

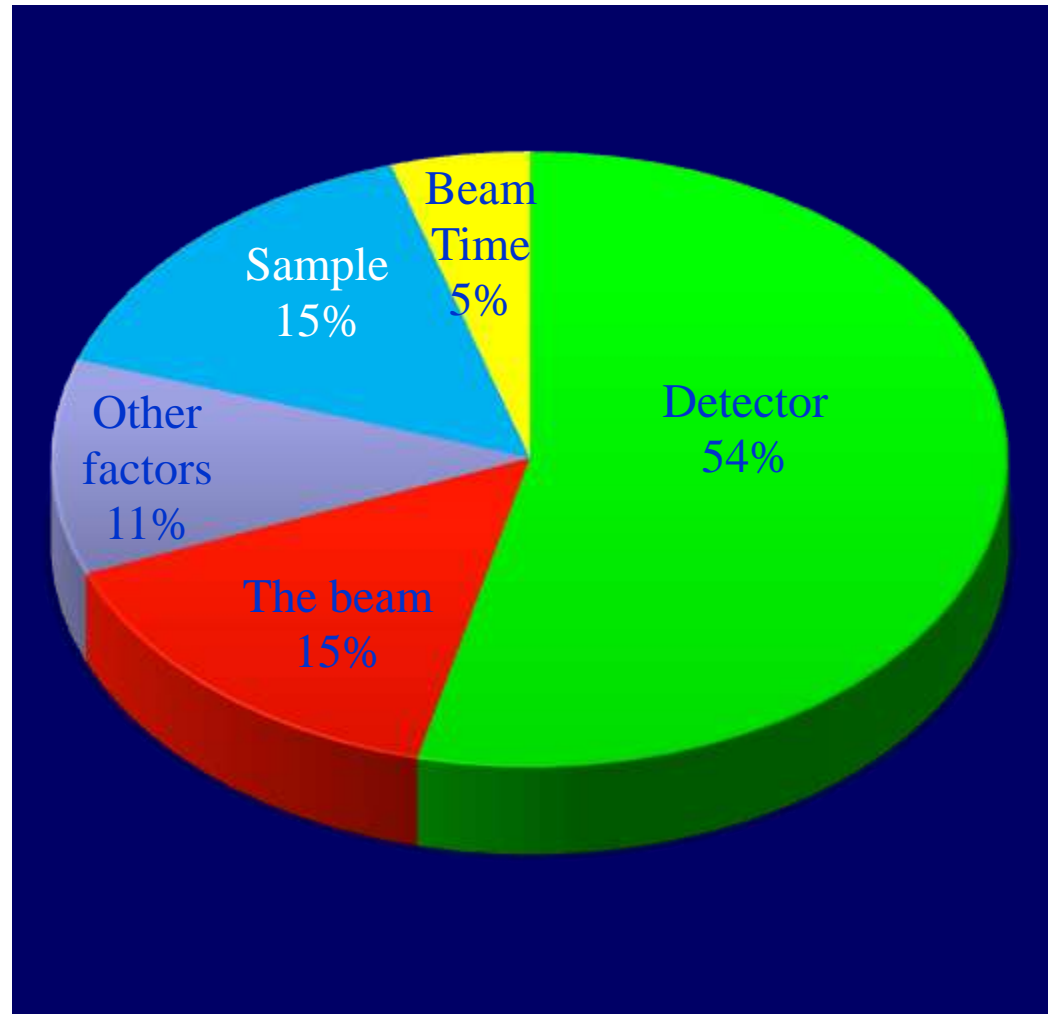
Detectors for Synchrotron Radiation

Rob Lewis

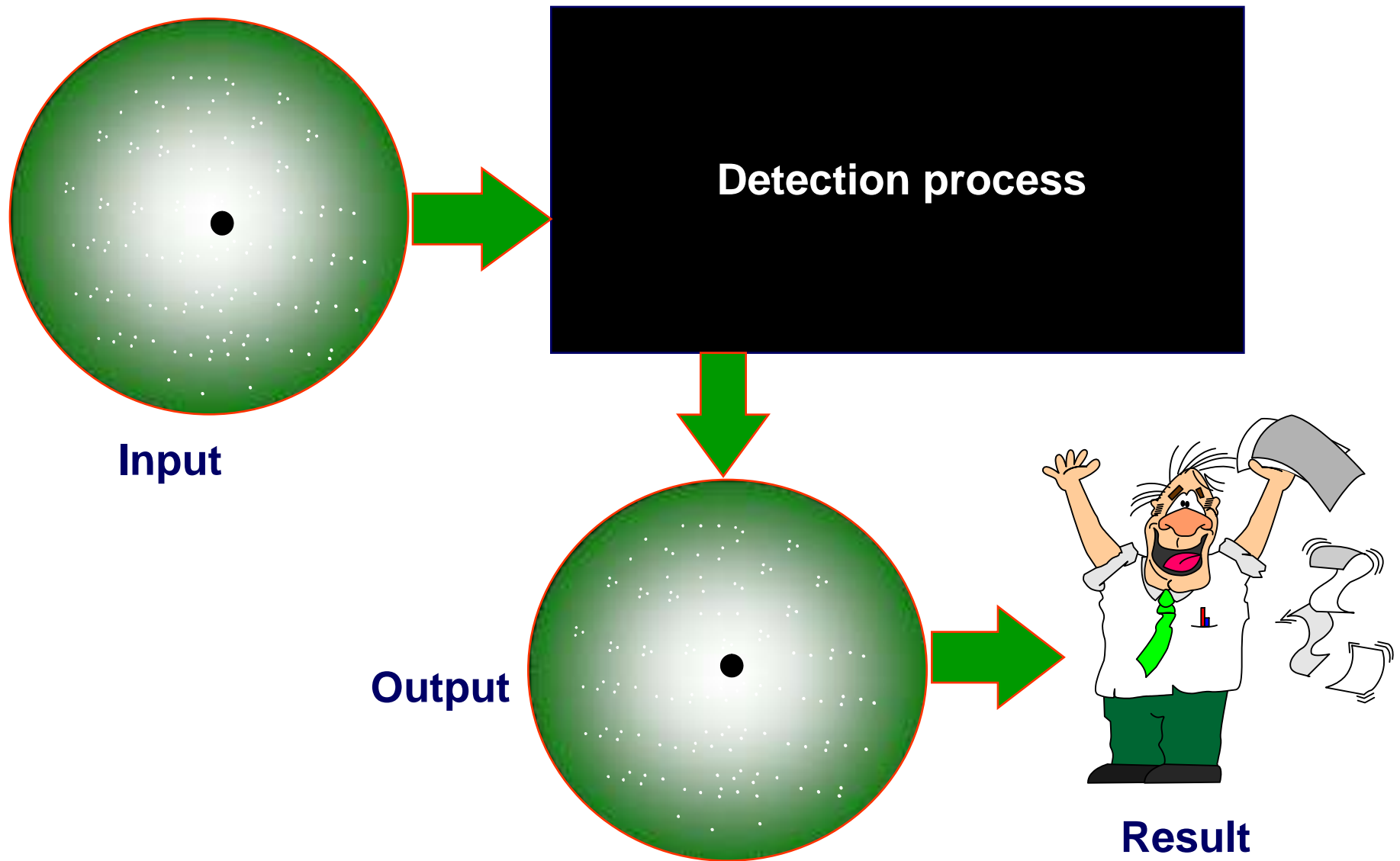
Monash University

Factors Limiting Science

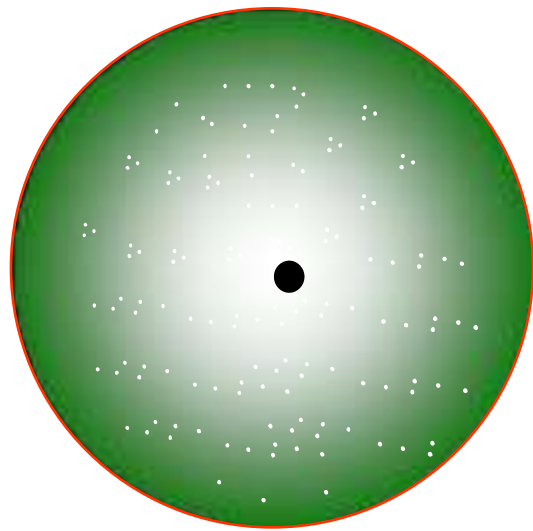
- Detectors are an oft-neglected but crucial part of an experiment
- They often limit the science



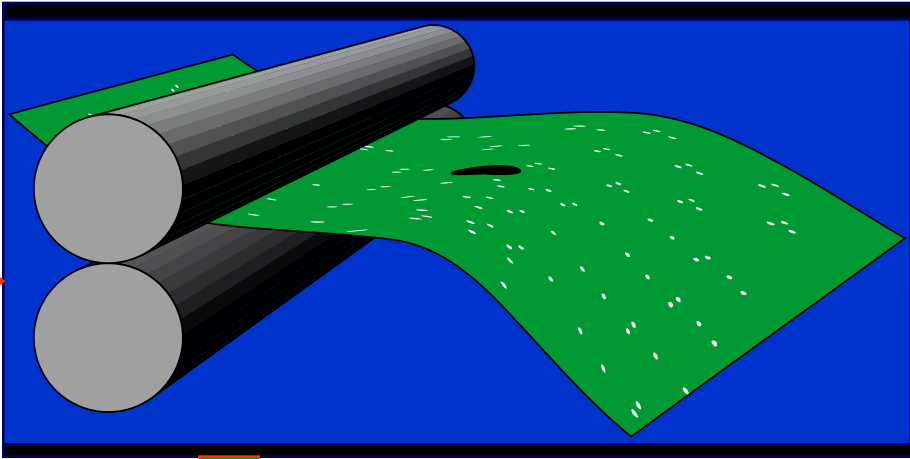
Scientist's View of Detector



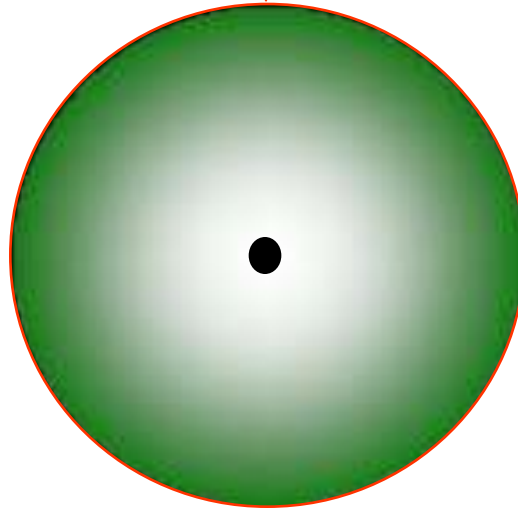
The Truth!



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.. CCDz
 - ◆ 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



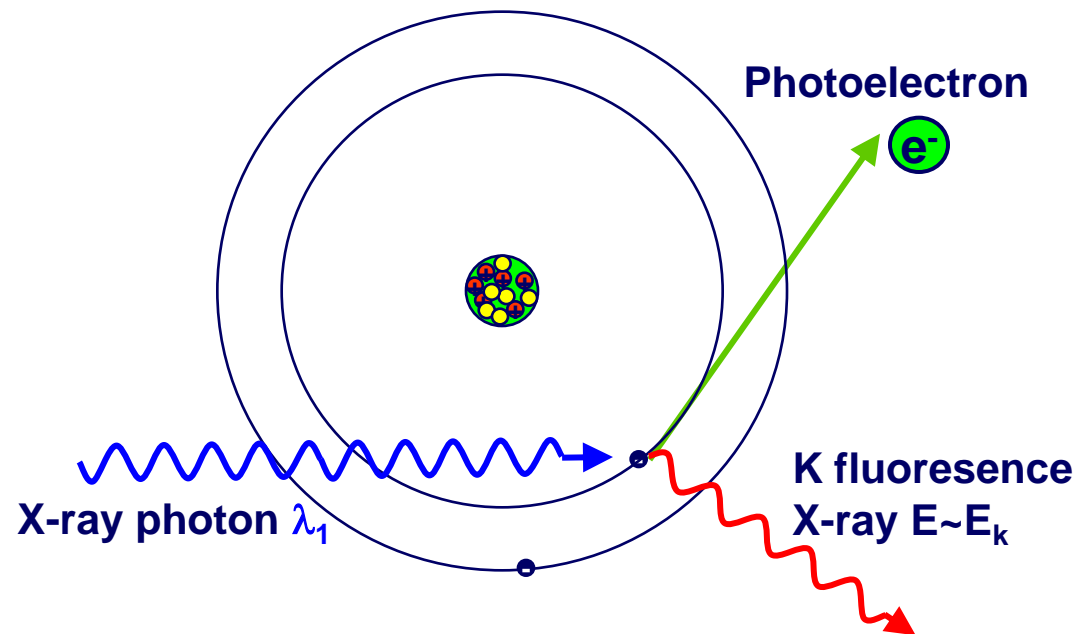
Germany and Switzerland
Kaiser-Wilhelm-Institut
(now Max-Planck-Institut)
für Physik
Berlin-Dahlem, Germany
1879 - 1955



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



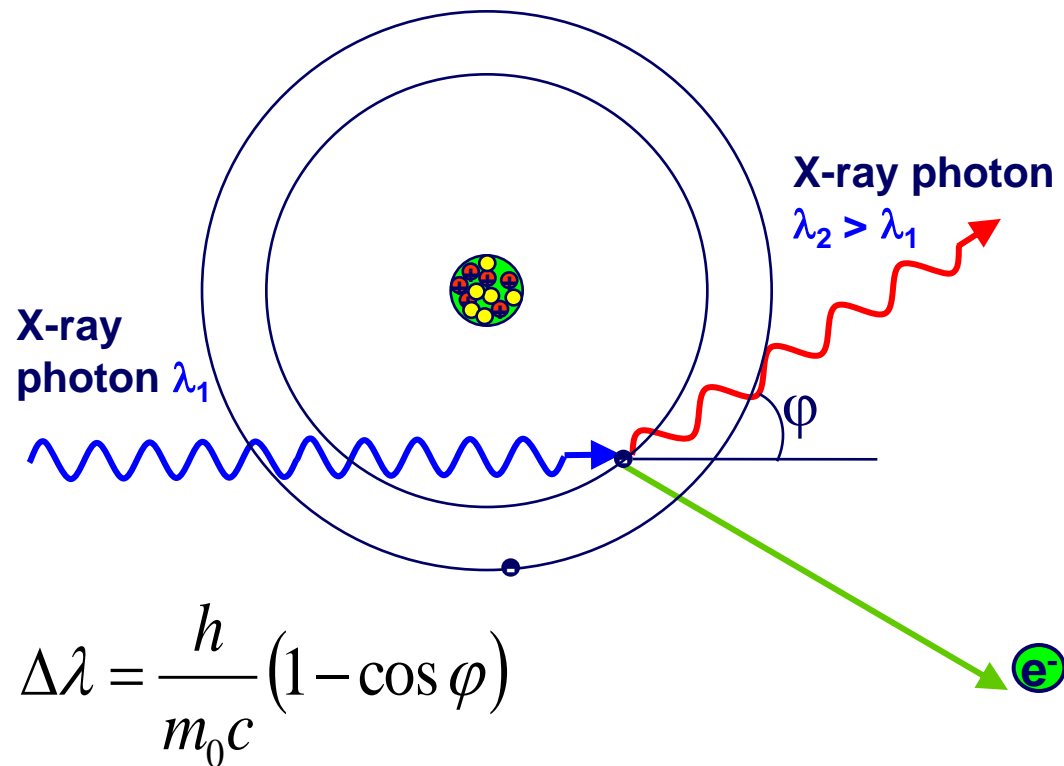
University of Chicago
Chicago, IL, USA
1892 - 1962



**Nobel prize in
physics 1927**

"for his discovery of
the effect named
after him"

Compton Effect

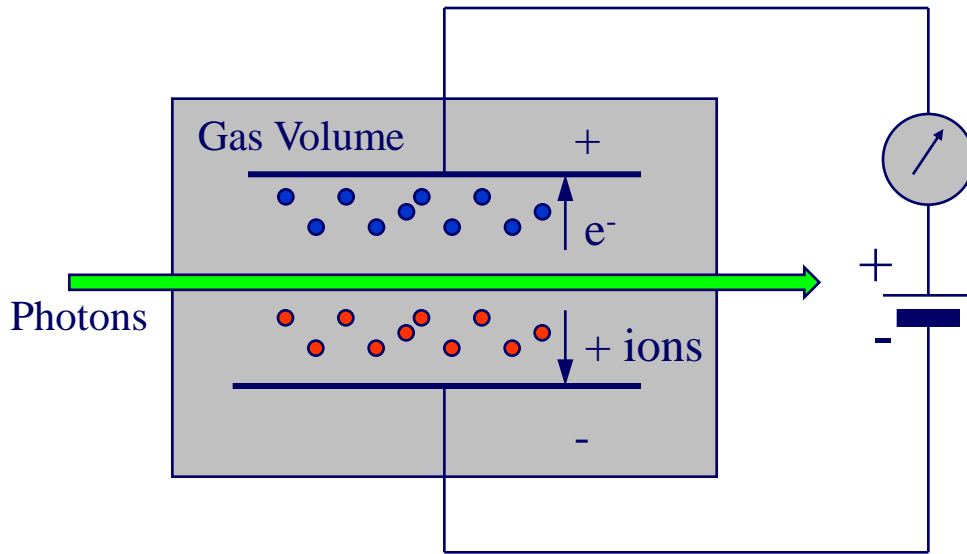


An Example Detector

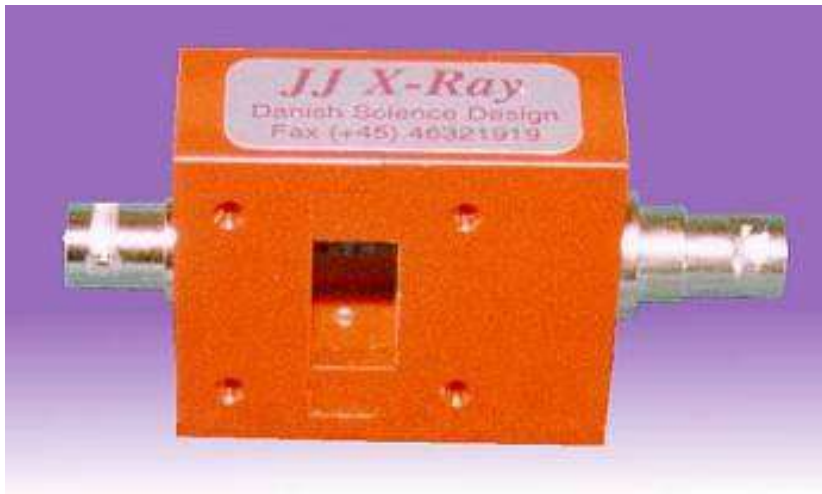


Echidna

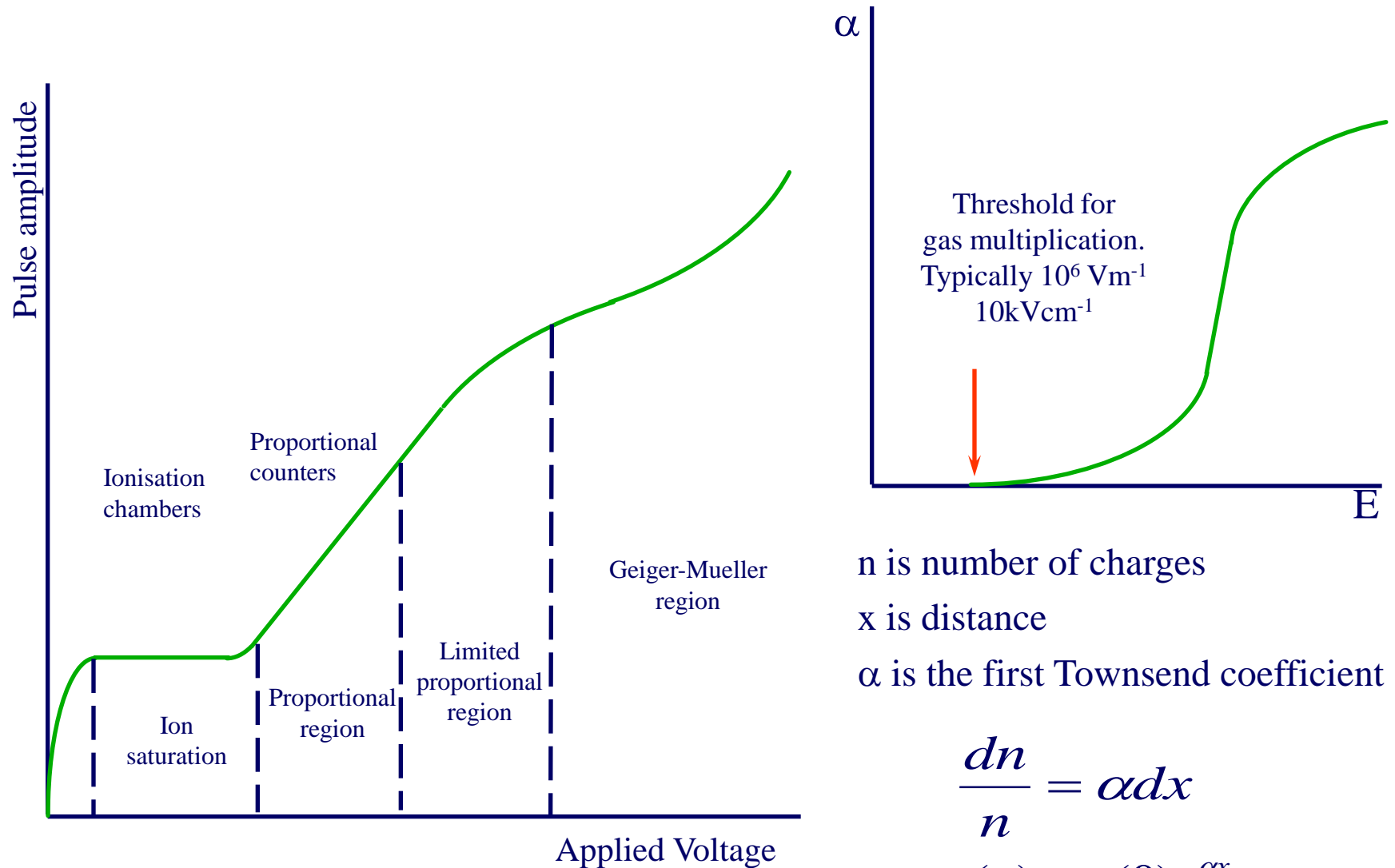
Ionisation Chamber



- 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

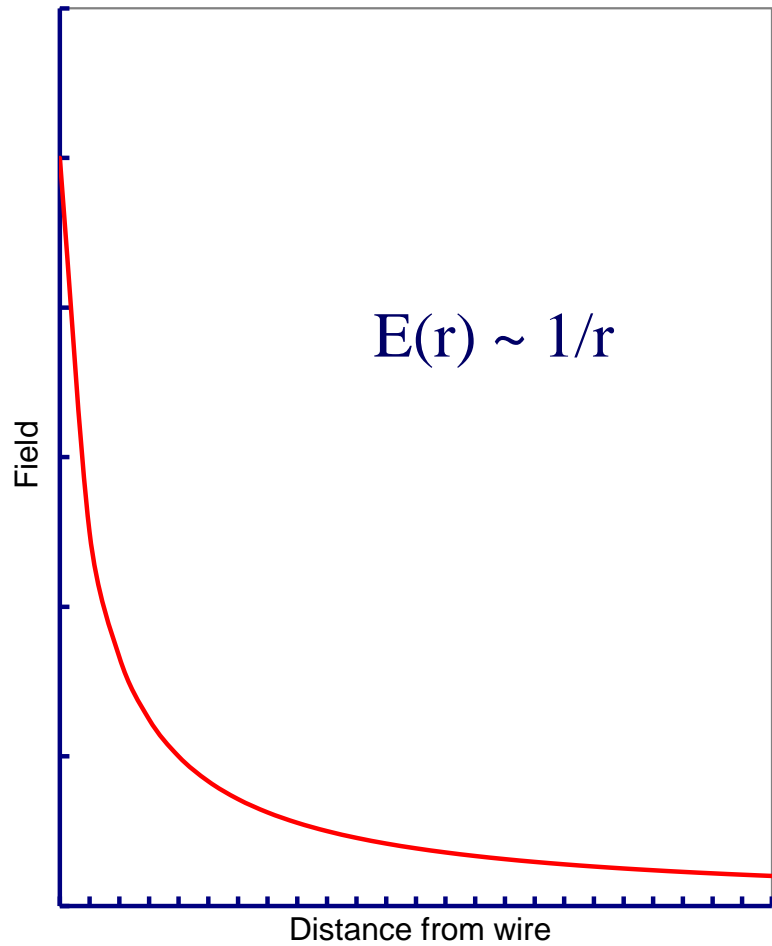
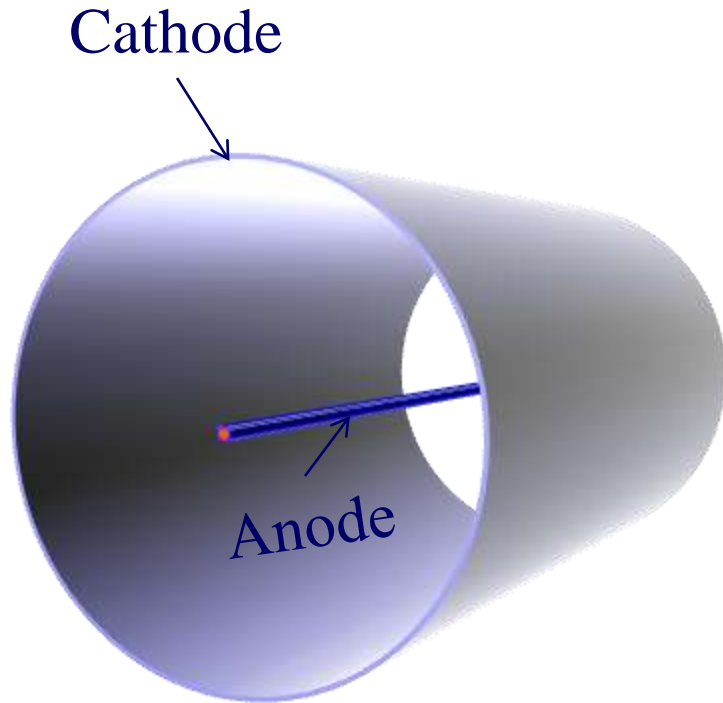
x is distance

α is the first Townsend coefficient

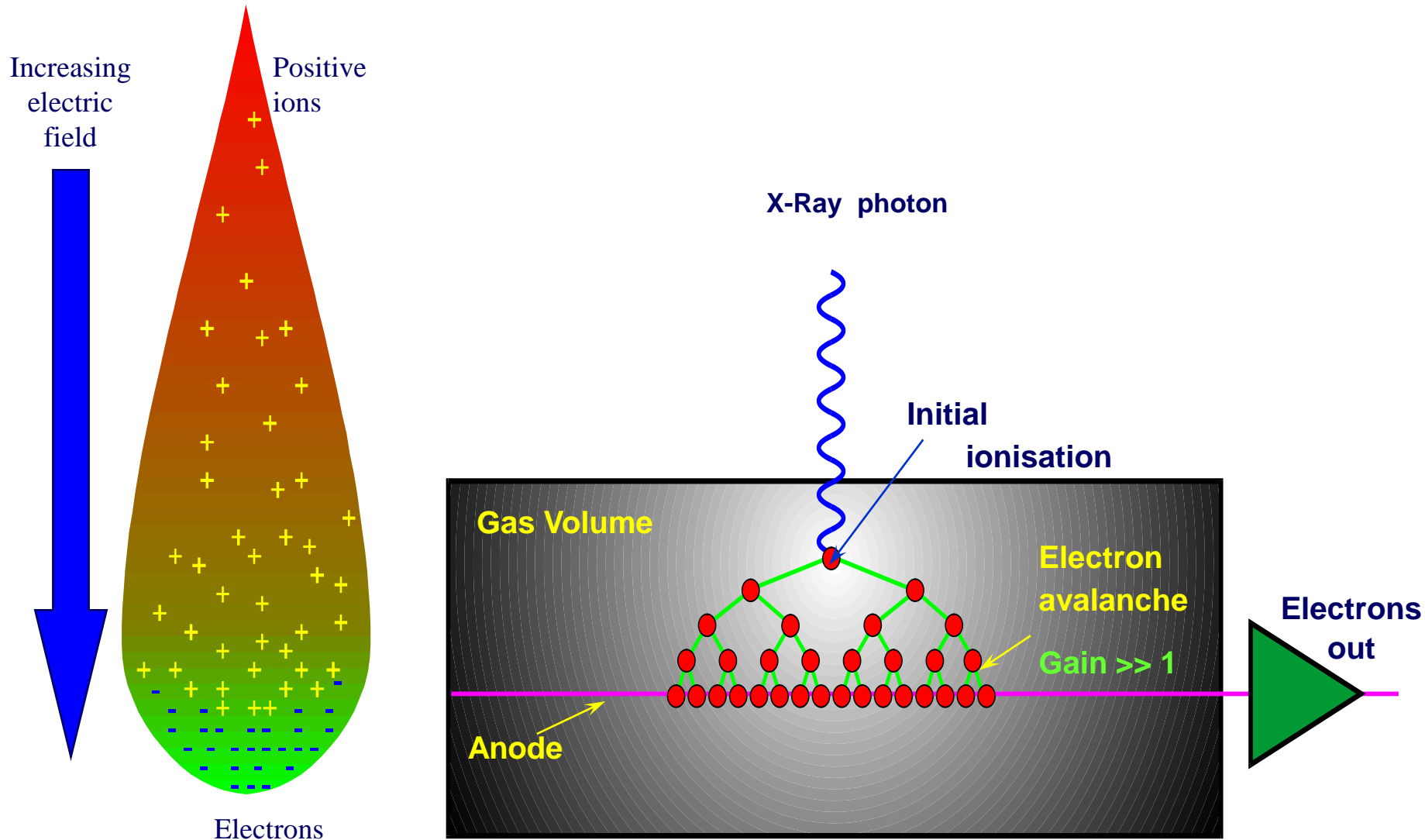
$$\frac{dn}{n} = \alpha dx$$

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

Field Variation



Avalanche & Proportional Counter



Georges Charpak



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

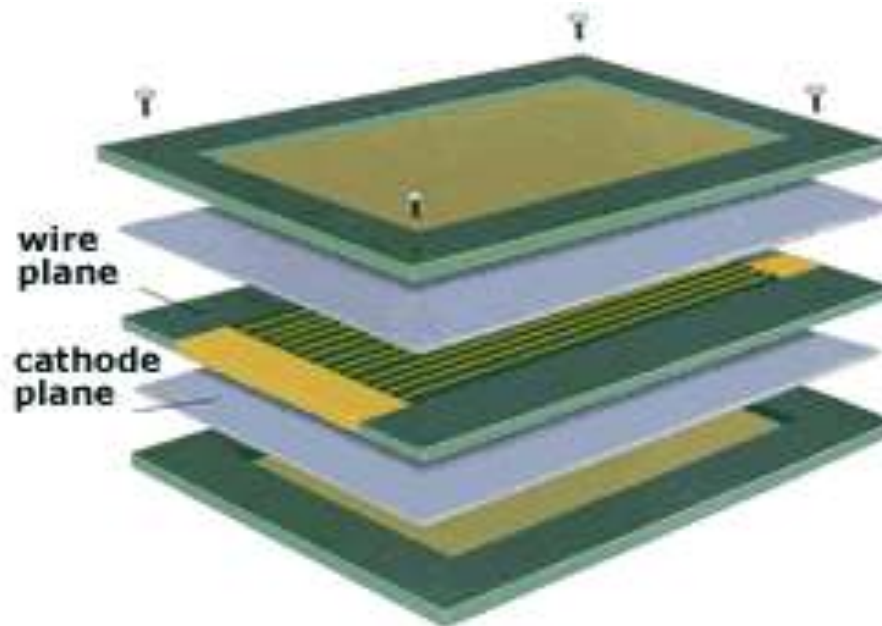
b. 1924
(in Dabrovica, Poland)



**Nobel prize in
physics 1992**

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

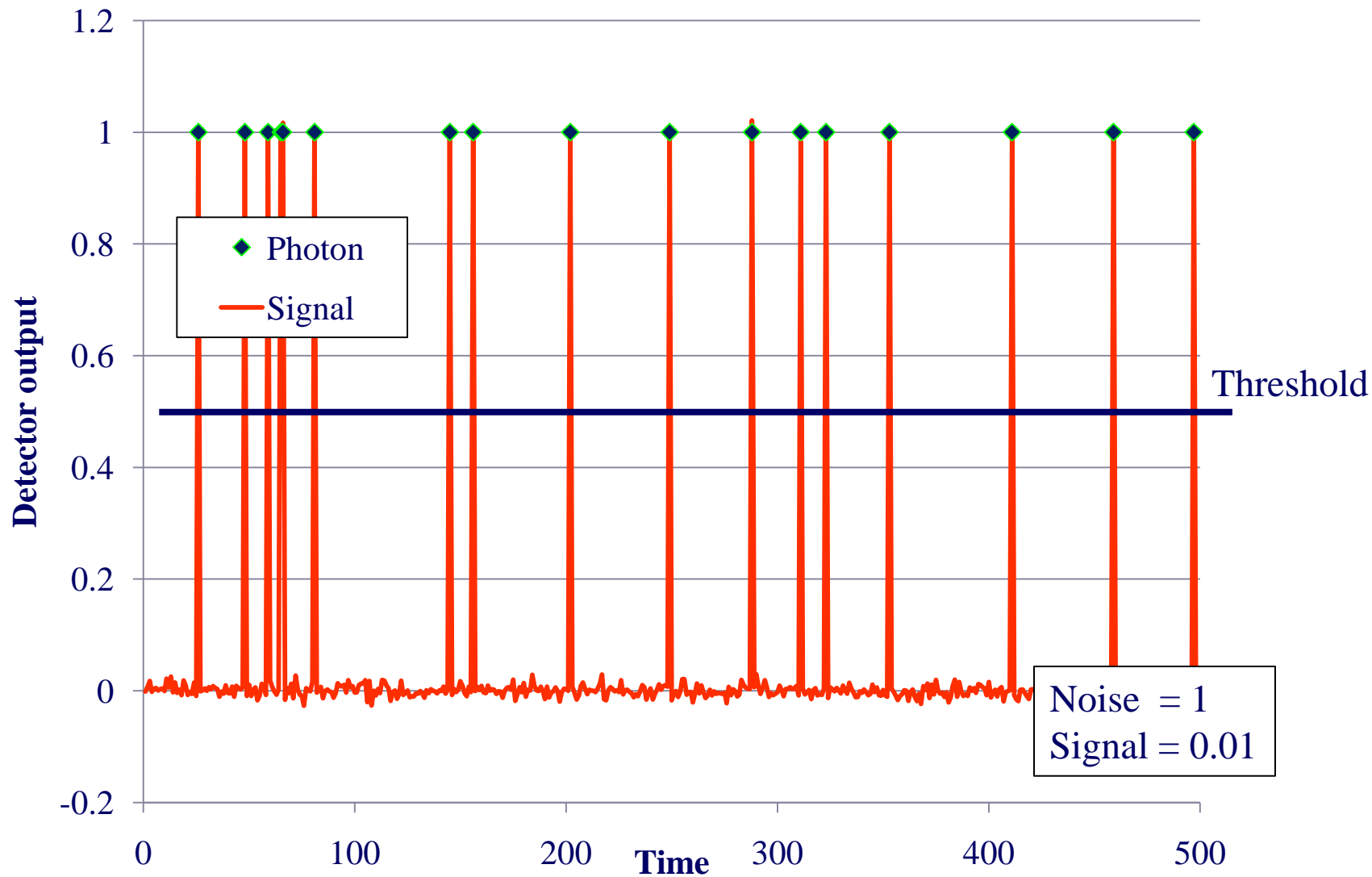
Multi-wire Proportional Counter



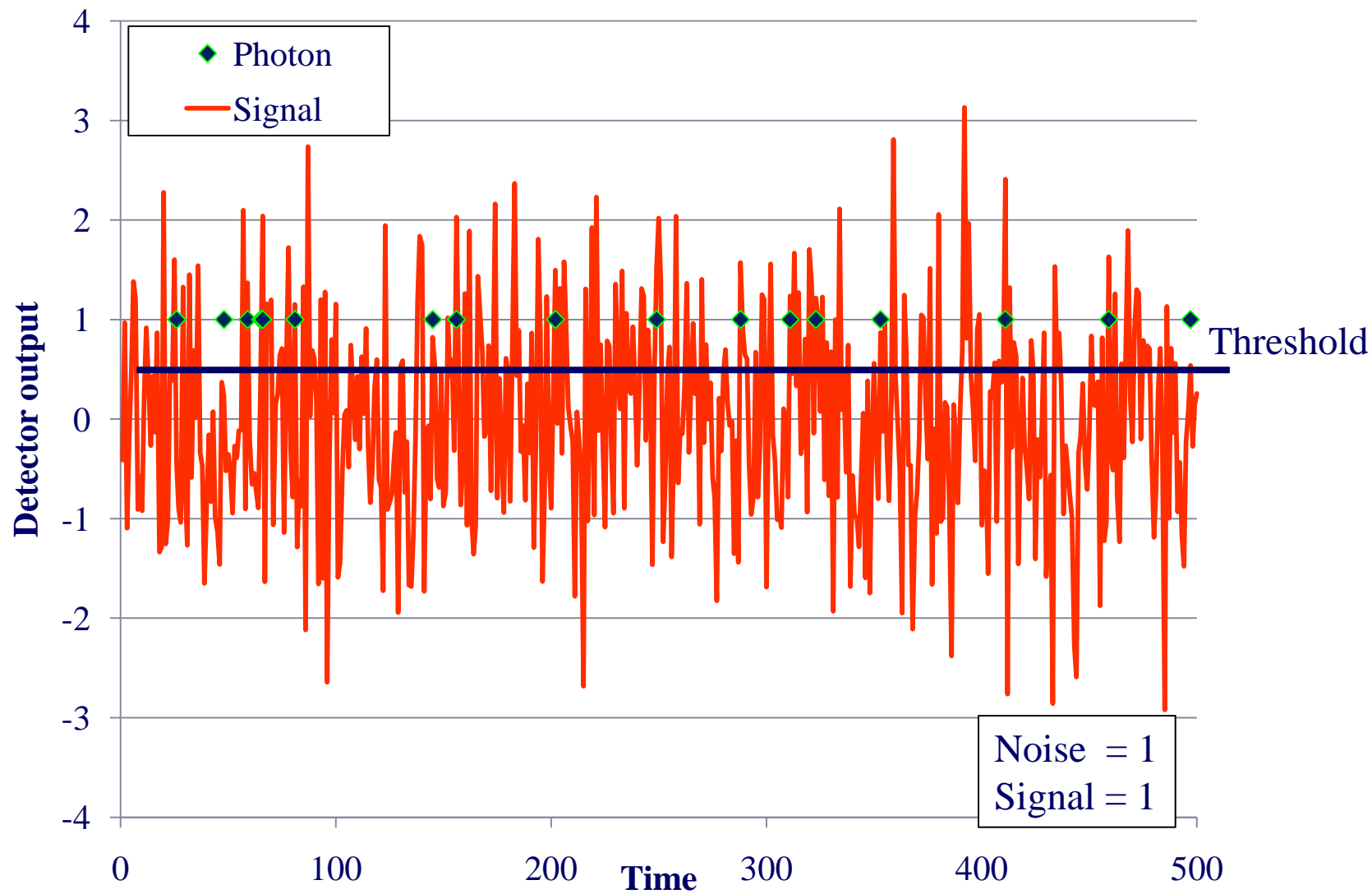
Counting and Integrating

- 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



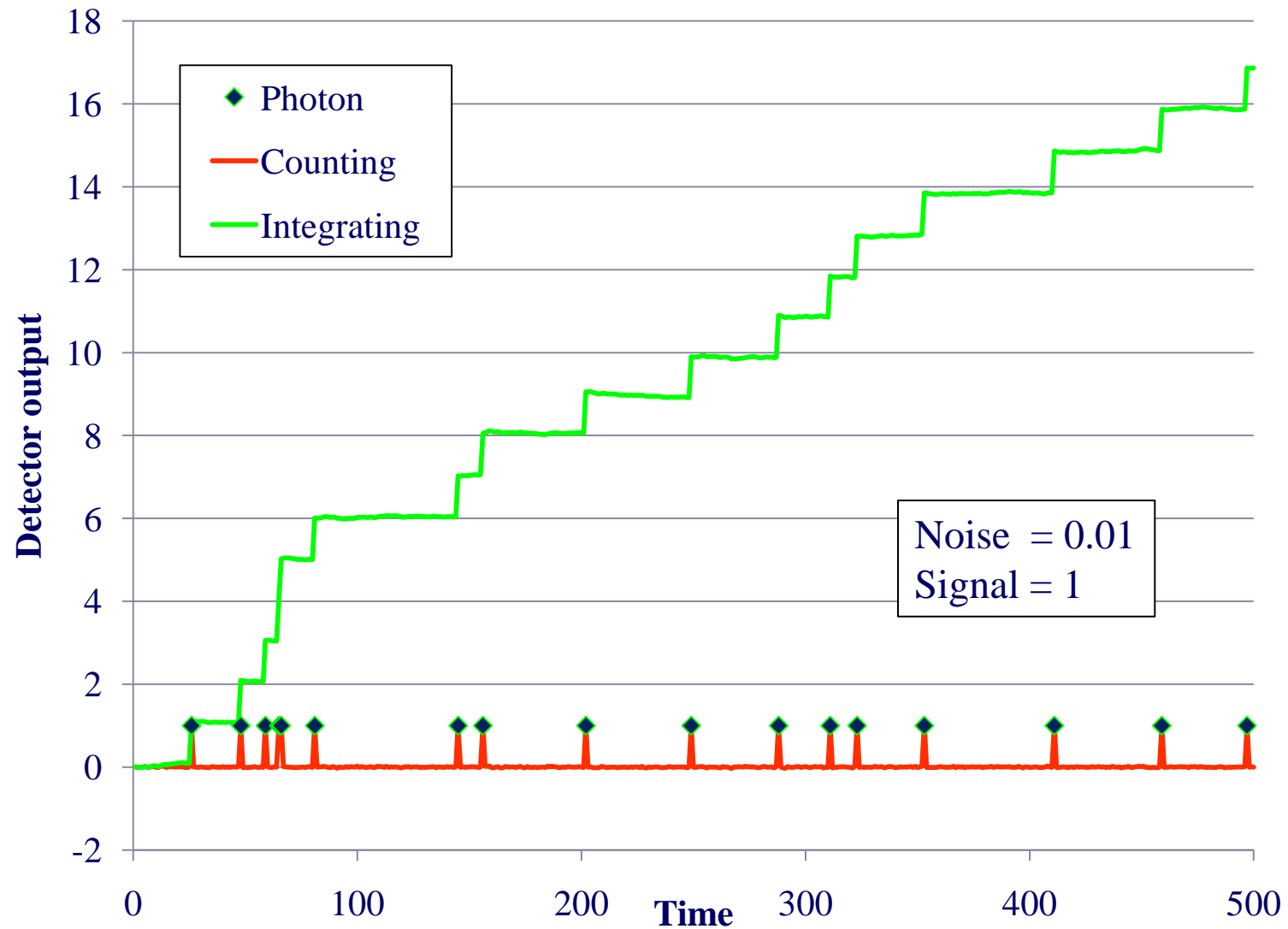
$$\text{SNR} = 1$$



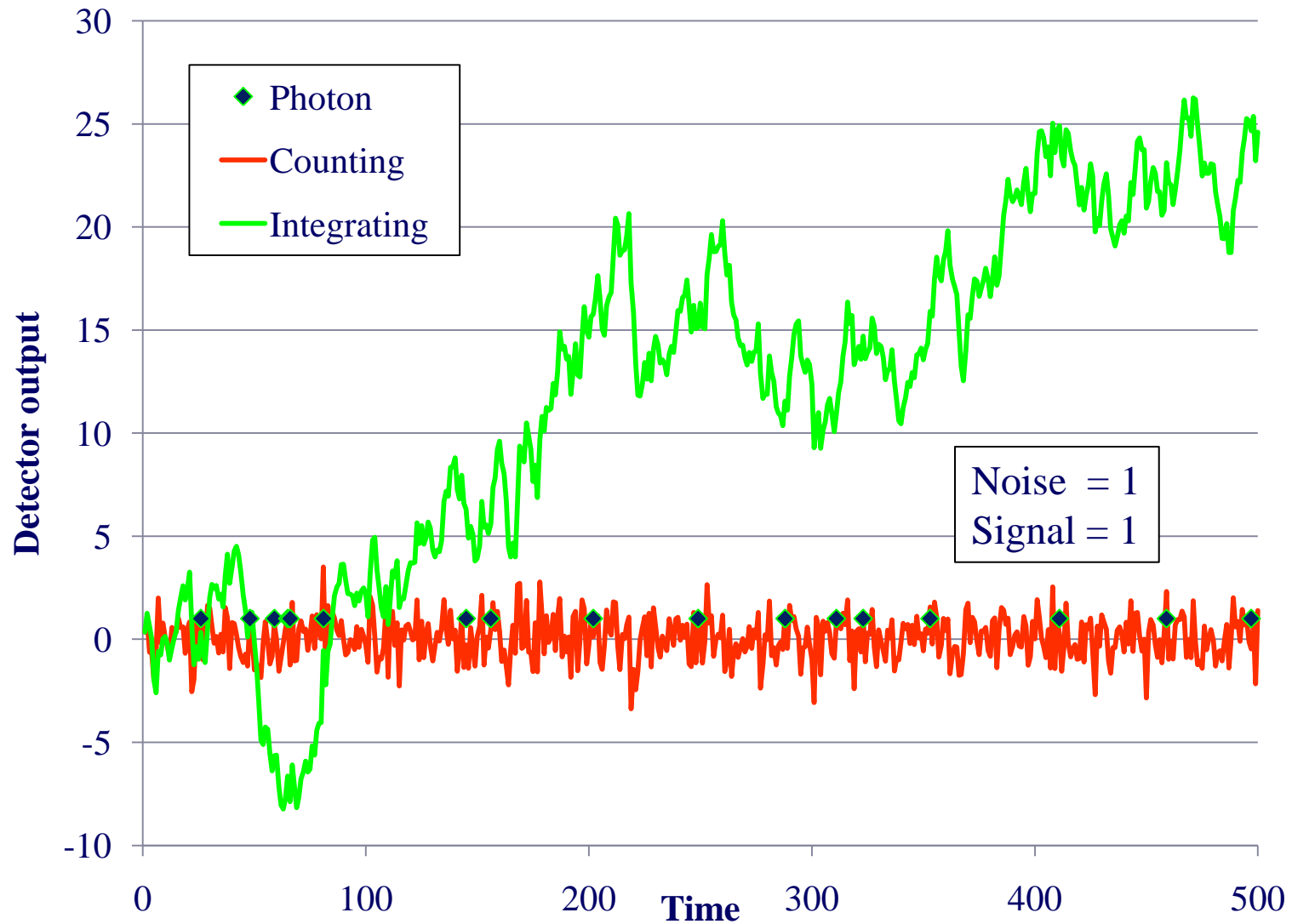
Counting and Integrating

- Usually this is not true and we have to accumulate many photons/particles before the signal becomes measurable

Counting & Integrating SNR = 100



Counting & Integrating SNR = 1



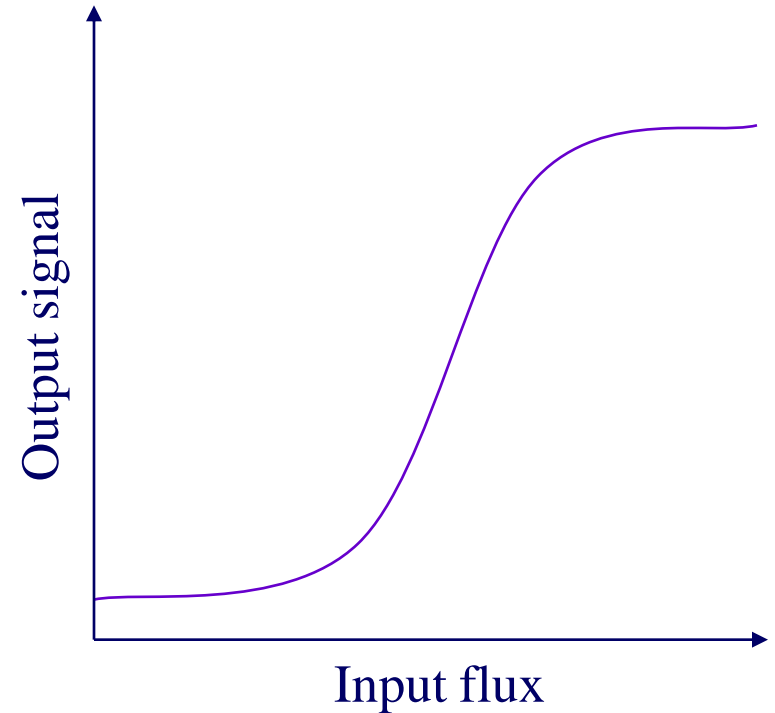
Integrating Detectors

■ 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



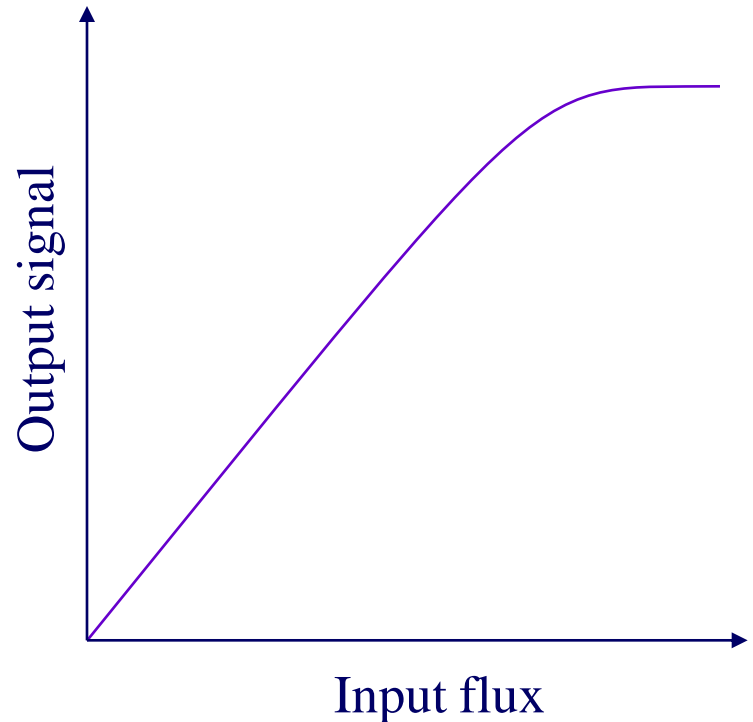
Photon Counting Detectors

■ 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

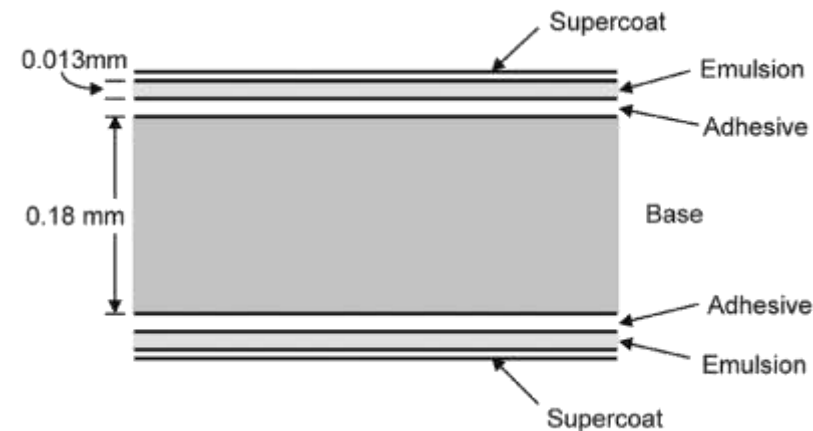
■ Active Ingredient

- ◆ 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

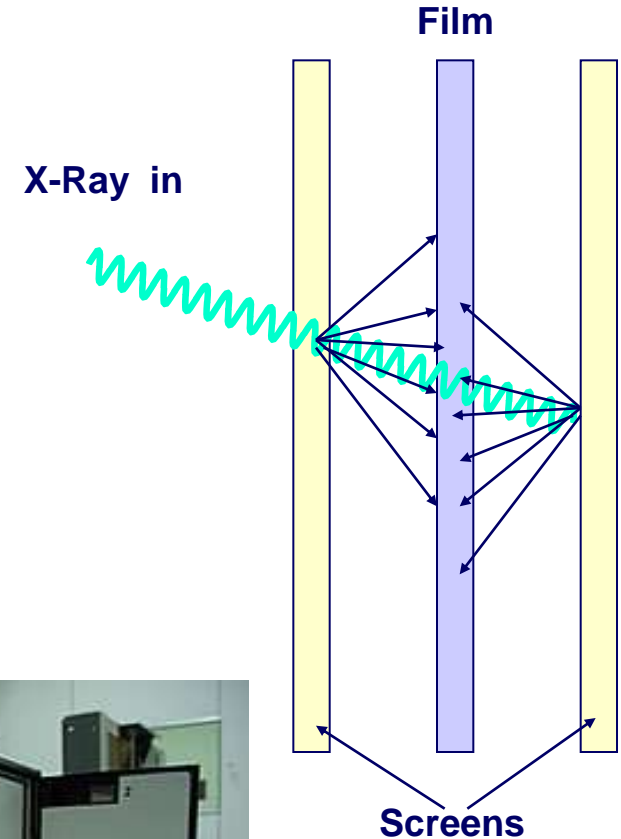
- ◆ A photon liberates an electron from a bromide ion
- ◆ The electron travels until trapped at a defect
- ◆ A free silver ion is attracted to the negative charge and combines (is reduced) to form an atom of metallic silver (which is optically black).
- ◆ The single silver atom acts as an electron trap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



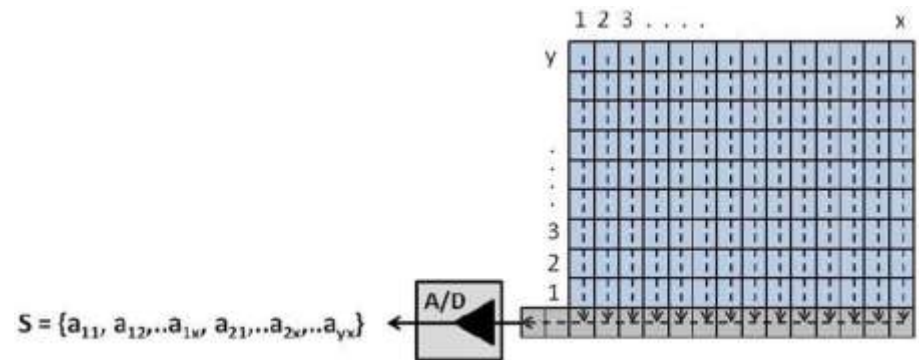
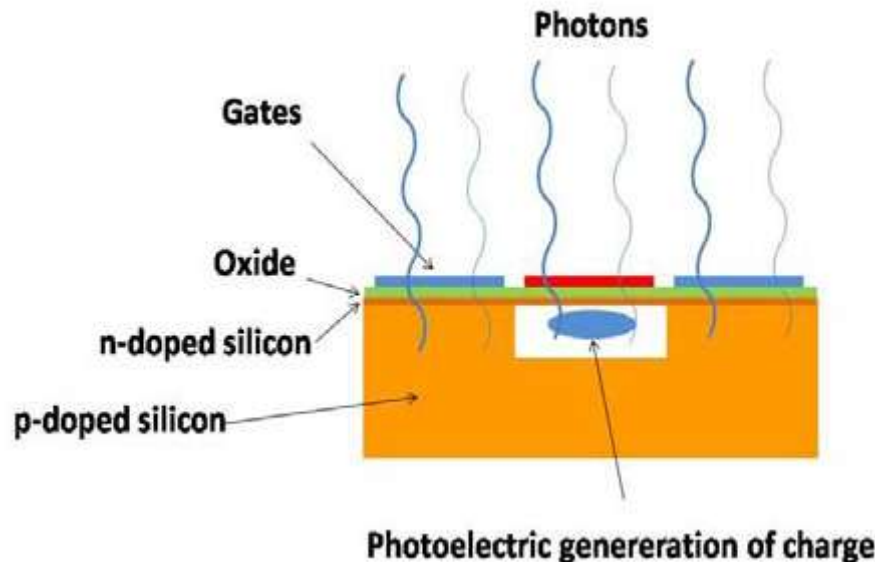
Bell Laboratories
Murray Hill, NJ, USA



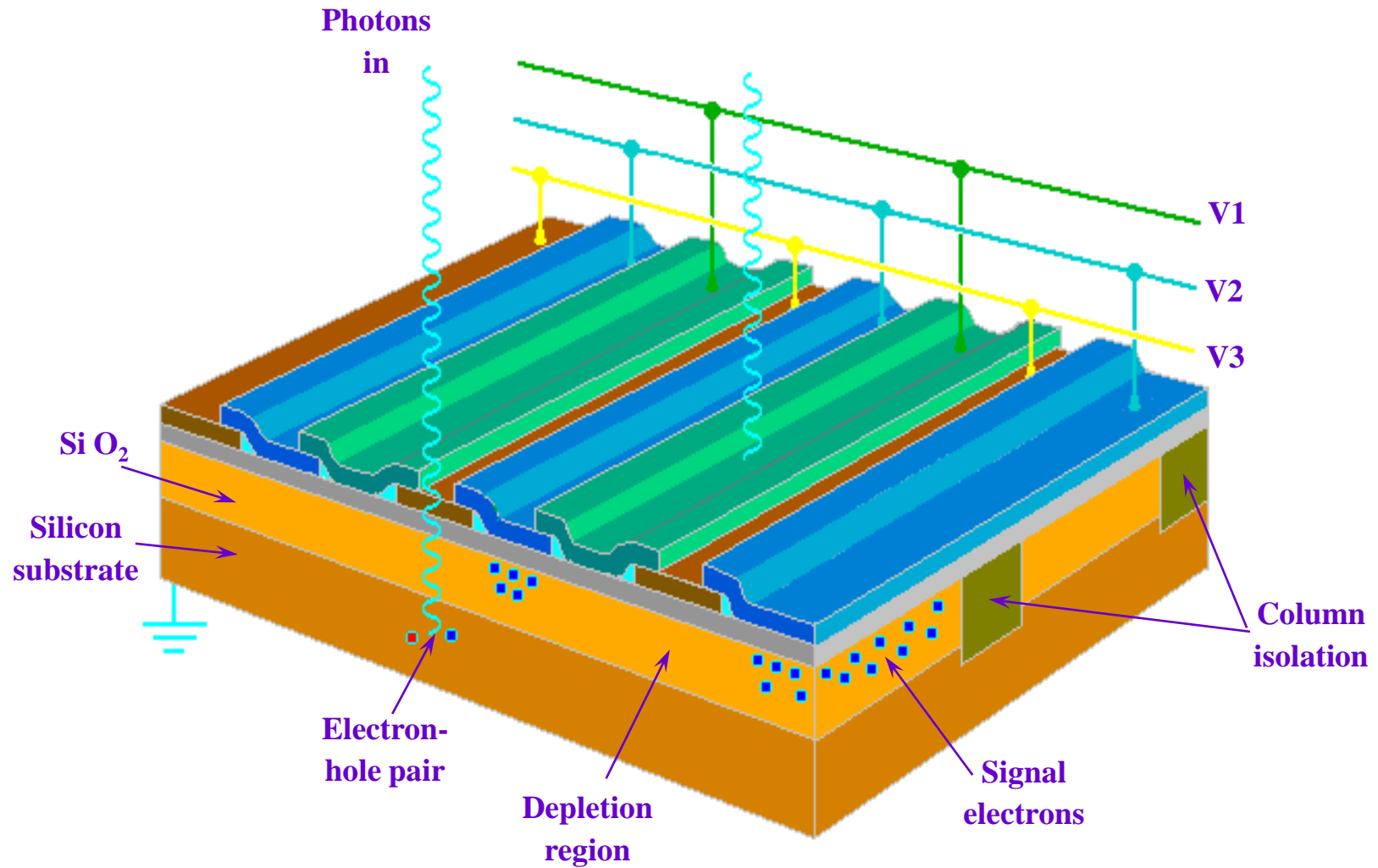
**Nobel prize in
physics 2009**

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

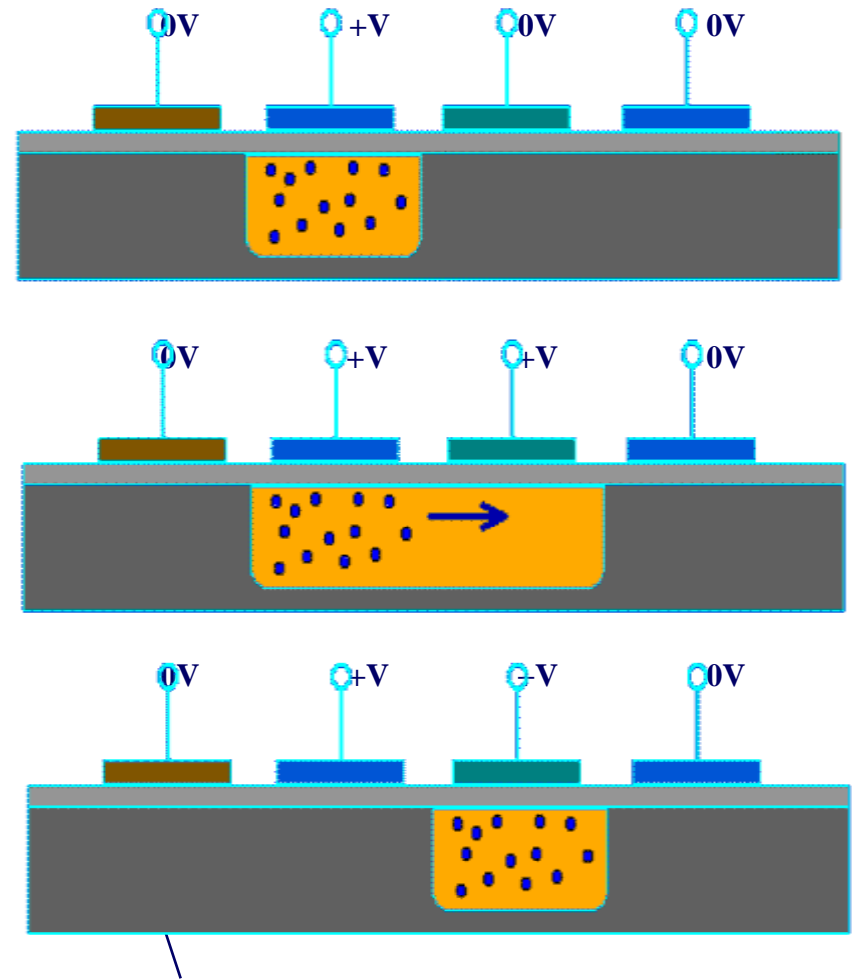
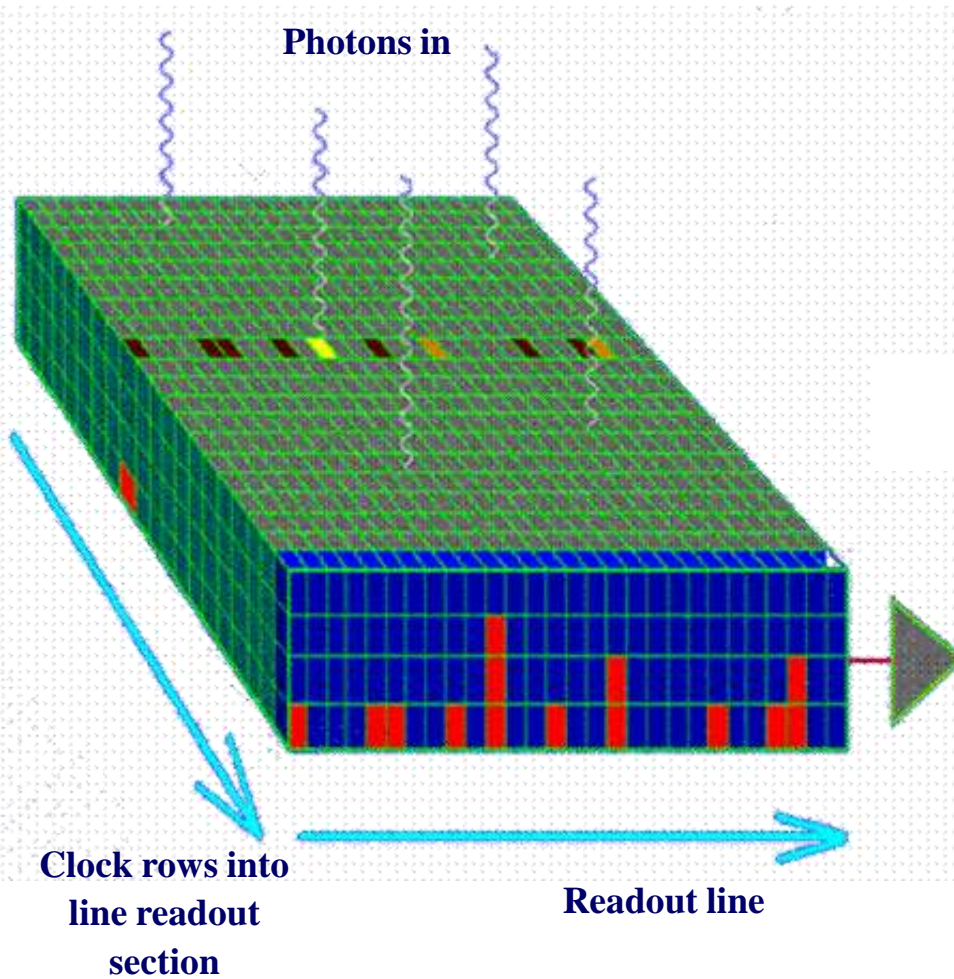
CCD



Charge Coupled Device



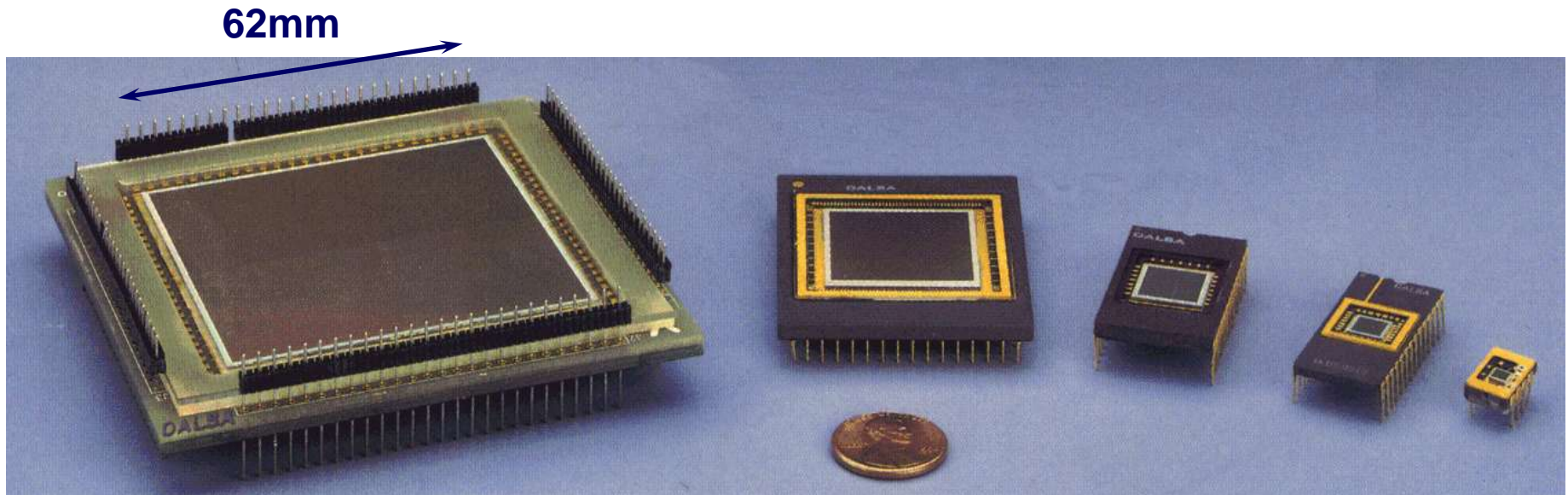
CCD Readout



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 = ~ 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

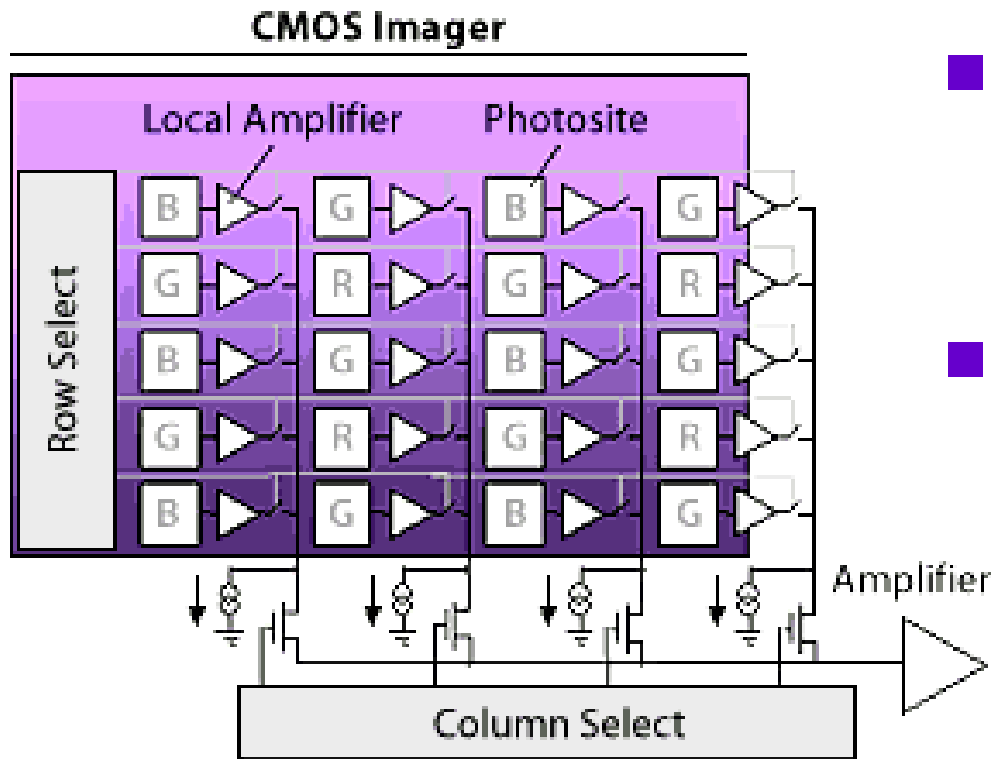
CCDs



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

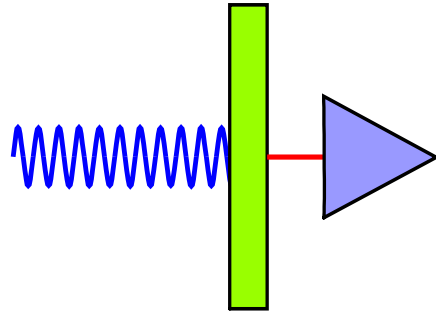
CMOS vs CCD

- 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

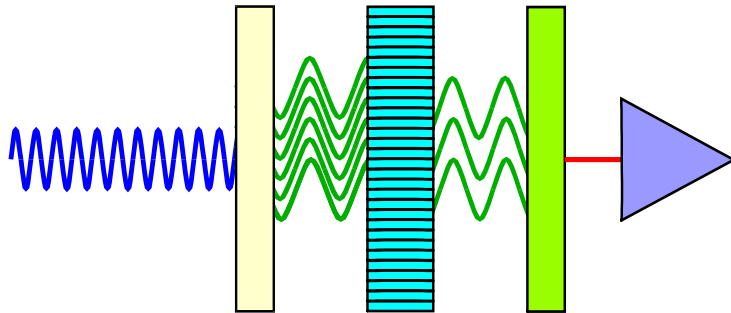
Direct detection

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



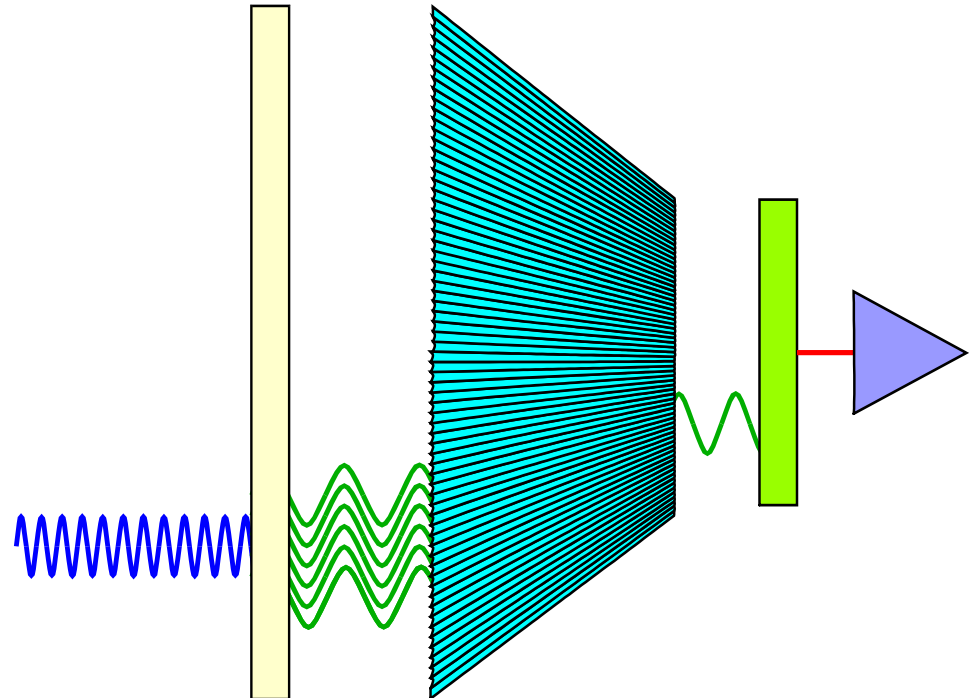
Phosphor coupled 1:1 to CCD

Phosphor gain $\gg 1$
Optics Gain < 1

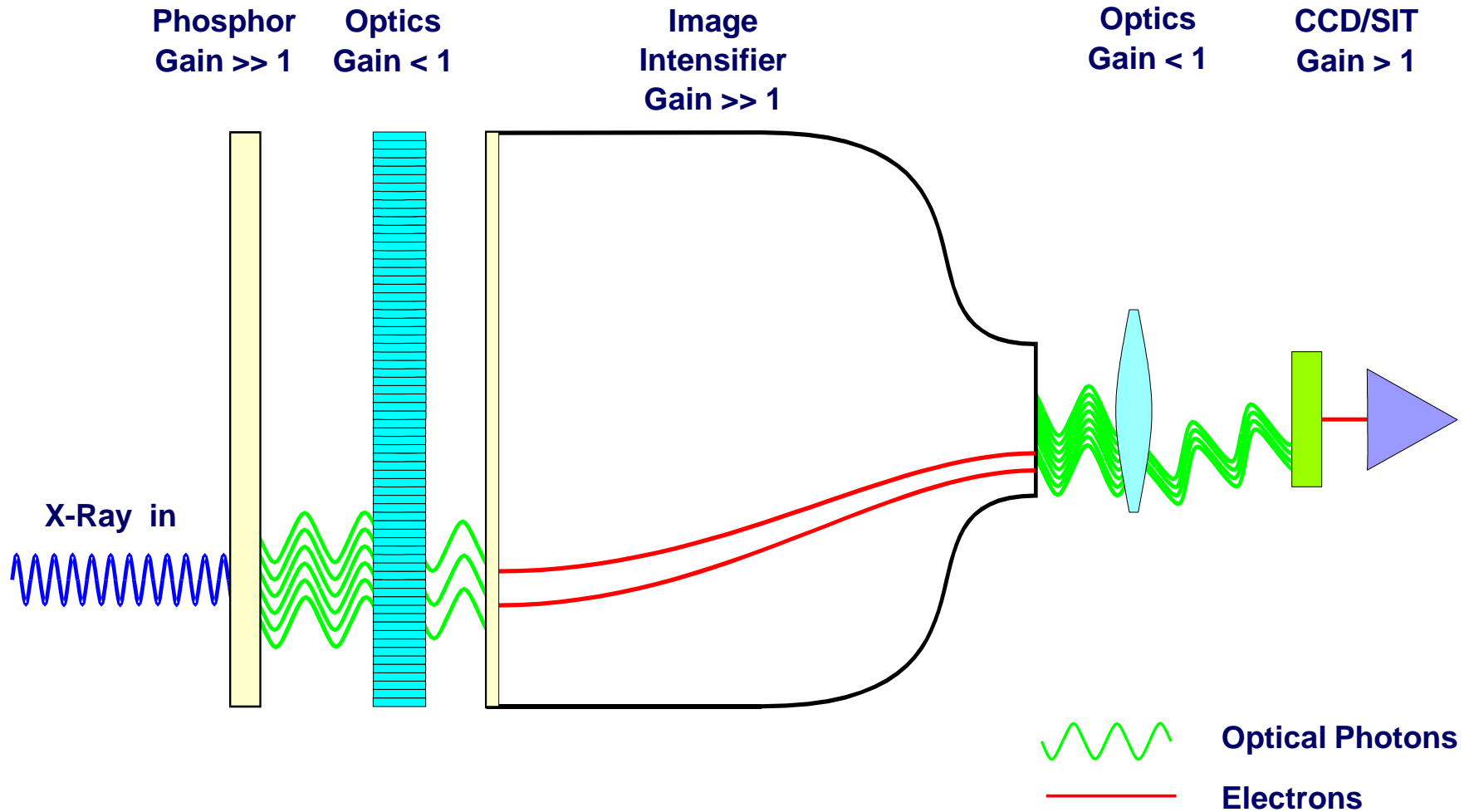


Phosphor coupled with reducing optics to CCD

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



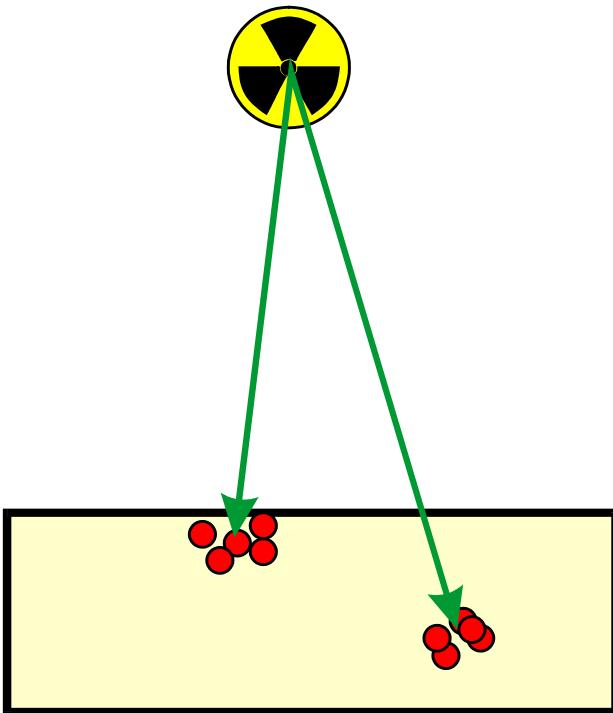
TV detector with IIT



Computed Radiography-Image Plate

Exposure

Creation of F
centres
Gain $\gg 1$

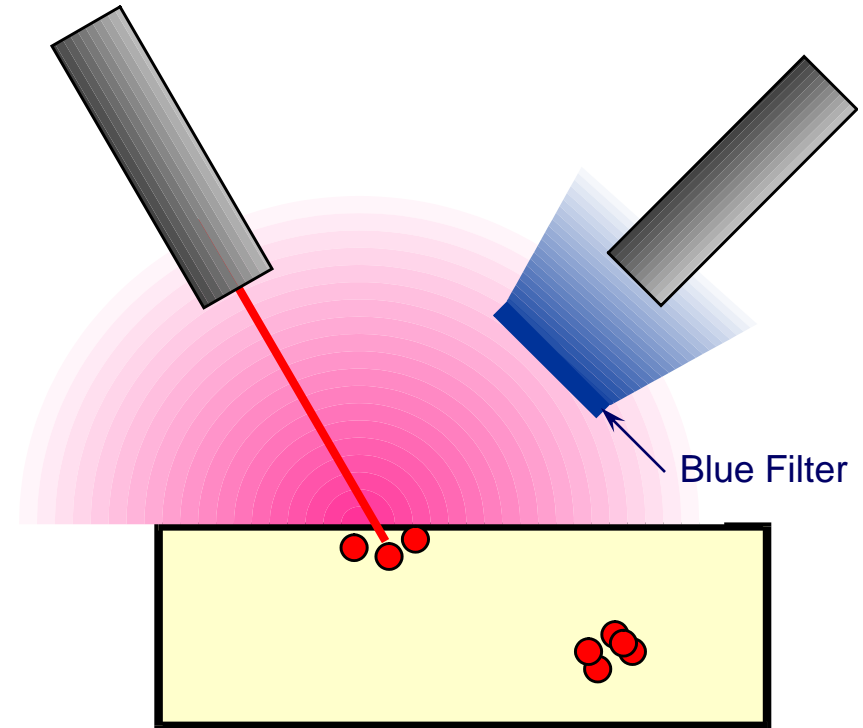


Scanning

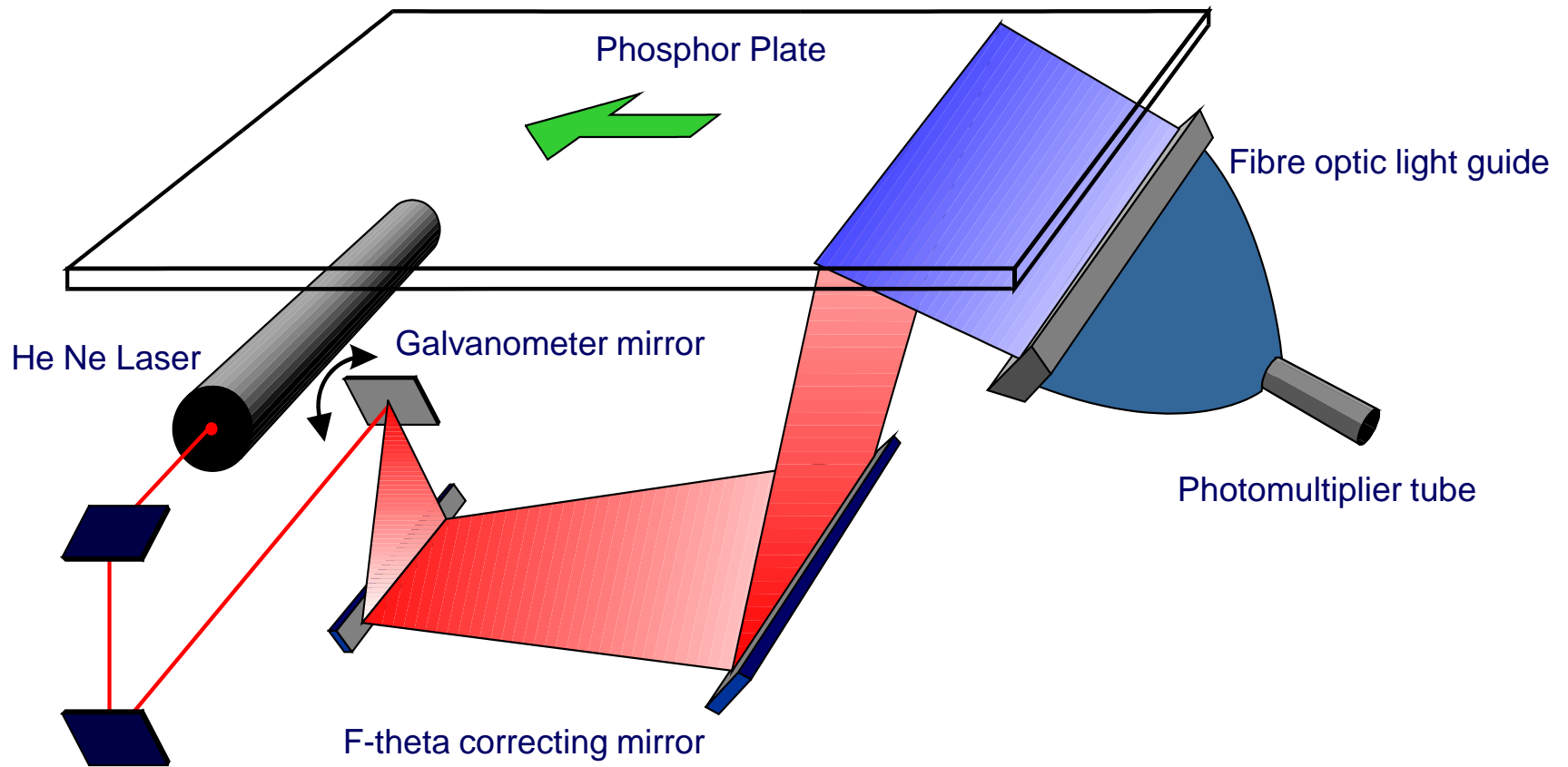
Stimulation
of PSL
Gain < 1

Collection
of PSL
Gain < 1

PMT
Amplification
Gain > 1

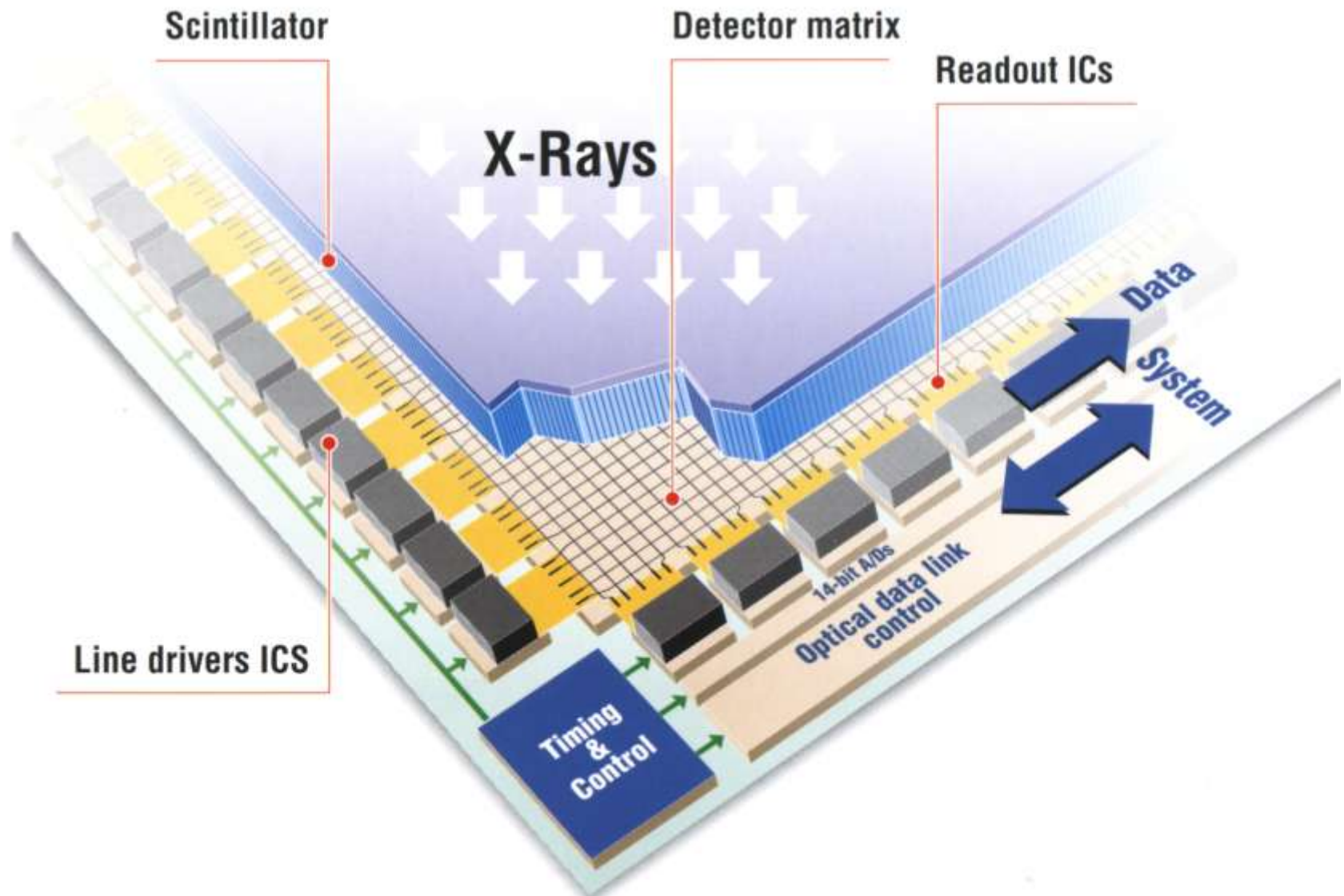


X-Y Flat bed Scanner

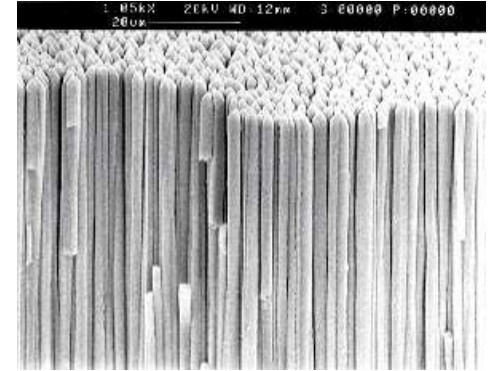
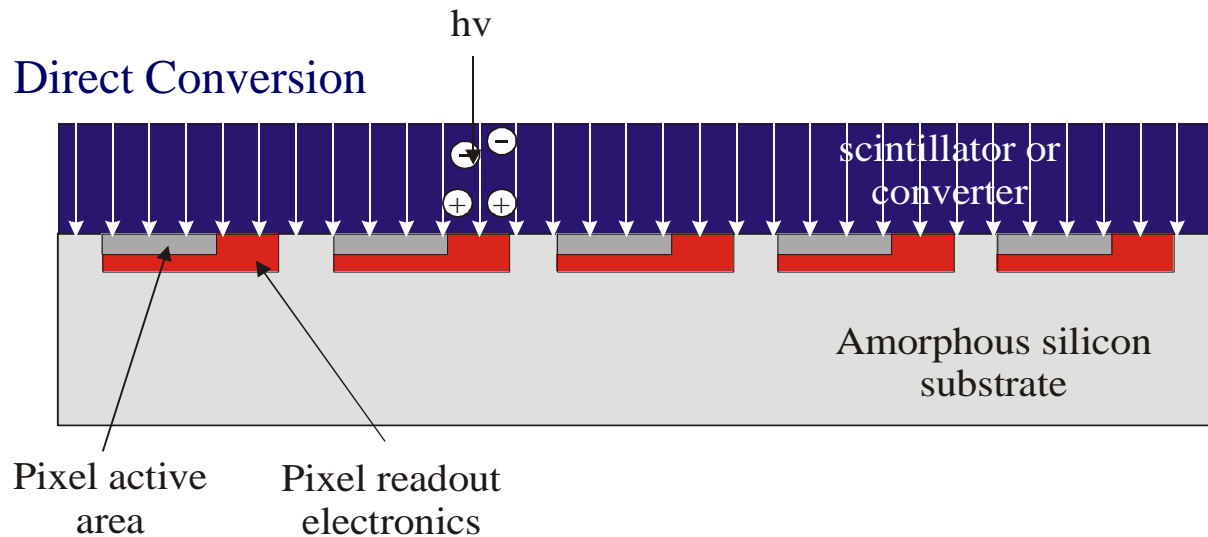
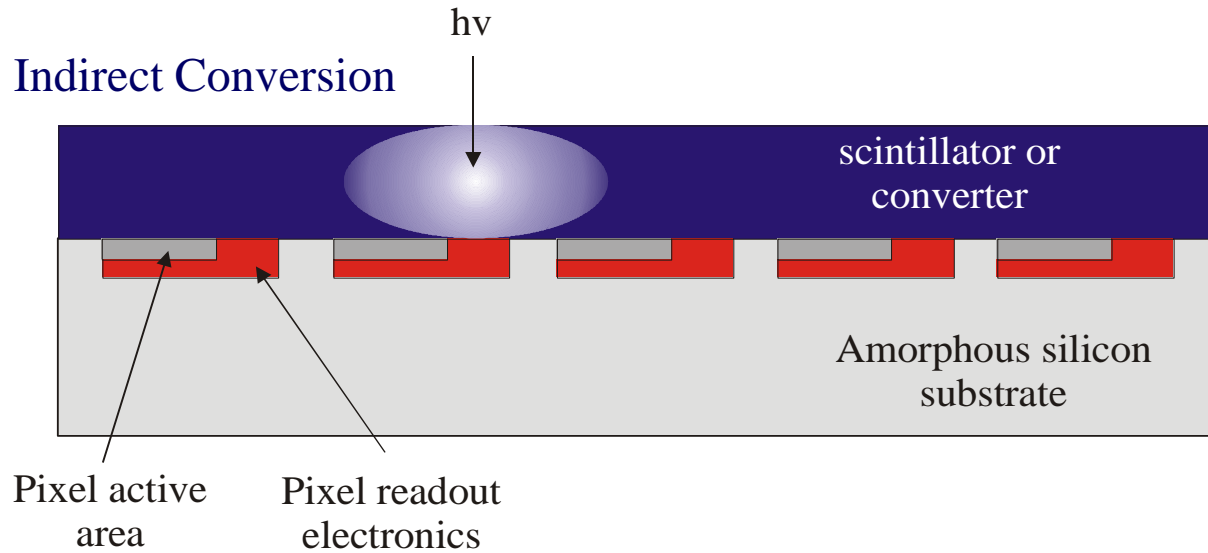


Distributed Light Collection

TFT Flat panel Detector

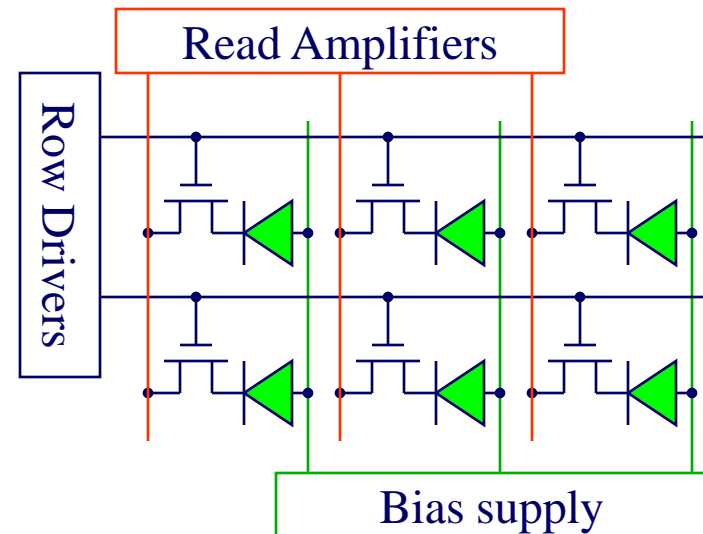
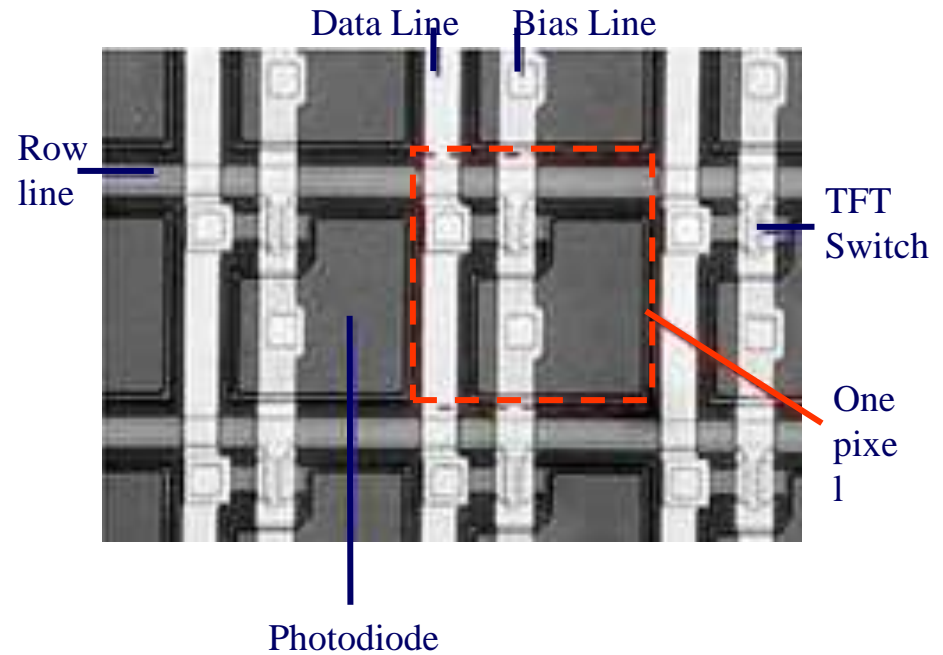


a-Si:H TFT arrays

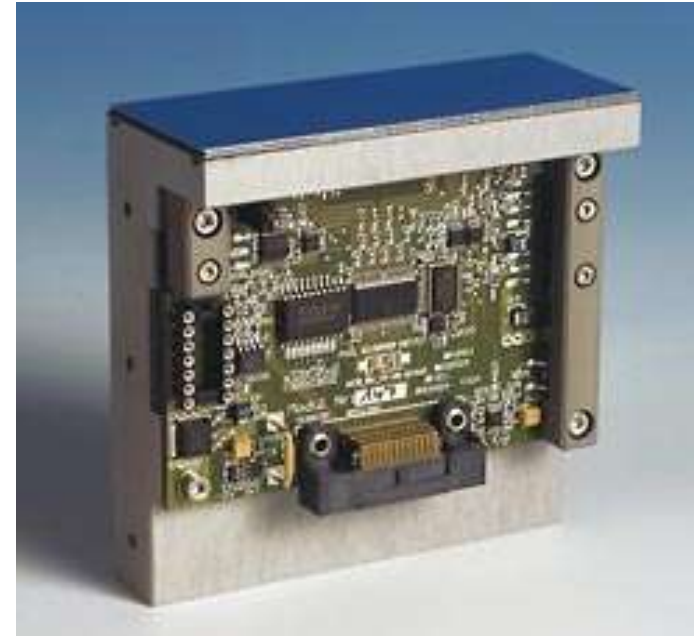
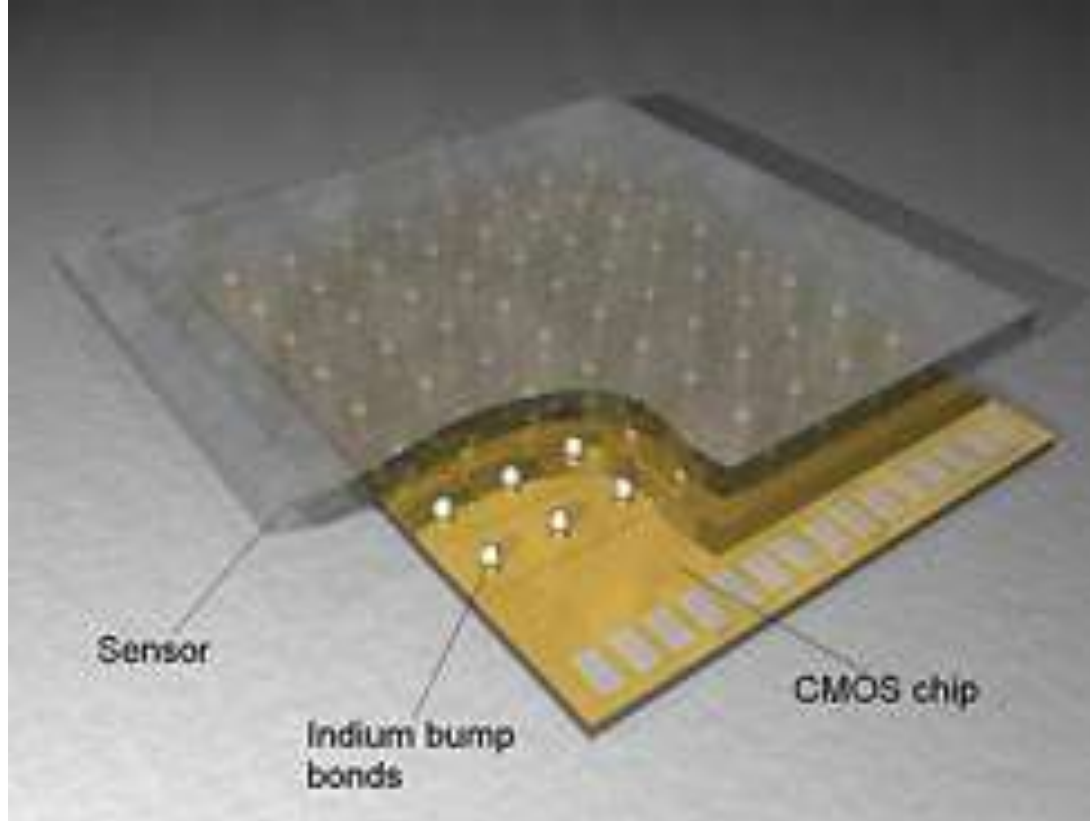


Needle diameter 6 μ m

a-Si:H Array dpiX - Flashscan 30



PILATUS 6M Detector

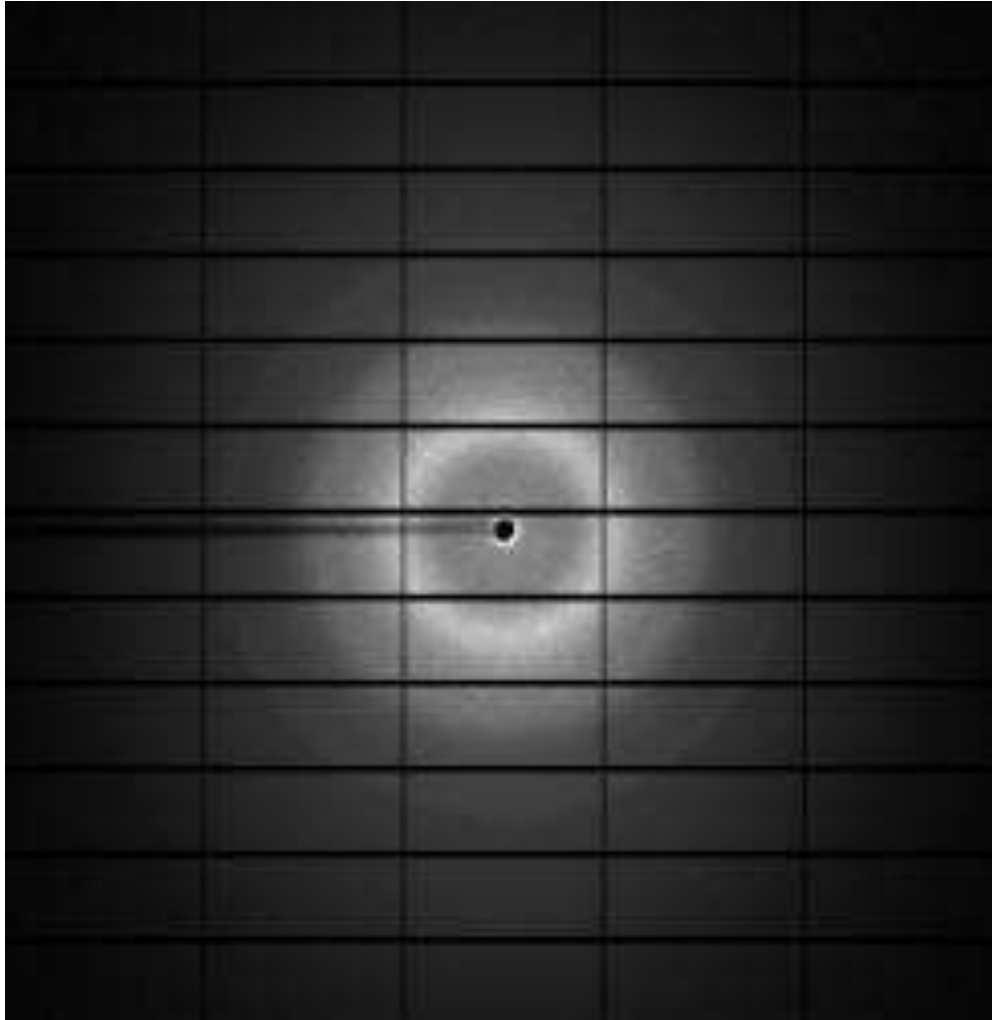


PILATUS 6M Detector

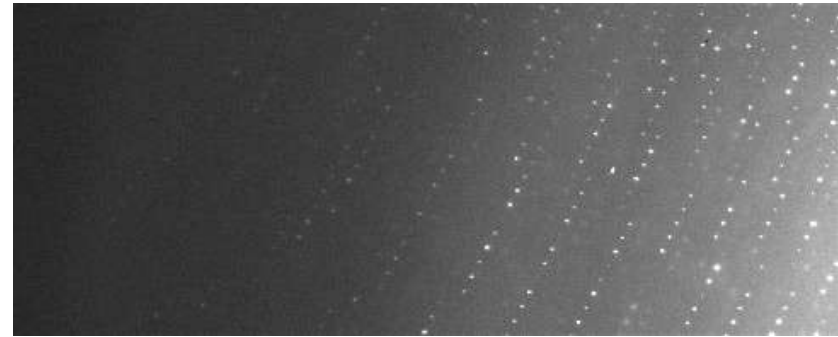


- Sensor $5 \times 12 = 60$ modules
 - ◆ Reverse-biased silicon diode array
 - ◆ Thickness $320 \mu\text{m}$
 - ◆ Pixel size $172 \times 172 \mu\text{m}^2$
- $2463 \times 2527 = 6,224,001$ pixels
- Area $431 \times 448 \text{ mm}^2$
- Intermodule gap x: 7 pixels, y: 17 pixels, 8.4% of total area
- Dynamic 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).

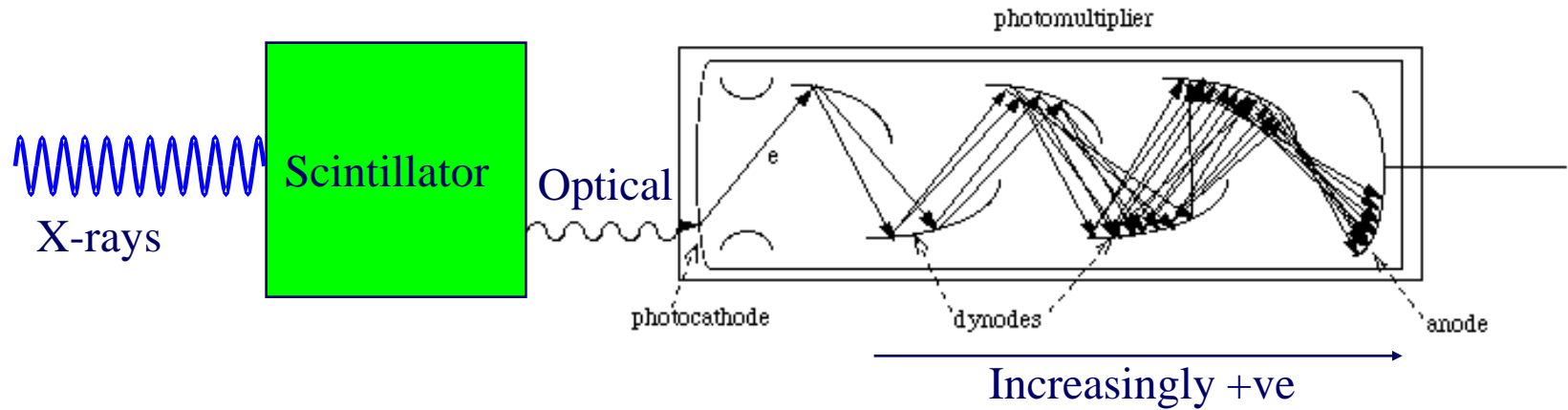


Spectroscopic Detectors



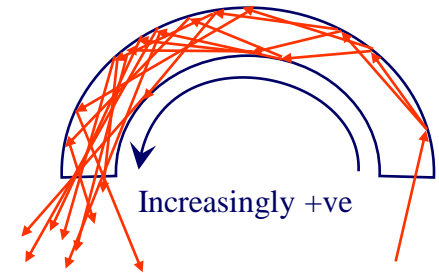
Rainbow Lorikeets

Electron multipliers & Scintillators



Channeltron is a similar with distributed dynode

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



Multi Channel Spectroscopic Detectors

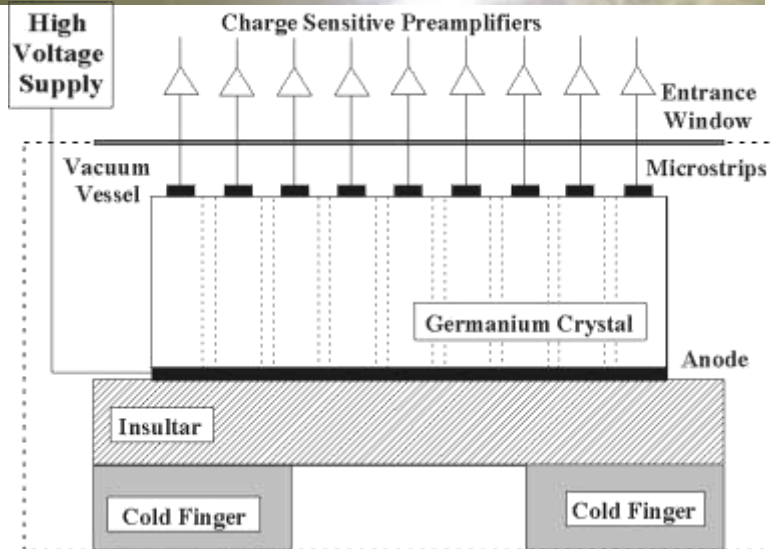


Canberra Ultra-LEGe detector

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

Multichannel devices up to 30 channels at 3×10^5 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 5 mm

■ Readout

◆ Single channel 100 ns
◆ 32 channels 3.2 ms

■ Max expected count rate

◆ 14 kcps

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 $= 2.355\sigma$
 $= 2.355(w/E)^{1/2}$

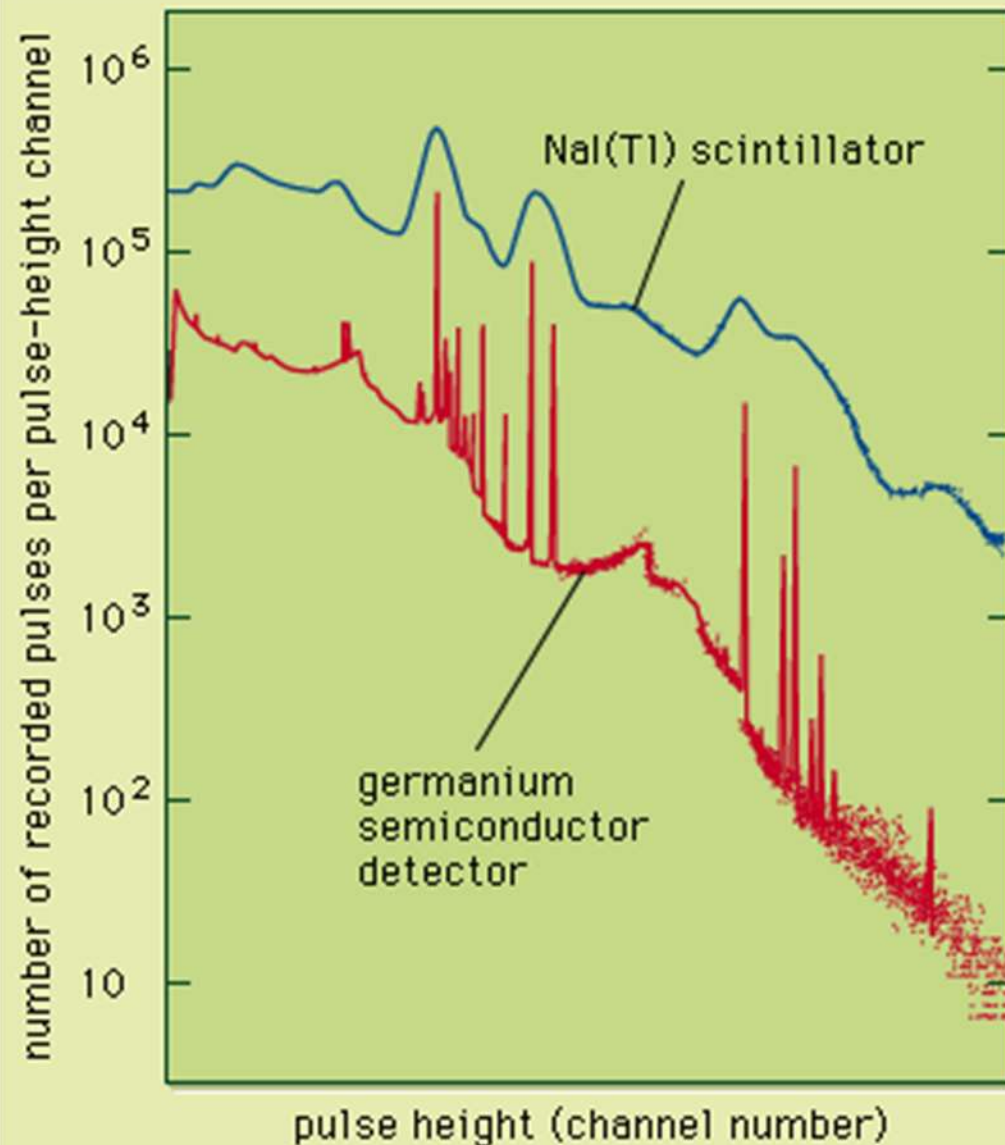
- For Ge, $w = 3\text{eV}$ so at 10keV $\Delta E/E \sim 4\%$

- For NaI, $w = 30\text{eV}$ so at 10keV $\Delta E/E \sim 13\%$

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 σ^2 is the variance and μ 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



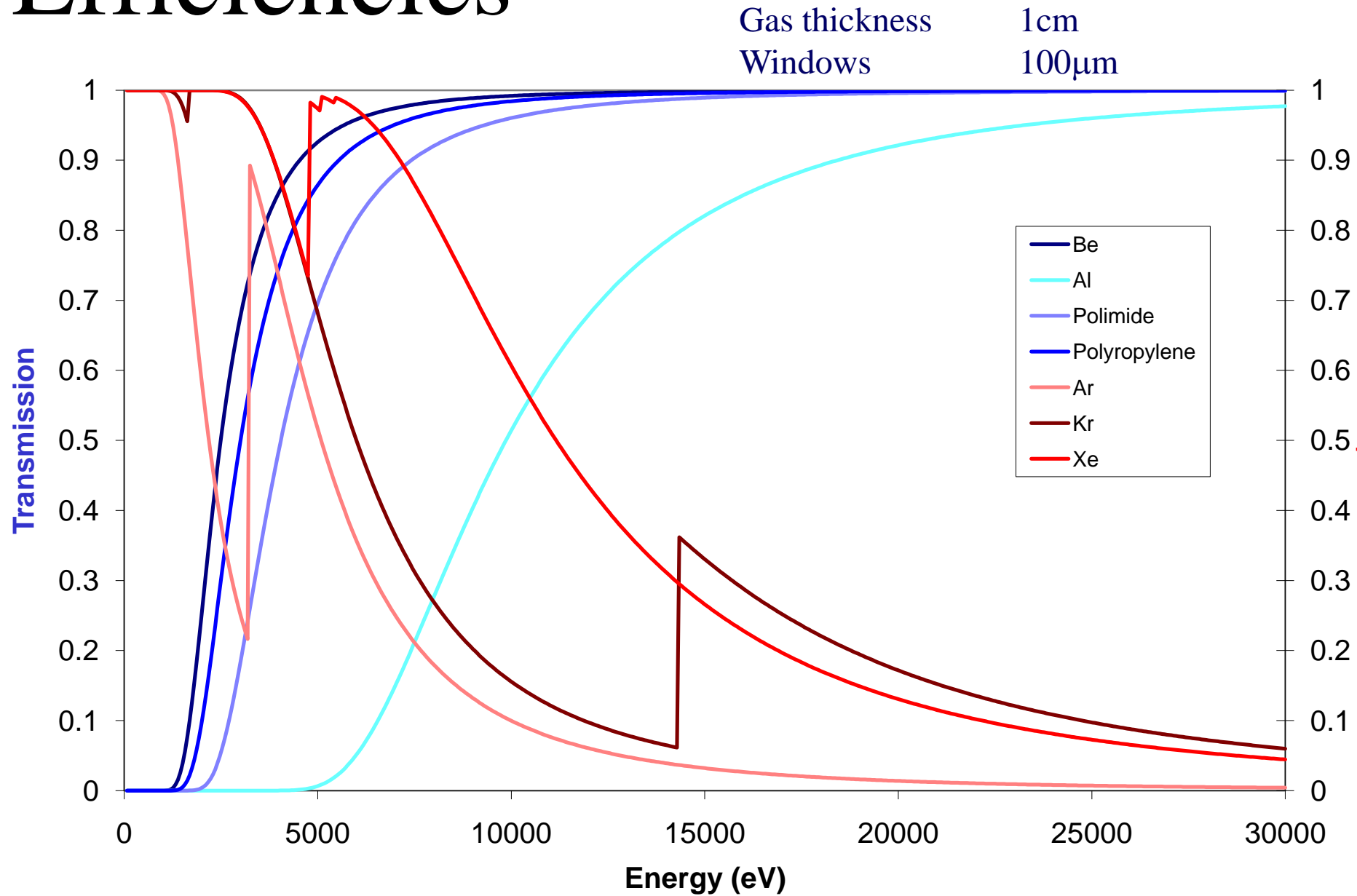
The top spectrum is from a scintillation detector, and the bottom is from a germanium semiconductor detector. The superior energy resolution of the germanium is evident from the much narrower peaks, allowing separation of gamma-ray energies that are unresolved in the scintillator spectrum.

Things to Look Out For

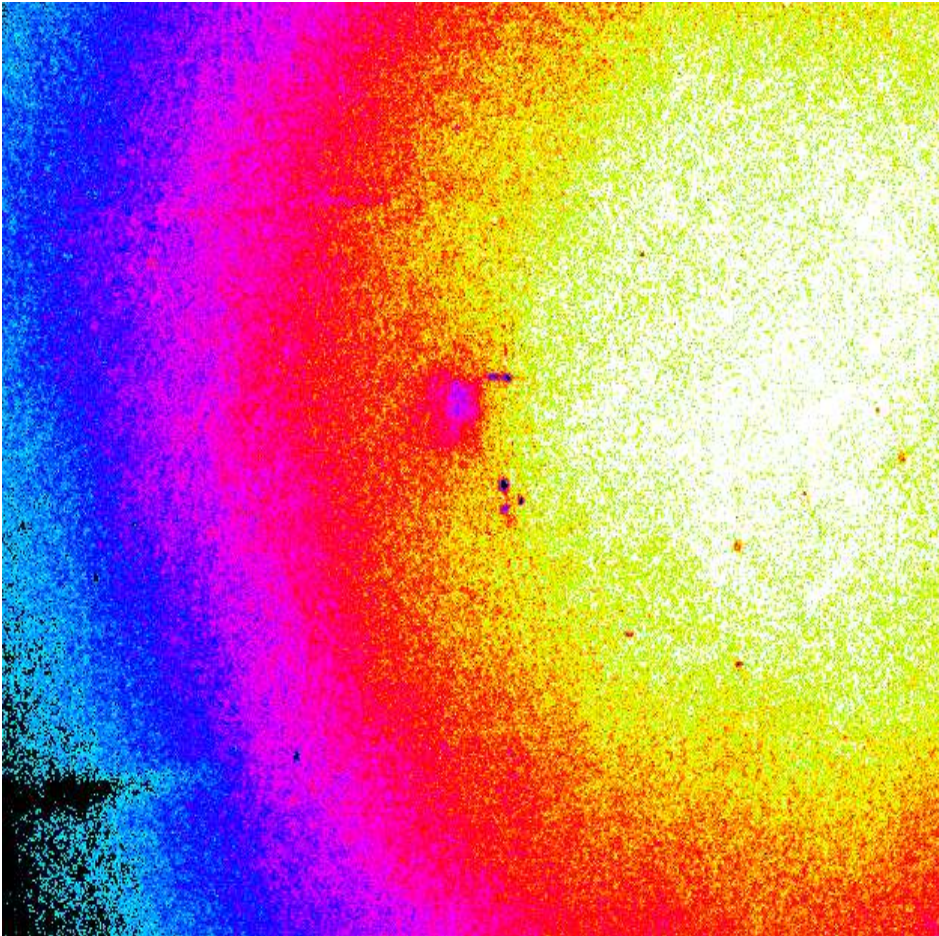


Crocodile

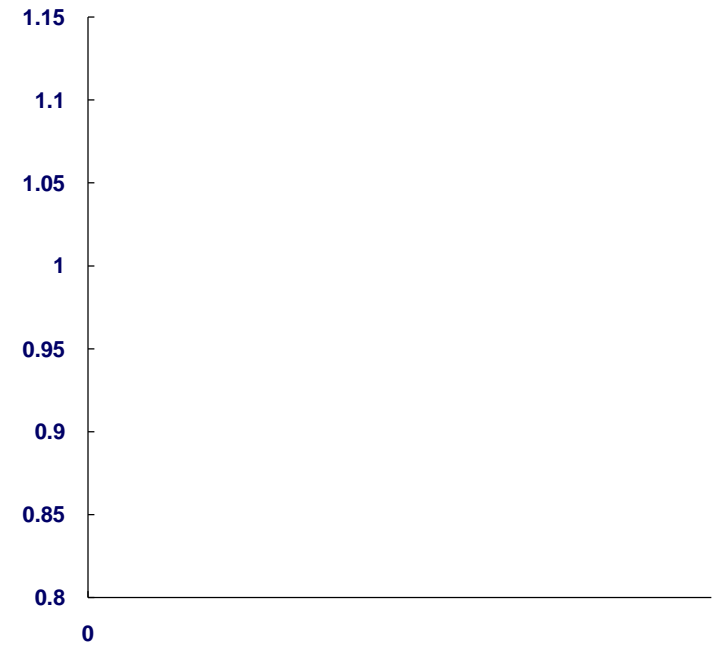
Efficiencies



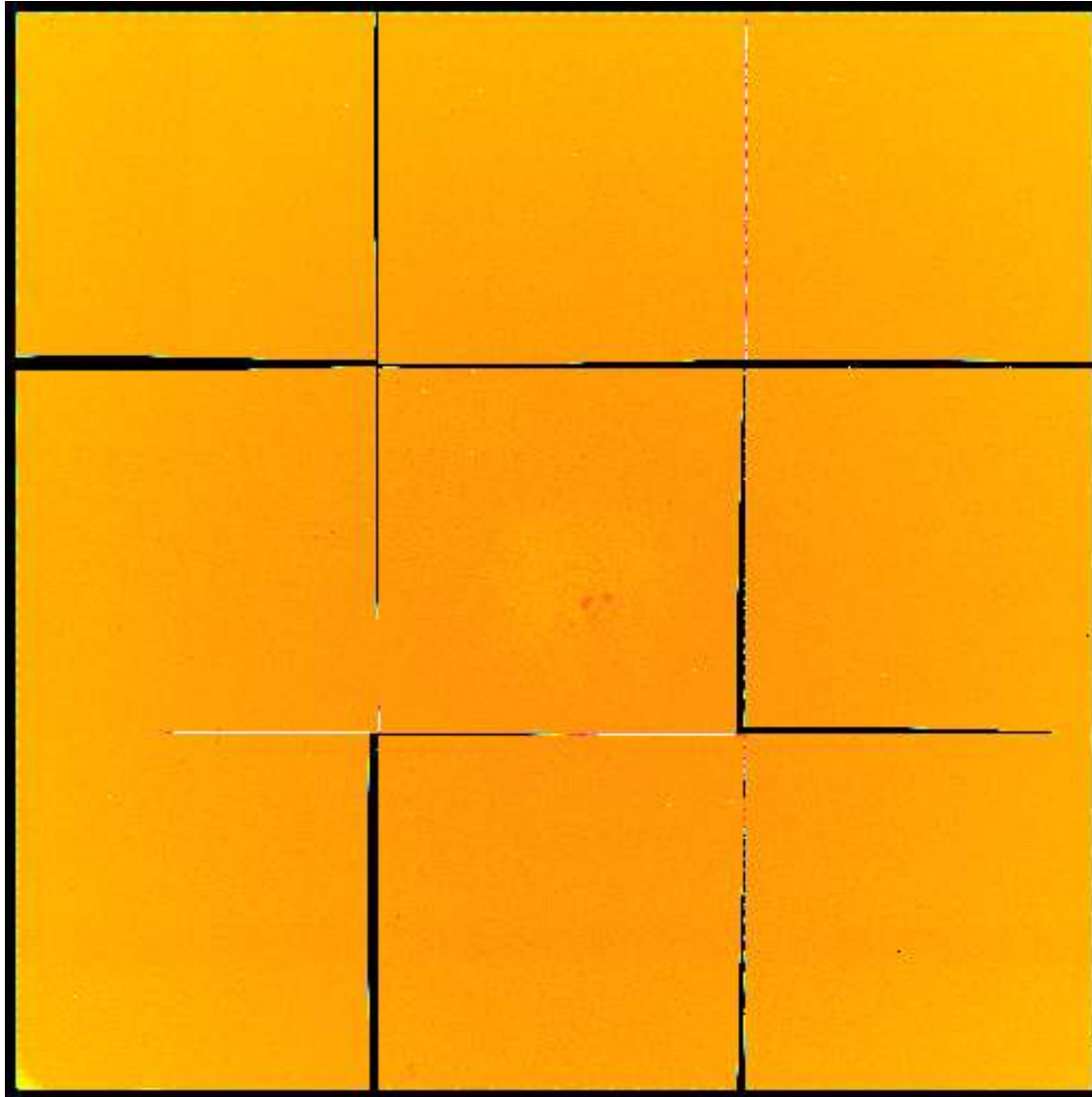
Response to Uniform Illumination



**ESRF TV Detector
Thompson IIT & CCD**



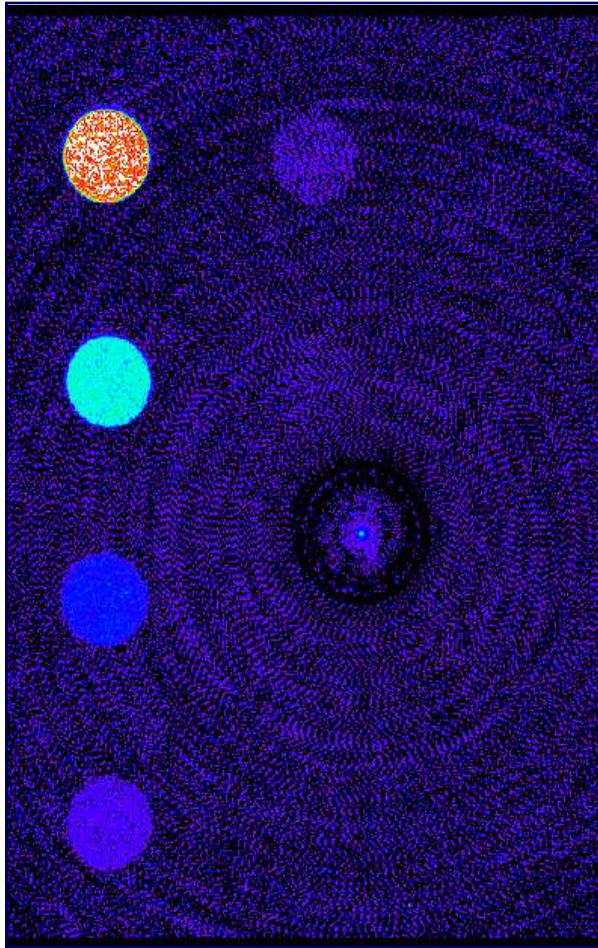
Gaps



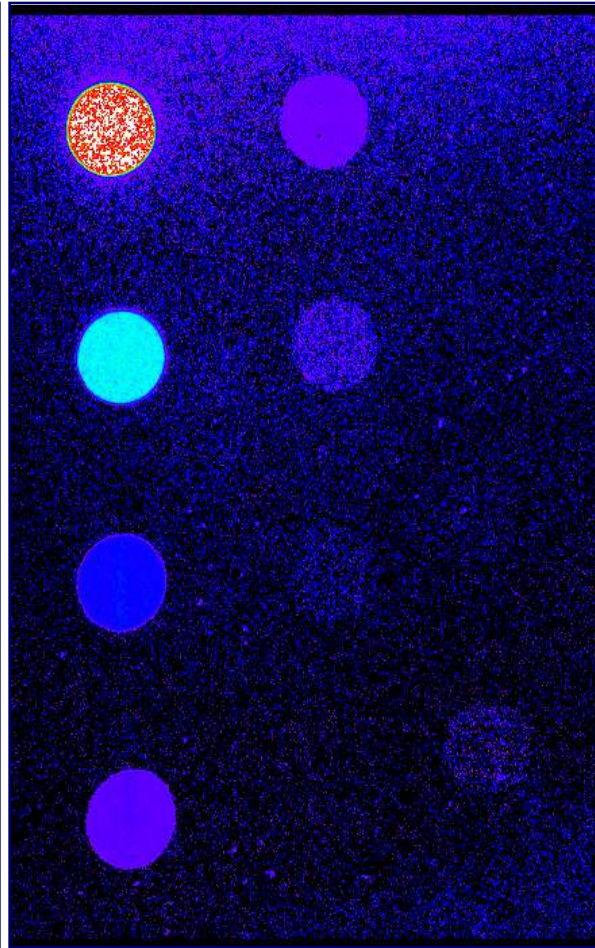
Spec	0.2mm max
Worst gap	2.97mm
Pixels in gaps	513922 5.45%

Graded Absorber Comparison

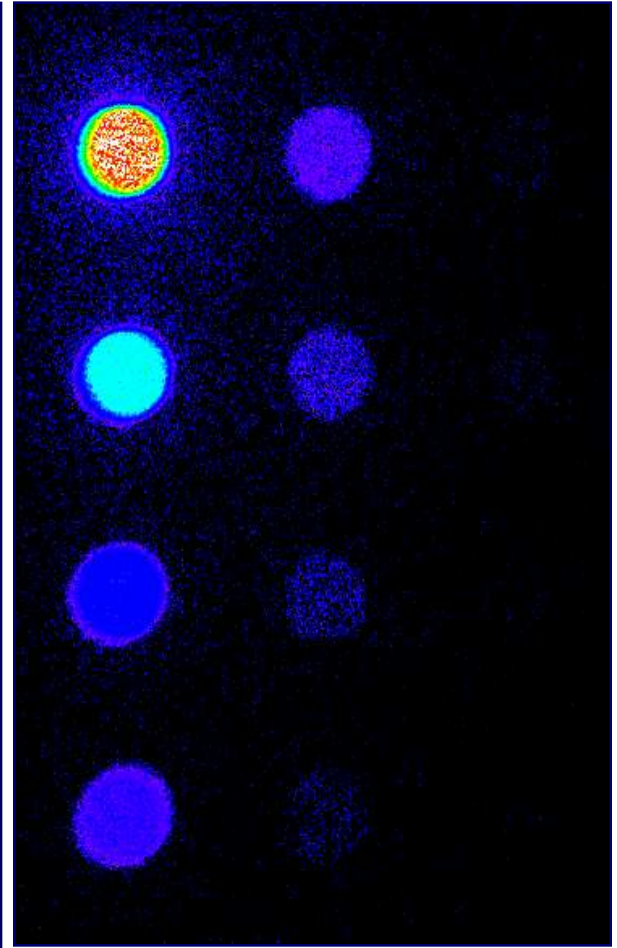
Mar Image Plate



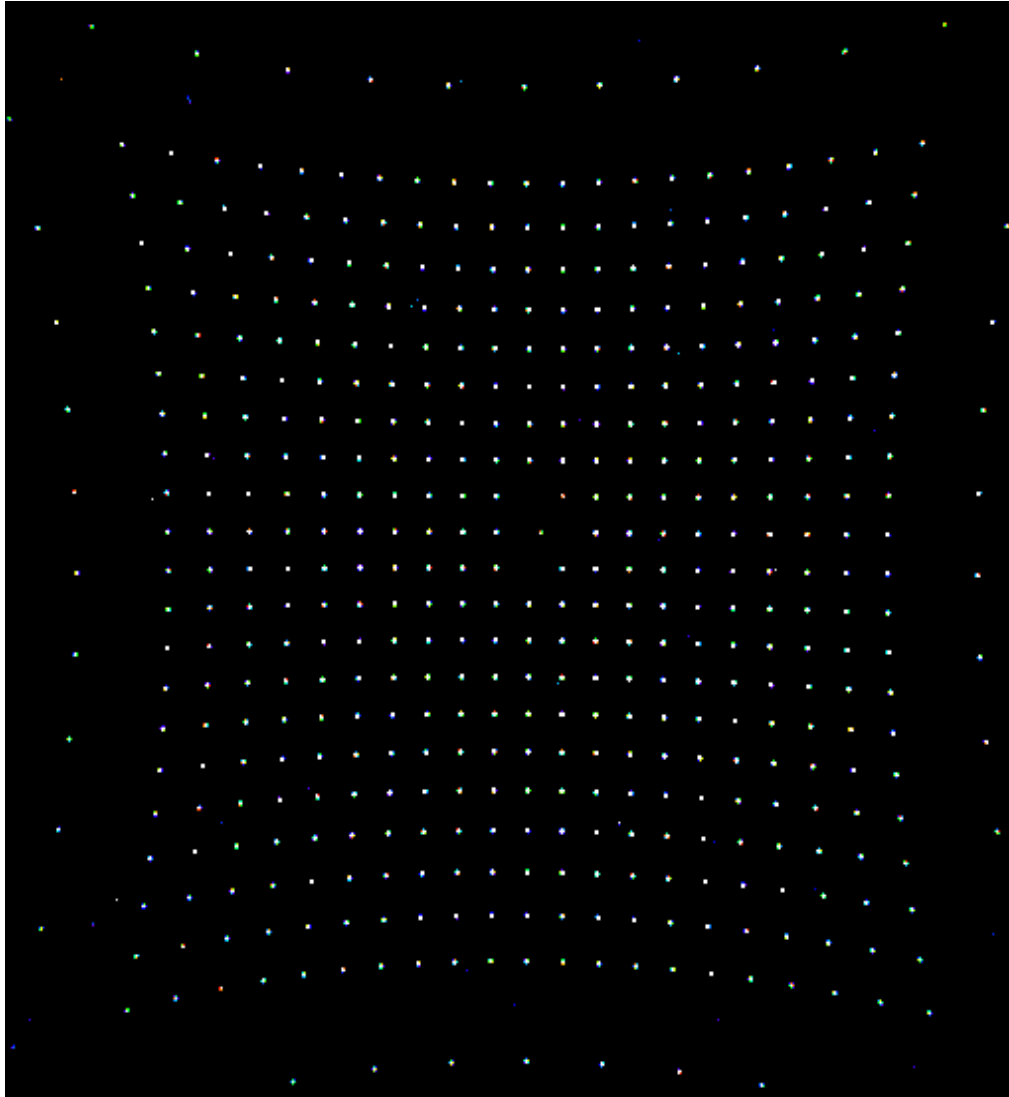
ESRF-Thompson IIT / CCD



Daresbury MWPC

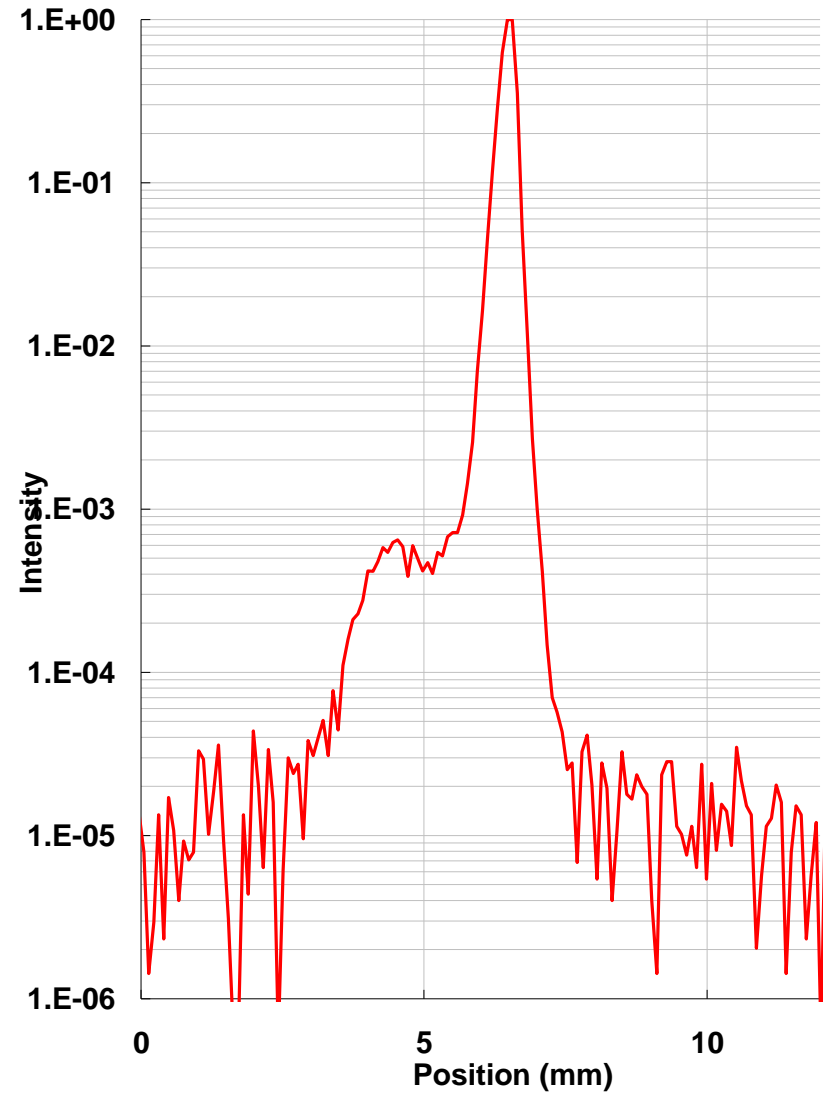
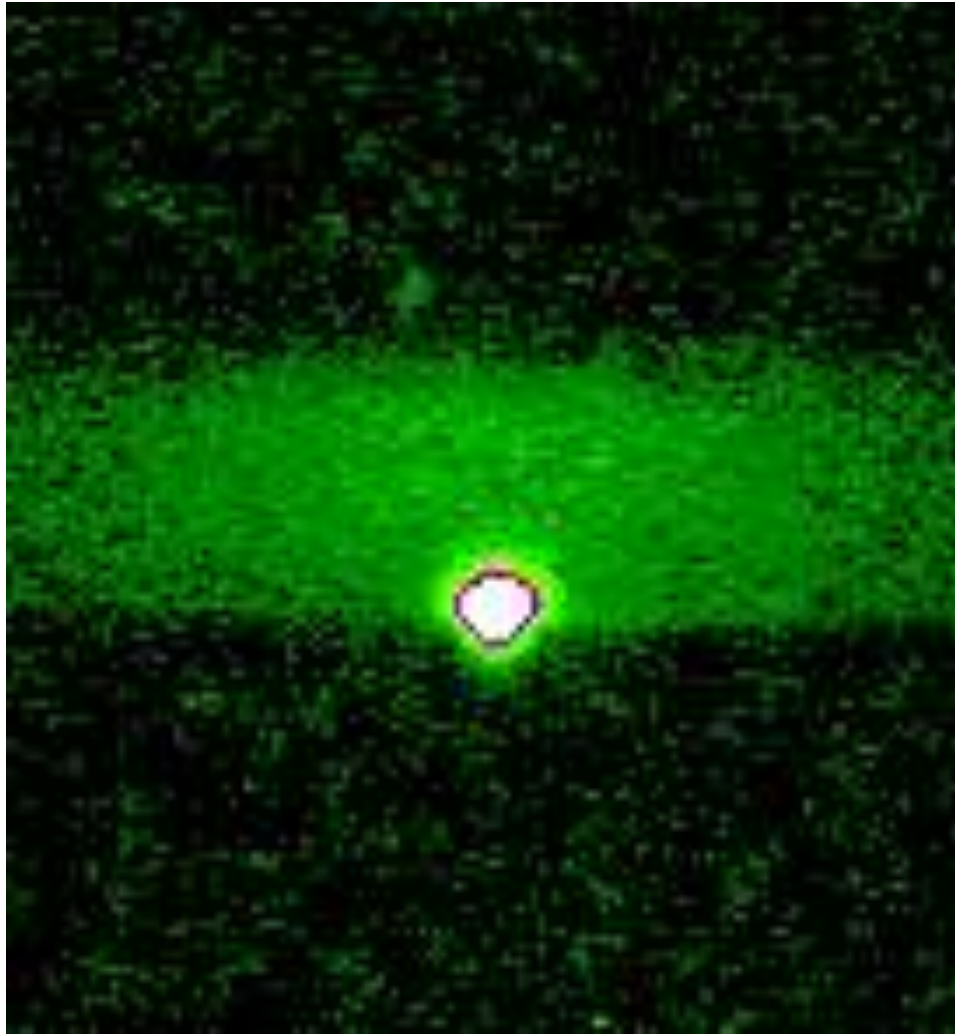


Spatial distortion

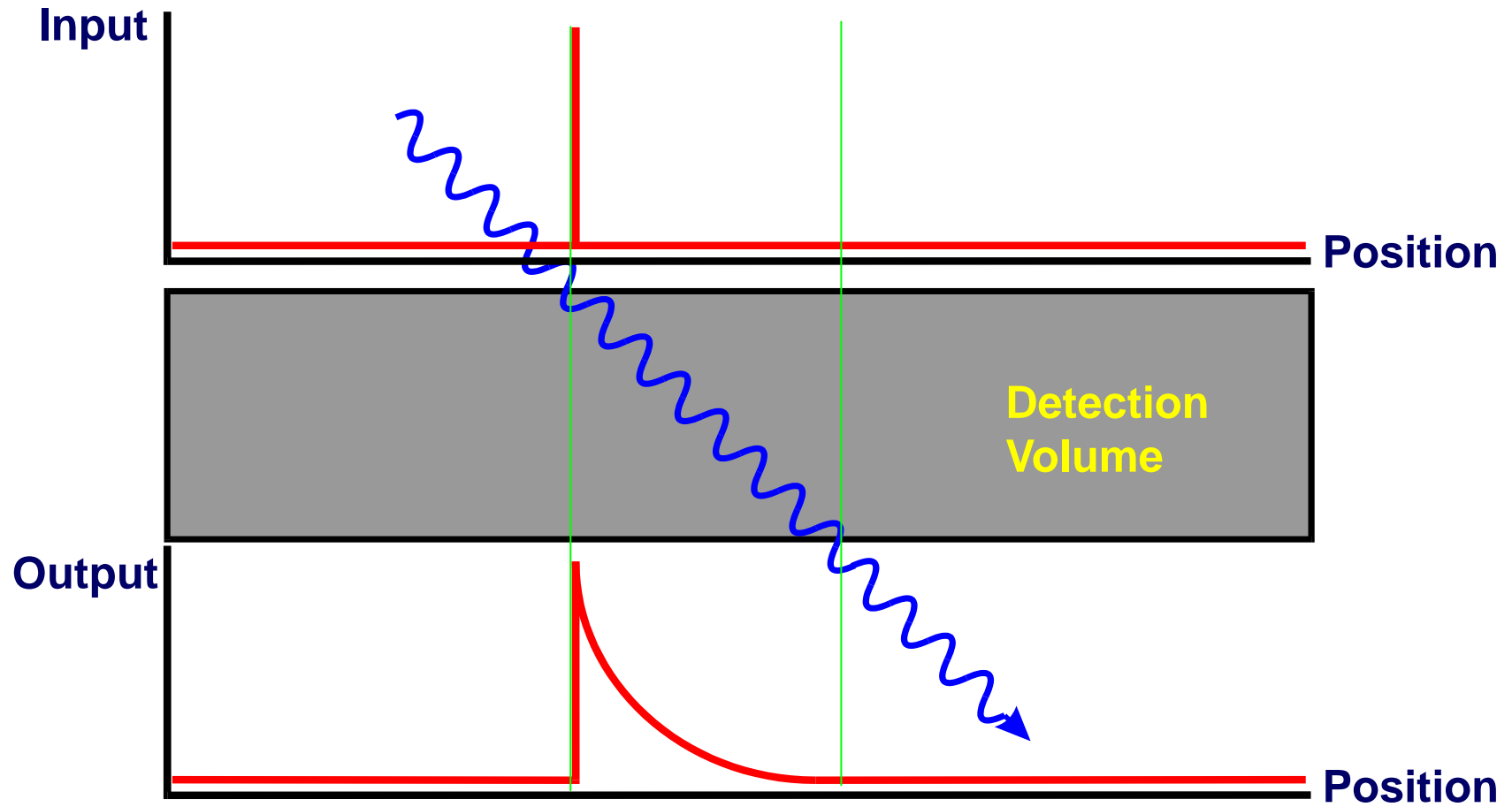


**ESRF Image
intensifier
detector**

IPlate Single Peak PSF



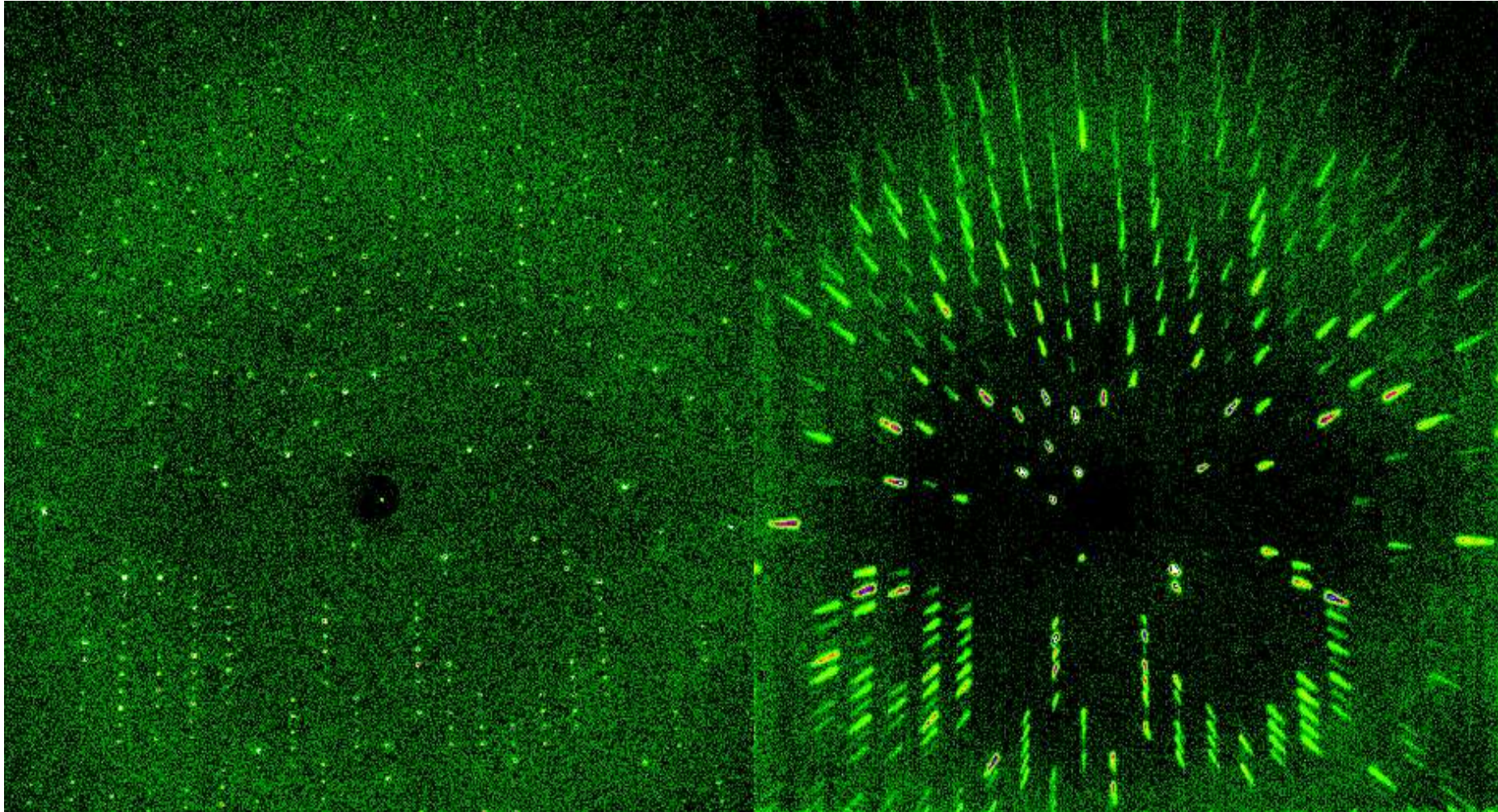
Parallax Broadening



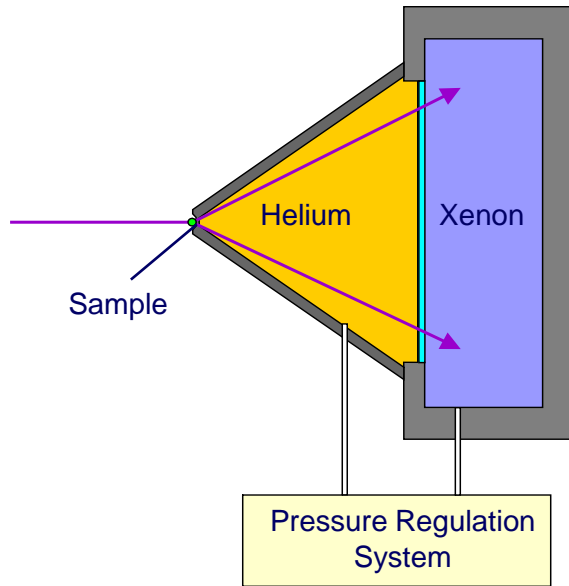
Parallax Effect

Image Plate

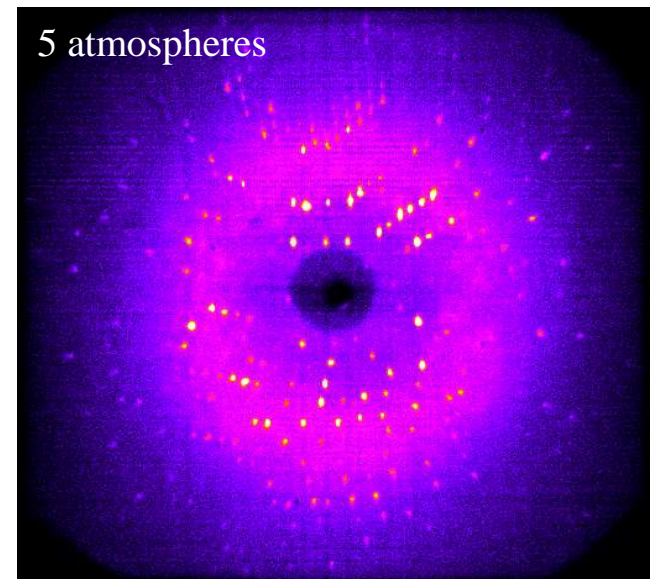
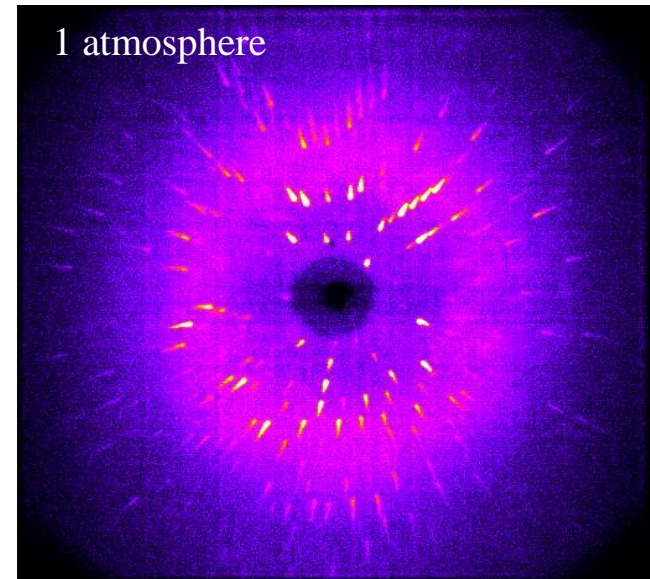
Gas Proportional Counter



Daresbury High Pressure MWPC



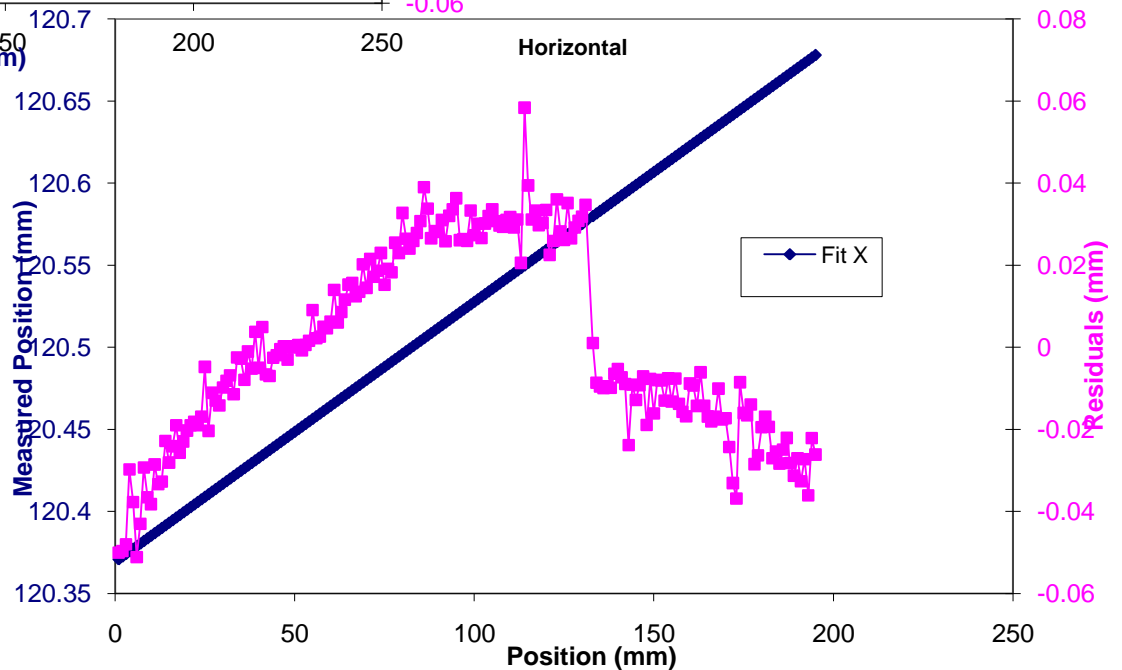
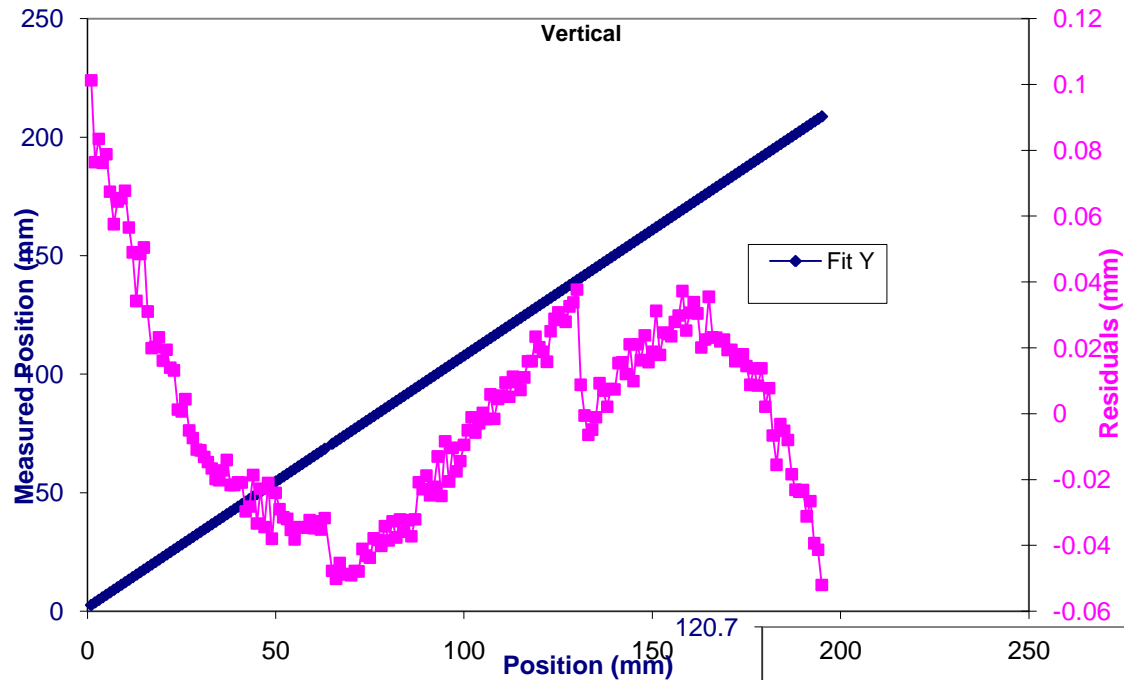
Force on 28 x 28 cm window at 5 bar = 4 tonnes
Force on window of 1 x 1 cm at 5 bar = 5 kg



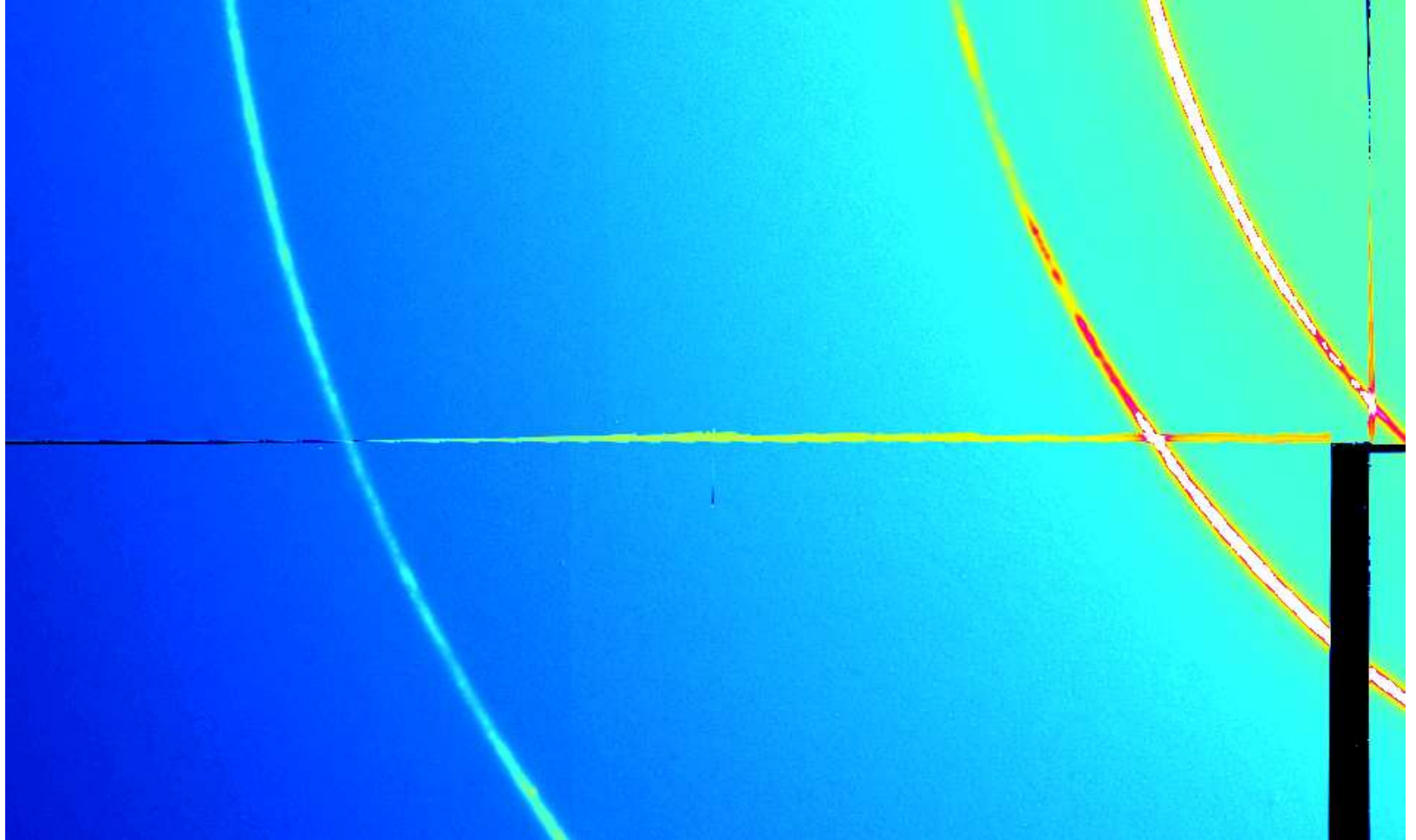
RAPID2 SAX WAX



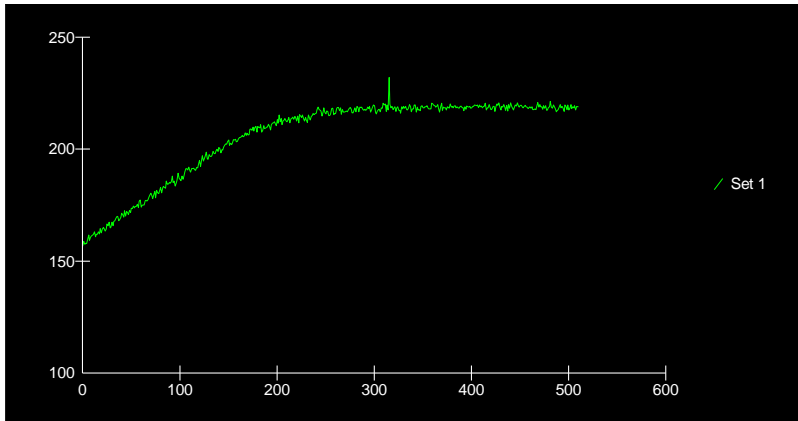
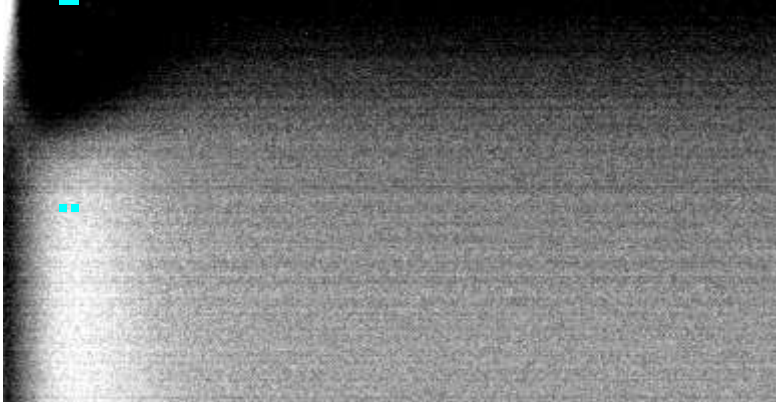
Geometric Distortion



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)

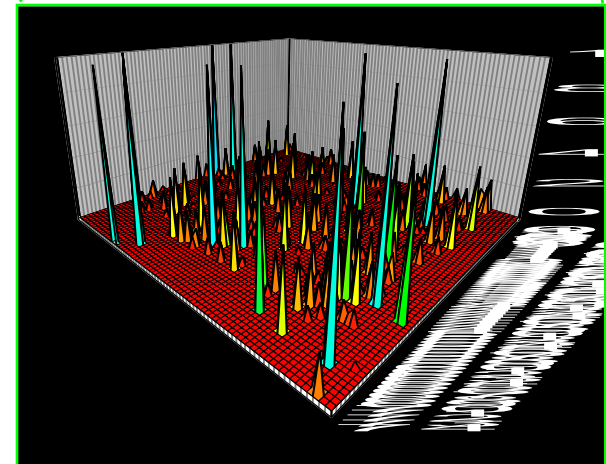
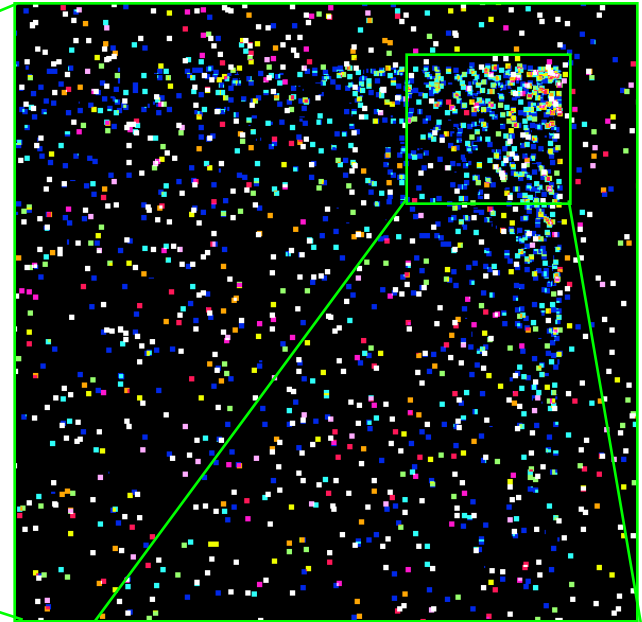
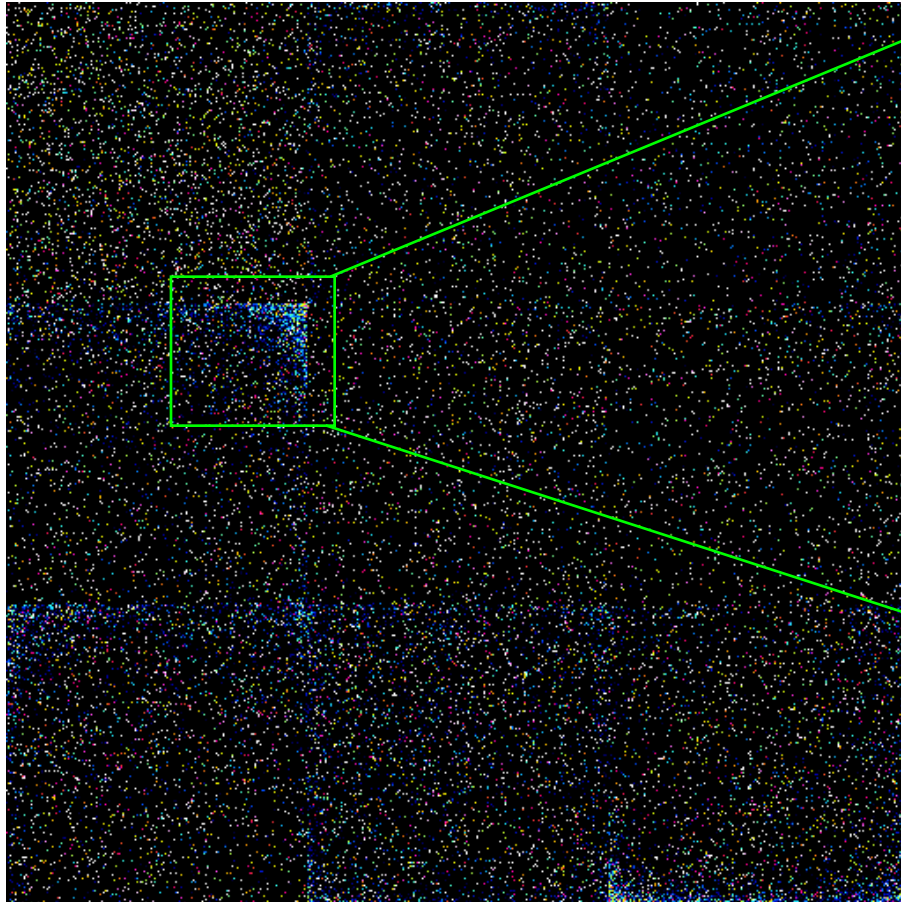
Both must be recorded with the same exposure time as the original image since dark current is a function of exposure time.

Then apply the following correction

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

Dark Current

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

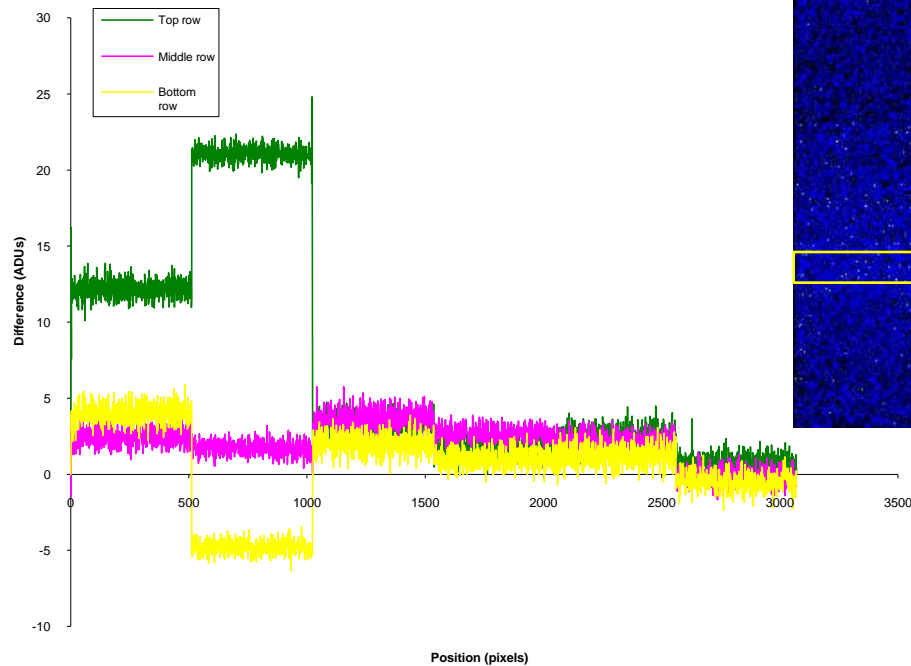
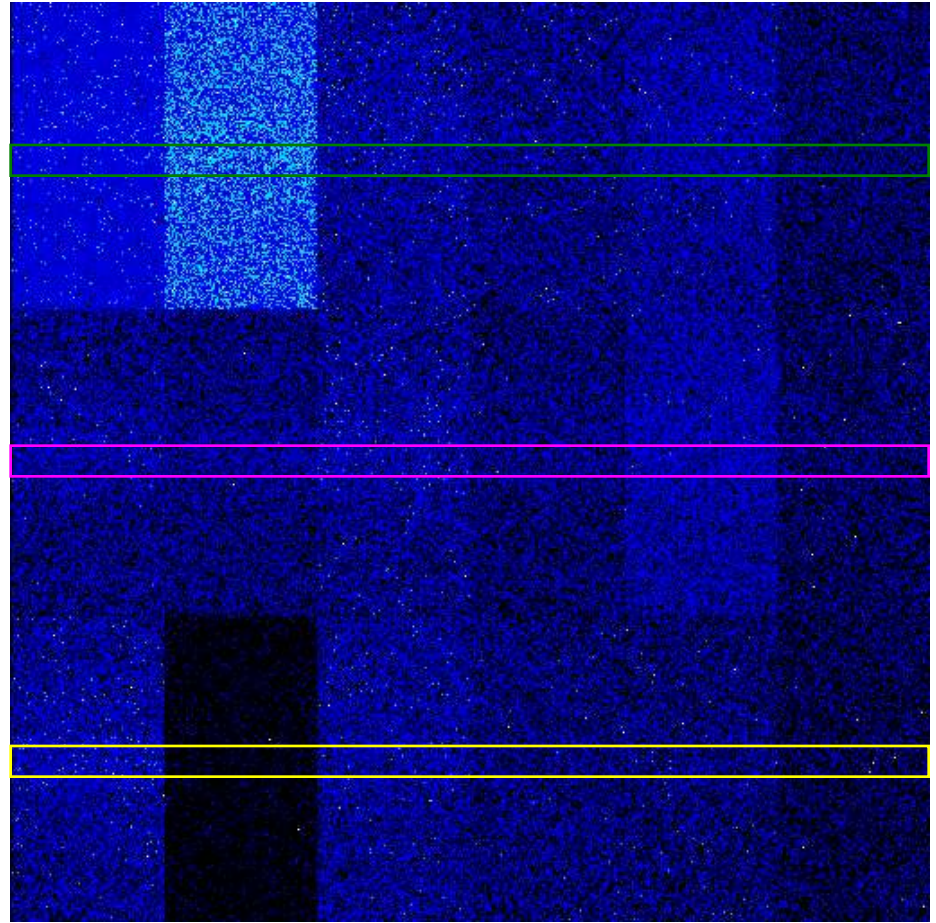


Number failing 2 measurements 5-2000s

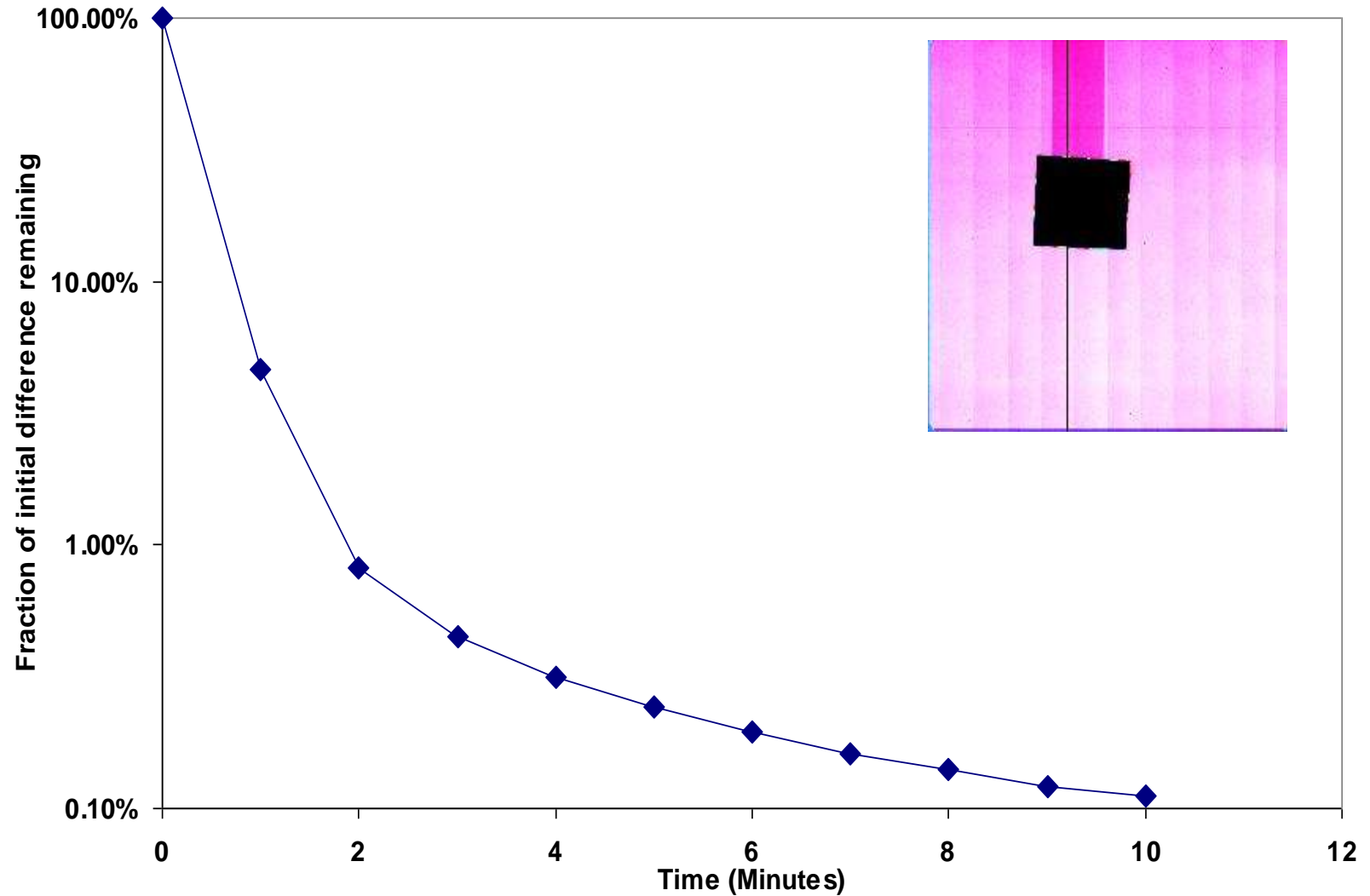
Mean	44764	0.47%
Min	40822	0.43%
Max	48706	0.52%

nb. 14300 pixels not common to both

Subtraction of dark images



Flashscan 30 - Image Lag



Radiation Damage (Medipix)

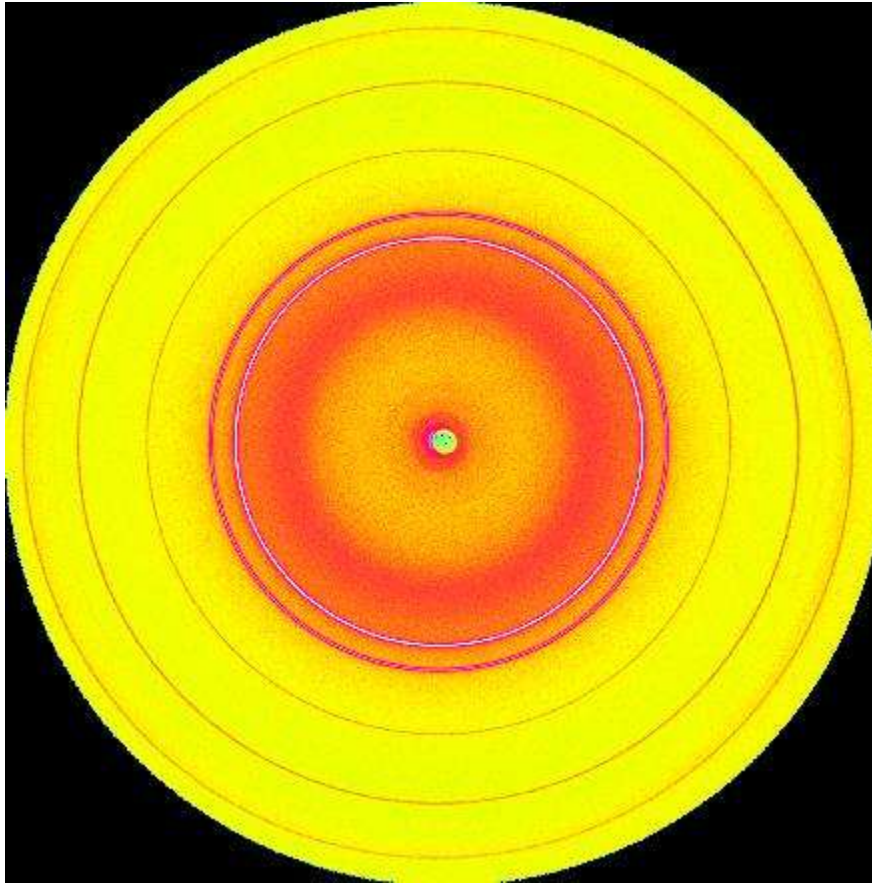
- Damage occurred at 40Gy or 1.3×10^{10} pht/mm² in the readout chip
- At 13 keV photon energy
 - ◆ Strong diffraction spots typically 10^5 phts/s or 10^6 phts/mm²/s
 - Damage requires ~ 8hours exposure
 - ◆ Direct beam (10^{10} – 10^{13} photons/mm²/s)
 - Damage in less than a second.

dpiX Flashscan 30 PaxScan 4030



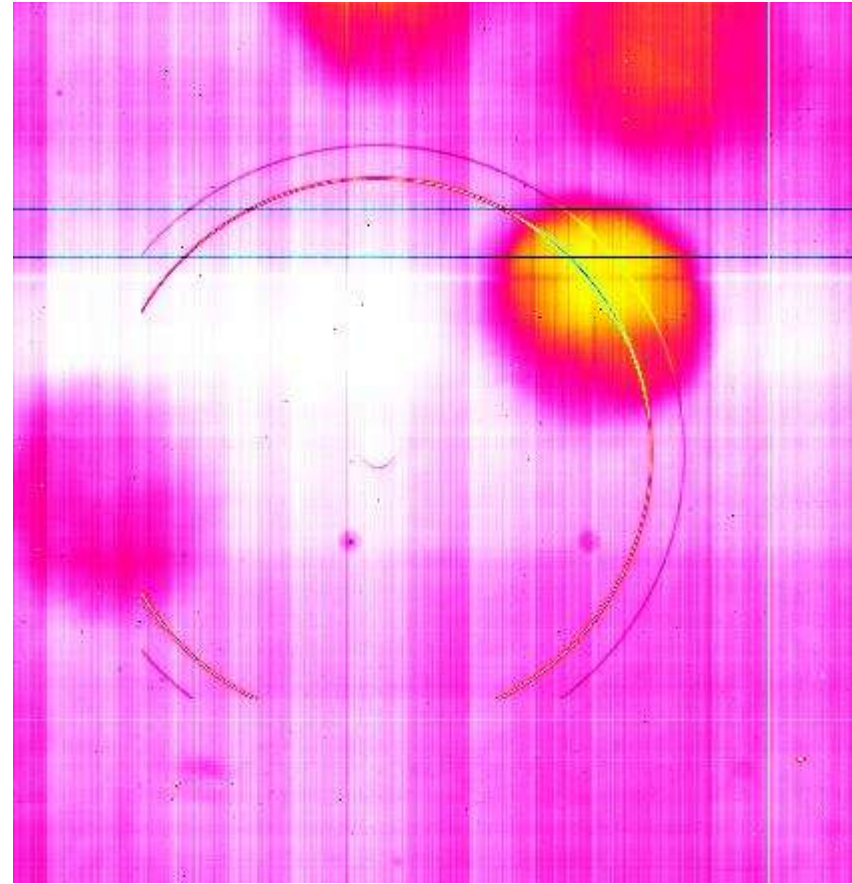
Flashscan 30 - Performance

Mar Image Plate



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

Flashscan-30



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

Electronics Issues

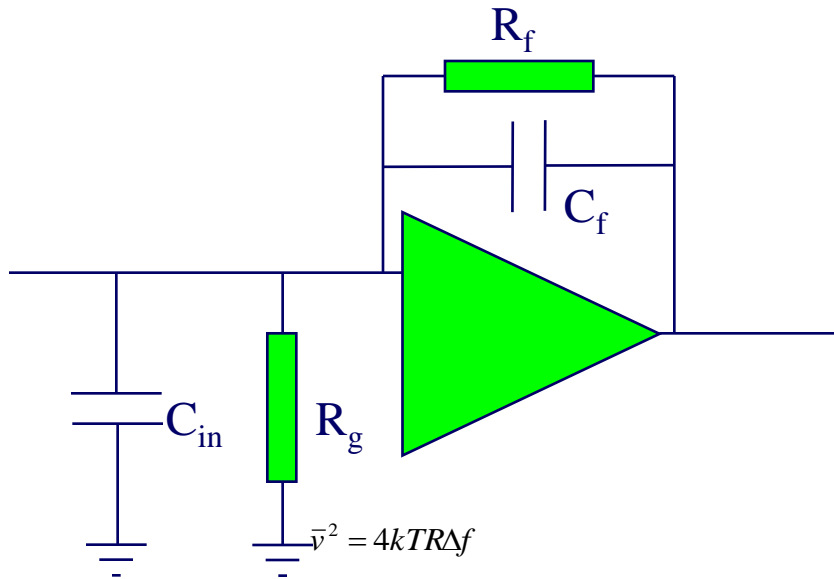


Koalas



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)
 - τ = 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

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

- τ optimum at

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

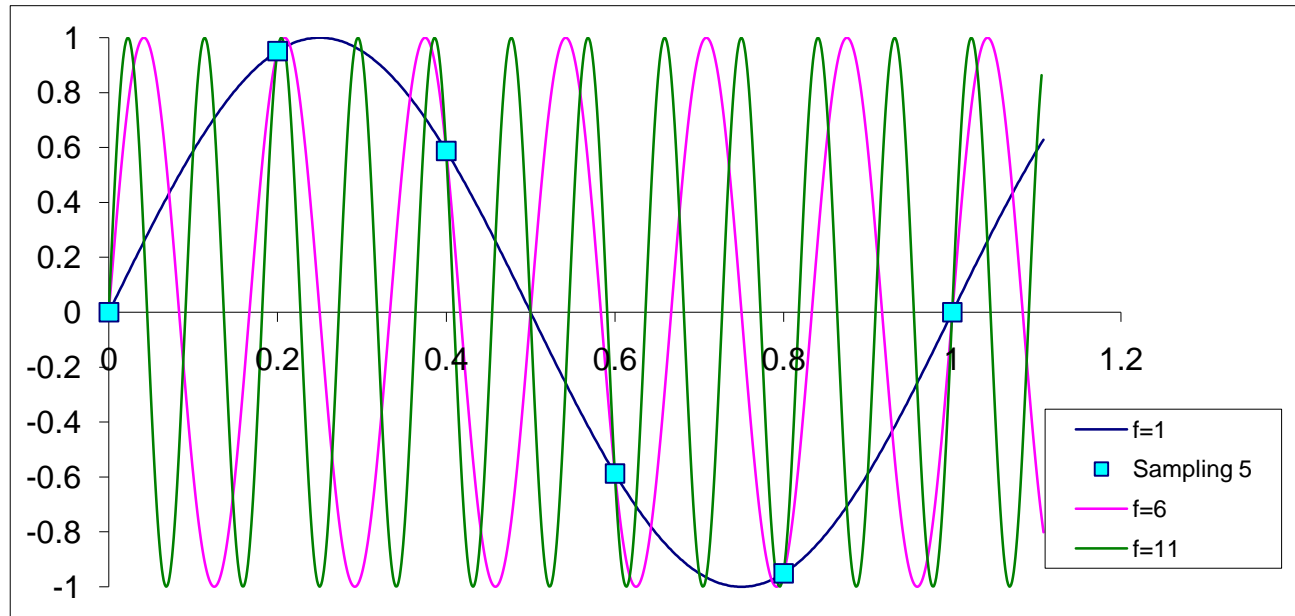
- Choosing optimum τ gives best noise performance but may not be fast enough
- We often have to sacrifice energy resolution for speed

Optimum τ

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

- 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

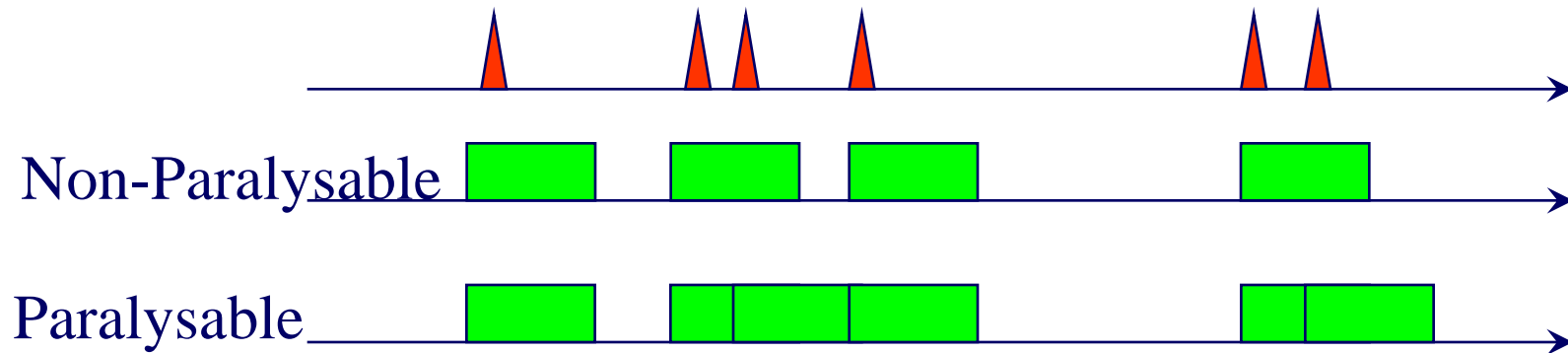


- Shannon's Theorem and Nyquist Criterion
 - ◆ The highest frequency that can be measured is twice the sampling frequency
- If the input is not band limited to frequencies less than $f_s/2$, then aliasing will occur at frequencies $f \pm nf_s$
 - ◆ where f = signal frequency, f_s = sampling frequency, 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



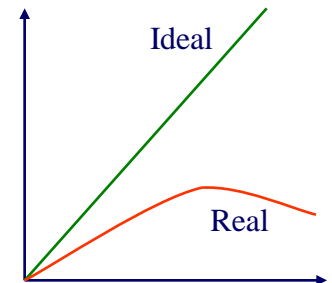
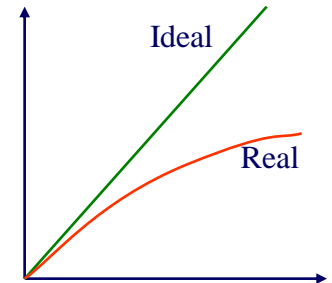
R_i =input rate, R_d =detected rate, τ dead time

■ Non-paralysable

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

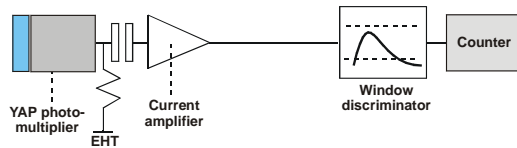
■ Paralysable

- ◆ R_d = Probability of getting no event within τ 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 $R_d = P(0, \tau) = R_i e^{-R_i \tau}$

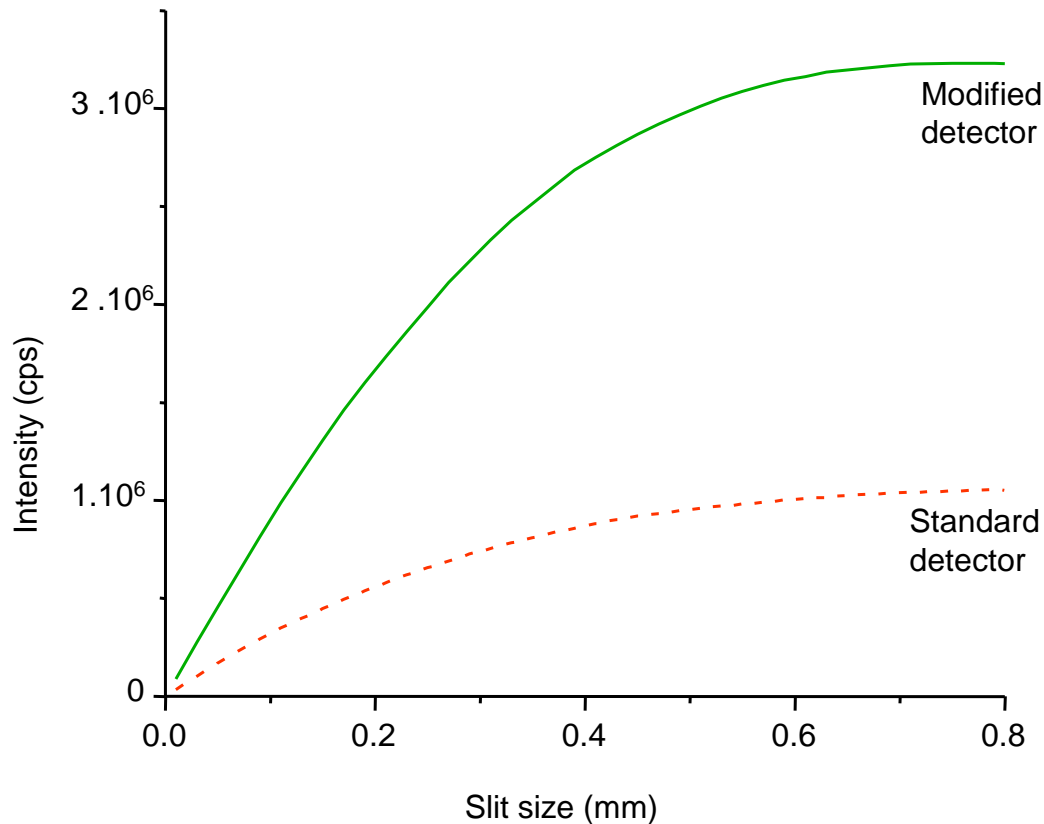
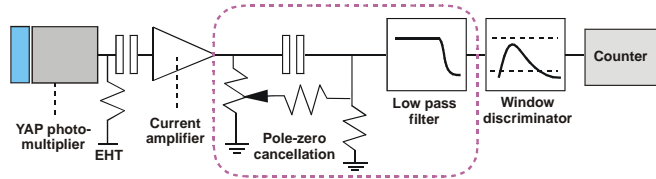


EDR Detector for Powder Diffraction

Standard Detector



Modified Detector

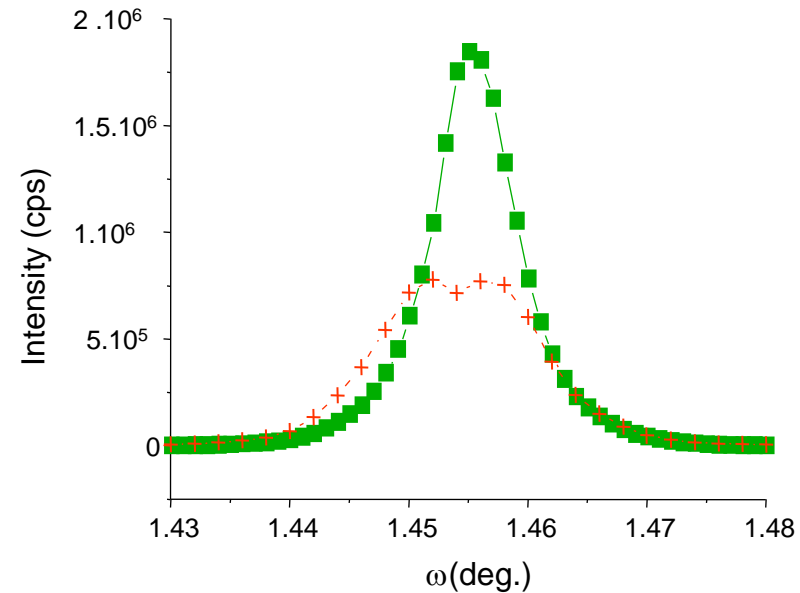


Standard detector

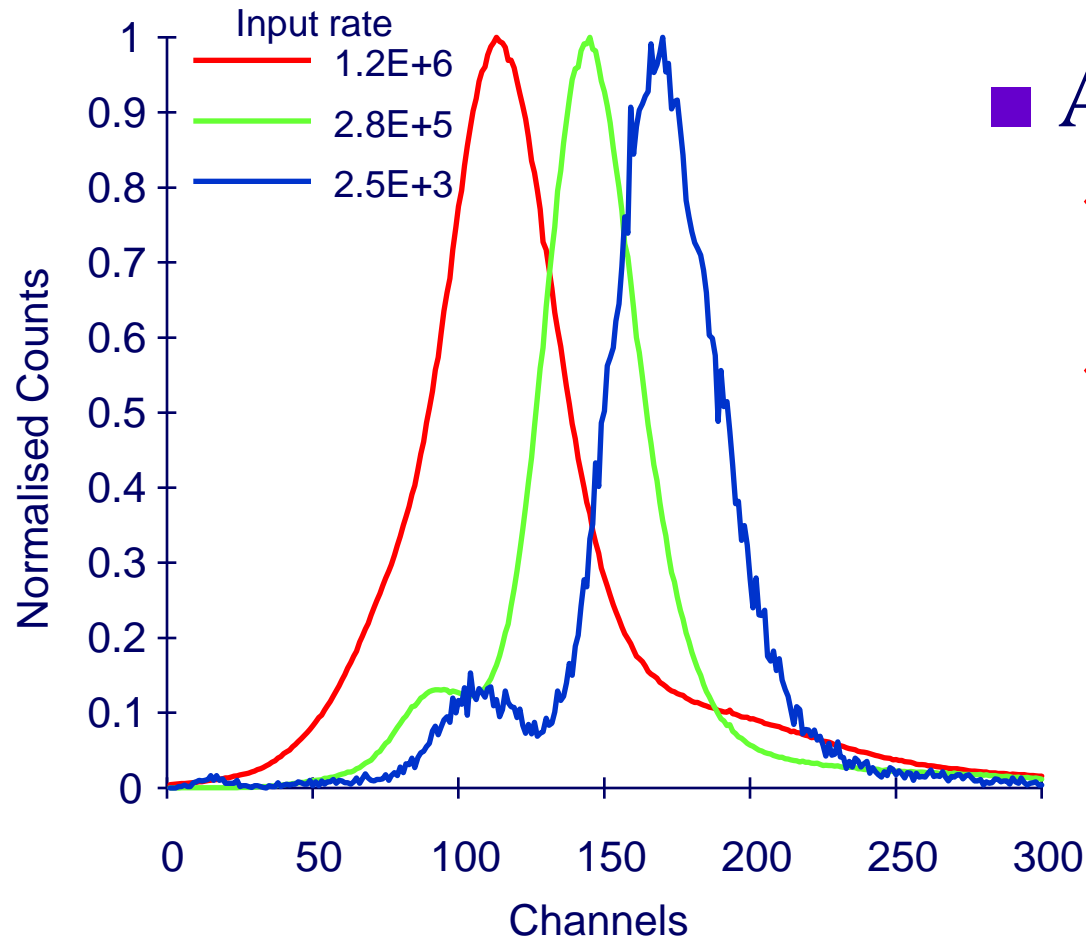
- Saturation count rate: 1 MHz
- Linear region: up to 300 kHz
- Electronic background: 0.2 cps
- Energy range: 4-25 keV

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

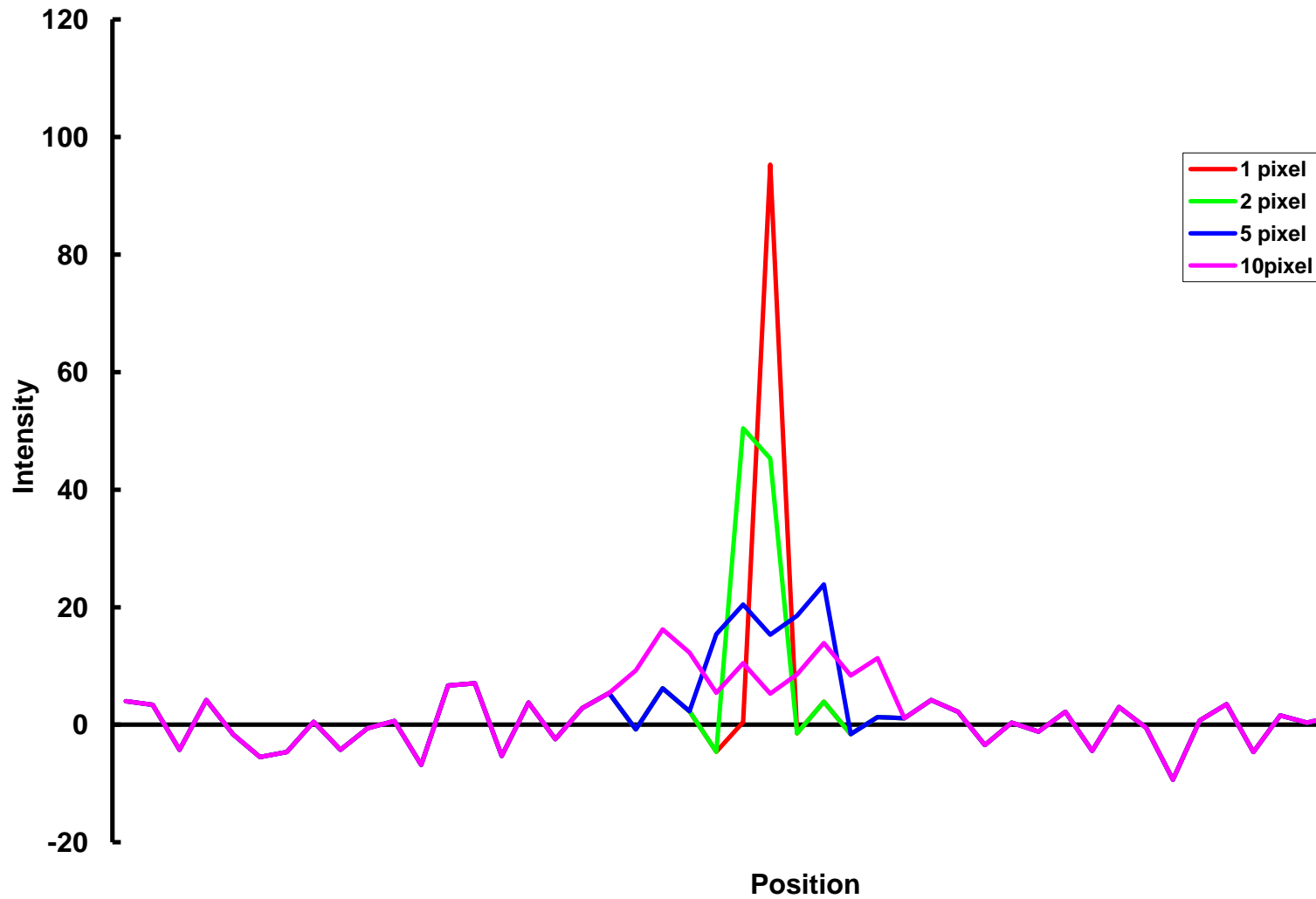
$$NEQ = SNR_{Non-ideal}^2$$

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

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

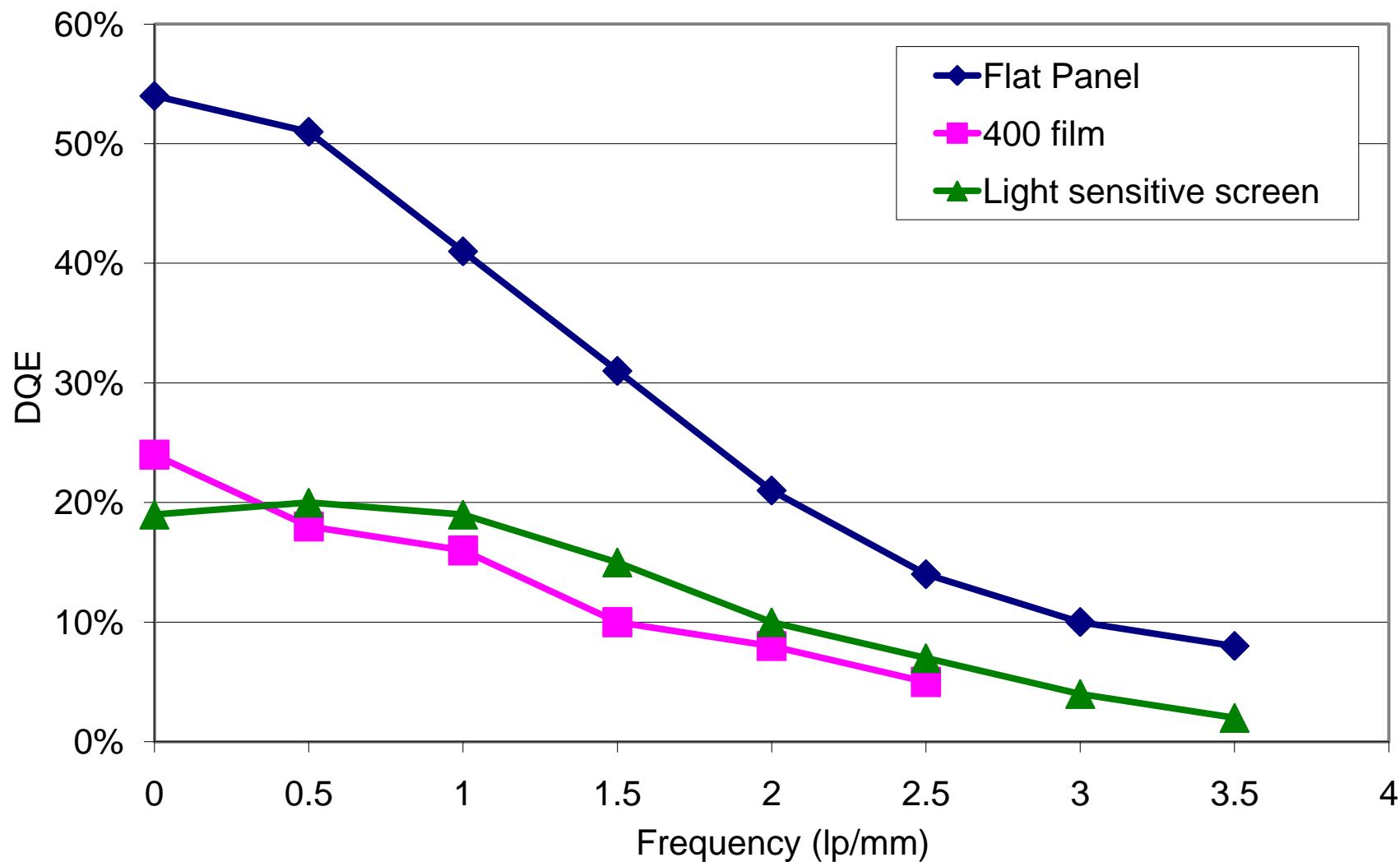
Note that DQE is f(spatial and spectral frequencies)

Effect of Peak Width



DQE Comparison

DN-5 beam
2.6 μ Gy

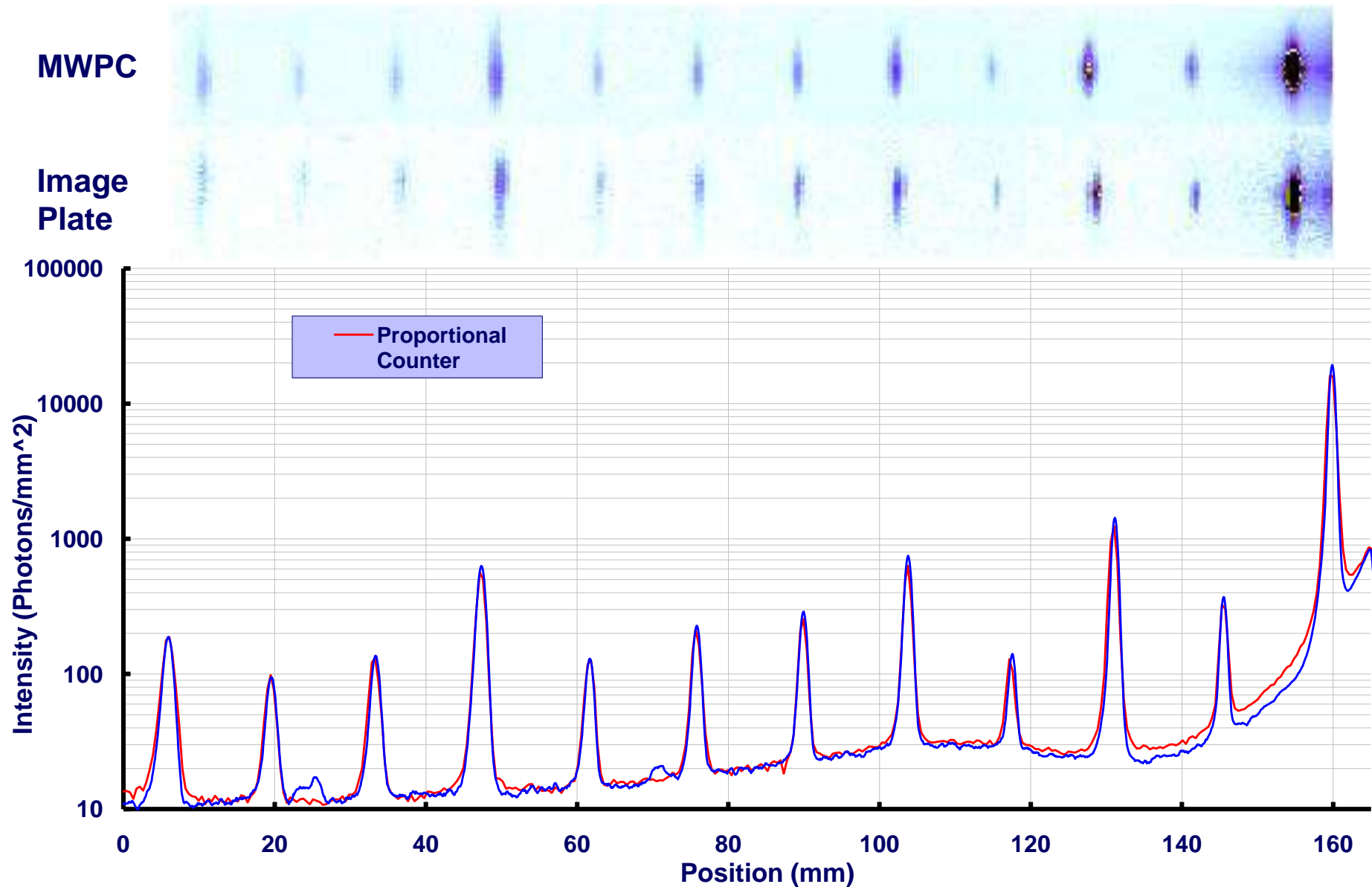


To Count or Not to Count



Tasmanian Devil

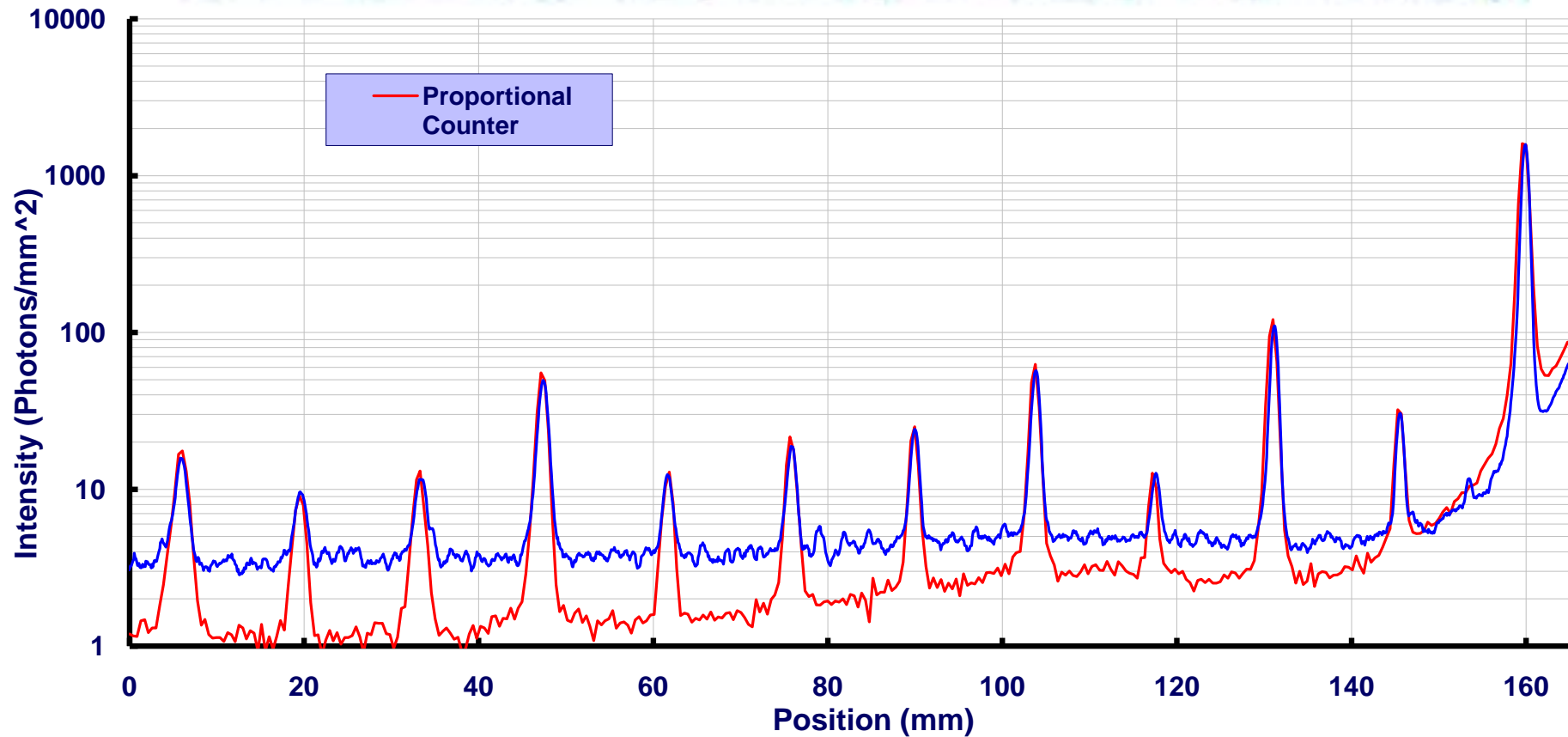
Collagen 100s Exposure



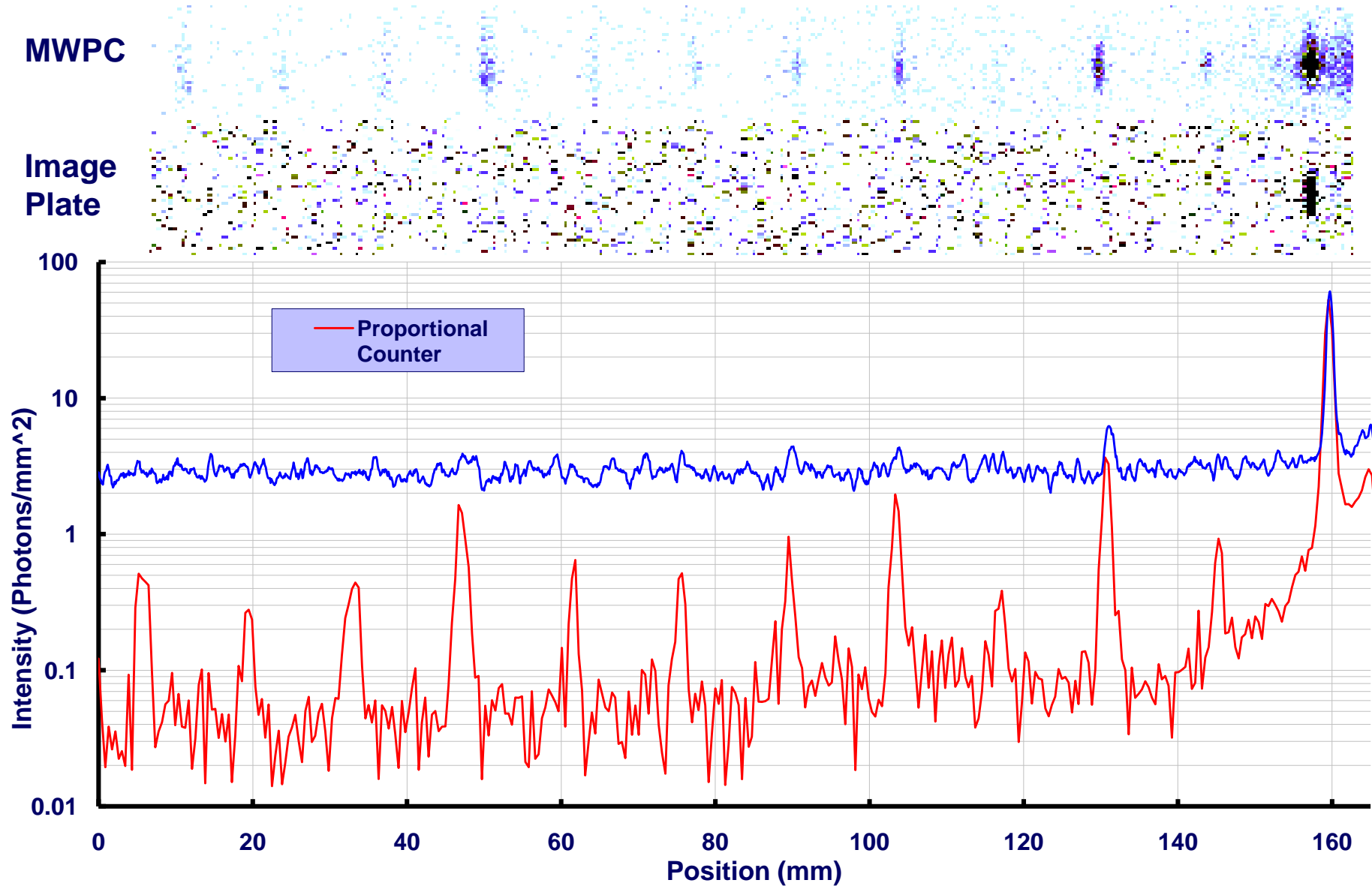
Collagen 10s Exposure

MWPC

Image
Plate



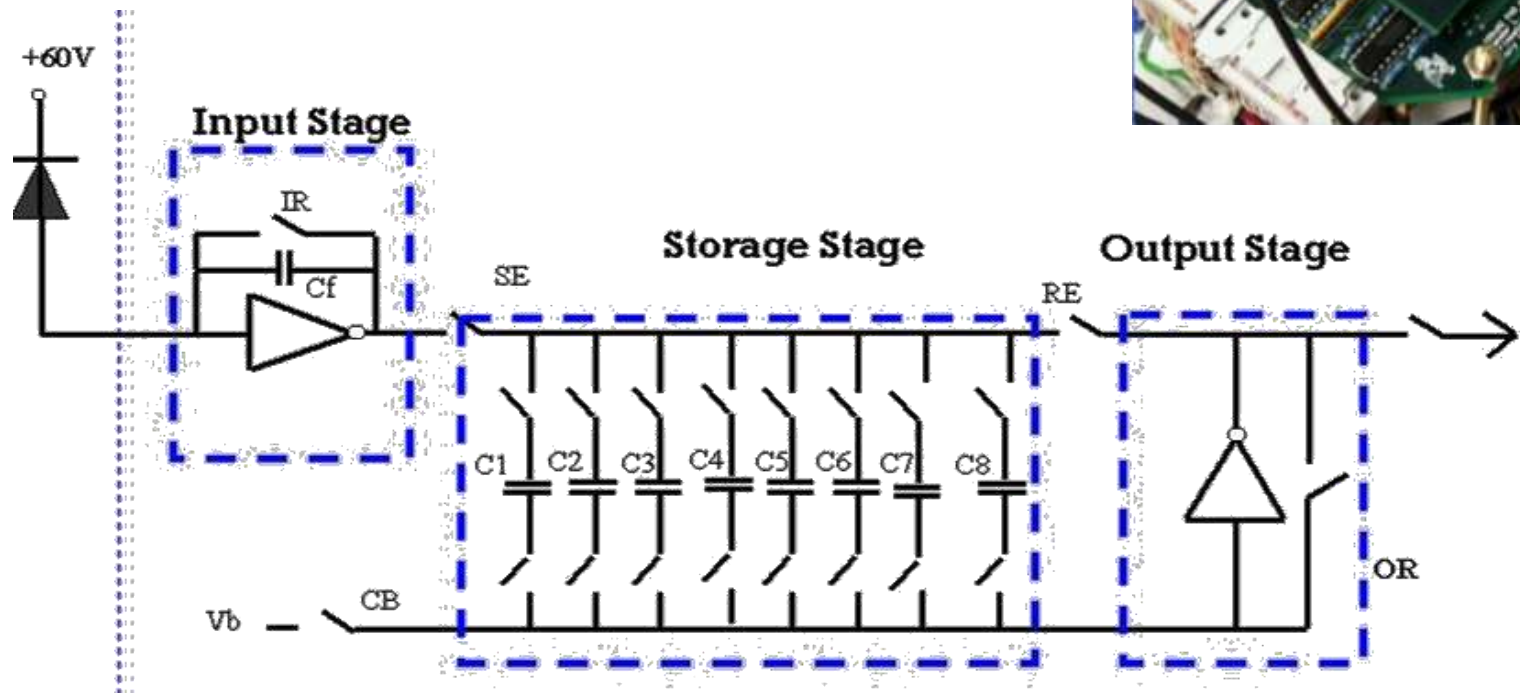
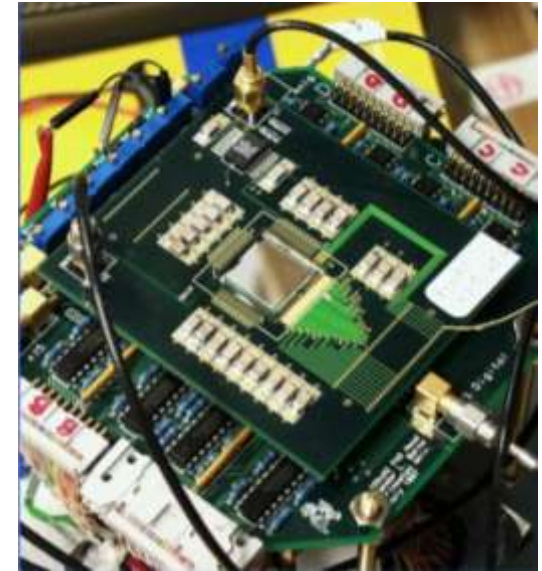
Collagen 0.3s Exposure



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_{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_6
- ◆ 10^8 - 10^9 X-rays/s/pix (6keV)
- ◆ 1.1ms Pulse

■ Movie

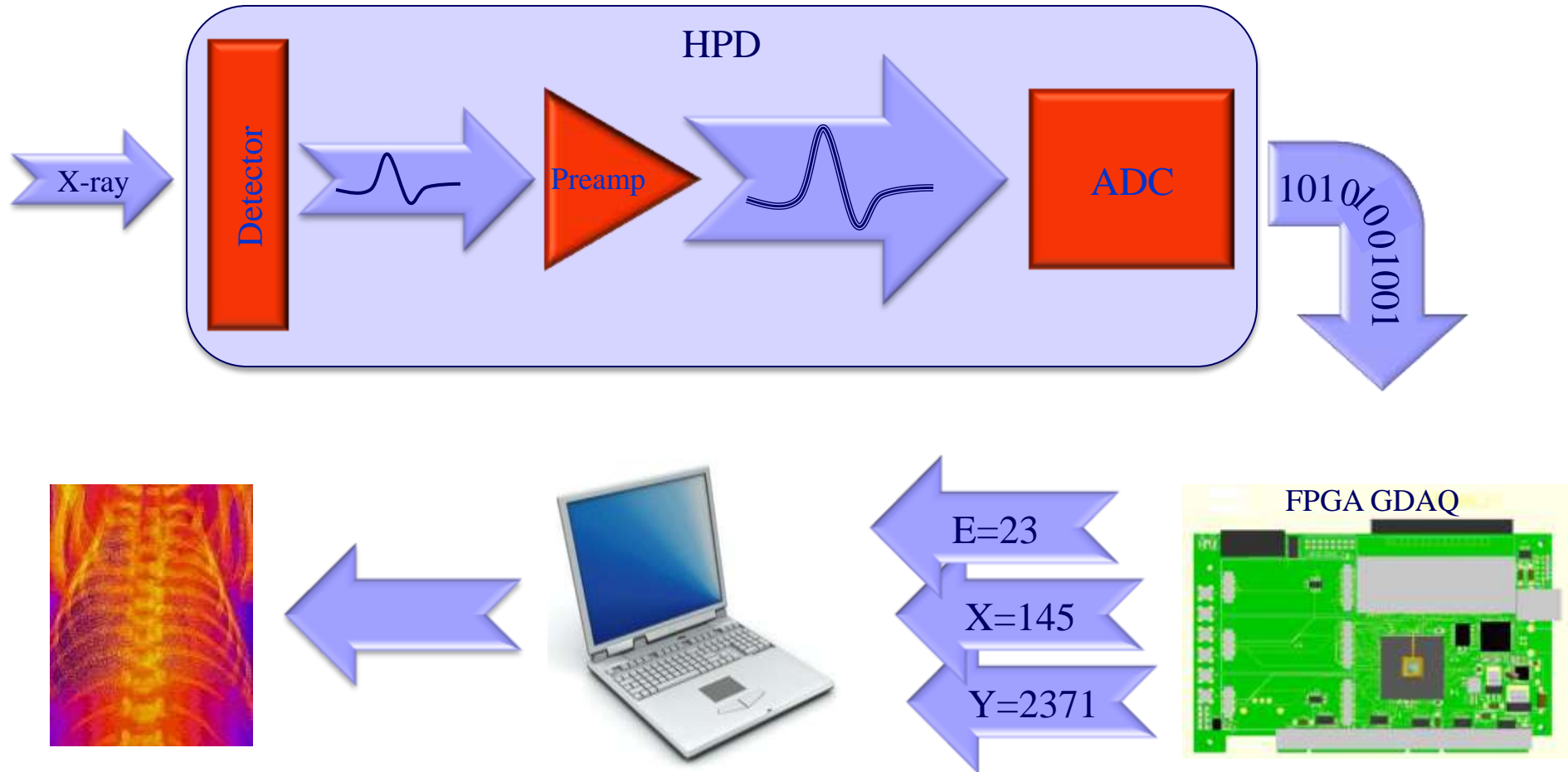
- ◆ Length 1.3ms
- ◆ Frame length $5.13\mu\text{s}$
- ◆ Dead time $2.56\mu\text{s} / \text{frame}$
- ◆ 168 frames (21 groups of 8)
- ◆ Average $20\times$ to improve S/N
- ◆ Sequence 5×10^4 images



The Future

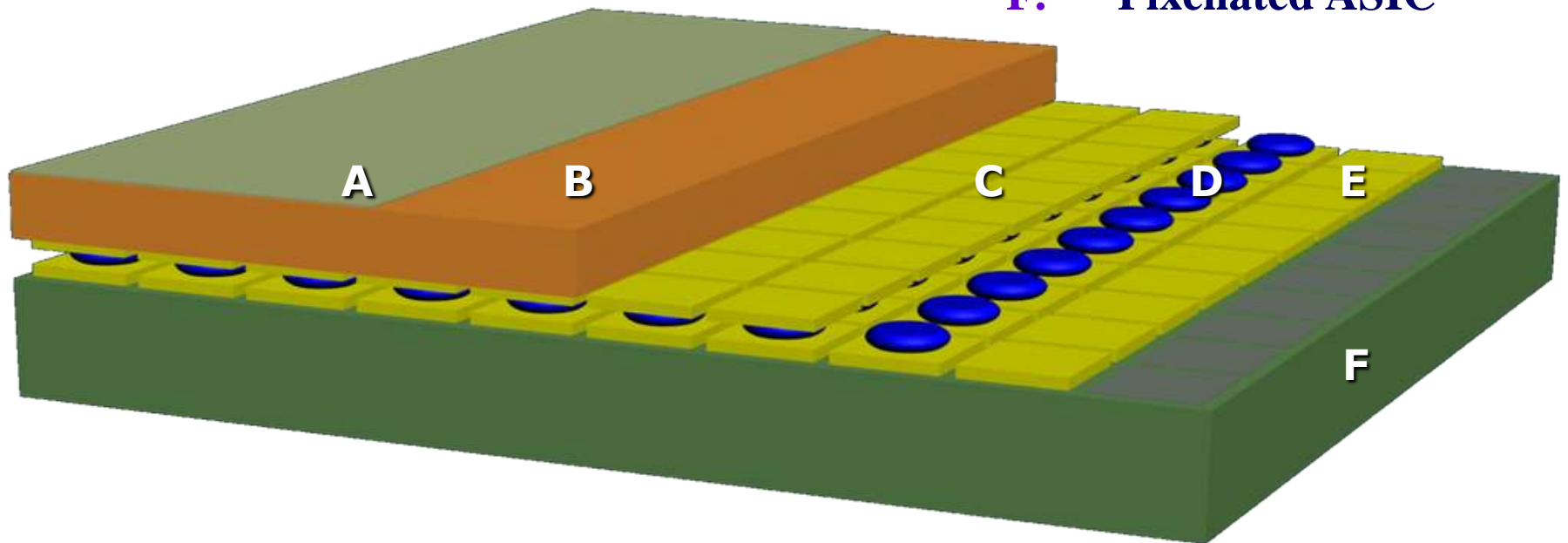


A Detector System

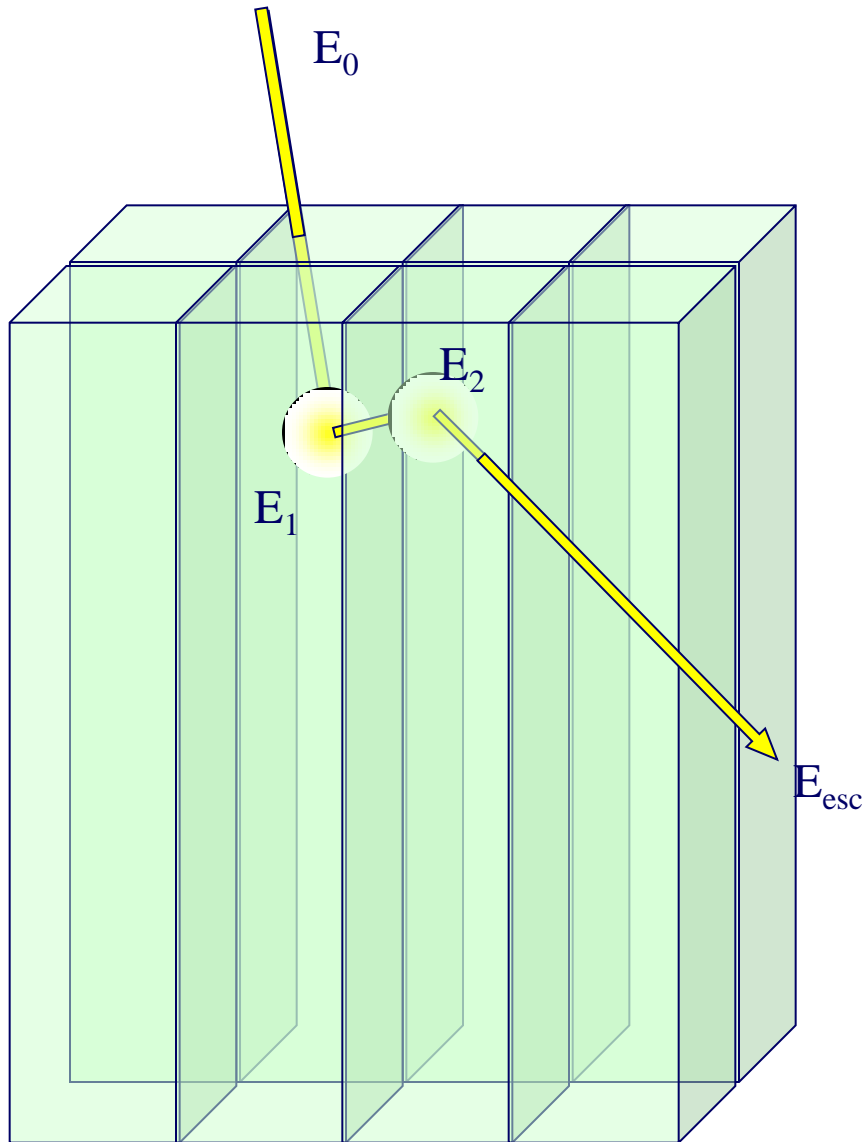


Pixel Array Detector

- 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
- $E_0 = E_1 + E_2 + E_{\text{esc}}$
- 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

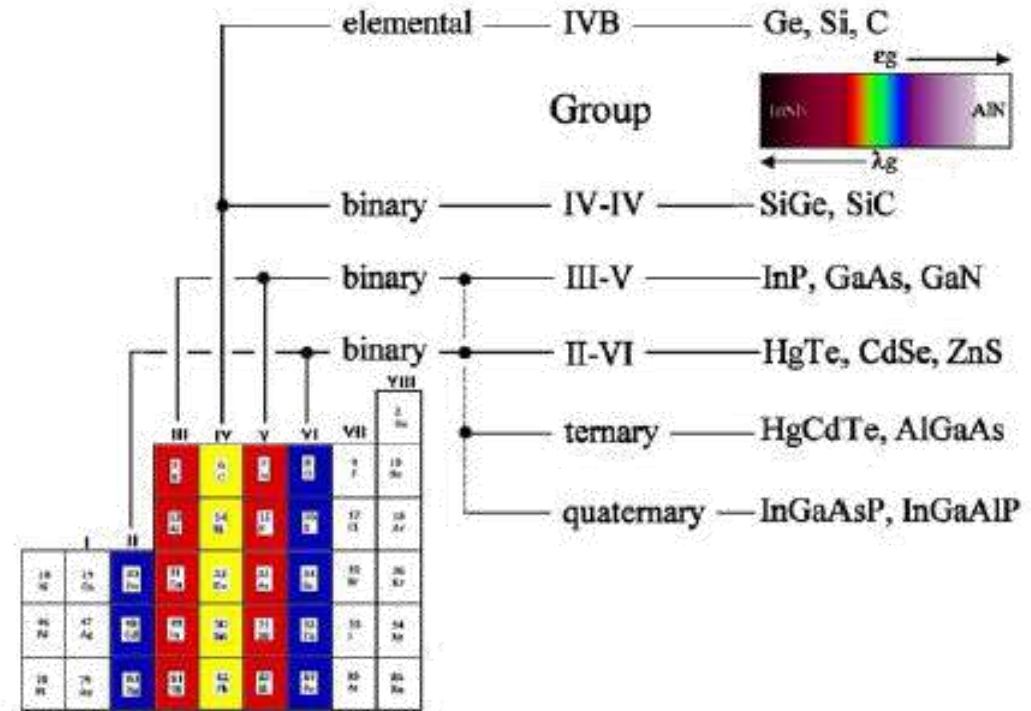
- Limited number of bits in counter

- ◆ Dynamic range issues for diffraction
- ◆ 15bits @ 1Mcps input rate = 30ms frame
- ◆ Read time can be significant
 - Fast read > high power

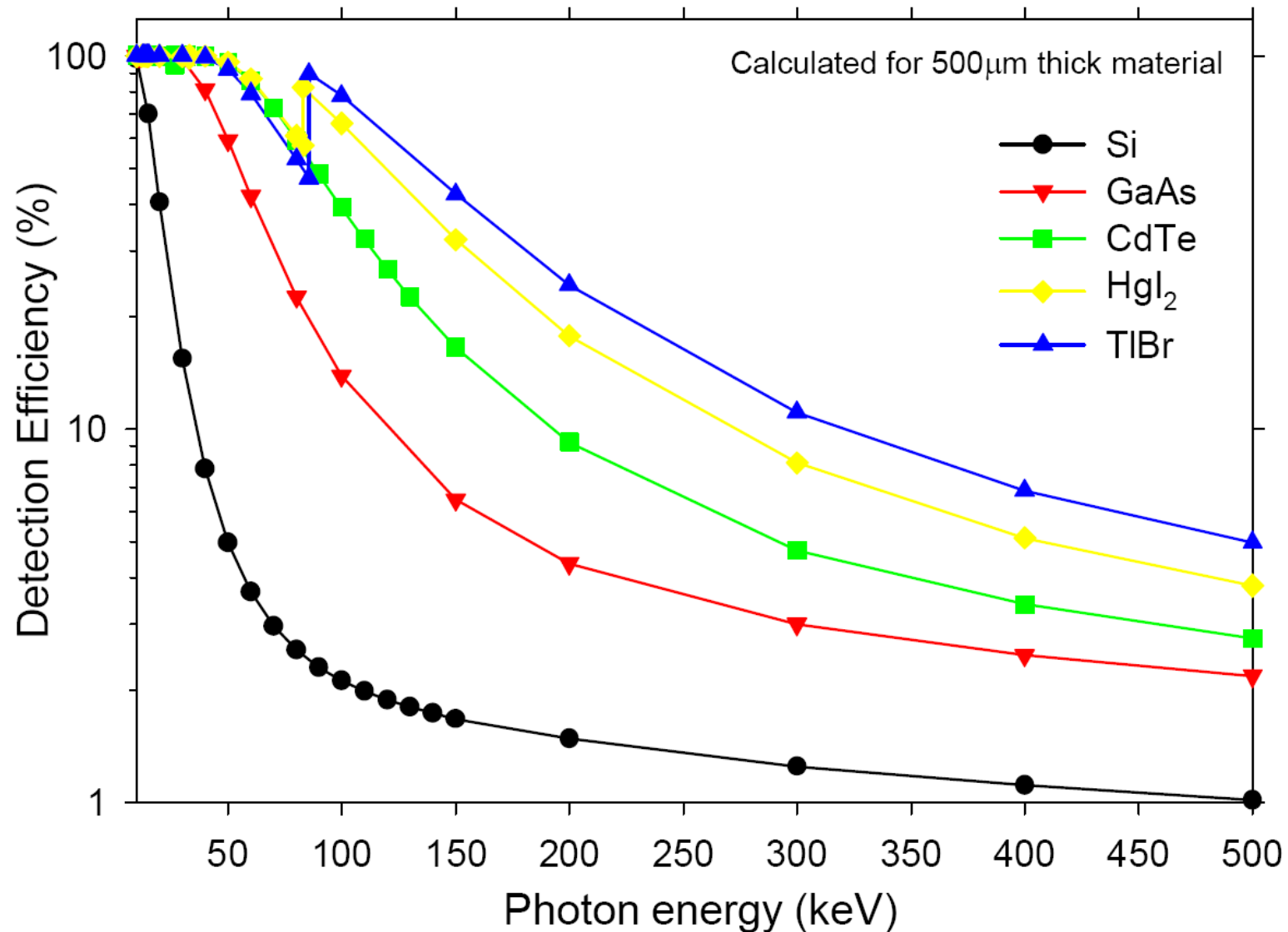
- Technology not yet good enough for microsecond framing

Available Compound Semiconductors

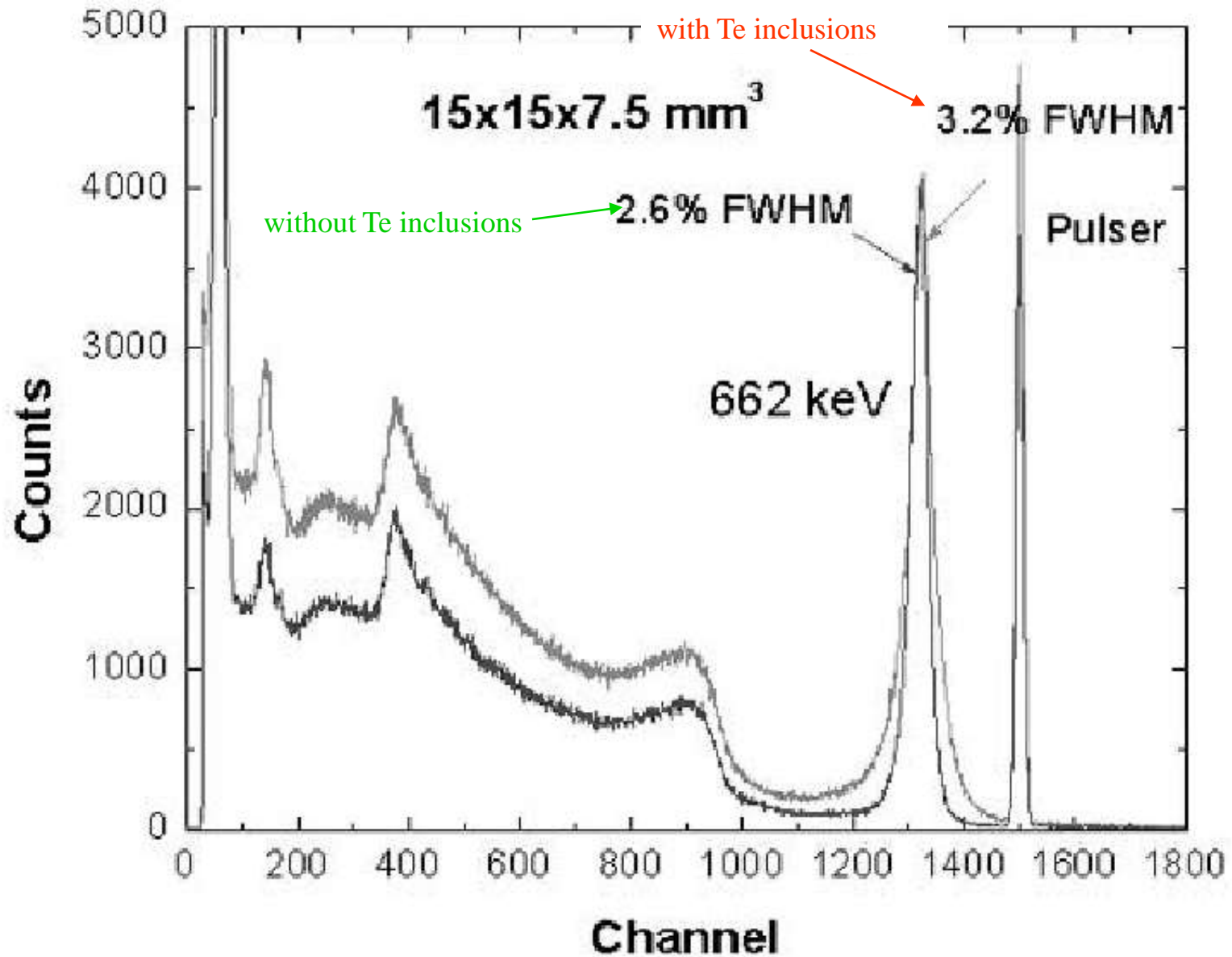
- Predominately CdZnTe, CdTe and GaAs.
- II-VI materials CdTe and CdZnTe cover a suitable range of band gaps:
 - ◆ 1.44 eV (CdTe), 1.57 eV (CdZnTe, 10% Zn), 1.64 eV (CdZnTe, 20% Zn)
- Resistivity of CdZnTe is higher than CdTe, hence lower dark current, higher spectroscopic resolution
- Poor hole transport 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 1989

- Proceedings of the 6th International Conference on position sensitive detectors

- ◆ Nuclear Instruments and Methods in Physics Research A513 (2003)

- IEEE Nuclear Science Symposia

Semiconductors

Material	ρ (Ω cm)	ϵ_r	τ_R (ms)	$(\mu\tau)_e$ (cm ² /V)	$(\mu\tau)_h$ (cm ² /V)
Si	$< 10^4$	11.7	1.0×10^{-8}	> 1	> 1
Ge	50	16	7.1×10^{-11}	> 1	$\simeq 1$
GaAs	1.0×10^7	11.0	1.1×10^{-5}	8.0^{-5}	4.0×10^{-6}
CZT	$3 - 5 \times 10^{10}$	10.9	$2.9 - 4.9 \times 10^{-2}$	$3 - 5 \times 10^{-3}$	$5 - 8 \times 10^{-5}$
CdTe	1.0×10^9	11.0	9.7×10^{-4}	3.3×10^{-3}	2.0×10^{-4}
HgI ₂	1.0×10^{13}	8.8	7.8	1.0×10^{-4}	4.0×10^{-5}
PbI ₂	1.0×10^{12}	$\simeq 10$	0.89	8.0×10^{-6}	6.0×10^{-7}

Readout Strategies

■ Imaging

◆ Massively parallel

- Position derived from individual pixel
- Highly parallel: 2000×2000 pixels = 4 million channels!!!
- Suitable for counting and integrating systems
- Pixel array detectors

◆ X-Y Interpolating

- Position derived from measuring signals
- Moderately parallel: 2000×2000 pixels from few hundred channels
- Only suitable for counting systems
- MWPCs e.g. RAPID

◆ Sequential

- Position derived from point in sequence
- Not really parallel
- Only really suitable for integrating systems
- CCDs, Image plates

■ Spectroscopic

- ◆ Can only add more channels for speed

Signal Levels

	Energy per electron hole pair, w (eV)	Stage 1 signal @ 10keV	Stage 2 Transfer to electron gain	Minimum N @ 10keV	Stage n 0 noise gain	Signal (e ⁻)
Gas Ionisation						
Argon	24.4	410e ⁻	1	410	10 ⁵	4×10 ⁷
Xenon	20.8	481e ⁻	1	481	5×10 ⁴	2.4×10 ⁷
Solid State						
Silicon	3.62	2760e ⁻	1	2760	1	2.8×10 ³
Germanium	2.96	3380e ⁻	1	3380	1	3.4×10 ³
Fluorescence or scintillation						
NaI(Tl) + PMT		266 photons	0.1	30	10 ⁵	3×10 ⁶
Gd ₂ O ₂ S + IIT		500 photons	0.04	20	10 ⁴	2×10 ⁵
BaFBr:Eu ²⁺		75 F centres	0.07	5	10 ⁵	5×10 ⁵



Scintillators - Basic Properties

	Light O/P [photons/keV]	Decay Time [ns]	Emis. Wavelength [nm]	Density [g/cm ³]
NaI(Tl)	38	250	415	3.7
CsI(Tl)	54	1000	550	4.5
BaF ₂	10	0.7/630 fast/slow	220/310 fast/slow	4.9
LaCl ₃ (Ce)	49	28	350	3.8
LaBr ₃ (Ce)	66	16	380	5.1

FWHM energy resolution at @ 662 keV

NaI(Tl) $\Delta E/E \sim 6\%$

LaCl₃ $\Delta E/E \sim 4\%$

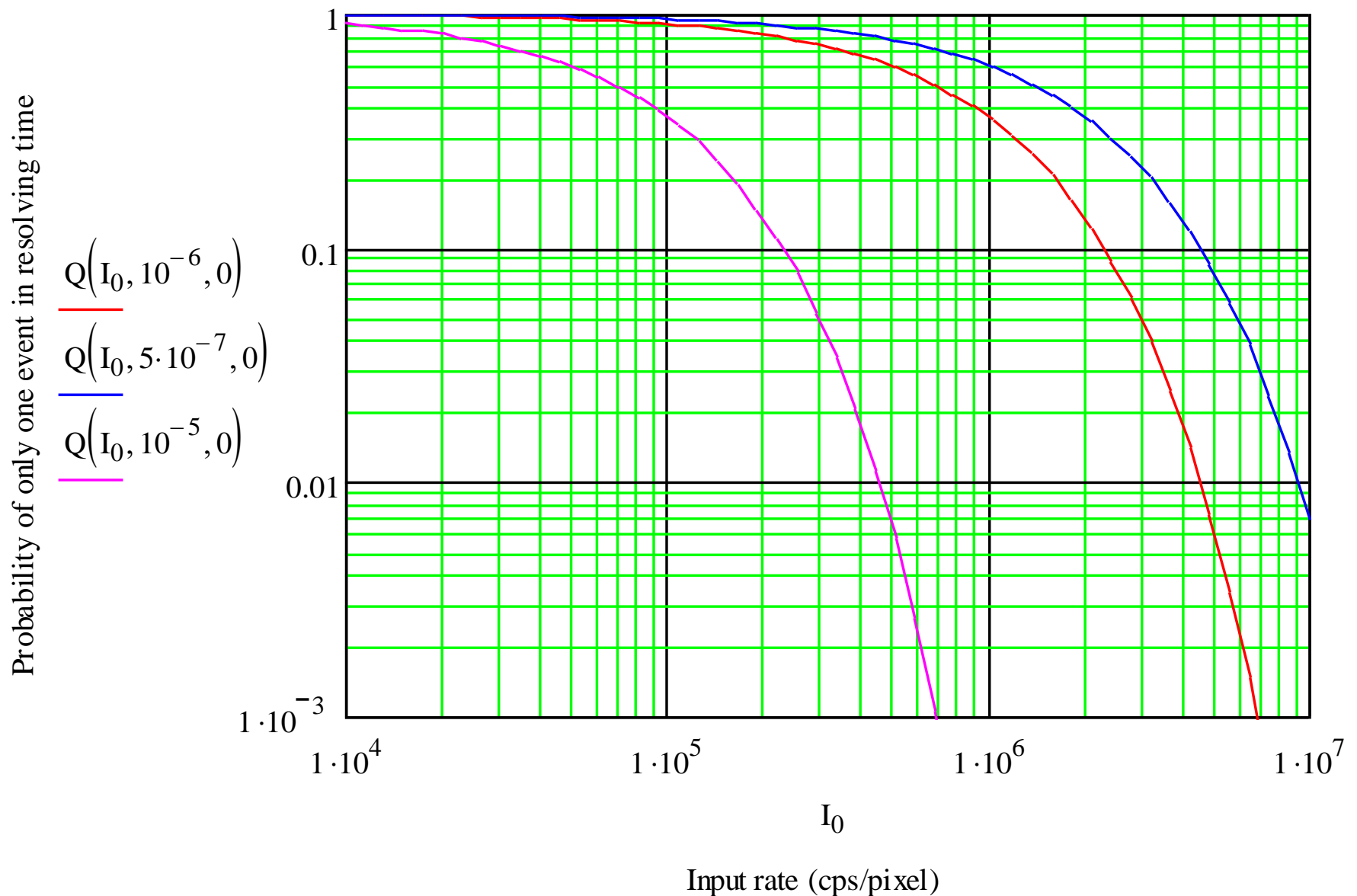
LaBr₃ $\Delta E/E \sim 3\%$

CdZnTe $\Delta E/E \sim 2\%$ (*after correction for carrier recombination*)

Tortoise and Hare?

- Accelerators currently 10^{13} - 10^{14} photons to sample
- New machines e.g. XFEL, TESLA
 - ◆ 10^{25} photons to sample!!!
- Detectors
 - ◆ Currently 10^7 - 10^8
 - ◆ In 10 years.....
- Hare shows no sign of slowing down
- Tortoise is not catching up

Probability of Single Events



Resolving time required

