Applied Sorting Technologies

UNIVERSITY OF SASKATCHEWAN MONASH University

Detectors

Things you should be aware of

Rob Lewis

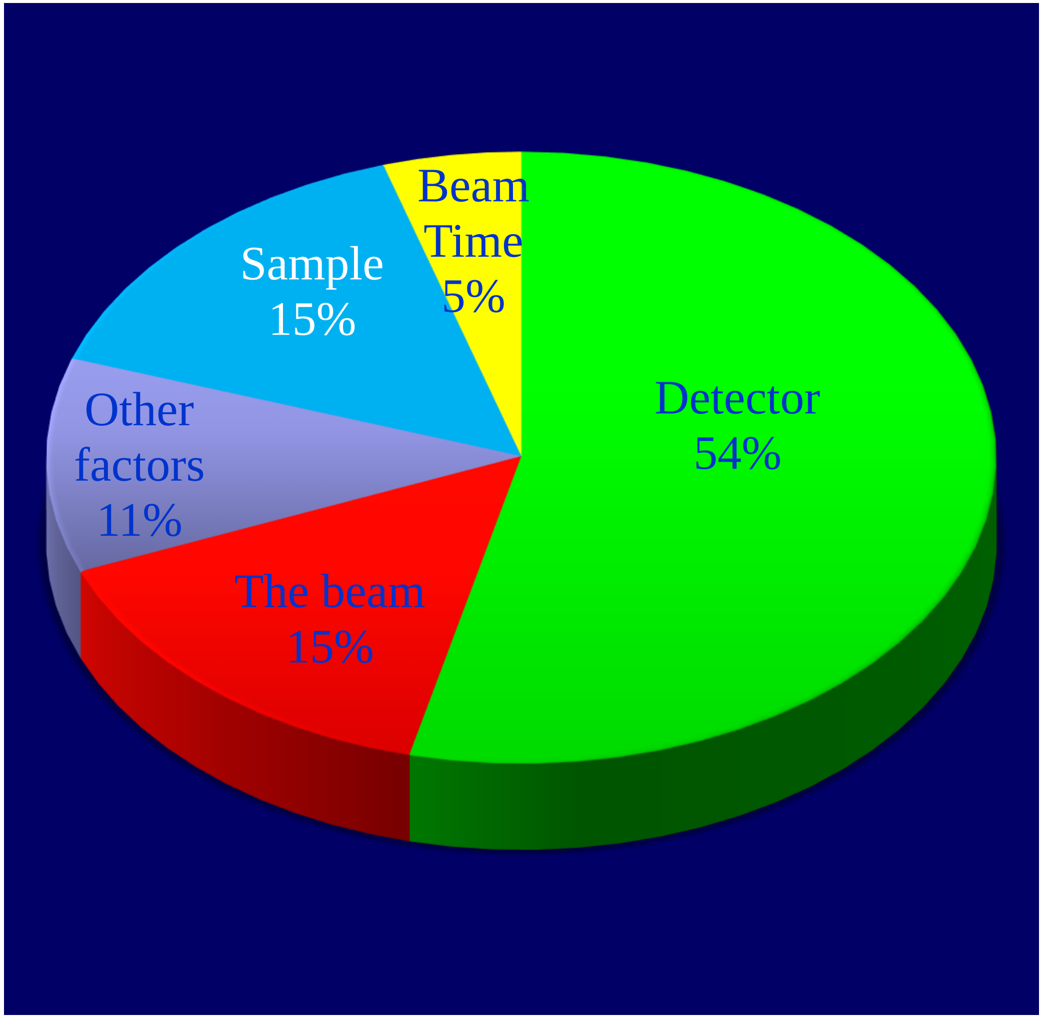
Medical Imaging, University of Saskatchewan

Medical Imaging and Radiation Sciences, Monash University

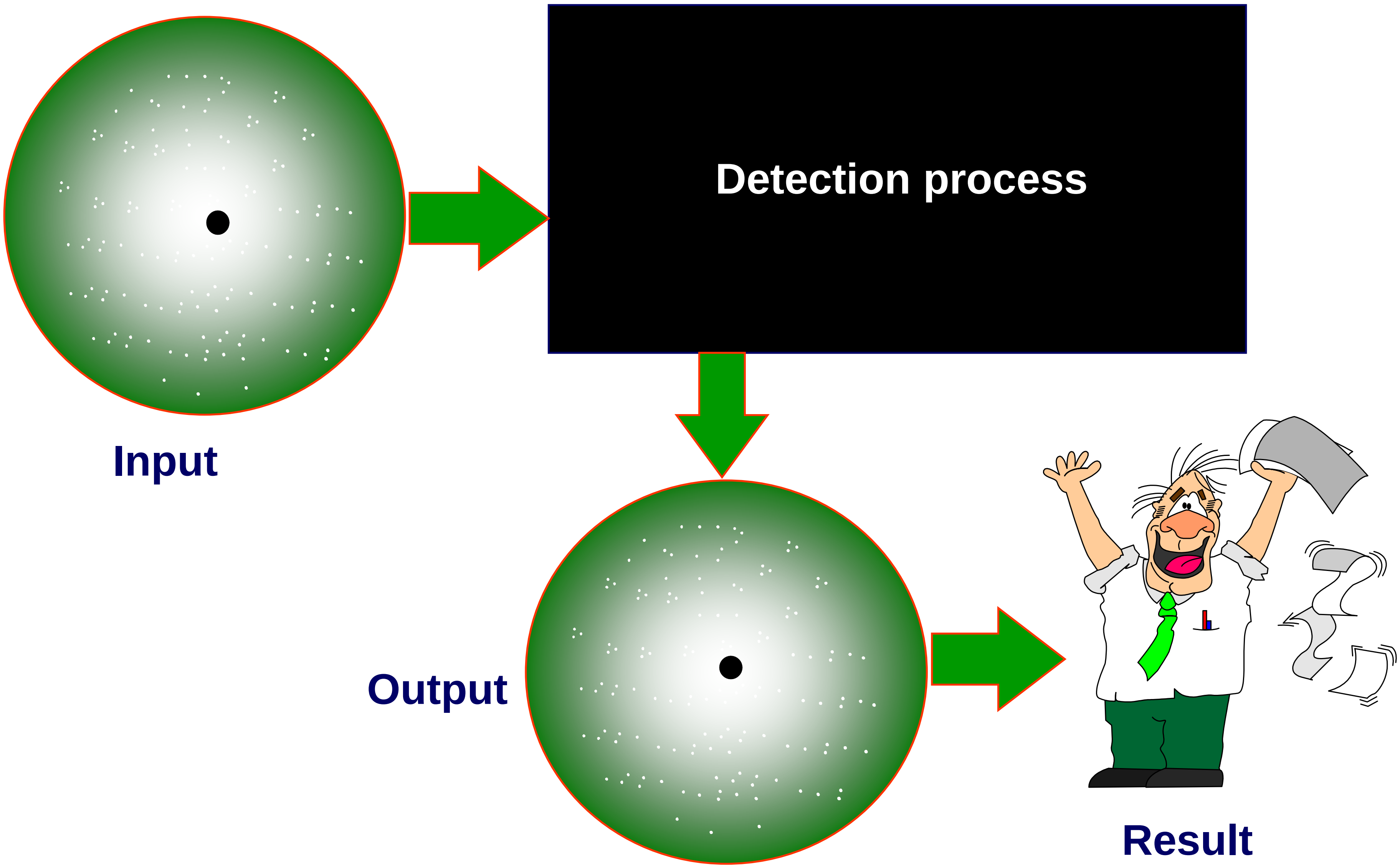
Applied Sorting Technologies, Melbourne

Factors Limiting Science

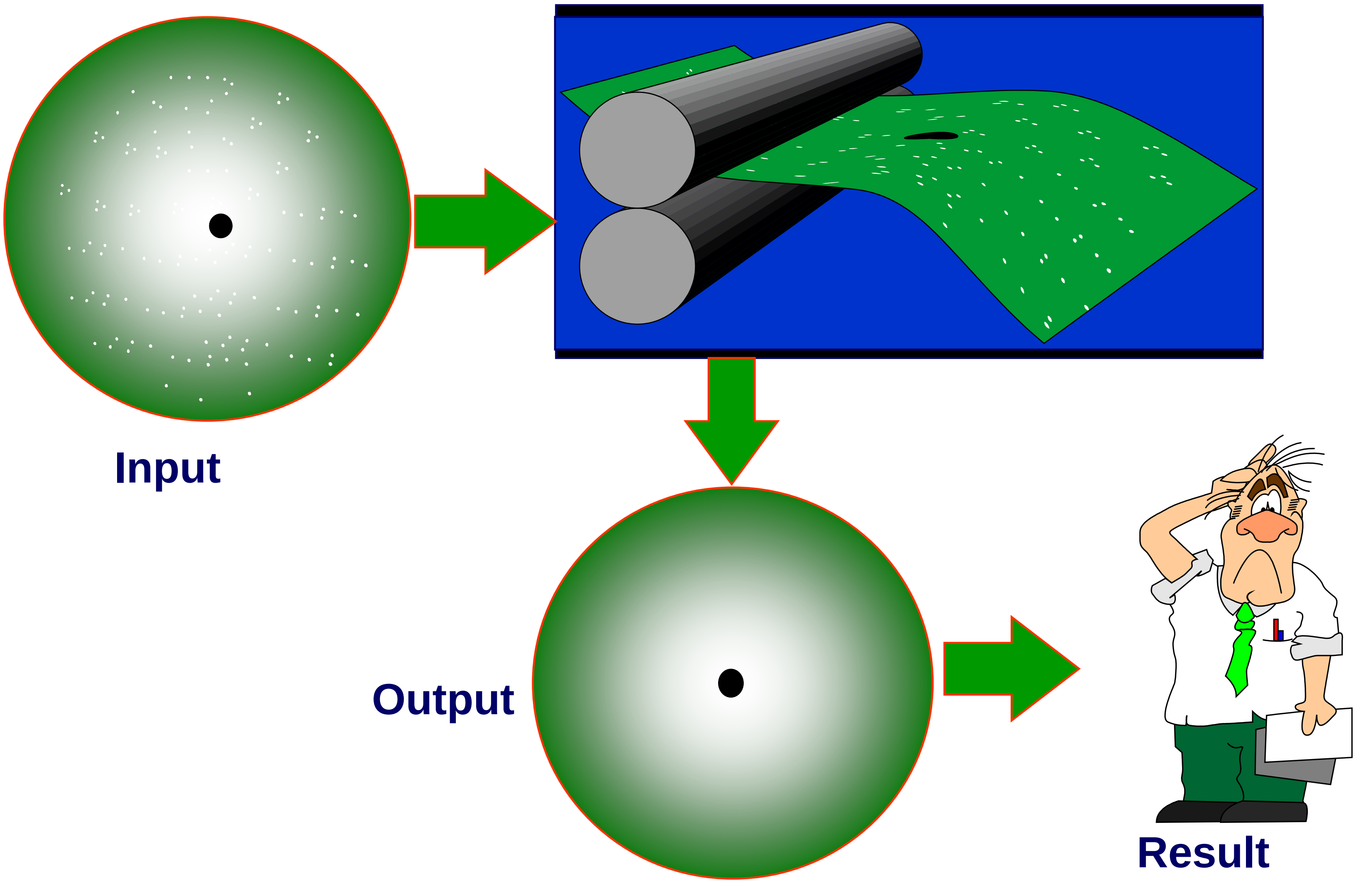
- Detectors are an oft-neglected but crucial part of an experiment
- They often limit the science



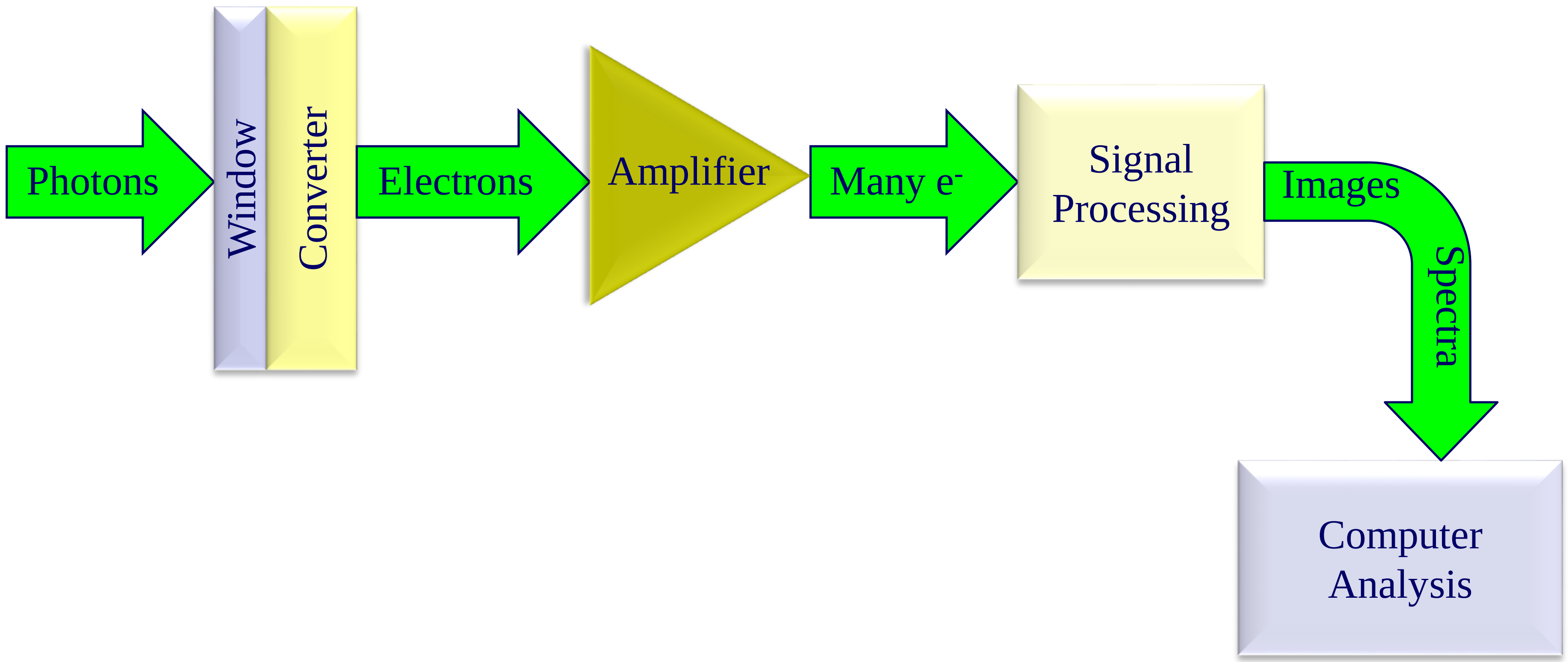
Scientist's View of Detector



The Truth!



Detector Chain of Events



Detection Mechanisms

- There are many means of detection. All require the interaction of photons/electrons 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

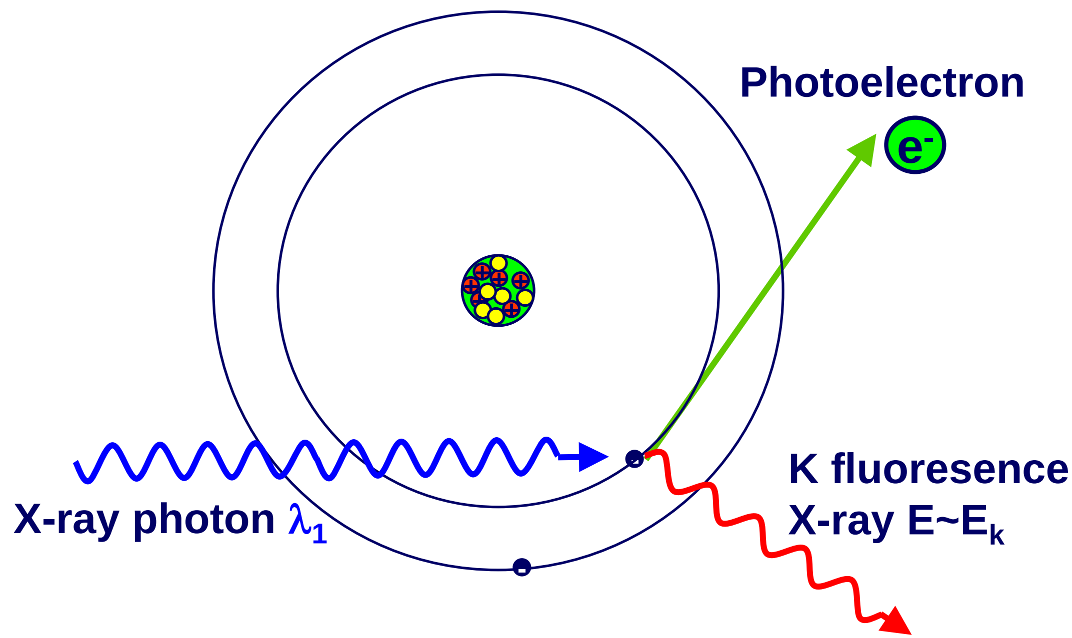
Albert Einstein

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



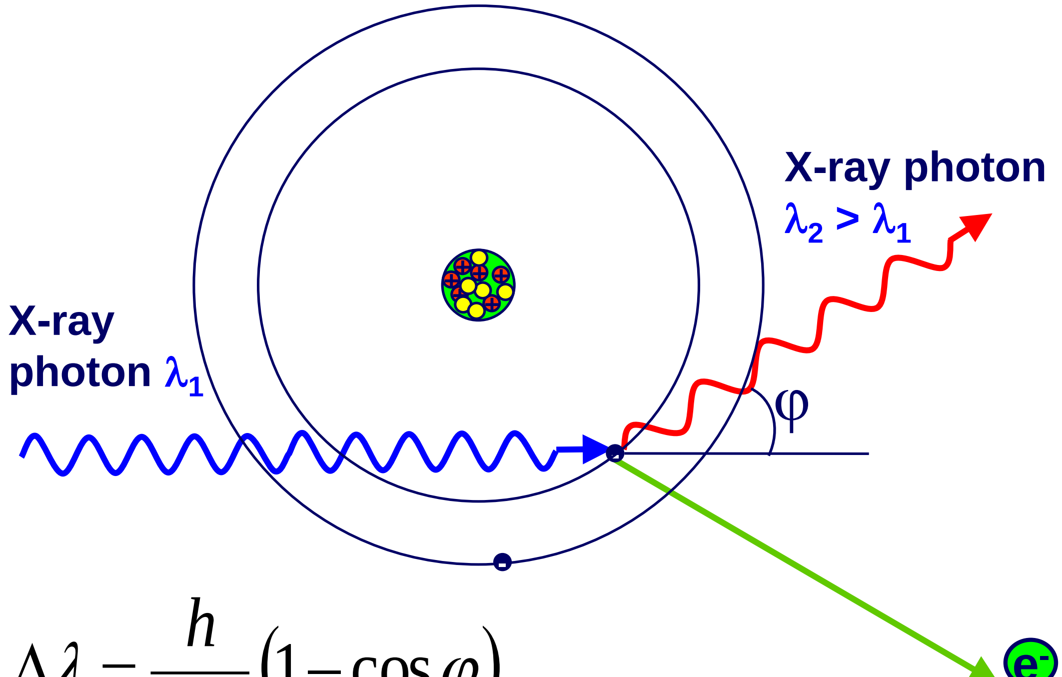
Arthur Holly Compton

University of Chicago
Chicago, IL, USA
1892 - 1962

Nobel prize in physics 1927

"for his discovery of the effect named after him"

Compton Effect

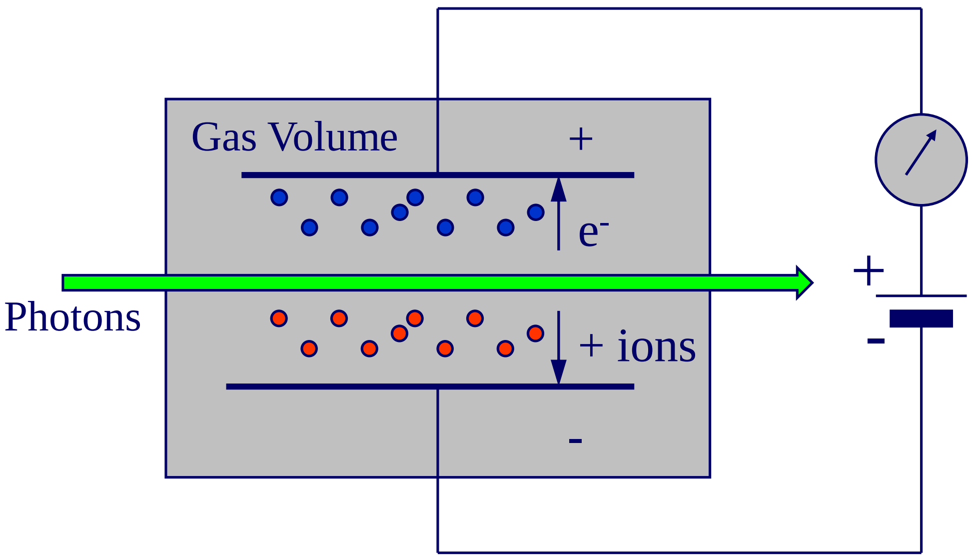


$$\Delta\lambda = \frac{h}{m_0 c}\left(1 - \cos\varphi\right)$$

An Example Detector

Echidna

Ionisation Chamber

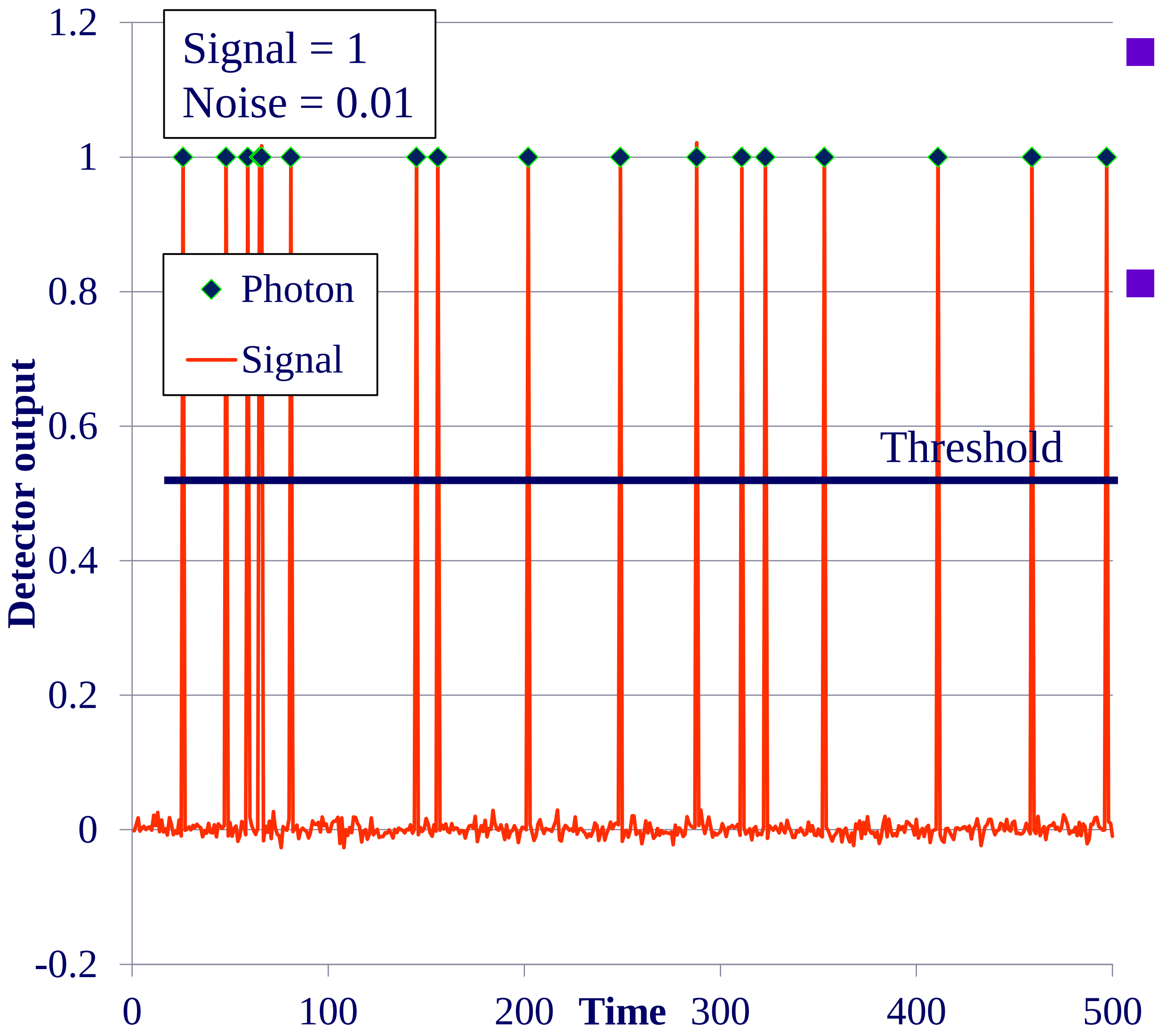


- Approximately 1 e^- ion pair per 30eV deposited (symbol often ***w***)
- IF you know ***w***, and density and composition of gas, it is possible to convert current to flux
- Number can be affected by several factors
  - Recombination of e^- and ions
    - Higher voltages required at higher rates since more carriers
  - Diffusion losses
    - Higher voltages, small gap
  - Electron losses
    - Larger gap
- Pressure, temperature and humidity affect density

Counting and Integrating

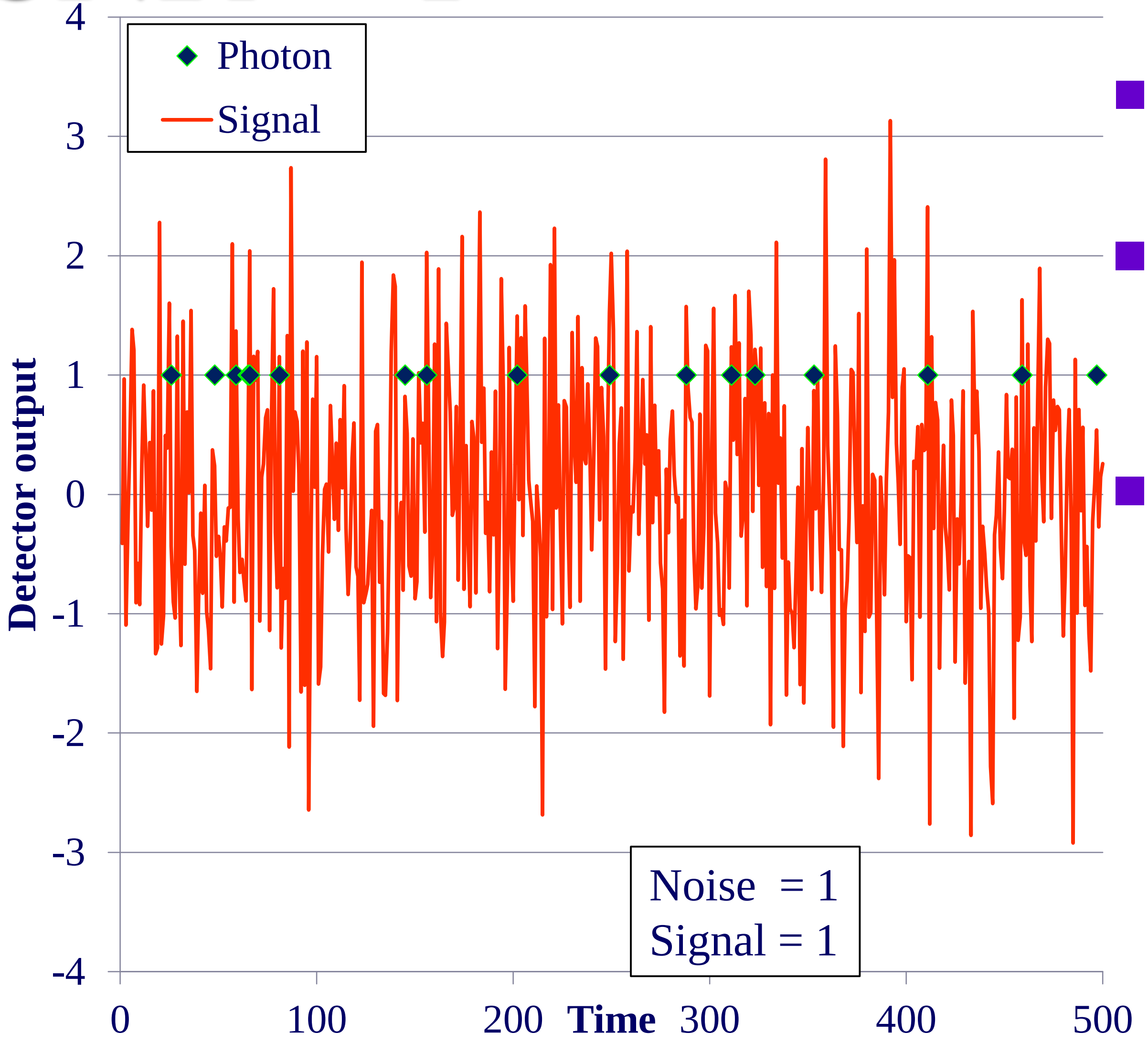
- If there is sufficient signal produced by the interaction of a photon or a particle in the detector then it is possible to operate the detector as a counter
- It’s all about signal to noise ratio!

SNR = 100



- In this case 17 photons hit detector but only 16 recorded
- Illustrates a problem with counting
  - Pulse pair resolution

SNR = 1

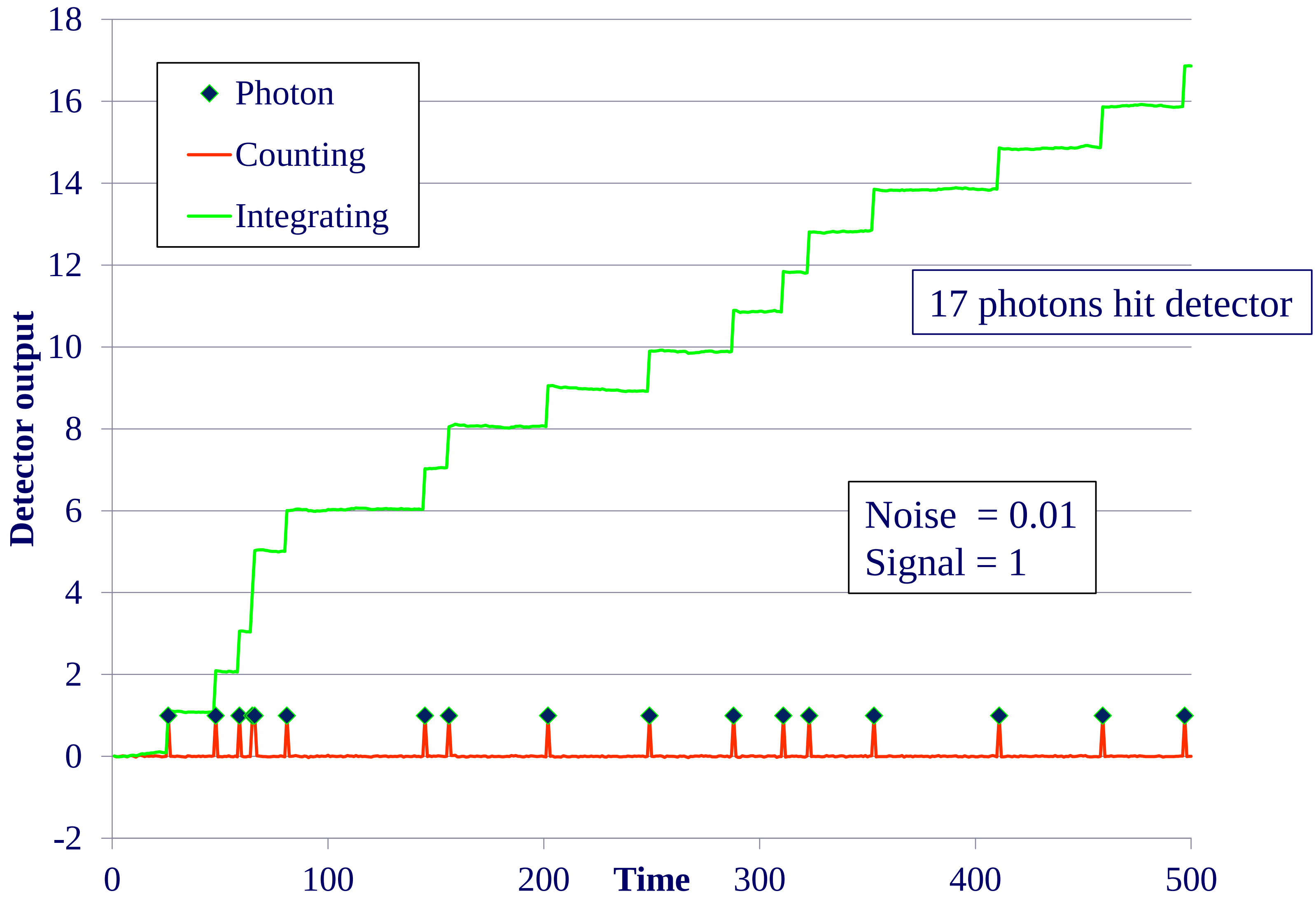


- Black dots show when photons arrive
- Impossible to decide where to set threshold
- Counting detectors require very high SNR

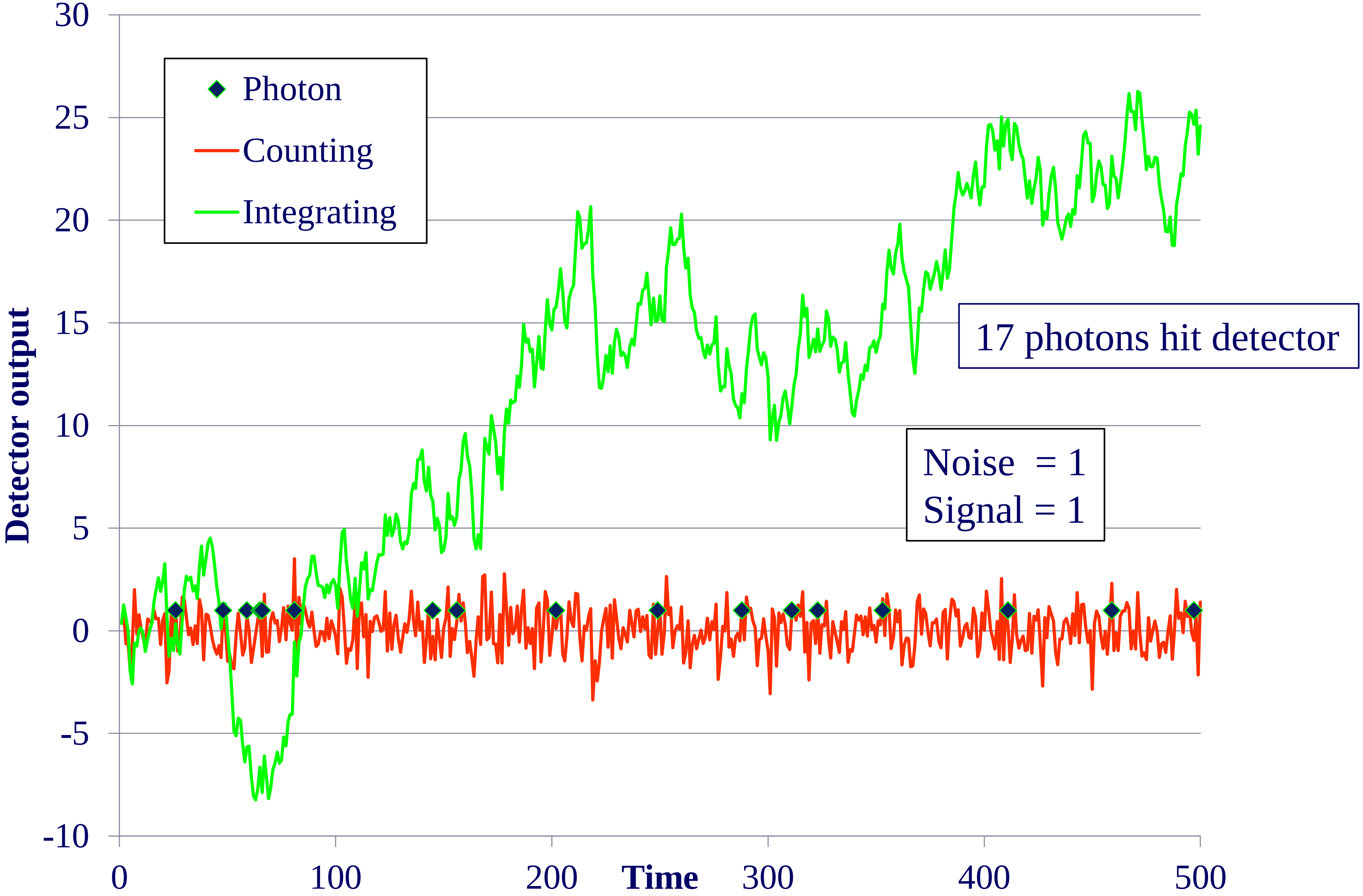
Counting and Integrating

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

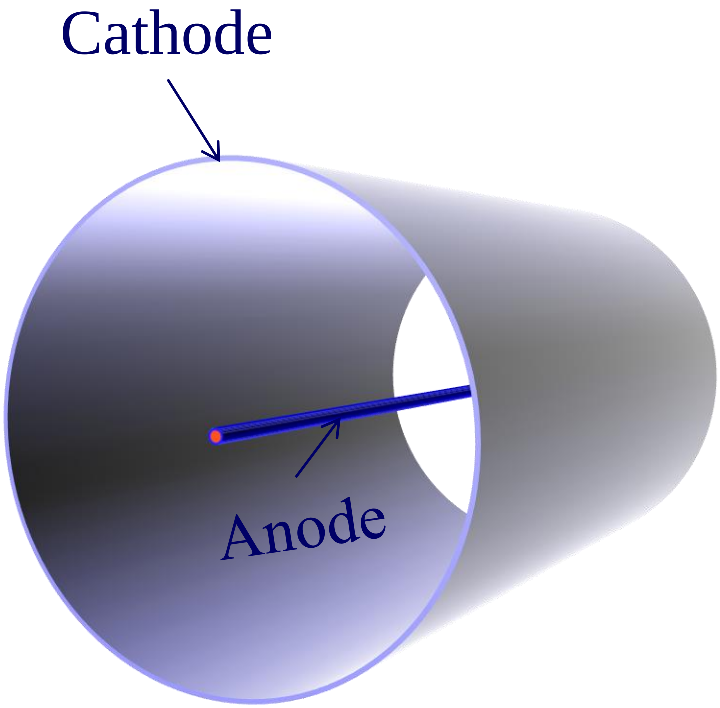
Counting & Integrating SNR =100

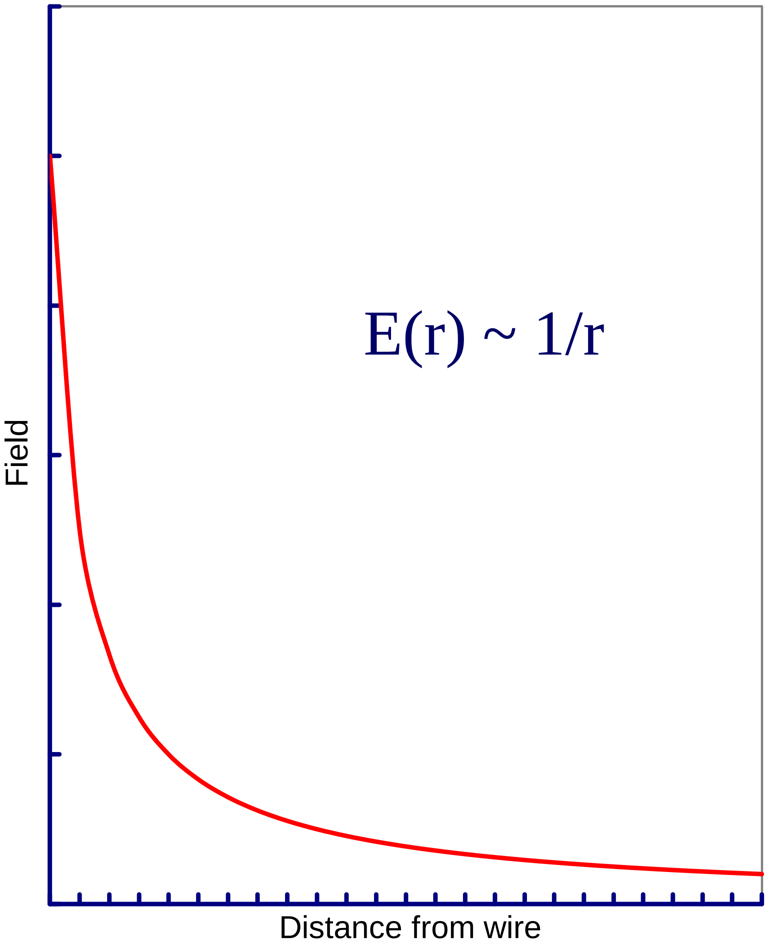


Counting & Integrating SNR = 1

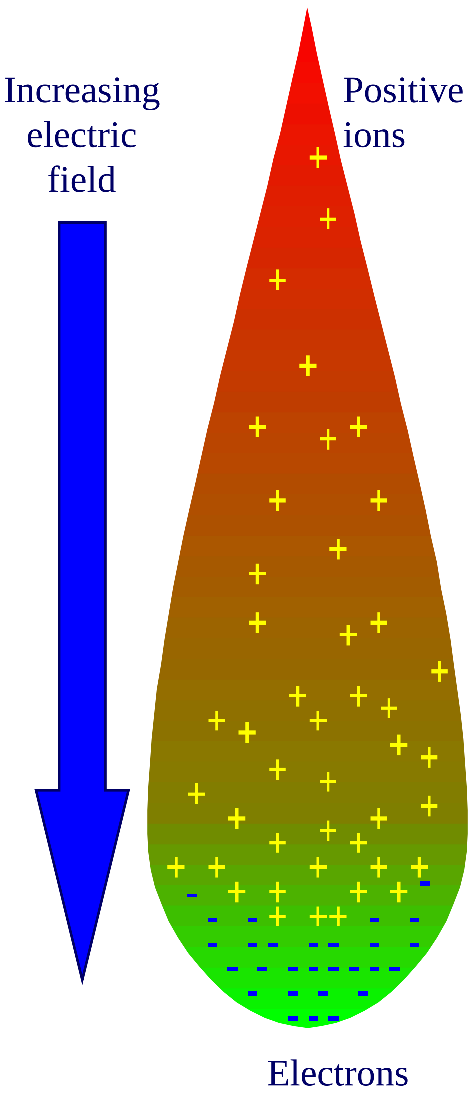


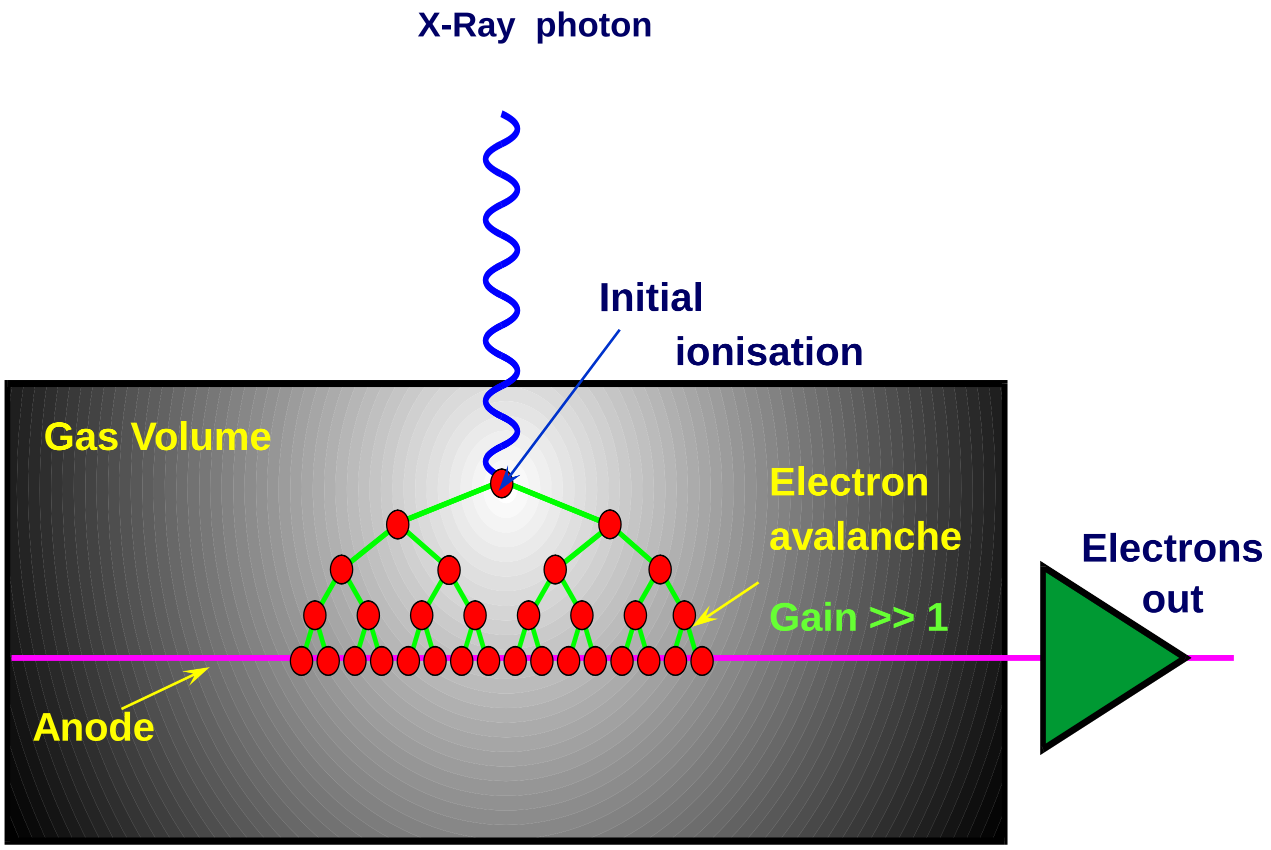
From Analogue to Digital



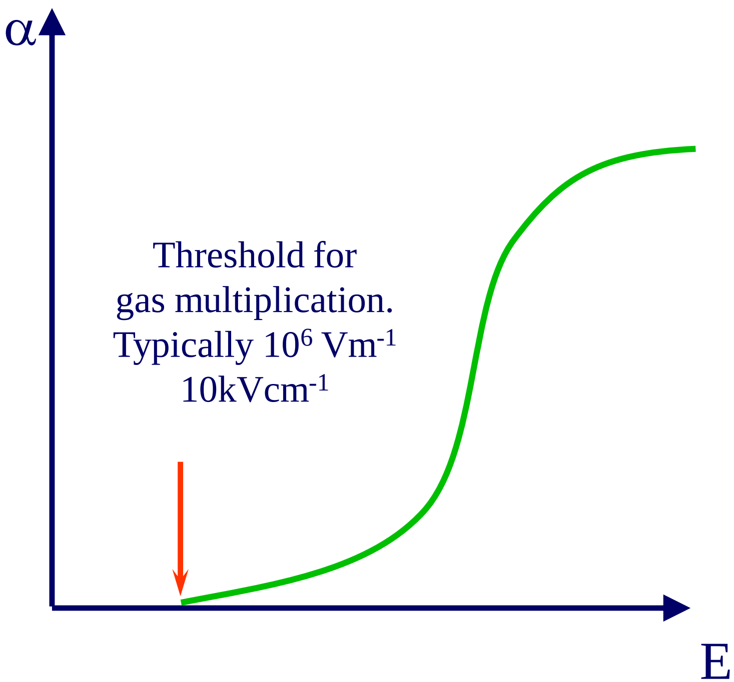


Avalanche & Proportional Counter





Operation regions of gas filled detectors



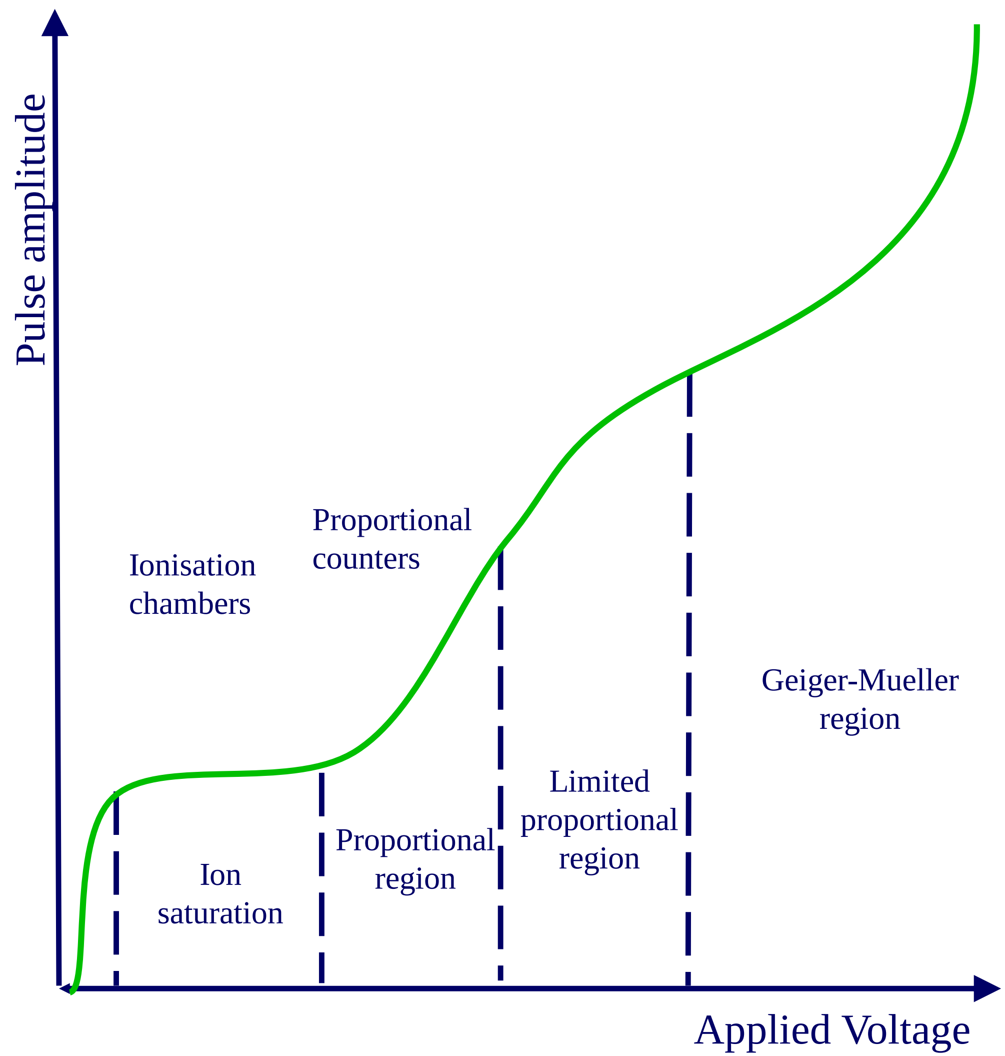
n is number of charges

x is distance

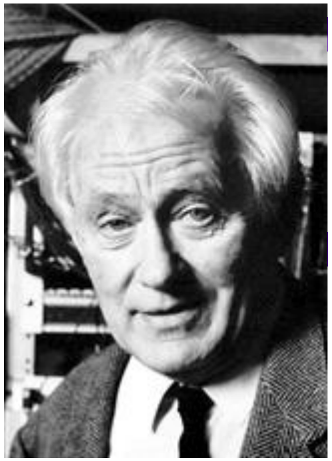
α is the first Townsend coefficient

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

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



Georges Charpak



Which he invented in…..

Nobel prize in physics 1992

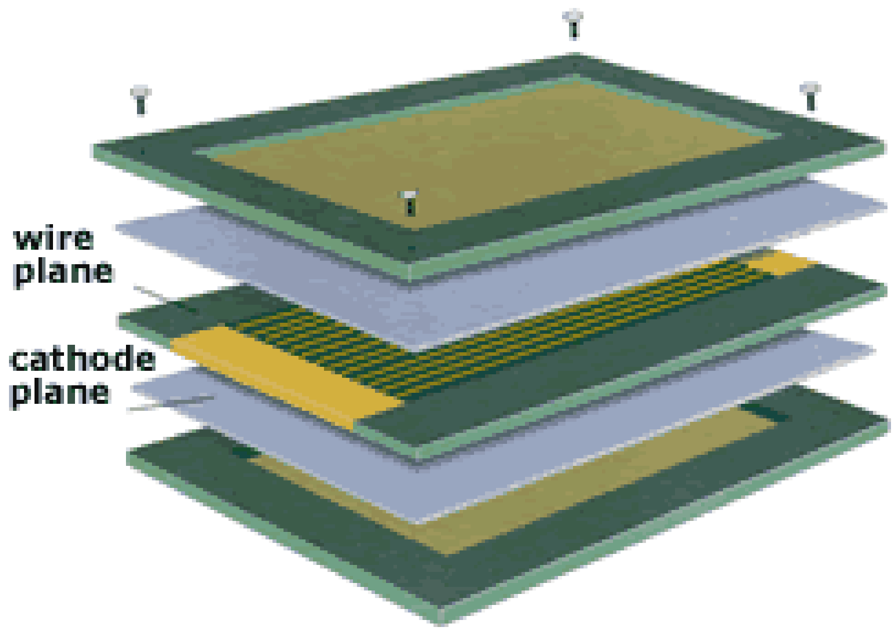
"for his invention and development of particle detectors, in particular the multiwire proportional chamber"

1968 …….24 years publication to prize!

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

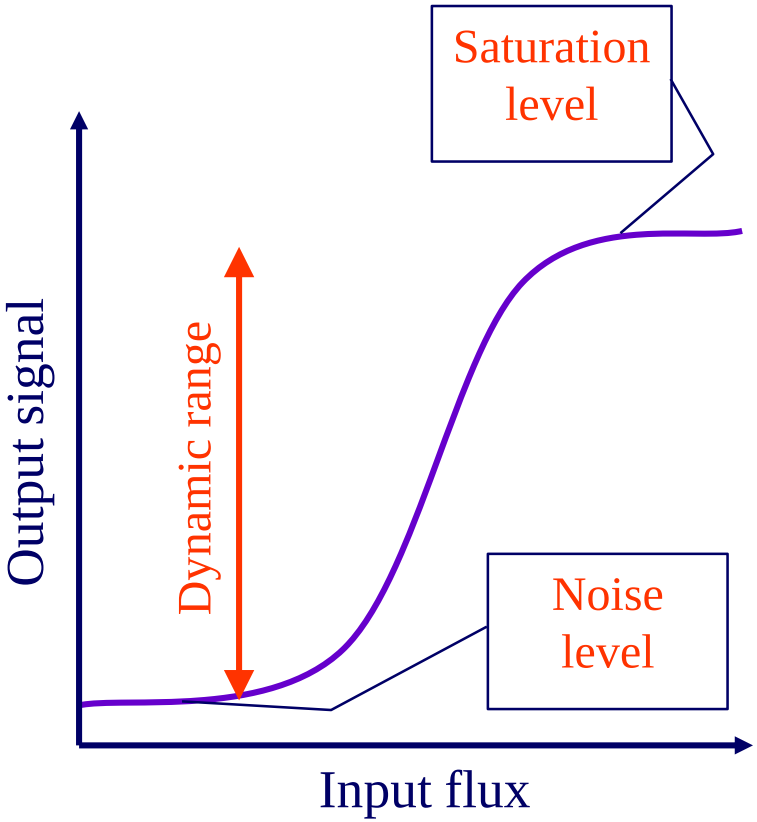
b. 1924
(in Dabrovica, Poland)

Multi-wire Proportional Counter



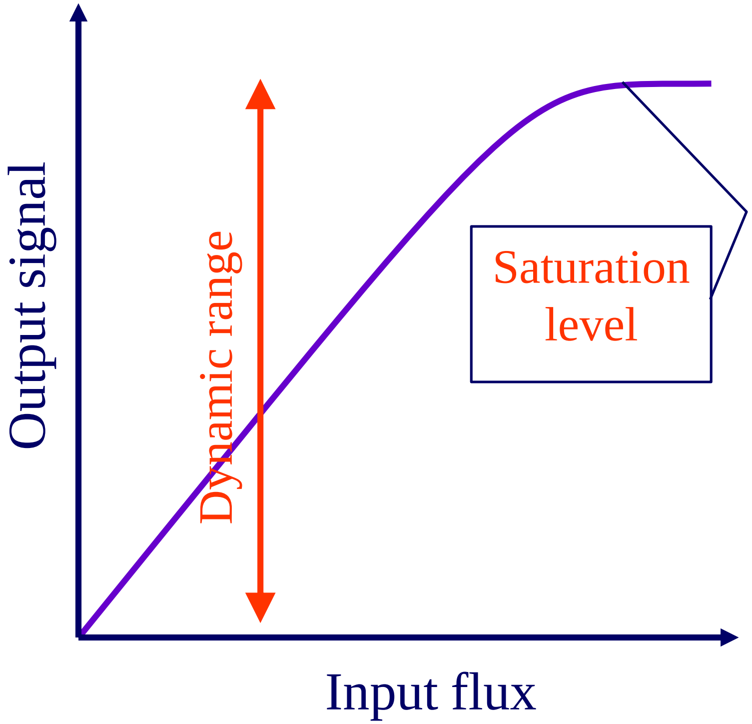
Integrating Detectors

- 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
  - 2×20 keV phts = 1×40 keV photon i.e. Cannot perform simultaneous spectroscopy and positioning
  - Examples: Image plates, CCDs



Counting Detectors

- Mode
  - Detects every particle 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



Willard S. Boyle & George E. Smith

Bell Laboratories
Murray Hill, NJ, USA

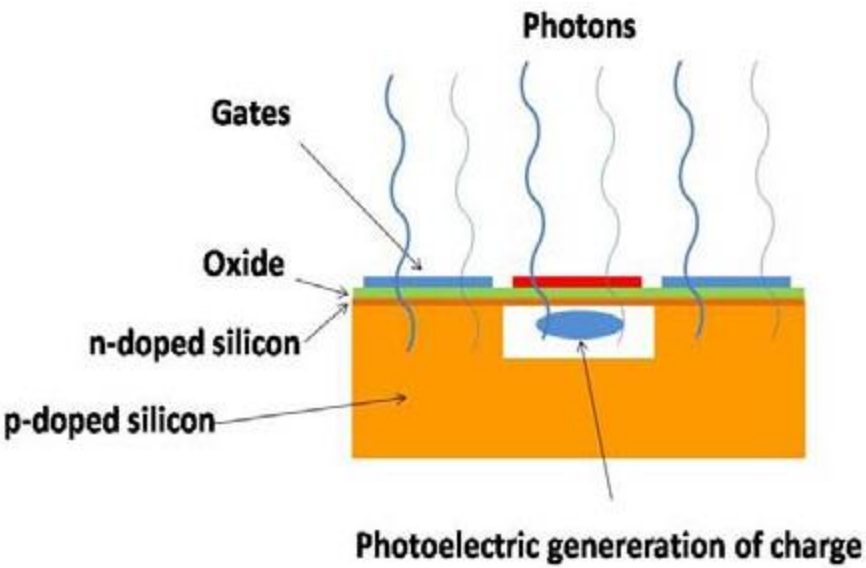
Which they invented in…..

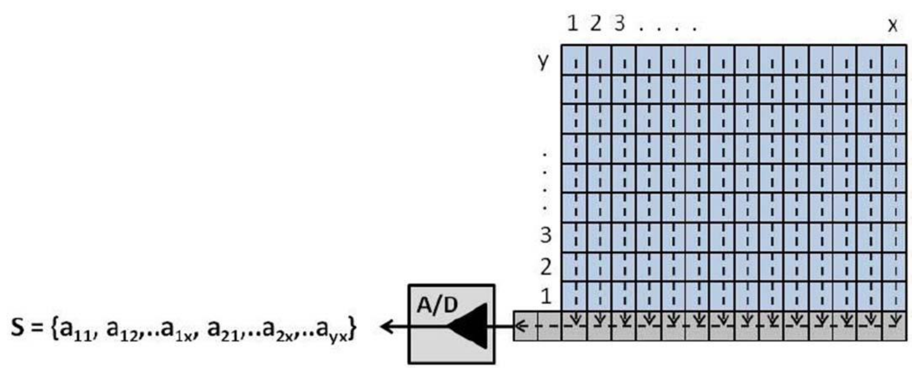
1969 …….40 years publication to prize!

Nobel prize in physics 2009

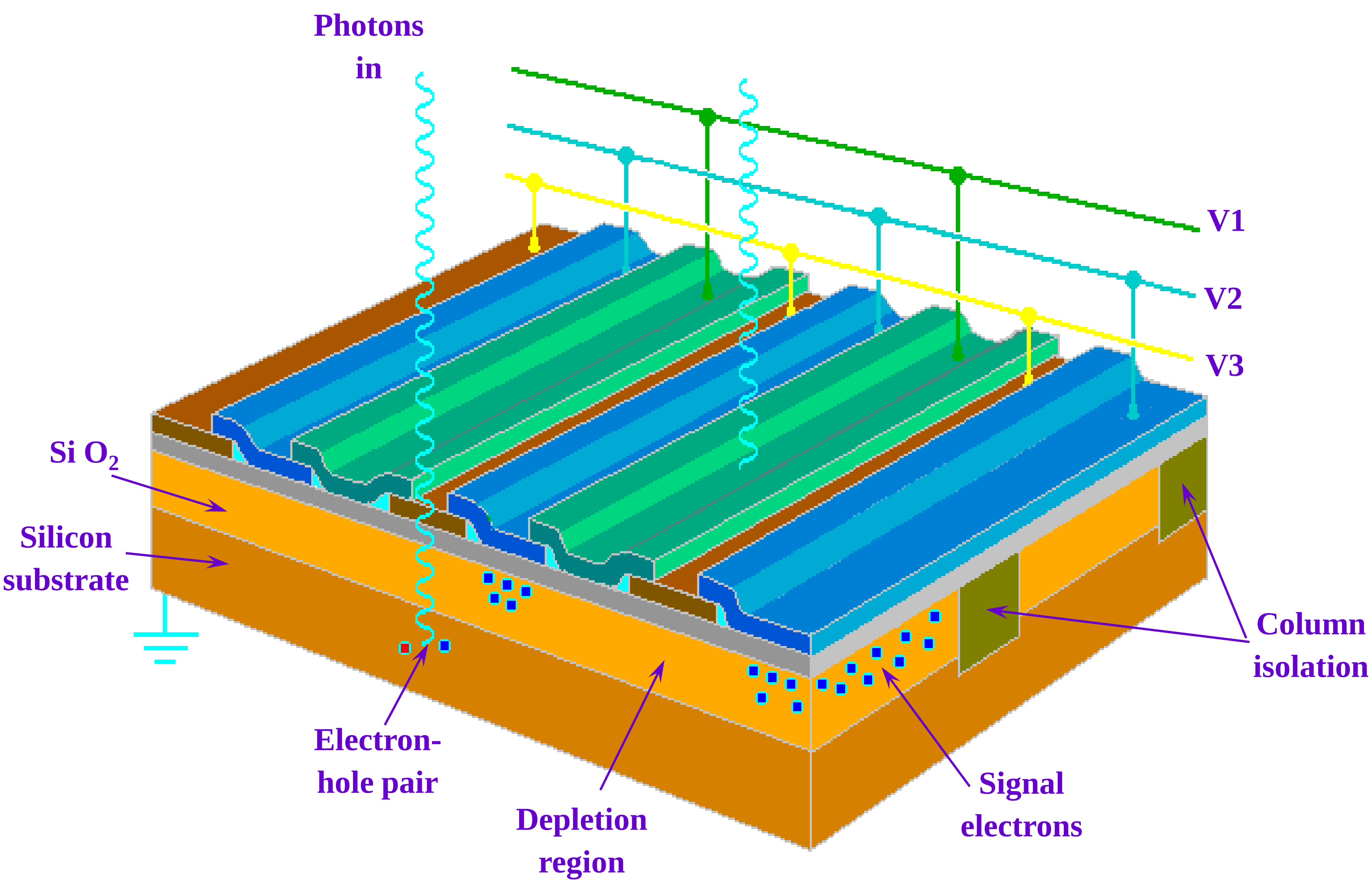
"for the invention of an imaging semiconductor circuit – the CCD sensor"

CCD

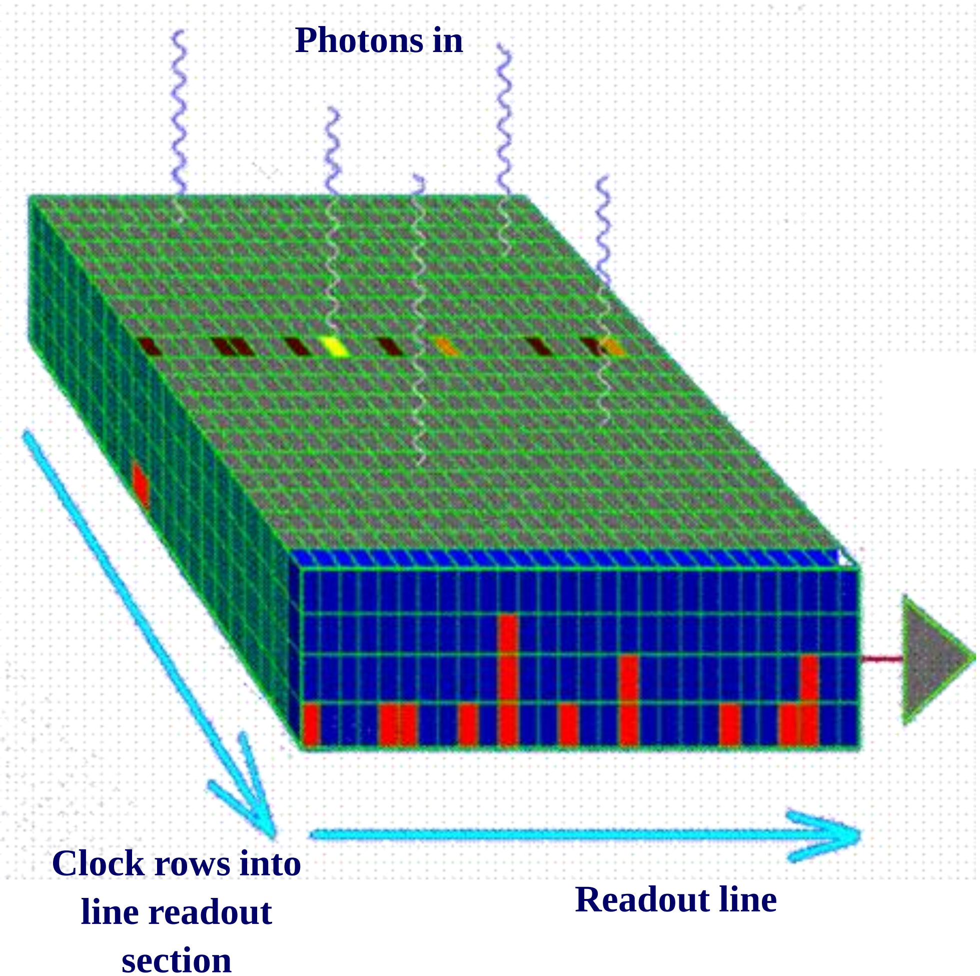




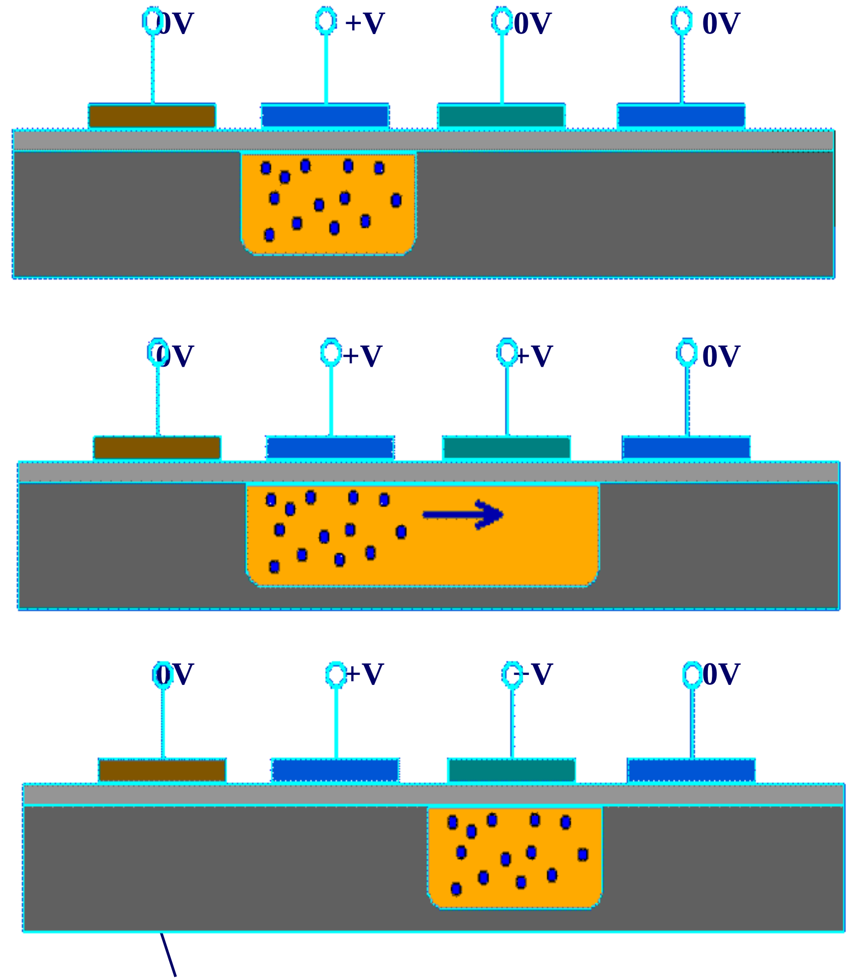
Charge Coupled Device



CCD Readout



Photons in
Clock rows into line readout section
Readout line

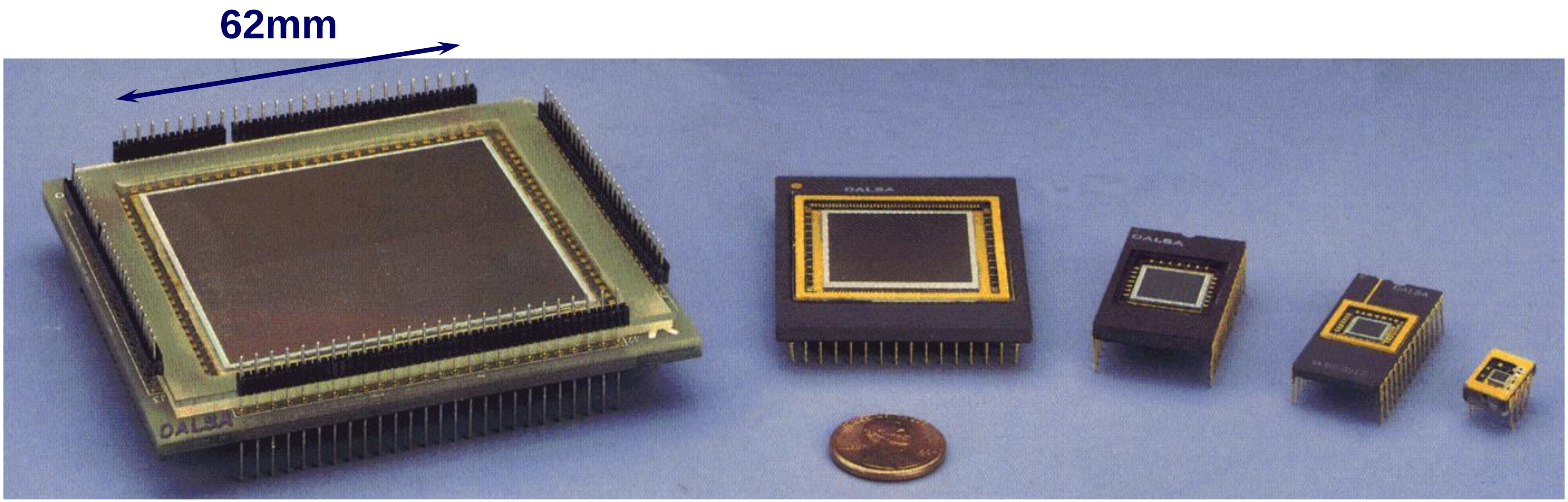


0V
+V
0V
0V
0V
+V
+V
0V
0V
+V
0V

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 ~ 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

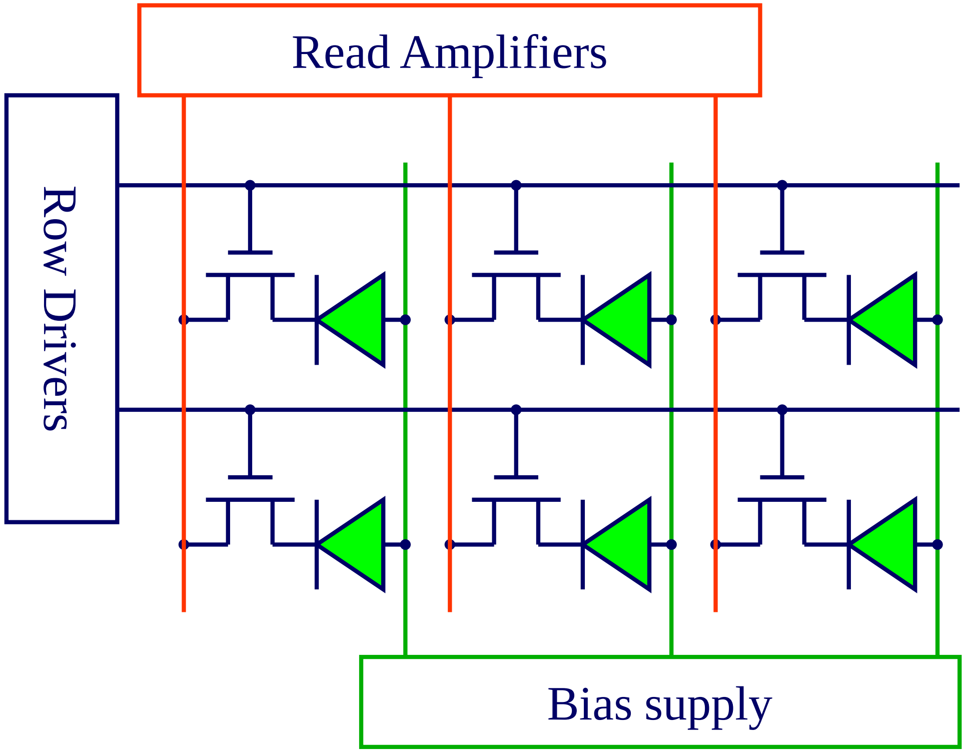
CCDs



Although sizes > 50mm 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)

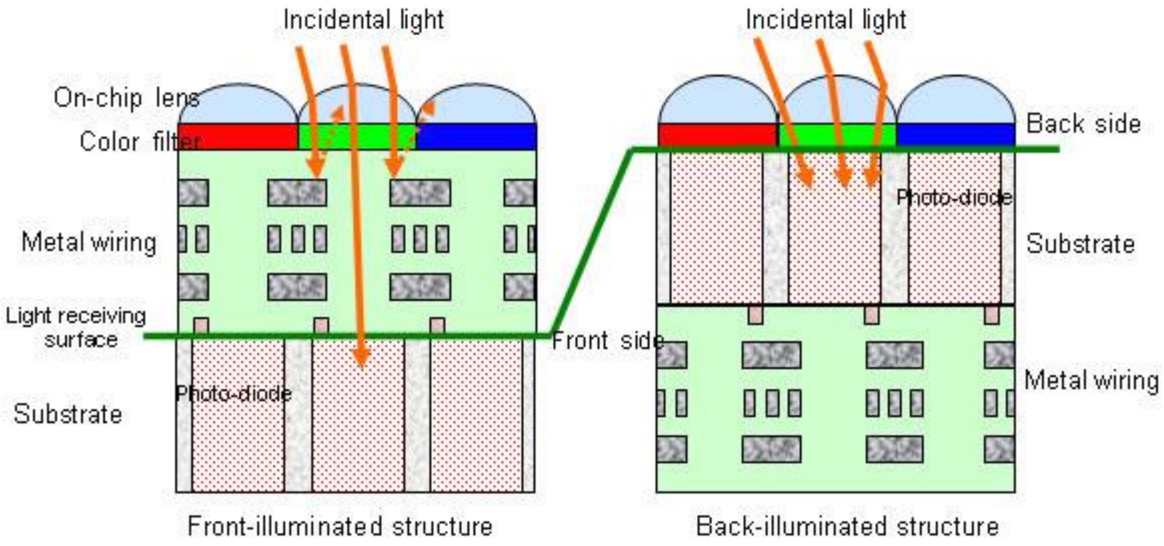


- A readout amplifier transistor on each pixel converts charge to voltage
- Allows random access to pixels, similar to the row-column memory cell access in RAM

CMOS vs CCD

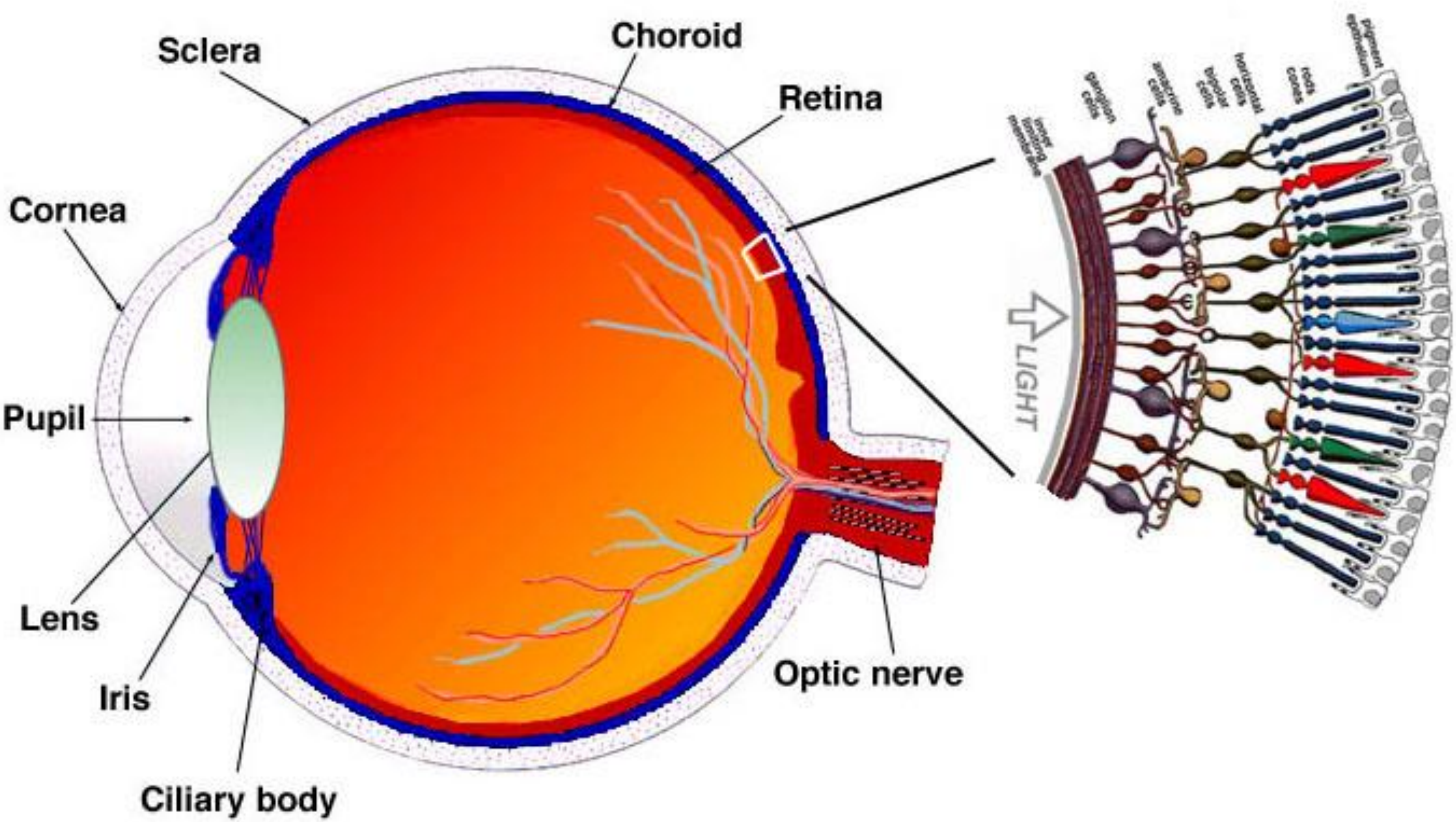
- Traditionally CCD has had higher sensitivity and lower noise
- Modern techniques mean that the differences are small
- CMOS sensors can have much more functionality on-chip than CCDs
  - On chip image processing, edge detection, noise reduction, and analog to digital conversion
- CMOS lower power → less heat → less noise

Front and Back Illumination



http://www.sony.net/SonyInfo/News/Press/200806/08-069E/index.html

Human Eye

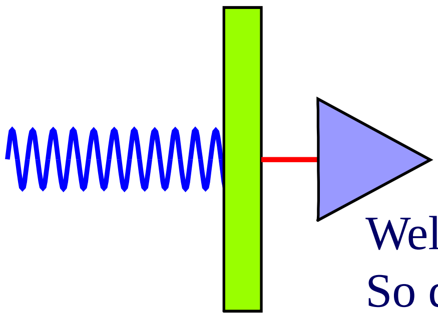


http://webvision.med.utah.edu/imageswv/Sagschem.jpeg

Use with X-rays

Direct detection

Gain ~ 2000e$^-$ / 8keV x-ray



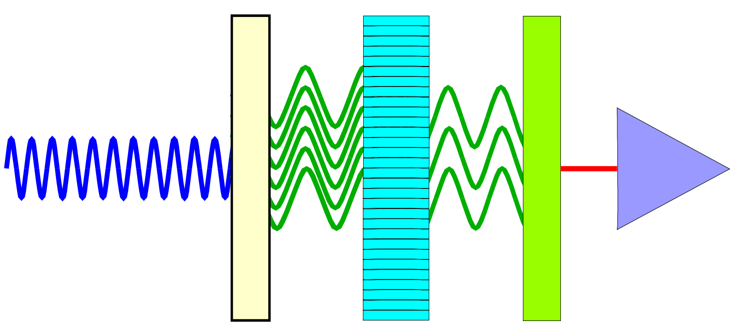
Well depth = 2×10^5

So dynamic range ~100

Phosphor coupled 1:1 to sensor

Phosphor gain >> 1

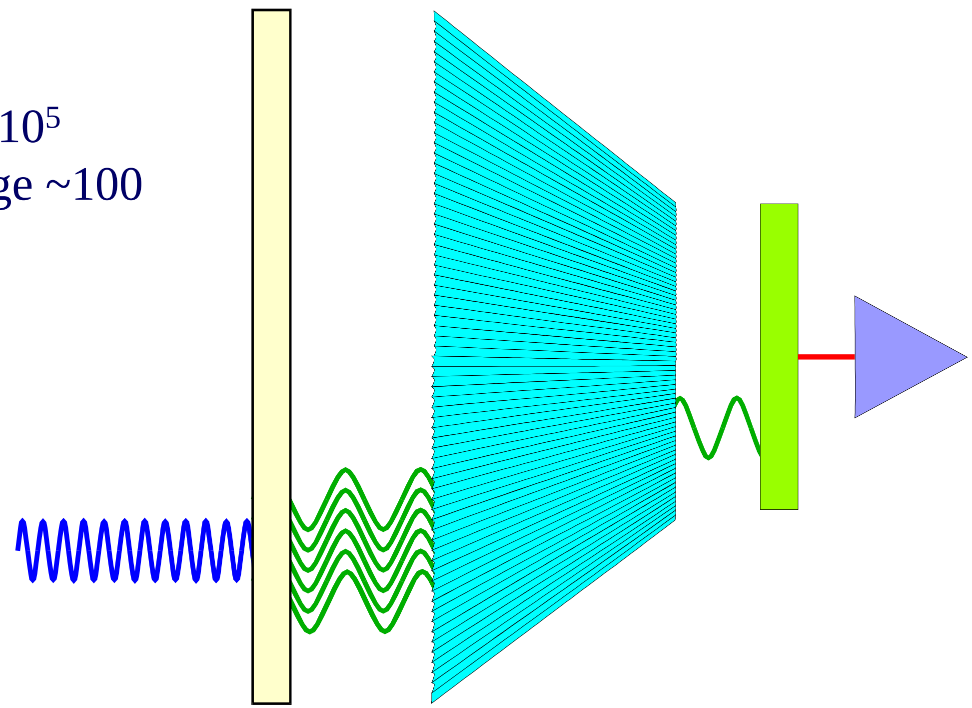
Optics Gain < 1



Phosphor coupled with reducing optics to sensor

Phosphor gain >> 1

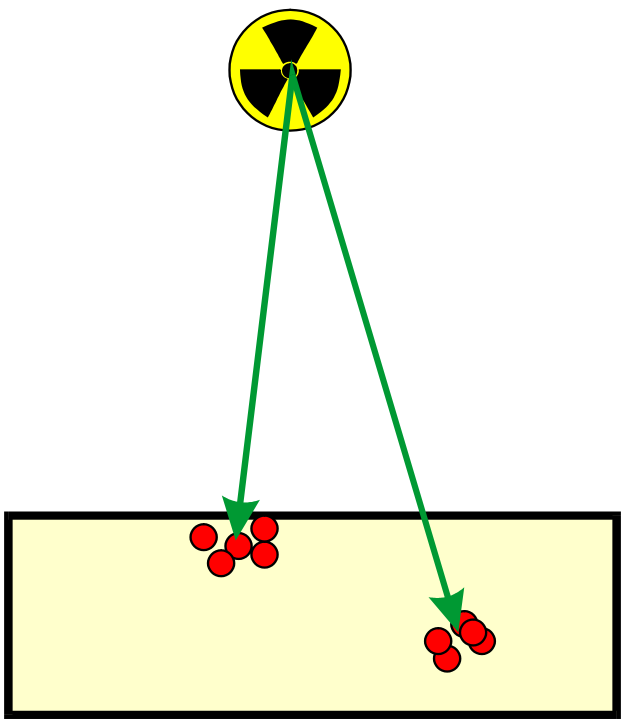
Optics Gain << 1



Computed Radiography-Image Plate

Exposure

Creation of F centres
Gain >> 1

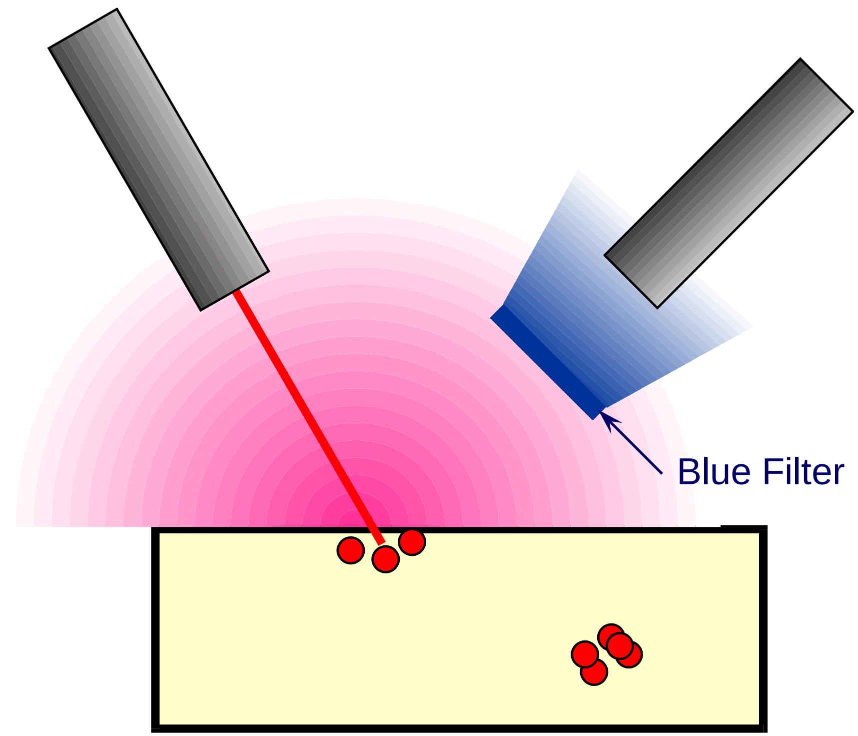


Scanning

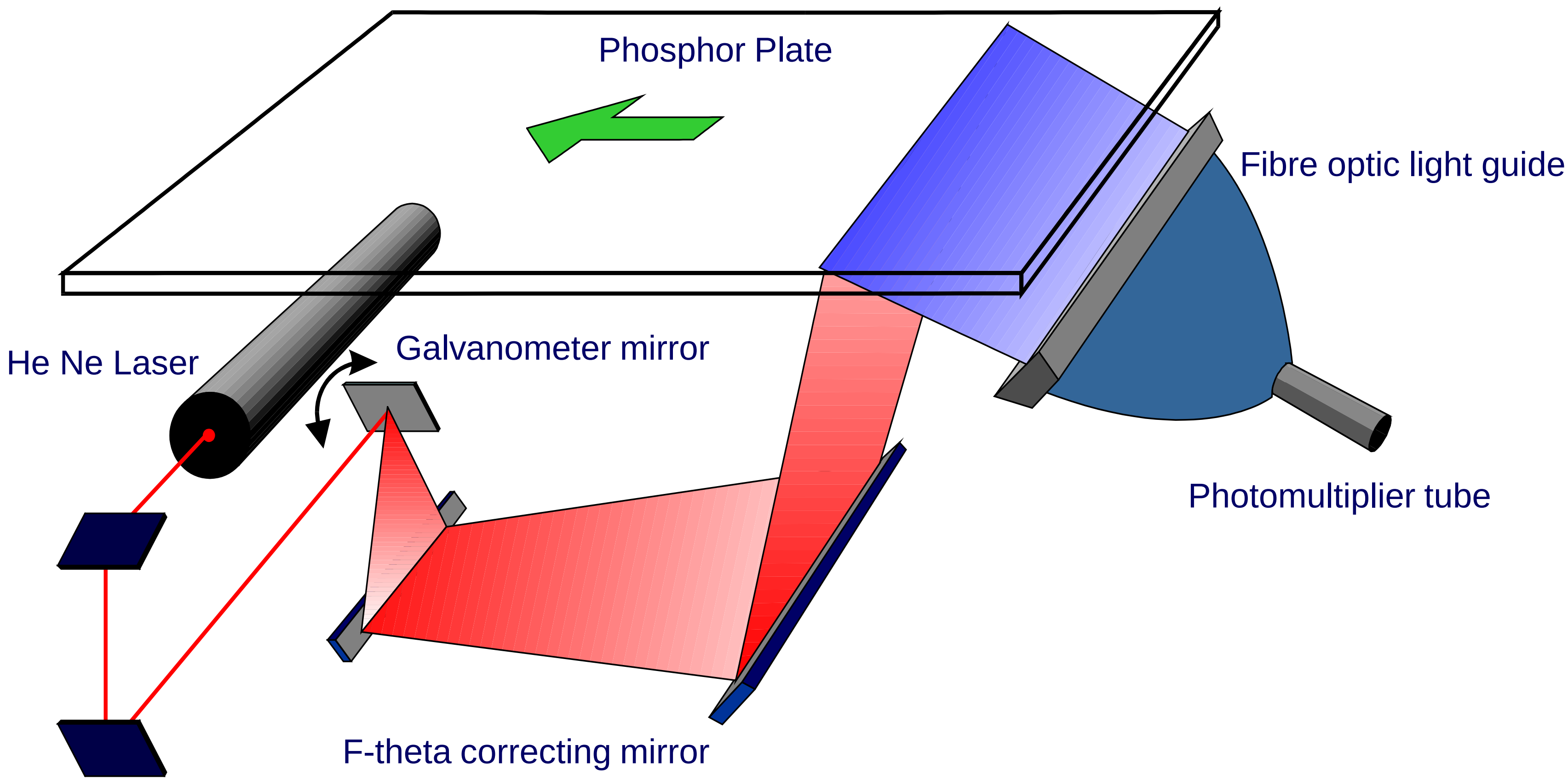
Stimulation of PSL
Gain < 1

Collection of PSL
Gain < 1

PMT Amplification
Gain > 1

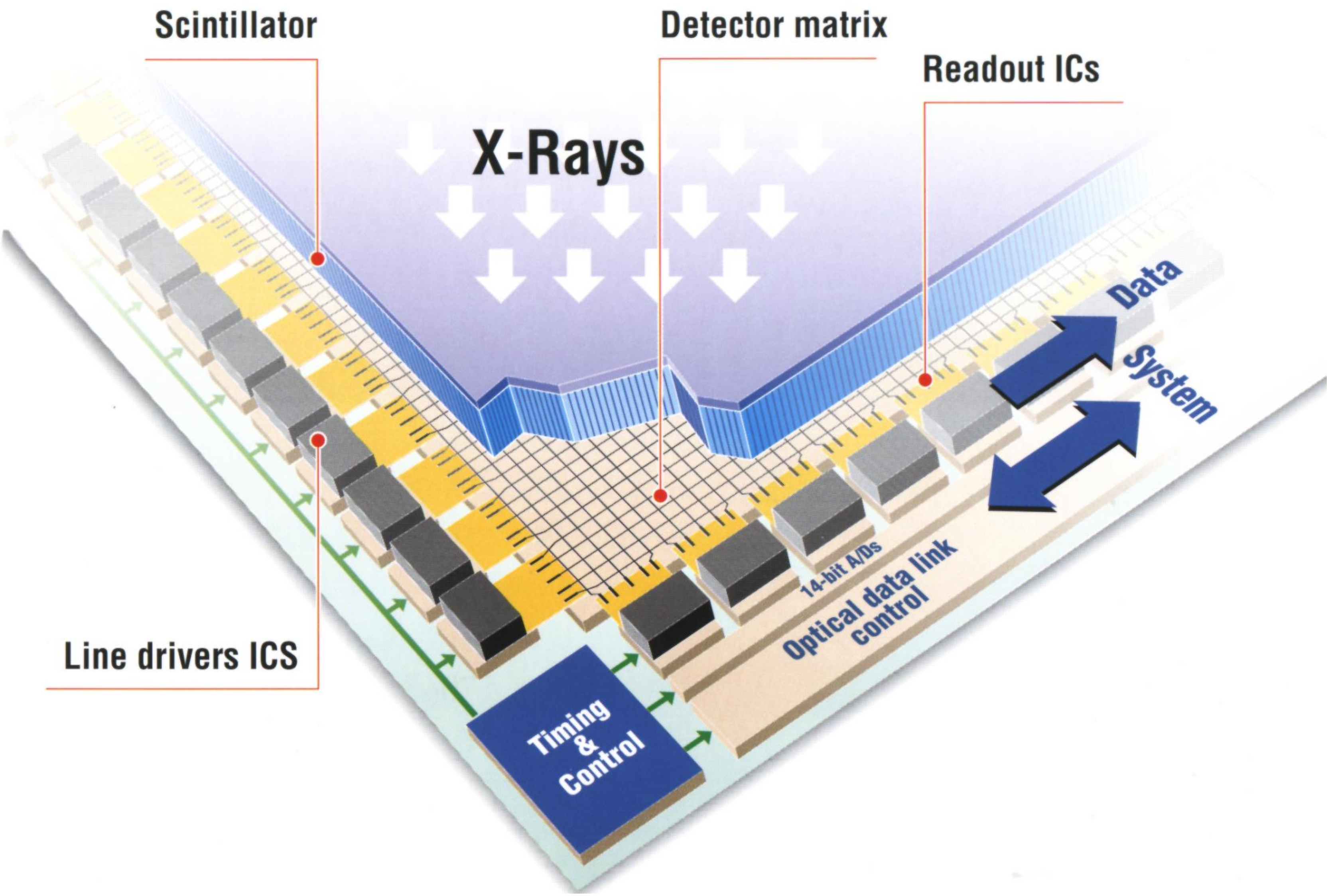


X-Y Flat bed Scanner



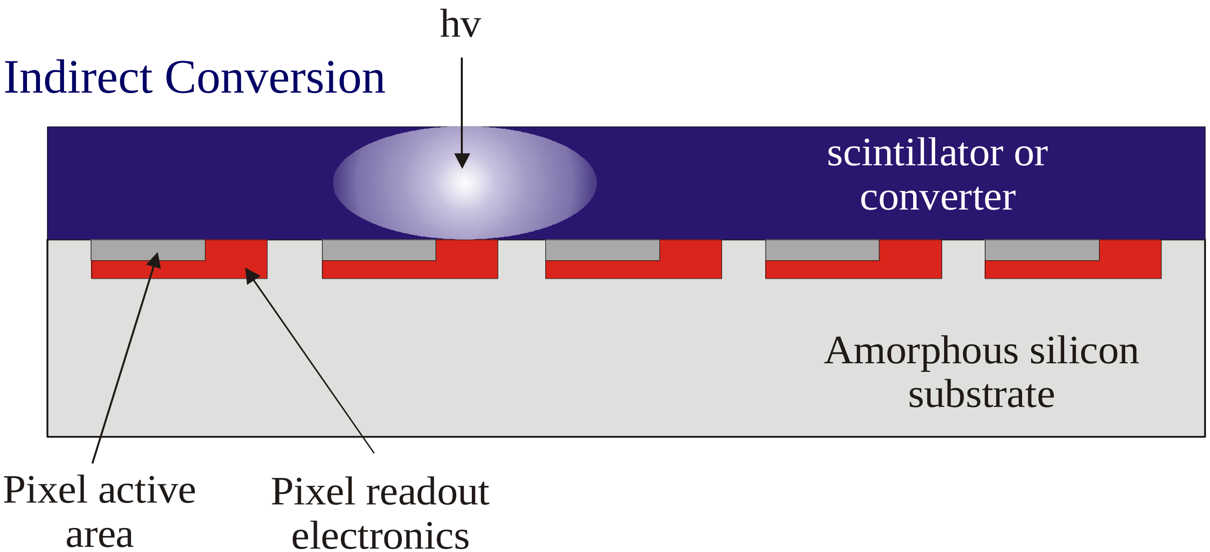
Distributed Light Collection

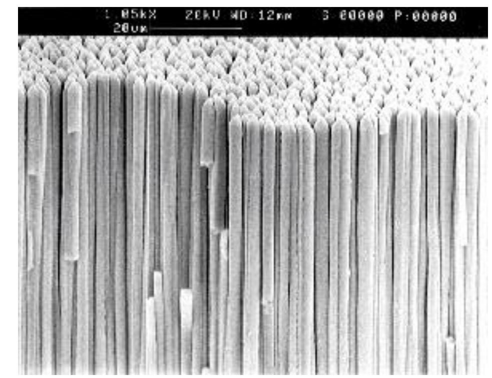
TFT Flat panel Detector



a-Si:H TFT arrays

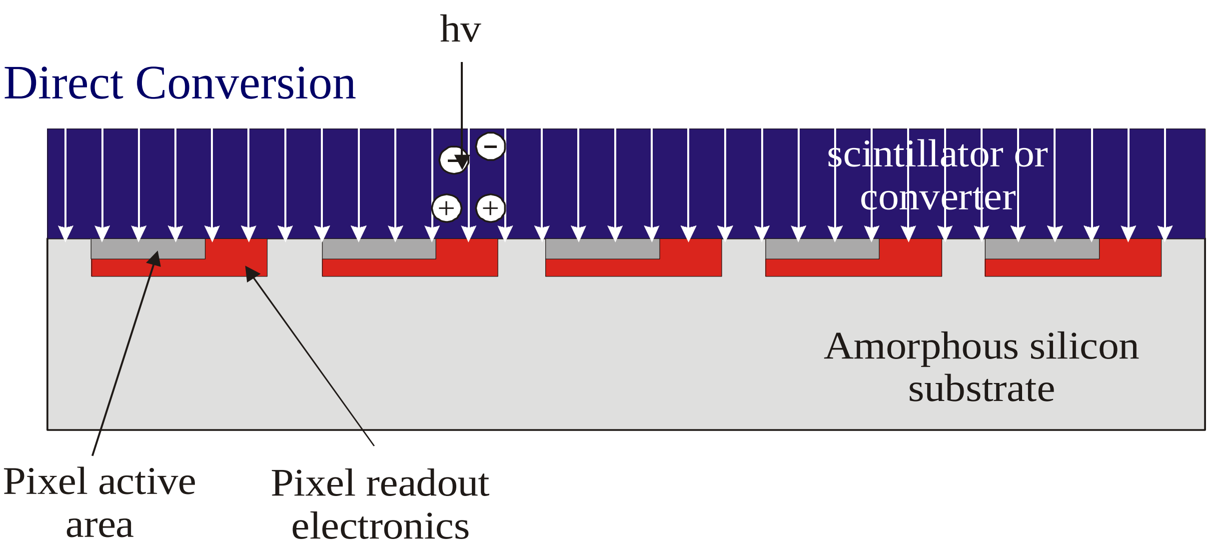
Indirect Conversion



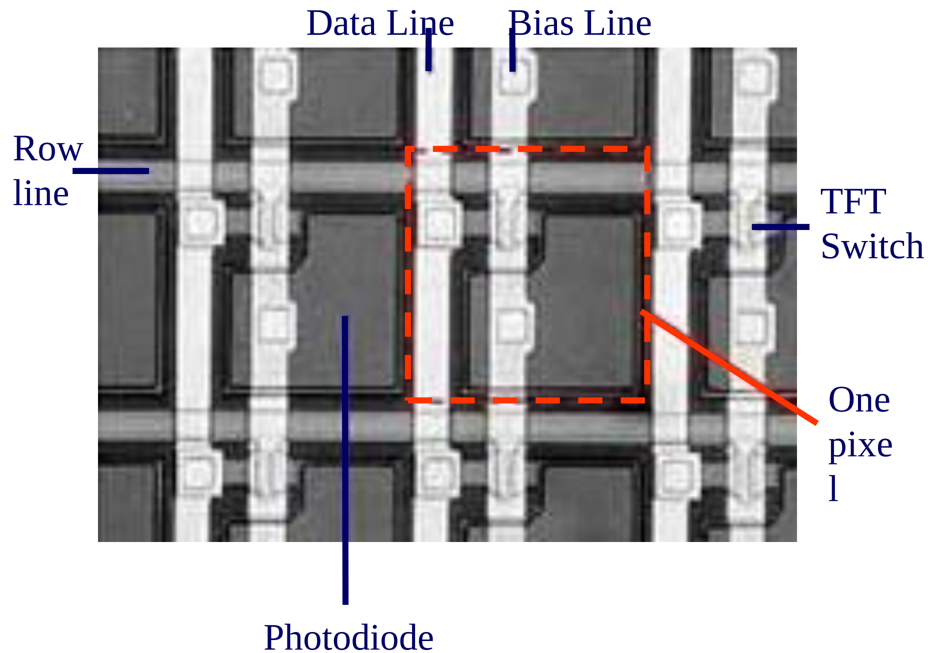


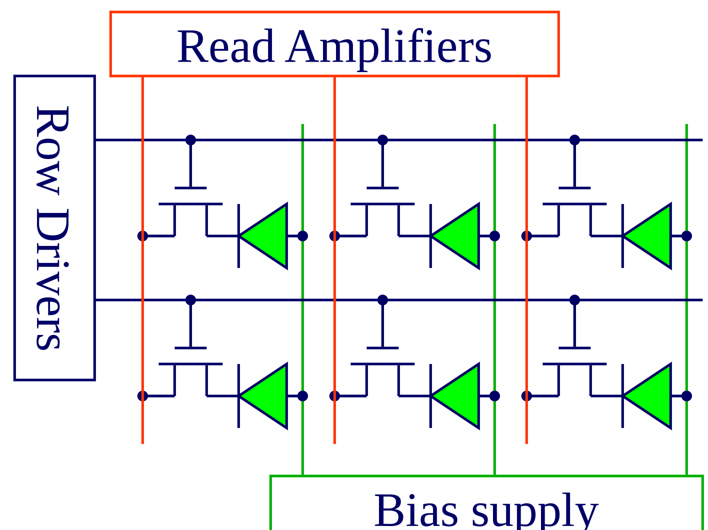
Needle diameter 6μm

Direct Conversion

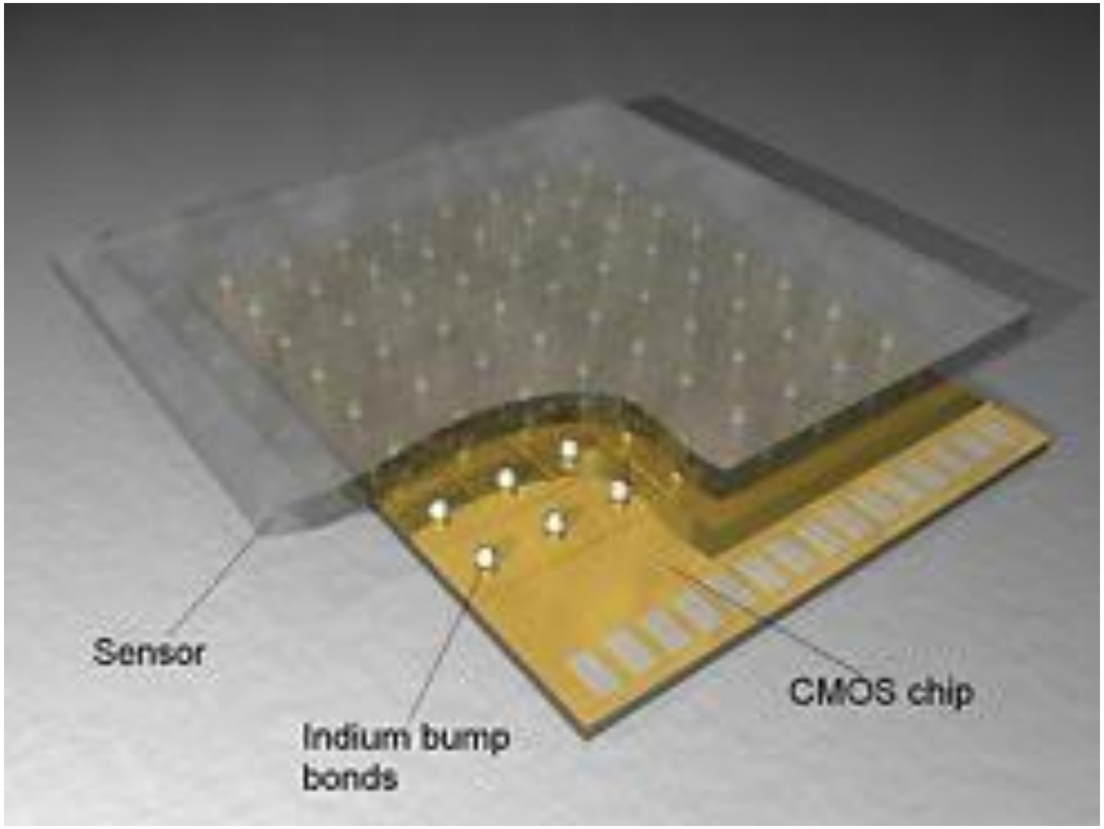


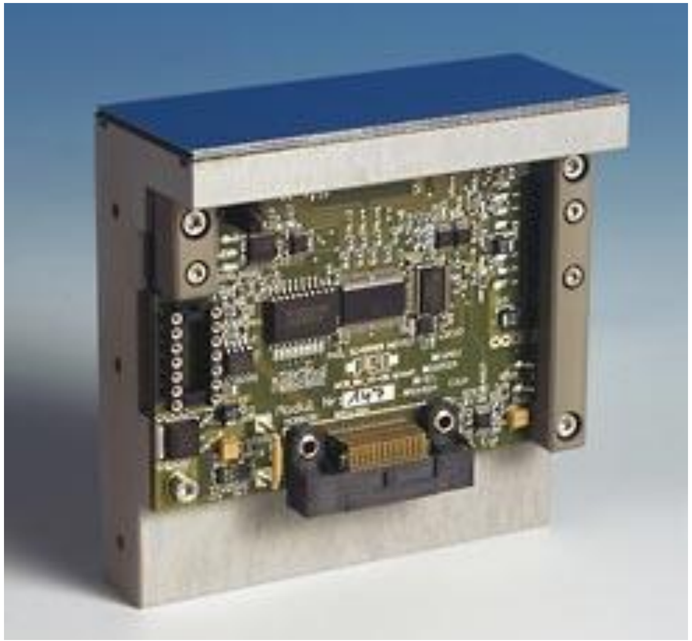
a-Si:H Array dpiX - Flashscan 30





PILATUS 6M Detector



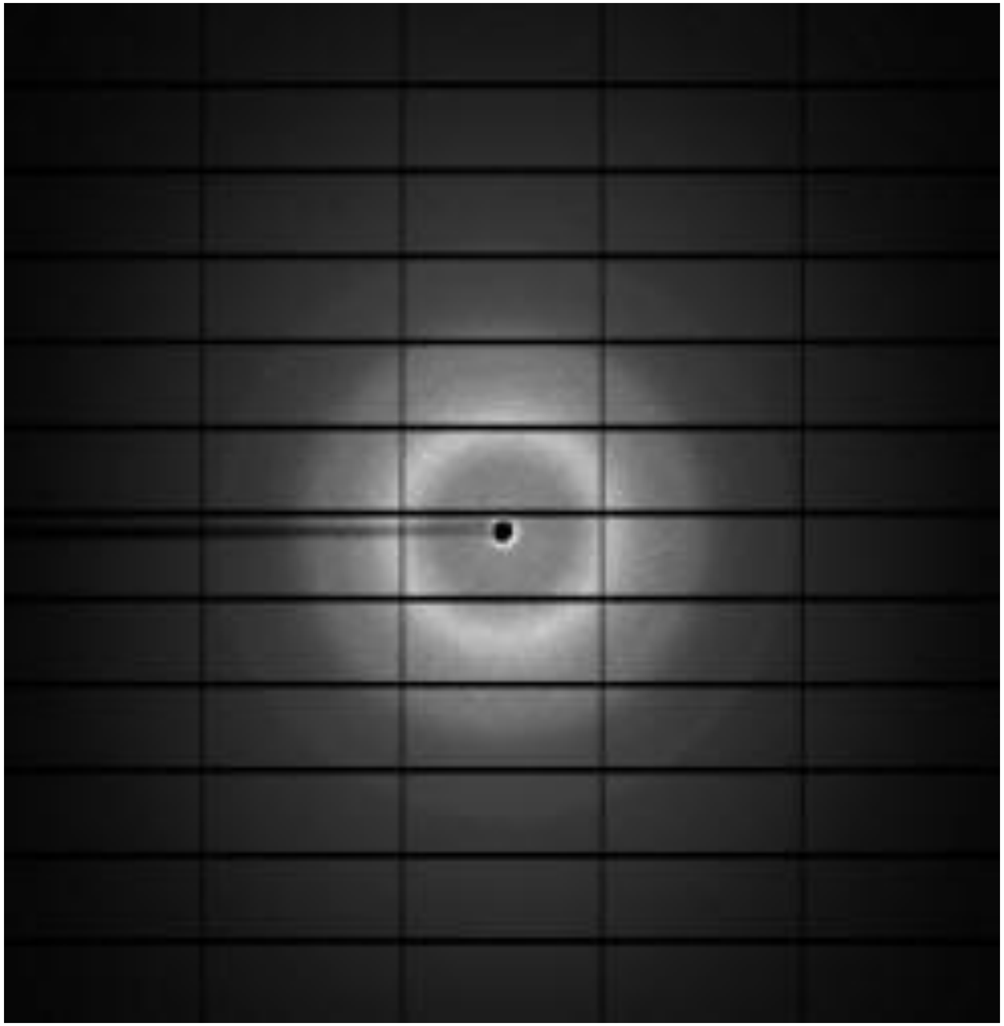


Ch. Brönnimann, E. Eikenberry, B.Schmitt, M. Naef, G. Hülsen (SLS); R. Horisberger, S. Streuli (TEM); Ch. Buehler (LOG); F. Glaus (LMN); M. Horisberger (LNS)

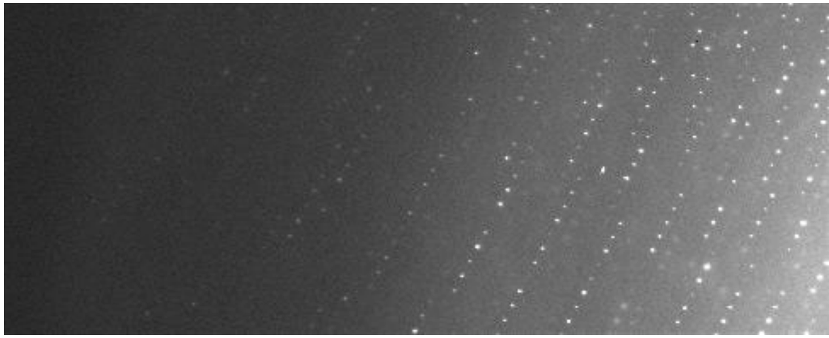
PILATUS 6M Detector

- Sensor 5 x 12 = 60 modules
  - Reverse-biased silicon diode array
  - Thickness 320 μm
  - Pixel size 172 x 172 μm^2
- 2463 x 2527 = 6,224,001 pixels
- Area 431 x 448 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 x 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).



Agilent S2 CCD with Smart Sensitivity

- The S2 CCD detectors employ groundbreaking Smart Sensitivity Control, which tunes detector sensitivity to match the strength of the data observed. Similar to ISO settings in digital photography, this selects the widest dynamic range or the highest sensitivity, as needed, to maximize your data quality.

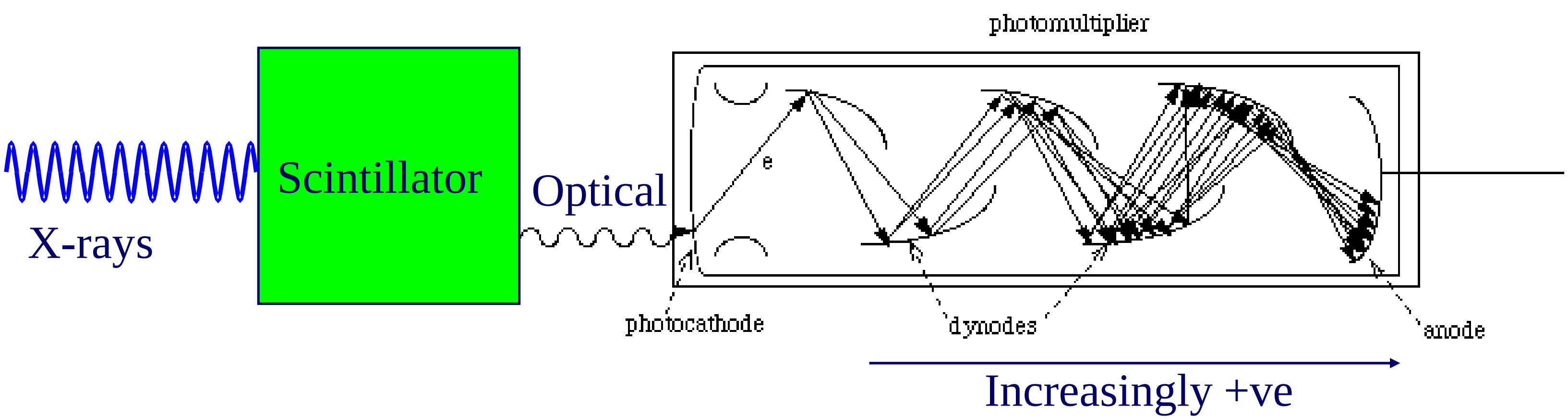
Spectroscopic Detectors

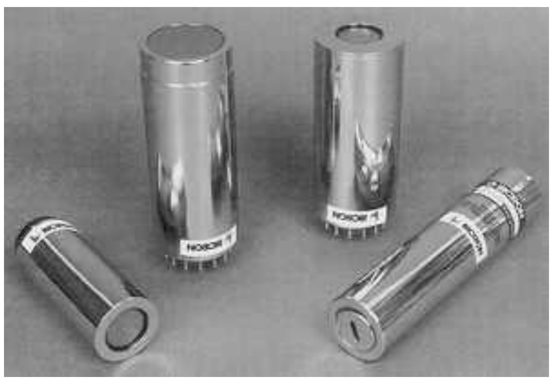
Rainbow Lorikeets

Spectroscopic Detectors

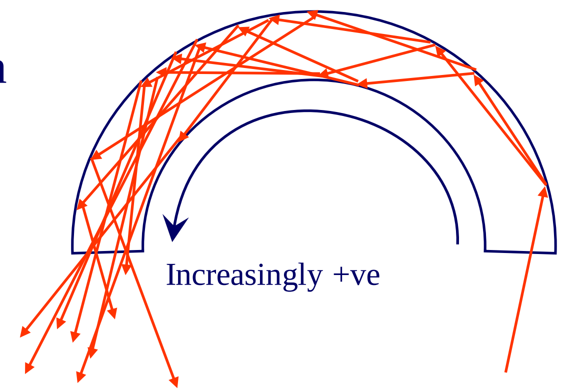
- For quantitative work, most are counting detectors that measure the size of individual energy deposits
- Alternative is the use of filters as in optical colour cameras

Electron multipliers & Scintillators





Channeltron is a similar with distributed dynode



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

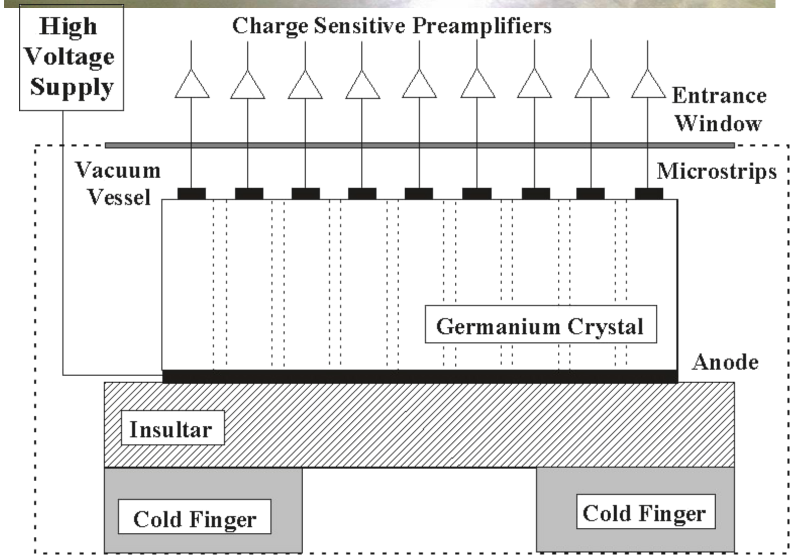
Multi Channel Spectoscopic Detectors

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
  - 55.5×50.5×6mm
- Strips
  - Number 128
  - Width 300μm
  - Interstrip 50μm
  - 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 $\sigma = 1/\sqrt{N}$

  $= (E/w)^{-½} = (w/E)^{½}$
- $\Delta E/E$ fwhm $= 2.355\sigma$

  $= 2.355(w/E)^{½}$

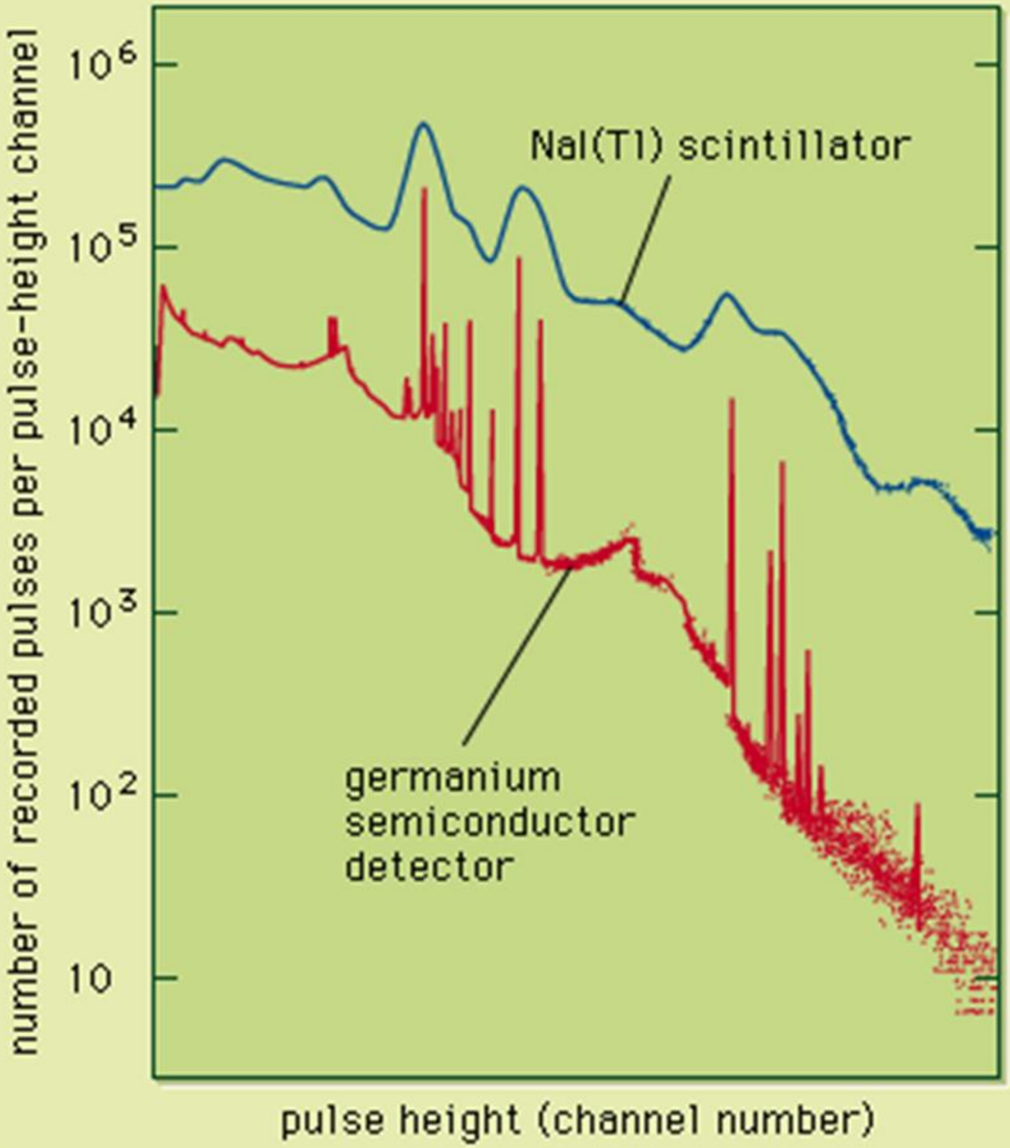
- For Ge, $w = 3$eV so at 10keV $\Delta E/E \sim 4\%$
- For NaI, $w = 30$eV so at 10keV $\Delta E/E \sim 13\%$

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. $\sigma = \sqrt{N}$
- Reality is somewhere in between so we introduce Fano factor F
- Fano factor is defined as $$F = \frac{\sigma^2}{N}$$

  where σ^2 is the variance and N 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 x Poisson relative variance

Scintillator vs Germanium



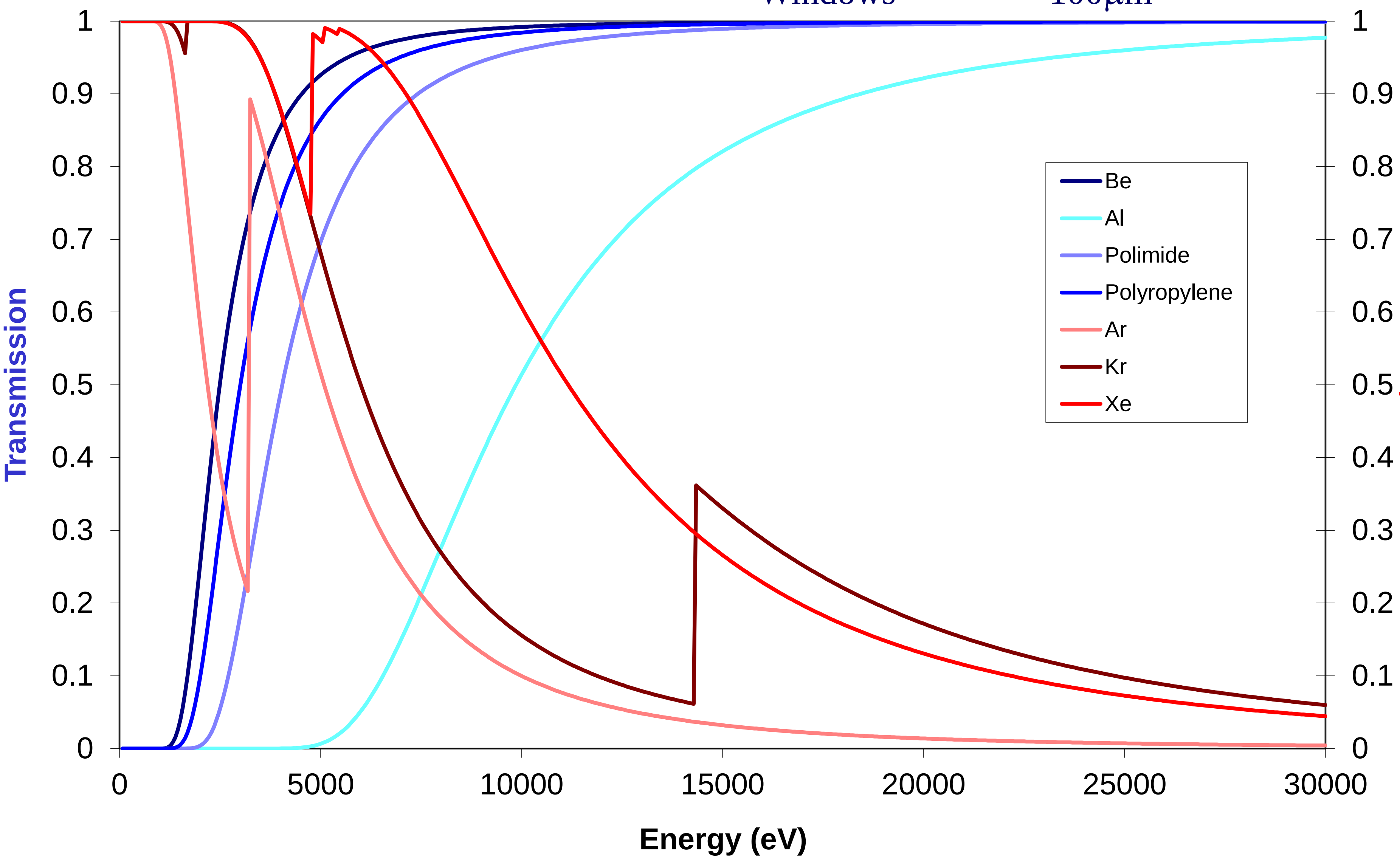
The top spectrum is from a scintillation detector, and the bottom is from a germanium semiconductor detector. The superior energy resolution of the germanium is evident from the much narrower peaks, allowing separation of gamma-ray energies that are unresolved in the scintillator spectrum.

Things to Look Out For

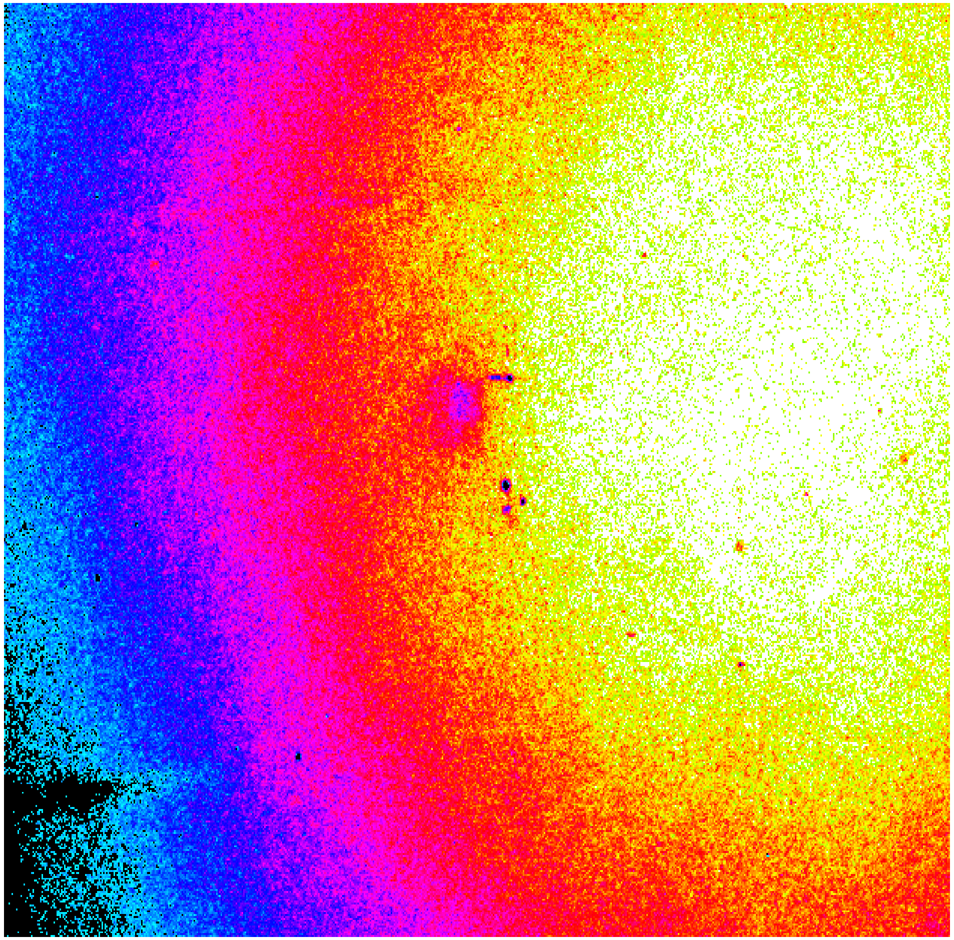
Crocodile

Efficiencies

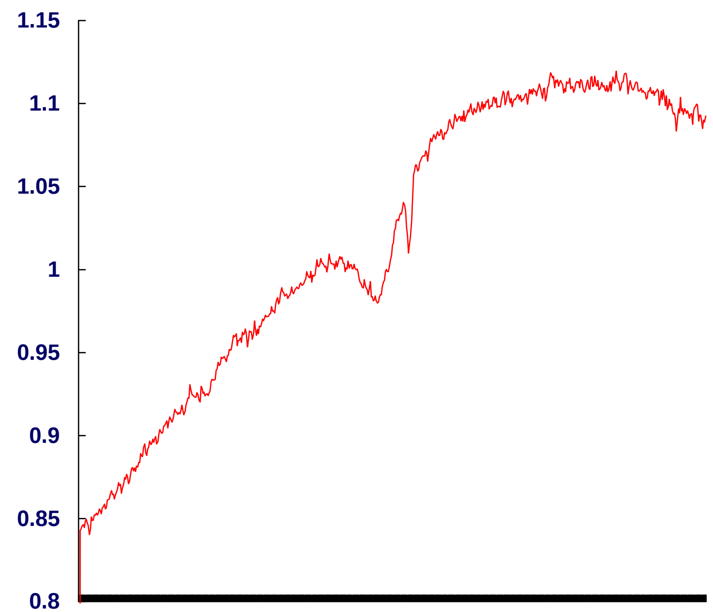
Gas thickness 1cm
Windows 100µm



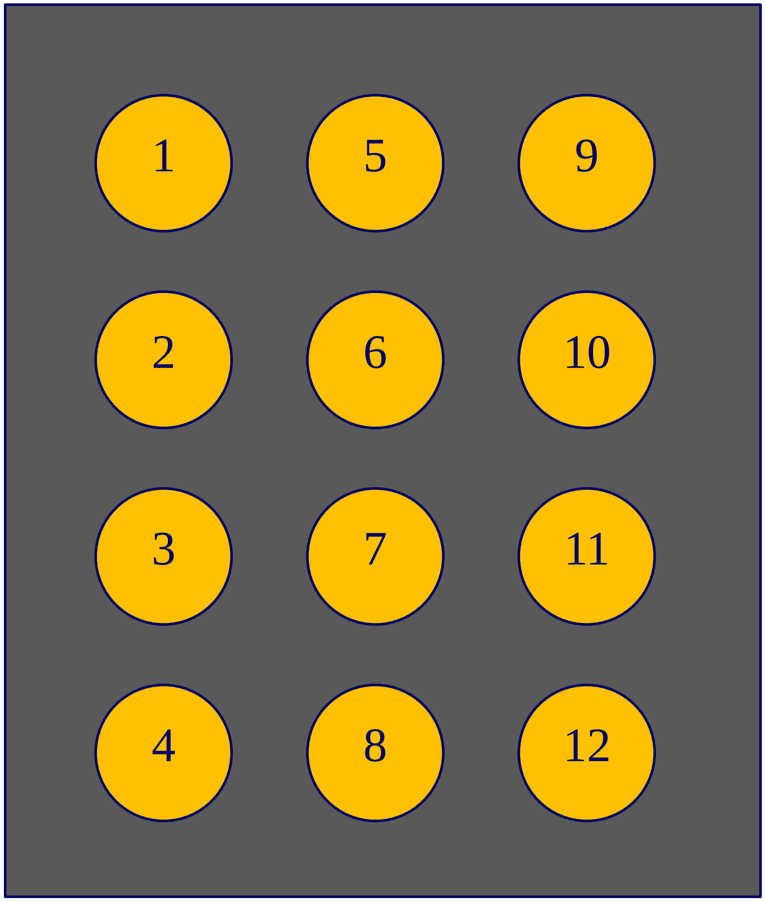
Response to Uniform Illumination



ESRF TV Detector
Thompson IIT & CCD

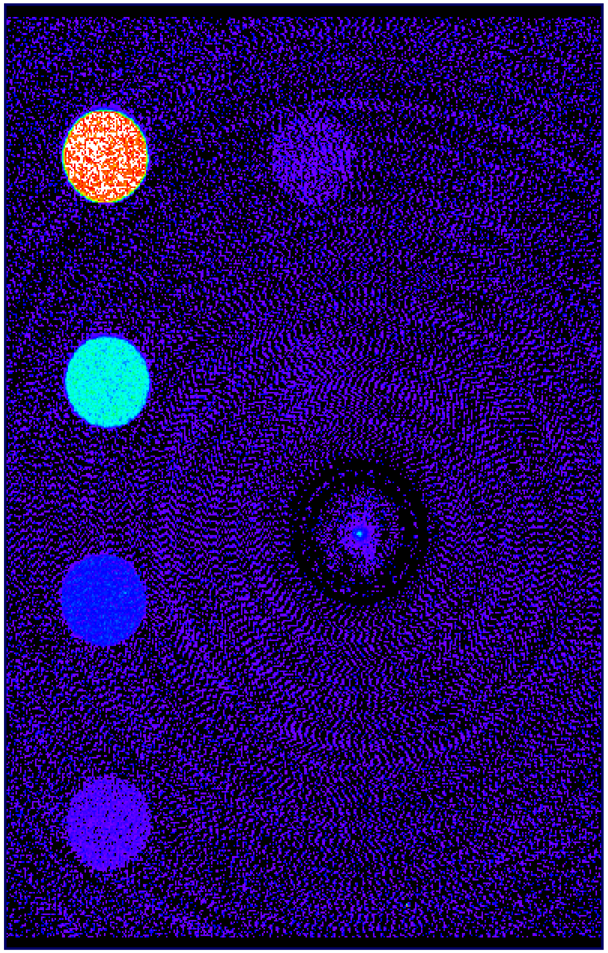


Intensity Test

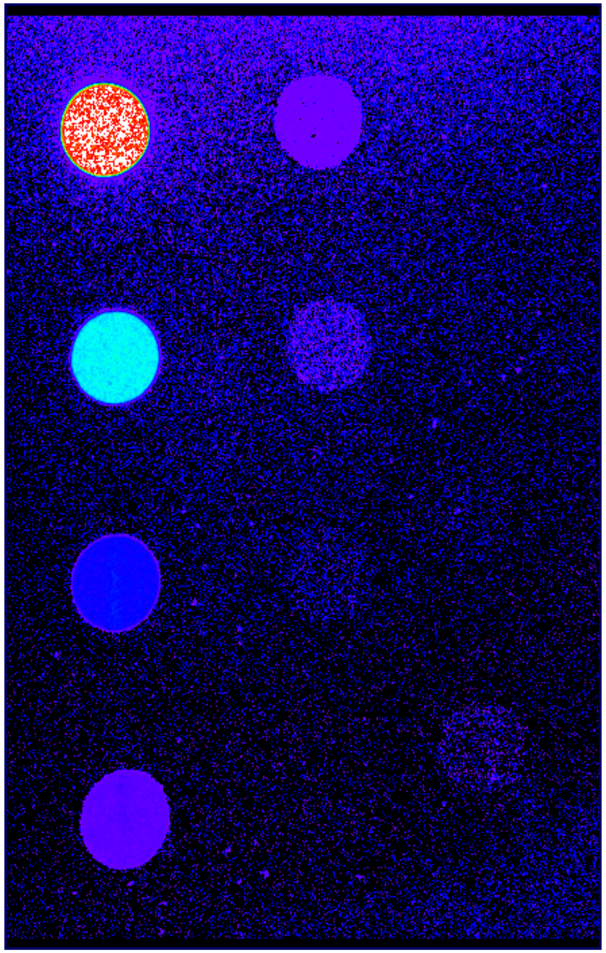


Graded Absorber Comparison

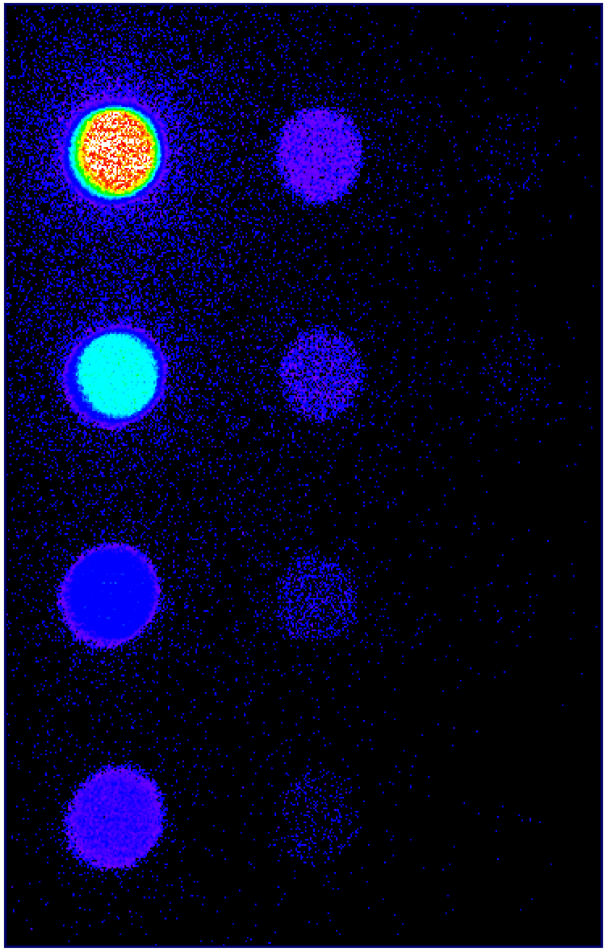
Mar Image Plate



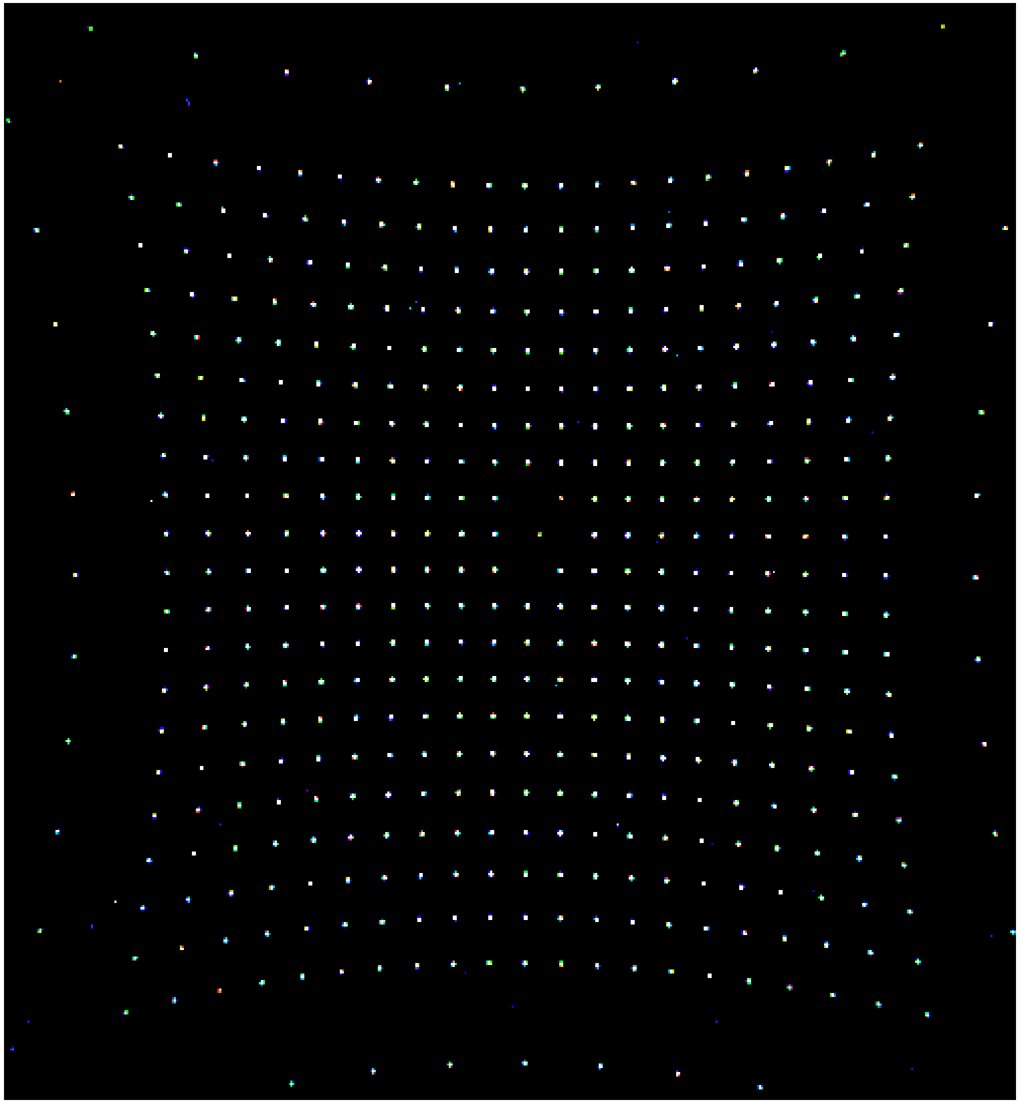
ESRF-Thompson IIT / CCD



Daresbury MWPC

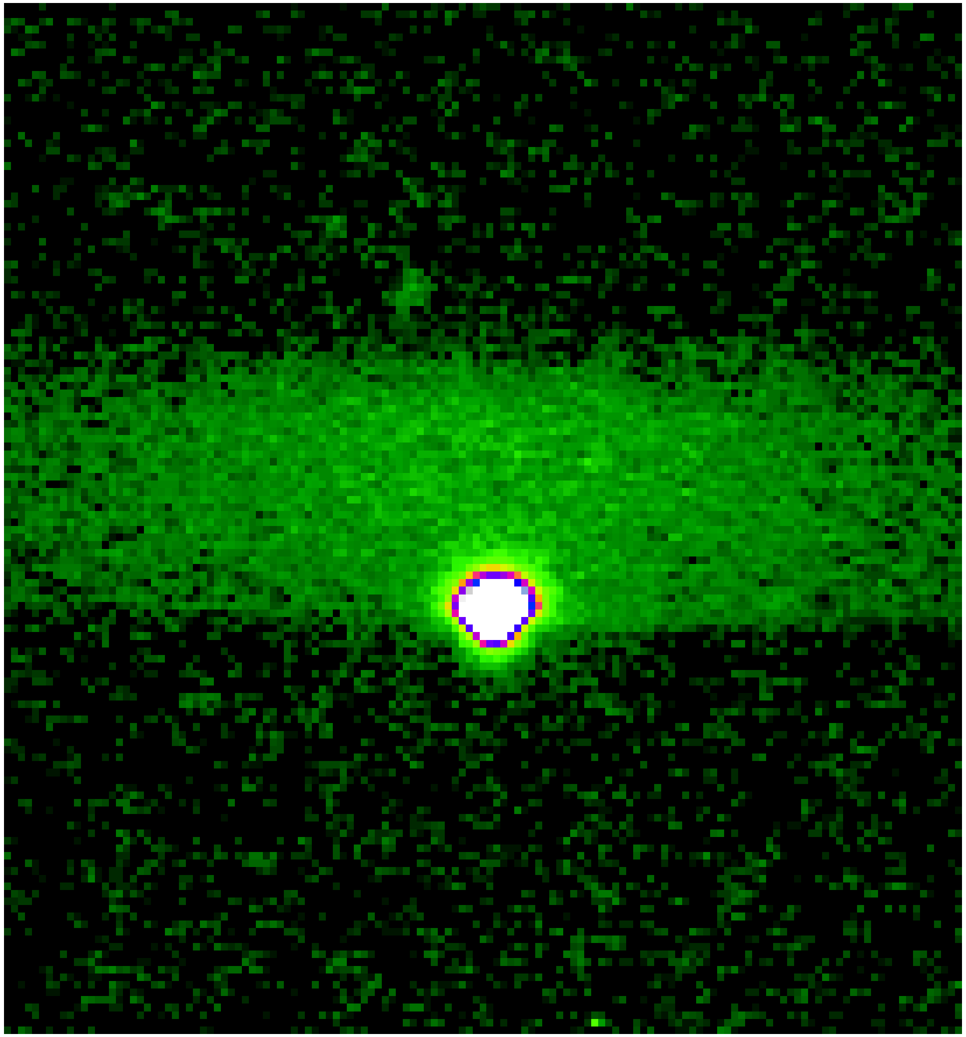


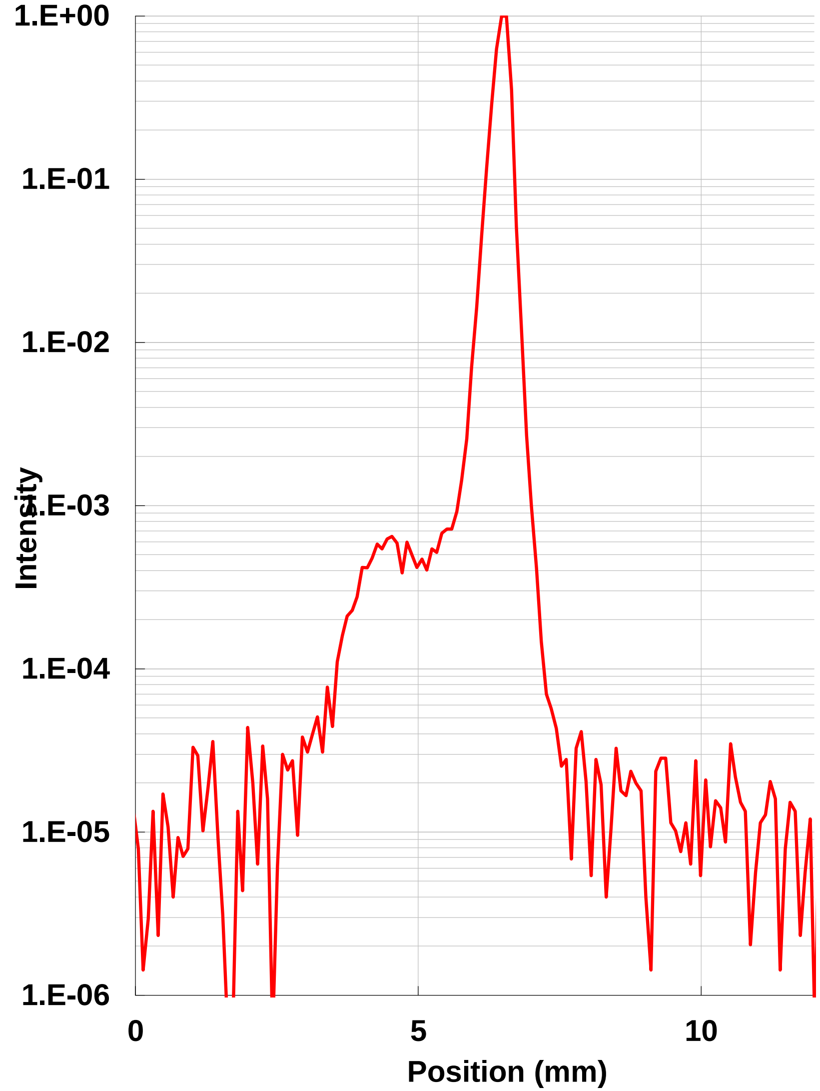
Spatial distortion x = f(y)



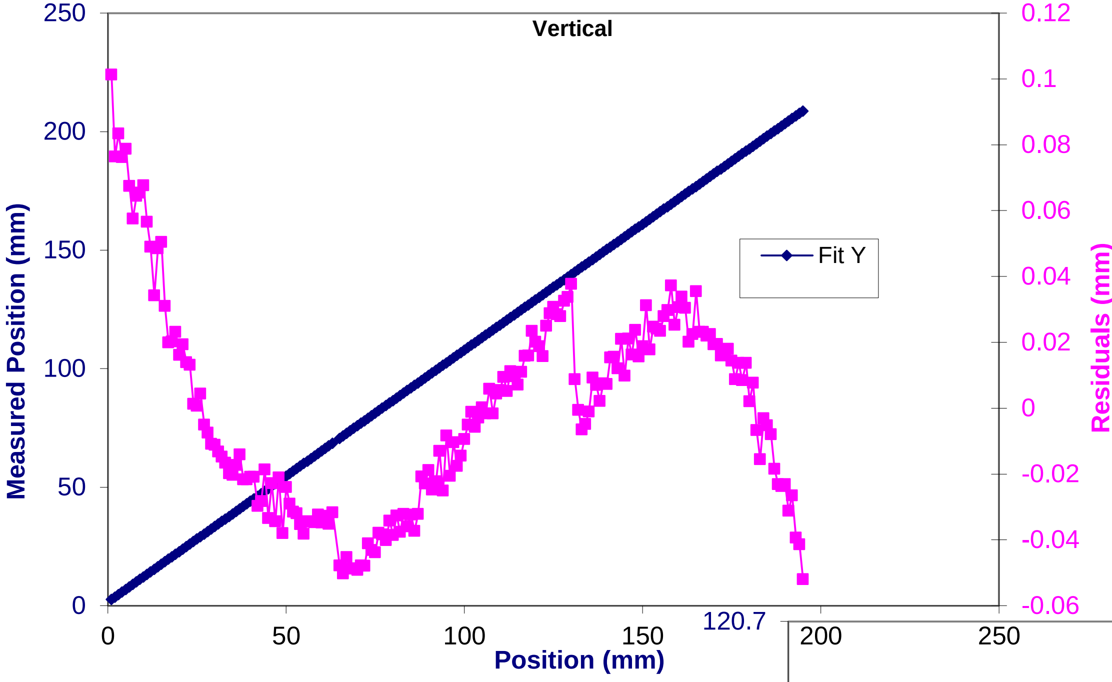
ESRF Image intensifier detector

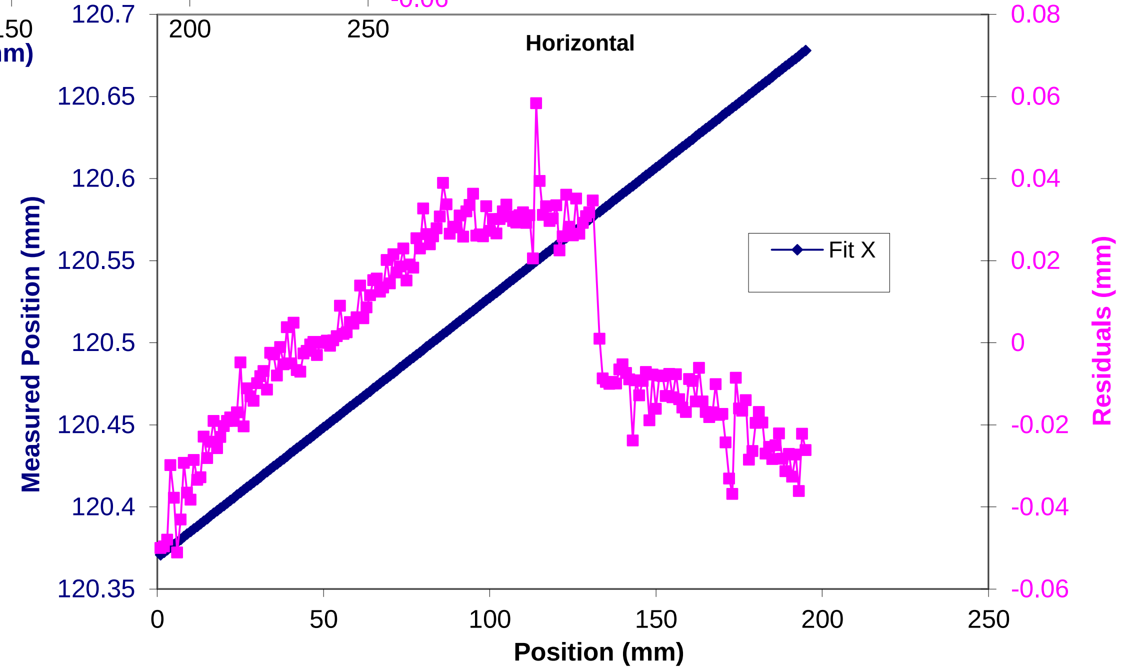
IPlate Single Peak PSF



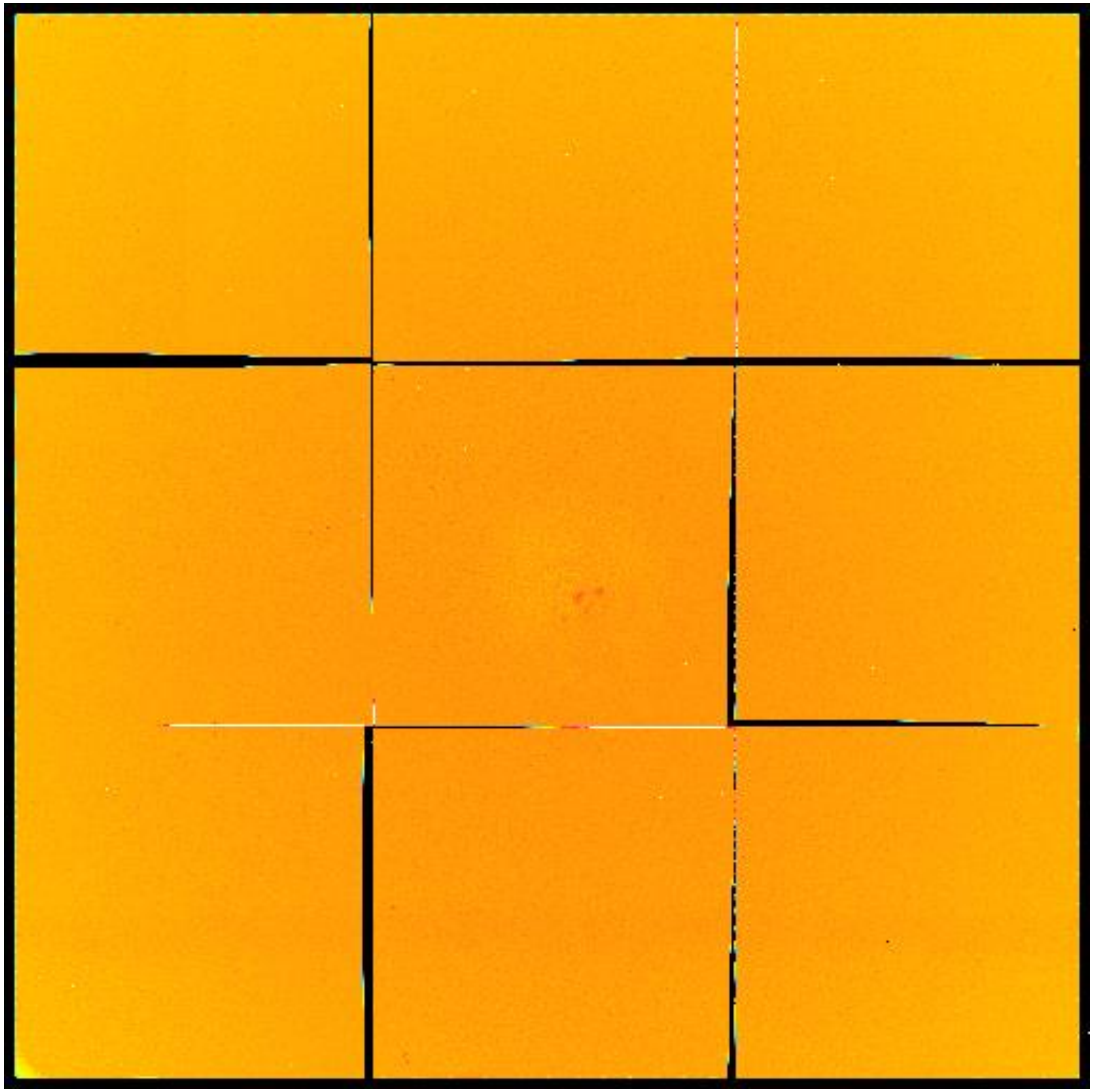


Geometric Distortion x ≠ f(y)



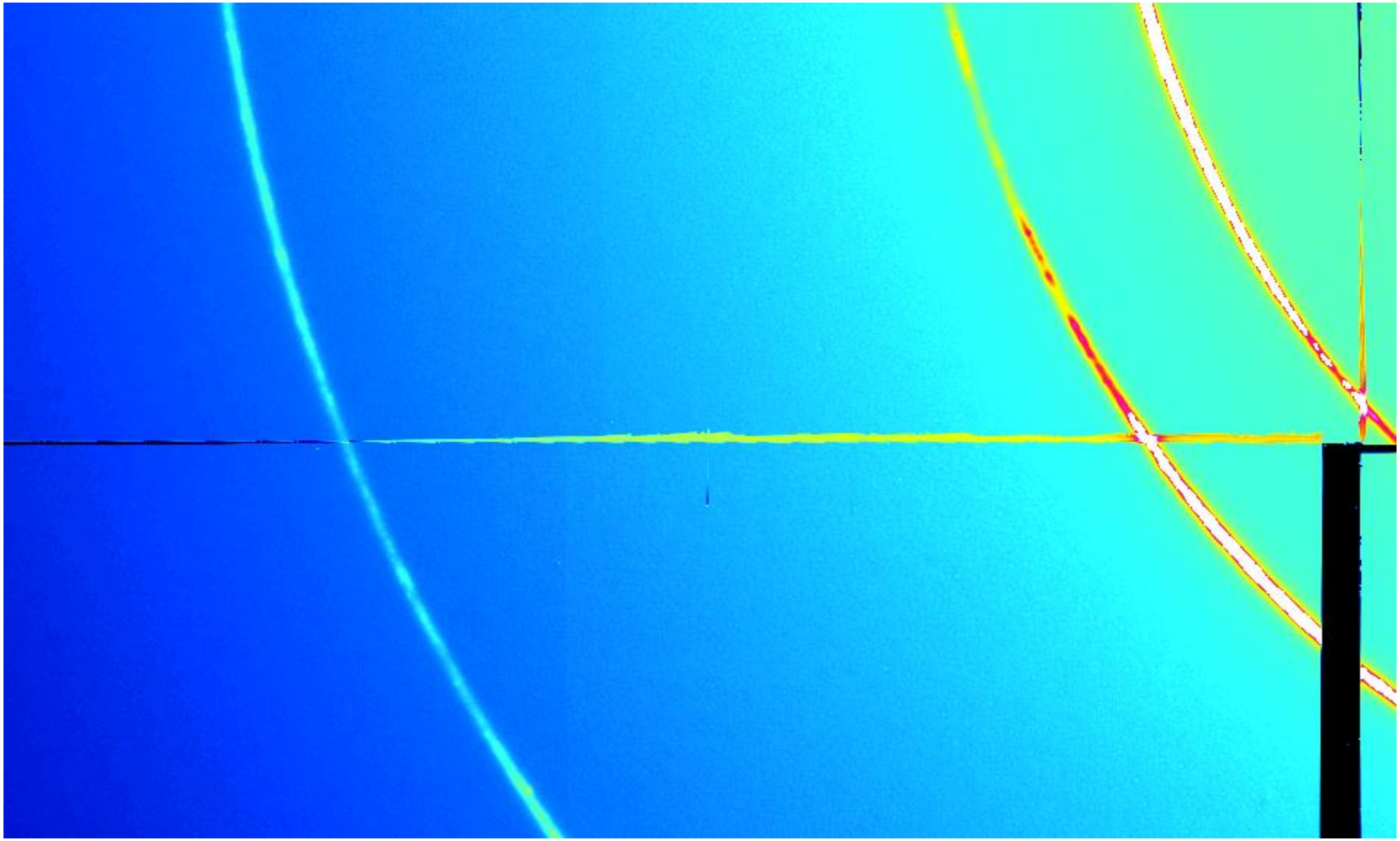


Gaps

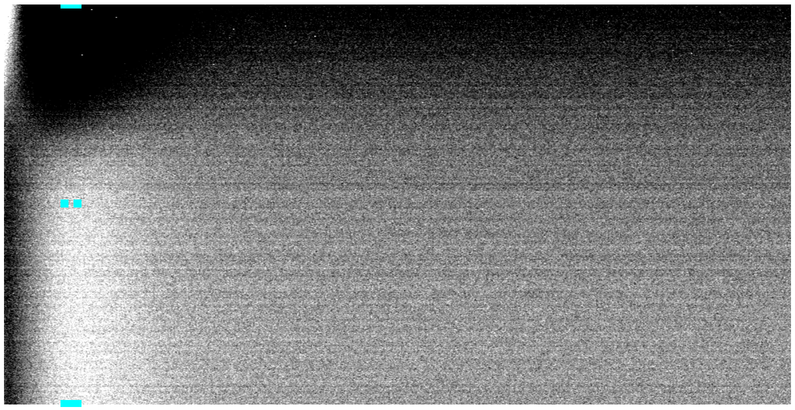


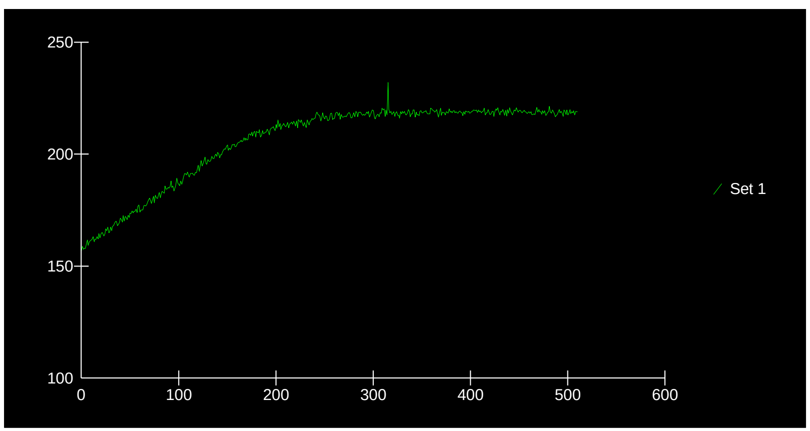
Spec	0.2mm max
Worst gap	2.97mm
Pixels in gaps	513922 5.45%

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)

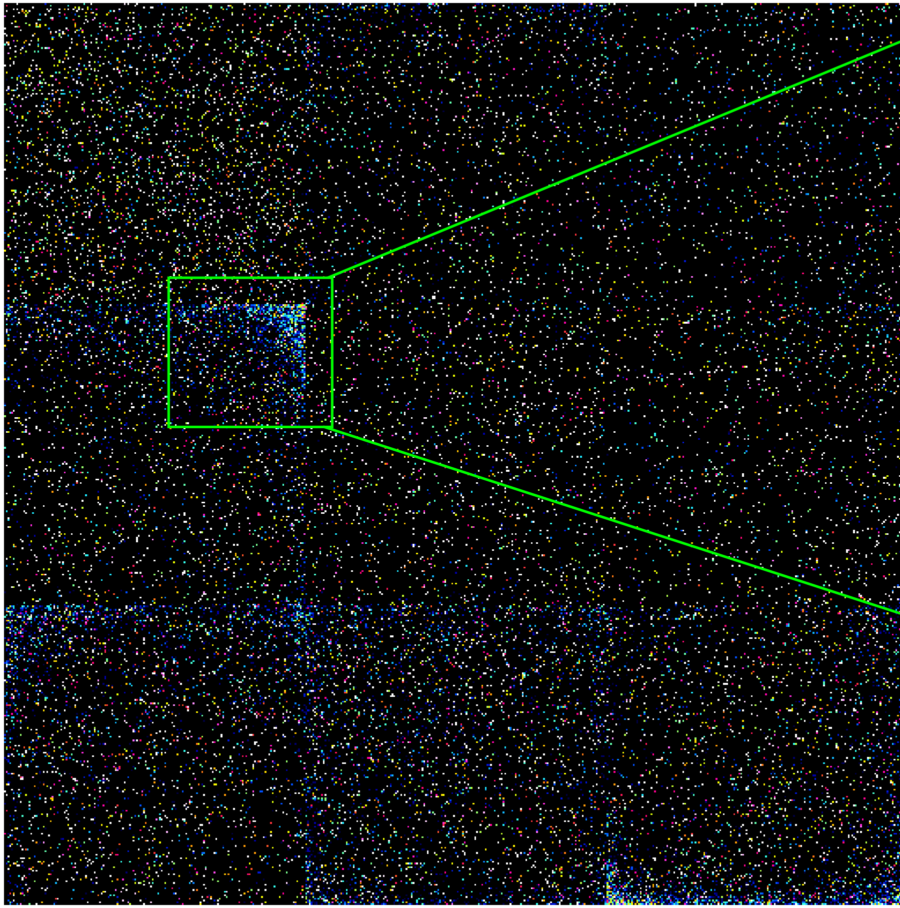
2. A dark image (no irradiation of detector)

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

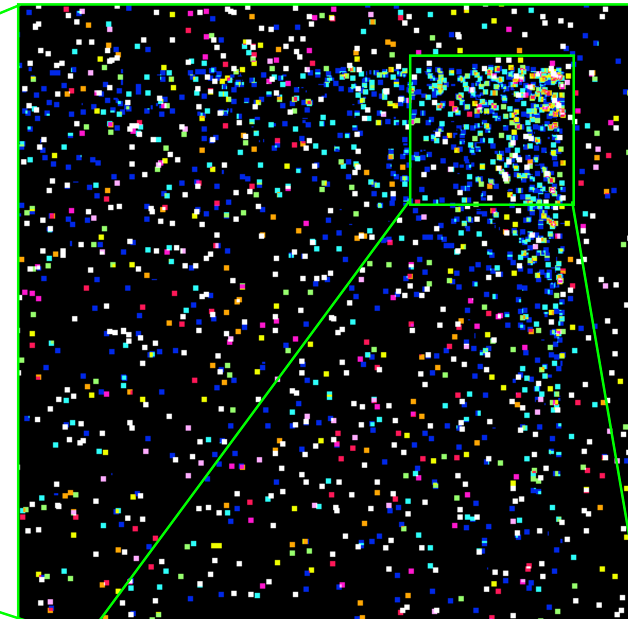
Then apply the following correction

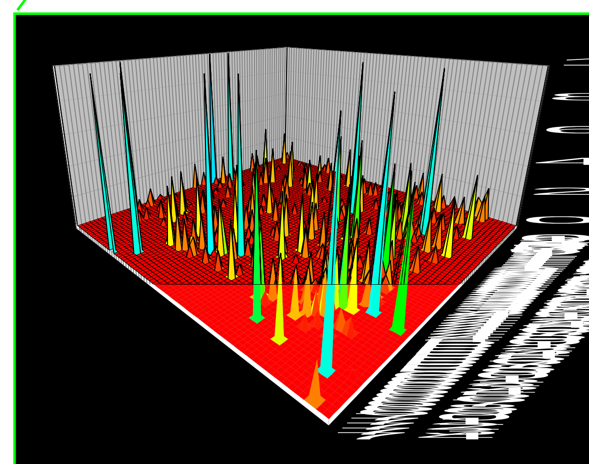
$$Corrected = \frac{(image - dark)}{(flat - dark)}$$

Dark Current



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



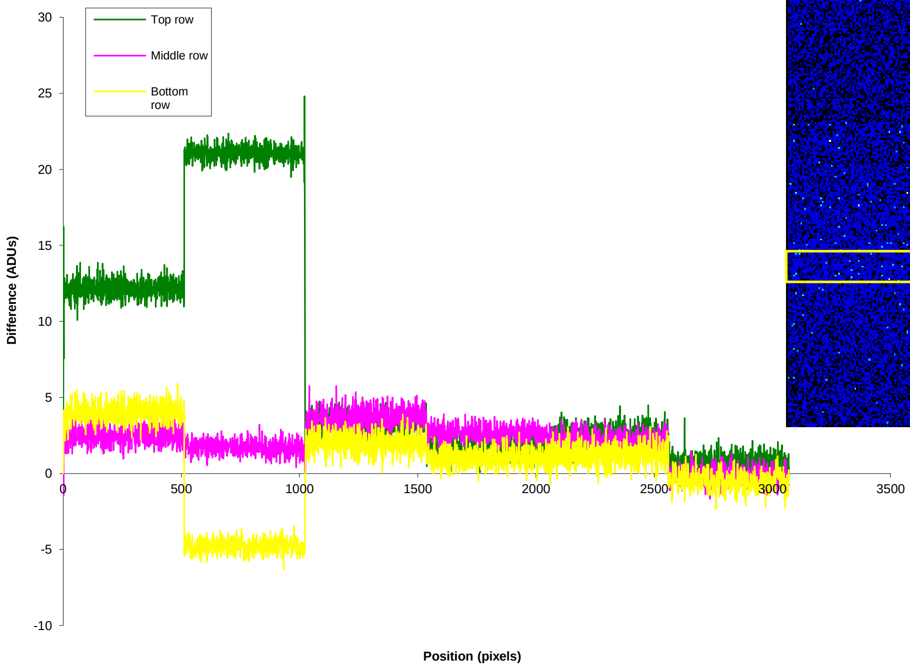


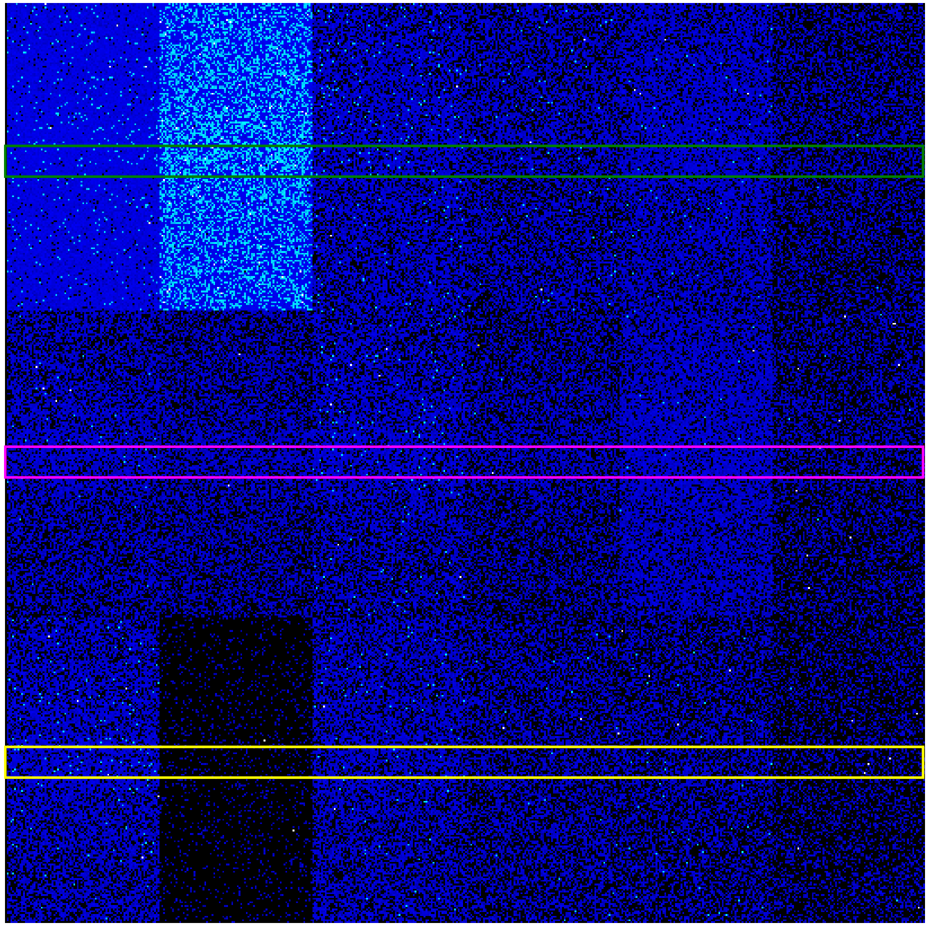
Number failing 2 measurements 5-2000s

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

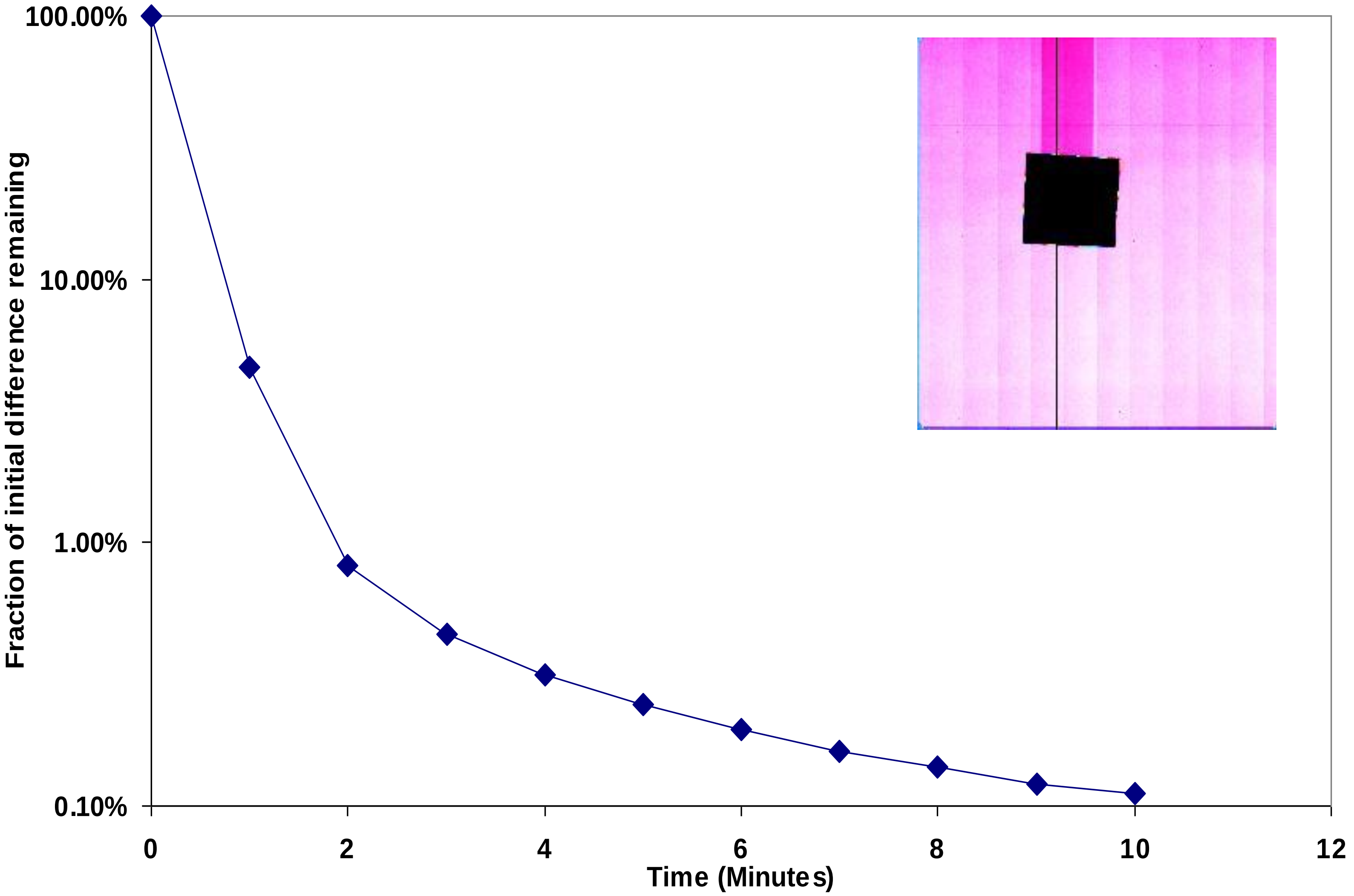
nb. 14300 pixels not common to both

Subtraction of dark images





Flashscan 30 - Image Lag



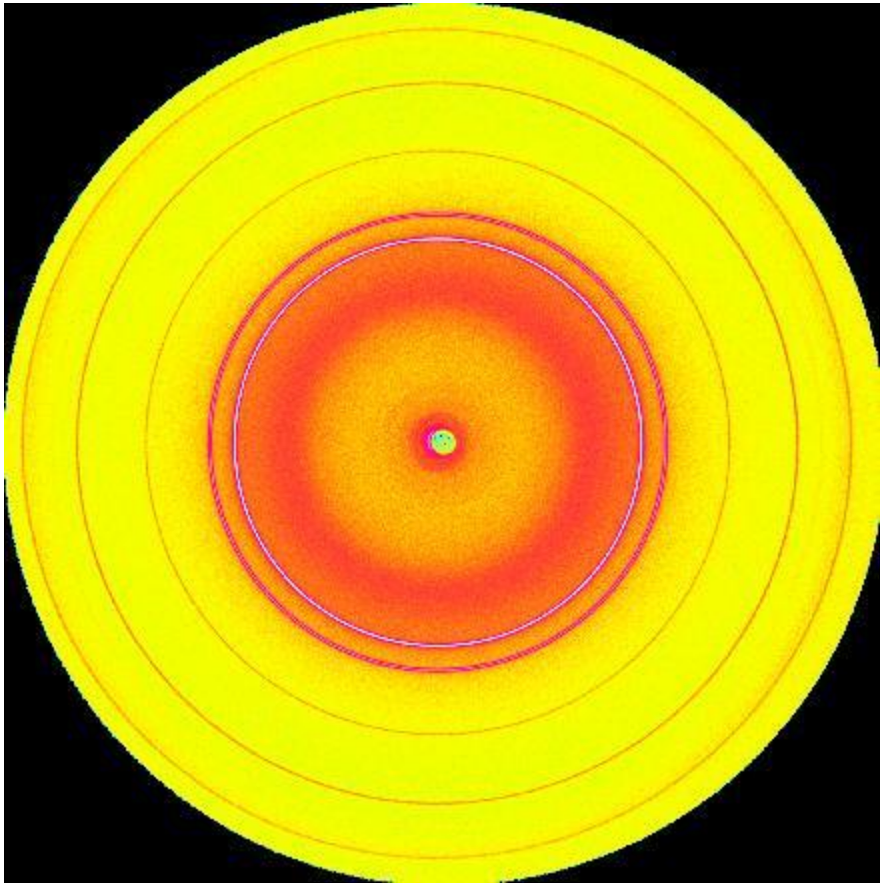
Radiation Damage (Medipix)

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

dpiX Flashscan 30 PaxScan 4030

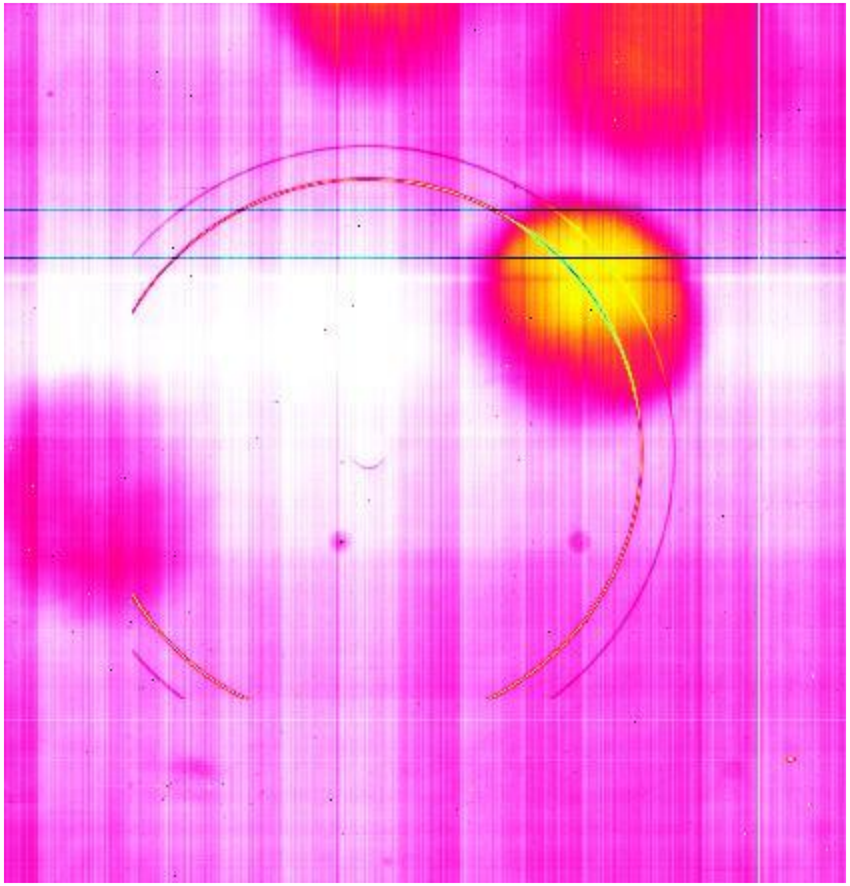
Flashscan 30 - Performance

Mar Image Plate



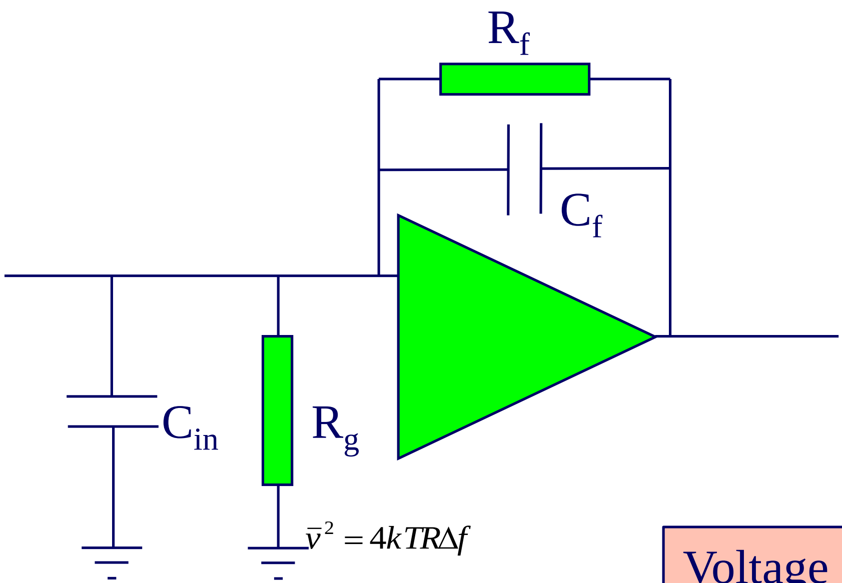
t_{int}=30s

Flashscan-30



t_{int}=190s

Amplification



- In almost all cases we require amplification
- Amplifier-detector interaction is critical
- Most important element is the input
- Noise is the major issue
  - Thermal or Johnson Noise in Resistor
    - Brownian motion of electrons
    - No current flow or voltage required
    - White noise
  - Shot Noise
    - Fluctuations in current
    - White noise

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

Voltage
Temperature
Resistance
Bandwidth
Current
Charge e$^-$
DC current
Bandwidth

- Voltage mode
  - Output ∝ input voltage
  - Effect of R_f dominates C_f
- Current mode
  - Output ∝ input current
  - Low input impedance
- Charge mode
  - Output ∝ input charge
  - C_f dominates R_f

Equivalent Noise Charge

- 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
- I_D = Drain current

- Note that ENC is directly related to energy resolution
- FWHM(keV) = 2.355×10^{-3} ENC/e*w* where *w* is the energy per electron

Noise Dependence

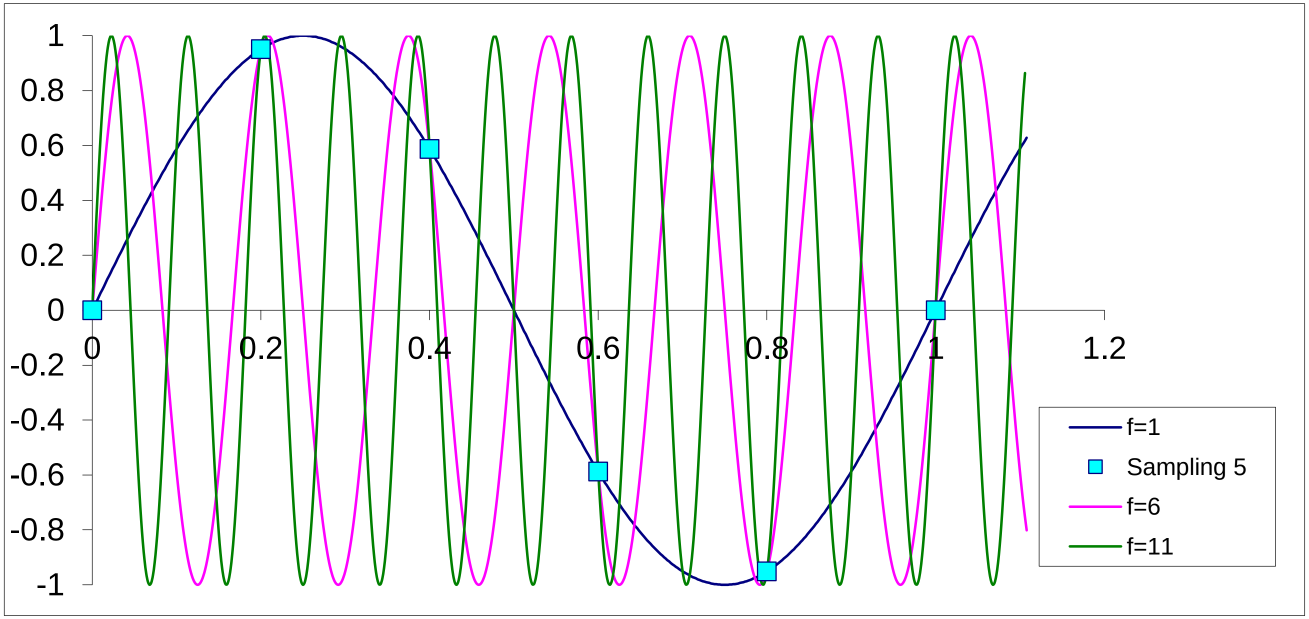
$$ENC^2 = e^2\left[\frac{kT}{2R_f}\tau + \frac{q_e I_D}{4}\tau + \frac{kT(C_{in})^2}{2g_m\tau}\right]$$

- 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
- TAKE home message
  - Make electronics only just fast enough

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 occurs at frequencies $f \pm nf_s$
  - where f = signal frequency, fs = sampling frequency, n = integer
- If you have 100µm pixels, the ideal spatial resolution (PSF) > 200µm

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 for detectors!

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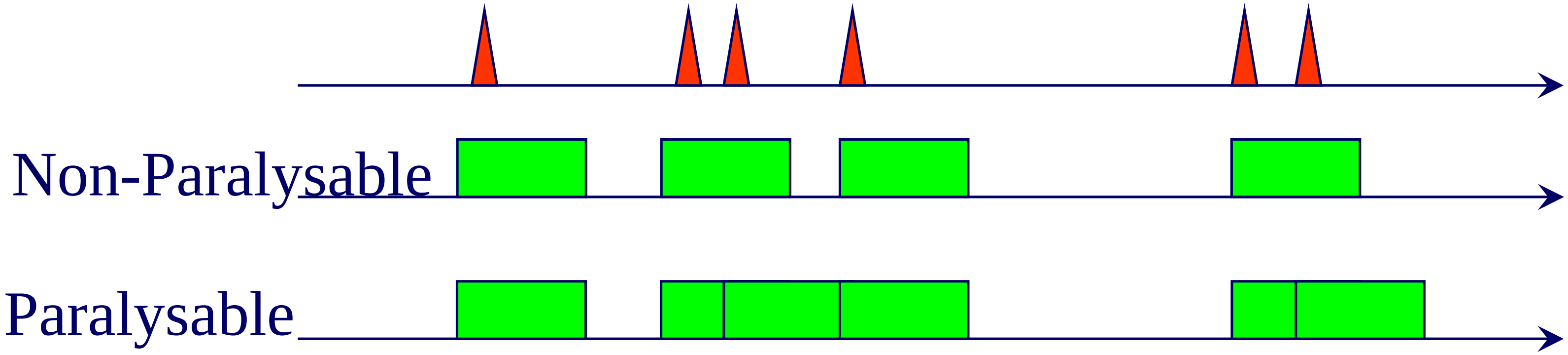
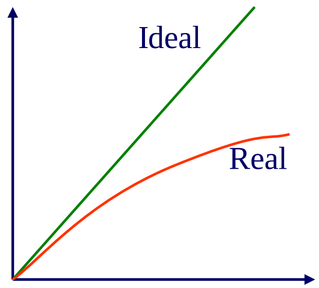
Dead Time

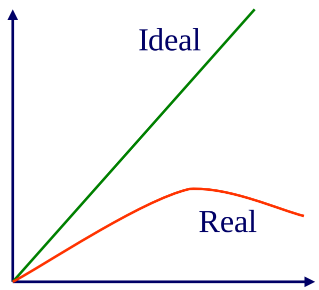


R_i=input rate, R_d=detected rate, τ dead time

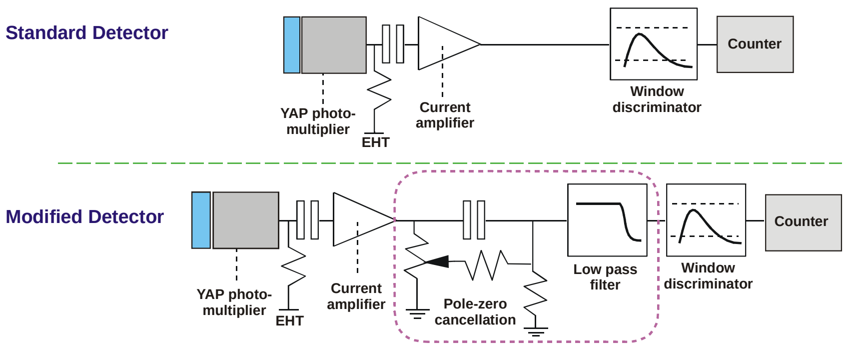
- Non-paralysable
  - Fraction of time detector is dead = $R_d\,\tau$
  - Live time is therefore = $1 - R_d\,\tau$
  - Input rate = $R_i = R_d/(1 - R_d\,\tau)$

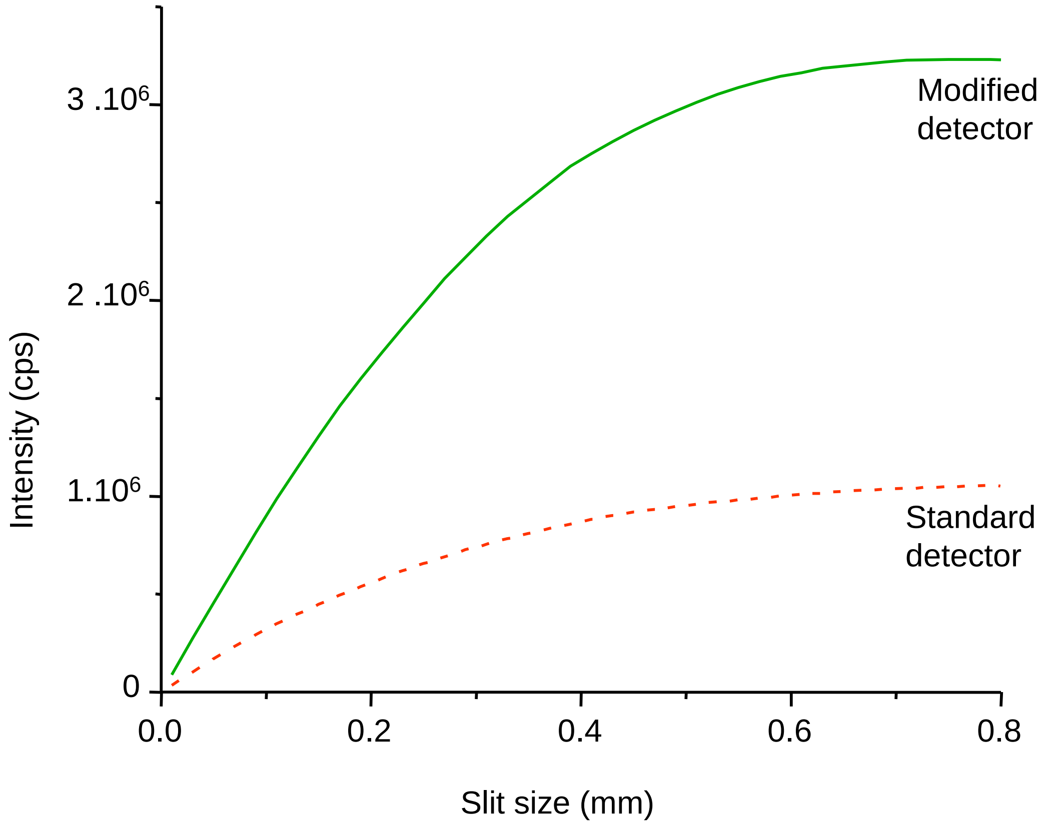


- Paralysable
  - R_d = Probability of getting no event within τ of an event
  - Probability of n events in time t is $P(n,t) = \dfrac{e^{-R_i t}(R_i t)^n}{n!}$
  - Detected rate $R_d = P(0,\tau) = R_i e^{-R_i \tau}$



EDR Detector for Powder Diffraction



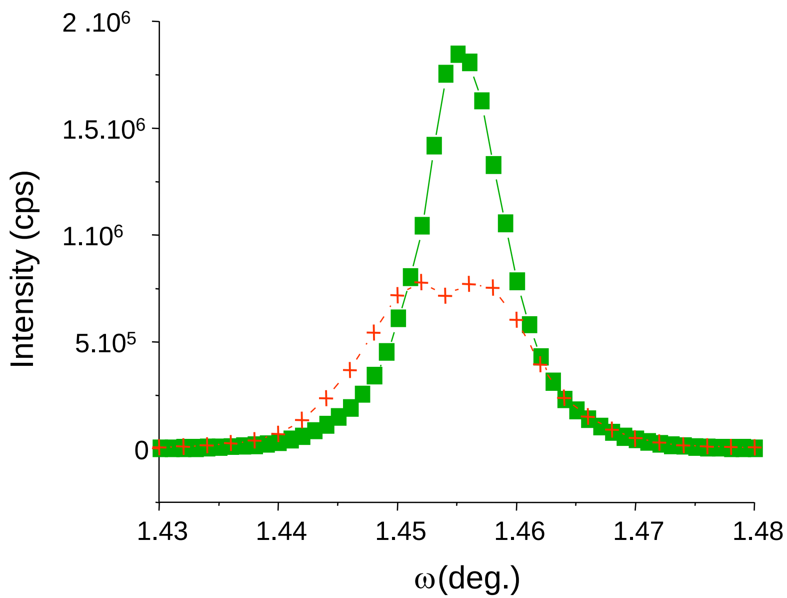


Standard detector

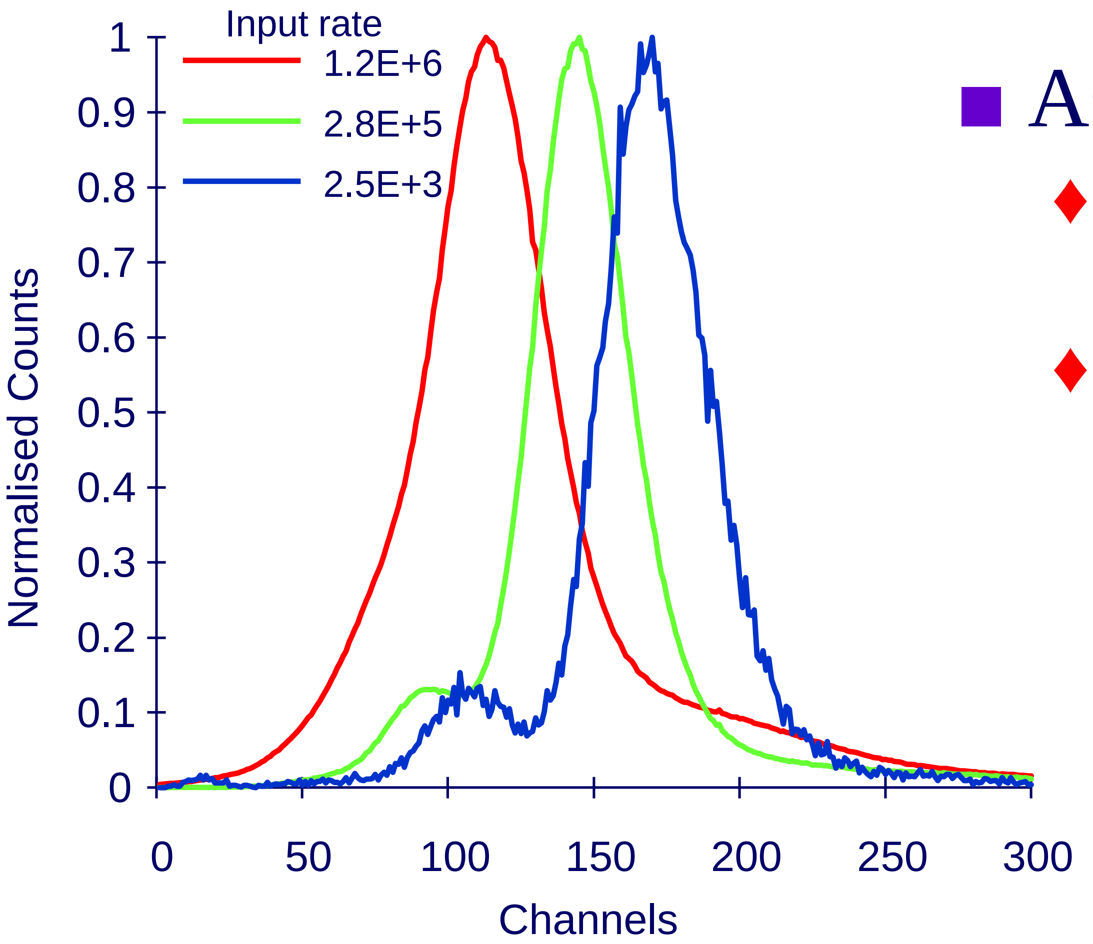
- Saturation count rate: 1 MHz
- Linear region: up to 300 kHz
- Electronic background: 0.2 cps
- Energy range: 4-25 keV

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

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 SNR = $n/\sqrt{n} = \sqrt{n}$
- As n increases, SNR improves

Performance Measure - DQE

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

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

Can define $N_{photons}$ describes real SNR

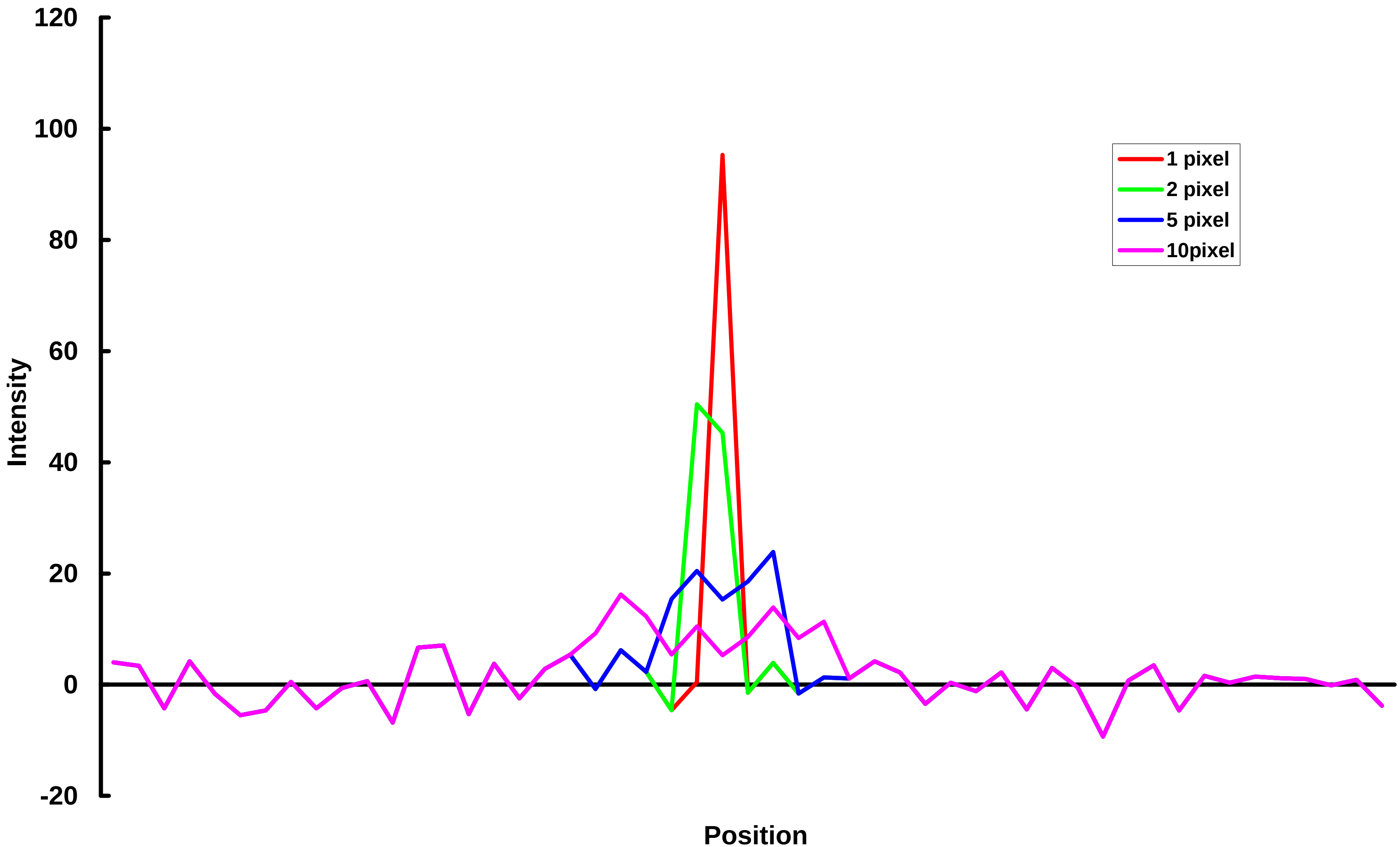
$$NEQ = SNR^2{}_{Non-ideal}$$

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

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

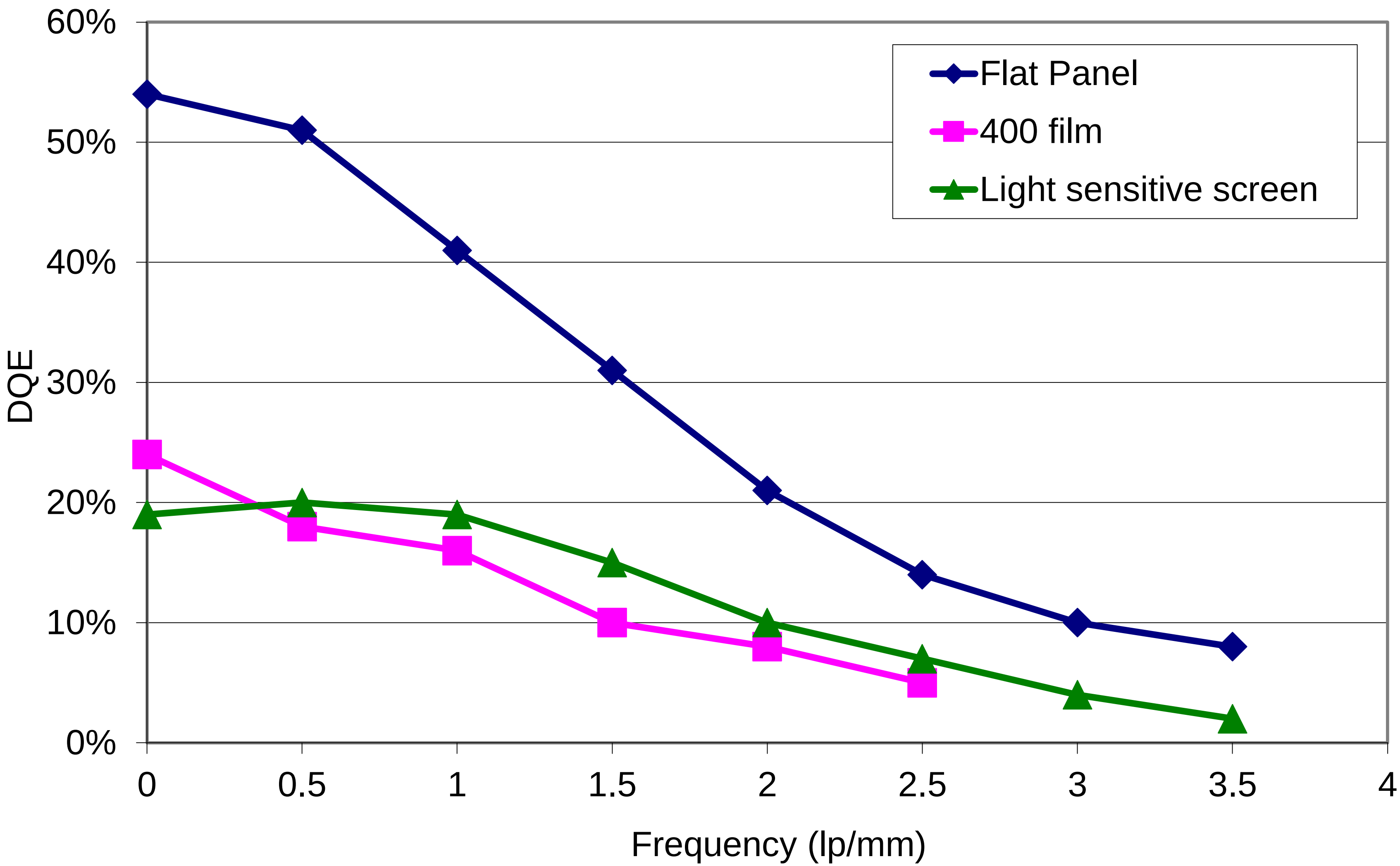
Note that DQE is f(spatial and spectral frequencies)

Effect of Peak Width

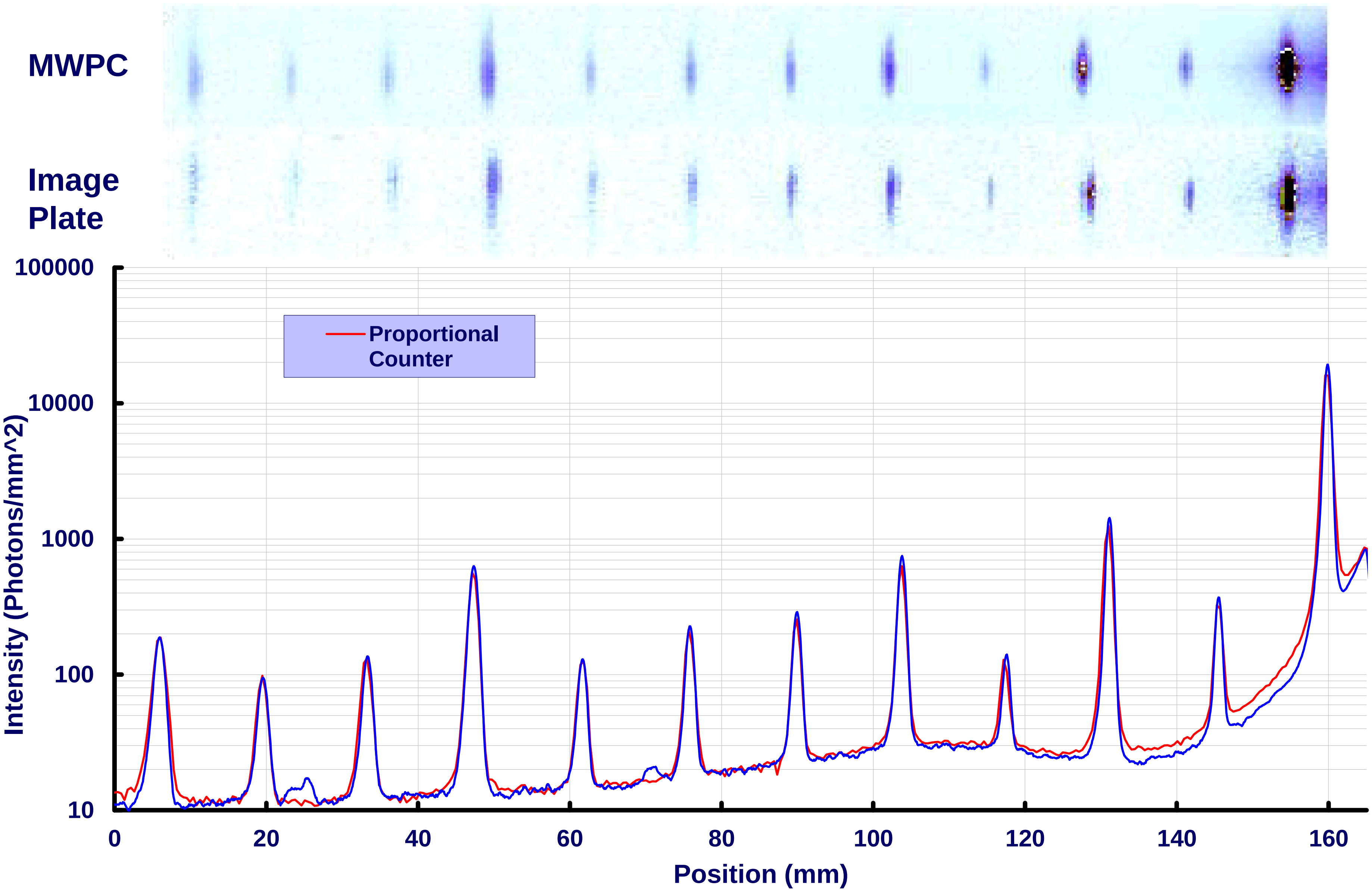


DQE Comparison

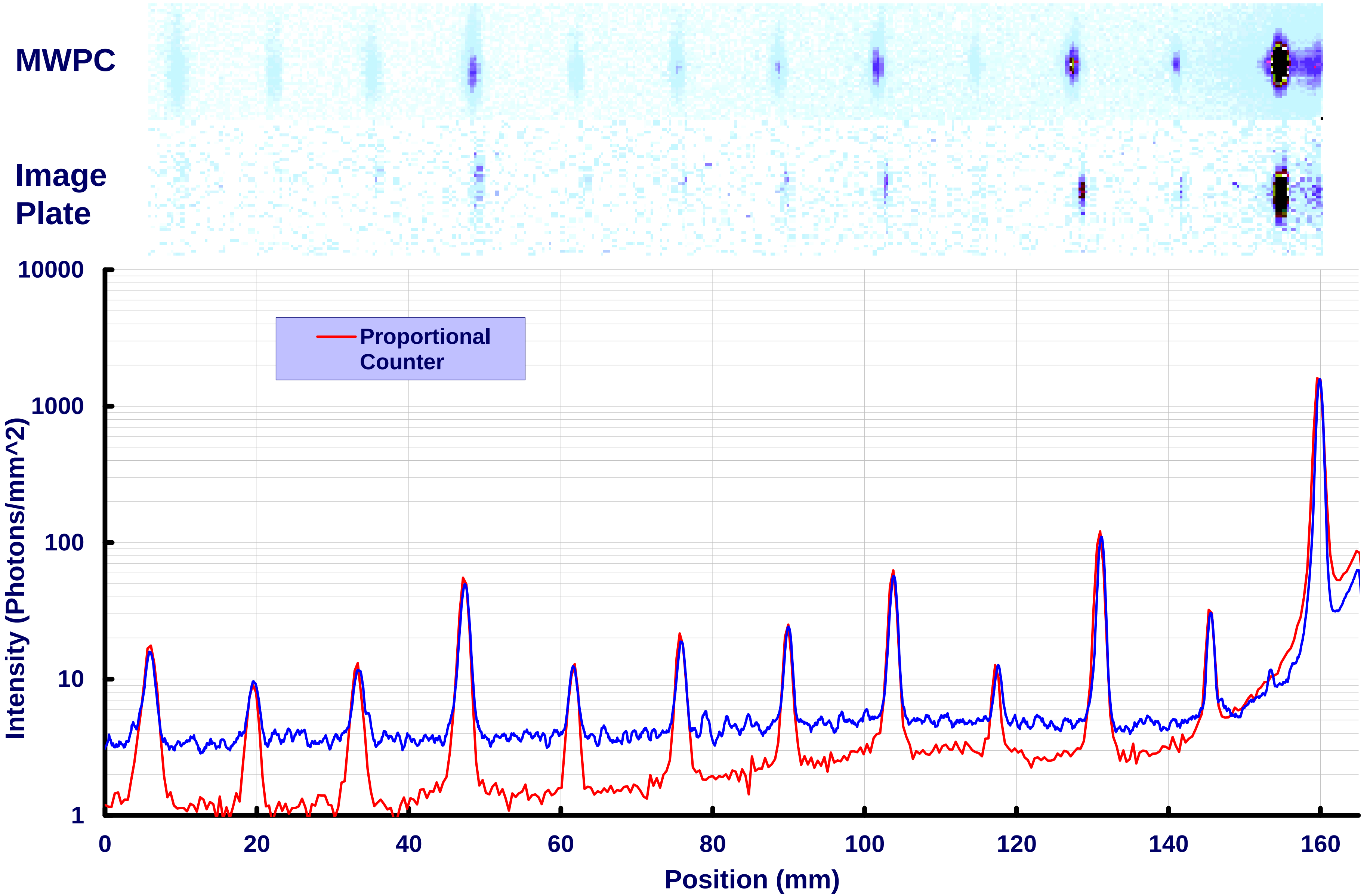
DN-5 beam
2.6μGy



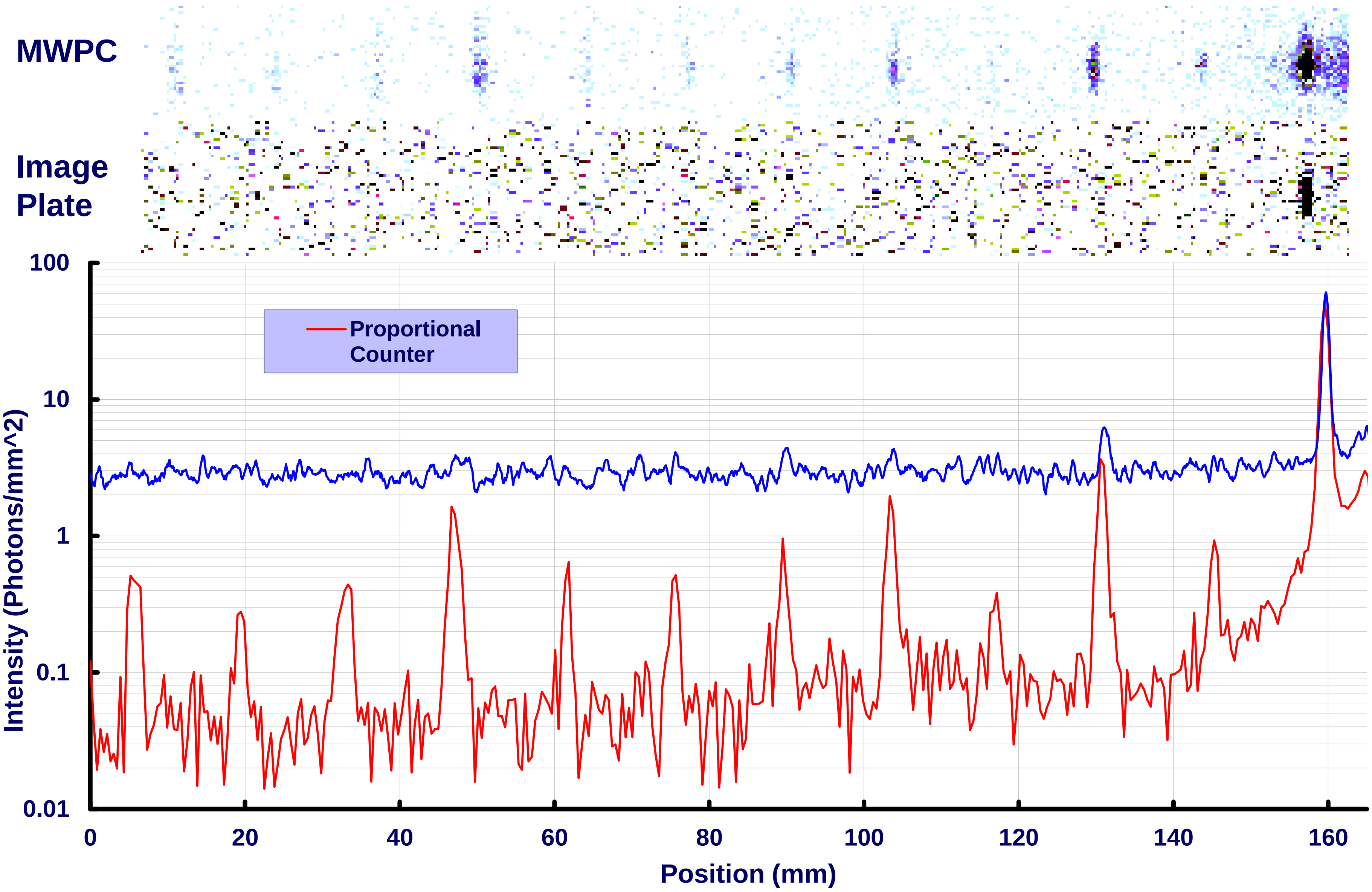
Collagen 100s Exposure



Collagen 10s Exposure

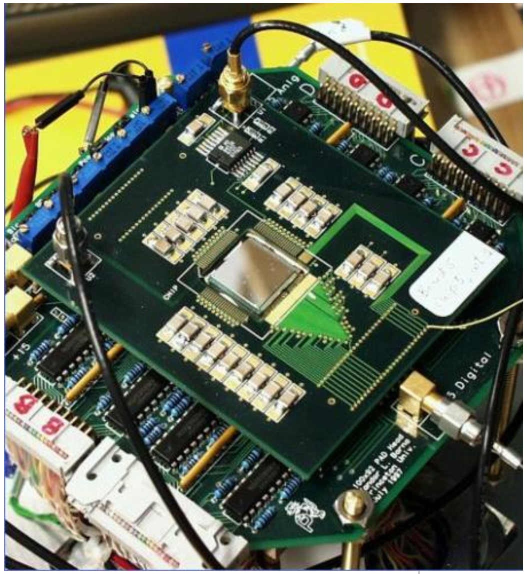


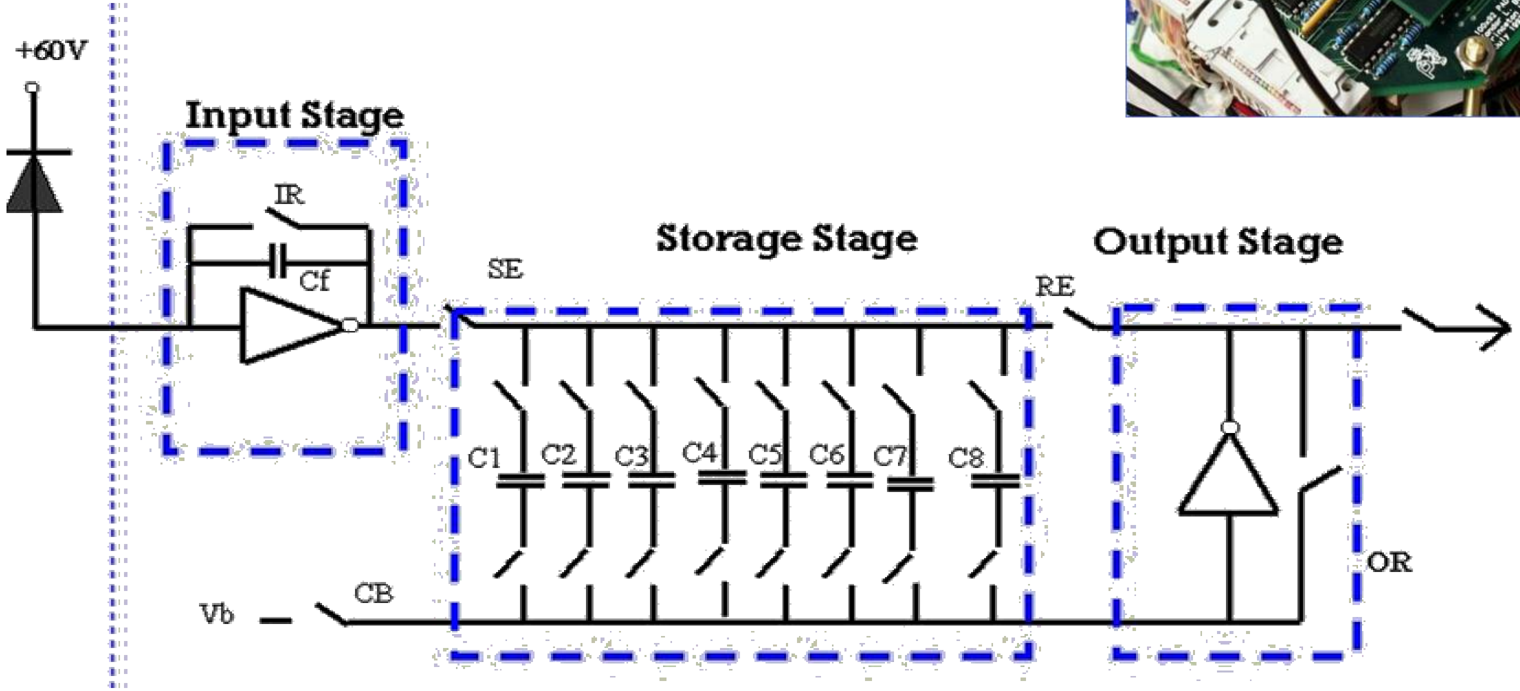
Collagen 0.3s Exposure



Cornell PAD (Integrating)

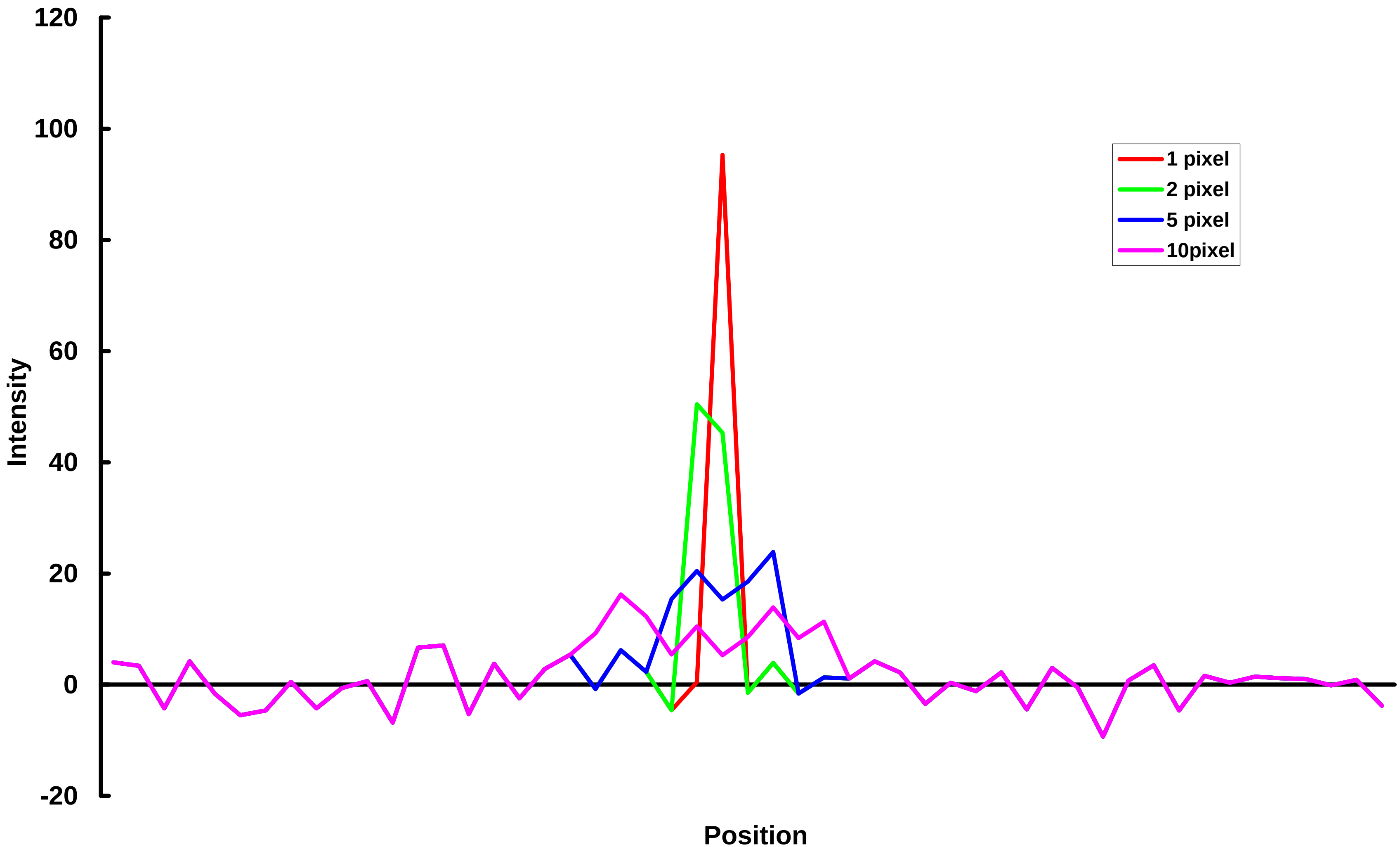
- Rapid Framing Imager
  - $15 \times 13.8 mm^2$ active area
  - 150µm square pixel
  - Storage for 8 frames
  - Selectable T_{int} down to 1µs
  - Deadtime < 1µs





Sol Gruner, Cornell

Effect of Peak Width



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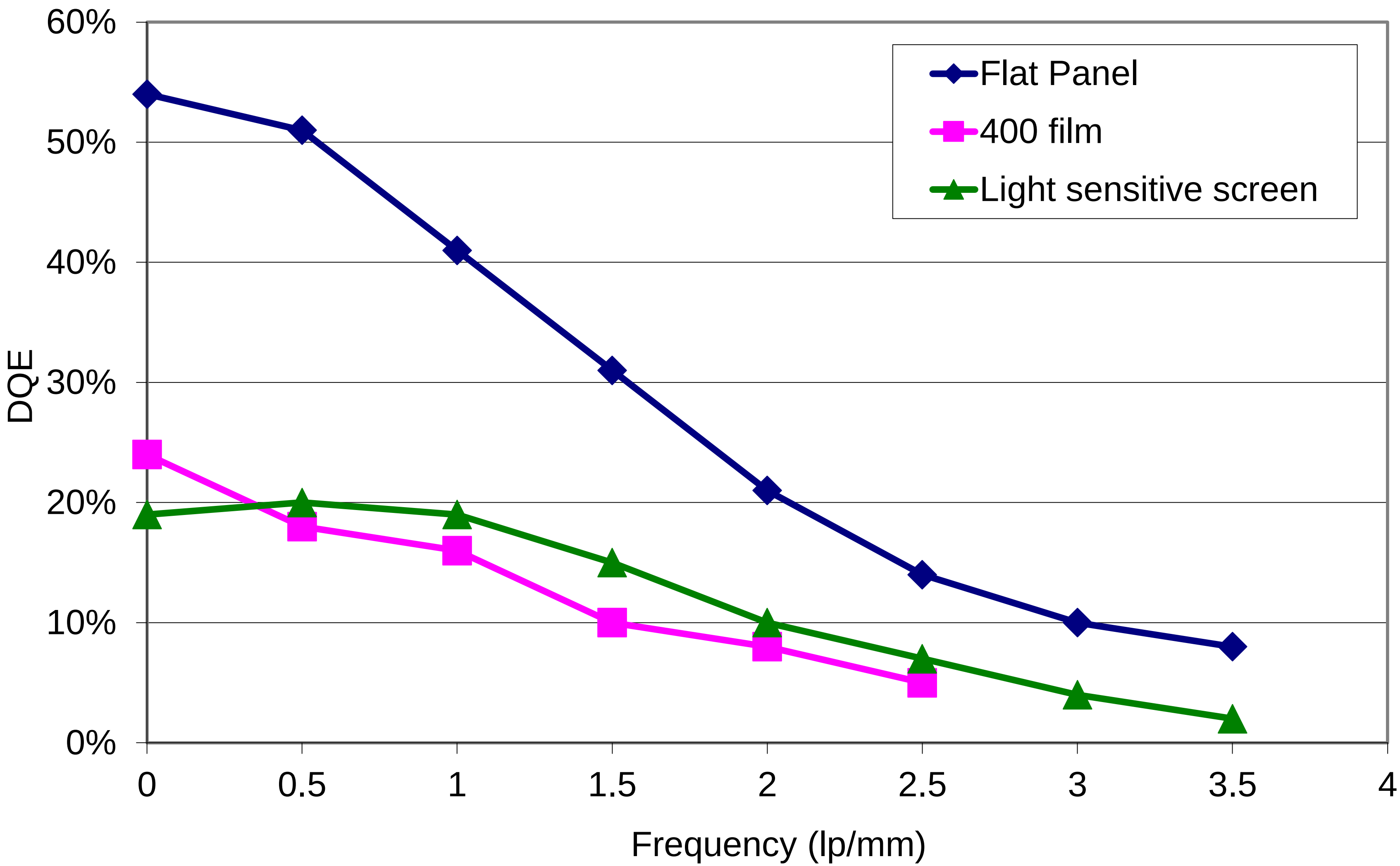
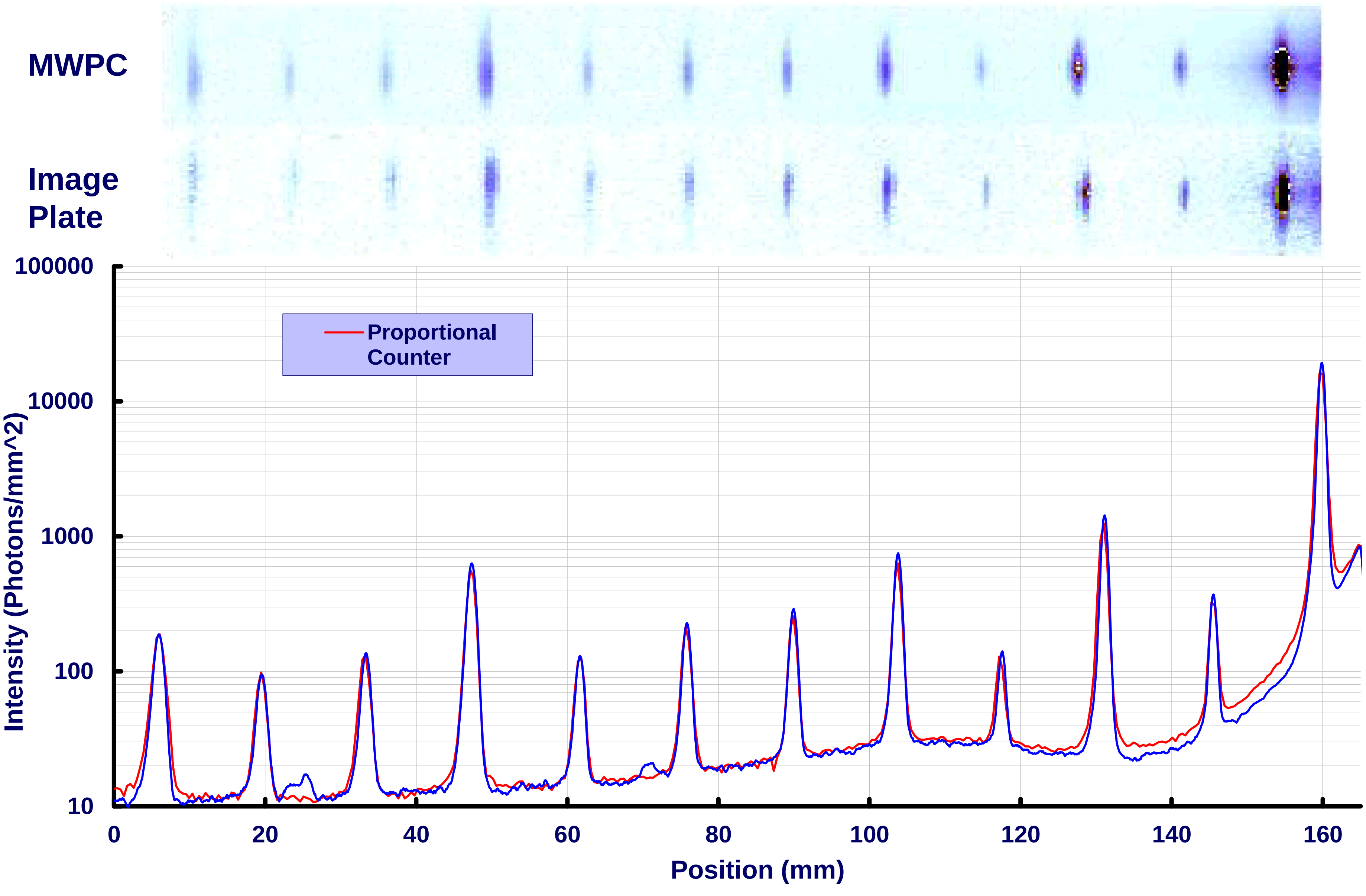


Collagen 100s Exposure



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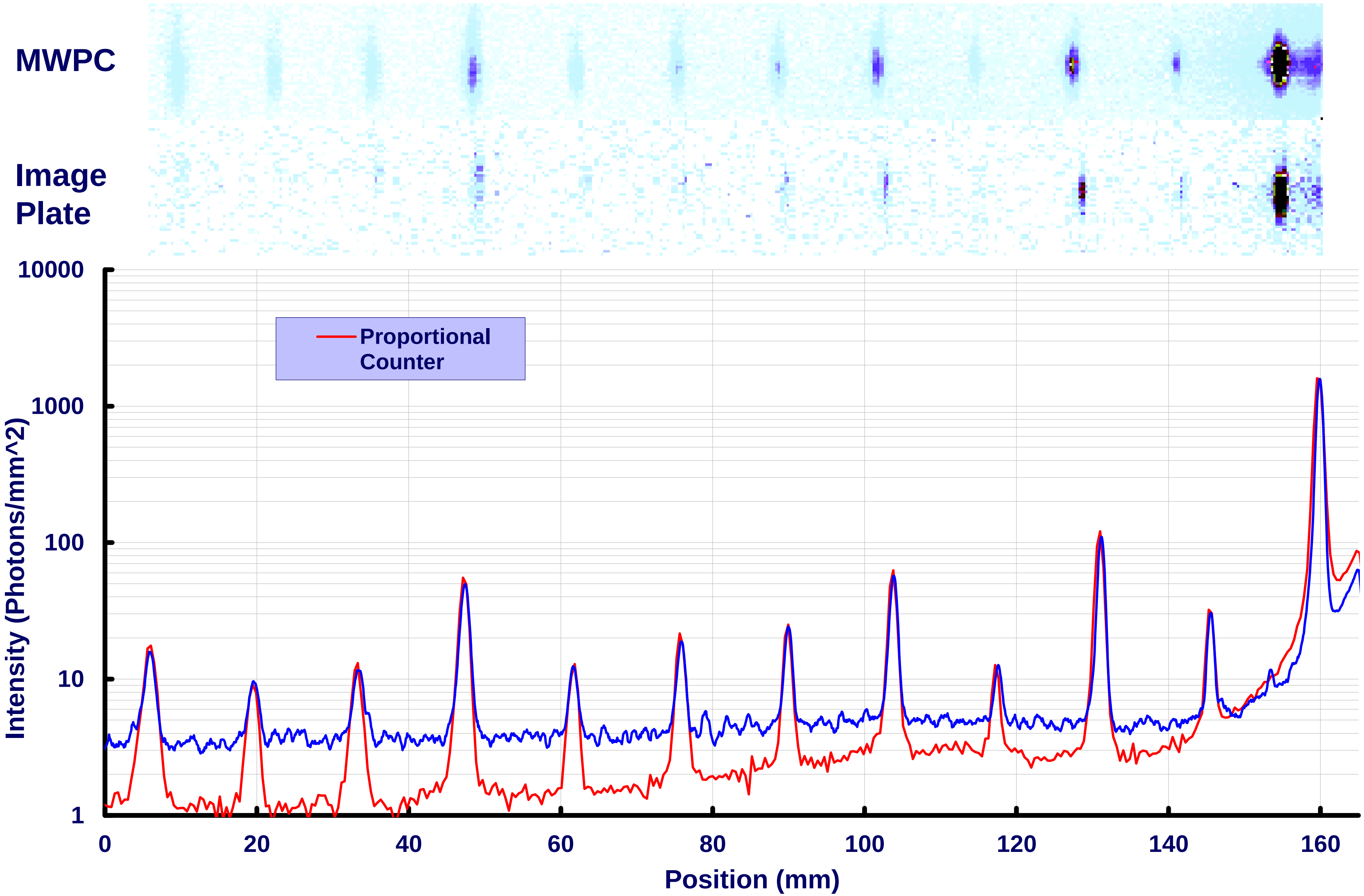
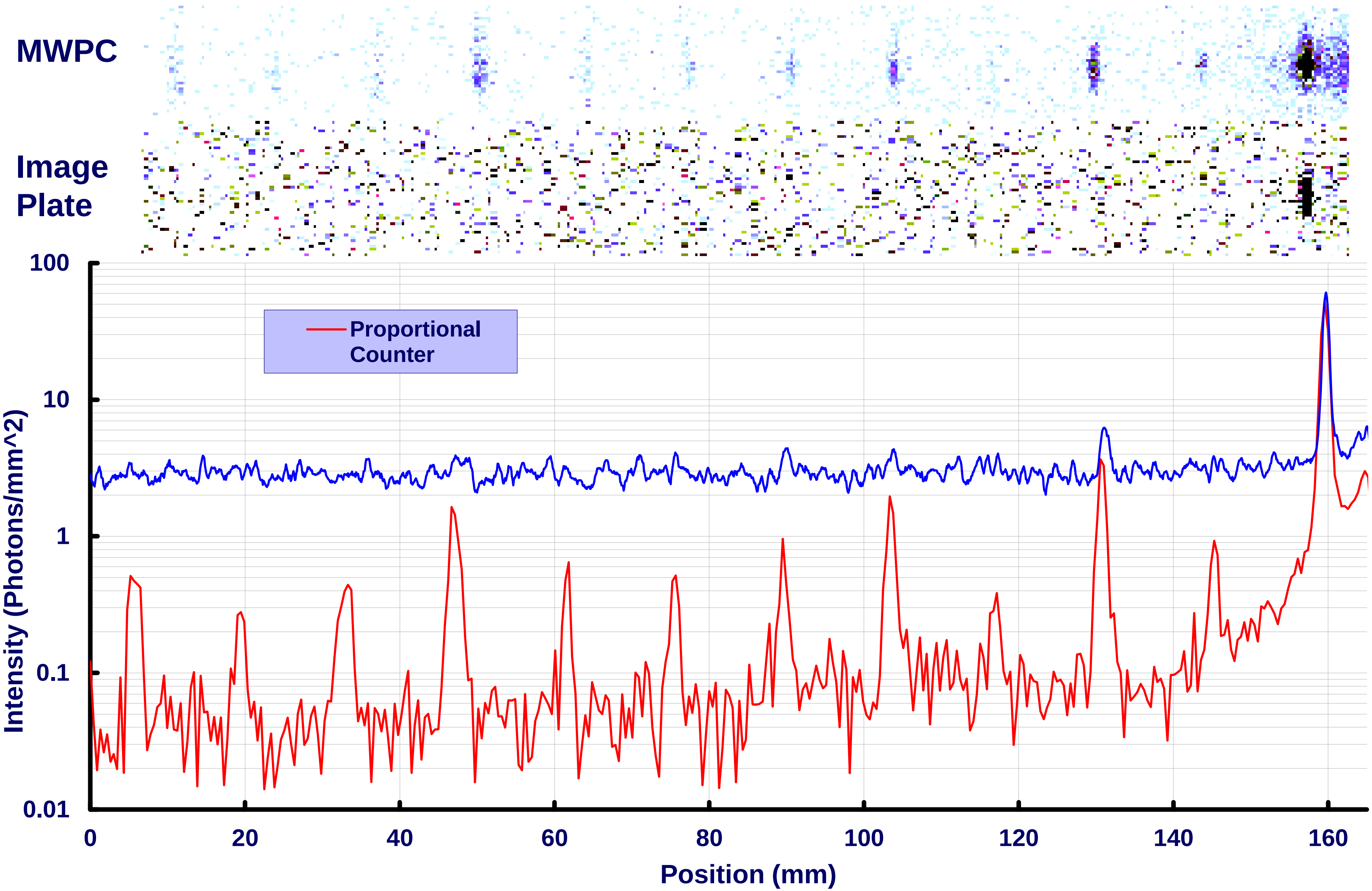


Collagen 0.3s Exposure



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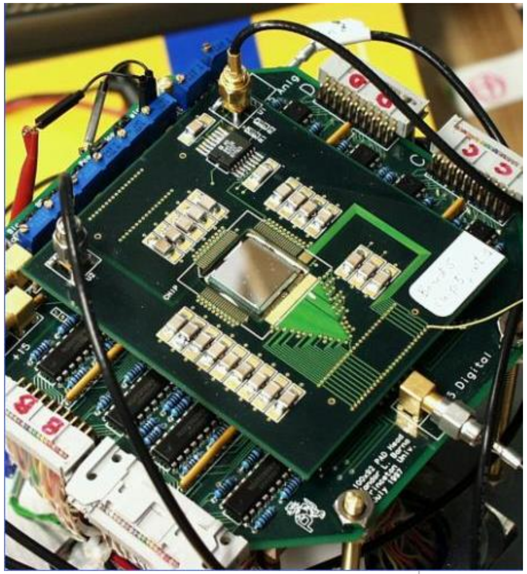
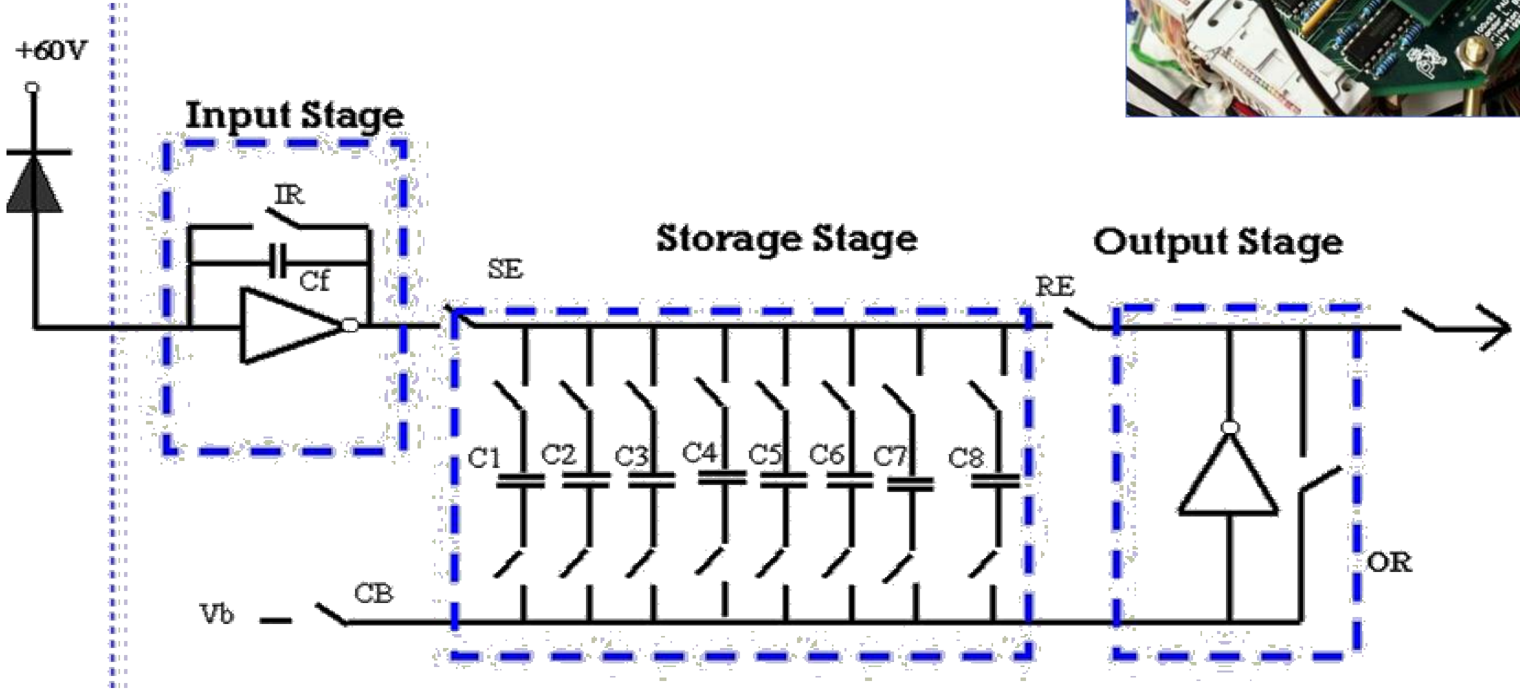




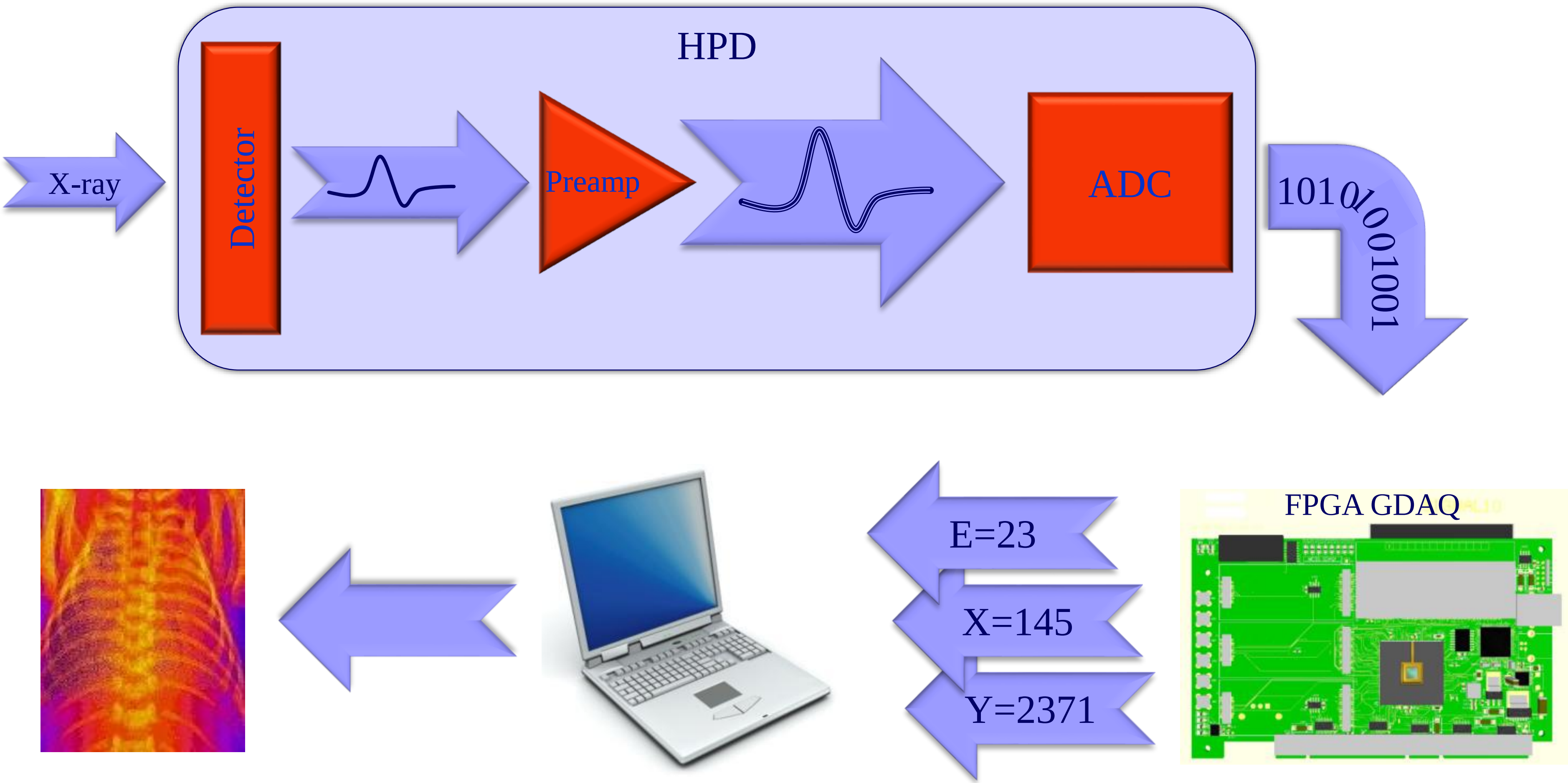
Sol Gruner, Cornell

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 5.13μs
  - Dead time 2.56μs / frame
  - 168 frames (21 groups of 8)
  - Average 20× to improve S/N
  - Sequence 5×10^4 images

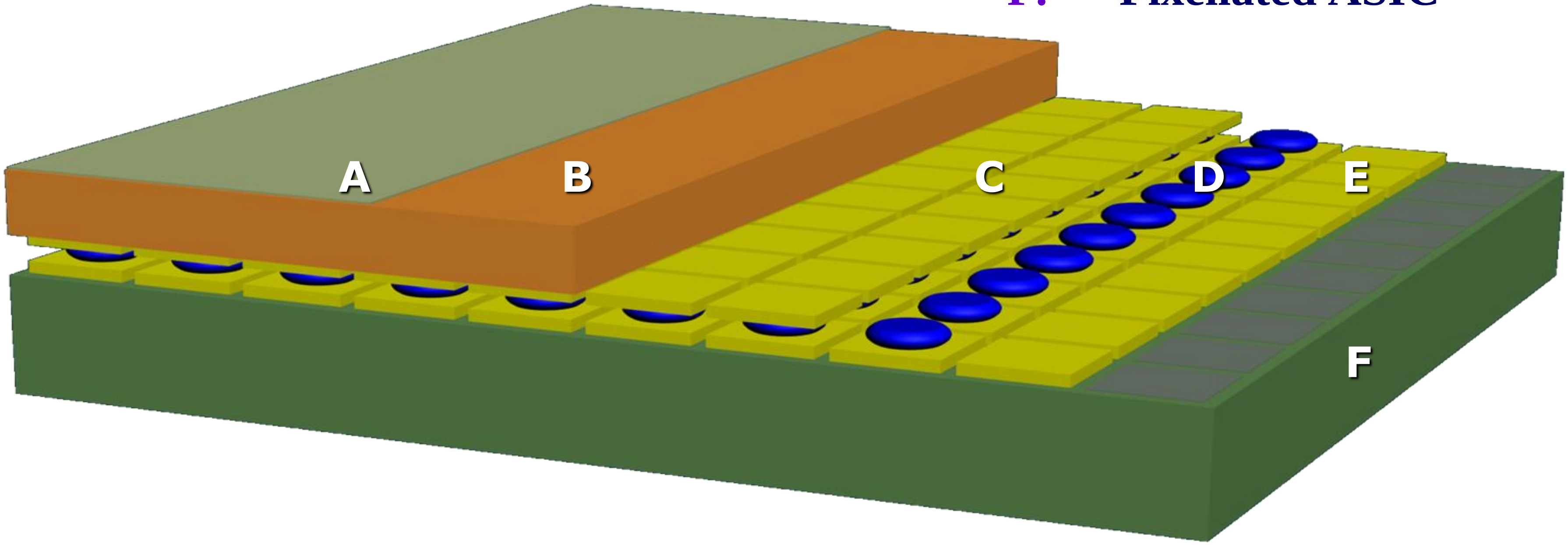
A. MacPhee et al, Science (2002) 295, 1761-1763

Combine Imaging and Spectroscopy



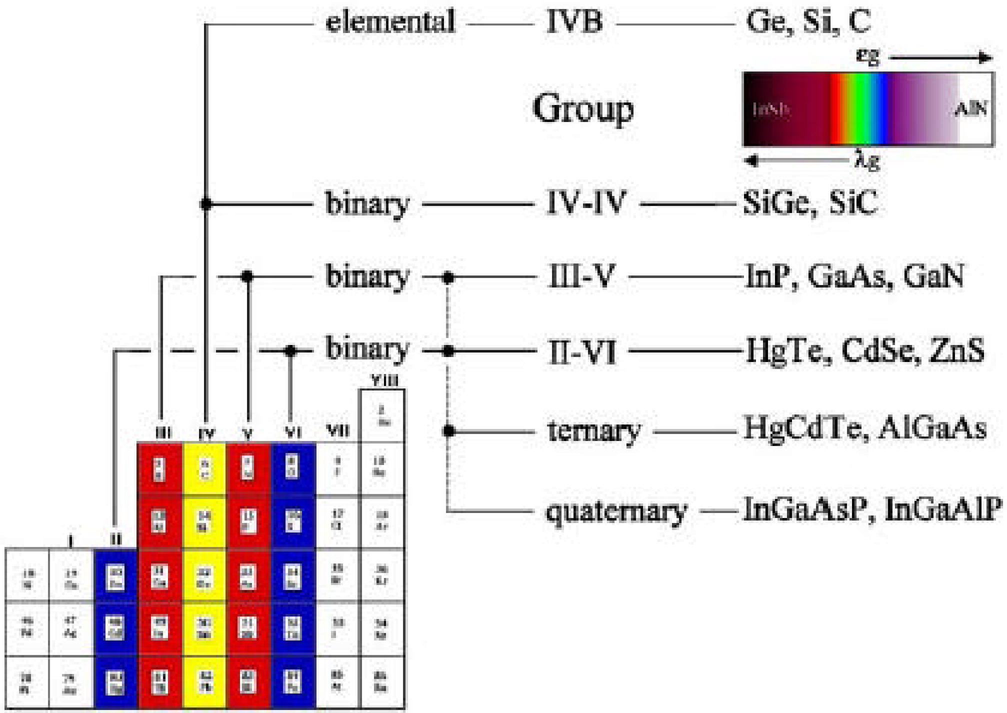
Pixel Array Detector

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



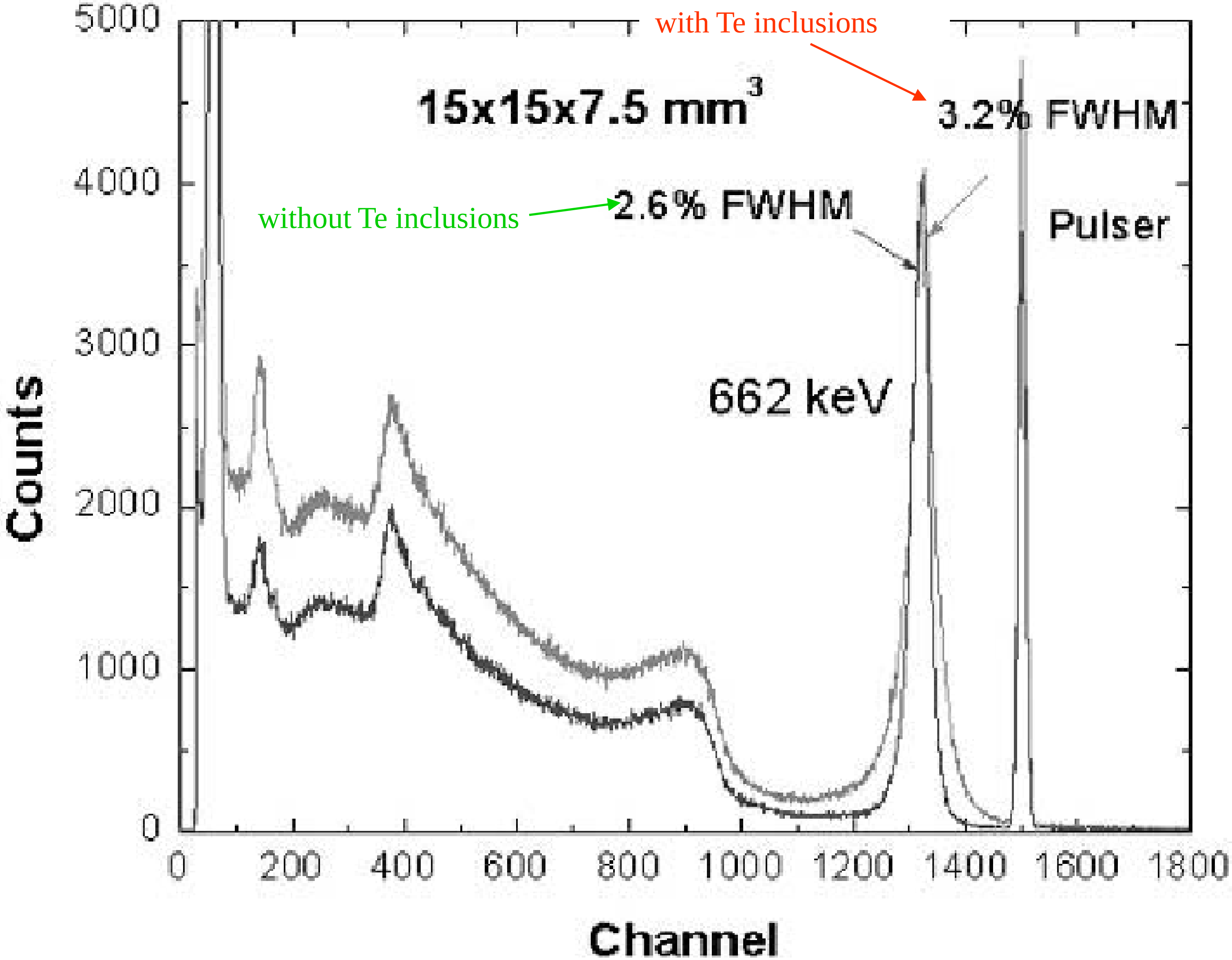
Available Compound Semiconductors

- 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

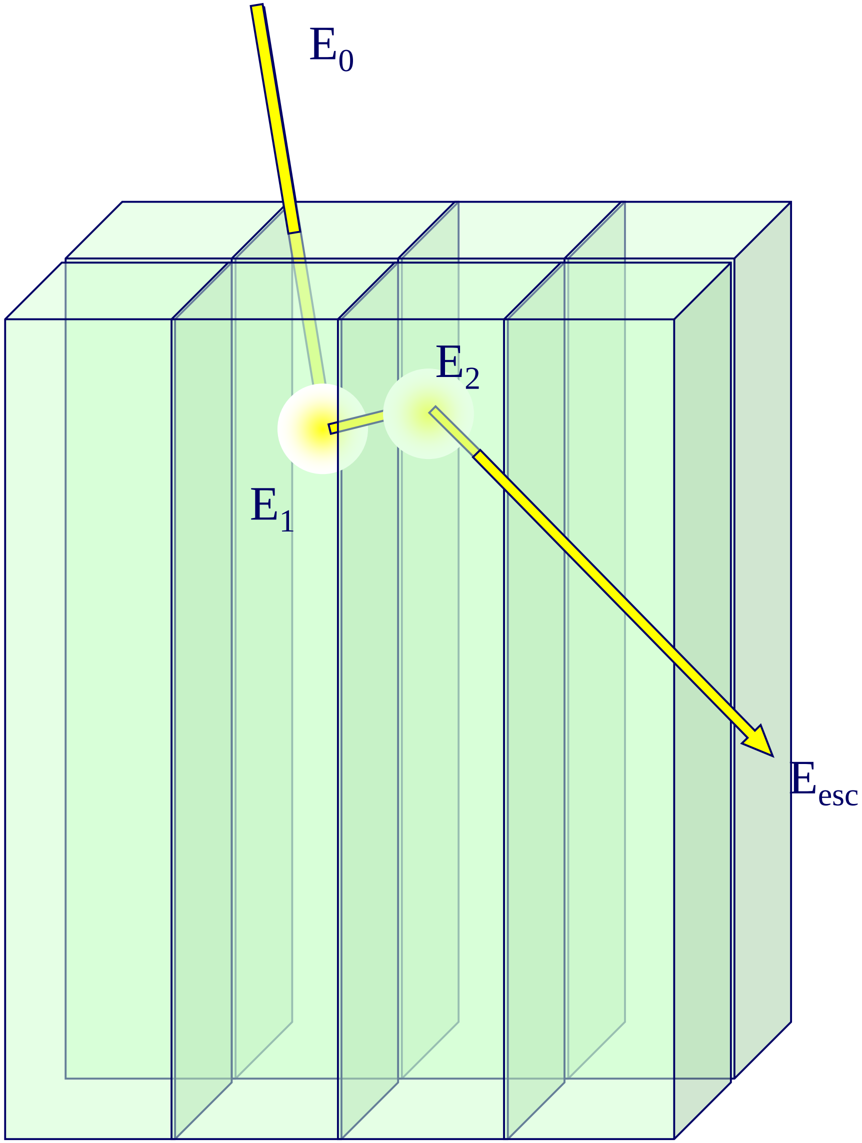


Paul Sellin, Surrey

CdZnTe Spectral Resolution



The Problem of Multiple Scatters

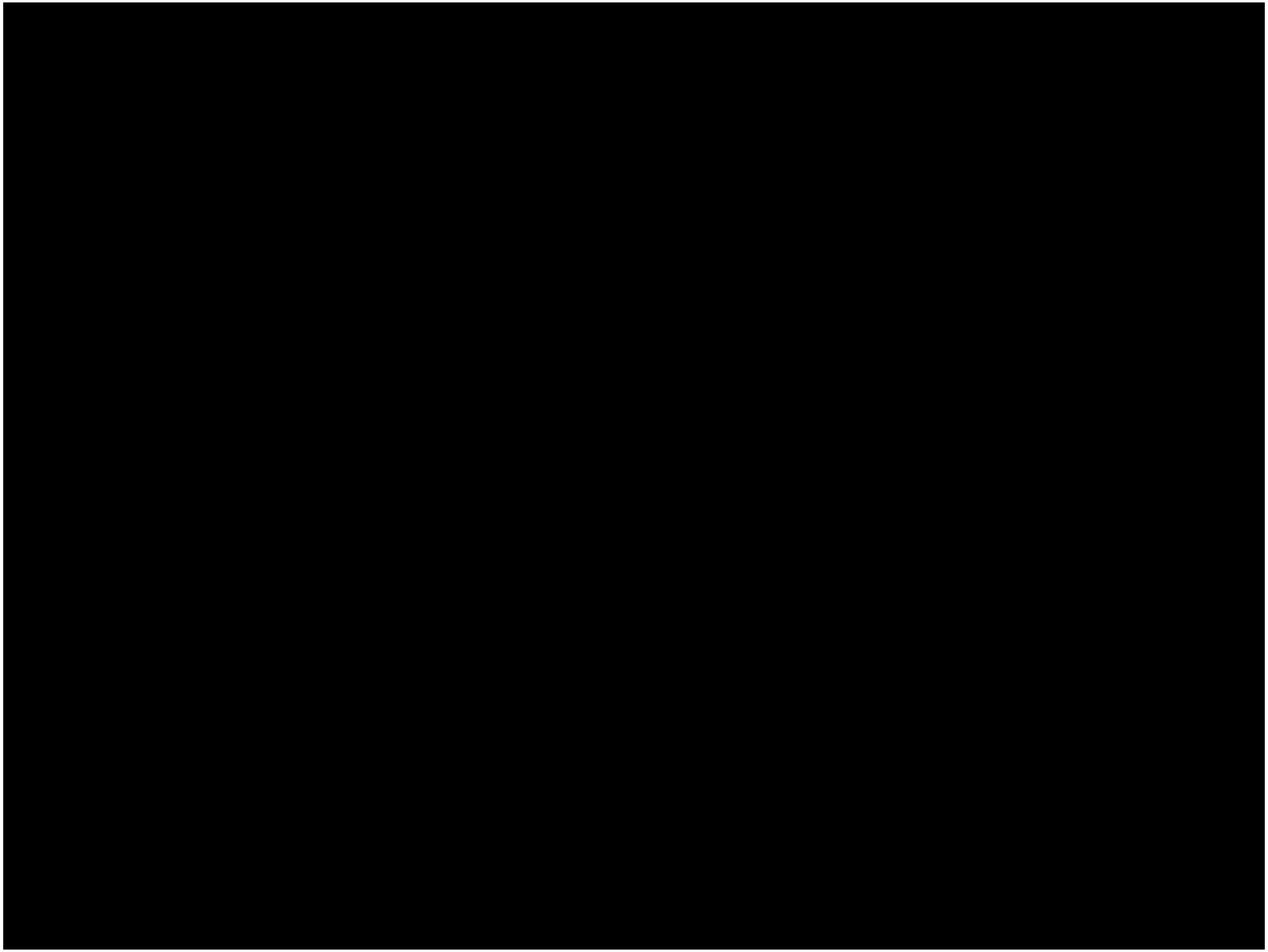


- Need to measure E_0
- $E_0=E_1+E_2+E_{esc}$
- Must be able to detect multiple deposits as single event
- Must minimise E_{esc}

Other Issues

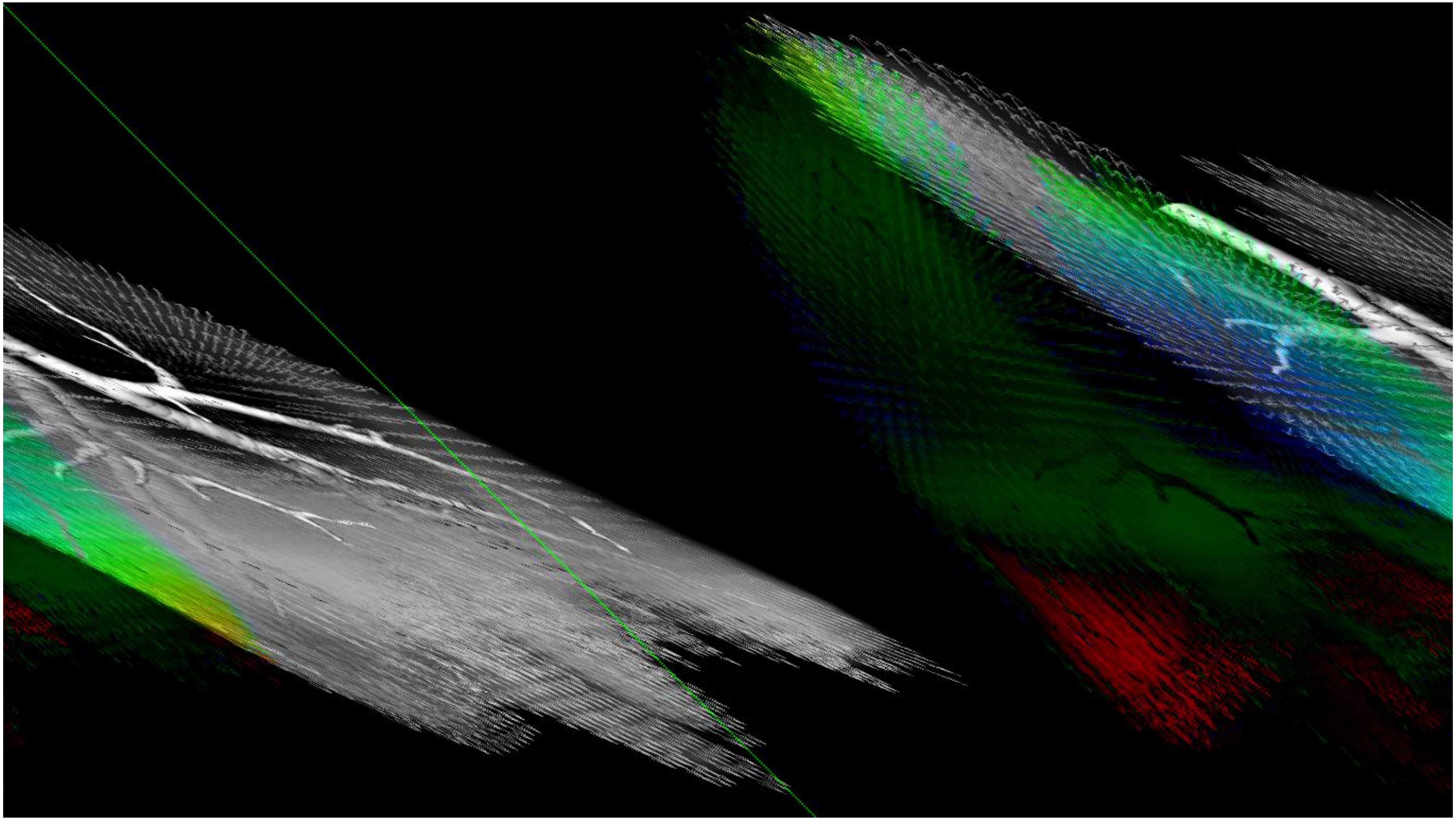
- In addition to detector performance metrics such as
  - Spatial resolution, Spectral resolution, etc.
- Often we need to measure **function** not form
- Requires that…
  - The detector respond to triggers
  - Be able to synchronise with other systems measuring multiple parameters
  - Do things like phase contrast

Whole Breath Lung Morphology



S Dubsky, A Fouras et al

4D PIV



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