher multiplicity of secondary particles in 30 GeV showers.
 352 The efficiency to photons would rise to above 90%, with two sampling layers at
 353 $1X_0$ and $3X_0$, or alternatively with a single layer, if the efficiency to single par-
 354 ticles could be increased to 70%. The difference in efficiency between electrons
 355 and photons reflects the conversion probability of photons in the absorber. At
 356 full MCP efficiency, a residual, irreducible inefficiency of approximately 5% to
 357 photons in a $3X_0$ preshower would still be observed. As we commented earlier,
 358 work is ongoing to enhance the single particle efficiency.

359 To study the impact on the energy resolution, the simulation, used so far only
 360 to count particles below the detection threshold, is extended to include the
 361 analog response of i-MCPs. In i-MPC mode, the gain of the detector depends
 362 on the position along the MCP channel where the secondary emission occurs.

363 As a consequence, the amplitude spectrum observed with single particles at
 364 the test beam is broad and approximately flat above the threshold amplitude
 365 up to a maximum amplitude. This is implemented in simulation by randomly
 366 sampling a uniform distribution for $\epsilon = 45\%$ of the particles crossing the MCP
 367 detectors, randomly selected, and ascribing zero amplitude to the remaining
 368 particles. Even if the single particle response is broad, the mean response is
 369 still proportional to particle multiplicity crossing the i-MCP and, in turn, to
 370 the energy deposited in the $3X_0$ absorber. This relationship defines the ampli-
 371 tude to energy calibration of the MC simulation. After calibration, events are
 372 generated scanning several energies from 10 to 300 GeV. The energy deposited
 373 in the preshower in each event is estimated from the amplitude and added to
 374 the energy deposited in a calorimeter block downstream of the preshower,
 375 with ideal resolution. With this procedure, the resulting energy sum is only
 376 smeared by the amplitude response spread due to the preshower, and is there-
 377 fore suited to predict the resolution term that this preshower would add to the
 378 calorimeter. According to simulation, we find this contribution to be smaller
 379 than $5\%/\sqrt{E(\text{GeV})}$, which is definitely a small contribution for most electro-
 380 magnetic calorimeters.

381 **6 Summary and outlook**

382 We report on the response of microchannel plates (MCPs) to single relativistic
 383 particles and to electromagnetic showers. Several prototypes of photodetectors
 384 with the amplification stage based on MCPs were exposed to cosmic rays and
 385 to 491 MeV electrons at the INFN-LNF Beam-Test Facility. The MCPs were
 386 used as secondary emission detectors, by applying a retarding bias to the pho-
 387 todecathode. In this configuration, time resolutions of about 50 ps with cosmic
 388 muons, and detection efficiencies to single relativistic particles of order 50%
 389 are obtained. Measurement with electromagnetic showers sampled at different
 390 depths shows that the MCPs efficiency has a simple binomial dependence on
 391 the multiplicity of particles in the shower. Starting from the interpretation of
 392 the results, lines of investigations to further enhance the response of detectors
 393 relying on secondary emission from the MCP surface are suggested. While
 394 these investigations are being pursued, we show that present results make this
 395 detection technique worth considering for application in the precision timing
 396 of high energy photons and charged particles, to aid in event reconstruction
 397 at high luminosity colliders.

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