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## A liquid hydrogen target for radioactive beam experiments using the missing mass method

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#### Abstract

We developed a liquid hydrogen target dedicated to missing mass spectroscopy using radioactive isotope beams. The target has a circular aperture of 20 mm and a maximum thickness of 1.5 mm at the center. A test experiment with a <sup>12</sup>C beam at 54.4 MeV/u was performed at GANIL. The <sup>12</sup>C(p, d)<sup>11</sup>C reaction was measured with the chargedparticle telescopes MUST2. An excitation energy resolution of 500-keV r.m.s. was obtained for the observed ground state. The target thickness was confirmed from the comparison of the measured differential cross sections to previous measurements.

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Keywords: Liquid hydrogen target, Radioactive ion beam, Missing mass spectroscopy

#### 1. Introduction

Radioactive isotopes often manifest unique phenomena that would be unexpected with stable nuclei, such 3 as the halo structure [1] or the disappearance of magic 4 numbers [2]. Radioactive isotope (RI) beam facili-5 ties, which provide radioactive isotopes in the form of 6 beams, have been a driving force to investigate the struc-7 ture and reactions of unstable nuclei. New generations 8 of RI beam facilities are presently under construction 9 [3–7] or in operation [8] across the world. 10 In this paper, we report on our development of a liq-11 uid hydrogen target for proton induced reactions of RI 12

beams. In scattering experiments, protons are often 13 used as a probe. Proton induced reactions have rel-14 atively simple reaction mechanisms and better known 15 optical potentials than other heavier targets. The re-16 action formalisms such as the DWBA or DWIA are 17 known to be applicable and various reaction codes 18 (DWUCK4/5 [9], TWOFNR [10], FRESCO [11]) have 19 been developed to calculate cross sections and other re-20 action observables. Inelastic proton scattering or the 21 22

one-neutron transfer (p, d) reaction are thus established

reaction probes sensitive to the collectivity or single par-23 ticle nature of nuclei of interest. The combined use of a 24 liquid hydrogen target and RI beams allows to investi-25

gate the inherent structure of radioactive isotopes.

Various cryogenic hydrogen targets [12–20] have been developed for spectroscopy of RI beams. We summarize existing cryogenic targets in Fig. 1 as a function of opening areas and areal densities. Most of the early types of cryogenic hydrogen targets are found at the thicker and wider end of the distribution (>  $10^2 \text{ mg/cm}^2$ and  $1 \text{ cm}^2$ ). These targets are optimized to increase the luminosity or experimental yields by compensating lower beam intensities (typically less than 10<sup>5</sup> particles per second) with a number of hydrogen atoms and efficiently accepting an RI beam with a large profile (1- $10 \text{ cm}^2$ ). While spectroscopy is often carried out with the detection of gamma-rays, neutrons, or fast ions that are transmissive, these thick targets are not optimal for spectroscopy utilizing low energy ions with high stopping powers in a medium.

Our liquid hydrogen target has been developed to perform the so-called missing mass spectroscopy with RI beams, as indicated by the red star in Fig. 1. Note that our reactions of interest are mostly direct reactions at 10 to 100 MeV/u and do not include quasi free scattering at higher energies. In the missing mass method,

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Figure 1: The opening area and areal density of cryogenic hydrogen targets. The available thinnest areal density of each target system is shown. The liquid and solid hydrogen targets are indicated by the circles and triangles with reference numbers, respectively. The liquid hydrogen target of this work is highlighted by the red star.

the excitation energies and angular distributions are ob-49 tained from the energy and emission angle of the recoil-50 ing ions. An advantage of this method is that the infor-101 51 mation of the nucleus of interest can be obtained only 102 52 from the recoiling ion without detecting the nucleus or 53 any of its decay products. While missing mass exper-54 iments with RI beams [21–25] have been carried out 55 with silicon detector arrays optimized for the detection 106 56 of low energy ions such as MUST [26], MUST2 [27], 107 57 HiRA [28], HELIOS [29] or TiARA [30], most of these 58 experiments are limited to RI beams with relatively high 109 59 intensity. The difficulty in adopting this method to RI 110 60 61 beams is that the recoiling ions are often emitted at 111 low energies in the laboratory frame, typically 10 MeV 62 or less in the region of interest. The high stopping 113 63 power imposes a constraint on the target thickness. Sev- 114 64 eral previous targets developed for missing mass experi-65 ments are thus found at the thinner end of Fig. 1. How- 116 66 ever, the size of the entrance window of these targets is 117 67 usually small to limit the heat capacity of the target and 118 68 its tendency to warm up under thermal radiation. This is 119 69 because a thinner target has a smaller heat capacity with 70 a large entrance window and is more prone to warm up 71 121 under thermal radiation. To limit the warming due to 72 thermal radiation, the opening area is limited to  $1 \text{ cm}^2$ 73 or smaller. This inevitably leads to a loss of acceptance 124 74 when RI beams have a large beam profile. 75

The goal of the present development is to realize a cryogenic hydrogen target of a thin thickness (about 1 mm), and with a reasonably large aperture  $(3.14 \text{ cm}^2)$  for missing mass experiments with RI beams. The target was realized in the liquid phase, not in the solid for easier handling of the target and vacuum system.

The requirements of hydrogen targets for the missing mass experiments are described in Section 2. The description of the target system including the newly designed target cells is summarized in Section 3. In Section 4, the test experiments with the new target cell is presented. Finally, conclusion is given in Section 5.

#### 2. Requirements of hydrogen targets

In this section, we describe the specifications of our liquid hydrogen target. CH<sub>2</sub> foils are the most readily available solution for proton targets. While CH<sub>2</sub> has good mechanical and thermodynamical characteristics at room temperature, the typical areal density of hydrogen for the application of missing mass spectroscopy is as low as 1 mg/cm<sup>2</sup>, or 12.5  $\mu$ m thickness. This is because CH<sub>2</sub> contains carbon atoms which reduce the number of hydrogen atoms per unit length. Under the condition that the energy loss of an ion traversing the medium is equivalent, the number of hydrogen atoms in solid or liquid hydrogen targets is about 5 times larger than in CH<sub>2</sub> targets. This is the advantage of using a cryogenic target albeit its realization and operation are much more difficult than for a CH<sub>2</sub> target.

In terms of density, liquid and solid hydrogen are almost the same. The density of liquid hydrogen, 7.0 mg/cm<sup>3</sup> at 18 K and 1 atm, is as large as that of solid hydrogen, 7.15 mg/cm<sup>3</sup>. To efficiently accept RI beam ions from the projectile fragmentation reaction with a spot size of 1 to  $10 \text{ cm}^2$ , a larger aperture size is desirable. The downside in enlarging the aperture is that the heat radiation through the larger surface area makes it harder to maintain the liquid or solid phase. From this point of view, a liquid hydrogen target has a practical advantage over a solid hydrogen target, since the critical temperature of the liquid phase (21 K) is higher than that of the solid phase (14 K).

For a better excitation energy resolution with reactions with low energy recoiling particles, the angular and energy straggling in the target should be small. This is because the straggling deteriorates the resolution of the kinetic energy and the scattering angle of a recoiling particle. In addition, the energy loss inside the target adds to the uncertainty of measured energies, which is increasingly important as the energy decreases. Later in Sect. 4, we will show the test result of the  ${}^{12}C(p,d){}^{11}C$ 

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Figure 2: (a) Schematic drawing of the CRYPTA system. (b) Only the parts connected to the first cooling stage of the refrigerator are displayed. (c) The other parts connected to the second cooling stage.

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reaction at 54.4 MeV/u as a typical reaction of our in- 152 126

terest. Deuterons are emitted at forward angles with an 153 127

energy of 18 MeV or higher (Fig. 11). With a liquid 128

hydrogen target of 1 mm thickness, the energy loss of 129

an 18 MeV deuteron while traversing half the target is 130 estimated to be 413 keV. This uncertainty balances with 155 131

156 the energy resolution of CsI(Tl) detector (a few hundred 132 157 keV r.m.s.), which is often used to measure the kinetic 133

energy of a recoiling particle. 134

With these considerations, we developed a thin liquid 159 135 hydrogen target of about 1-mm thickness while keeping 160 136 the aperture size as large as possible. We realized an <sup>161</sup> 137 aperture of 20 mm in diameter and a measured thickness 138 of 1.5 mm at the center with deformed window foils. 139

#### 3. Description of the system 140

In this development, we used the cryogenic target 168 141 system CRYPTA [14]. CRYPTA is a target system that 169 142 has routinely been operated at the Radioactive Isotope 170 143 Beam Factory (RIBF) of RIKEN to provide proton and 171 144 deuteron targets to various experiments of in-beam  $\gamma$ - 172 145 ray spectroscopy or invariant mass spectroscopy using 173 146 RI beams [31–35]. The advantage of CRYPTA is that 174 147 the target cell has a modular construction and is detach- 175 148 able from the cooling rod. The shape and dimensions 176 149 can be optimized depending on the requirements. In 177 150 the previous experiments, target cells with a thickness 178 151

of 10 mm or larger were adopted. We developed a cell optimized for the present purpose.

#### 3.1. Overview of the cryogenic target system

A schematic view of CRYPTA is shown in Fig. 2. A Gifford-McMahon cycle refrigerator is used for cooling. A target cell is connected to the refrigerator with a copper rod in a vacuum chamber. The target cell and the copper rod are surrounded by an aluminum shield, called heat radiation shield hereafter, to protect the cold parts from thermal radiation emitted by the materials at room temperature, most importantly the wall of the vacuum chamber. The target cell, copper rod and heat radiation shield are kept under vacuum. The refrigerator is attached to the top of the vacuum chamber. The system and the top flange of the vacuum chamber are connected by a bellows. The position of the target cell can be optimized by adjusting this bellows. The refrigerator has two cooling contacts with different capacities. The first stage, to which the heat radiation shield is attached, reaches the lowest temperature of 38 K with a capacity of 9 W. The second stage is connected to the target cell via the copper rod. This stage with a capacity of 5 W reaches the lowest temperature of 10 K. For the adiabatic cooling, helium gas with a purity of 99.999% at a pressure of 10 atm is used. The compression and heat exchange of the gas are performed by the compressor CW303 of Iwatani Cooperation. The gas



Figure 3: Schematic drawing of the vacuum and gas equipment and the monitoring devices.

<sup>179</sup> circulates in a closed system consisting of the refrigera- <sup>208</sup>

tor and the compressor connected via a pair of stainless 209
 steel flexible tubings. The compressor was cooled by 210
 tap or chilled water at temperatures between 10°C to 211
 25°C. 212

A schematic drawing of the vacuum and gas tubings is 213 184 shown in Fig. 3. The operation and control of the vac- 214 185 uum and hydrogen gas were manually carried out by us-186 215 ing a dedicated gas handling panel. All volumes (target 216 187 cell, reservoir tank, hydrogen gas cylinder), pumping 217 188 and monitoring devices are connected to or integrated 218 189 into this panel. The reservoir tank serves as a buffer to 219 190 store hydrogen gas when the target cell is empty. By 220 191 opening the outlet valve, hydrogen gas is channeled to 221 192 the target cell. When needed, additional gas can be sup- 2222 193 plied from the gas cylinder to the reservoir. To moni-194 tor the temperatures, three DT-470 silicon diode cryo-195 22/ genic temperature sensors of Lake Shore Cryotronics, 225 196 Inc. are used. One of the thermometers is attached to 226 197 the upper part of the target cell hereafter called 'ther- 227 198 mometer A', another to the location near the aperture on 199 228 the front surface of the target cell (thermometer B) and 229 200 the last one to the heat radiation shield (thermometer 230 201 C). Thermometer A and C are permanently fixed with 202 231 solder. Thermometer B is attached by a high-vacuum 203 grease APIEZON N to facilitate the detachment when 204 232 the target cell windows are changed. A 30  $\Omega$  thermo-205 233 couple is used as a heater. The heater is attached to the 206 234 copper rod close to thermometer A. The heater is used 207 235

to prevent liquid hydrogen from being solidified during cooling and to evaporate liquid hydrogen during warming. The thermometers and the heater are connected to the cryogenic temperature controller model 331 of Lake Shore Cryotronics, Inc. The heater power was continuously adjusted by the so-called PID control [36]. The PID control is a feedback control method to keep a given value, the temperature of thermometer A in the current case, constant. For this purpose, the proportional (P), integral (I) and derivative (D) of the difference of the current value and the set value (e(t)) as a function of time (t) are used. The manipulated variable, the heater power in the current case, is given by  $K_P e(t) + K_I \int_0^t e(t') dt' + K_D de(t)/dt$ . The coefficients were set  $K_P = 10$ ,  $K_I = 70$ /s and  $K_D = 10$  s. The module was remotely monitored and controlled via GPIB control. The GPIB output was connected to the Ethernet network by the GPIB/ENET/100 module of National Instruments. A LabVIEW based software was used to set and write the parameters of the module, or monitor and record the outputs of the thermometers. The recording interval was set to be five seconds. The module was also controlled by a computer placed outside of the experimental area.

#### 3.2. Target cell

The target cell consists of a body frame and a pair of windows, all made of the A6061 aluminum alloy, which has a high thermal conductivity of  $0.15 \text{ kW/(m^{\circ}C)}$  at



Figure 4: Schematic drawings of the assembled target cell seen from (a) downstream and (b) upstream. (c) An expanded view of the body and windows. (d) A cross sectional side view of the target cell. All dimensions are given in mm.

25°C. Schematic drawings of the target cell are shown in 257 236 Fig. 4. A 3-mm diameter inlet of the hydrogen gas was 258 237 made inside the attachment to the copper rod. Each win-259 238 dow had an aperture of 20 mm in diameter at the center 260 239 where beam particles were transmitted. The aperture 261 240 of the downstream window was tapered at 45° so that 262 241 the outer edge of the aperture would not intercept parti- 263 242 cles scattered at large angles, thus increasing the angular 264 243 coverage. The upstream window was not tapered. Beam 265 244 particles were intercepted by the flat surface around the 266 245 aperture with aluminum of 8.3 mm in thickness. This 267 246 minimizes the risk of these particles directly hitting the 268 247 detectors around the target. A 6.47- $\mu$ m-thick HAVAR 269 248 foil was glued to each window with Stycast 1266 epoxy 270 249 resin of Henkel Loctite, which keeps good adhesion 271 250 under high vacuum at low temperatures. An advan- 272 251 tage of HAVAR foils over organic compound alterna-252 tives is its stiffness. The elastic modulus of HAVAR 253 273 is 200 GPa [37] while that of Kapton, a widely used 254 274 organic compound foil, is 3 GPa at room temperature. 255 275 The foils were attached to the inner surfaces of the win-256 276

dows to withstand the outward pressure from liquid and gaseous hydrogen inside. The target cell was assembled with eight screws. To ensure tight sealing against liquid hydrogen, a 1-mm-diameter indium wire was inserted between the contacting surfaces of the body frame and a window. By tightening the screws, the indium wires on both sides are compressed to establish intimate contact. The designed distance between the foils of the two windows was 0.5 mm. As seen in the cross sectional view in Fig. 4, the target cell thus assembled has a buffer volume of liquid hydrogen with a thickness of 7 mm surrounding the opening area. During filling, liquid hydrogen from the inlet at the top first fills the buffer volume. Once the buffered liquid has enough pressure, it starts leaking into the aperture volume through the peripheral slit as narrow as 0.5 mm.

#### 3.3. Measurement of the uniformity of the window foils

The uniformity of the target surface is an important property of the cryogenic target for reaction studies since inhomogeneous target thickness often consti-



Figure 5: Surfaces of the target window foils scanned by a laser sensor. The cell was filled with hydrogen gas at 0.8 atm and put under vacuum.

327 tutes a major source of uncertainties in deducing reac-277 328 tion cross sections. To limit the inhomogeneity, many 278 320 efforts have been made for the existing hydrogen targets 279 as summarized in Ref. [38]. For liquid hydrogen targets, 280 331 one way is to use a foil with high elastic modulus to 281 332 mitigate the bulge under the outward pressure of liquid 282 albeit it adds impurities to the target (see also Fig. 28 283 of Ref. [38]). In the present case, a foil of HAVAR 284 with high elastic modulus was used. While the thick-285 ness of 6.47  $\mu$ m ensures that the number of impurities 286  $(5.56 \times 10^{19} / \text{ cm}^2)$  is much lower with respect to the hy-287 drogen target of 1 mm in thickness  $(4.18 \times 10^{21} / \text{cm}^2)$ , 288 it efficiently limits the flat surface to bulge. To evaluate 289 the uniformity of the target surfaces, we measured the 290 341 size of displacement at each point of the surface by us-291 342 ing the laser displacement sensor LK-500 of Keyence. 292 343 The device is a laser-based technology to measure the 293 344 distance from an object with an accuracy of 0.1 mm. In 294 the measurement, the target cell was put in a vacuum 295 chamber with a diameter of 15 cm. The chamber has 296 347 a glass view port at 11.5 cm from the target cell win-297 348 dow. A beam of laser light from the LK-500 device was 298 349 directed toward the target cell through this view port. 299 We scanned the surface of each window foil by step-300 ping the LK-500 device in the vertical direction. For 350 301 302 simplicity, the target cell was filled with hydrogen gas 351 at 0.8 atm and at room temperature. The results of the 303 front and back surfaces are shown together in Fig. 5. 352 304 The pair of foils is separated by the designed distance 353 305

of 0.5 mm at the periphery of the aperture. It was found that the foils gradually swelled outwards from the edge to the center. The maximum size of displacement was 0.5 mm at the center of the aperture. The total thickness of liquid hydrogen is 1.5 mm, larger by 1 mm with respect to the periphery of the aperture, where the size of 0.5 mm is defined by the distance of the opposing target windows. The volume inside the opening is estimated to  $100\pi$  mm<sup>3</sup> by approximating the shapes of the foils with a quadratic function. This volume translates into an average thickness of 1.0 mm given the opening area of  $100\pi$  mm<sup>2</sup> assuming a uniform beam profile. The corresponding areal density of liquid hydrogen is 7.0 mg/cm<sup>2</sup> at the nominal operating temperature (16 K) and pressure (0.8 atm).

#### 3.4. Heat radiation shield

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The heat radiation shield (Fig. 6) served to protect the target cell and the adjacent materials inside from thermal radiation of the vacuum chamber. It was a tube of the A6061 aluminum alloy with a diameter of 90 mm and with a thickness of 3 mm. The upstream side of the shield had an opening of 26 mm in diameter. The size of this opening was chosen to balance the transmission of beam particles toward the target and the efficiency of radiation shielding. The larger size of 26 mm than the target aperture (20 mm in diameter) was adopted since it is difficult to align the target and the heat radiation with precision. When the target system is cooled down, the parts connected to the first cooling stage (target) and to the second cooling stage (heat radiation shield) shrink by different lengths, which depend on the temperatures and materials. We thus adopted a conservative margin of 6 mm in diameter to ensure the transmission. The downstream side had a rectangular opening with cross sectional area of 80×100 mm<sup>2</sup> to let particles scattered at large angles escape. To limit thermal radiation through these openings, they were covered by 2-µm-thick aluminized Mylar foils. These foils were attached to the radiation shield by the APIEZON N cryogenic high vacuum grease. We also tested a 7- $\mu$ m-thick aluminum foil. The liquefaction was successful in both cases. Therefore we adopted 2- $\mu$ m-thick aluminized Mylar foils for smaller energy losses of the incoming beam particles and outgoing scattered particles.

#### 4. Experiments

#### 4.1. Liquefaction test

We performed a test of the new target cell to confirm the liquefaction. The test was carried out at RIBF using



Figure 6: Photographs of the heat radiation shield taken from (a) the upstream side and (b) the downstream side. Photograph (c) was also taken from the downstream side, but the rectangular cut to the radiation shield is covered by an aluminized Mylar foil.

the test bench for cryogenic targets. The target system 387 354 was installed in the same vacuum chamber used for the 388 355 measurement of the uniformity of the window foils de- 389 356 scribed in the previous section. The vacuum was kept at 390 357  $2.0 \times 10^{-7}$  mbar by using a turbo molecular pump. One 391 358 of the window foils was replaced with a transparent 125-392 359  $\mu$ m-thick Kapton foil to visually confirm the liquid level 393 360 inside the cell. During the liquefaction, the tempera- 394 361 tures of the upper part of the target cell (thermometer 395 362 A) and near the window aperture (thermometer B) were 396 363 monitored. The pressure of hydrogen gas was also mea-364 307 sured. The temperature records of thermometer A and 365 398 B are shown in Fig. 7 together with the pressure record. 366 Before t = 0 min, the heater was regulated to keep the 400 367 temperature A at 15.5 K to avoid solidification of hydro- 401 368 gen below the melting point  $(R_1)$ . We started introduc- 402 369 ing hydrogen gas at t = 0 min. When hydrogen gas was 403 370 introduced by gradually opening the valve on the gas 404 371 handling panel, the temperature of the target rapidly in- 405 372 creased to 21 K ( $R_2$ ). This is because the cooling power 406 373 of the cryogenic system was not sufficient to remove the 407 374 heat of condensation released by hydrogen gas undergo- 408 375 ing rapid cooling. At the end of  $R_2$ , the valve was fully 409 376 opened and both temperatures A and B stopped increas- 410 377 ing. The temperatures as well as the hydrogen gas pres- 411 378 sure were decreasing over next 10 minutes. During this 412 379 period, liquid hydrogen started filling the volume inside 413 380 the window aperture. The liquid surface emerged from 414 381 the bottom of the cell. The liquid level gradually grew 415 382 upwards, but stopped at one point in the middle of the 416 383 cell as shown in top left of Fig. 7 and the complete fill- 417 384 ing never happened during  $R_3$ . After filling of the open-418 385 ing area stalled, the gas pressure continued to decrease. 419 386

proceeded albeit the liquid level was unchanged. Liquefied hydrogen was most likely remained in the buffer volume unseen from the outside. The temperatures then suddenly started to drop  $(R_4)$ . This indicates that the liquefaction in the buffer volume came to an end and stopped releasing heat of condensation. The rate of temperature decrease got slower over the time and the temperature curve B followed a gentle slope toward around 16 K. We observed a sudden rise and fall in the temperature A as indicated by the red arrow in Fig. 7 (a) at t = 9.2 min. At the same moment, from the glass view port, it was visually observed that the liquid surface level, of which the growth was once stalled in  $R_3$ , suddenly raised to the upper end of the aperture volume of the target cell as shown in top and right of Fig. 7. The reason why the aperture volume was suddenly filled out in  $R_4$  and did not undergo gradual and continuous filling together with the buffer volume in  $R_3$  is that the window foils were not cold enough in  $R_3$ . The foils underwent cooling in  $R_4$  and the temperature finally decreased below the boiling temperature, which triggered the complete filling in a short period of time. Thermometer A at the upper part of the target cell picked up a signal from the filling likely because the same amount of hydrogen gas was liquefied to compensate liquid hydrogen leaking into the aperture volume. To establish stable operating condition, the temperature was kept above the boiling point of hydrogen by using the heater after  $R_4$ . From the test with the Kapton foil, the observation of the spike signal in thermometer A after filling of the buffer volume confirms the filling of the aperture volume even if it is impossible to visually confirm the liquid level in-

This indicates that liquefaction slowly but continuously



Figure 7: Record of (a) temperatures and (b) pressure during the liquefaction operation in the test chamber. The temperatures measured by thermometer A and B are plotted in black and red, respectively. A sudden rise and fall in temperature observed by thermometer A is indicated by the red arrow. One of the window foils was replaced with a transparent 125- $\mu$ m-thick Kapton foil. The inside of the cell was photographed through this Kapton foil. From left to right, the photographs taken at t = 5.0, 9.2, and 9.5 min, respectively, are shown. The surface level of liquid hydrogen is indicated by the light blue arrows.

420 side the cell.

The same test was performed with HAVAR foils on both 441 421 sides of the target cell. The temperature records of ther- 442 422 mometer A and B are shown in Fig. 8 together with the 443 423 pressure record. The monitored temperatures of both 444 424 thermometers show the same trend as observed in the 445 425 previous test with the Kapton foil. The spike signal 446 426 is clearly visible at t = 10.5 min with thermometer A, 447 427 which is close to the time of the complete filling ob- 448 428 served in the previous test. This confirms that the target 449 429 cell, both the buffer volume and the narrow aperture vol-450 430 ume, was fully filled with liquid hydrogen. 431



Figure 8: Record of (a) temperatures and (b) pressure during the liquefaction operation in the test chamber. Both window foils were made of HAVAR.

### 4.2. In-beam test with a ${}^{12}C$ beam

We performed a test with a beam to confirm the liquefaction under experimental conditions and also to evaluate the performance of missing mass spectroscopy using the present target. The in-beam test was carried out at the LISE beam line of GANIL [42]. The setup of the experiment was almost the same as the experiment reported in Ref. [22]. The liquid hydrogen target was installed in a vacuum chamber with 1.2 m in diameter and 1 m in height, called M2C chamber, placed at the D6 experimental station of LISE. The temperature record in the M2C chamber is compared to that of the test chamber in Fig. 9. The cooling started at t = 0. In the test chamber, the temperatures leveled off after 12 hours of cooling. The M2C chamber follows the same decreasing trend as the test chamber, but it turned to an increasing trend at t = 8 h and leveled off at a much higher temperature at t = 16 h. This is attributed to the fact that the M2C chamber has a much larger volume (1,130 L) than the test chamber (18 L) and a worse

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Figure 9: Temperatures of (a) thermometer A and (b) thermometer C during the liquefaction operation in the M2C chamber (red). For comparison, the same data of the test chamber (black) is added.

vacuum level. The vacuum pressure of the M2C cham- 504 452 ber equipped with three turbo molecular pumps and a 505 453 cryogenic pump was  $2.0 \times 10^{-6}$  mbar. This is about one 506 454 order of magnitude worse than the vacuum level in the 507 455 test chamber. Residual gas molecules are accumulated 456 508 on to the body frame and to the windows of the target 509 457 as the cooling continues. This results in an increasingly 510 458 lower reflection coefficient of these materials. As the re- 511 459 flection coefficient decreases, the materials absorb more 512 460 radiant heat, thus increasing the temperature. During 513 461 the beam time, we sometimes warmed up the target to 514 462 force the material surfaces outgassing. 463

The <sup>12</sup>C beam was accelerated by a pair of cyclotrons. <sup>516</sup> 464 The energy of 75 MeV/u at the exit of the second cy- 517 465 clotron was degraded to 54.4 MeV/u by using the 2,156-466  $\mu$ m-thick Be primary target and the 2,180- $\mu$ m-thick Be 519 467 degrader of the LISE spectrometer. The intensity of 468 520 the <sup>12</sup>C beam was limited to 100 kpps to avoid damage <sub>521</sub> 469 to the tracking detectors. Two multiwire proportional 522 470 chambers CATSs [43] with 0.5 mm position resolution 523 471

were placed 118.70 cm and 67.85 cm, respectively, upstream of the liquid hydrogen target to measure the position of beam particles. The incident position and angle on the liquid hydrogen target was deduced by extrapolating the positions measured by the CATS detectors. The charged particle telescope MUST2 [27] was used to detect recoiling deuterons. An array of six telescopes was placed downstream of the liquid hydrogen target. The distance between the target and the front surface of MUST2 was set to 30 cm to detect scattered particles from  $2^{\circ}$  up to  $35^{\circ}$  with respect to the beam axis. The MUST2 telescopes consist of a DSSD followed by CsI(Tl) detectors. The DSSD has an active area of 98×98 mm<sup>2</sup> with a thickness of 300  $\mu$ m. Each side of the detector is segmented into 128 strips with a 0.76 mm pitch. The energy resolution is about 40 keV FWHM for 5.5-MeV  $\alpha$  particles of an <sup>241</sup>Am standard source. Behind the DSSD, 16 CsI(Tl) crystals in a 4×4 matrix cover an area of 122×122 mm<sup>2</sup>. The DSSD provides the energy loss and detection position of hit particles, while the CsI(Tl) detectors with a thickness of 40 mm measure the residual energy. The total kinetic energy is deduced from the sum of the energies measured by the DSSD and the CsI(Tl) detectors. The particle identification was performed by the  $E - \Delta E$  method. The scattering angle of a recoiling particle was obtained from the hit position measured by the MUST2 telescopes and the incident position and angle of the beam by CATS.

In the setup of the M2C chamber, the inside of the target cell is invisible from outside due to the use of nontransparent HAVAR foils. While the thermometers signal when the aperture volume is filled during the liquefaction of hydrogen gas as described in the previous section, it does not help continuously monitor the status of liquid hydrogen inside the cell as to whether liquid always fills the volume or starts to evaporate at a certain point. It is therefore more reliable and secure if one can visually confirm the liquid level throughout operation. During the test, we noticed that the beam profile image at the target cell position, deduced from the trajectory data of CATS, can be used for this purpose. Examples of beam profile images are shown in Fig. 10. The data are selected for the events with at least one hit in any MUST2 telescopes. This condition helps select scattering events off proton targets, thus increasing the sensitivity to hydrogen atoms in the cell. The liquid level inside the circular aperture is visible in these images taken when the volume is (a) fully filled, (b) partially filled and (c) empty. Note that loci are seen at the periphery of the circular aperture in these images. These were made by beam particles scattered off the edge of the window frame. Throughout the experiment, we used

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Figure 10: Beam profile at the target cell position obtained from the CATS detectors. The events with a scattered particle hitting one of the MUST2 telescopes were selected to increase the sensitivity to protons inside the cell. More particles are scattered by the edge of the alminium window, thus two rings are seen at 10 mm from the center of the target. The target cell is (a) fully filled, (b) partially filled, and (c) empty.

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Scatter plot of total kinetic energies against emis-Figure 11: sion angles of deuteron particles from the  ${}^{12}C(p, d){}^{11}C$  reaction at 54.4 MeV/u. The kinematics curve for the ground state of <sup>11</sup>C is shown by the red curve.

this method to monitor the liquid level inside the target 524 561 cell. 525

The excitation energy spectrum was obtained from the 563 526 kinetic energies and the scattering angles of the deu- 564 527 trons as shown in Fig. 11 by the missing mass method 565 528 in the same way as Ref. [22]. The obtained spectrum 566 529 of the  ${}^{12}C(p, d){}^{11}C$  reaction is shown in Fig. 12. Four 567 530 peaks are seen at around 0, 2.0, 4.5 and 6.5 MeV, 568 531 The peaks at 0 MeV and 2.0 MeV respectively. 532 correspond to the ground state and the  $1/2^-$  excited 533 569 state at 2.00 MeV, respectively. The peaks at 4.5 534 and 6.5 MeV are both composite of a few states, the 570 535  $5/2^{-}$  (4.32 MeV) and  $3/2^{-}$  (4.80 MeV) for the for-571 536 mer and the  $1/2^+$  (6.34 MeV),  $7/2^-$  (6.48 MeV) and 572 537  $5/2^+$  (6.90 MeV) states for the latter. 573 538

The resolution of excitation energies was evaluated by fitting the spectrum with four Gaussian functions and a linear function for the background. The obtained resolution of 500 keV r.m.s. for the ground state of <sup>11</sup>C agrees with the resolution estimated by Monte Carlo simulations, which took into account all materials around the target as well as the experimental parameters such as the spatial and angular spreads of the beam or the energy and position resolutions of the detectors.

The differential cross sections of the ground state and the first excited state of <sup>11</sup>C were deduced and are plotted in Fig. 13. The thickness of 1.21(13) mm, or 8.47(91) mg/cm<sup>2</sup>, was adopted to calculate the differential cross sections. Note that the adopted thickness was averaged over the area of the actual beam spot, and not over the entire area of the opening. The uncertainty of the thickness is deduced from the root mean square value of two contributions. One is the spatial resolution of the laser measurement ( $\pm 0.1$  mm). The other arises from the uncertainty of the measured beam profile on the target ( $\pm 0.08$  mm). The absolute cross sections are compared to the previous results obtained with a proton beam at 57 [40] and 61 MeV [41], respectively. The corresponding center-of-mass energies of 52.5 and 56.1 MeV, respectively, are close to that of the present reaction energy (50.4 MeV) using the  $^{12}C$ beam at 54.4 MeV/u. The angular distributions of both ground and excited states are comparable to the earlier results. The agreement confirms the assumed thickness of 1.21 mm.

### 5. Conclusion

We developed a new liquid hydrogen target with a thin thickness (1.5 mm at the center) and a wide opening (20 mm in diameter) to perform missing mass experiments with RI beams. A target cell and a heat shield



Figure 12: Excitation energy spectrum of  ${}^{11}C$  from the  ${}^{12}C(p, d){}^{11}C$  reaction with a 54.4 MeV/ $u{}^{12}C$  beam. The known ground and excited states of <sup>11</sup>C are indicated by the arrows. The level scheme of <sup>11</sup>C up to 7 MeV [39] is shown in the Fig. (b).

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Figure 13: Differential cross sections leading to the ground 3/2<sup>-</sup> state (full circles) and 1/2<sup>-</sup> state at 2.0 MeV (open circles) from the  ${}^{12}C(p, d){}^{11}C$  reaction with a 54.4 MeV/u  ${}^{12}C$  beam. The solid (ground state) and dotted  $(1/2^{-}$  state) lines denote the results measured at an incident energy of 57 MeV [40] while the dashed line (ground state) denotes the the result of 61 MeV [41].

were designed to minimize the cooling loss due to ther- 603 574 mal radiation from the vacuum chamber. The cooling 604 575 test at the test bench of RIBF showed that the liquefac-576 tion went well and liquefied hydrogen filled the entire 577 605 volume of the target cell including the narrow volume in 578 the opening. We also established two methods to mon-579 606 607 itor the status of the filling inside the target cell with-580 out visually inspecting from the outside, one relying on 581 the temperature monitor and the other on the reaction 582 610

rate of beam particles. The liquid hydrogen target was tested with a <sup>12</sup>C beam at GANIL. Missing mass spectroscopy was carried out by using the charged particle 585 telescopes MUST2. The excitation energy and the cross sections were obtained from the measurement of recoiling particles. The excitation energy resolution for the 588 ground state of <sup>11</sup>C populated by the  ${}^{12}C(p, d){}^{11}C$  reac-589 tion was obtained to be 500 keV r.m.s., which was confirmed to be in line with the simulation that we carried out. The thickness of  $1.21(13) \text{ mm} (8.47(91) \text{ mg/cm}^2)$ 592 was adopted by taking the beam profile into considera-593 tion. The differential cross sections reproduced the absolute values of the previous results at almost the same 595 incident energies. 596

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