MEASURING THE TEMPERATURE OF X-RAYS WITH SUPERCONDUCTING DETECTORS



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Low temperature detector working principle

- Low Temperature Detectors (LTDs) are very sensitive thermometer able to detect a temperature variation of the order of a fraction of mK
- The idea is to measure, with a temperature sensor, the energy deposited inside the detector after it has been converted into heat
 - Perfect calorimeters (in principle)
 - Phonon detectors!
 - Extremely small signals





A few definitions:

- Calorimeter: it measures the energy
- Bolometer: it measures the power.
- Macrocalorimeter: mass O(100) g, size O(1) cm
- Microcalorimeter: mass < O(1) mg, size < O(100) um

Neutrino mass Majorana neutrino -Dark matter CNB neutrinos Applied physics Astrophysics Gravitational waves IR, X,... astronomy

EDS spectroscopy

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Beamline spectroscopy





CMB

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Transition Edge Sensors (TES) for X-ray detection

A Transition edge sensor is a superconductor film operated in the narrow temperature region between the resistive and the superconducting state
Transition character up with the transition

The resistance is strongly dependent on temperature

- The TES design can be changed to match different experimental needs
- Typical detector dimension: 10-300 μm Signal time O(100-1000) μs

Practical collecting area and photon counting capability only when built into array of devices

Competitive with HPGe and solid state and wavelength-dispersive spectrometers





Why use TES

Pros

- Very high energy resolution
- Fully active (no dead layer)
- Low spurious count rate
- Single photon detector
- Wide selection of materials
- Many multiplexing techniques!

Cons

- Slow detectors
- Low temperature O(100) mK
- Non-trivial signal processing
- Multiplexing is mandatory



Components of a TES

- A TES microcalorimeter is made of 3 elements:
 - 1. The X-ray interact in the **absorber**.
 - The temperature variation is detected by the 2. TES thermometer
 - The detector cools down again thought the heat 3. exchange with the **thermal bath**

Array of TES for gamma-ray spectroscopy with absorbers attached on top





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Topview of a detector design with sidecar geometry

Components of a TES: absorber

- In an ideal absorber, all the energy of the X-ray is partitioned between the phonon (and the electron) system of the absorber.
- An absorber can be made of different materials! (normal metals, semiconductors, superconductors...)
 - Small heat capacity $C(T) = c_{tot}(T) \times M \xrightarrow{c_r(T) \propto \left(\frac{T}{\theta_D}\right)^3} T \ll \theta_D$ $c_m(T)^{dipole} \propto T^{-2}$ $c_{tot}(T) = c_r(T) + c_e(T) + c_m(T)$ $c_e(T)^{metal} \propto \frac{T}{\theta_F} \xrightarrow{c_e(T)^{supercond} \propto \left(1.76 \frac{T_c}{T}\right)^{\frac{3}{2}} e^{\frac{1.76T_c}{T}}} c_e(T)^{semicond} = 0$

Requirements:

• Fast and efficient thermalization ($O(10^{-10})$ s)



Components of a TES: absorber

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- An absorber can be made of different materials! (normal metals, semiconductors, superconductors...)



Components of a TES: sensor

TES thermometer: superconducting film (usually a bilayer normal metal- superconductor) biased to reach the superconducting-to-normal transition region





 T_{C} usually chosen to be as low as can be achieved \rightarrow 30-100 mK

The shape of the film resistance is not trivial. R_{TES}(T, I, B) depends on different things, such as: the material and the dimension of the film, the geometry of the TES, ...



- The TES is biased to a point $\circ R_0(T_0, I_0)$ where the dynamic range and the sensitivity is highest $\rightarrow \sim 20\% R_N$
- Complexity of the curve captured by the two derivatives:

https://doi.org/10.100 7/s10909-011-0431-4

$$= \frac{T_0}{R_0} \frac{dR}{dT} \bigg|_{T_0} \qquad \beta = \frac{I_0}{R_0} \frac{dR}{dT}$$

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Components of a TES: thermal isolation

Thermal isolation necessary to avoid escape of phonons and to match the bandwidth of the amplifiers

- Electron-phonon decoupling
- Limiting phonon transport

...

Credit: Hays-Wehle





https://doi.org/10.1117/12.734830

But high thermal conductivity is crucial to reduce the dead time



TES signal shape

■ The TES behavior can be described by a set of *n* differential equations:

$$\begin{cases} L\frac{dI}{dt} = V - IR_{sh} - IR_{TES}(T,I) \\ C\frac{dT}{dt} = -K(T^{n} - T_{b}^{n}) - K_{d}(T^{n_{d}} - T_{d}^{n_{d}}) + P_{J} + P \\ C\frac{dT_{d}}{dt} = K_{d}(T^{n_{d}} - T_{d}^{n_{d}}) \end{cases}$$





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Tuning the parameter of the electrical circuit (and of the TES), the signal time can remarkably change



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Cryogenics: from 300K to 20mK



Mechanical cryocooler from 300K to 4K

Thermodynamic cycle on sealed 4He gas

- Plug and play
- Consume "only" electricity
- Small vibration



³He/ ⁴He diluition refrigerator



Adiabatic demagnetization refrigerator (ADR)



- $T_{min} \sim 10 \text{ mK}$
- Infinite operation time (duty cycle 100%)
- 3He/4He mixture
- Not compact



- $T_{min} \sim 50 \text{ mK}$
- Good operation time (duty cycle ~ 85%)
- No liquid cryogenic
- "Compact" !

Cryogenics: shields

Different shields in order to: keep the vacuum, block the thermal radiation and the magnetic fields.
 X-ray transmitting windows: commercial polymer and thin Al foil.



[300 K] Stainless steel vacuum shield [50K/3K] Mu-metal shield with Al radiation window

[65 mK] Al shield with Al radiation window

35 cm

Measurement workflow with an array of TES



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Reducing the dead time

The analysis of microcalorimeters designed for X-rays requires grate care, because their excellent intrinsic energy resolution can hardly be achieved without an accurate analysis

The amplitude (energy) of an event is evaluated with the optimum filter technique

To not spoil the energy resolution, all the sample of the signals need to be recorded



Given a source activity, faster TES and/or larger array are needed to reduce the dead time

Efficient multiplexing schemes to readout large array of TESs are as important as the detectors themself





Readout: SQUID!

- The TES is measured using SQUID: Superconducting loop with two (DC-SQUID) or one (RF-SQUID) Josephson junctions
 - Most sensitive detectors of magnetic flux known

Able to detect
$$\sim 2 \times 10^{-21} T \frac{m^2}{\sqrt{Hz}} = 10^{-6} \Phi_0 / \sqrt{Hz}$$

- Very large operational bandwidth: quasistatic \rightarrow > 1 GHz
- Their response to a variation of magnetic flux is a non invertible function



TES current seen as a variation of magnetic flux



- Requirement to readout a single TES pixel with a DC SQUID
 - 5 cable from 300K to mK
 - O(10) k€ for the warm electronics



Unsustainable for multi-pixel array

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Readout: multiplexing

- Large TES array is needed to boost collection efficiency and count rate.
- Multiplexing (combination of different sensor signals into a smaller number of channel) is crucial it reduces the mechanical, thermal (and financial) burden of having readout circuitry for each pixel.

Time Domain Multiplexing (TDM)

- IDEA: separating the signal in time domain
- DC-SQUIDS
- Most mature technology
- Simplest operational stage
- $\sqrt{\# channels}$ noise penalty
- $f_{samp} \simeq \frac{1}{2 \times channels \times 160 \, ns}$
- 40:1 multiplexing readout best
- $\Delta E = 2.4$ eV with 32 multiplexed TDM TES

e.g. : 32 channel \rightarrow f^{max}_{samp} \simeq 100 kHz





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CDM

- IDEA: separating the signal in time domain, but smarter
- DC-SQUIDS
- No $\sqrt{\# channels}$ noise penalty
- Capability of readout mega-pixel array but demonstrated at small pixel counts
- Technology in development
- $\Delta E = 2.7 \text{ eV}$ with 30 multiplexed CDM TES



- Large TES array is needed to boost collection efficiency and count rate.
- Multiplexing (combination of different sensor signals into a smaller number of channel) is crucial it reduces the mechanical, thermal (and financial) burden of having readout circuitry for each pixel.

Frequency Division Multiplexing (FDM)

- IDEA: separating the signal in frequency domain
- DC-SQUIDS
- No $\sqrt{channels}$ noise penalty
- Limited dynamic range (the BW of the SQUID is dived into the different channels)
- Unwanted noise features due to non-trivial shape of the TES resistance
- It's possible to tune the bias for each sensor
- Amplitude modulator
- $\Delta E = 2.2$ eV with 37 multiplexed FDM TES



- Large TES array is needed to boost collection efficiency and count rate.
- Multiplexing (combination of different sensor signals into a smaller number of channel) is crucial it reduces the mechanical, thermal (and financial) burden of having readout circuitry for each pixel.

Microwave Multiplexing (µw-MUX)

- IDEA: separating the signal frequency domain
- RF-SQUIDS
- Higher noise
- High dynamic range (the BW of the HEMT id divided into the different channels
- New technology!
- Capable of 256:1 multiplexing with a $f_{samp}^{max} \simeq 500 \text{ kHz}$



- Large TES array is needed to boost collection efficiency and count rate.
- Multiplexing (combination of different sensor signals into a smaller number of channel) is crucial it reduces the mechanical, thermal (and financial) burden of having readout circuitry for each pixel.



TES application: energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy

Semiconductors detectors:

- Poor energy resolution
 - High count rate



Wavelength dispersive spectrometers

- High energy resolution
 - Slow, hard to operate

MICA-1600 commercial TES spectrometer by Star Cryoelectronics

- ADR refrigerator
- Array of 16 TES
- TDM multiplexing ?
- Maximum count rate 10 kcps

	Microcalorimeter	WDS	EDS					
Energy Resolution	< 10 eV	5–10 eV	125–130 eV					
Acquisition Time	Short	Long	Short					
Detection Eff ciency	~100%	< 30%	~100%					
Full Spectral Detection	Yes	No	Yes					
Required Beam Current	10 pA–1 nA	1 nA–100 nA	10 pA–1 nA					
Sample Damage	Low	High	Low					

https://doi.org/10.1017/S1551929512000429





Energy (keV)

TES application: X-ray spectrometer for beamline



TES application: X-ray spectrometer for beamline

Seven working spectrometer systems deployed in different facilities

			E (keV)	Date	array	pixel types	TDM	t _{row}	collimator	sample
	Spectrometer	Technique(s)	of expts.	deployed	type	(# of pixels)	C×R	(ns)	thickness	dist.(cm)
Α.	Lund	n TR-XAS; TR-XES	2–10	Oct., 2010	ar13	7b (24)	4×6	640	full	20
	Kemicentrum			Dec., 2013	ar 13	7b (80); 9b (80)	8× 20	320	full	4–20
В.		TR TR-XAS; TR-XES	2–10	Jan., 2013	ar 13	8b (80); 9b (80)	8× 20	640	full	_
				Jan., 2015	ar 14	8b(240)	8× 30	320	full	-
C.	NIST metrology	XRF line metrology	2–10	Nov., 2012	ar 13	8b (80); 9b (80)	8× 20	640	full	13
D.	NSLS beamline	PFY-NEXAFS; XES	0.25–1	Oct., 2011	ar 13	7b (60)	3× 20	640	full	≥ 2
	U7A (NIST)			Apr., 2014	ar 14	3b(120); 8b(120)	8× 30	320	thinned	≥ 2
E.	APS 29-ID	RSXS	0.25–1	Jul., 2014	ar 14	3b(240)	8× 30	320	thinned	≥ 5
F. Jy Pe	Jyväskylä	PIXE	1–14	Feb., 2011	ar 13	8b (12)	2×6	640	full	30
	Pelletron			Feb., 2014	ar 13	8b (80); 9b (80)	8× 20	320	full	15
G.	PSI πM1	π^{-} -atom spectroscopy	4–15	Oct., 2014	ar 14	8b(240)	8× 30	320	full	4–8





Five more planned!

https://doi.org/10.1063/1.4983316

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TES application: X-ray astrophysics (ATHENA X-IFU)

Instrument for X-ray imaging, timing and high-resolution spectroscopy on satellite

Observation of hot gas and accretion around black holes

- Target: 3000 TES pixels ($T_c \sim 90$ mK, energy range 0.2-12 keV, $\Delta E = 2.5$ eV @7keV)
- Initially FDM, now TDM multiplexing?

X-IFU focal plane assembly model



- Single pixel ΔE better than 2 eV
- Pixel filling factor better than 0.97

Prototype array from NASA-GSFC (3000 pixels)



https://doi.org/10.3390/app11093793

TES application: X-ray astrophysics (Lynx)

9-pixel hydra

- Next generation X-ray observatory on satellite
- Ambitious goal: 100000 pixels!

Challenging requirements for the sensors and the readout

■ Possible solution: hydra TES design and µw-MUX multiplexing

Pulses @6keV x-rays interacting in the different absorbers





Superconducting Transition Edge Sensors are very high-resolution detectors for X-rays

■An array of Transition Edge Sensors is essential for practical applications.

Active field of research, multiple improvements expected in the next years!



