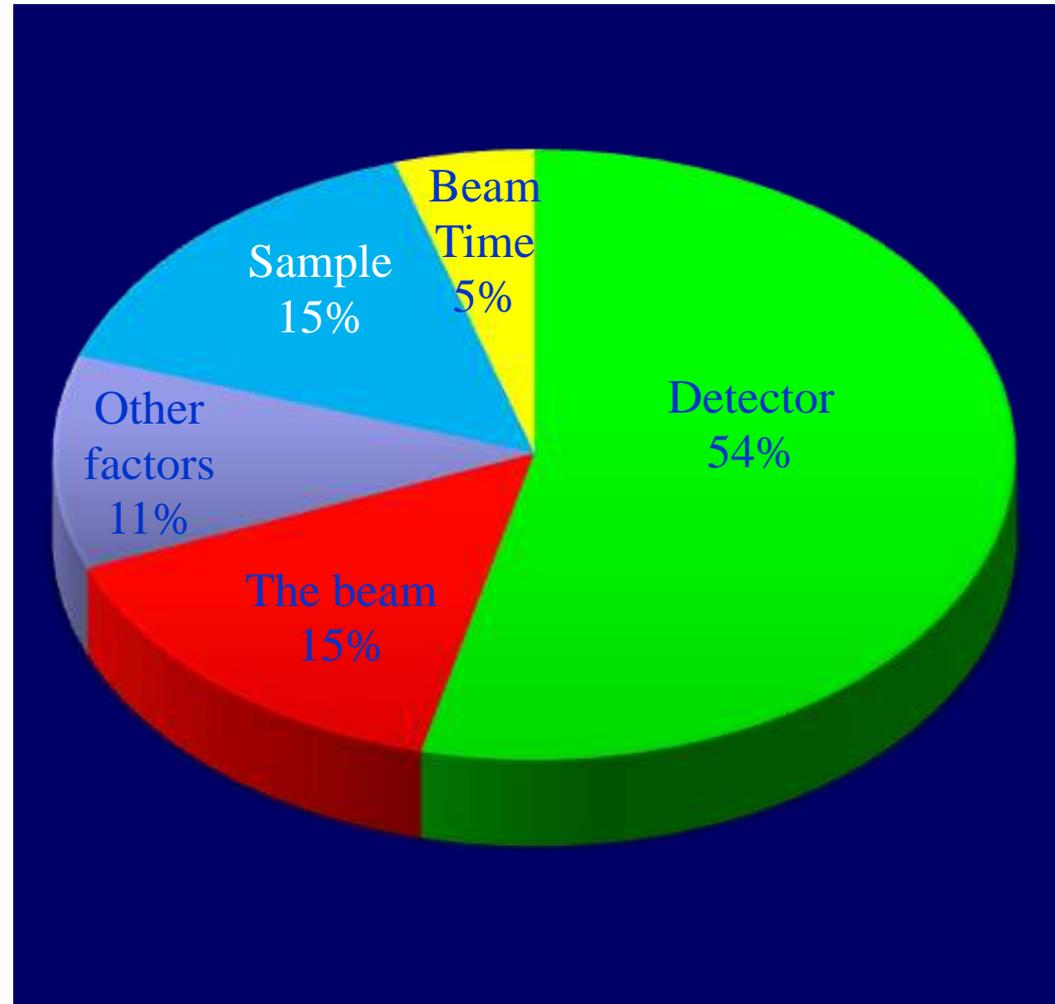


# Detectors for Synchrotron Radiation

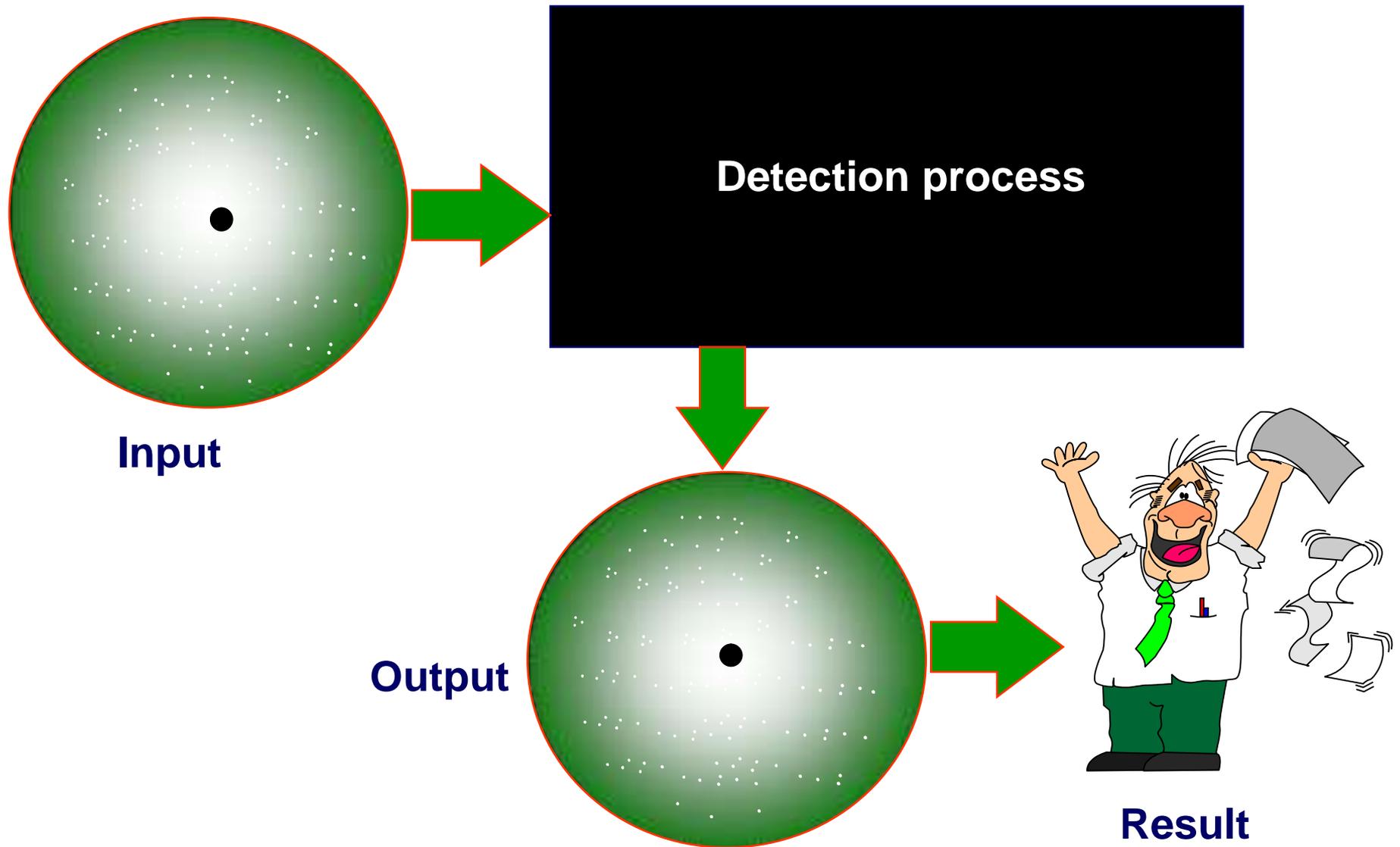
Rob Lewis

# Factors Limiting Science

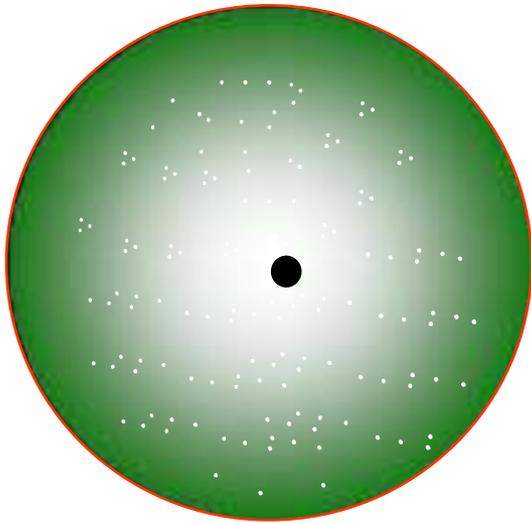
- Detectors are an oft-neglected but crucial part of an experiment
- They often limit the science



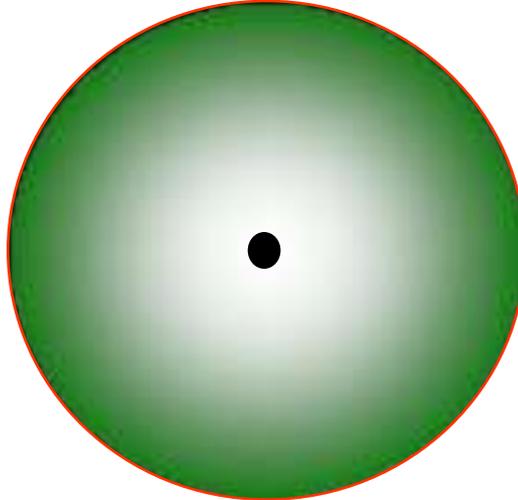
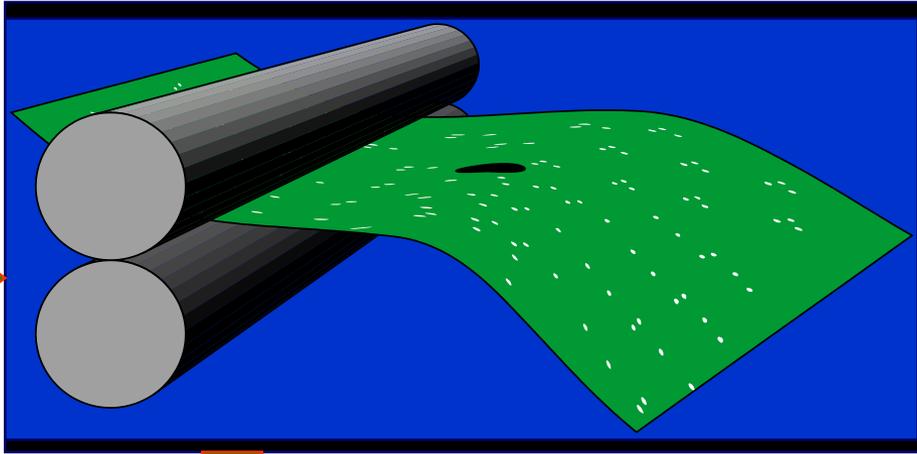
# Scientist's View of Detector



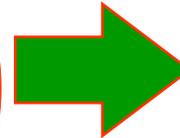
# The Truth!



**Input**



**Output**



**Result**

# Detection Mechanisms

- There are many means of detection. All require the interaction of photons with matter
- Examples include
  - ◆ Gas ionisation
    - Photons produce electrons and ions which are then detected
    - E.g. Ion chambers, proportional counters
  - ◆ Photoelectric effect
    - Photons eject electrons from a solid creating a current which is measured
    - E.g.. Beam monitors
  - ◆ Generation of electron hole pairs
    - Photons produce electrons and holes in a semiconductor which are then detected
    - E.g.. CCD
  - ◆ Fluorescence, scintillation and F centres
    - Photons produce prompt fluorescence or F centres
    - E.g. Image plates and Scintillation counters
  - ◆ Chemical effect
    - Photons create a chemical change such as dissociating Ag halide
    - E.g. Film

# Albert Einstein



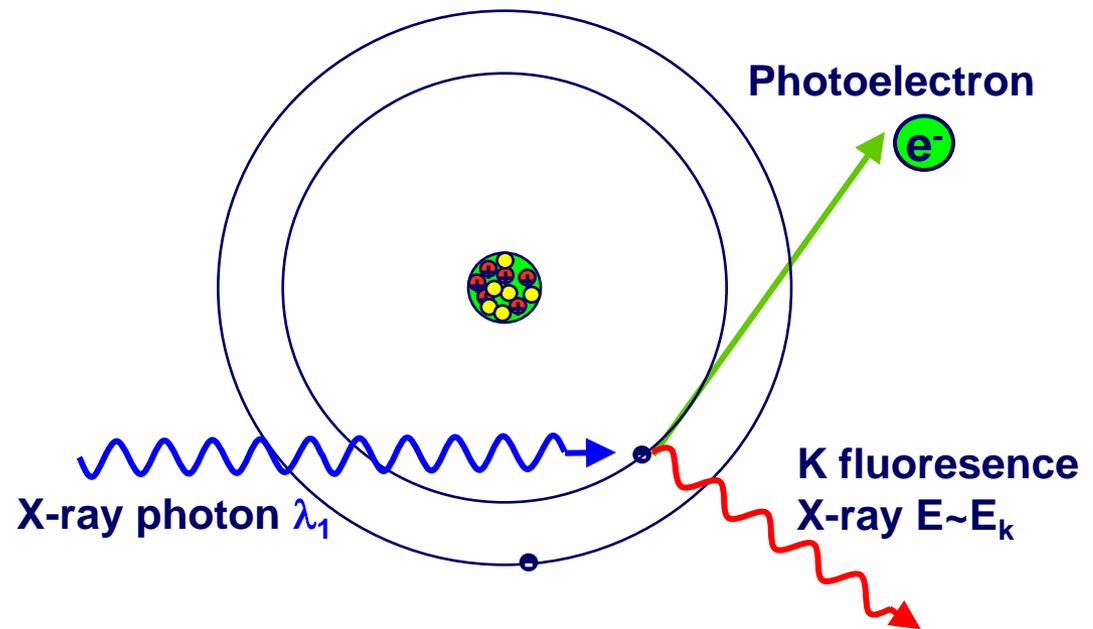
Germany and Switzerland  
Kaiser-Wilhelm-Institut  
(now Max-Planck-Institut)  
für Physik  
Berlin-Dahlem, Germany  
**1879 - 1955**



**Nobel prize in  
physics 1921**

"for his services to  
Theoretical Physics,  
and especially for his  
discovery of the law  
of the photoelectric  
effect"

## Photoelectric Effect



# Arthur Holly Compton



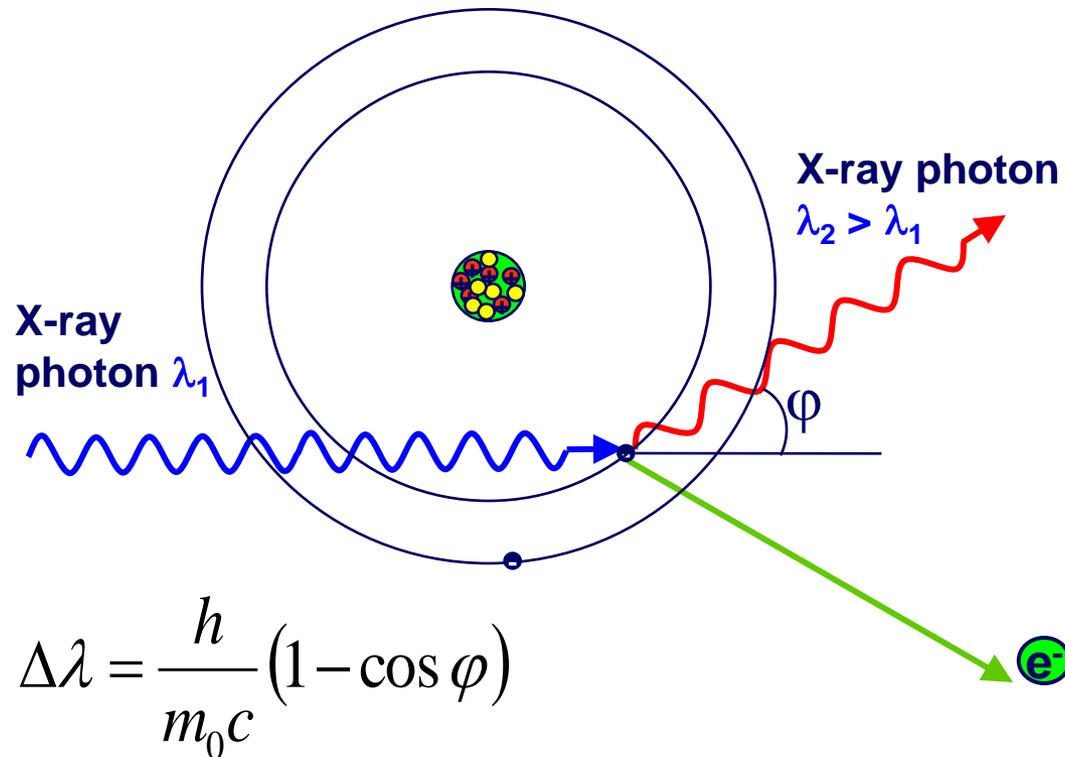
**Nobel prize in physics 1927**

"for his discovery of the effect named after him"



University of Chicago  
Chicago, IL, USA  
1892 - 1962

## Compton Effect

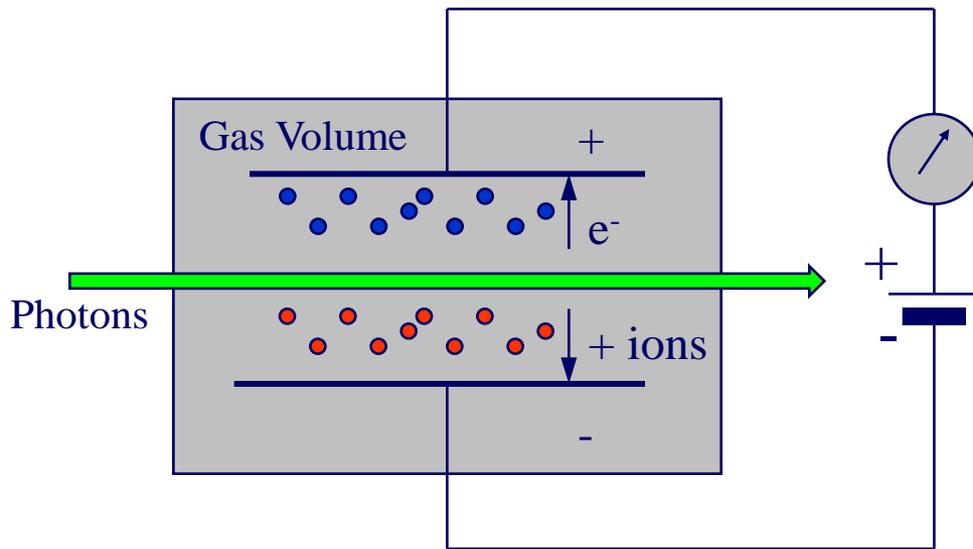


# An Example Detector

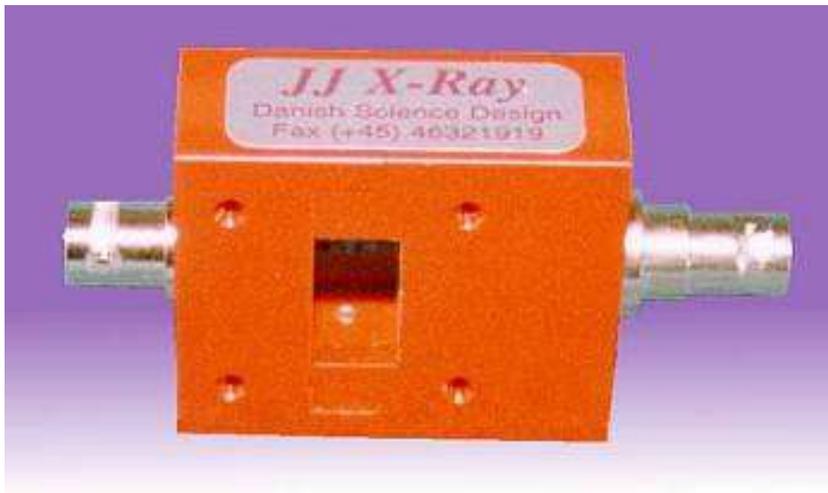


Echidna

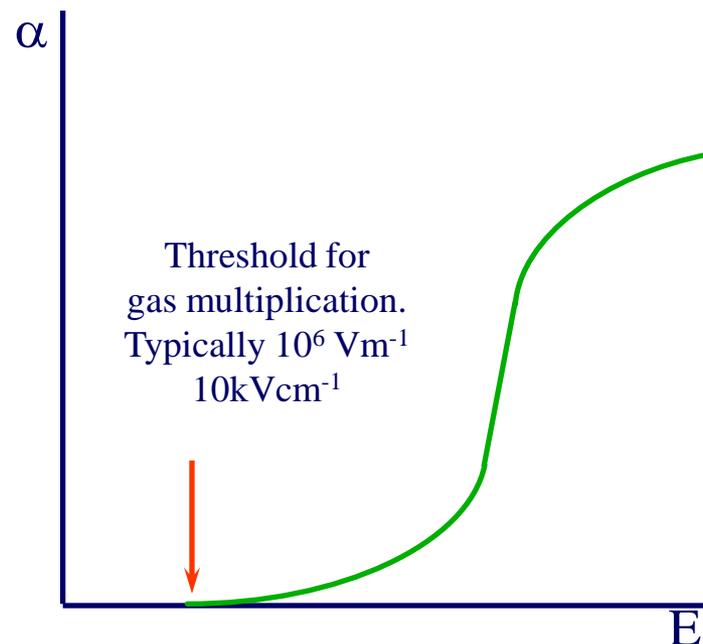
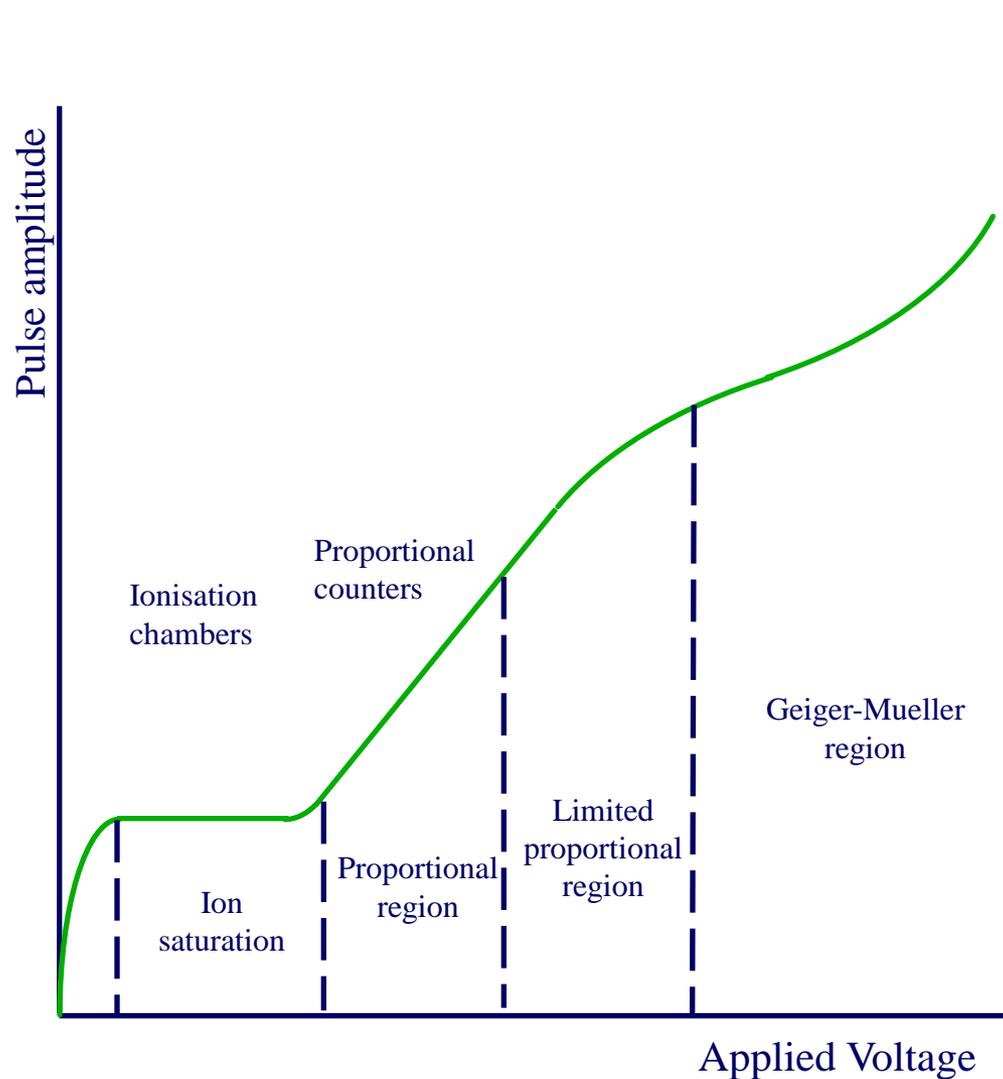
# Ionisation Chamber



- Very simple device
- Approximately 1  $e^-$  ion pair per 30eV deposited
- Important that recombination low as possible
  - ◆ Higher voltages required at higher rates since more carriers
  - ◆ Diffusion losses caused by separation of carriers minimised by higher voltages
  - ◆ Plates too close cause electron losses
- Ion chambers are sensitive to pressure and temperature



# Operation regions of gas filled detectors



$n$  is number of charges

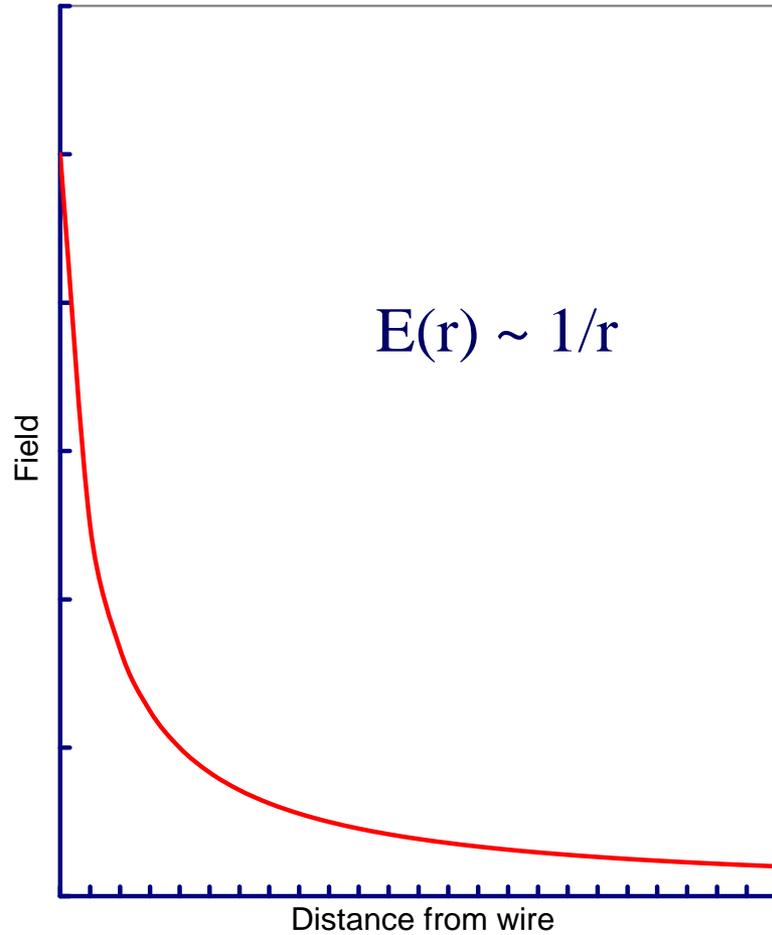
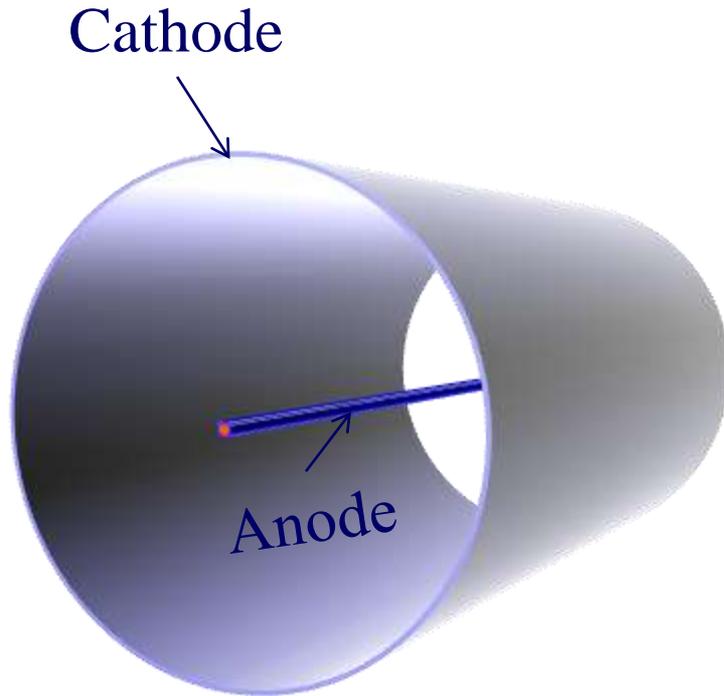
$x$  is distance

$\alpha$  is the first Townsend coefficient

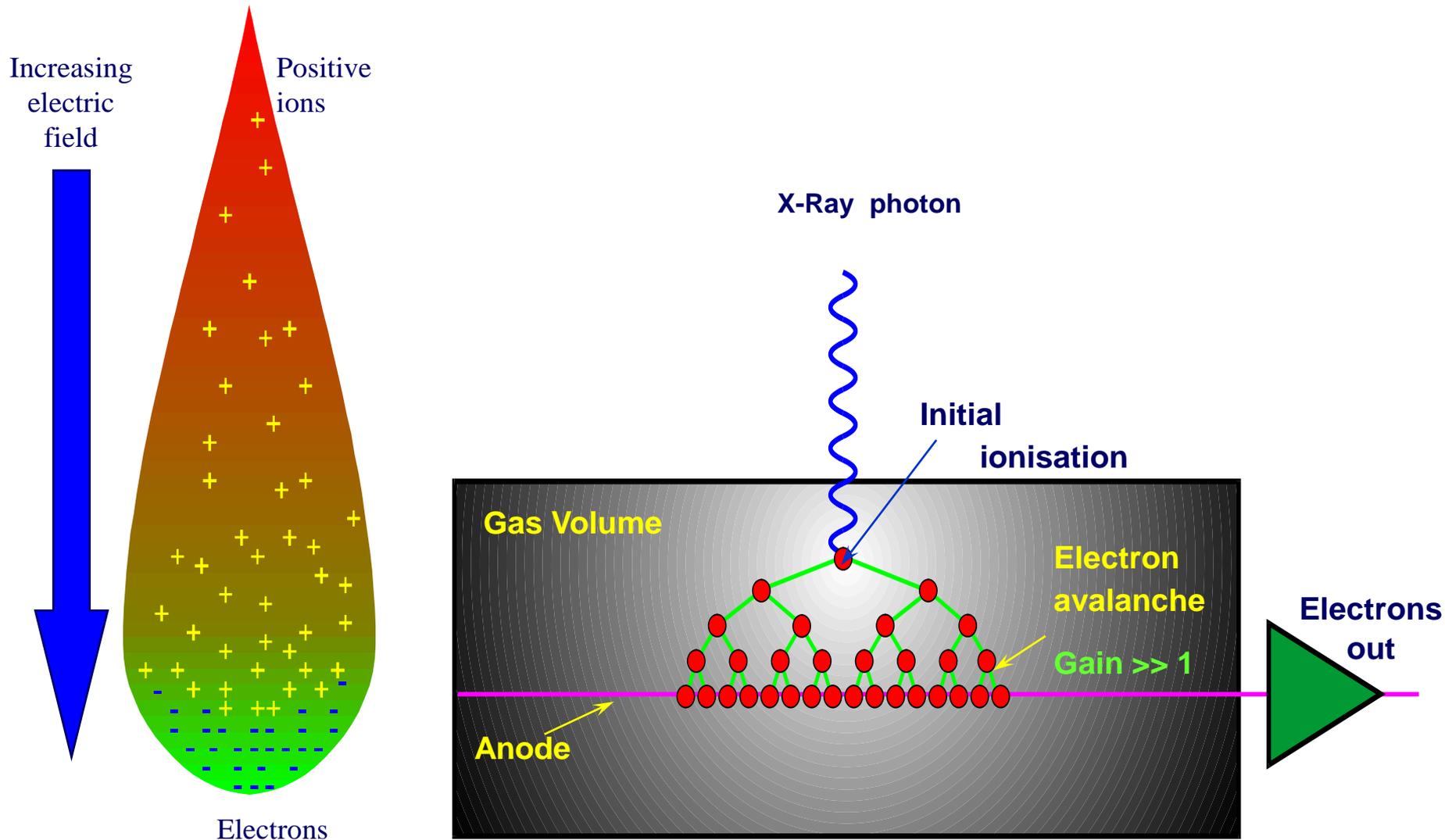
$$\frac{dn}{n} = \alpha dx$$

$$n(x) = n(0)e^{\alpha x}$$

# Field Variation



# Avalanche & Proportional Counter



# Georges Charpak



**Nobel prize in physics 1992**

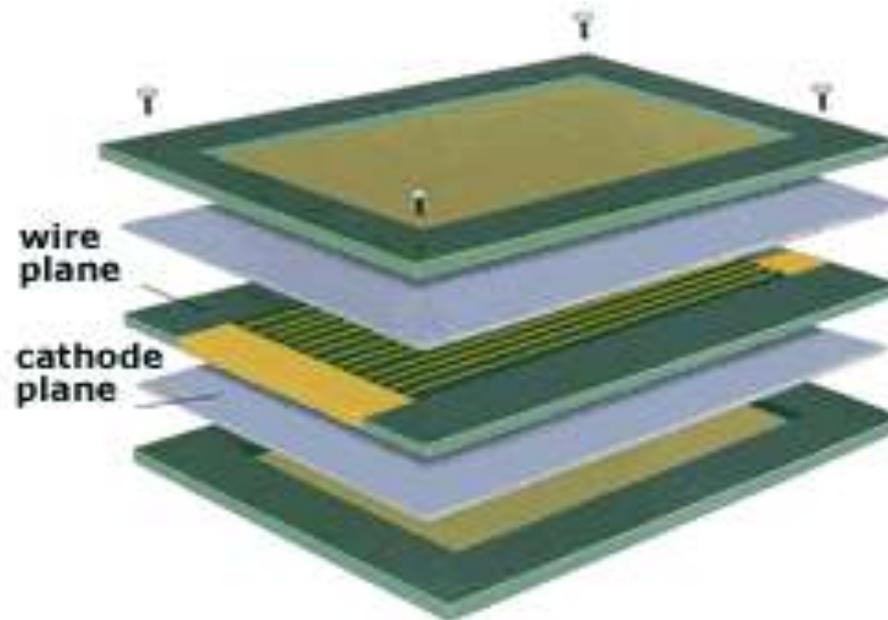
"for his invention and development of particle detectors, in particular the multiwire proportional chamber"



## Multi-wire Proportional Counter

France  
École Supérieure de  
Physique et Chimie  
Paris, France; CERN  
Geneva, Switzerland

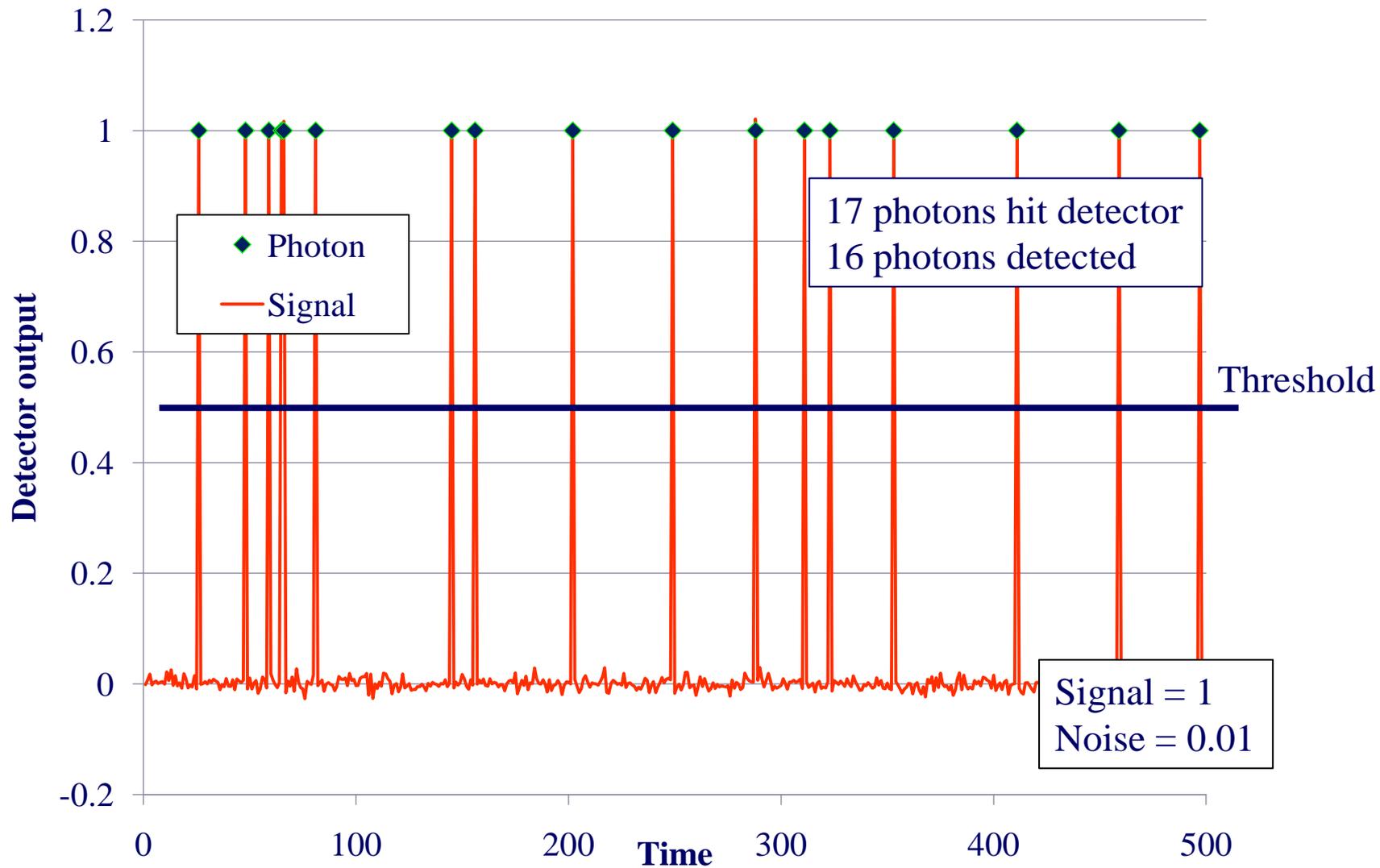
b. 1924  
(in Dabrowica, Poland)



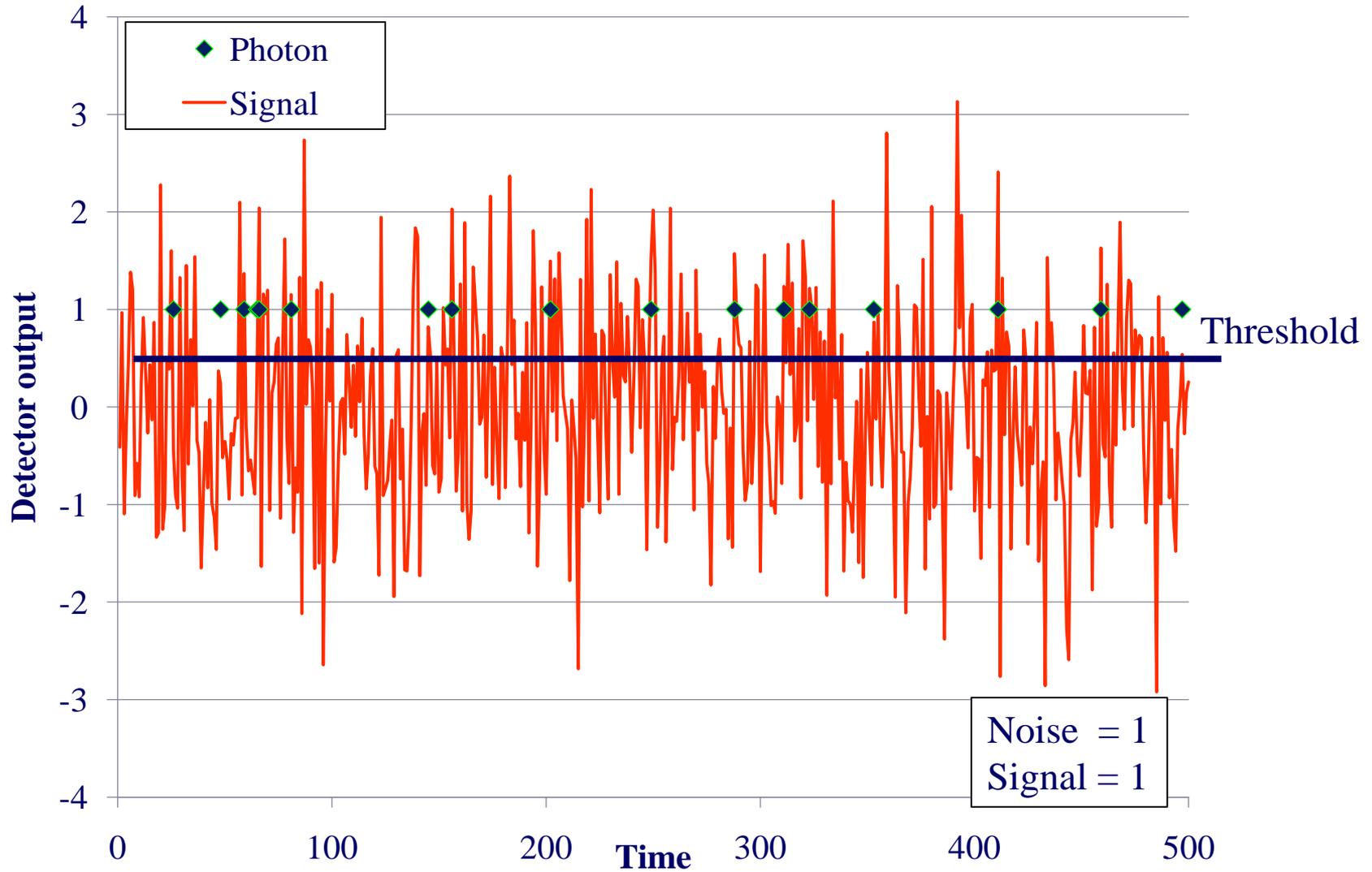
# Counting and Integrating

- If there is sufficient signal produced by the interaction of a photon or a particle in the detector then it is possible to operate the detector as a counter
- It's all about signal to noise ratio!

# SNR = 100



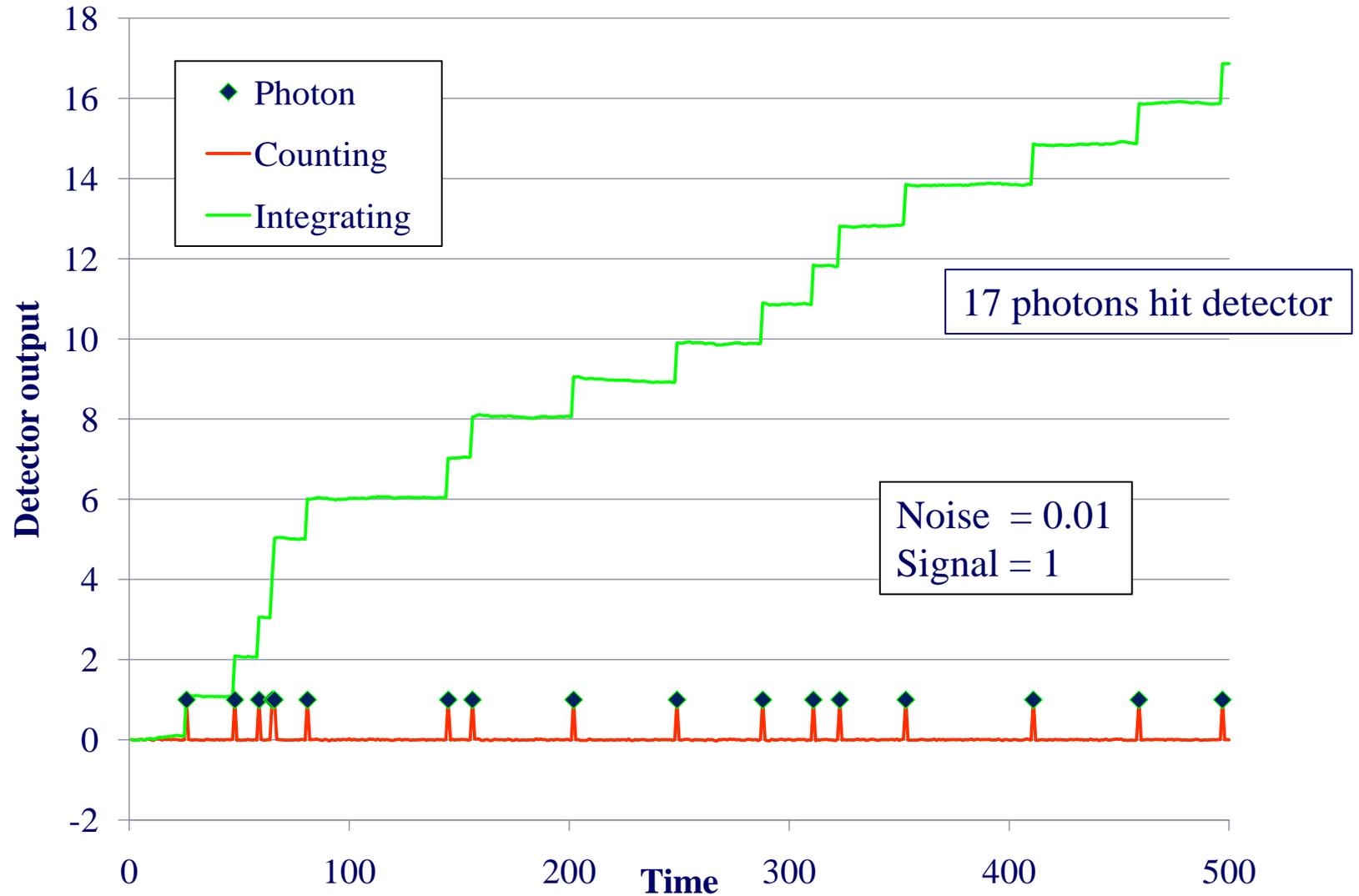
# SNR = 1



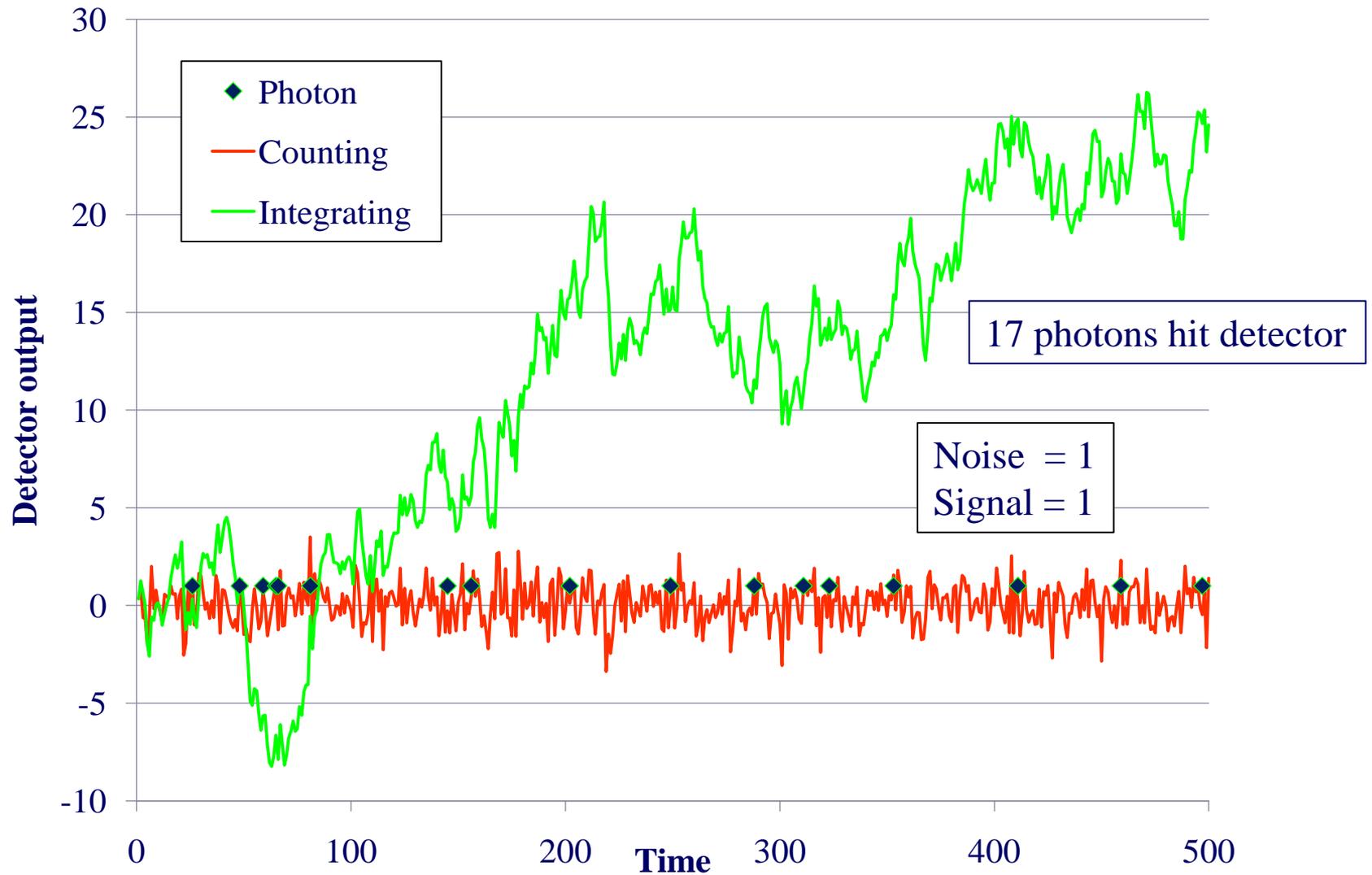
# Counting and Integrating

- Usually SNR is insufficient and we have to accumulate many photons/particles before the signal becomes measurable

# Counting & Integrating SNR = 100



# Counting & Integrating SNR = 1



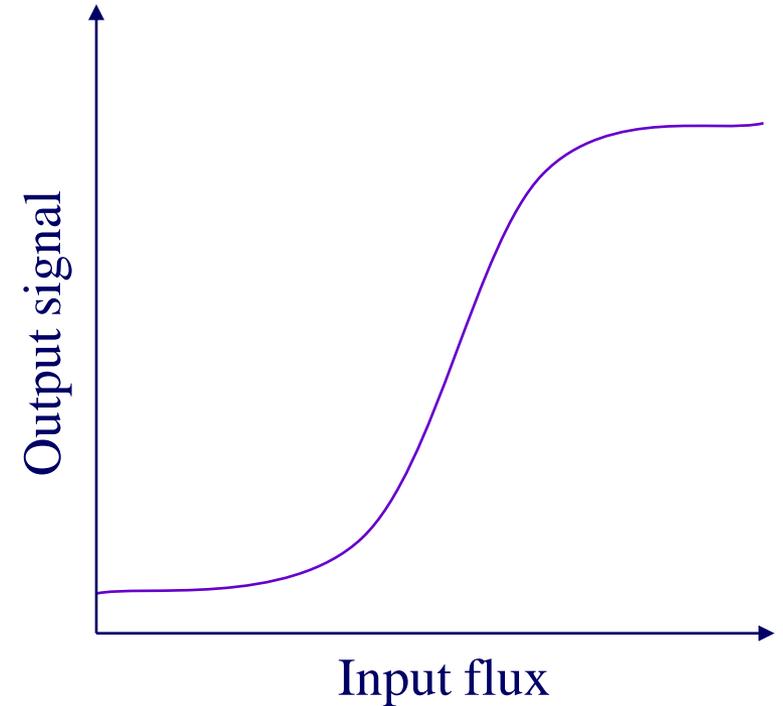
# Integrating Detectors

## ■ Mode

- ◆ Measures deposited energy at end of integration period

## ■ Characteristics

- ◆ High input flux capability
- ◆ Read noise dominates at low signal (“fog level”)
- ◆ Dead time between frames
- ◆  $2 \times 20 \text{ keV phts} = 1 \times 40 \text{ keV photon}$  i.e. Cannot perform simultaneous spectroscopy and positioning
- ◆ Examples: Image plates, CCDs



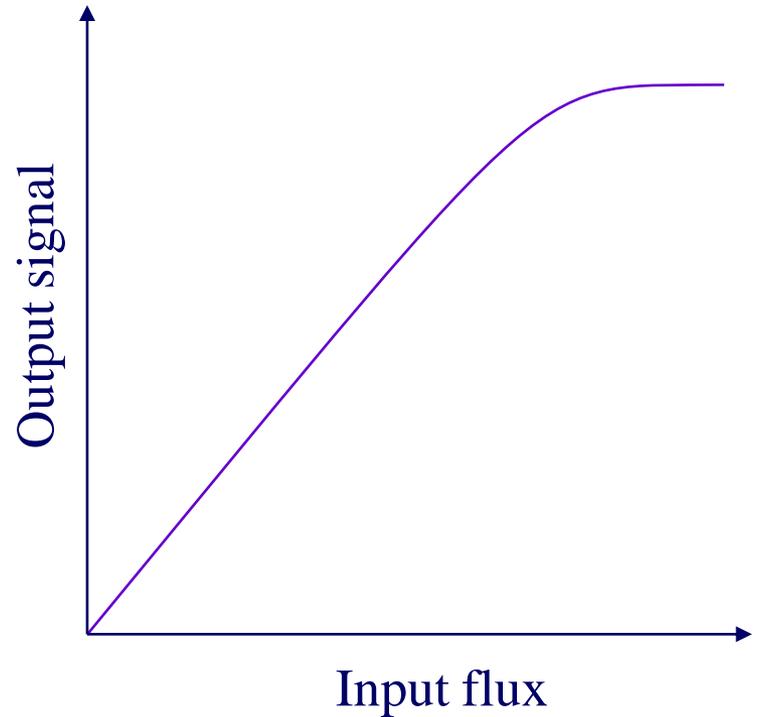
# Photon Counting Detectors

## ■ Mode

- ◆ Detects every photon as it arrives. Only active pixels read

## ■ Characteristics

- ◆ Quantum limited, Detector noise often negligible
- ◆ No dead time between frames
- ◆ Can measure position and energy simultaneously
- ◆ Limited input flux capability
- ◆ Examples: Prop counters, Scintillators



# Types of Detectors



Crimson Rosella and King Parrot

# X-ray Film

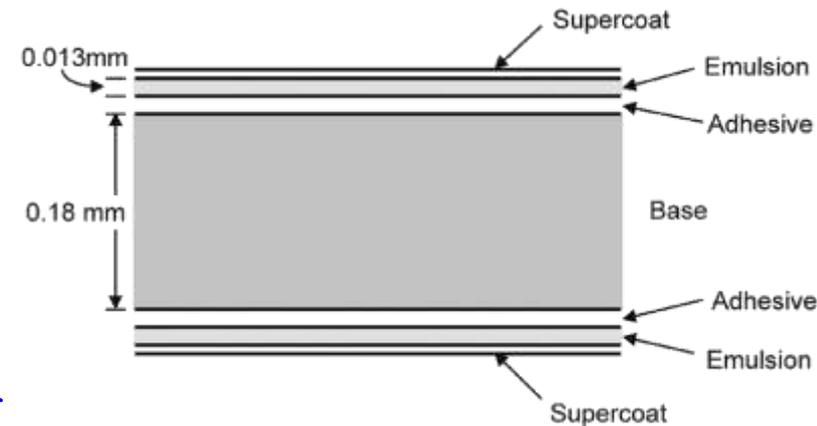
## ■ Active Ingredient

- ◆ Small crystals of silver halide  $\sim 1.0 - 1.5\mu\text{m}$
- ◆ Typically 90-99% silver bromide and 1-10% silver iodide.
- ◆ Suspended in the gelatin of the film emulsion.
- ◆ Crystals have a cubic lattice with many point defects and free silver ions

## ■ Exposure

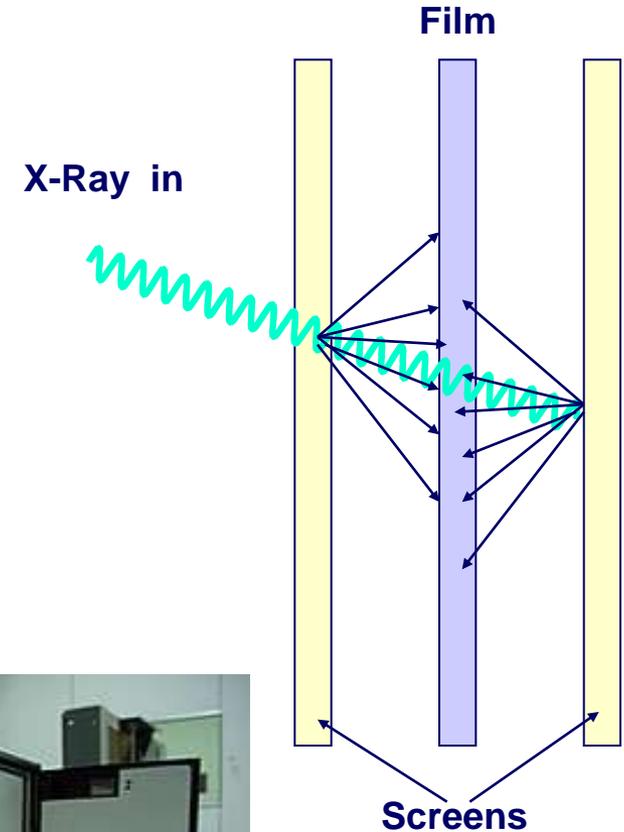
- ◆ A photon liberates an electron from a bromide ion
- ◆ The electron travels until trapped at a defect
- ◆ A free silver ion is attracted to the negative charge and combines (is reduced) to form an atom of metallic silver (which is optically black).
- ◆ The single silver atom acts as an electron trap for another electron which then attracts another atom of silver which is then reduced to metallic silver. This process continues while the exposure to light continues.

- Conventional film is usually coated with emulsion on only one side, radiographic film is usually double coated (on each side of the base) to be used with intensifying screens.



# Intensifying Screens

- An intensifying screen converts x-ray energy into light energy
- X-rays are absorbed by the phosphor
- The phosphor becomes excited & fluoresces emitting UV and/or visible light
- For every x-ray photon absorbed, hundreds of light photons are emitted
- The use of intensifying screens inevitably means that certain degree of unsharpness will be introduced into the image in comparison to non-screen film



# Willard S. Boyle & George E. Smith



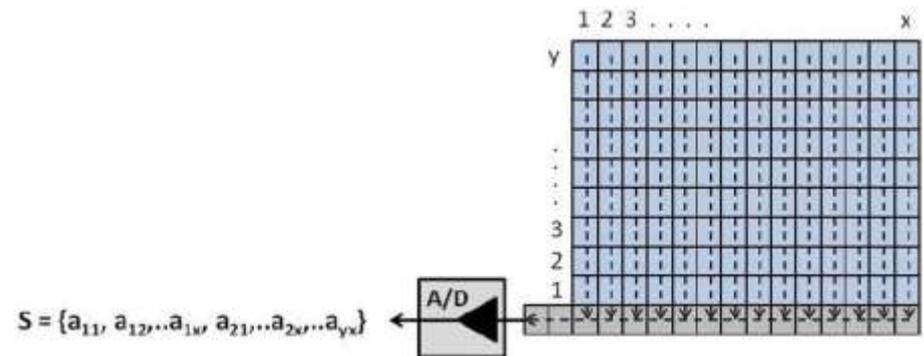
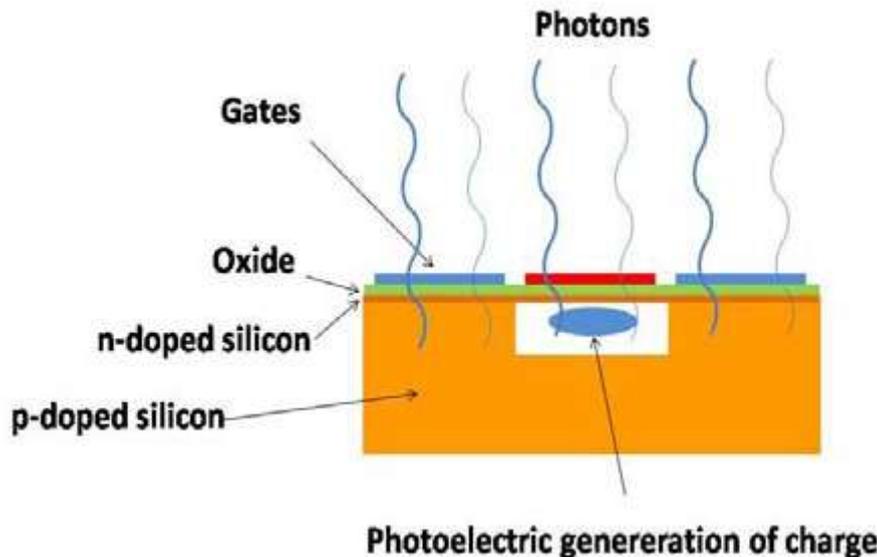
Bell Laboratories  
Murray Hill, NJ, USA



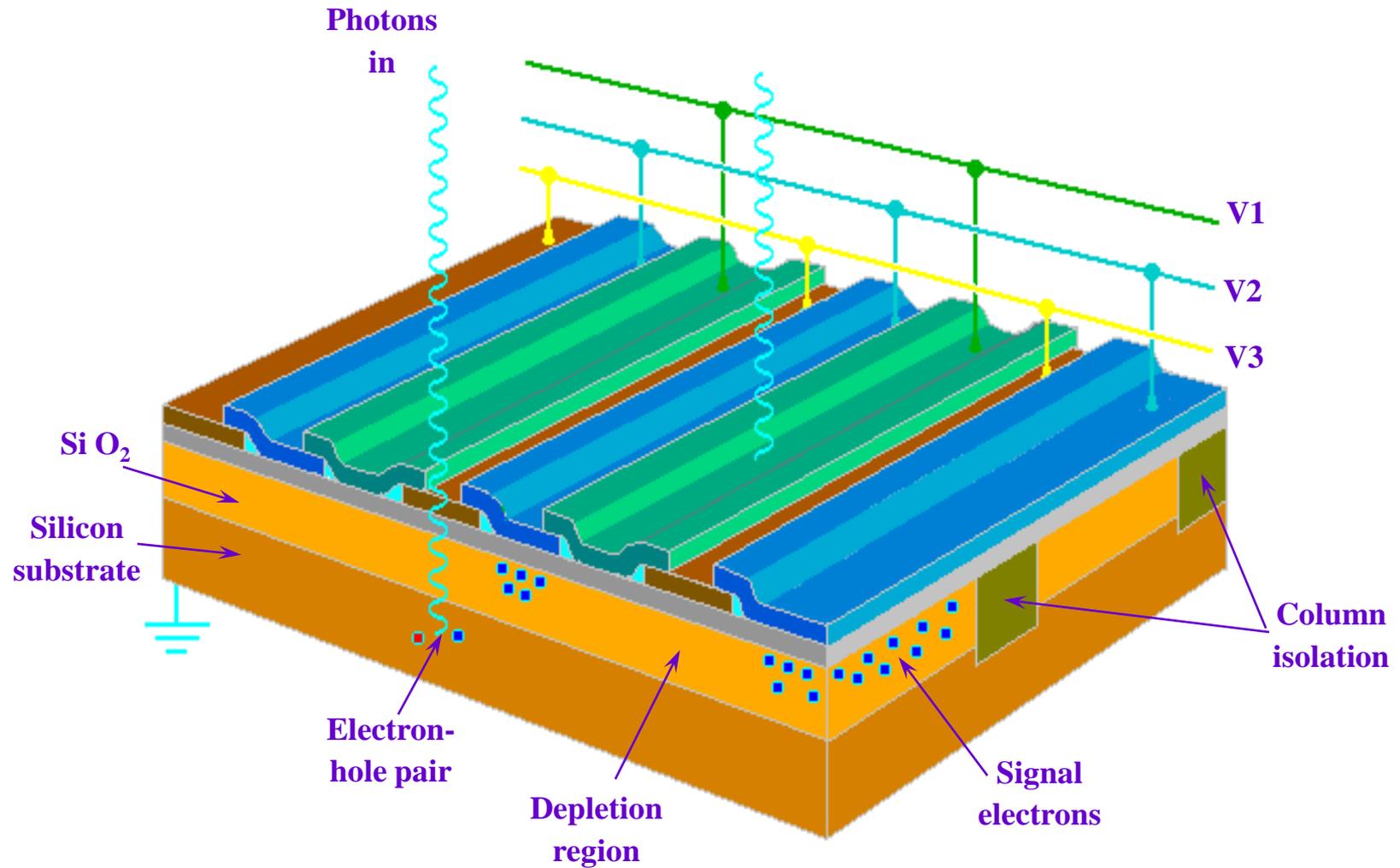
**Nobel prize in physics 2009**

"for the invention of an imaging semiconductor circuit – the CCD sensor"

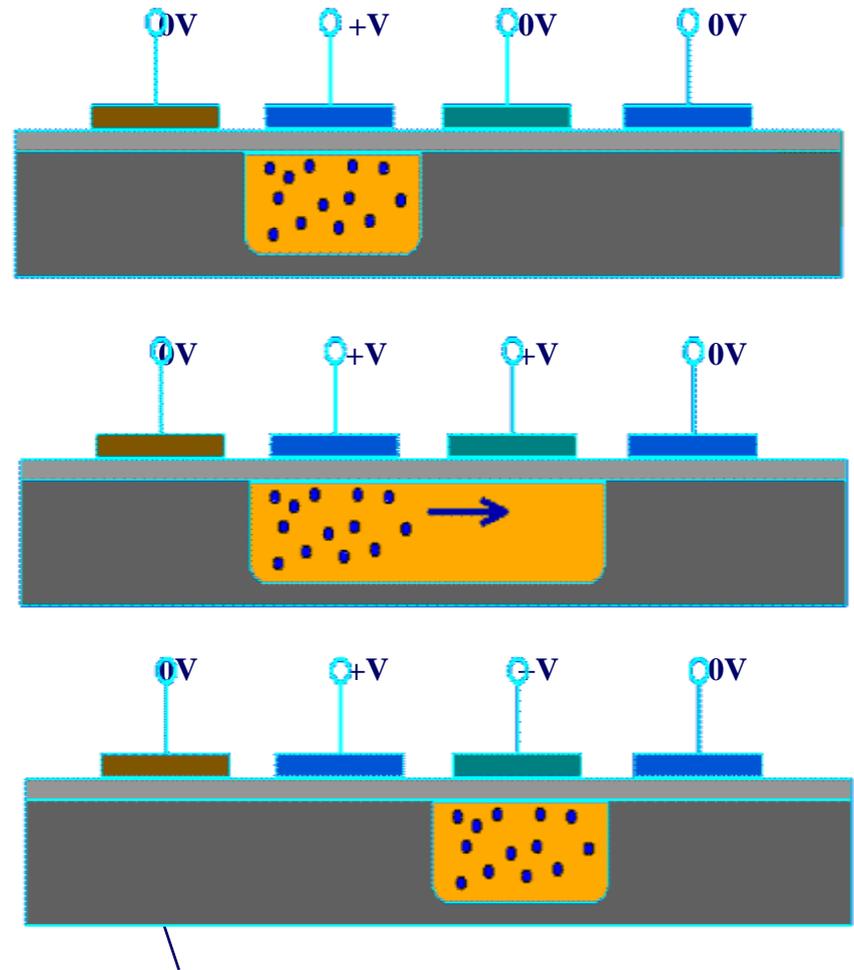
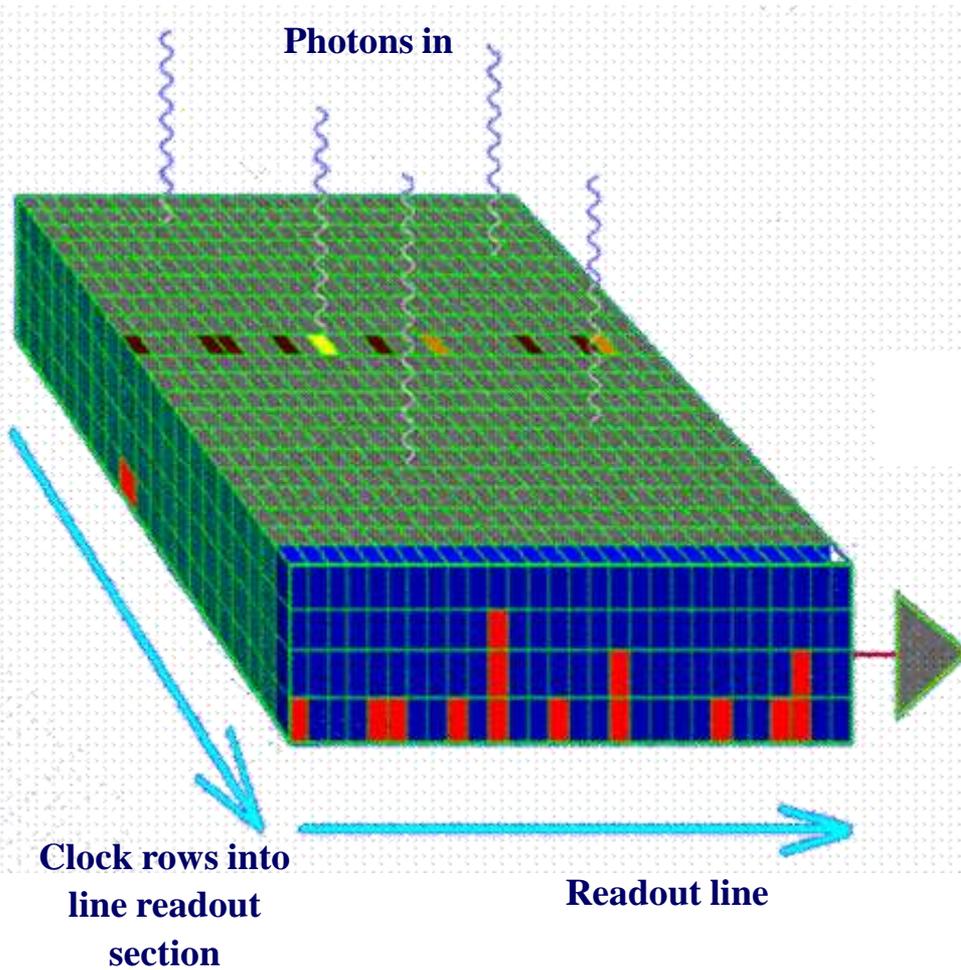
## CCD



# Charge Coupled Device



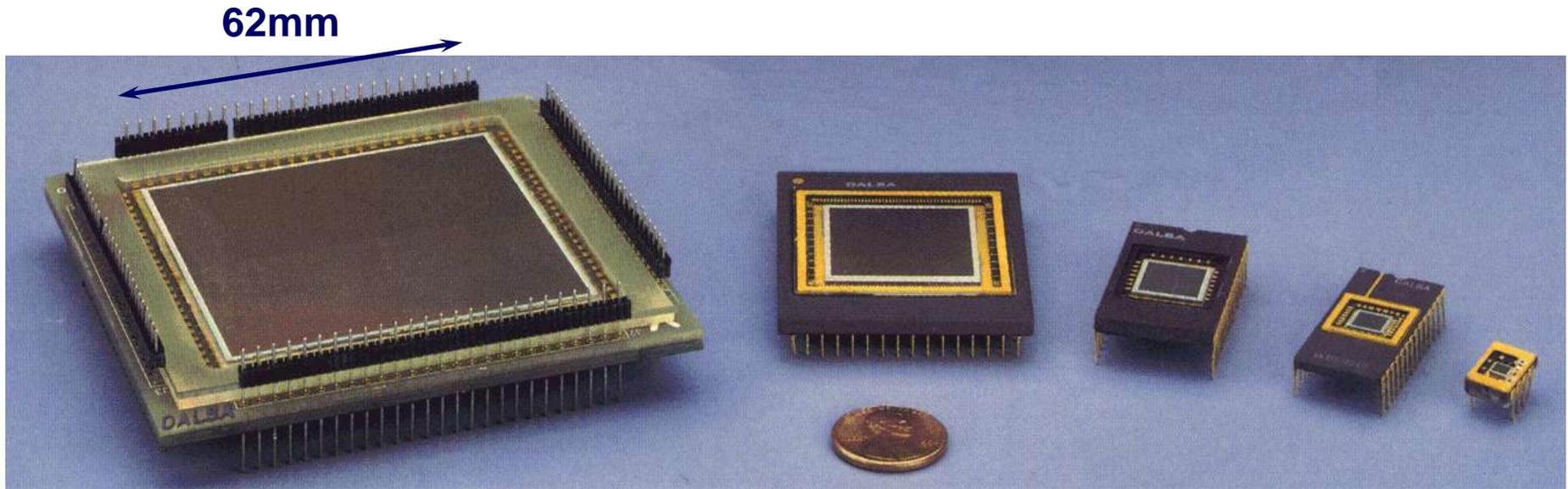
# CCD Readout



# CCD Readout

- Charge is moved from pixel to pixel by clocking
- Each pixel has a limited capacitance (well depth) typically  $10^4$ - $10^5$   $e^-$
- This limits dynamic range for direct detection
  - ◆ 10keV photon creates  $\sim 3000e^-$  so saturation =  $\sim 10$  photons
- Speed of clocking is restricted by line capacitance and charge transfer efficiency
  - ◆ Size of CCD restricted by this
- Noise can be reduced by cooling
- Amplifier usually on chip
  - ◆ Heats up that part of chip

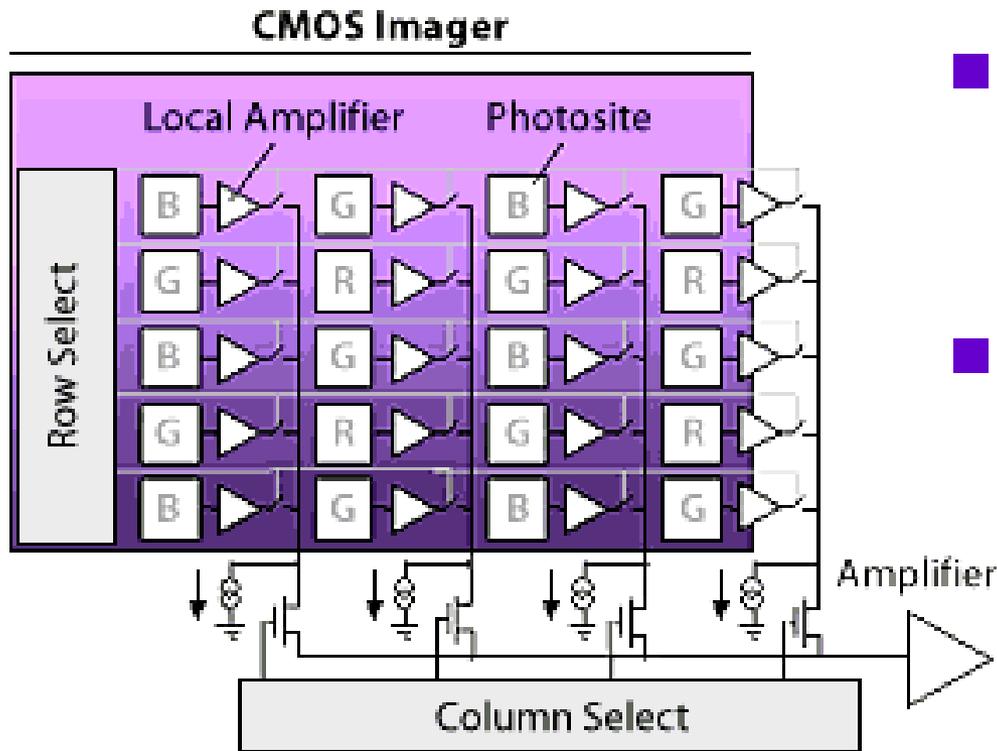
# CCDs



Although sizes  $> 50\text{mm}$  are available, the read speed is slow to preserve low noise and cte ( line capacitance becomes very high)

Shutter required

# Complimentary Metal-Oxide Semiconductor (CMOS)



- A readout amplifier transistor on each pixel converts charge to voltage
- Allows random access to pixels, similar to the row-column memory cell access in RAM

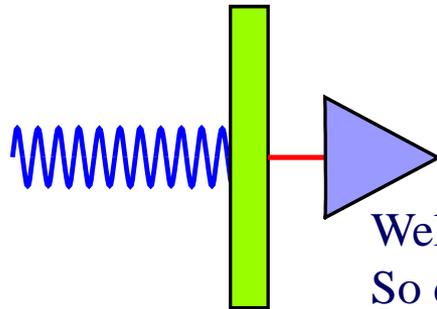
# CMOS vs CCD

- Traditionally CCD higher sensitivity and lower noise
- Modern lithography means they are now similar
- CMOS sensors can have much more functionality on-chip than CCDs
  - ◆ On chip image processing, edge detection, noise reduction, and analog to digital conversion
- CMOS lower power → less heat → less noise

# Use with X-rays

## Direct detection

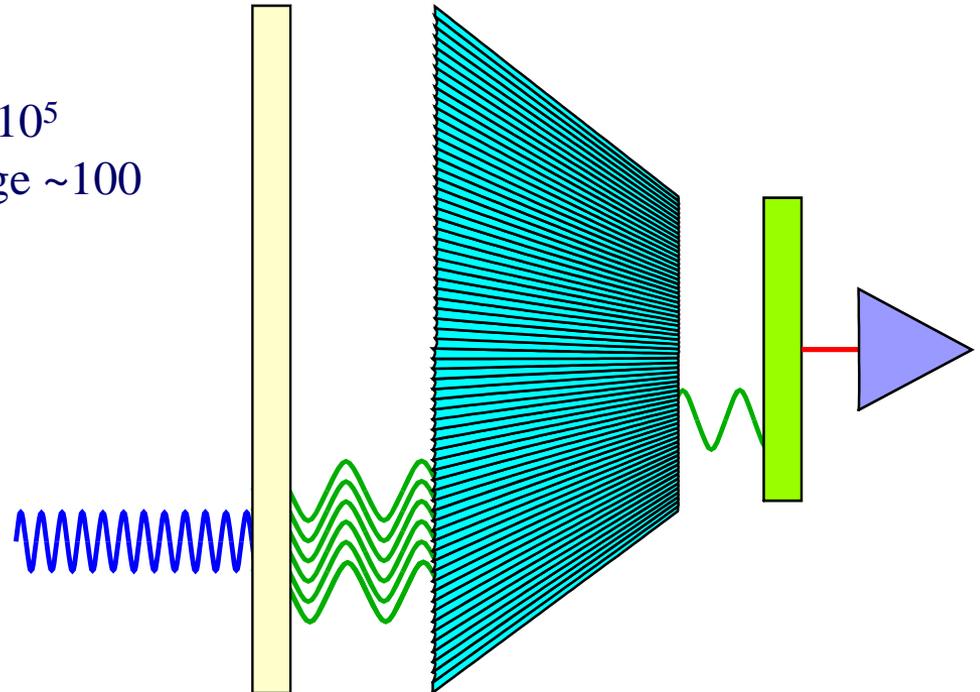
Gain  $\sim 2000e^- / 8\text{keV x-ray}$



Well depth =  $2 \times 10^5$   
So dynamic range  $\sim 100$

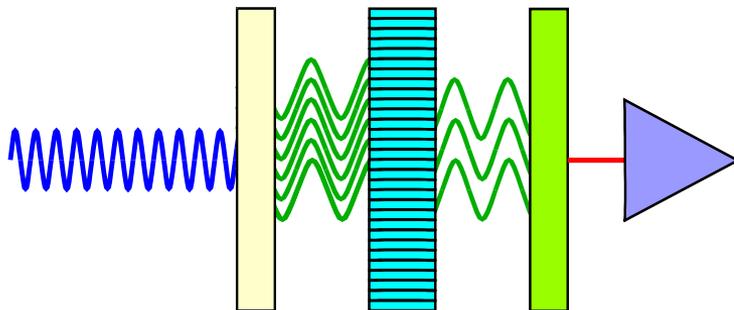
## Phosphor coupled with reducing optics to CCD

Phosphor gain  $\gg 1$   
Optics Gain  $\ll 1$

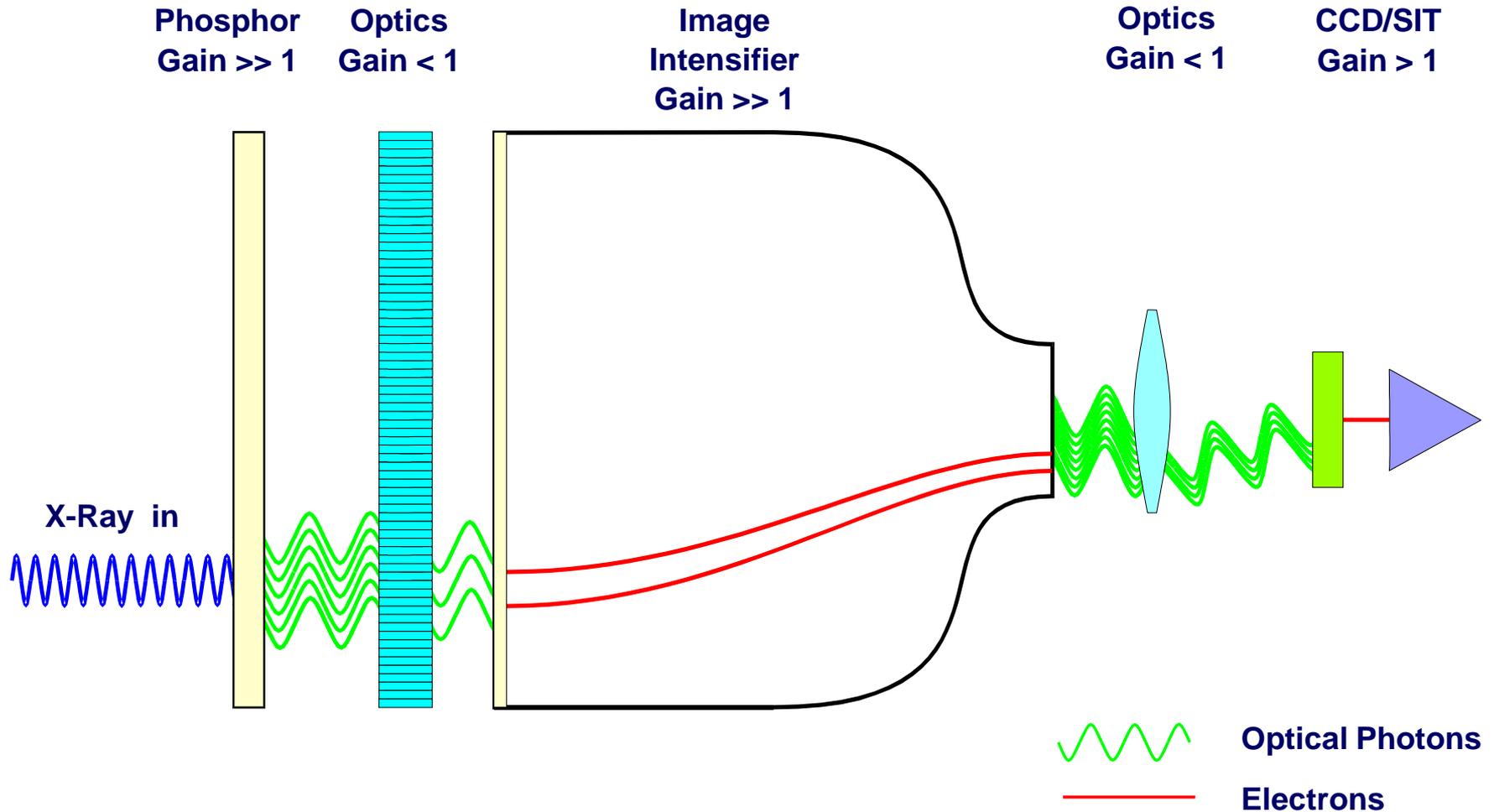


## Phosphor coupled 1:1 to CCD

Phosphor gain  $\gg 1$   
Optics Gain  $< 1$



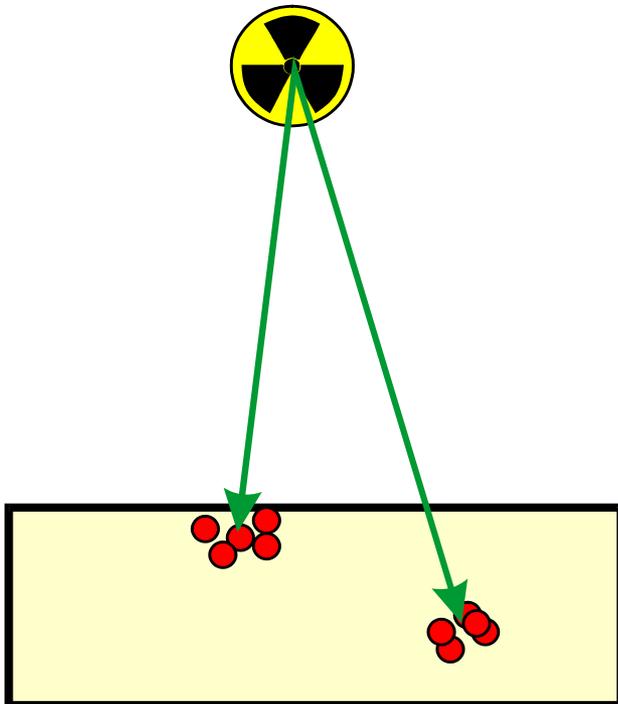
# TV detector with IIT



# Computed Radiography-Image Plate

## Exposure

Creation of F centres  
Gain  $\gg 1$

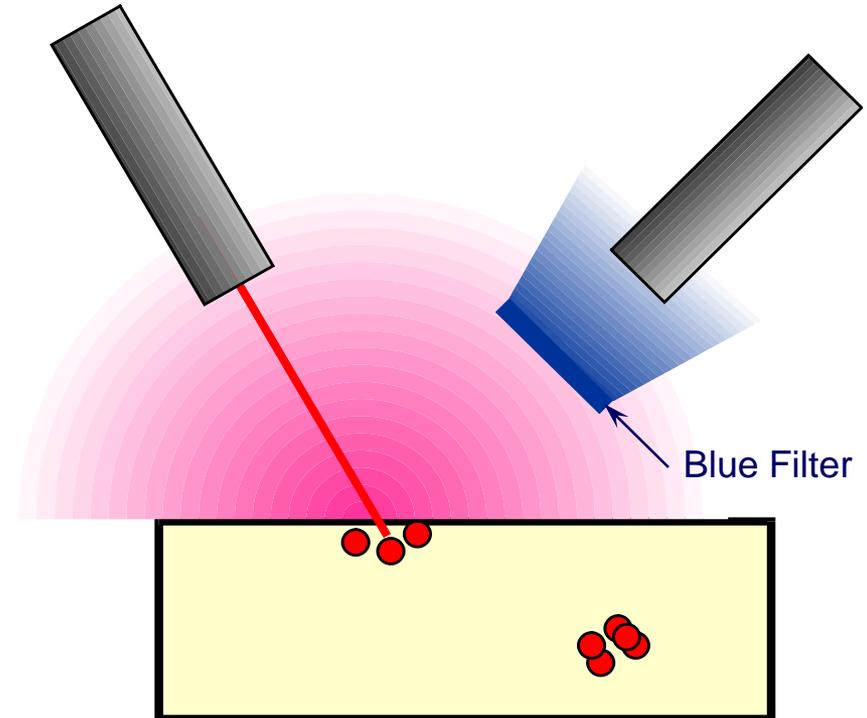


## Scanning

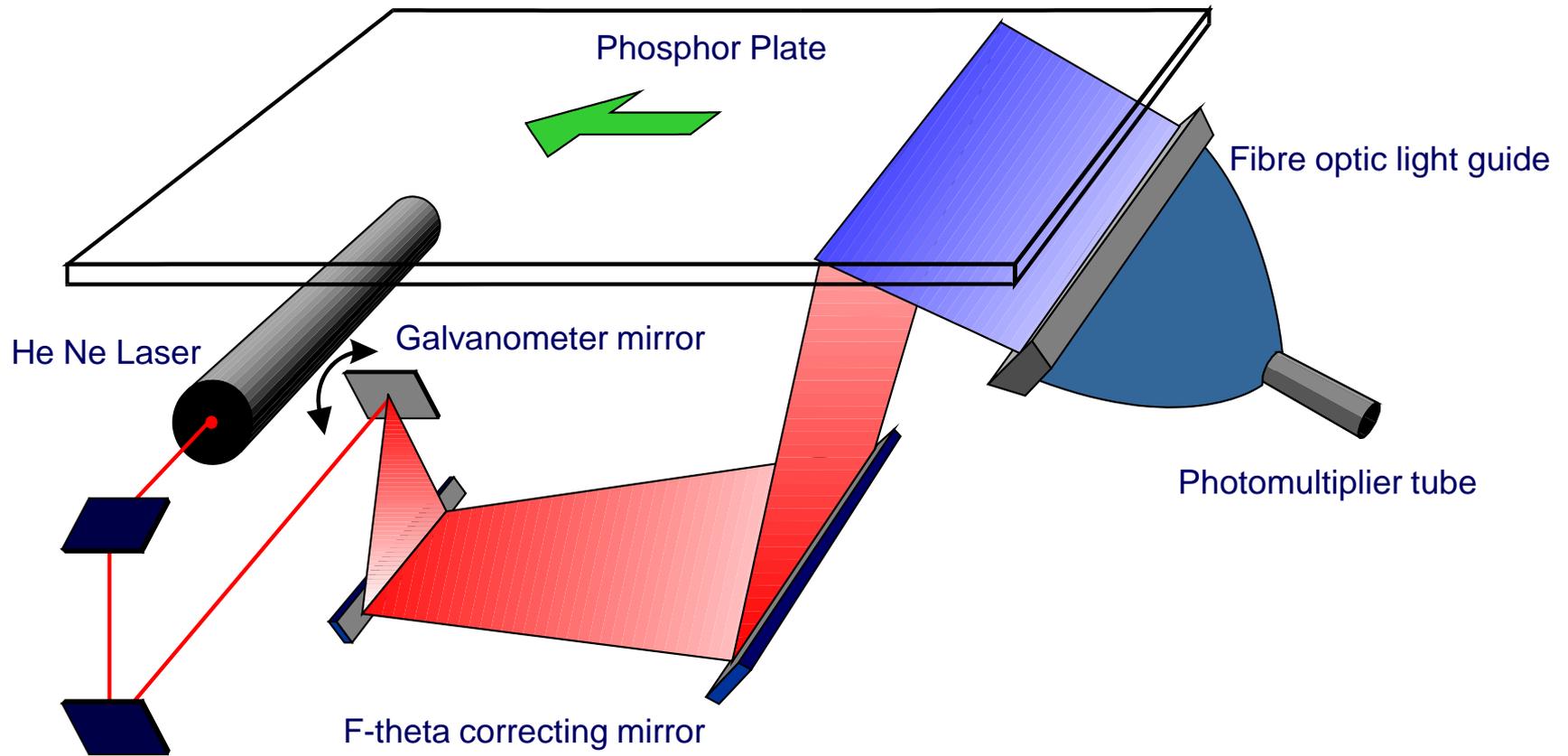
Stimulation of PSL  
Gain  $< 1$

Collection of PSL  
Gain  $< 1$

PMT Amplification  
Gain  $> 1$

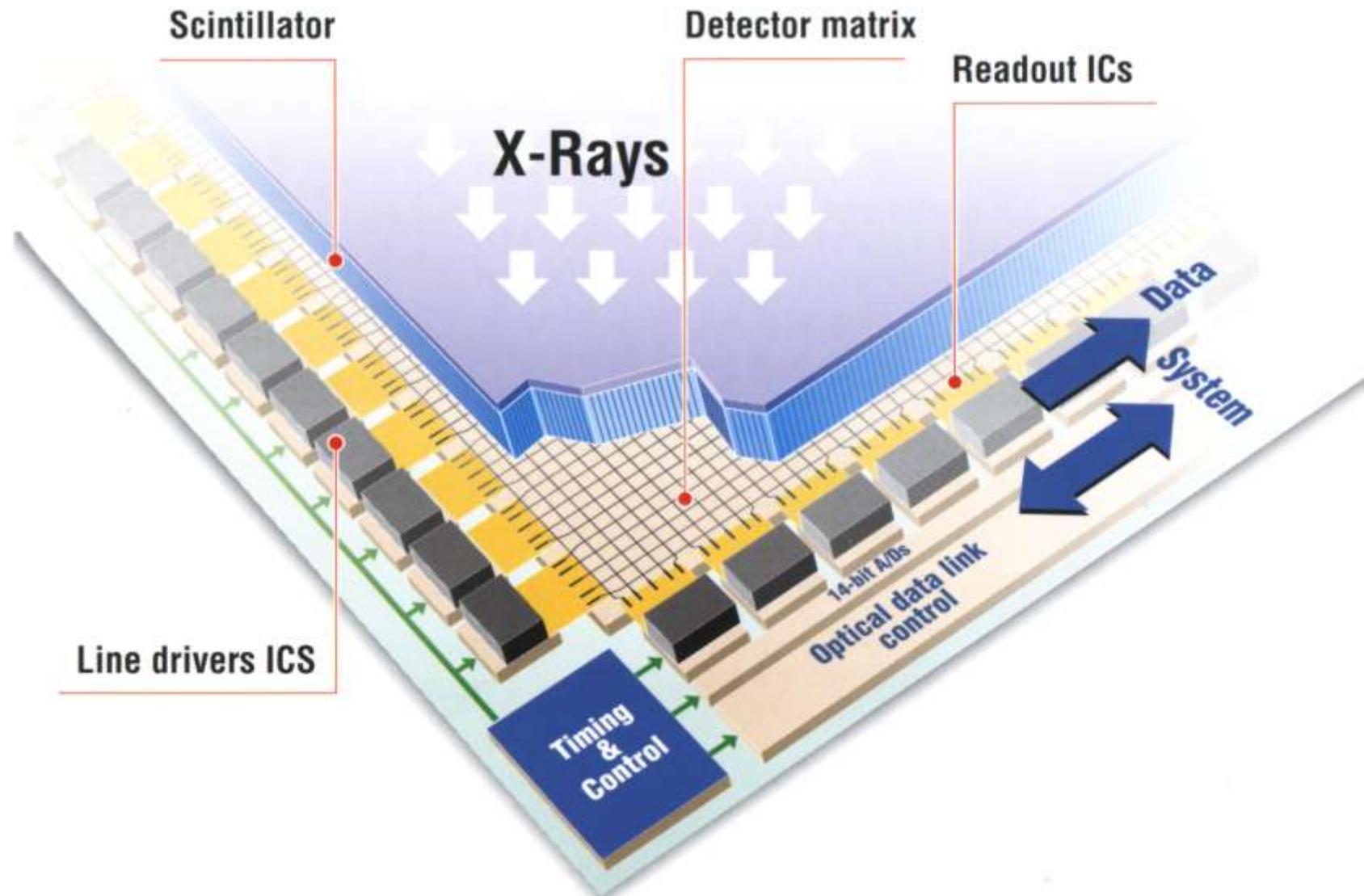


# X-Y Flat bed Scanner

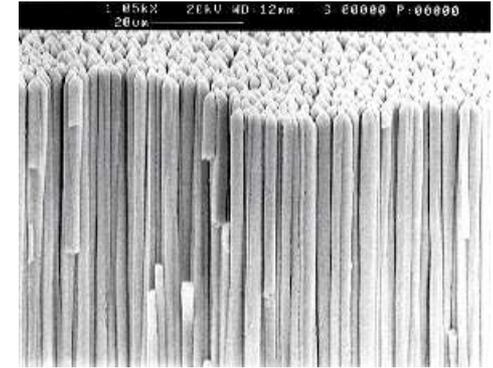
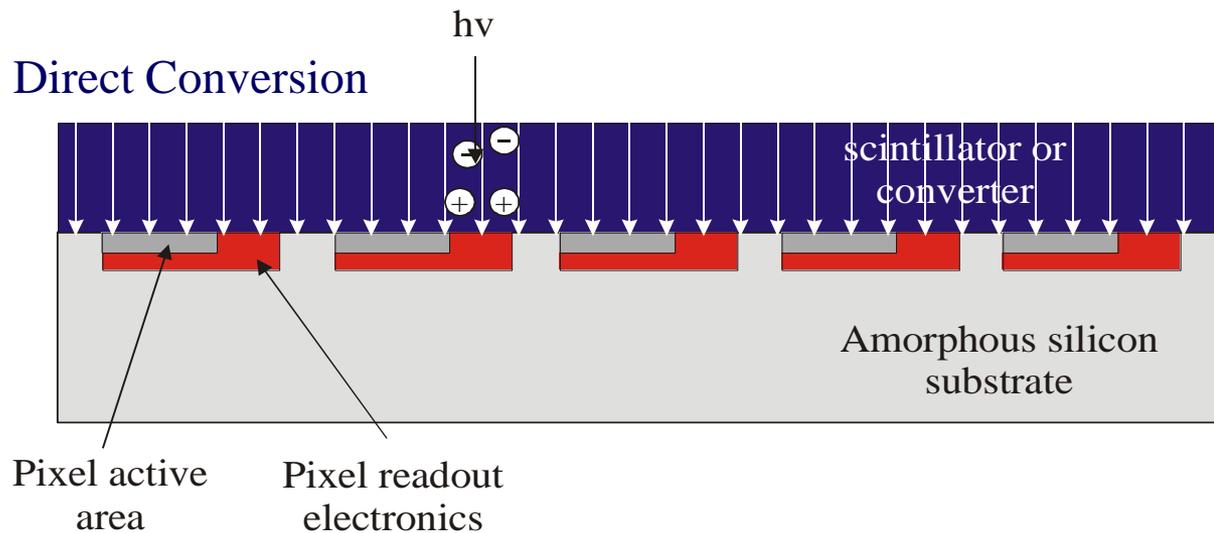
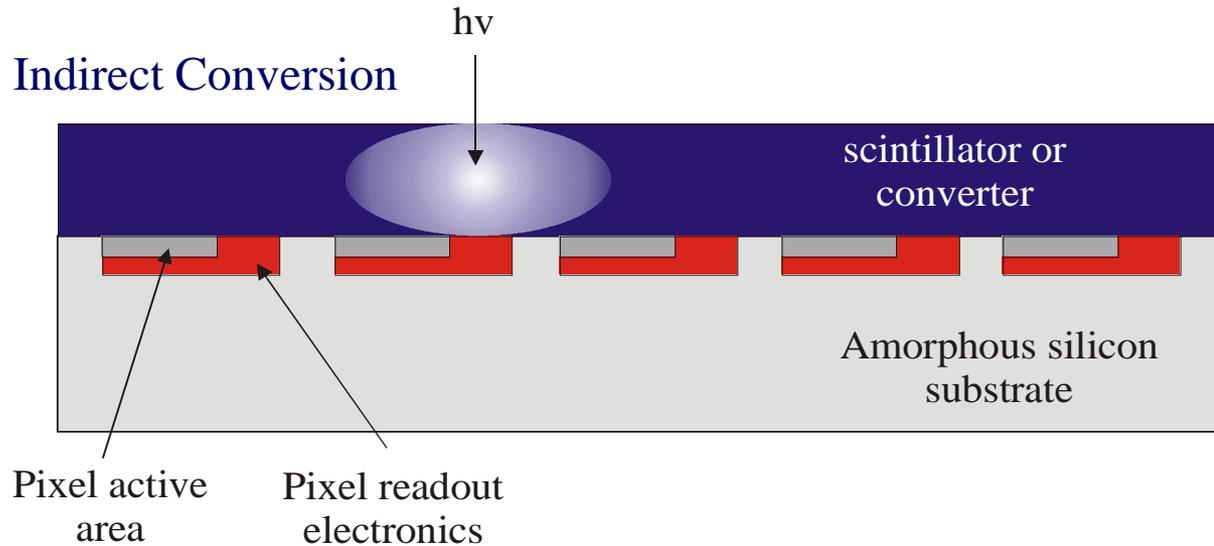


Distributed Light Collection

# TFT Flat panel Detector

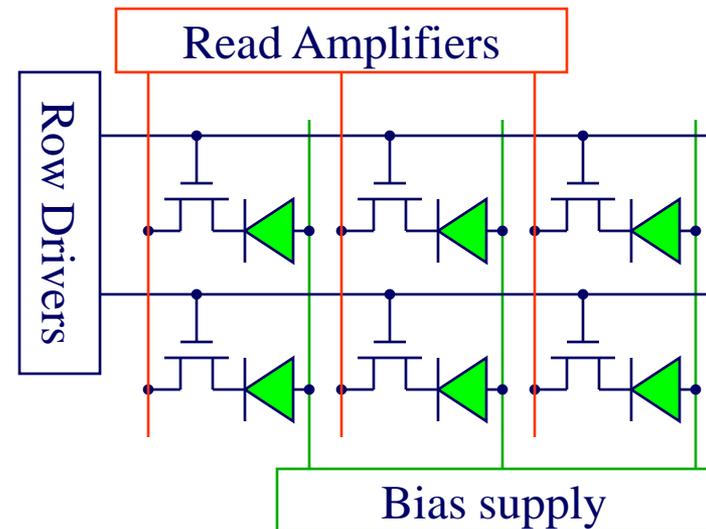
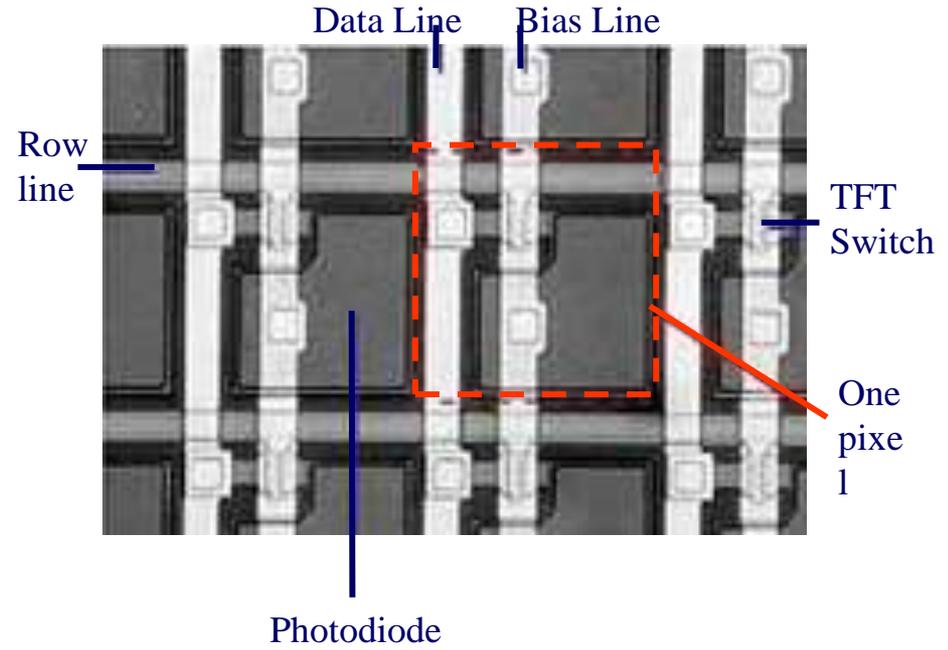


# a-Si:H TFT arrays

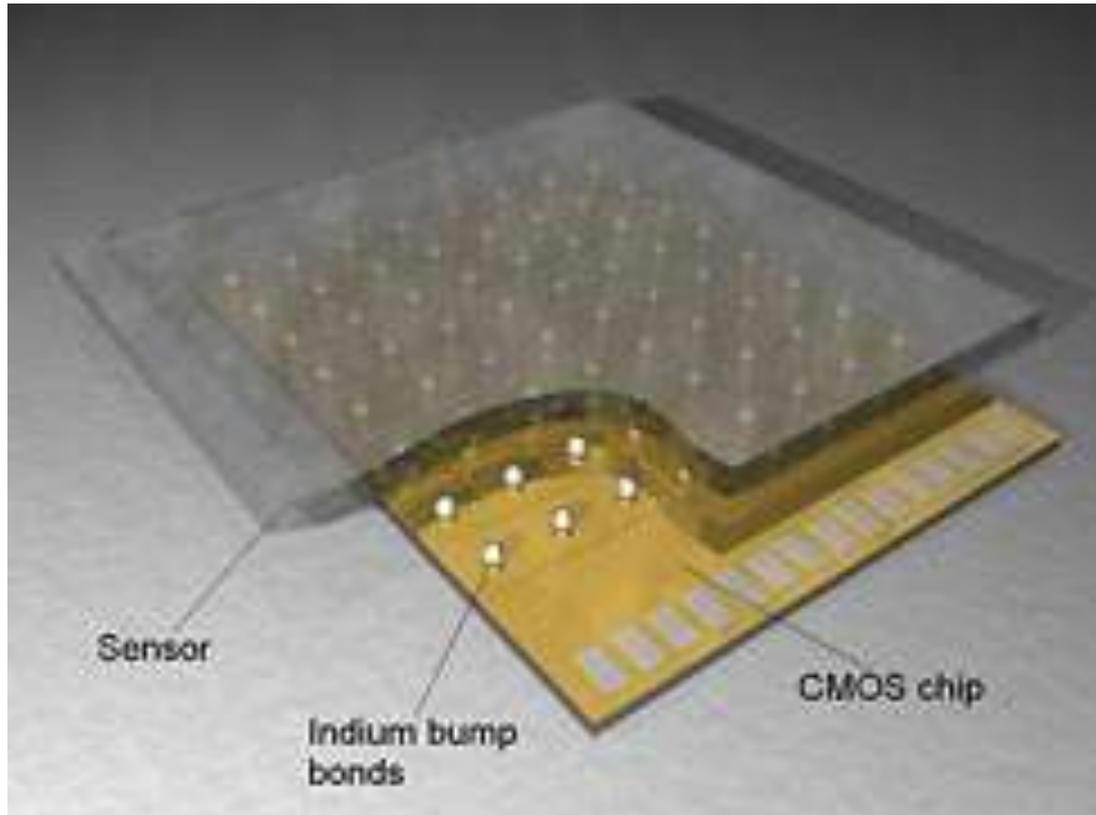


Needle diameter      6µm

# a-Si:H Array dpiX - Flashscan 30



# PILATUS 6M Detector



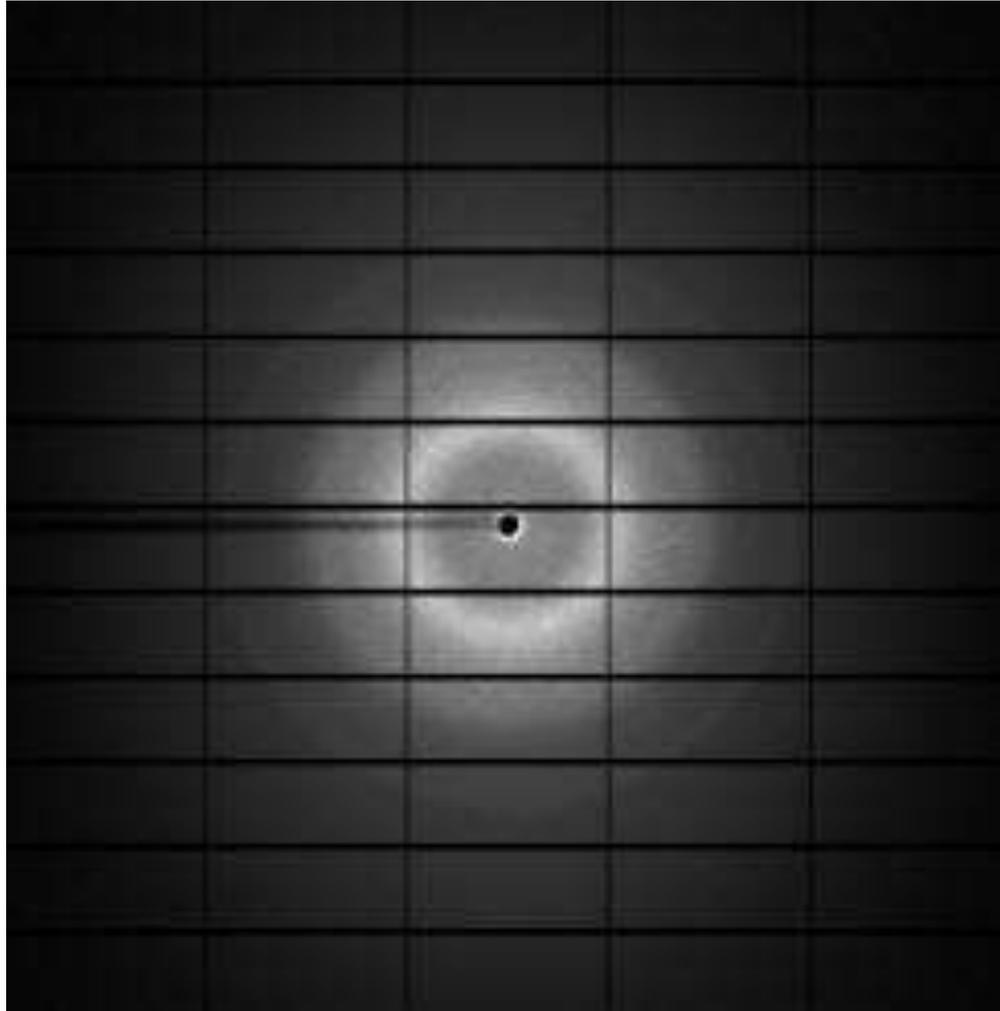
Ch. Brönnimann, E. Eikenberry, B. Schmitt, M. Naef, G. Hülsen (SLS); R. Horisberger, S. Streuli (TEM); Ch. Buehler (LOG); F. Glaus (LMN); M. Horisberger (LNS)

# PILATUS 6M Detector

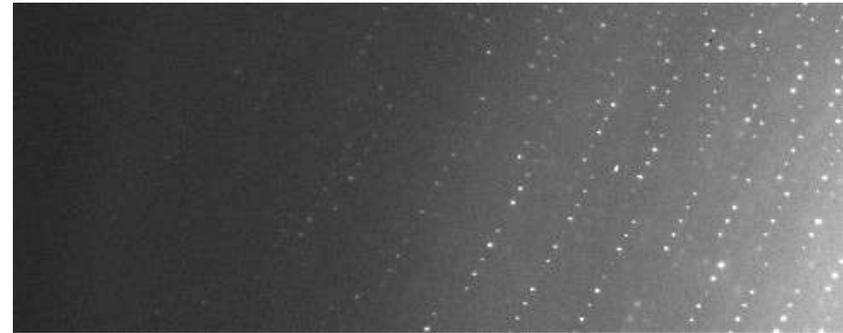


- Sensor 5 x 12 = 60 modules
  - ◆ Reverse-biased silicon diode array
  - ◆ Thickness 320  $\mu\text{m}$
  - ◆ Pixel size 172 x 172  $\mu\text{m}^2$
- 2463 x 2527 = 6,224,001 pixels
- Area 431 x 448  $\text{mm}^2$
- Intermodule gap x: 7 pixels, y: 17 pixels, 8.4% of total area
- Dynamic range 20 bits (1:1,048,576)
- Counting rate per pixel  $> 2 \times 10^6$  X-ray/s
- Energy range 3 – 30 keV
- Quantum efficiency (calculated)
  - ◆ 3 keV: 80%
  - ◆ 8 keV: 99%
  - ◆ 15 keV: 55%
- Energy resolution 500 eV
- Adjustable threshold range 2 – 20 keV  
Threshold dispersion 50 eV
- Readout time 3.6 ms
- Framing rate 12 Hz
- Point-spread function 1 pixel

# PILATUS 6M Detector



- X-ray diffraction image recorded from a ferritin crystal (energy=16 keV, distance = 204 mm).



# Spectroscopic Detectors

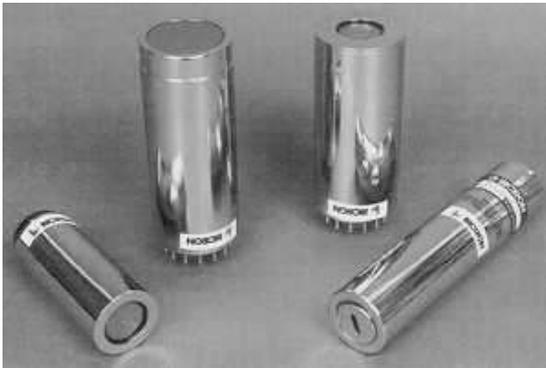
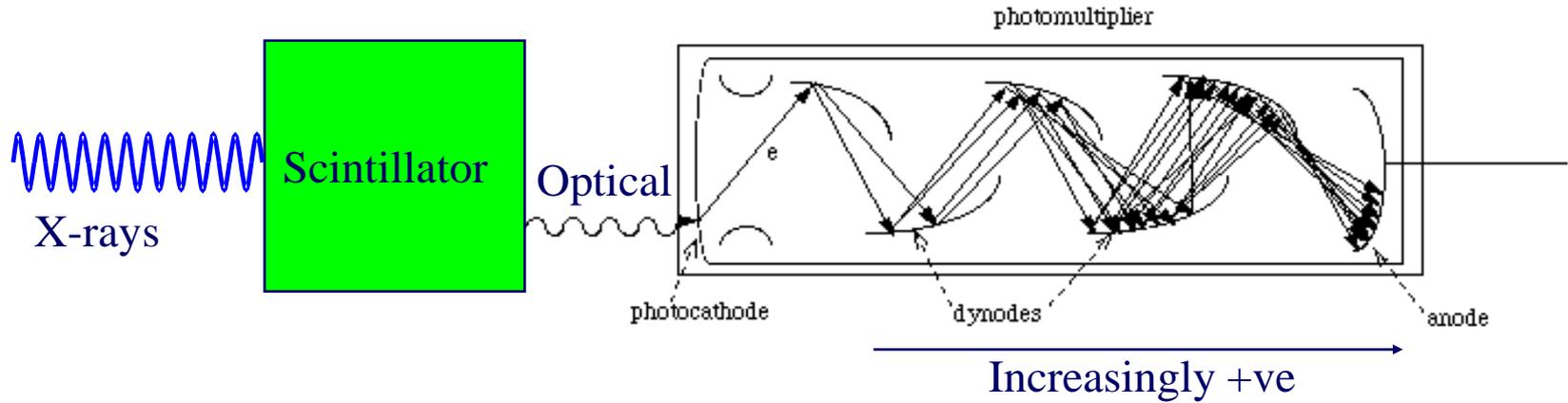


Rainbow Lorikeets

# Spectroscopic Detectors

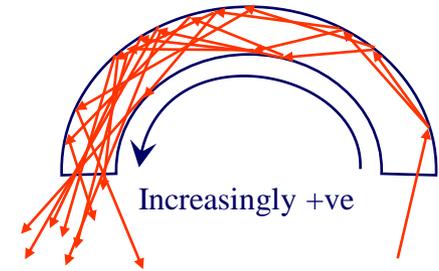
- For quantitative work, most are counting detectors that measure the size of individual energy deposits
- Alternative is the use of filters as in optical colour cameras

# Electron multipliers & Scintillators



Channeltron is similar with distributed dynode

Micro-channel plates are multichannel channeltrons with each channel being an electron multiplier.



# Multi Channel Spectroscopic Detectors

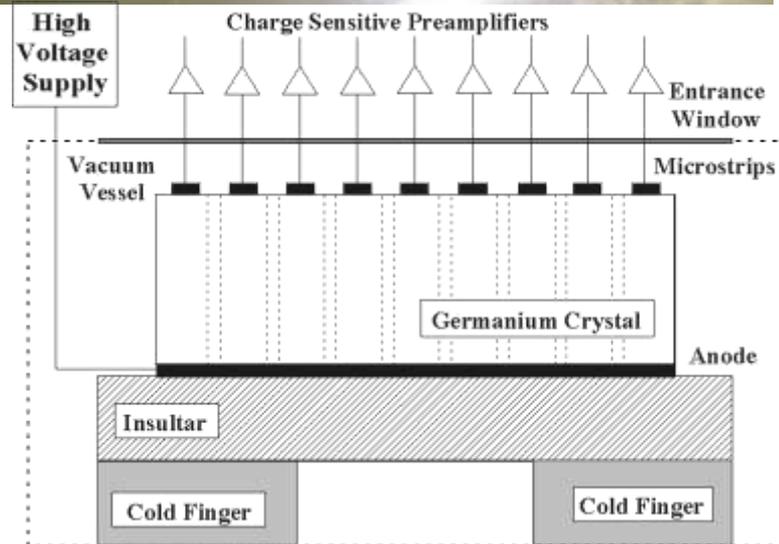


Canberra Ultra-LEGe detector

WRULEAD (Windowless, Retractable, Ultra Low Energy Array Detector) works down to 300eV

Multichannel devices up to 30 channels at  $3 \times 10^5$  cts  $s^{-1}$  channel $^{-1}$  have been built

# SPring-8 128 channel Ge strip



## ■ Ge

◆  $55.5 \times 50.5 \times 6 \text{ mm}$

## ■ Strips

- ◆ Number 128
- ◆ Width  $300 \mu\text{m}$
- ◆ Interstrip  $50 \mu\text{m}$
- ◆ Length 5mm

## ■ Readout

- ◆ Single channel 100ns
- ◆ 32 channels 3.2ms

## ■ Max expected count rate

- ◆ 14kcps

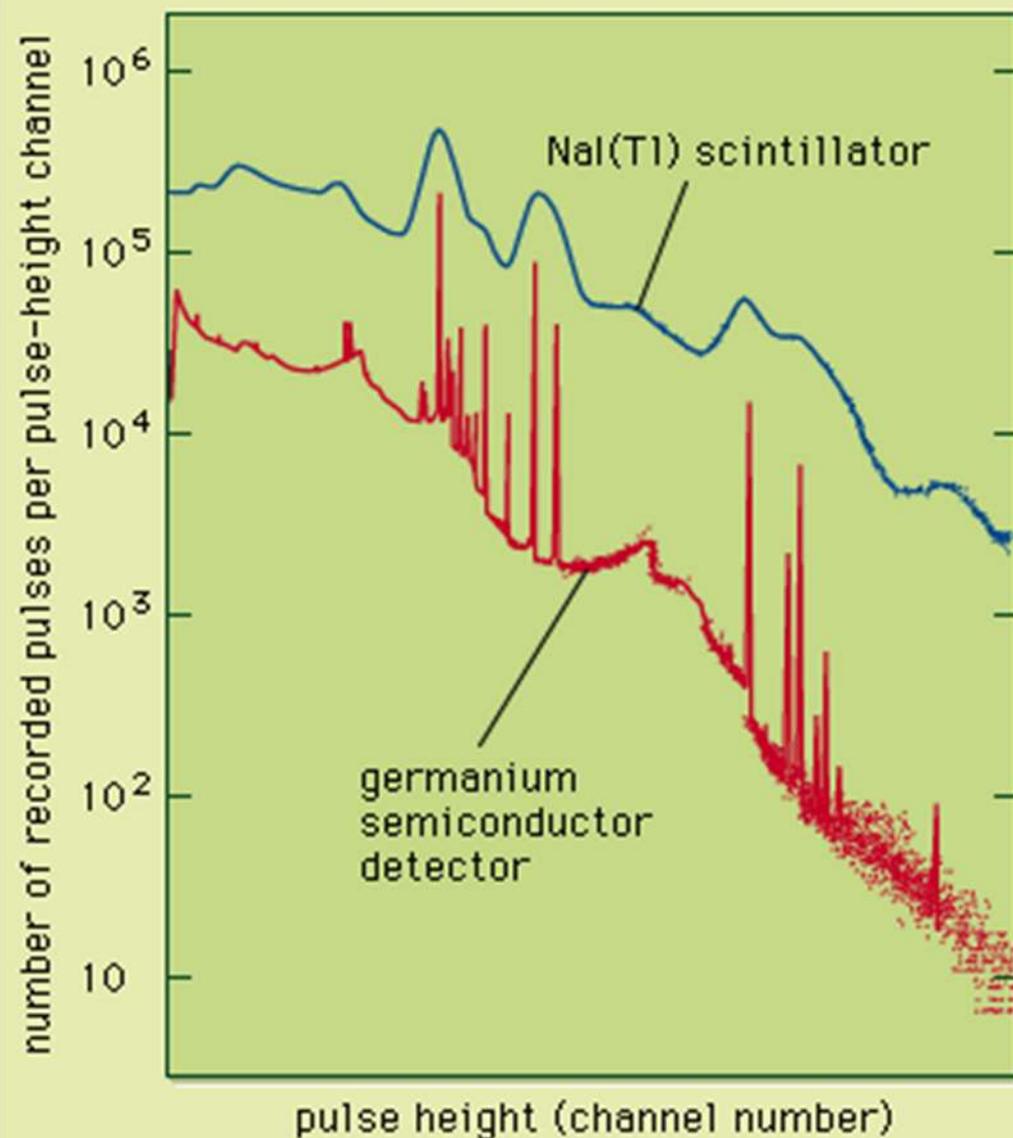
# Spectral Resolution

- Average number of carriers,  $N = E/w$   
where  $w$  is energy to create electron hole/ion pair
- Poisson statistics  $\sigma = 1/\sqrt{N}$   
 $= (E/w)^{-1/2} = (w/E)^{1/2}$
- $\Delta E/E$  fwhm =  $2.355\sigma$   
 $= 2.355(w/E)^{1/2}$
  
- For Ge,  $w = 3\text{eV}$  so at  $10\text{keV}$   $\Delta E/E \sim 4\%$
- For NaI,  $w = 30\text{eV}$  so at  $10\text{keV}$   $\Delta E/E \sim 13\%$

# Fano Factor

- If all energy from photon or particle were converted into carriers there would be no variance
- Poisson statistics assume only a small fraction of energy goes into charge creation
- Reality is somewhere in between so we introduce Fano factor  $F$
- Fano factor is defined as 
$$F = \frac{\sigma^2}{\mu}$$
where  $\sigma^2$  is the variance and  $\mu$  is the mean number of carriers
- For a Poisson process, the variance equals the mean, so  $F = 1$
- Examples
  - ◆ Si: 0.115
  - Ge: 0.13
  - GaAs: 0.10
  - Diamond: 0.08
- Observed relative variance =  $F \times$  Poisson relative variance

# Scintillator vs Germanium



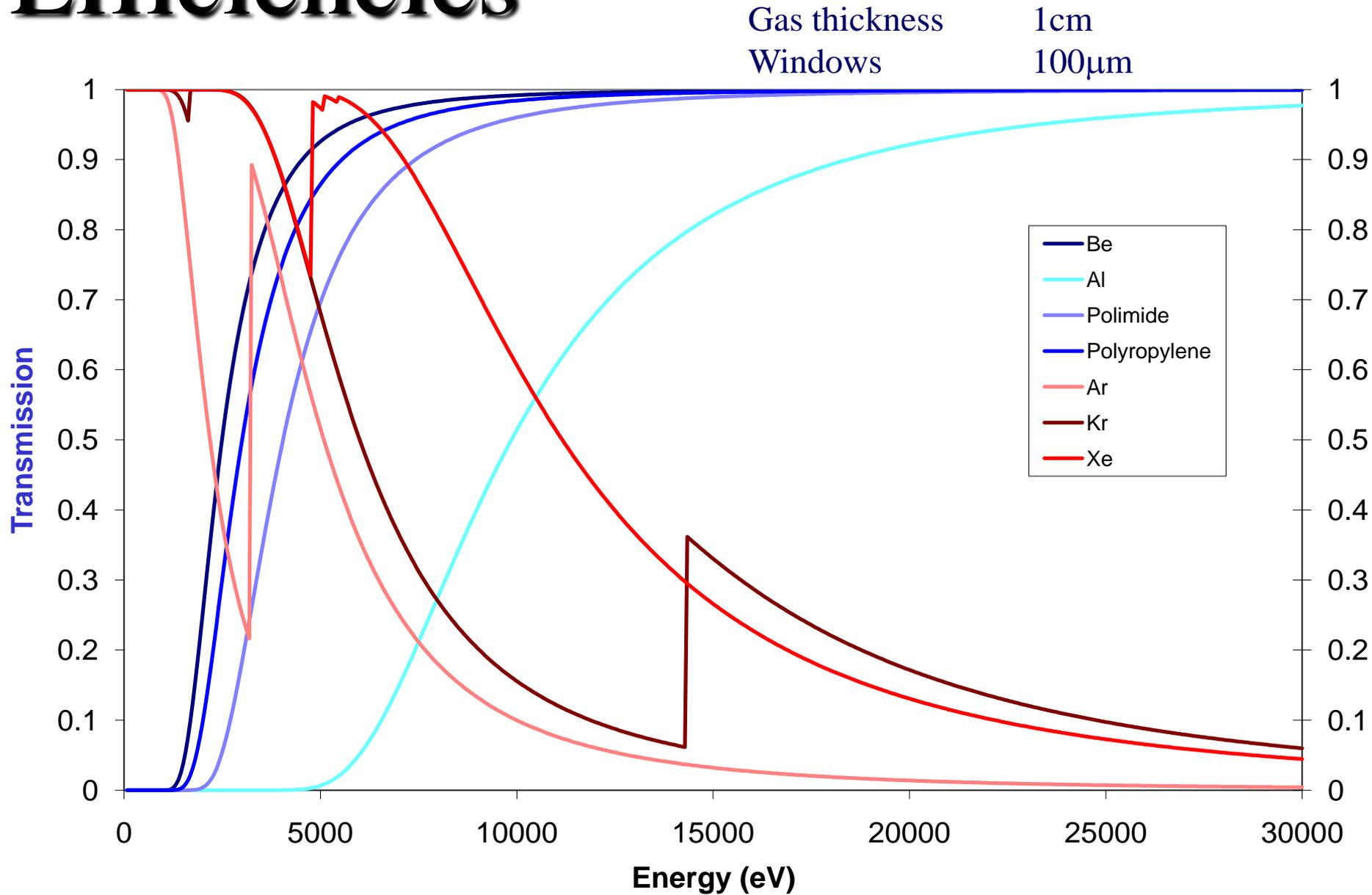
The top spectrum is from a scintillation detector, and the bottom is from a germanium semiconductor detector. The superior energy resolution of the germanium is evident from the much narrower peaks, allowing separation of gamma-ray energies that are unresolved in the scintillator spectrum.

# Things to Look Out For

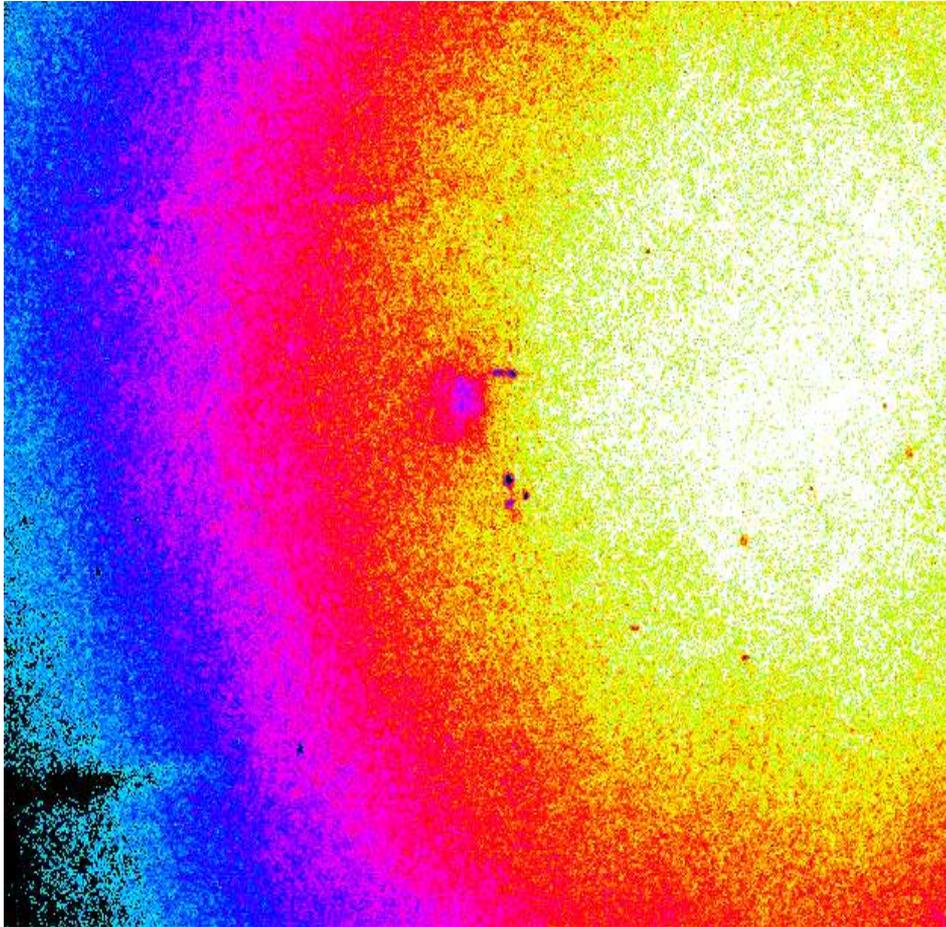


Crocodile

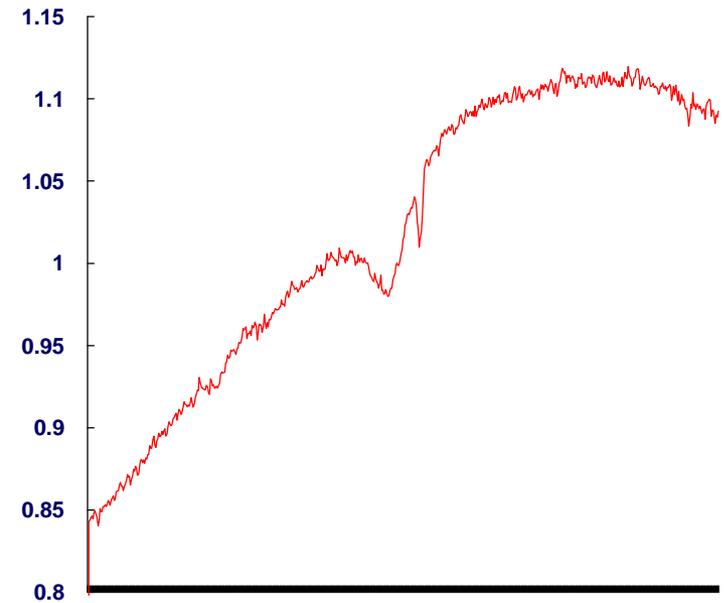
# Efficiencies



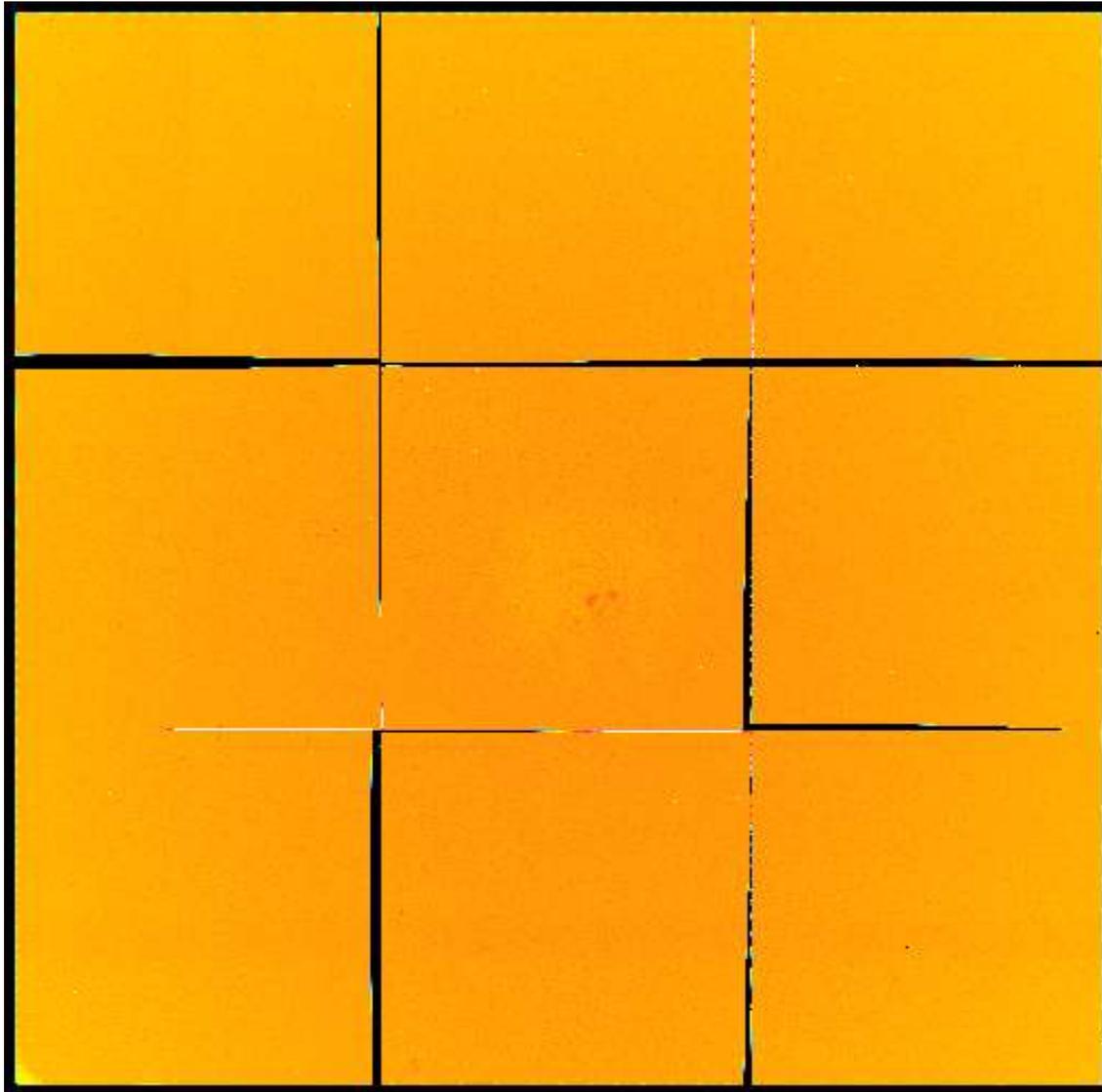
# Response to Uniform Illumination



ESRF TV Detector  
Thompson IIT & CCD



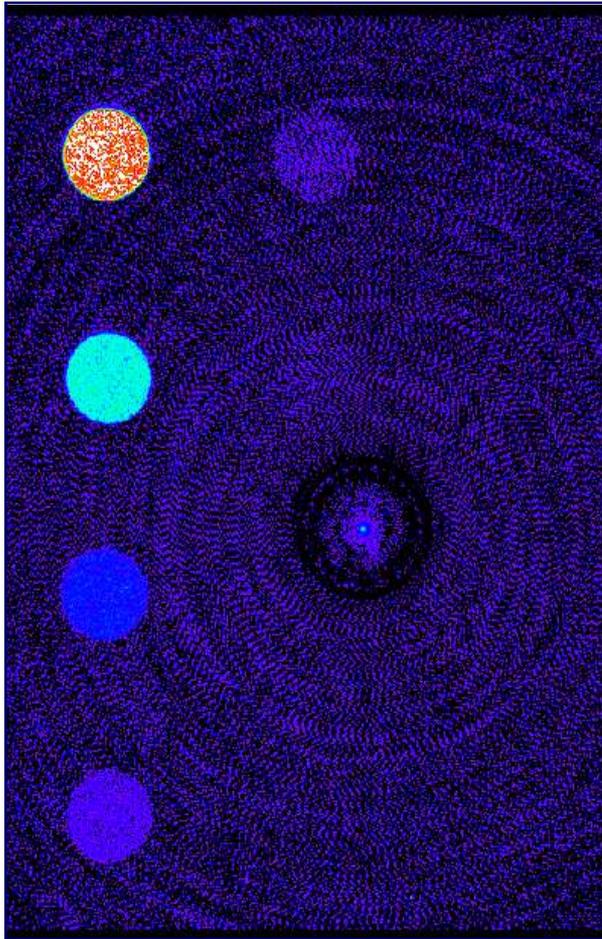
# Gaps



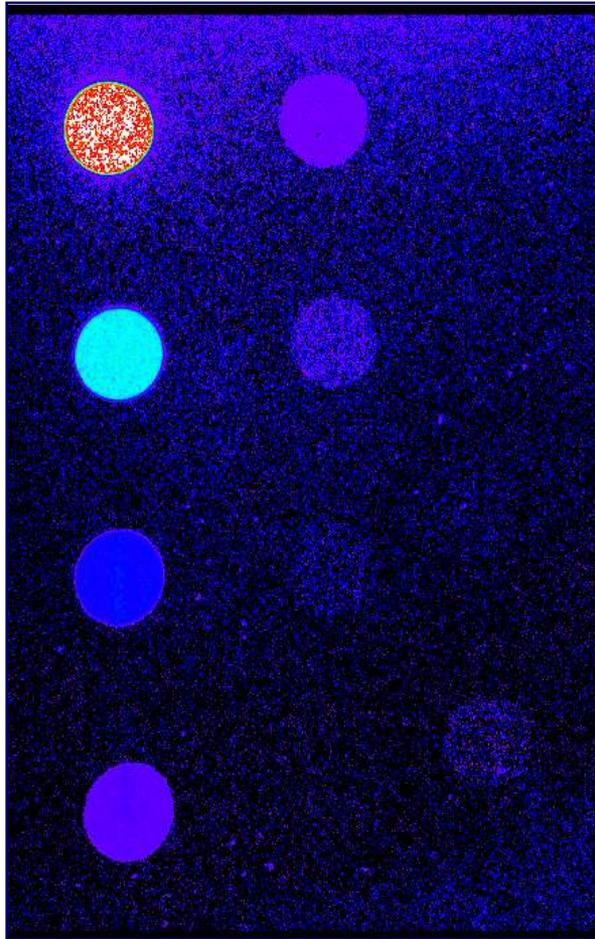
<b>Spec</b>	<b>0.2mm max</b>
<b>Worst gap</b>	<b>2.97mm</b>
<b>Pixels in gaps</b>	<b>513922</b> <b>5.45%</b>

# Graded Absorber Comparison

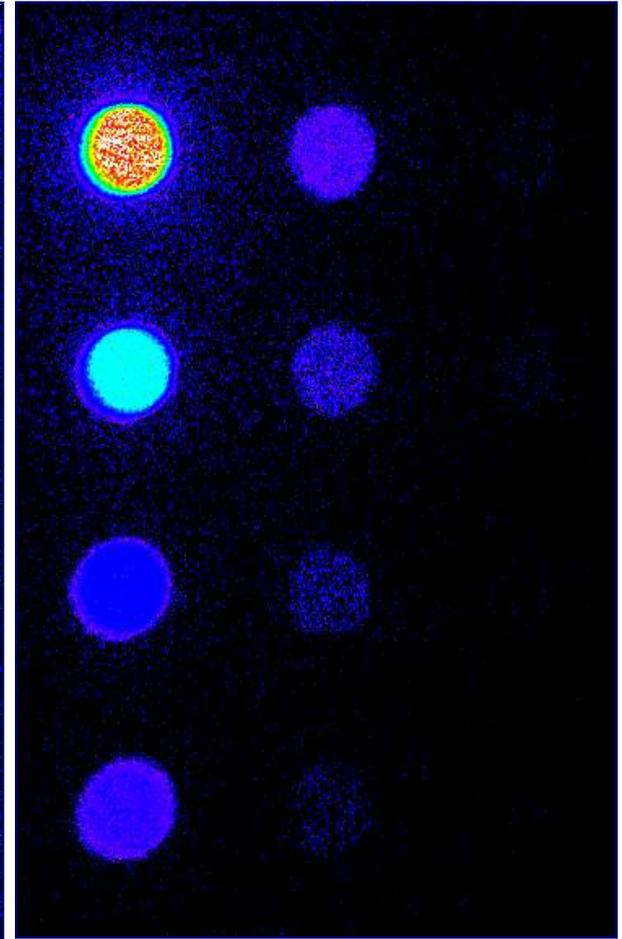
Mar Image Plate



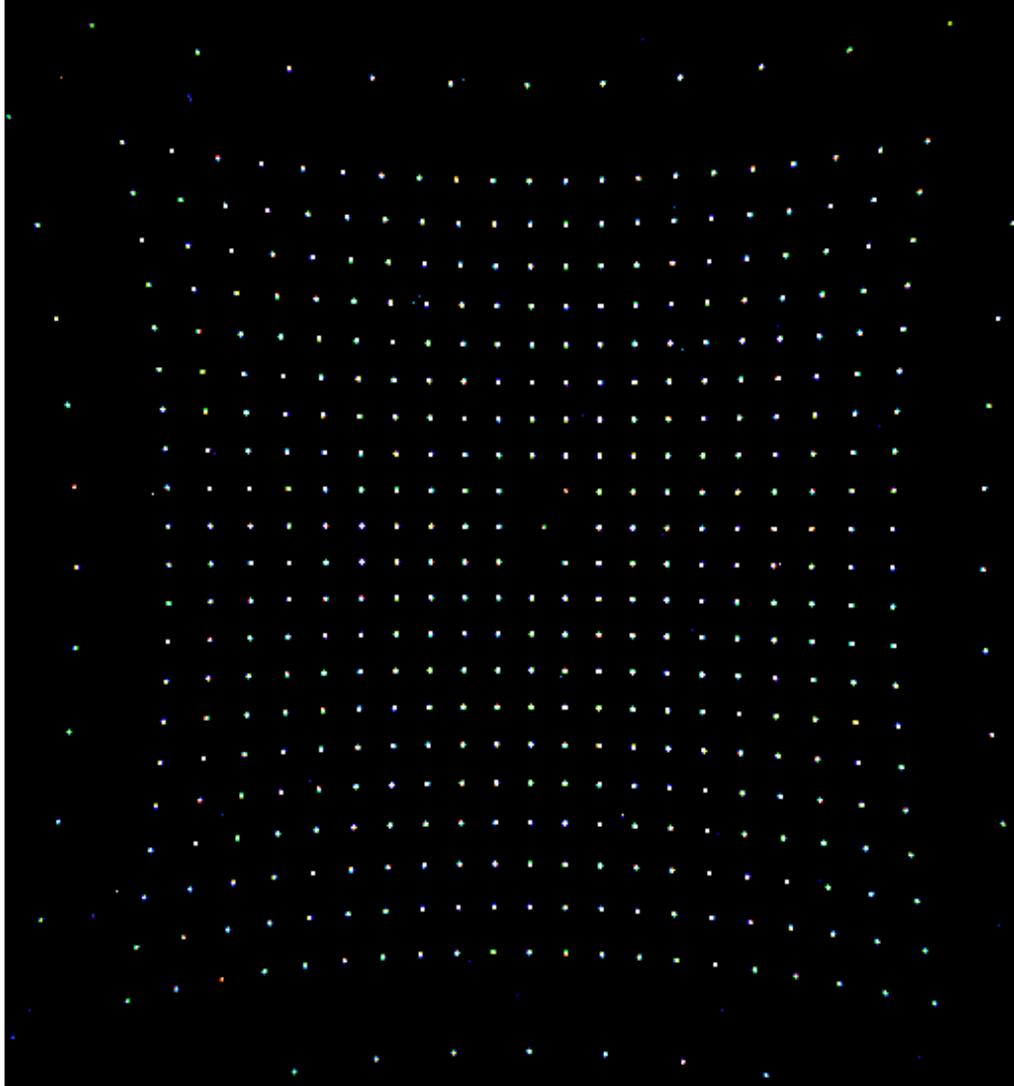
ESRF-Thompson IIT / CCD



Daresbury MWPC

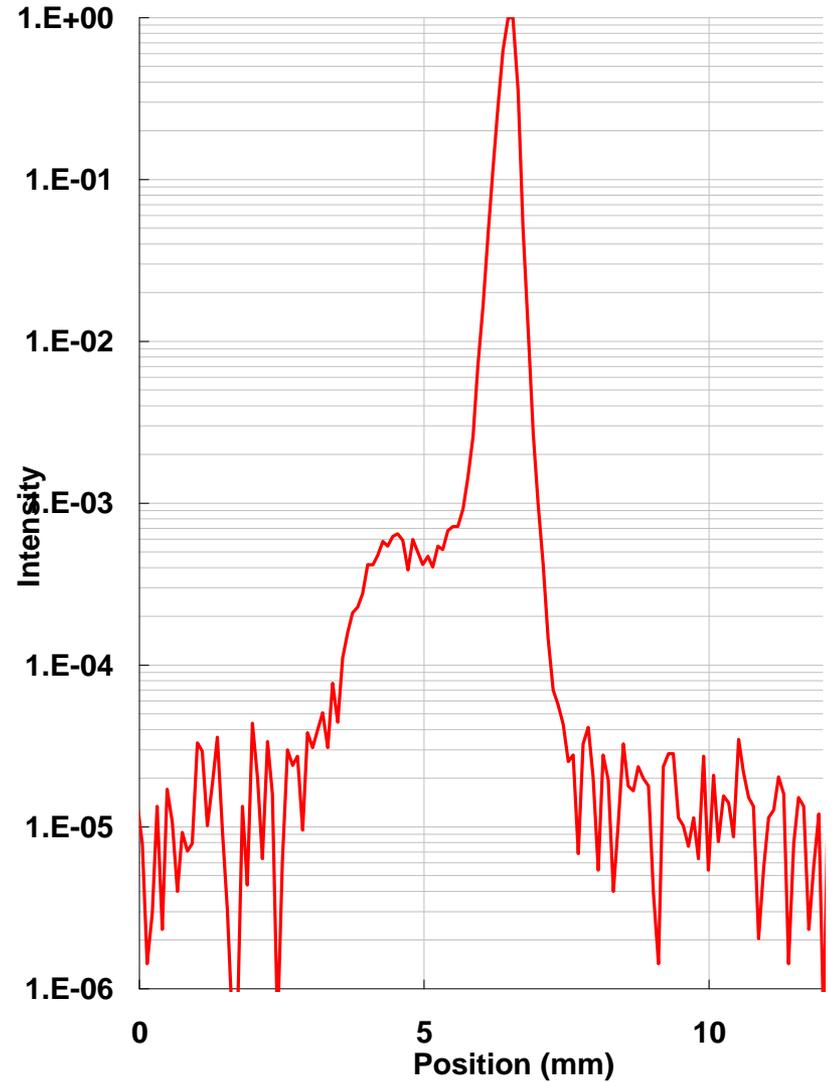
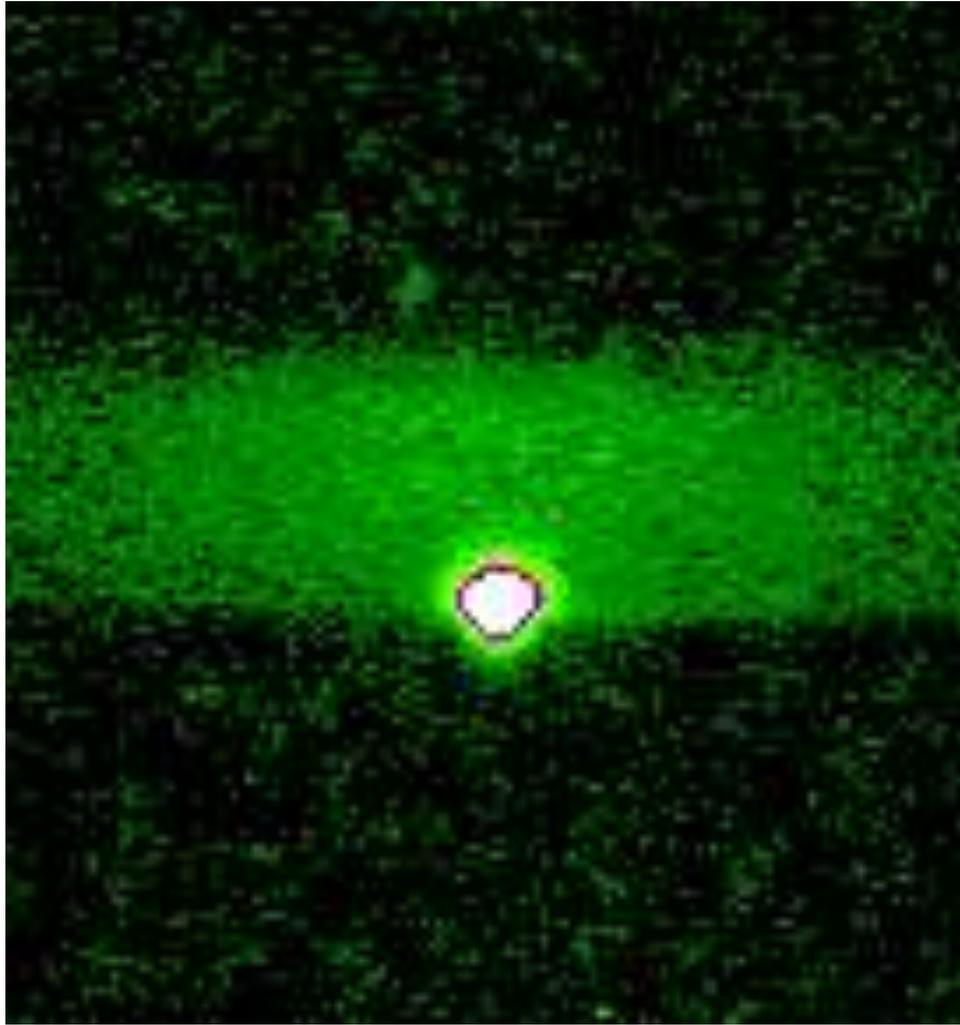


# Spatial distortion

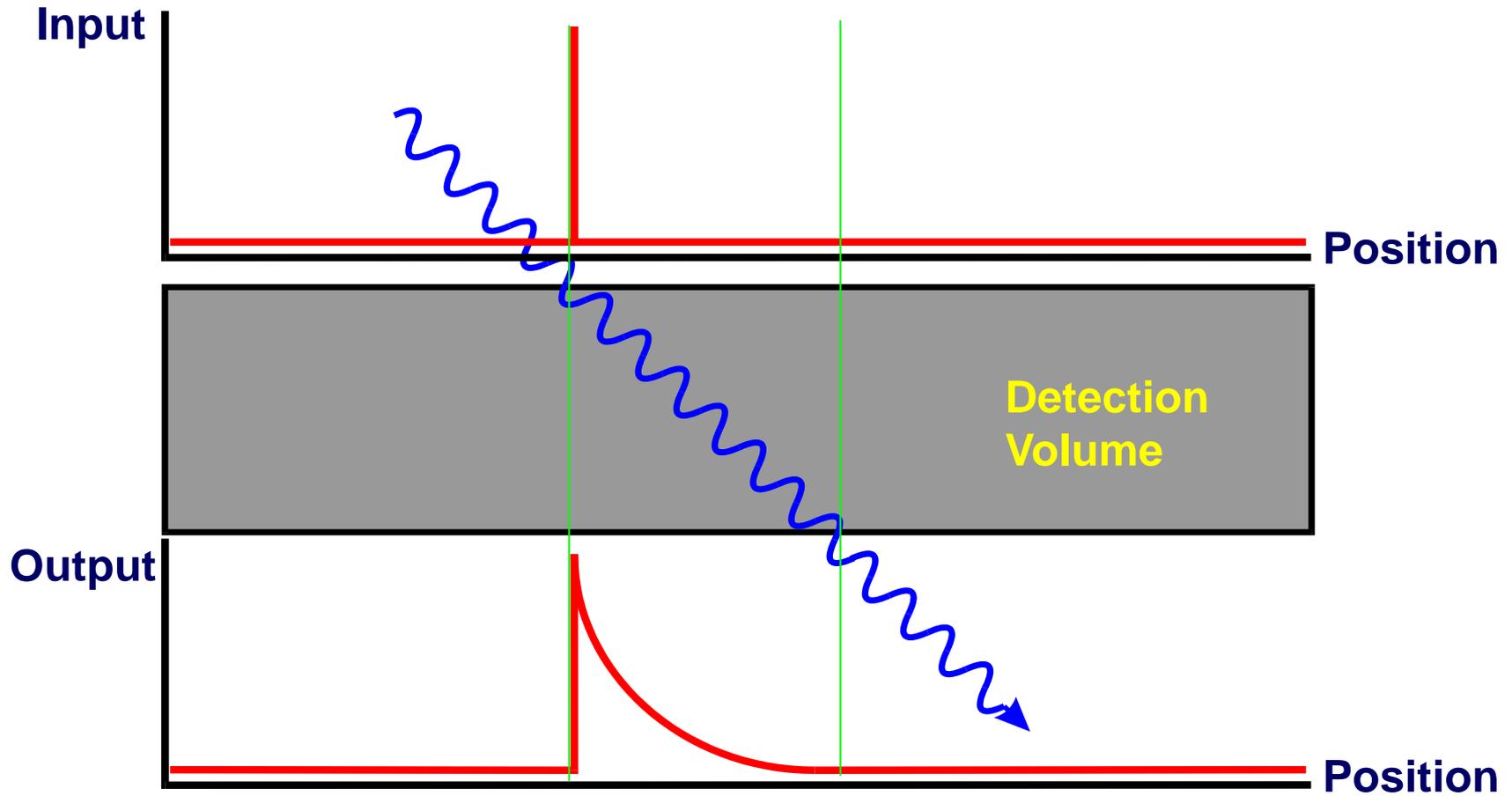


ESRF Image  
intensifier  
detector

# IPlate Single Peak PSF



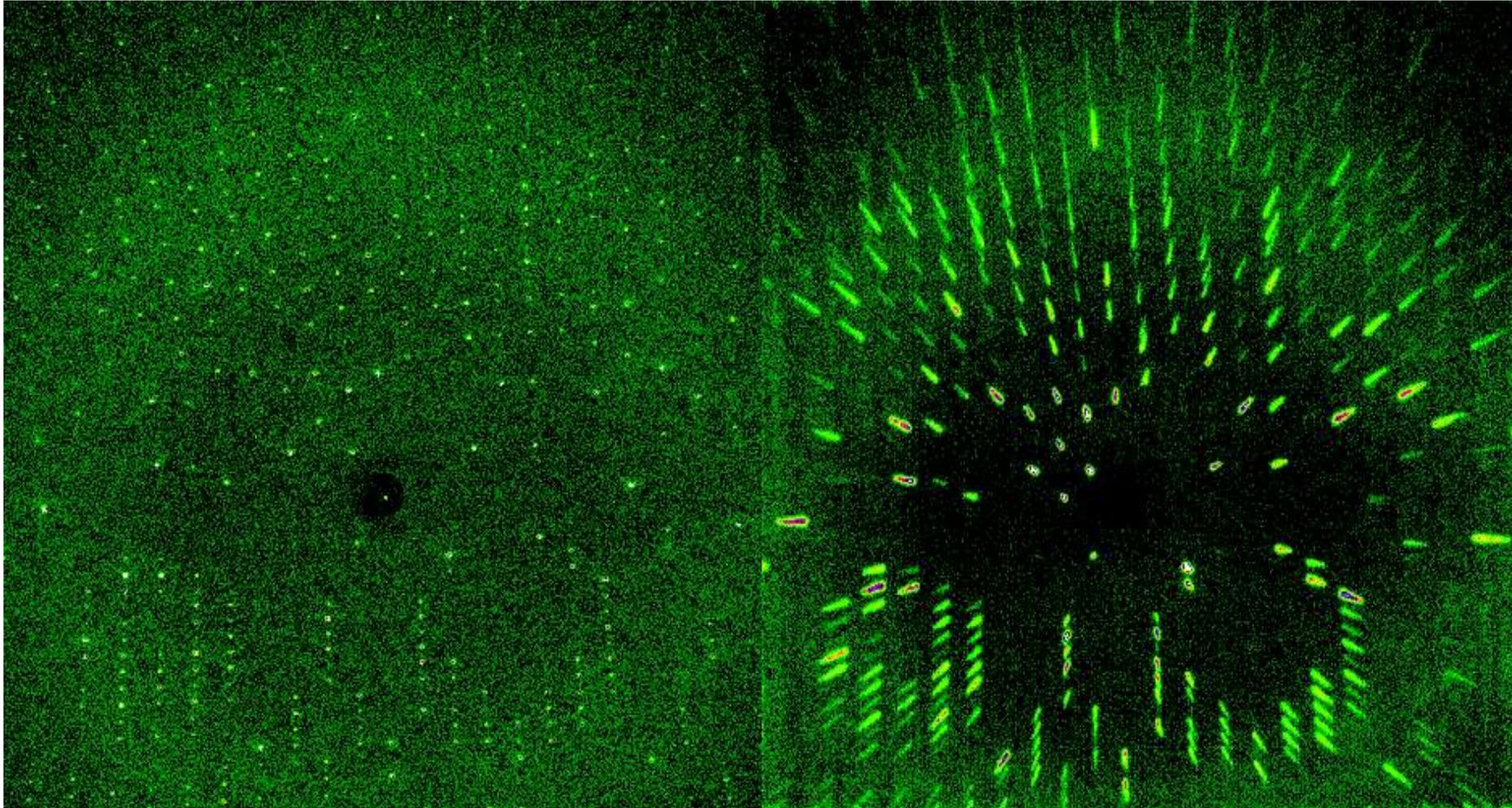
# Parallax Broadening



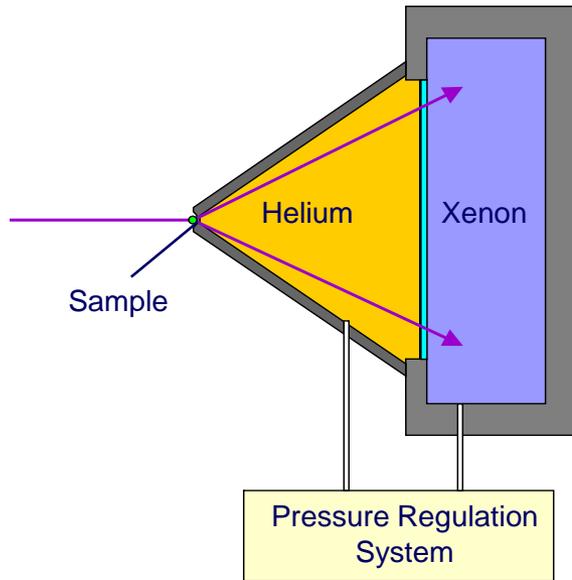
# Parallax Effect

Image Plate

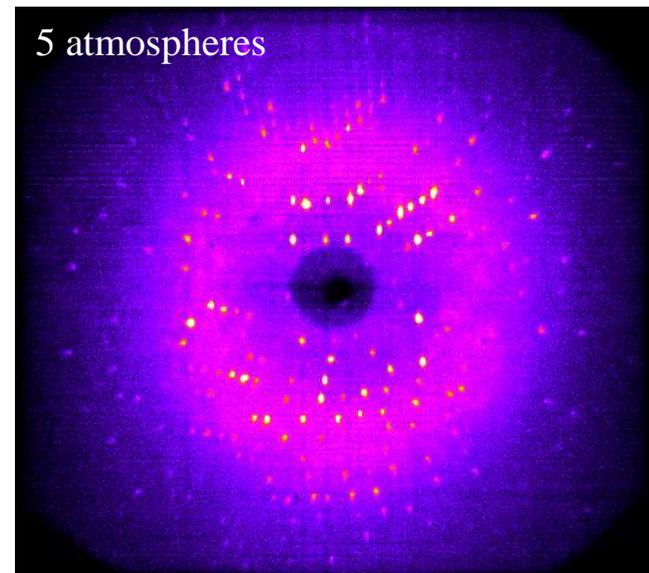
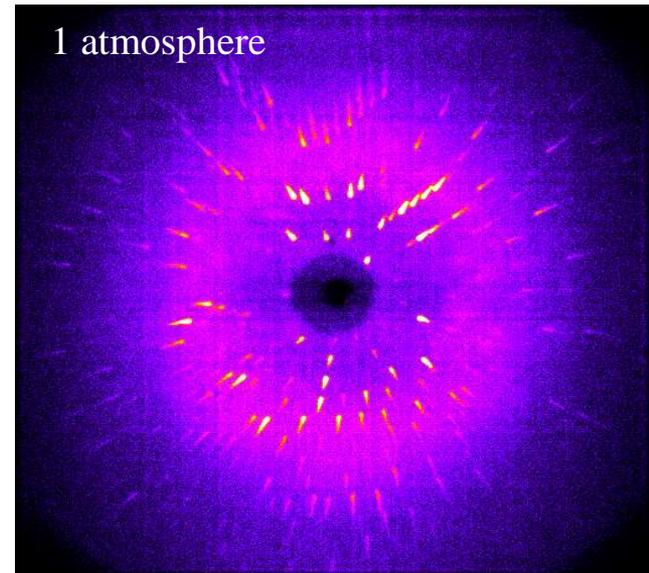
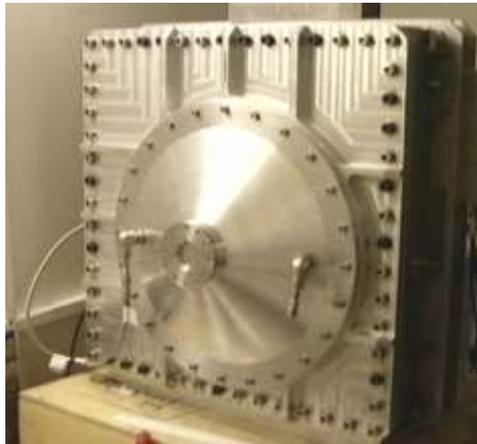
Gas Proportional Counter



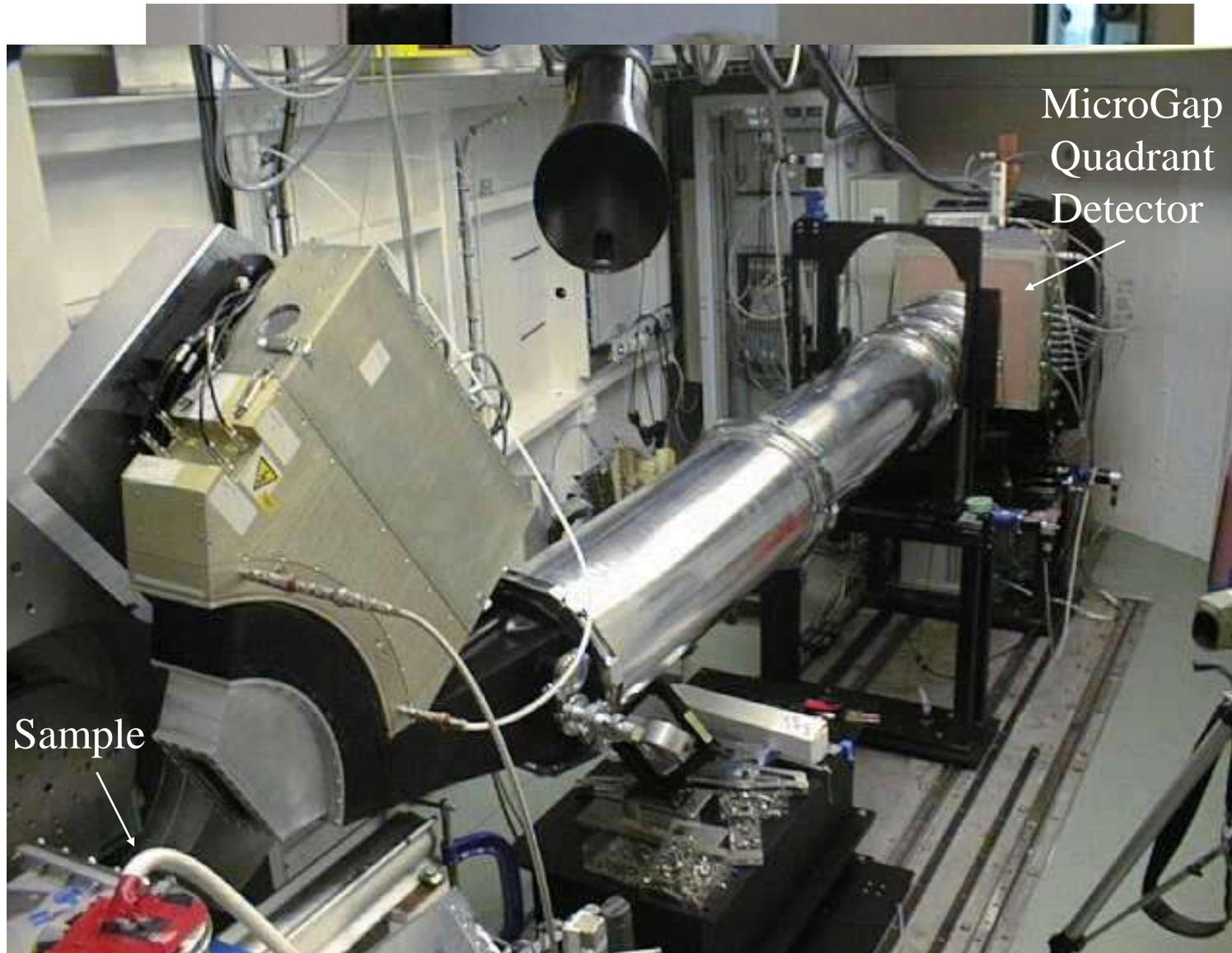
# Daresbury High Pressure MWPC



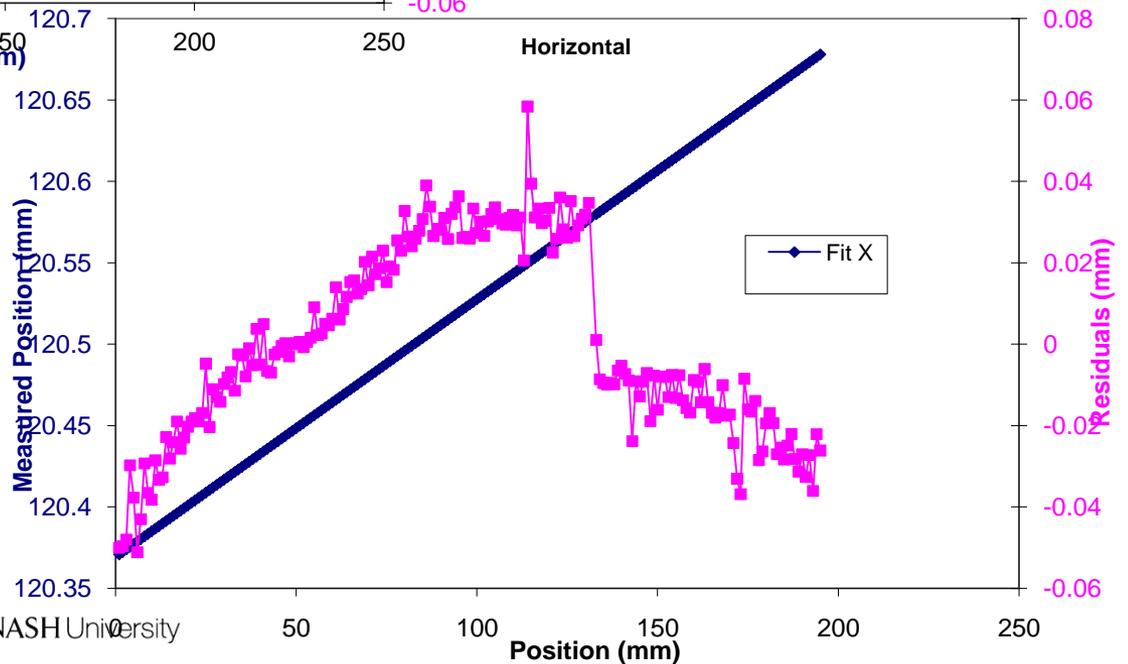
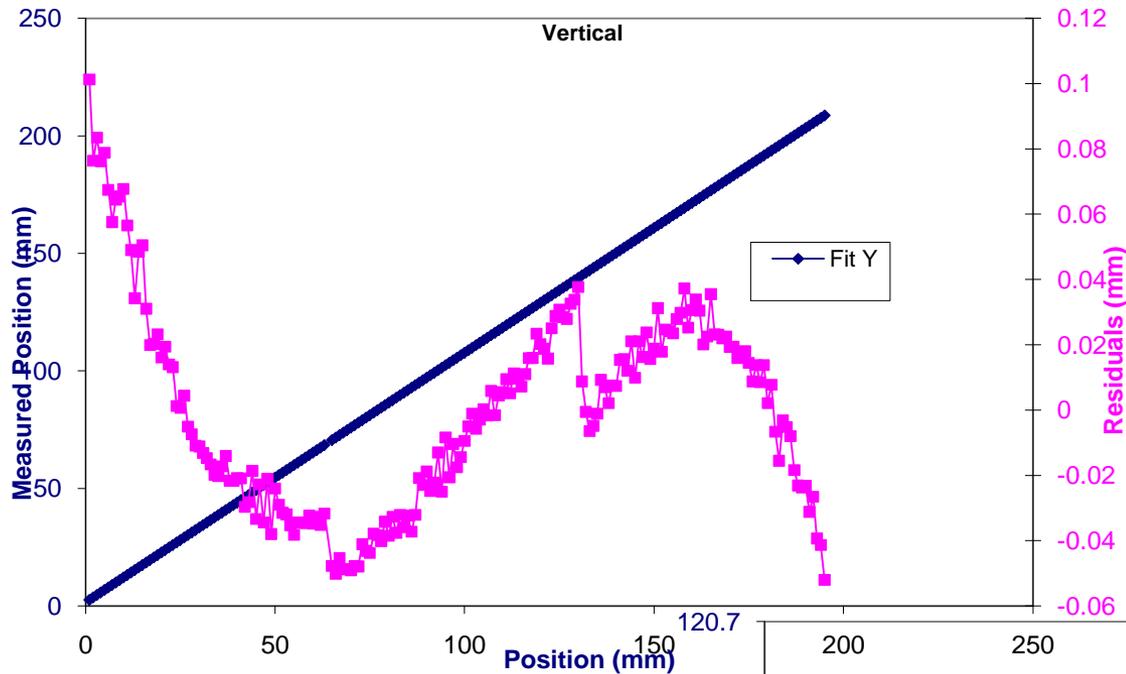
Force on 28 x 28 cm window at 5 bar = 4 tonnes  
Force on window of 1 x 1 cm at 5 bar = 5 kg



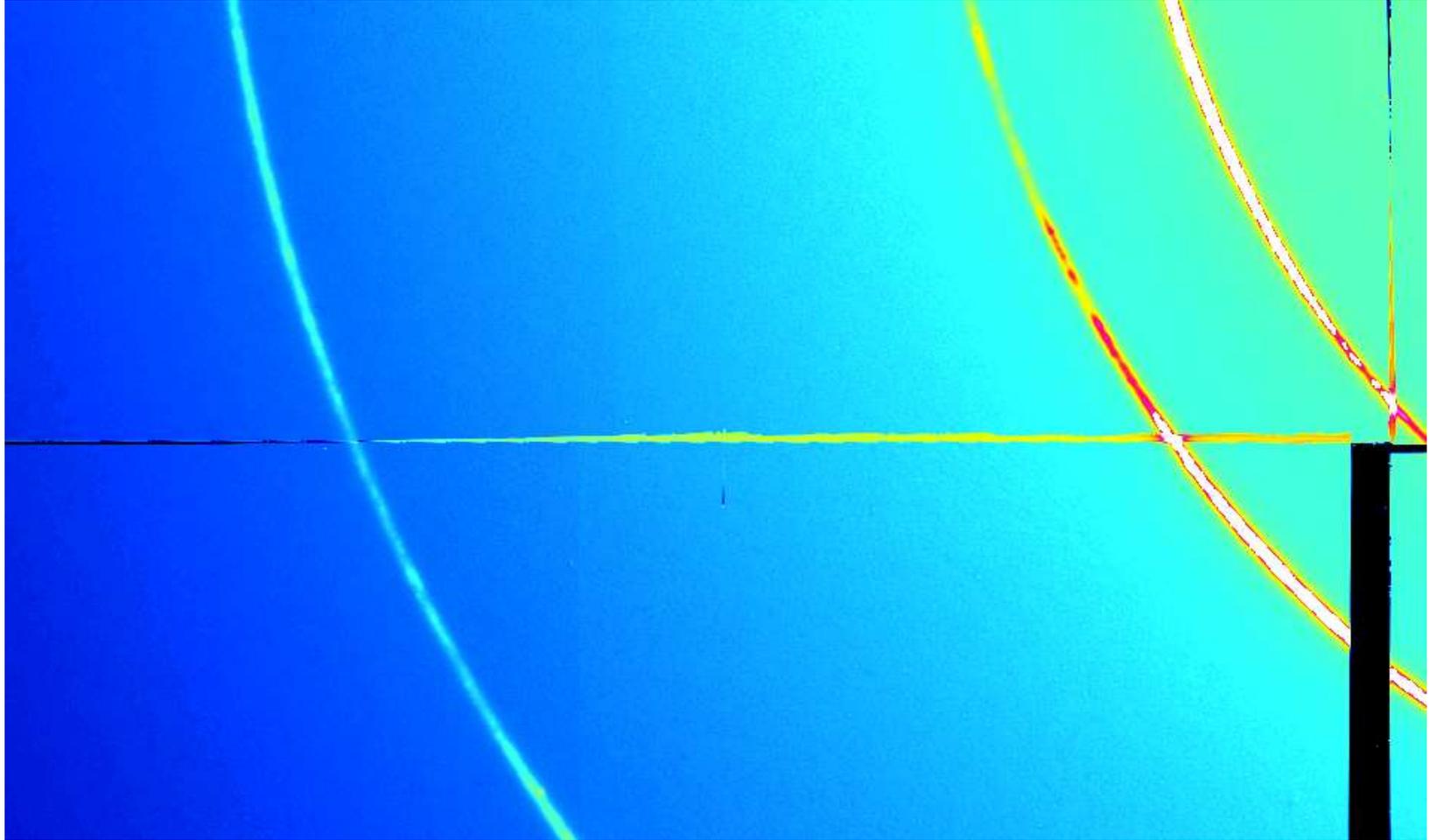
# RAPID2 SAX WAX



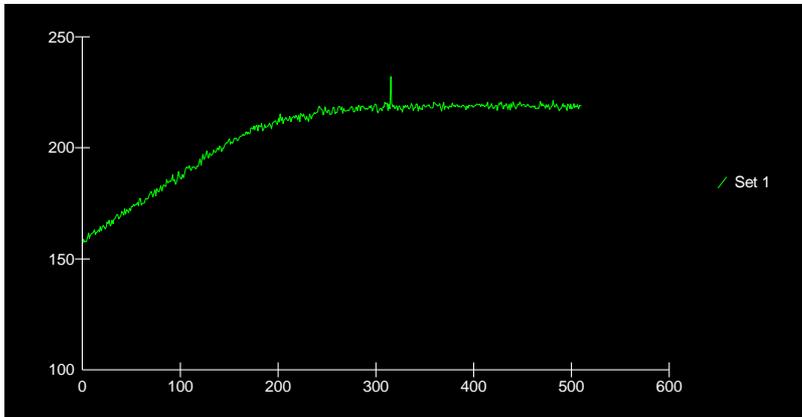
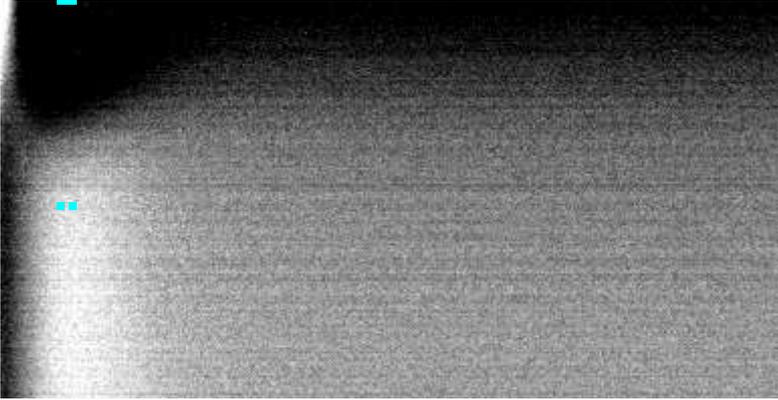
# Geometric Distortion



# Overlaps



# Dark Currents



## Flat and Dark Correction

For each image, two correction images must be recorded.

1. A flat field (uniform illumination of the detector)
2. A dark image (no irradiation of detector)

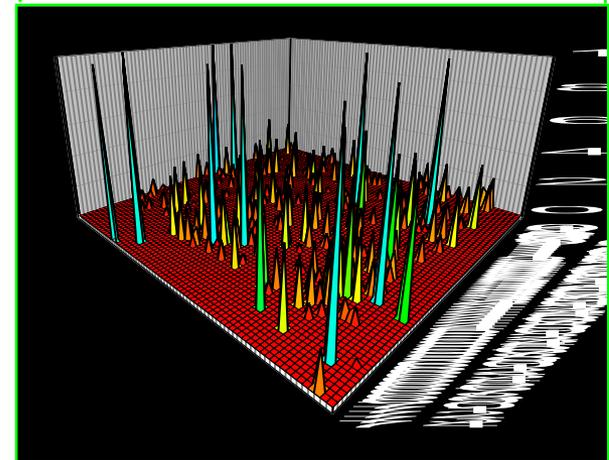
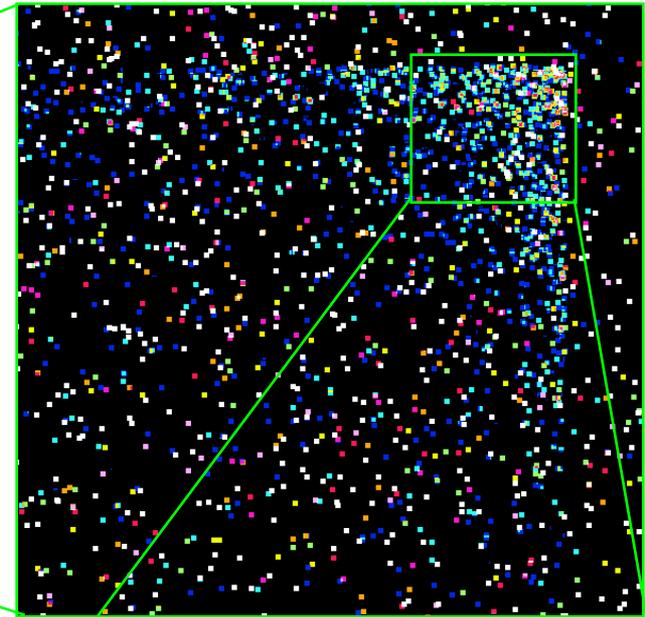
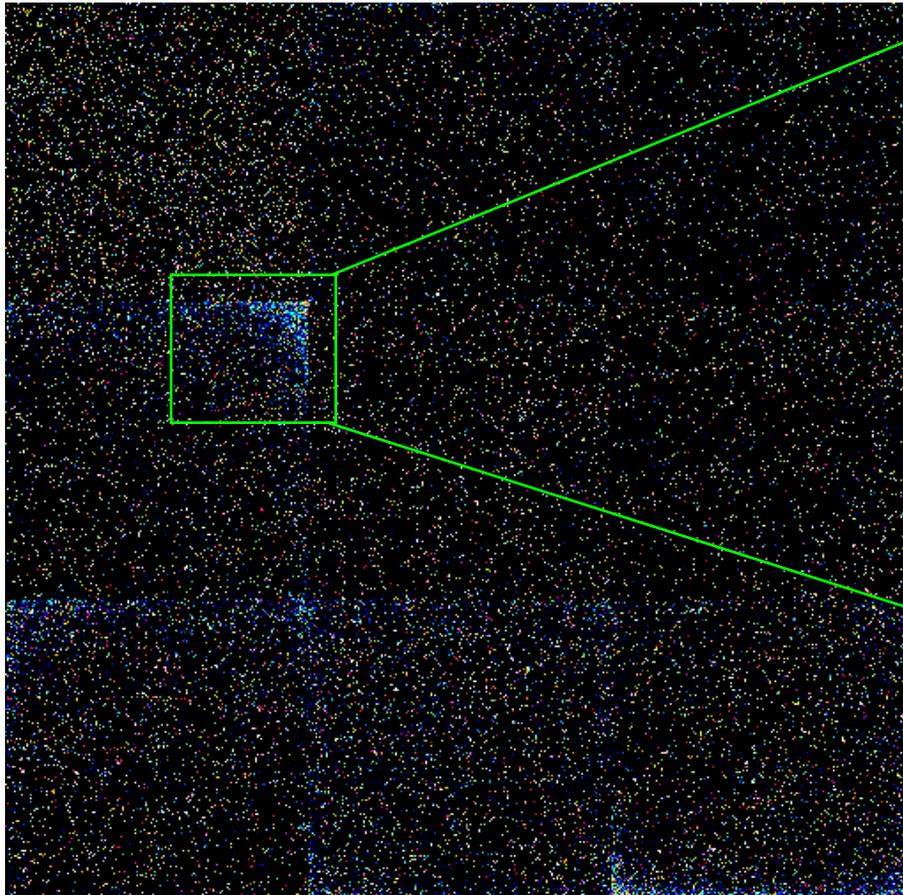
Both must be recorded with the same exposure time as the original image since dark current is a function of exposure time.

Then apply the following correction

$$\text{Corrected} = \frac{(\text{image} - \text{dark})}{(\text{flat} - \text{dark})}$$

# Dark Current

Pixels above the 0.2 photons  $\text{pix}^{-1}$  specification

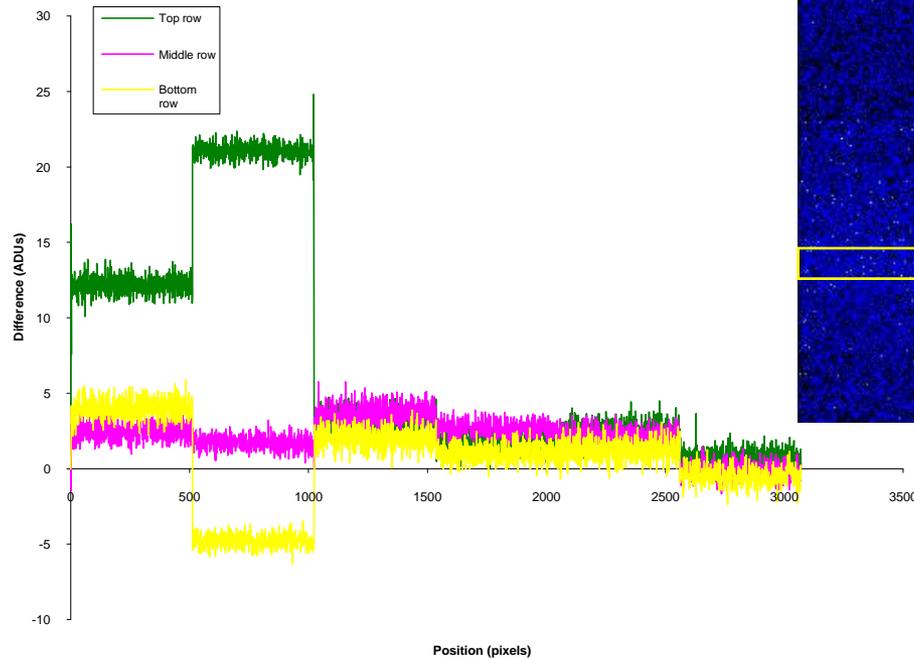
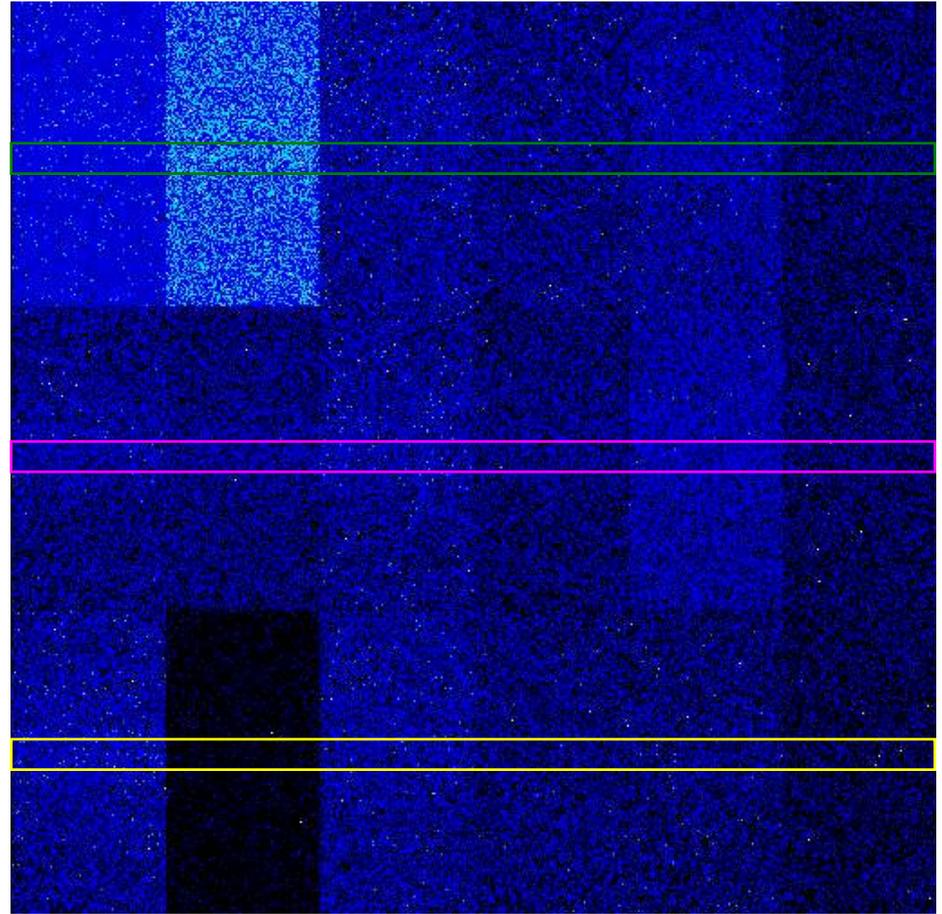


Number failing 2 measurements 5-2000s

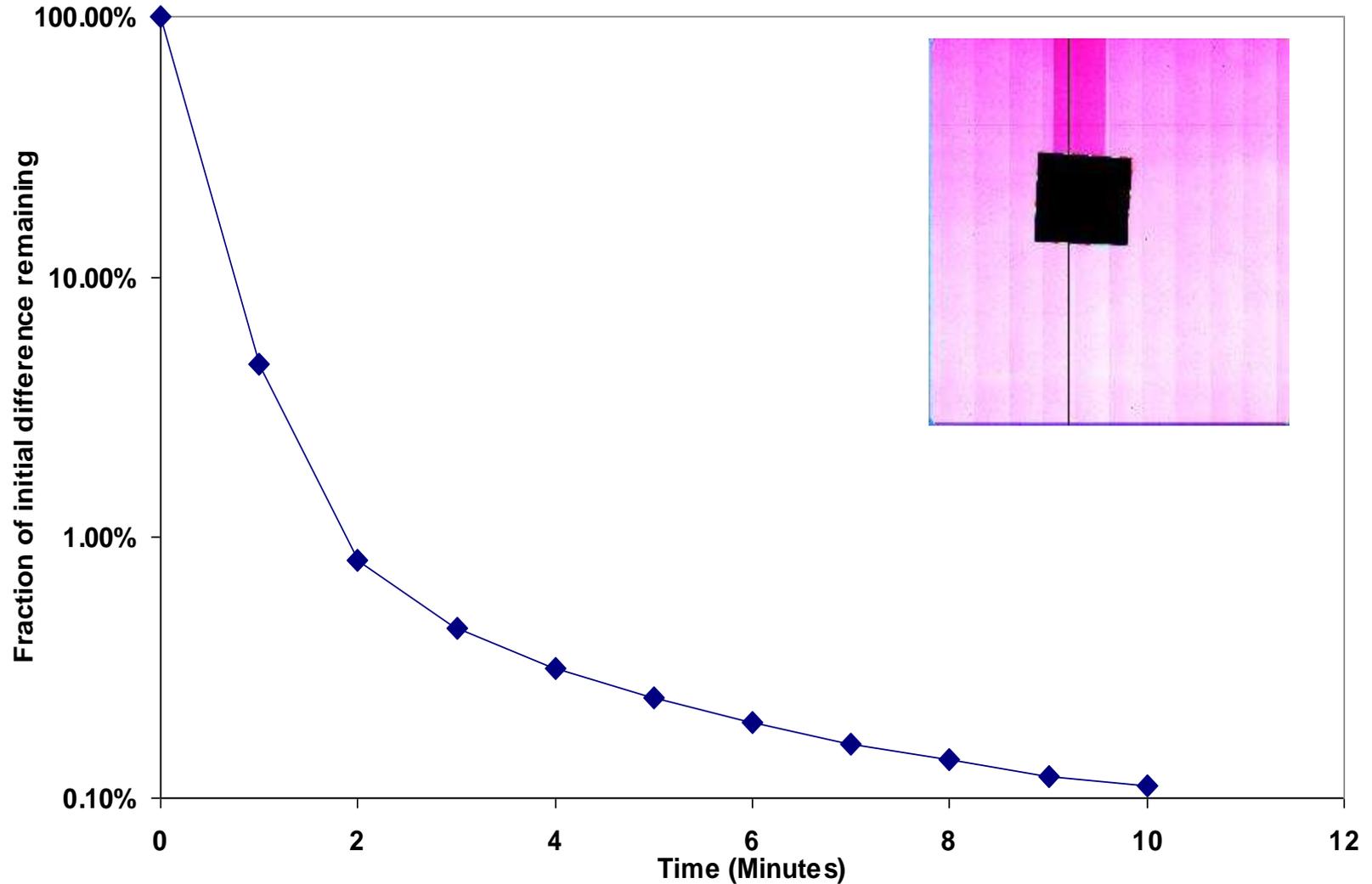
Mean	44764	0.47%
Min	40822	0.43%
Max	48706	0.52%

*nb. 14300 pixels not common to both*

# Subtraction of dark images



# Flashscan 30 - Image Lag



# Radiation Damage (Medipix)

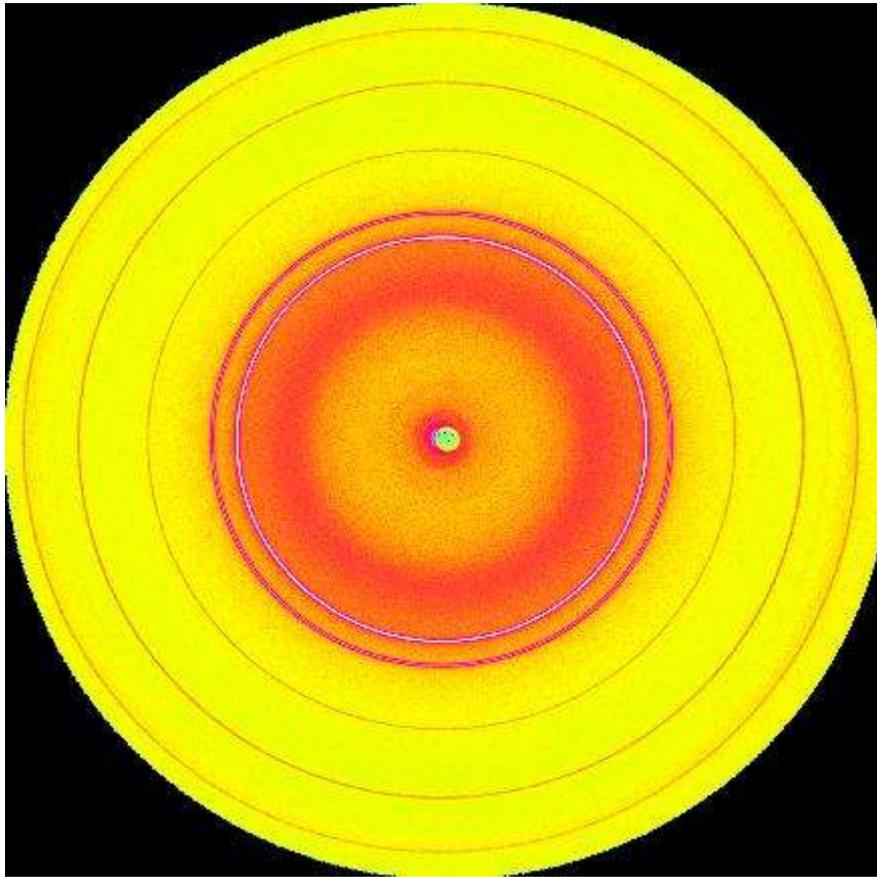
- Damage occurred at 40Gy or  $1.3 \times 10^{10}$  pht/mm<sup>2</sup> in the readout chip
- At 13 keV photon energy
  - ◆ Strong diffraction spots typically  $10^5$  phts/s or  $10^6$  phts/mm<sup>2</sup>/s
    - Damage requires ~ 8hours exposure
  - ◆ Direct beam ( $10^{10}$ – $10^{13}$  photons/mm<sup>2</sup>/s)
    - Damage in less than a second.

# dpiX Flashscan 30 PaxScan 4030



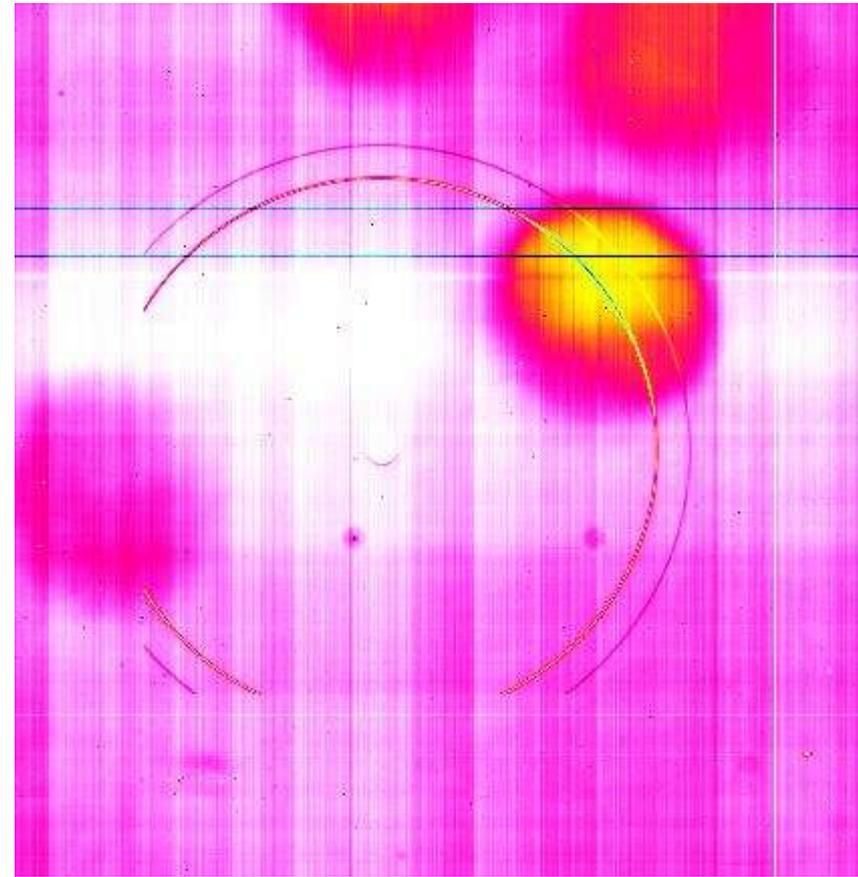
# Flashscan 30 - Performance

Mar Image Plate



$t_{\text{int}}=30\text{s}$

Flashscan-30



$t_{\text{int}}=190\text{s}$

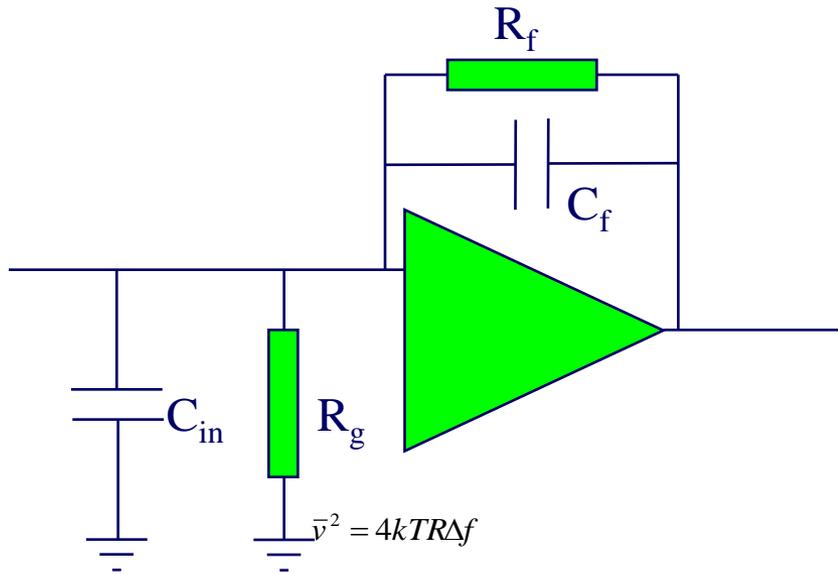
# Electronics Issues



Koalas

Albino Kookaburra

# Amplification



- In almost all cases we require amplification
- Amplifier-detector interaction is critical
- Most important element is the input, often a FET
- Noise is the major issue

- ◆ Thermal or Johnson Noise

- Brownian motion of electrons
- No current flow required
- White noise

- ◆ Shot Noise

- Fluctuations in current
- White noise

$$\bar{i}^2 = 2q_e \bar{I} \Delta f$$

- Voltage mode

- ◆ Output  $\propto$  input voltage
- ◆ Effect of  $R_f$  dominates  $C_f$

- Current mode

- ◆ Output  $\propto$  input current
- ◆ Low input impedance

- Charge mode

- ◆ Output  $\propto$  input charge
- ◆  $C_f$  dominates  $R_f$

# Equivalent Noise Charge

- Low noise is no use if signal is low
- Introduce ENC which is that signal charge that will produce the same output as the RMS noise

$$ENC^2 = \exp(2) \left[ \frac{kT}{2R_g} \tau + \frac{eI_D}{4} \tau + \frac{kT(C_{in})^2}{2g_m\tau} \right]$$

Where

- $k$  = Boltzman's constant
  - $T$  = temperature
  - $e$  = the electronic charge
  - $R_g$  = Load resistance and/or feedback resistance
  - $g_m$  = transconductance of input FET. (Links current in to voltage out)
  - $\tau$  = Rise time of amplifier
  - $C_{in}$  = input / stray and feedback capacitance
- 
- Note that ENC is directly related to energy resolution
  - $FWHM(\text{keV}) = 2.355 \times 10^{-3} \text{ ENC}/ew$  where  $w$  is the energy per electron

# Noise Dependence

$$ENC^2 = e^2 \left[ \frac{kT}{2R_f} \tau + \frac{q_e I_D}{4} \tau + \frac{kT(C_{in})^2}{2g_m \tau} \right]$$

- $\tau$  optimum at

$$\tau_{opt} = \left[ \frac{kT/2g_m}{(kT/2R_f) + (q_e I_D/4)} \right]^2 C_{in}$$

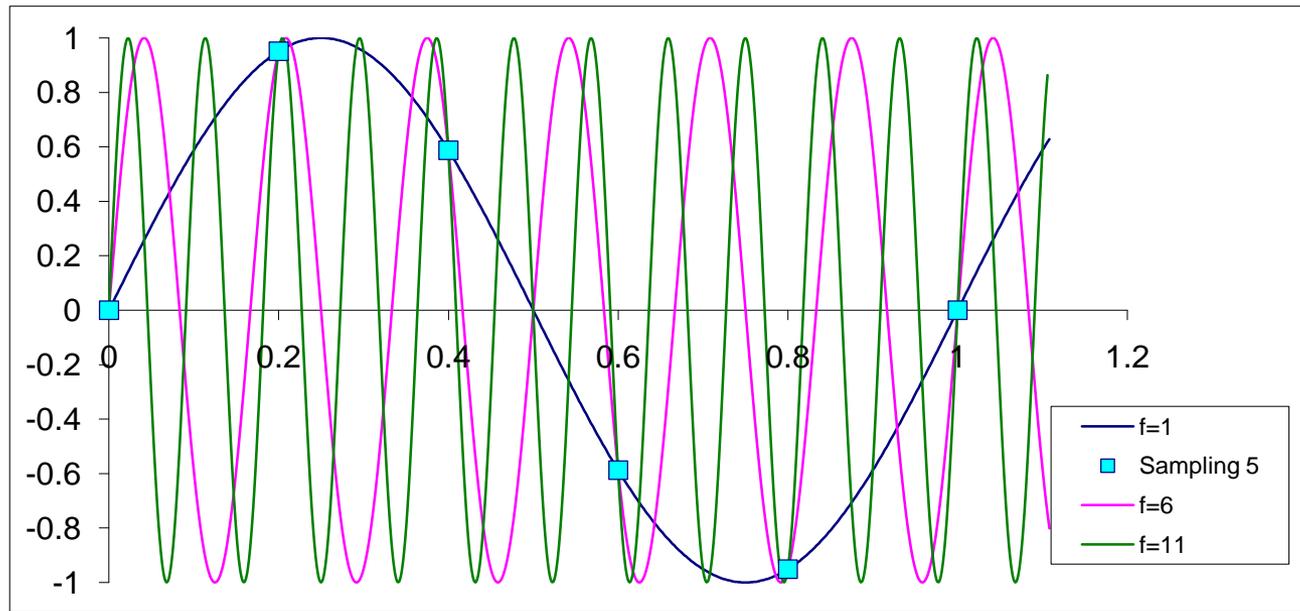
- Choosing optimum  $\tau$  gives best noise performance but may not be fast enough
- We often have to sacrifice energy resolution for speed

# Optimum $\tau$

$$ENC_{\min}^2 = 2 \exp(2) \left[ \left( \frac{kT}{2R_g} \right) + \left( \frac{eI_D}{4} \right) \left( \frac{kTC_{in}^2}{2g_m} \right) \right]^2$$

- $R_g$  as large as possible  $\sim 10^{10}\Omega$
- $I_D$  (leakage) as small as possible
  - ◆ For Ge cooling is vital
- Low T is good
- $C_{in}$  as small as possible (note that this includes  $C_f$ )
- $g_m$  as large as possible but this affects  $C_{in}$

# Sampling & Aliasing



- Shannon's Theorem and Nyquist Criterion

- ◆ The highest frequency that can be measured is twice the sampling frequency

- If the input is not band limited to frequencies less than  $f_s/2$ , then aliasing will occur at frequencies  $f \pm n f_s$

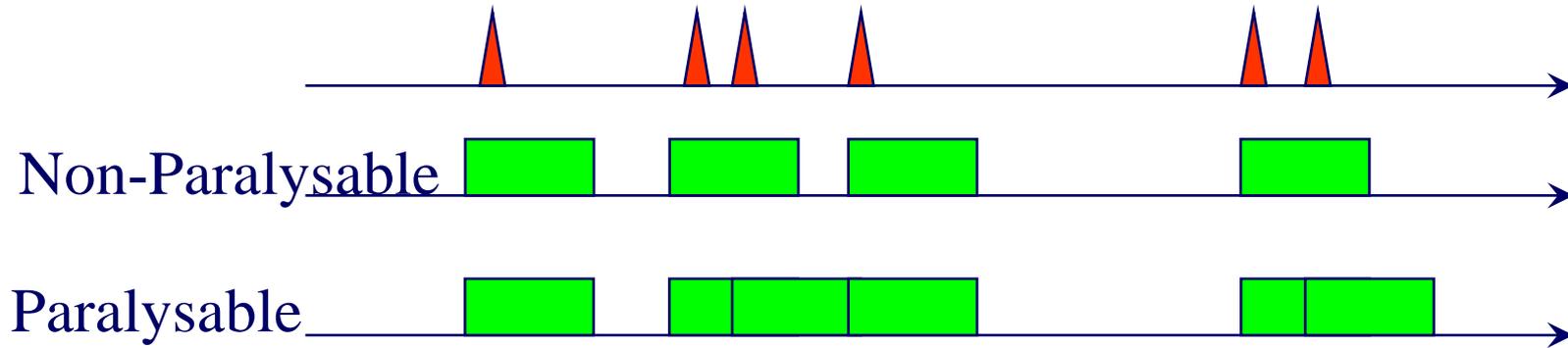
- ◆ where  $f$  = signal frequency,  $f_s$  = sampling frequency,  $n$  = integer

- If you have  $100\mu\text{m}$  pixels, ideal PSF  $> 200\mu\text{m}$

# Synchrotron Detectors

- A synchrotron source is used primarily when sensitivity is an issue
  - ◆ Signal too weak
  - ◆ Time resolution too poor
  - ◆ Sample too small
- More intensity can help this but...
- It places a major strain on detectors and  
**Flux is a major issue!**

# Dead Time



$R_i$ =input rate,  $R_d$ =detected rate,  $\tau$  dead time

## ■ Non-paralysable

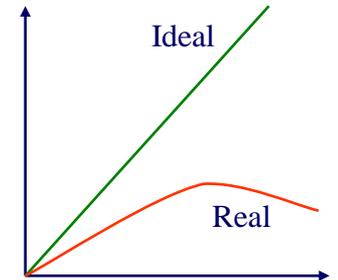
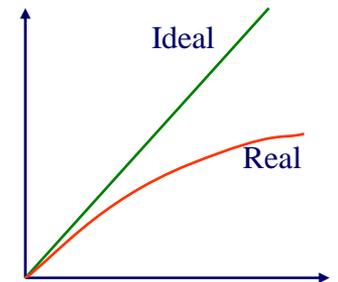
- ◆ Fraction of time detector is dead =  $R_d \tau$
- ◆ Live time is therefore =  $1 - R_d \tau$
- ◆ Input rate =  $R_i = R_d / (1 - R_d \tau)$

## ■ Paralysable

- ◆  $R_d$  = Probability of getting no event within  $\tau$  of an event

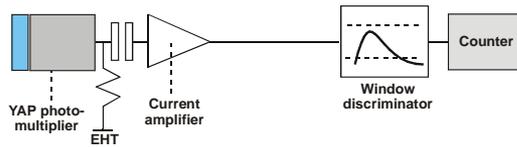
- ◆ Probability of  $n$  events in time  $t$  is 
$$P(n, t) = \frac{e^{-R_i t} (R_i t)^n}{n!}$$

- ◆ Detected rate 
$$R_d = P(0, \tau) = R_i e^{-R_i \tau}$$

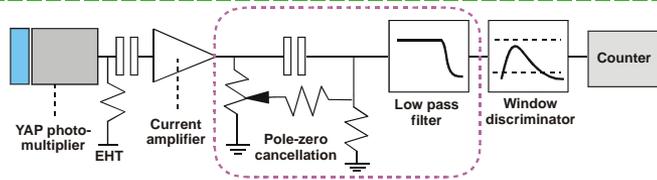


# EDR Detector for Powder Diffraction

Standard Detector



Modified Detector

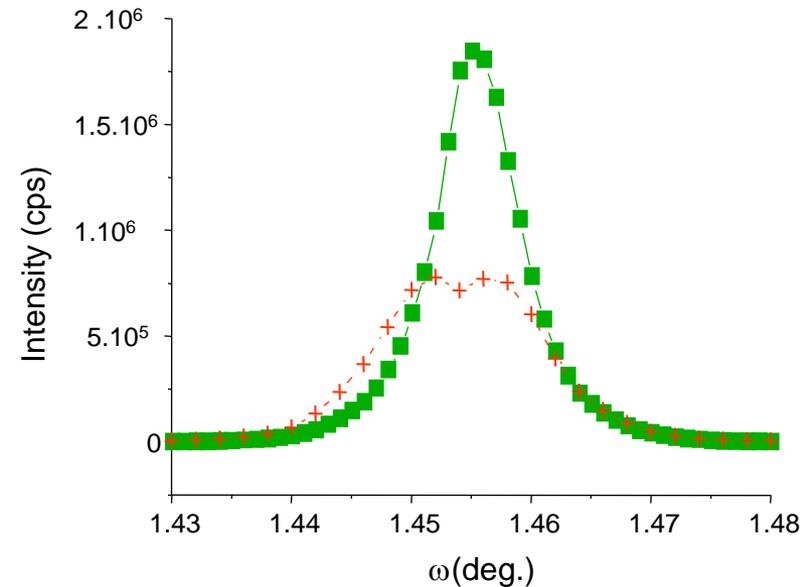
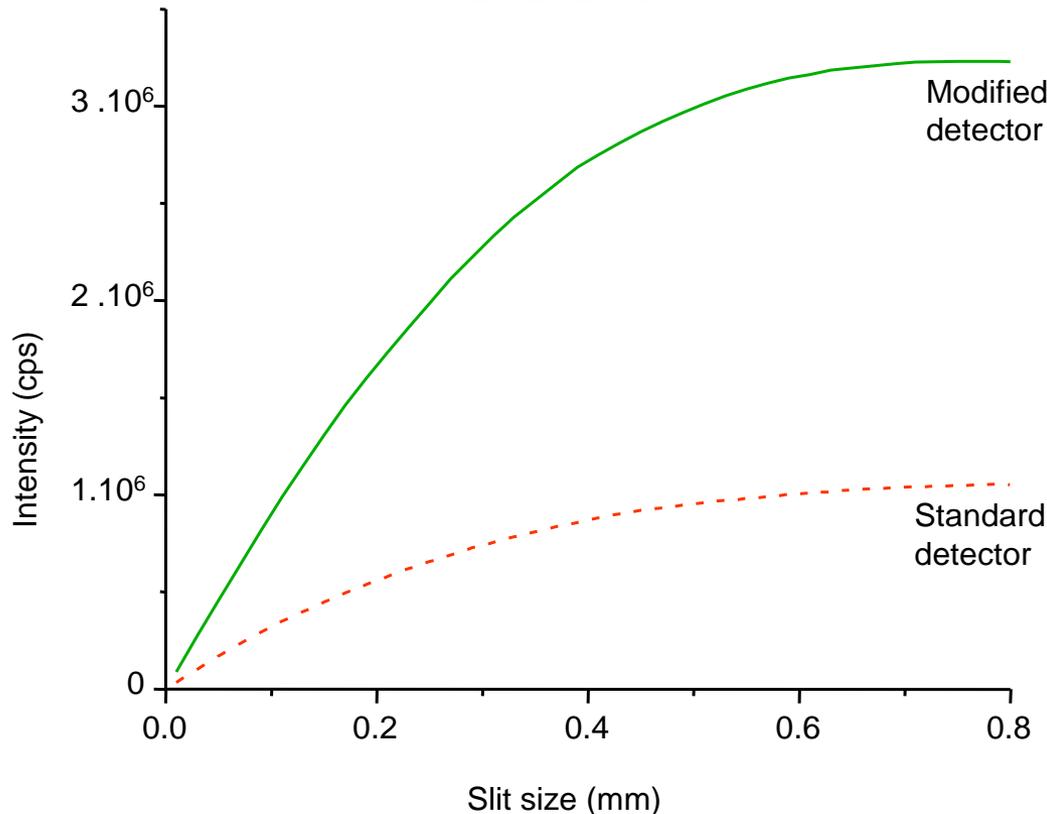


## Standard detector

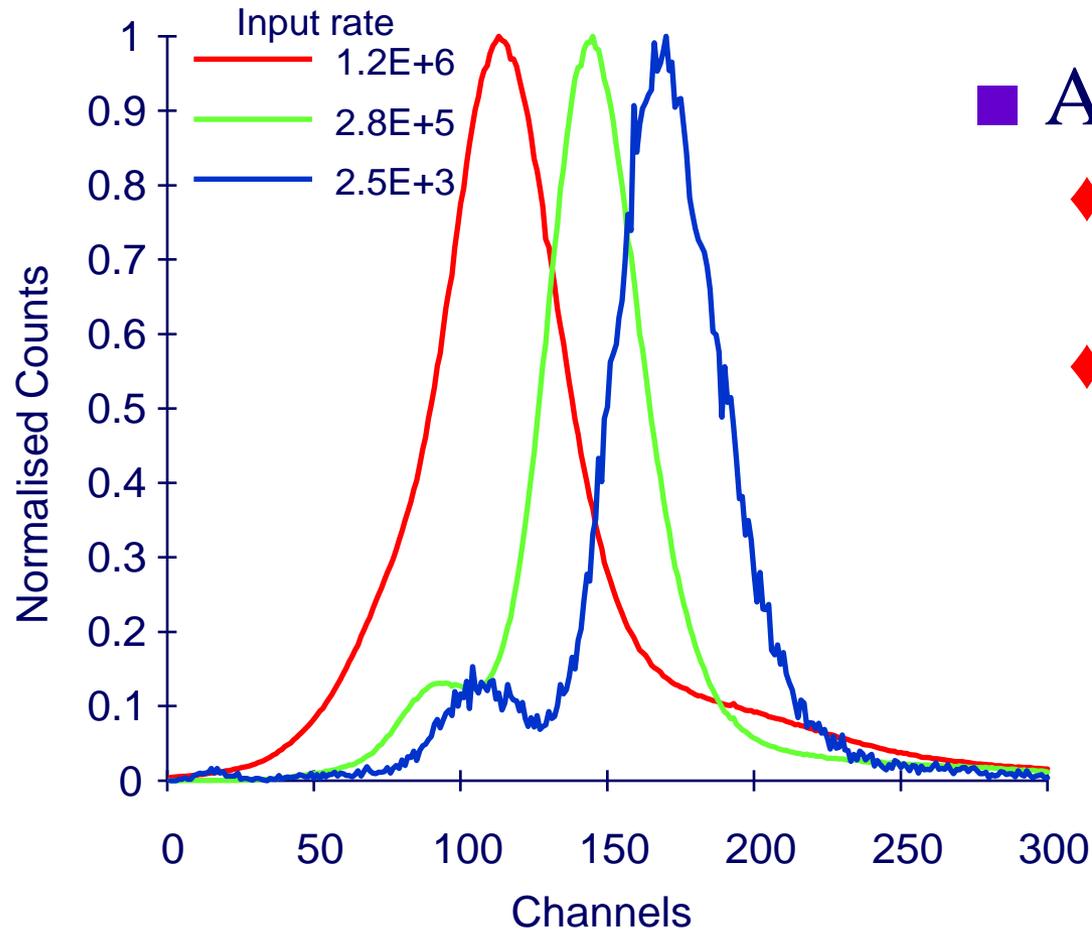
- Saturation count rate: 1 MHz
- Linear region: up to 300 kHz
- Electronic background: 0.2 cps
- Energy range: 4-25 keV

## Modified detector

- Saturation count rate: 3 MHz
- Linear region: up to 2 MHz
- Electronic background: 0.7 cps
- Energy range: 4-25 keV



# Spectral Peak Shift vs Rate



■ As rate rises

◆ Spectral resolution deteriorates

◆ Note also the K escape feature

# Detector Considerations

## ■ Intensity Measurement

- ◆ Uniformity across device
- ◆ Ageing, radiation damage
- ◆ Dynamic Range
- ◆ Linearity of Response
- ◆ Stability

## ■ Spatial Measurement

- ◆ Spatial Resolution
- ◆ Spatial Distortion
- ◆ Parallax

## ■ Energy Measurement

- ◆ Spectral Resolution
- ◆ Linearity of Response
- ◆ Uniformity of Response
- ◆ Stability

## ■ Time Measurement

- ◆ Frame Rate
- ◆ Photon Time Resolution

## ■ Others

- ◆ Size and weight
- ◆ Cost

# A Universal Specification?



Wombat

# Counting Statistics

- Photons are quantised and hence subject to probabilities
- The Poisson distribution expresses the probability of a number of events,  $k$  occurring relative to an expected number,  $n$

$$P(n, k) = \frac{n^k e^{-n}}{k!}$$

- The mean of  $P(n, k)$  is  $n$
- The variance of  $P(n, k)$  is  $n$
- The standard deviation or error (noise) is  $\sqrt{n}$
- If signal =  $n$ , then  $\text{SNR} = n/\sqrt{n} = \sqrt{n}$
- As  $n$  increases, SNR improves

# Performance Measure - DQE

Perfect detector  $SNR_{inc} = \sqrt{N_{inc}} \quad \therefore N_{inc} = SNR_{inc}^2$

Real detector  $SNR_{Non-ideal} < \sqrt{N_{inc}}$

Can define  $N_{photons}$  that describes real SNR

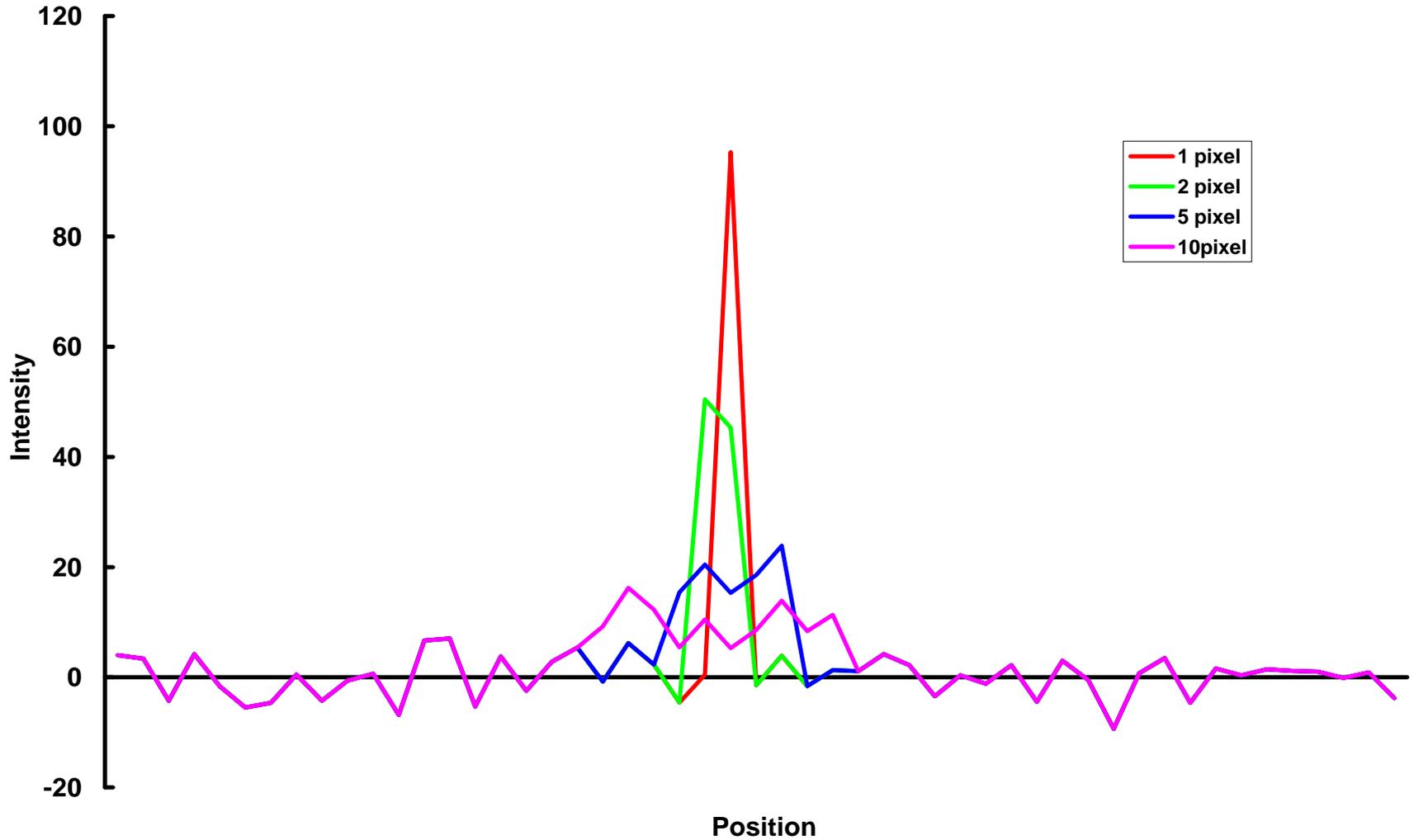
$$NEQ = SNR_{Non-ideal}^2$$

Ratio of this to  $N_{inc}$  is a measure of efficiency

$$DQE = \frac{NEQ}{N_{inc}} = \frac{SNR_{Non-ideal}^2}{SNR_{inc}^2}$$

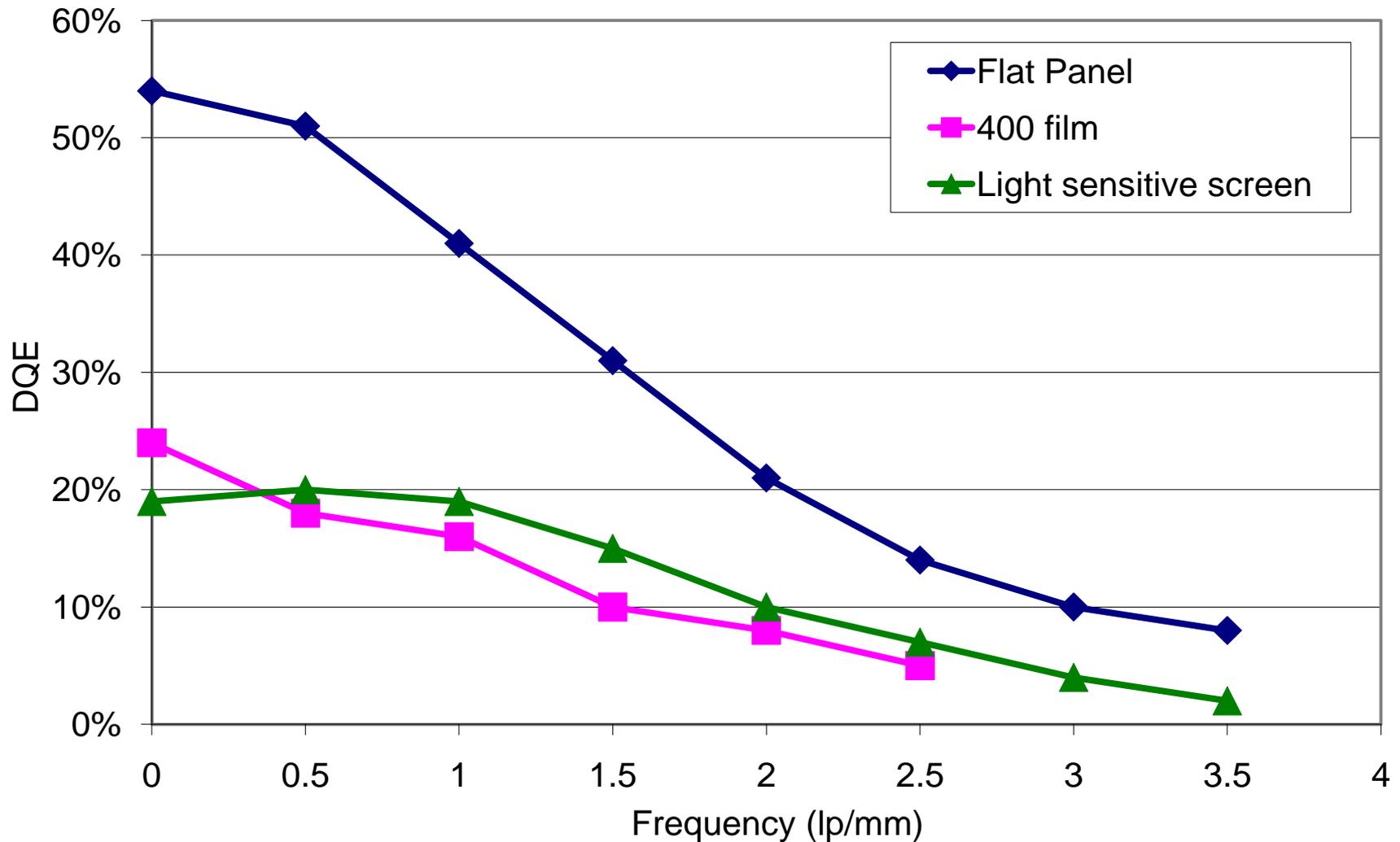
Note that DQE is f(spatial and spectral frequencies)

# Effect of Peak Width



# DQE Comparison

DN-5 beam  
2.6 $\mu$ Gy



# To Count or Not to Count

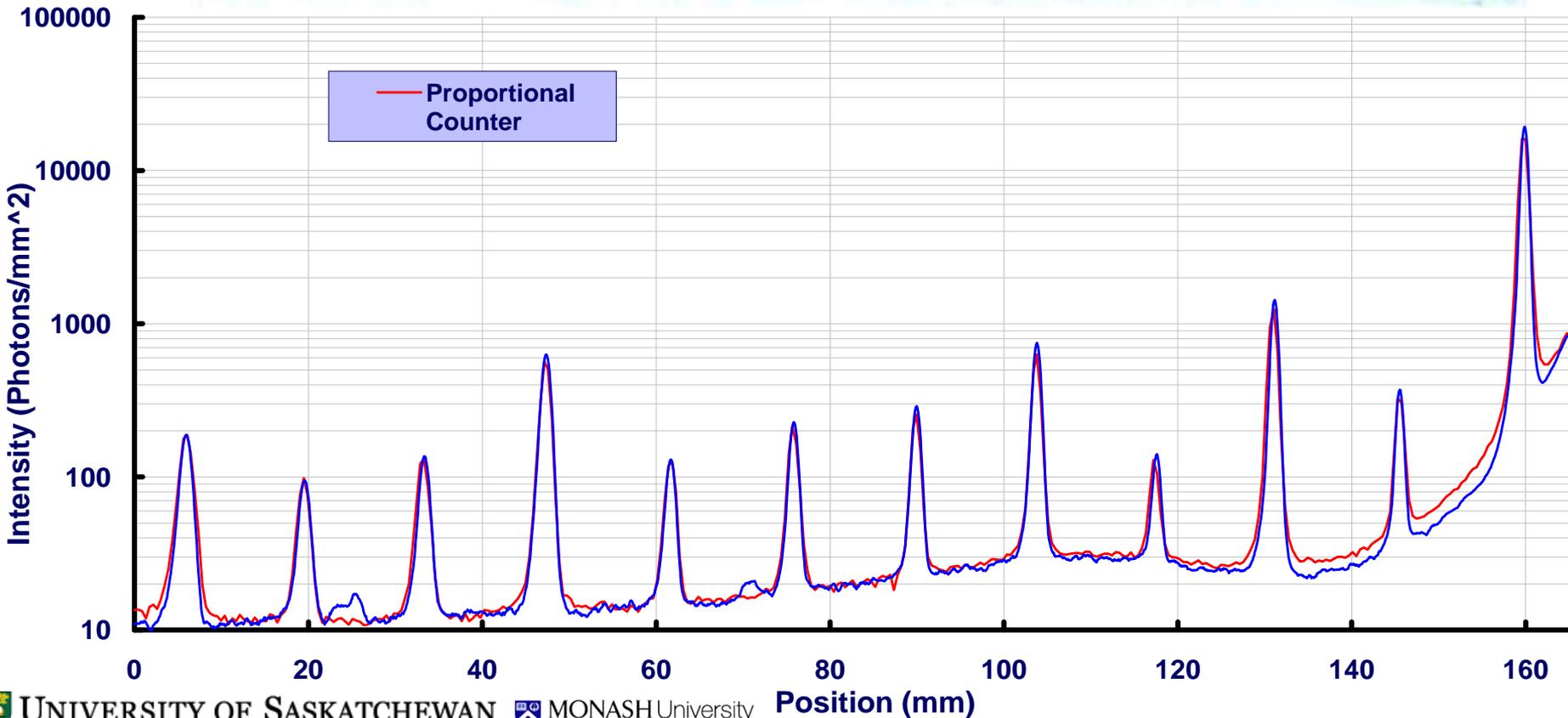
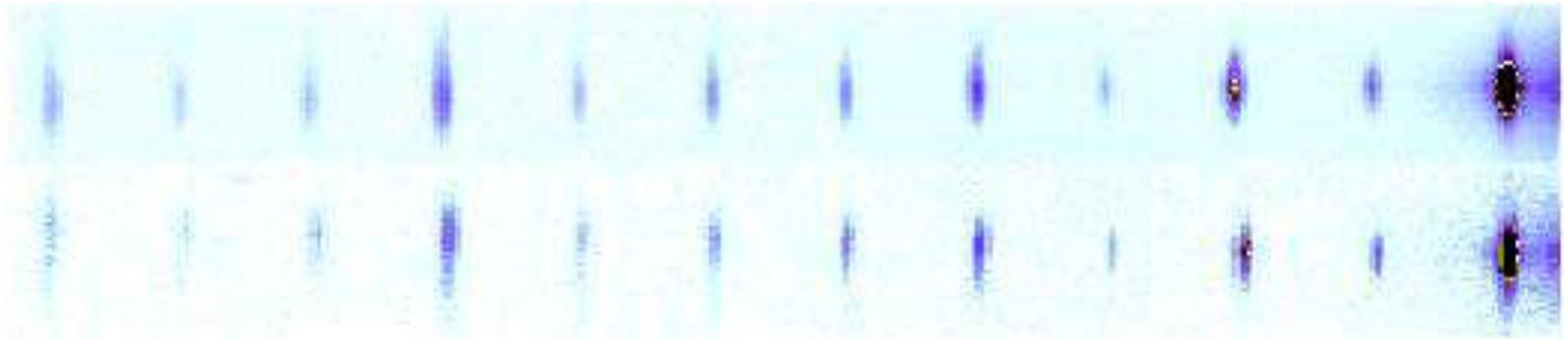


Tasmanian Devil

# Collagen 100s Exposure

MWPC

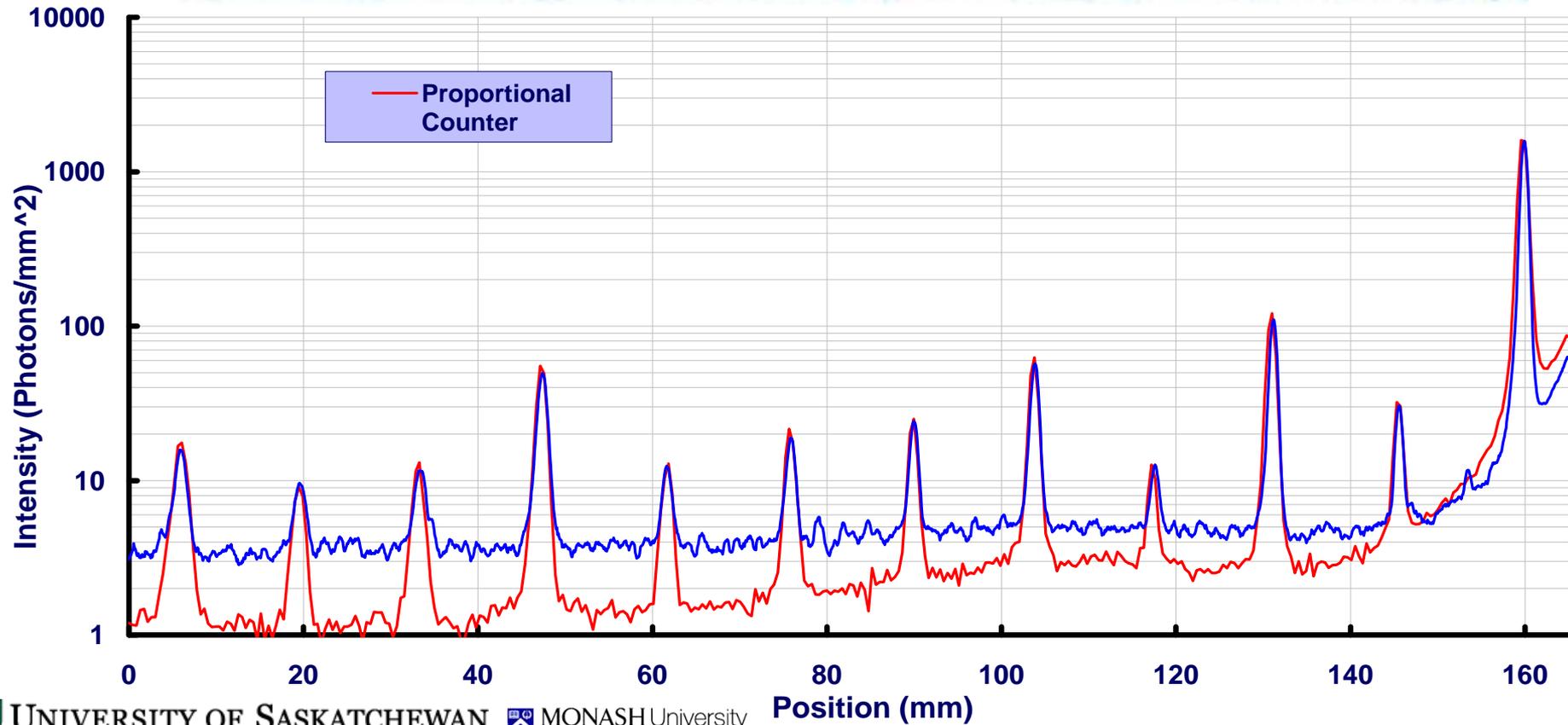
Image Plate



# Collagen 10s Exposure

MWPC

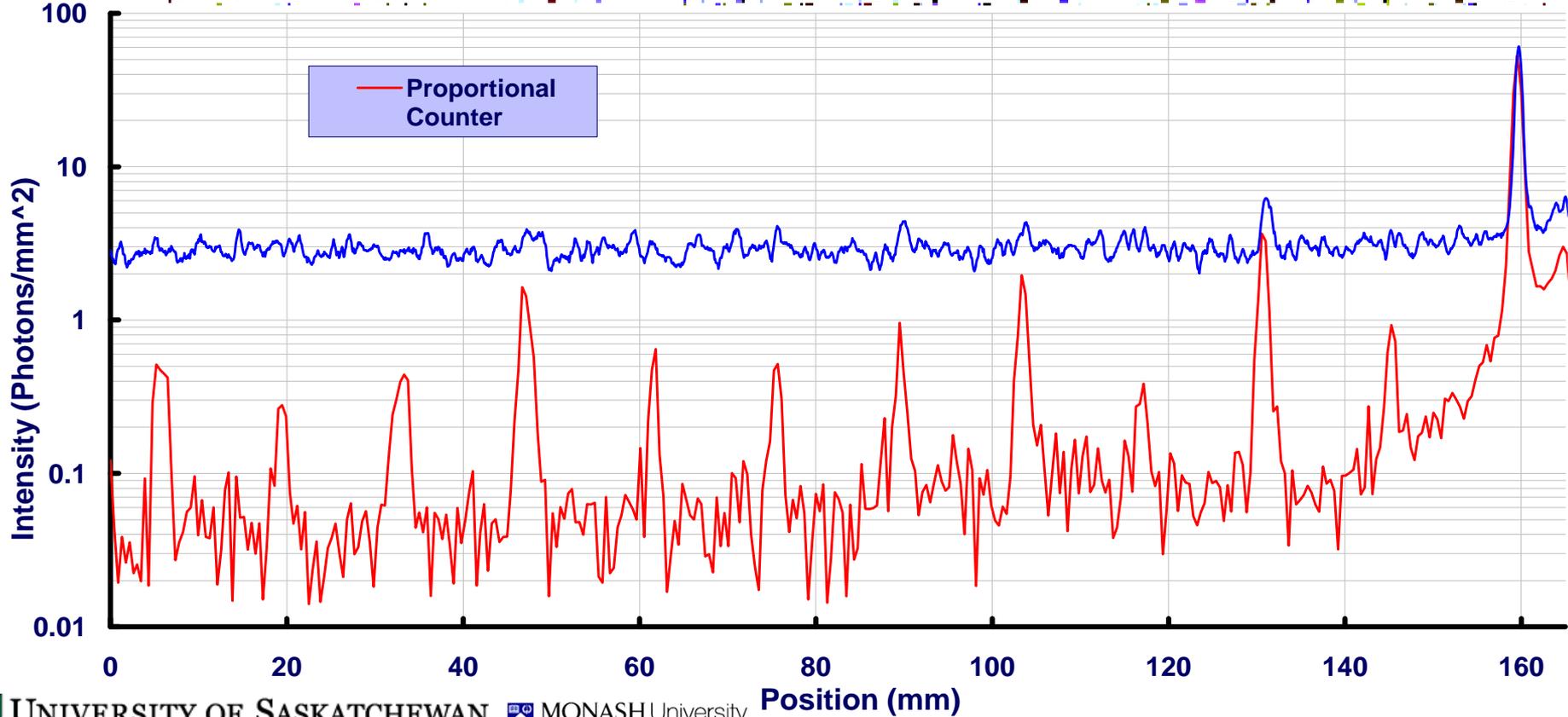
Image Plate



# Collagen 0.3s Exposure

MWPC

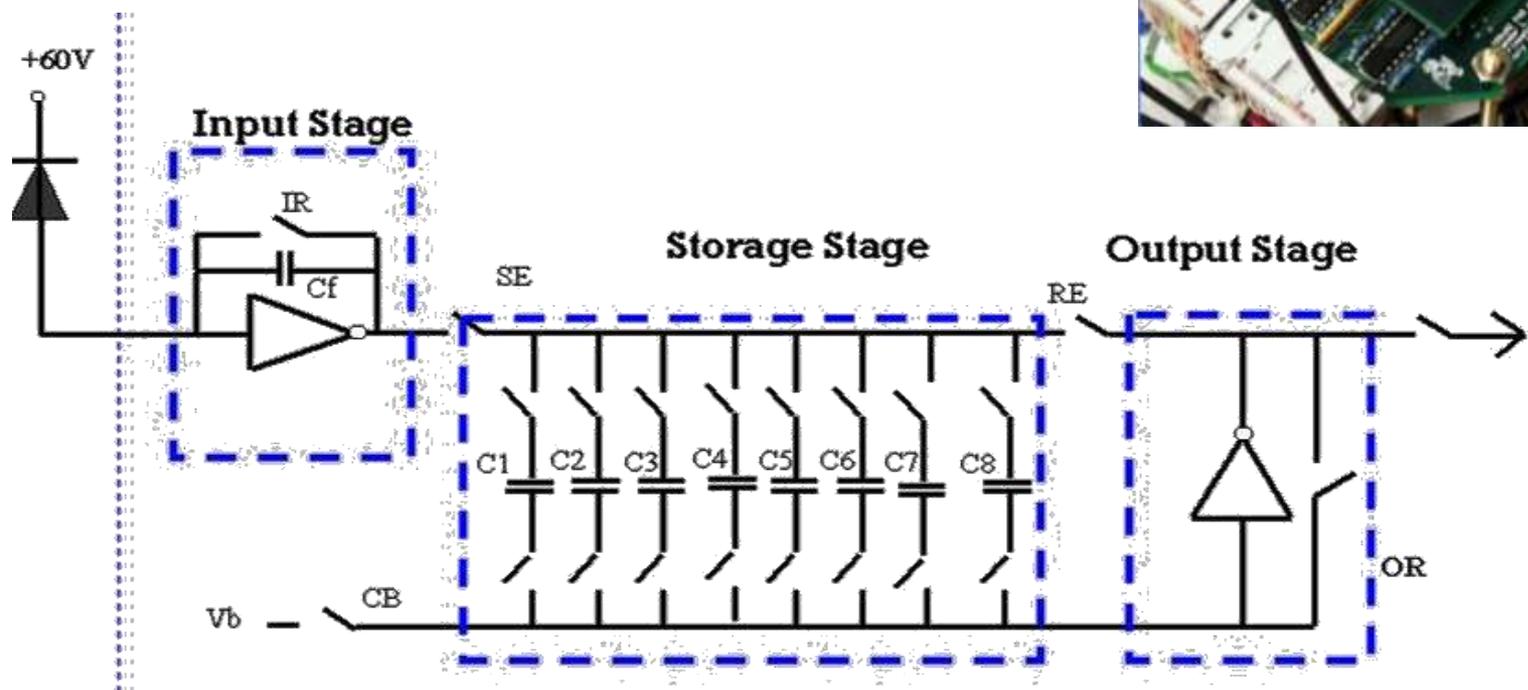
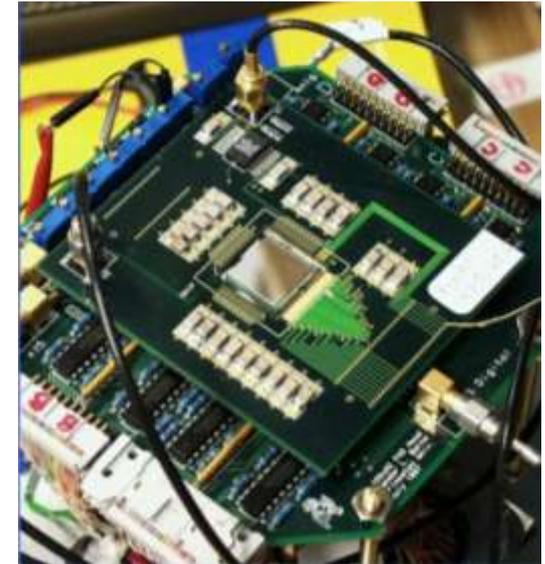
Image Plate



# Cornell PAD (Integrating)

## ■ Rapid Framing Imager

- ◆  $15 \times 13.8 \text{mm}^2$  active area
- ◆  $150 \mu\text{m}$  square pixel
- ◆ Storage for 8 frames
- ◆ Selectable  $T_{\text{int}}$  down to  $1 \mu\text{s}$
- ◆ Deadtime  $< 1 \mu\text{s}$



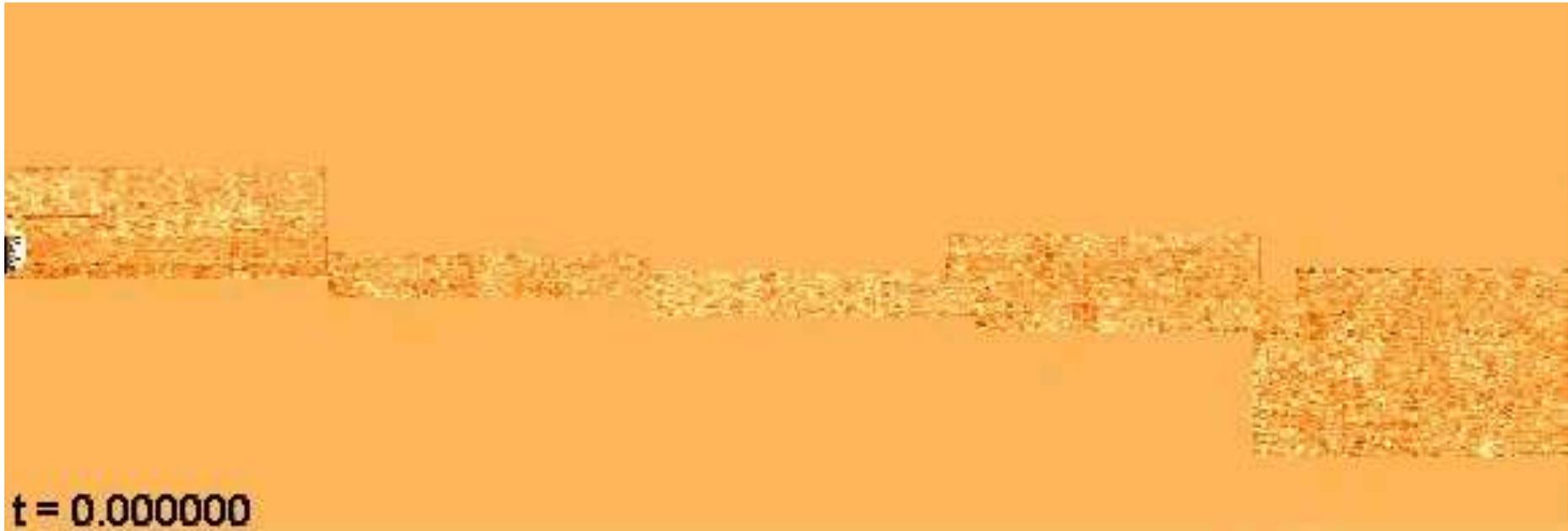
# Diesel Fuel Injection Movie

## ■ Injection

- ◆ Supersonic injection 1350psi Cerium added
- ◆ Chamber 1atm SF<sub>6</sub>
- ◆ 10<sup>8</sup>-10<sup>9</sup> X-rays/s/pix (6keV)
- ◆ 1.1ms Pulse

## ■ Movie

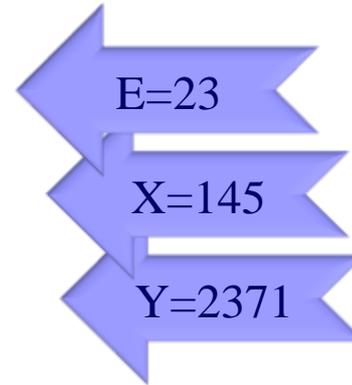
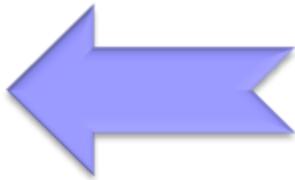
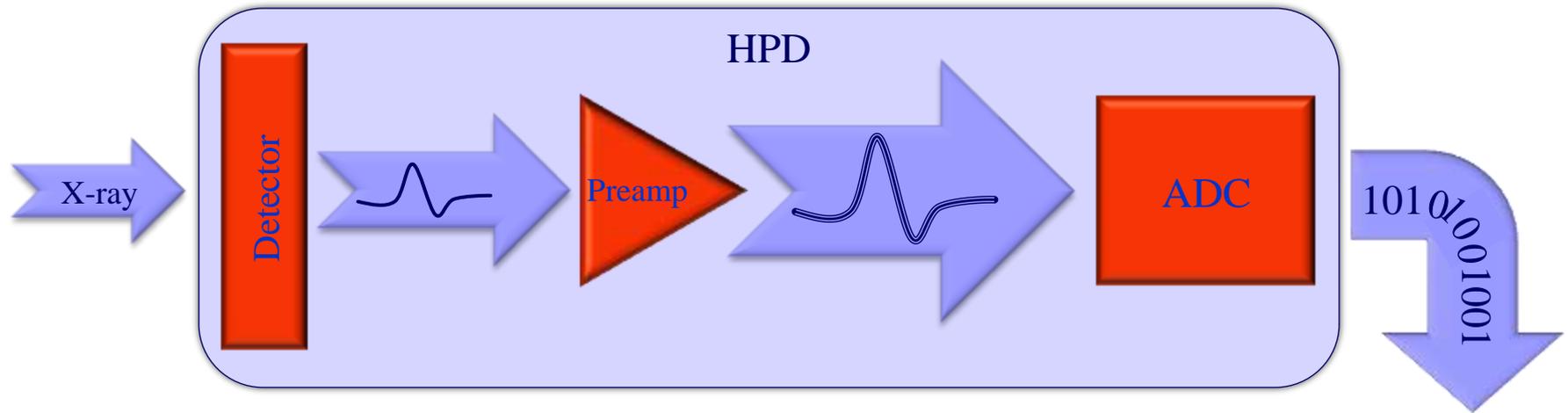
- ◆ Length 1.3ms
- ◆ Frame length 5.13μs
- ◆ Dead time 2.56μs / frame
- ◆ 168 frames (21 groups of 8)
- ◆ Average 20× to improve S/N
- ◆ Sequence 5×10<sup>4</sup> images



# The Future

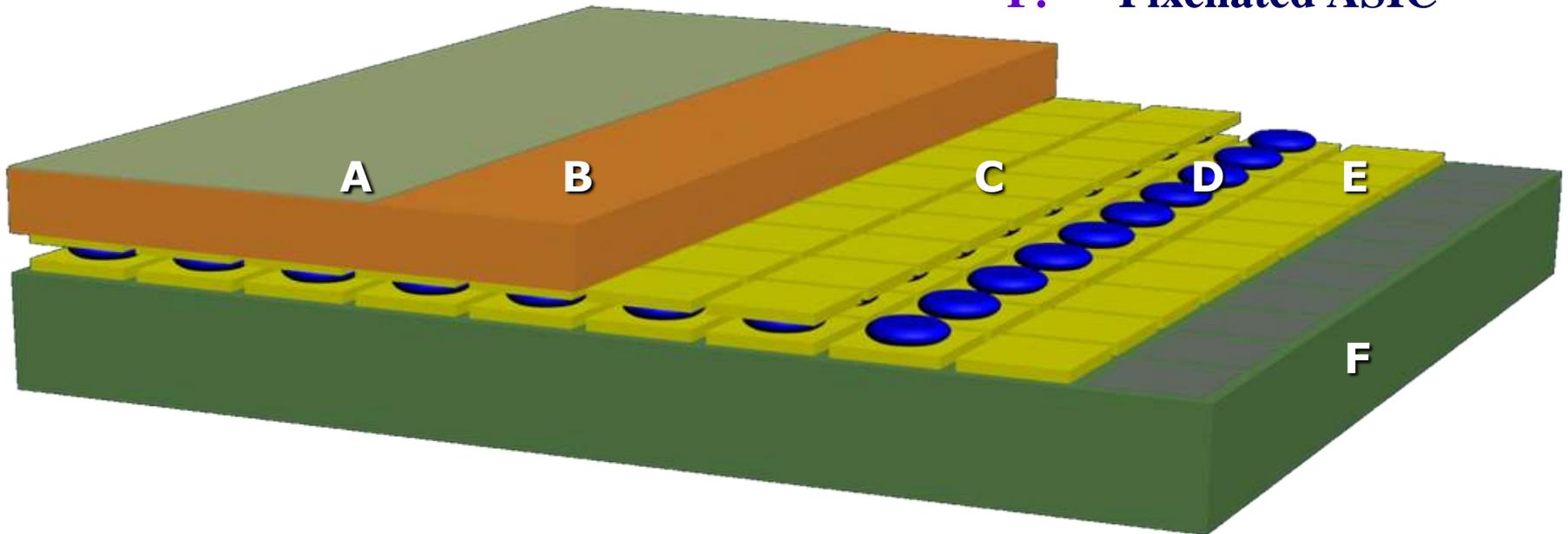


# A Detector System

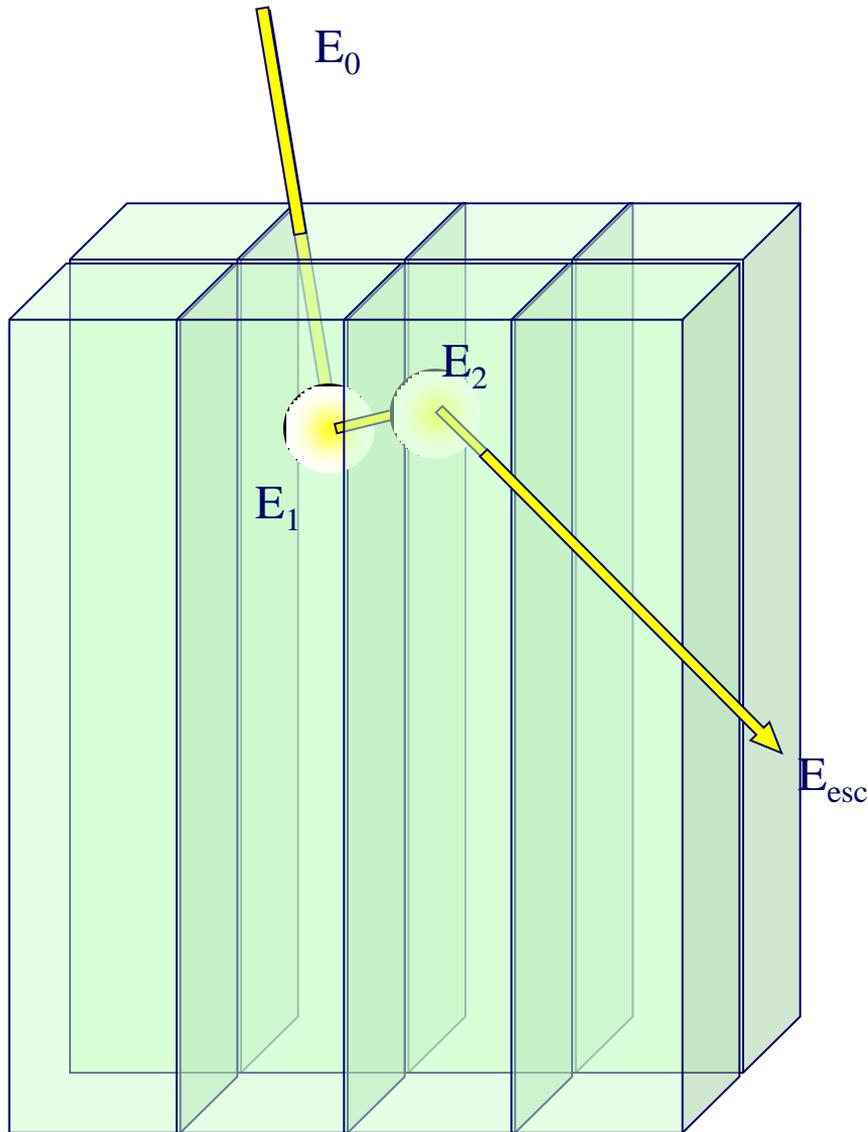


# Pixel Array Detector

- A.** Top electrode
- B.** Pixellated semiconductor
- C.** Collection electrodes
- D.** Bump bonds
- E.** Input electrode
- F.** Pixellated ASIC



# The Problem of Multiple Scatters



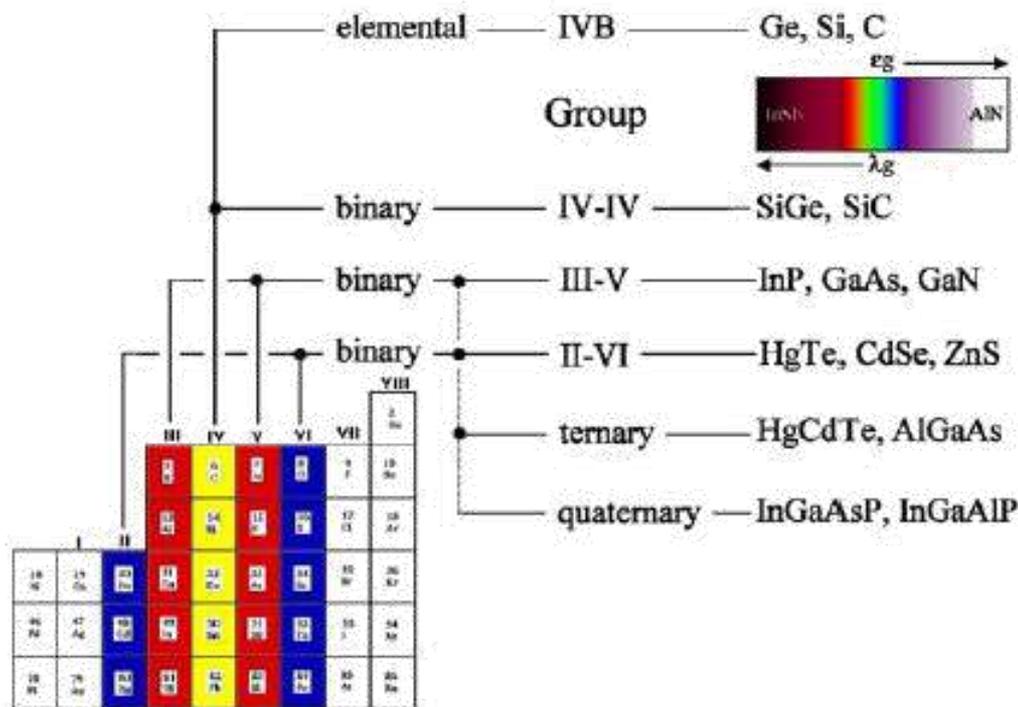
- Need to measure  $E_0$
- $E_0 = E_1 + E_2 + E_{esc}$
- Must be able to detect multiple deposits as single event
- Must minimise  $E_{esc}$

# Counting Pixel Detector Problems

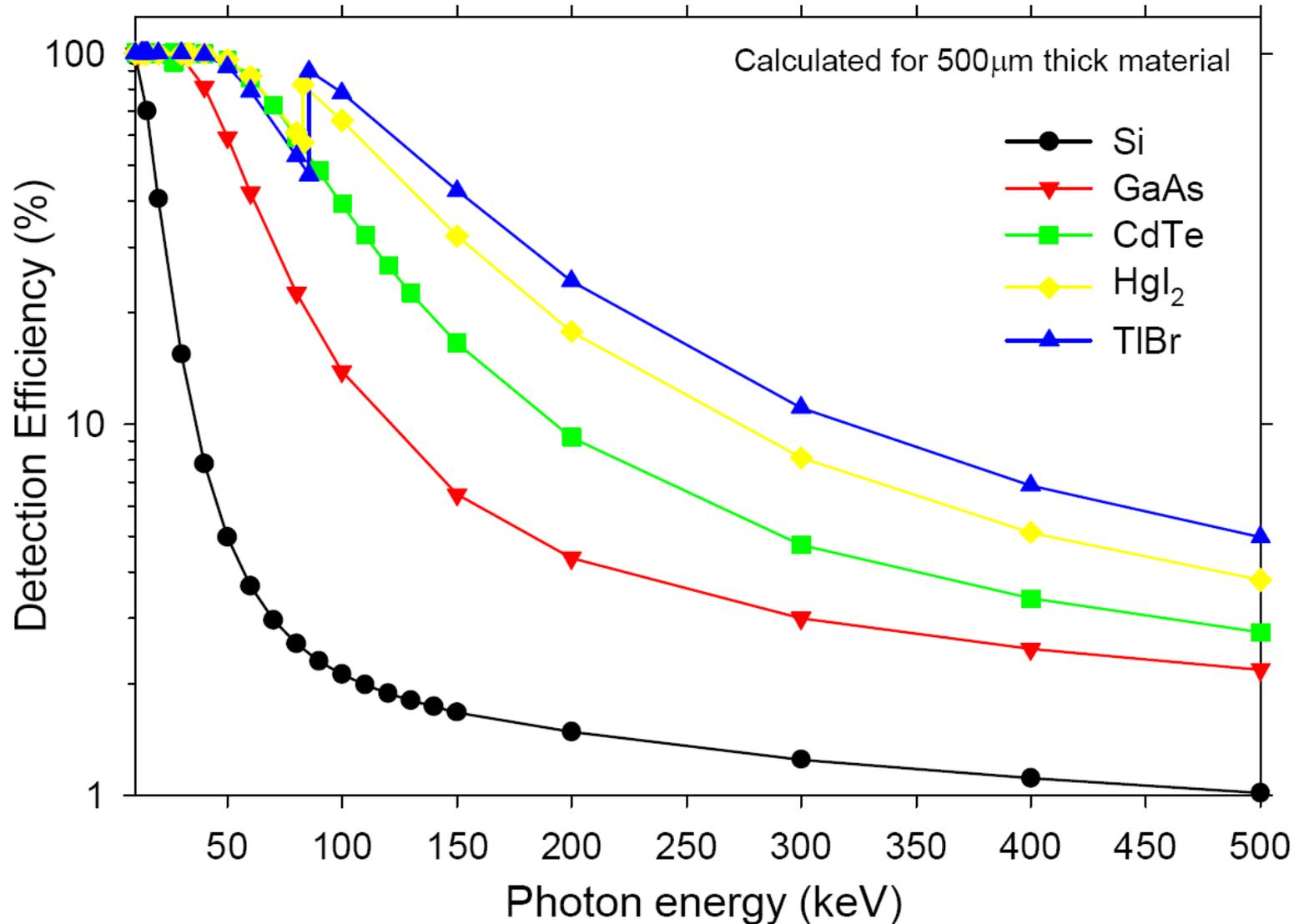
- High power consumption
  - ◆ Cooling
- Number of connections
  - ◆ Multiplexing
  - ◆ Read out time significant
- Limited number of bits in counter
  - ◆ Dynamic range issues for diffraction
  - ◆ 15bits @ 1Mcps input rate = 30ms frame
  - ◆ Read time can be significant
    - Fast read > high power
- Technology not yet good enough for microsecond framing

# Available Compound Semiconductors

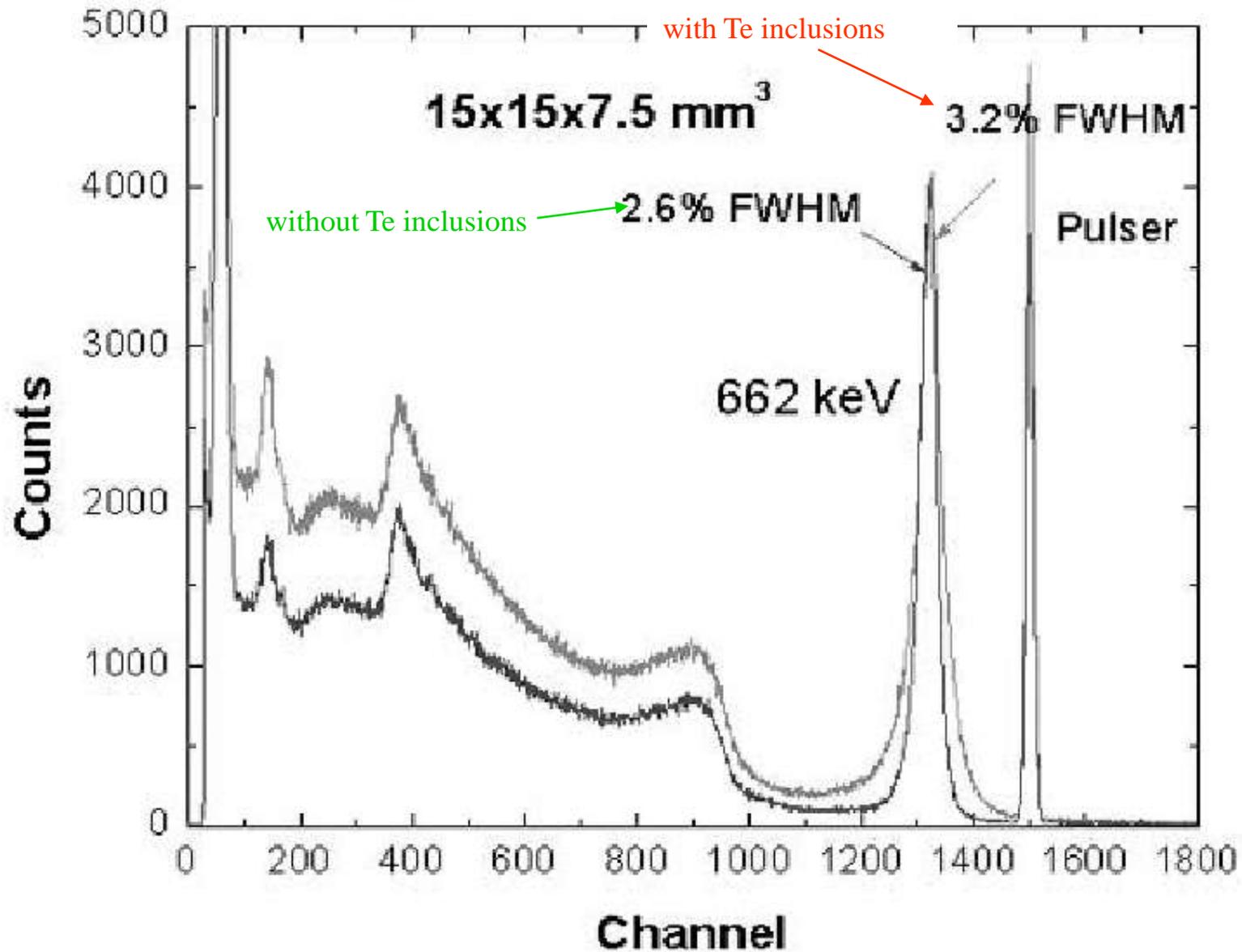
- Predominately CdZnTe, CdTe and GaAs.
- II-VI materials CdTe and CdZnTe cover a suitable range of band gaps:
  - ◆ 1.44 eV (CdTe), 1.57 eV (CdZnTe, 10% Zn), 1.64 eV (CdZnTe, 20% Zn)
- Resistivity of CdZnTe is higher than CdTe, hence lower dark current, higher spectroscopic resolution
- Poor hole transport requires electron-sensitive detectors



# Absorption Efficiency of Semiconductors



# CdZnTe Spectral Resolution



# References

- Delaney CFG and Finch EC

- ◆ Radiation detectors. Physical Principles and Applications, Clarendon Press, Oxford 1992, ISBN 0 19 853923 1

- Knoll GE

- ◆ Radiation Detection and Measurement, John Wiley and Sons 2000

- Proceedings of the 7<sup>th</sup> International Conference on position sensitive detectors

- ◆ Nuclear Instruments and Methods in Physics Research Volume 573, Issues 1-2, Pages 1-322

- IEEE Nuclear Science Symposia